

**SPORTS LEADERSHIP: AN EXPLORATION OF THE
PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SPORTS LEADERS
AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO COMMUNITY
SPORT**

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Abstract

Sports leadership has received increased promotion during the past two decades, as a tool for providing individuals with leadership skills and in contributing towards community sport development objectives. Sports Leaders UK (SLUK) play a key role in providing sports leadership training programmes in the UK, training over 200,000 leaders each year.

This aims of this research was to evaluate the work of SLUK, in contributing towards the development of sport the personal and career development of the leaders undertaking the awards. A mixed methods approach was adopted to achieve 'enhancement' of findings. The first quantitative phase involved binary logistic regression analysis of SLUK's candidate database (n=76,179) and set out to identify the predictor variables associated with award completion. The second quantitative phase provided analysis of surveys (n=76), and set out to explore relationships between the leaders' career and personal development and involvement in the SLUK awards. The final qualitative study sought to gain the views and perspectives of the sports leaders who had engaged with the SLUK awards through the use of semi-structured interviews (n=16). This study aimed to further investigate the impact of SLUK awards on career development and in contributing towards sport and other community outcomes.

Results showed that the SLUK awards were perceived to contribute to developing sport, particularly within the school environment. Furthermore, with the training and development of more sports leaders who are actively leading sport, more opportunities were found to be provided across the UK. Engagement in the awards was found to increase feelings of self-worth, which in turn helped build self-esteem and confidence in the leaders. Important factors which appeared to be associated with award completion and continued leadership behaviour included location of the award (i.e. centre type) and choice of participation in the awards.

The research provides original contribution to knowledge by exploring the impact of SLUK awards on the leaders' personal development and community sport. Future delivery of sports leadership needs to be focused in communities if sports leaders are to make the transition from schools to community clubs and continue volunteering. Support from mentors was found to be crucial in ensuring that sports leaders sustain their voluntary leadership.

Author's Declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text. No part of the thesis has been submitted as part of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education institution in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University of Gloucestershire.

Signed Date

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Publications

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Professional Publications

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List of Abbreviations

CAQDAS	Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
CCPR	Central Council of Physical Recreation
CSLA	Community Sport Leaders Award
DCMS	Department for Culture, Media and Sport
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DNH	Department of National Heritage
GTM	Grounded Theory Methodology
HSLA	Higher Sports Leaders Award
IMD	Index of Multiple Deprivation
LA	Local Authority
LEA	Local Education Authority
MV	Millennium Volunteers
NGB	National Governing Body of Sport
NSPD	National Statistics Postcode Directory
OA	Output Area
ONS	Office for National Statistics
PE	Physical Education
PESSCL	Physical Education and School Sport Club Links
SLUK	Sports Leaders UK
SSC	Specialist Sports College
‘V’	Vinspired – Volunteering charity
YST	Youth Sport Trust

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.0 Background to the problem

The role of coaches and volunteers is recognised as being central to the development and sustainability of UK sport (Taylor, Nichols, Holmes *et al.*, 2003; Sport Wales, 2010a; Nichols, 2003; Gaskin, 2008). Sport in the UK has traditionally been organised by the voluntary sector and government interest in its delivery has only been apparent in the past forty years or so (Holt and Mason, 2000; Coalter, 2007a). Over the past two decades, sport policy has demonstrated a shift between sporting objectives and wider social benefits (Houlihan and White, 2002). The publication of '*Game Plan*' (DCMS, 2002: 7) stated that sport can “help to improve all round educational performance, to build confidence, leadership and teamwork in young people, to combat social exclusion, reduce crime and build stronger communities”. Sport and physical activity is also seen as a tool for tackling obesity and other health issues as set out in the Chief Medical Officer’s report '*At least five a week*' (Department of Health, 2004) and '*Start Active, Stay Active*' (Department of Health, 2011). Nevertheless, contemporary policy places far more of an emphasis on achieving sport for sport’s sake objectives; largely given the successful bid of London to host the Olympic Games in 2012 (Green, 2006). However, irrespective of the focus of sports policy, the need for a motivated and committed workforce remains central to the future success of grassroots sport, increasing participation levels and the subsequent community benefits which may follow.

The past decade has seen a wealth of literature published on volunteering characteristics, behaviours and motivations (Davis-Smith, 1998; Davis Smith, Ellis and Howlett, 2002; Gaskin, 1998; 2004; Low, Butt, Ellis-Payne and Davis Smith, 2008; NatCen, 2011). Yet, research examining the impact of volunteers, particularly within

sport, is less common (Taylor, *et al.*, 2003; Welch and Long, 2006; Gaskin, 2008). Researchers have expressed a concern that the number of people volunteering has decreased since 1991 due to a lack of time (Davis Smith, 1998; Nichols, Taylor, James *et al.*, 2005). Unsurprisingly, this has placed increased pressure on voluntary organisations, including community sports clubs, who are so heavily reliant on volunteers (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). This concern over the apparent decline of coaches and volunteers has resulted in National Governing Bodies of Sport (NGBs) and the Sports Councils (Sport England, Sport Wales and Sport Scotland) placing a priority on the recruitment and development of sports volunteers and coaches (Sport England, 2008; Sports Council for Wales, 2005; Sport Wales; 2010b). Furthermore, a number of government-funded initiatives have been implemented with a similar aim of promoting volunteerism, particularly among young people (e.g. Millennium Volunteers, Step into Sport, Vinspired). The Youth Sport Trust (YST), a charity tasked with the role of increasing levels of participation in schools has played a key role in ensuring that all young people are given the opportunity to participate in sport throughout their school lives. Complementing these schemes, the range of related training courses and resources has increased, with organisations such as SportsCoach UK and Sports Leaders UK providing materials to ‘upskill’ individuals to become effective coaches and leaders of sport. These training organisations also claim to be making a difference to the numbers of coaches and volunteers assisting with sport at the grassroots level. However, as is the case with many government funded initiatives, the evidence base supporting the extent of these claims is somewhat lacking (Long, 2008).

The past two years has seen a change in government with the current Conservative and Liberal Democrat (ConDem) coalition coming into power in May 2010. Faced with the task of pulling the UK out of recession, public spending cuts illustrated a significant move away from the previous Labour government’s investment in UK sport and

volunteering (Rochester, Ellis and Howlett, 2010; NatCen, 2011). Prime Minister, David Cameron's flagship strategy the 'Big Society' is intended as one means by which a financially broken Britain can be mended, through providing alternatives to an expensive and inefficient public sector (Evans, 2011). This has placed an increased emphasis on the third sector and voluntary organisations to deliver community services, but at reduced cost. Inevitably, organisations such as YST which is reliant on government funding for delivering sporting objectives have been forced to make changes in their approach to developing school sport to ensure that positive steps made are not lost (YST, 2010). Similarly, organisations such as Sports Leaders UK (SLUK) have also had to make changes to their current priorities, to ensure that they continue to make an impact where sport is most needed, whilst remaining financially secure. Moreover, there is an increasing need for organisations such as SLUK to provide empirical evidence to support the effectiveness of its work if it is to be successful in securing future funding. Often, research methods that attempt to evaluate government-funded interventions adopt a purely quantitative approach. Difficulties with these approaches arise when the outcomes that are being measured cannot necessarily be quantified (e.g. self-esteem, confidence) (Long, 2008). Therefore, there is a need to explore alternative methodologies which are more appropriate to the evaluation of the social impact of such interventions. This research project therefore sets out to provide credible and robust evidence through adopting appropriate methodologies which aim to examine the impact that SLUK and other volunteer and sports leadership providers, have on the development of community sport. This therefore brings us on to the next section which looks in more detail at the role of SLUK, their organisational objectives, and the key aims of this research project.

1.1 The Research Problem - Evaluating sports leadership

Sports Leaders UK (SLUK) is a charity that provides leadership training resources to schools, colleges and community groups, and which currently train over 200,000 people each year to become sports leaders (Sports Leaders UK, 2010a). SLUK began operating in 1982, with its Community Sports Leaders Award (now known as the SLUK Level 2 award). This award was so successful, that it is still being offered to schools and community groups today. Over the past 20 years, SLUK has grown and developed, now offering a range of leadership awards for all ages including a Level 3 award in Higher Sports Leadership. Despite the growing success of the charity, more recent years have witnessed an increasingly competitive marketplace with a range of organisations vying for a role in the development of sport in the UK. This coincides with sport becoming an increasingly congested policy space, with sport being seen as an effective vehicle in achieving wider social problems, such as crime, youth delinquency and social exclusion (Collins and Kay, 2003; Coalter, 2007a; Hoye, Nicholson and Houlihan, 2010). This has resulted in a wider range of private and public bodies coming to the fore with the purpose of contributing to the development of sport and other social outcomes.

Anecdotal evidence from the sport and education sector suggests that SLUK is making a difference to the lives of the sports leaders that it trains, through instilling self-confidence and developing key skills, such as teamwork and communication. Such evidence also indicates that SLUK awards are having a positive impact in communities across the UK, helping to tackle social problems such as antisocial behaviour, youth delinquency and crime. Nevertheless, despite the fact that SLUK has delivered sports leadership awards for almost 30 years, as an organisation it has not conducted extensive empirical research into the impact of its award programmes, i.e. the extent to which they contribute to the achievement of sport and other community outcomes. SLUK have

therefore recognised that without this empirical evidence base to substantiate its claims, it will become increasingly difficult to lobby for future government funding and support. This is particularly important at a time when government is championing the third sector to make a difference in local communities, and when the importance of volunteers (in sport and elsewhere) is highly topical. This is especially true given the positive profile that the London 2012 Games Makers¹ received following the Olympics, with many in the sport industry now looking to reflect on what legacy may follow.

1.2 Research Objectives

Due to the lack of empirical evidence to support claims made by SLUK that its award programmes are effective in the development of sports leaders and community sport, SLUK commissioned the University of Gloucestershire to undertake research. In response, this thesis addresses key research questions which will provide hard evidence of the effectiveness and impact of SLUK which will assist in future delivery of their awards programmes. Fundamentally, the research examines the personal and social characteristics of the candidates undertaking the awards, and investigates the contribution that SLUK awards have on the career development of the sports leaders and on the development of community sport. In addressing these key areas, the research objectives are:

Objective 1: To investigate the association between the socio-demographics of sports leaders and whether they register for, engage in or attain certification for the Sports Leaders Level two and three awards.

¹ 'Games Makers' was the name given to the 70,000 volunteers who helped to deliver the London 2012 Olympic Games

Objective 2: To investigate the perceived impact of attaining a Sports Leaders UK Level three award on leaders' personal and career development, from the perspective of the leaders who undertake the awards.

Objective 3: To investigate the perceived impact of sports leadership on sport development and the wider community, from the perspective of the leaders who undertake the awards.

These research objectives manifest themselves in the following research questions:

1. What socio-demographic factors are associated with whether candidates register for, engage with or complete a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award?
2. What perceived impact does engaging with a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award have on the personal and career development of the sports leaders?
3. What perceived impact does sports leadership have on the development of sport and the wider community from the perspective of the sports leaders?

Addressing these questions may also help to inform other organisations and researchers of sport in identifying the role that sports leadership can have on community sport. Furthermore, this research adds the existing evidence base for volunteering in sport, thereby offering evidence to policymakers and government of the importance of leaders and volunteers to the development and sustainability of UK sport. The contribution to knowledge that this research project makes is based on the impact that SLUK awards have on the career development of sports leaders and to the development of sport and other community outcomes, given that no prior research into this has been conducted.

1.3 Structure of the thesis

The thesis consists of four parts. Part 1 provides the context for the study and encompasses three chapters. Chapter 2 provides a discussion of the political landscape within which the development of sport leadership is situated. Chapter 3 defines sport leadership within the context of this thesis and reviews research into this area. The final chapter in Part 1, Chapter 4, reviews the literature within the areas of sport leadership and volunteering; community sport development; and the use of sport as a social tool.

Part 2 provides the methodology and methods for the research and comprises of 5 chapters. Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the epistemological and methodological considerations for the study, including the mixed methods research design chosen. Chapter 6 provides the method used for study 1; the quantitative analysis of the sports leaders database. Chapter 7 provides the procedures used for study 2; a survey conducted to gain details of sports leader career development. Finally in this section, Chapter 8 provides a description of the method adopted for the final study, which were the semi-structured interviews with sports leaders to gain their views and experiences of the SLUK awards and the perceived impact that the awards have on community sport.

Part 3 presents the findings from each of the qualitative and quantitative research phases. Following a logical format, Chapter 10 provides the findings of the sports leaders database analysis, Chapter 11 provides the findings from the sports leader survey, and Chapter 12 provides a discussion of the key findings from the interviews with sports leaders and the subsequent development of the conceptual model from the qualitative data analysis.

Finally, Part 4 presents the discussions and conclusions of the research. Chapter 13 presents a discussion of the findings in relation to answering the research questions, followed by an integrated discussion of the findings. Chapter 13 provides the final

conclusions, reflections and limitations of the research process, followed by implications for practice and future research, which are discussed in the final Chapter 14.

PART 1

Part 1 contains 3 chapters which provide contextual background to sports leadership and draws on recent literature. Chapter 2 provides a discussion of the political backdrop to the work of Sports Leaders UK (SLUK) and underpins the theoretical framework within which the thesis sits. As with many public sector bodies within sport and elsewhere, the role of government policy, both from a financial and outcome driven perspective is highly influential in steering the direction of such organisations. This chapter therefore provides the rationale for SLUK's core aims and research objectives, against a constantly shifting political backdrop.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the formation and development of Sports Leaders UK since its inception in 1982. The history of its sports leadership award programmes will also be explored. This will provide a necessary picture of how SLUK has evolved and the current challenges facing the organisation amidst the current socio-political landscape.

Chapter 4 discusses current literature surrounding community sport development and sports leadership. This includes a critical review of initiatives and interventions within the field of community sport. Key areas of discussion include: volunteering in sport; interventions which achieve both sport and non-sport objectives; physical activity and health; and the link between sports leadership, personal development and career progression. This discussion will locate the current study within the context of sport development, policy and research in the UK.

Chapter 2

The Sport Policy Context – Shaping Sports Leadership

2.0 Introduction

The contemporary nature of sport in the UK is complex and continually changing amidst the influence of Government policy. The inclusion of sport within public policy has become popular in recent decades in many developed countries, with governments outlining the economic, social and cultural benefits of sport (Bergsgard, Houlihan, Mangset, *et al.*, 2007). This chapter provides a brief overview of the key political milestones which have played a crucial role in shaping the current sporting climate in the UK. Furthermore, it provides the context within which this research and the work of SLUK sit. Finally, current sport policy is examined to locate the role of sports leadership in the delivery of sport policy objectives.

2.1 The Early Years of UK Government and Sport

Over the past 40 years, UK government policy has played a key role in shaping sport. As a result, sport has undergone dramatic change. Prior to 1960, there was little government involvement in the organisation and development of sport in Britain (Green, 2004; Coalter, 2007a). Instead, sport was left to the commitment and enthusiasm of the public which was part of the British volunteering tradition (Holt and Mason, 2000). It was not until the creation of the Central Council of Physical Recreation (CCPR) (known as the Central Council of Recreative Physical Training until 1944) in 1935, funded by the Ministry of Education, that the government began to play an active role in providing a degree of structure and direction to sport in the UK

(Coghlan and Webb, 1990). The primary aim of the CCPR² was to assist with the provision of recreational activities and opportunities for communities, in particular, young people leaving school (Houlihan and White, 2001).

There were of a number of significant events during the middle of the 20th Century which were instrumental in the UK government's recognition of sport as an important area of public policy. In 1944, the Butler Education Act inadvertently impacted on the development of sport (Coghlan and Webb, 1990). Primarily aimed at shaping the structure of secondary education in Britain, the Act placed a statutory obligation on Local Education Authorities (LEA's) to provide sport and games facilities for Physical Education (PE). School gymnasiums and playing fields became common (Coghlan and Webb, 1990) thus the number of children leaving school with a solid grounding in sport and physical education grew.

The 1950s saw a decade of indifferent sporting performances by UK athletes, including failures at the Olympics in Helsinki in 1952 (Miller, 2008), and England losing to the low ranking USA in the 1950 Football World Cup (Holt and Mason, 2000). Amidst suggestions that British sport was not achieving, the CCPR commissioned an independent inquiry which produced the highly influential 'Wolfenden Report' in 1960, which came shortly after the publication of the Albermarle Report in the previous year; both of which will be discussed next.

2.2 The Wolfenden and Albermarle Reports

The Albermarle Report (1959) was commissioned in response to a growing problem with juvenile delinquency. The end of national service in 1959 saw an increase in

² The CCPR was rebranded on 1st December 2010 and is now known as the Sport and Recreation Alliance. For more information on the Sport and Recreation Alliance please visit www.sportandrecreation.org.uk. See chapter 3 for further details.

leisure time, particularly for young men, resulting in a gap in provision following formal education. This problem resulted in a comprehensive review of the youth culture which was emerging at that time (Holt and Mason, 2000; Houlihan and White, 2002). Also at this time, the Wolfenden Report was commissioned in 1960, in response to poor sporting performance on the world stage, and a lack of leisure opportunities for young people. At the time of publication, the Wolfenden report was the most comprehensive sport policy document ever seen in the UK (Bloyce and Smith, 2010). Whilst the report was primarily written to address a range of issues associated with young people's leisure time, sport was identified as an effective tool in dealing with youth culture, priorities which were echoed by many of the recommendations made by the Albermarle Committee. For example, both reports make reference to the need for more adequately trained coaches and leaders through appropriate training and education programmes and a national drive to increase the number of volunteers assisting with Youth work and Sport in the UK (Wolfenden Report, 1960; Albermarle Report, 1960).

2.3 The 1970s and the Sports Council

The 1970s was a period of facility development. In 1972, the Advisory Sports Council which had been created in 1965 by the Labour government, was reconstructed and given independence by Royal Charter creating a Sports Council with executive powers rather than as a purely advisory body (Houlihan and White, 2001; Green, 2004; Jackson, 2008). A key priority of the Sports Council was the development and expansion of leisure facilities in the community via the allocation of government grants to Local Authorities and voluntary organisations. The recognition of the importance of sport and recreation in improving peoples' lives continued to gain momentum during this time (Henry, 2001; Green, 2006). During this time, the Sports Council adopted many of the

responsibilities of the CCPR, which as a consequence, adjusted its focus to operate as a representative and advisory body for sports organisations and governing bodies of sport, as they do today (CCPR, 2005).

The Sports Council's key priorities were to promote the importance of sport in society, to improve Britain's international performance, and to encourage mass participation in sport which is still a key priority for sport development bodies (Holt and Mason, 2000; Henry, 2001; Green, 2004). This drive to increase sporting participation levels resulted in a 1975 White Paper on Sport entitled '*Sport and Recreation*'; the first White Paper on Sport ever published by a UK government (Green, 2004). In response, the Sports Council adopted the Council of Europe's 'Sport for All' slogan which was based on the idea that access to sport and leisure was an essential social service for everyone (Holt and Mason, 2000; Henry, 2001; Green, 2004). The White Paper was also clear in its assumptions that sport could provide a vehicle to deal with increasing social problems such as urban frustration, hooliganism and juvenile delinquency. Indeed, over time the Sports Council was increasingly expected to use sport to achieve wider non-sport policy objectives (Henry, 2001; Green, 2004), which echoes objectives set by SLUK and other organisations of sport.

2.4 The 1980s – Sport as a Social Tool

The notion of sport providing an effective 'quick-fix' tool to resolve some of Britain's social problems, was high on Thatcher Government agendas throughout the 1980s (Houlihan and White, 2002; Bloyce and Smith, 2010). With growing urban unrest and riots in some of the UK's inner cities, the Conservative government supported the idea that sport could be an effective solution in dealing with such social issues (Green, 2006; Bloyce and Smith, 2010). This resulted in the partnership working of the Sports Council

and the Manpower Services Commission in implementing ‘Action Sport’. This project’s key aims were to provide sports participation and leadership opportunities to specific groups, in particular, the unemployed (Henry, 2001; Houlihan and White, 2002). According to Houlihan and White (2002) and Collins (2010), the government provided £1million each year between 1982 and 1985 to support the Action Sport projects which were operating in fifteen Local Authorities in London and Birmingham, employing over 90 sports leaders. The perceived success of these projects ensured that they continued to grow, with some 560 sports leaders and motivators being employed by the Local Authorities by 1989 (Collins, 2010). This highlighted the impact that sports leaders were perceived to have in helping to provide purposeful, sporting activities and engage with deprived communities. Yet, the real significance of the Action Sport schemes did not lie in the direct outcomes achieved through sports development work, but rather through related management processes which firmly located sports development as a “legitimate local authority activity” (Houlihan and White, 2002: 37). Indeed, many sports development initiatives today adopt a similar method of the host authority directly employing sports development officers.

During the 1980s there continued to be a series of disconnections between the need to focus on elite sport as opposed to mass participation, and increasing tensions between organisations working towards these different priorities. Further sporting developments were to follow, which included the introduction of the Community Sports Leaders Award (CSLA) in 1985, as developed by the CCPR, and which is still delivered by SLUK today. Despite limited support from the Thatcher government during this time, the impact of Compulsory Competitive Tendering (CCT) on leisure services in Local Authorities and the lack of direction in sport, significant steps forward with Action Sport and sports leadership, all helped to further pave the way for sports development as a profession.

2.5 The Major Years: 1990 - 1997

Whilst John Major's governments are not remembered for playing a key role in the history of UK sport policy, there were a number of significant developments which occurred during his time in office. For example, the creation of the Department of National Heritage (DNH), of which sport was a part, and the introduction of the National Lottery changed the face of UK sport policy (Houlihan, 1997; Green, 2004). There was also a restructuring of the Sports Council, with a UK Sports Council and an English Sports Council being created; this to allow for the UK wide council (now UK Sport)³ to focus on elite sport and the home nation sports councils to concentrate on the development of sport across the sports development continuum (Houlihan and White, 2002)⁴. In fact, the concept of mass participation was somewhat marginalised with the publication of *'Sport: Raising the Game'* in 1995 by the DNH. The White Paper provided an indication of the state's interest in the promotion of sport and suggested support for a focus on the delivery of sport for sport's sake (Henry, 2001; Houlihan and White, 2002; Phillpots, Grix and Quarmby, 2010). This publication, and the simultaneous restructuring of the Sports Council, resulted in the home Sports Councils abandoning the secondary aims of sport such as increased participation and promotion of health, choosing instead to focus on increasing standards and achievements in sport (Holt and Mason, 2000). Certainly, the publication of *'Sport: Raising the Game'* presented the most comprehensive and significant government statement of sport that had ever been produced in the UK (DNH, 1995; Phillpots *et al.*, 2010). This shift in sport policy largely ignored the role of Local Authorities in the development of sport; rather school and elite sport was given centre stage (Bloyce and Smith, 2010). This coincided with the establishment of the Youth Sports Trust (YST) in 1994 which

³ See www.uksport.gov.uk for more information.

⁴ The sports development continuum is often represented as a pyramid showing the development pathway from 'foundation' at the base to 'excellence' at the top. See Bramham and Hylton (2008) for more information.

subsequently became influential in the promotion and management of school sport and Physical Education (PE).

2.6 New Labour (1997 – 2010)

The publication of *'Sport: Raising the Game'* was somewhat overshadowed by the landslide victory of Tony Blair's New Labour in May 1997. Sport was not identified as a priority for New Labour immediately upon election, which was no surprise, given that other areas of policy such as education, crime, and health were at the forefront of Blair's manifesto (Bloyce and Smith, 2010). However, New Labour did respond to *'Sport: Raising the Game'* with their own pre-election document, *'Labour's Sporting Nation'* which promised to provide opportunities for all (Houlihan, 2000). This illustrates the continuity that existed in sport policy during changes in Office (Green, 2006). New Labour's commitment to sport was further emphasised with the re-branding of the DNH to the Department of Media, Culture and Sport (DCMS); the first time that 'sport' has been used in the title of a government department (Bloyce and Smith, 2010).

At the centre of New Labour's political philosophy was the 'Third Way' (see Giddens, 1998). Giddens (1998: 26) defined the third way as "a framework of thinking and policy-making that seeks to adapt social democracy to a world which has changed fundamentally over the past two to three decades", via a transcendence of "old-style social democracy and neoliberalism". Moreover, this change in British political ideology promoted a shift from top-down, centrally controlled governance, to a network mode of delivery in which local organisations collaborate in decision making independent of government (Grix, 2010a). New Labour aimed to detach themselves from the old socialist approaches by adopting this new philosophy, and by 'modernising' politics via 'joined up thinking' across government departments and

other organisations (Bloyce and Smith, 2010). However, there is some scepticism surrounding the extent of autonomy entrusted with sporting organisations, since funding for sport was predominantly dependent on these organisations meeting corresponding government targets (Grix, 2010a). Through these networks, New Labour aimed to impact wider problems of ‘social inclusion’ and develop ‘active citizenship’ among young people (Coalter, 2007a; Adams, 2010). In attempting to address these social and economic issues, sport was to “achieve a new, more clearly articulated, prominence in social policy” (Coalter, 2007a: 14) which was somewhat removed from Major’s ‘sport for sport’s sake’ philosophy.

During the time of 1997 elections and the subsequent uncertainty regarding the new government’s policy priorities, the English Sports Council underwent a re-branding exercise to become the current ‘Sport England’. As part of this re-branding exercise and amid fears regarding potential future government support for sports development work, Sport England developed the ‘Active’ programmes, which they claimed were designed to provide opportunities to people of all ages, abilities, genders and ethnicities (Bloyce and Smith, 2010).

The emphasis on sport as a potential vehicle to achieve at least some of society’s wider social goals was further articulated through Labour’s first sports policy document: *‘A Sporting Future For All’* (DCMS, 2000), and reiterated in *‘Game Plan: A Strategy for Delivering Government’s Sport and Physical Activity Objectives’* (DCMS, 2002). The former generating fears and uncertainties experienced by Sport England and other sporting bodies were somewhat eased, as the document outlined the role of Local Authorities in delivering community sport development objectives. In addition, the document highlighted the role of Local Authorities in tackling social inclusion through a more coordinated partnership working with other organisations with shared aims and

objectives (Houlihan and White, 2002). This mirrors a key focus of organisations such as SLUK who work closely with Local Authorities, education and the prison service to create a more coordinated approach to sports leadership and sport provision (Sports Leaders, 2011d).

The need for a more modernised infrastructure of sport was also emphasised (Houlihan and Green, 2009). *'Game Plan'* followed on from this premise by clearly stating that a new approach to the delivery of sport in the UK was needed to ensure, “better co-operation and co-ordination; better accountability to government and customers; and increased organisational effectiveness and efficiency” in the delivery of sport in the UK (DCMS, 2002: 18). Indeed, throughout the New Labour years, there was debate about whether sport could provide an effective tool in addressing social problems in the UK, in line with the notion of development *through* sport rather than development *of* sport (Houlihan and White, 2002; Bloyce and Smith, 2010).

According to Houlihan and White (2002), what made *'A Sporting Future For All'* different and distinctive to previous sport policy documents, was its clear focus on the implementation of sports development objectives. It outlined the role of Local Authorities and national governing bodies of sport in taking the lead in certain aspects of sports development delivery, what was to be achieved and by when (Houlihan and White, 2002). As suggested by its title, the strategy emphasised the availability of sporting opportunities for all people, making particular reference to ethnic minorities, females and those from a lower social class (DCMS, 2000).

Sport in education also represented a key area for development by the Labour government, which included the creation of 110 Specialist Sports Colleges (DCMS, 2000). Re-allocation of lottery funding to youth sport early in New Labour's time in office, lead to the development of a number of school sport programmes which were

managed by the Youth Sport Trust (YST). These included the TOP sport programmes (primary extra-curricular), the PE and School Sport (PESS) initiative (curricular) and Step into Sport; and initiative developed in conjunction with Sport England and SLUK. Step into Sport began in 2002 with the aim of providing young people aged 14-19 years with leadership training and experience, to encourage them to volunteer in sport and take a lead in the organisation of sports activities (Kay and Bradbury, 2009; Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). Moreover, changes to the school curriculum have witnessed the inclusion of more vocational qualifications in an attempt to ensure that more young people gain an appropriate education (Hodgson and Spours, 2007). SLUK have benefitted from such changes, by firmly establishing their leadership awards as vocational options within schools and colleges in England (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a).

Through the popularity and subsequent growth of these school sport initiatives, the YST continued to be influential in securing government funding for sport, including the management and delivery of the Specialist Sport College programme. These colleges have been tasked with providing a positive and inclusive sporting environment for pupils both in their cluster schools and in the local community as part of the PE and School Sport and Club Links (PESSCL) programme, and demonstrated the government's promise to reinvigorate sport in schools (Houlihan, 2004). Specific attention was paid to supporting and nurturing talent development in sport; building links across communities to ensure clear exit routes out into local clubs; and training young people to become leaders, volunteers and coaches of sport. Funded programmes such as these have enabled SLUK to play an important role in the development of new sports volunteers, particularly within schools (Kay and Bradbury, 2009).

The commitment to sport demonstrated by the successive Labour administrations has been well received with significant improvements being made in PE and school sport

with regards to participation levels and standards (Houlihan and Wong, 2004). However, some professionals within the sport development industry question the true commitment to developing a long-term improvement in physical education standards, as reflected by the reluctance among politicians to make PE in schools a core subject and delivering a compulsory minimum of 2 hours per week for every pupil. Other pressures on the government to make these changes to education have come amid a rising concern about children and young people's obesity levels and more evidence pointing to the link between poor health and lack of physical activity (see Chapter 4).

The final sport policy document published by New Labour in 2008 reflected the need to focus on a 'winning' culture given decision for London to host the 2012 Olympic Games. *'Playing to Win: A New Era for Sport'* (DCMS, 2008) saw a further shift, away from sport for all, to a focus on developing a world class sports development system. Coinciding with this publication were changes to the funding mechanism for Sport England and National Governing Bodies (NGB's) of sport. This placed far more responsibility on these NGB's to achieve on the world stage with funding allocations dependent on relative successes within their sport (DCMS, 2008).

2.7 The Coalition Government and the 'Big Society'

Following 12 years in office, in May 2010 Labour lost the general election to a Conservative Party whose lack of an overall majority led to a sharing of power with the Liberal Democrats. This resulted in a 'ConDem' coalition government - the first hung parliament since 1974 – with Conservative leader David Cameron appointed as Prime Minister.

The Coalition has immediately faced with reducing the UK financial deficit, and to this end, were quick to propose plans to severely cut public spending (Bailey, 2012). With reduced funding to the third sector, fears that public services would be affected and community needs would not be met began to surface. Alongside spending cuts, David Cameron proposed a new strategy which has since become central to the Coalition government's political rhetoric – the 'Big Society' (Cabinet Office, 2010). At the time of writing, little has been published about the potential impact of the Big Society strategy, particularly from a sporting perspective. Part of the problem has concerned the lack of clarity with regards to the Big Society and whether it is a useful tool for change or a political ideology. As Evans (2011: 165) suggests "it is hard to find a comprehensive articulation of all Big Society policies and references pulled together coherently in one place". However, despite this lack of clarity, the Coalition describes the Big Society as "the belief that citizens should be empowered to solve problems at the local level in communities where they live" (Hansard Society, 2011: 144). The strategy places a central focus on developing and extending the third sector - organisations such as charities, co-operatives and social enterprises, and devolving power from central government to Local Authorities and community groups (Cabinet Office, 2010).

The Big Society's agenda comprises of three levels of activity. First, citizens (including individuals and community groups) should have a greater role in the development of services at the local level. Second, social organisations in the public and private sector should collaborate to deliver services in the community, and third, local and national government should work with partners to organise, promote and deliver services in innovative ways (Hansard Society, 2011).

Through this ‘ecosystem’ it is envisaged that all three levels will be linked and via a reconfiguration in policy practice and delivery, people will feel more empowered in their communities to make decisions and shape policy (Hansard Society, 2011). In addition to this, the government aim to reduce the ‘red tape’ and bureaucracy which has stifled innovation and progress in recent years and therefore making it easier for third sector organisations to work with the government and receive the support and funding they need (Alcock, 2010). This would be welcome news for voluntary organisations such as sports clubs, who are finding the increasing legislation a barrier to recruiting volunteers (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). Furthermore, funding will be available to the voluntary sector via the ‘Big Society Bank’, which draws on funds held within dormant bank accounts (Bailey, 2012). In this sense, the Coalition see the Big Society model as contrasting to Labour’s top down, big state bureaucracy (Conservative Party, 2010).

Despite the government’s passion for the Big Society concept, it has not avoided criticism. Many critics have questioned the feasibility of such an idea, suggesting that it is more a political ideology than a realistic and achievable objective (Bailey, 2012). Similarly, the notion that the Big Society is the government’s answer to fixing ‘Broken Britain’ (in particular financially broken Britain (Evans, 2011)), has been perceived by some as providing a smokescreen for the deep and extensive public sector cuts. Indeed, some academics question whether we do in fact live in ‘Broken Britain’ as examples of the Big Society through community initiatives and partnerships are apparent all over the country, albeit from anecdotal evidence. Indeed the lack of an empirical evidence base to support the ideals of the Big Society has also been identified as a weakness (Lawless, 2011).

With the third sector regarded as being at the core of delivering Big Society objectives, the Coalition government has outlined plans to support the “creation and expansion of

mutuals, co-operations, charities and social enterprises, and support these groups to have much greater involvement in the running of public services” (Cabinet Office, 2010: 2). Of course, in practice, this government ‘support’ is already being questioned with a reduction in central funding to a number of key third sector organisations, instrumental in the delivery of these Big Society objectives. For example, Timebank are a charity that promote, organise and encourage volunteering across the UK, recently had all of their funding from government cut (Timebank, 2011). Similarly, as Alcock (2010) points out, the Futurebuilders fund is now no longer available and other organisations such as Capacitybuilders and VInspired⁵ (‘V’) have had budgets cut and are now under review. To date, over 100 organisations have been disbanded following this systematic review. These decisions to cut funding to such organisations appear to contradict the aims of the Coalition government, and whilst the Big Society promotes volunteering as a cheaper alternative to large, public bodies it must also be recognised that the training and organisation of volunteers requires accountability, management and strong leadership (Evans, 2011). Therefore, there may be a need for a number of paid positions to ensure appropriate and adequate training can be provided. Nevertheless, the cuts to funding for organisations and charities which are central to the Big Society, have left many unclear as to who the government recognise as being key Big Society players. Furthermore, increasing frustrations towards the current government due to the increasing public cuts has been blamed for the summer 2011 riots in London, Manchester and Birmingham initiated predominately by disenfranchised youths who allegedly feel that they have no place in today’s society.

The role of volunteers has been identified as central to helping to create the personal responsibility, accountability and civic action required at the citizenship level. As Evans

⁵ Vinspired or ‘V’ is a UK charity which helps young people aged between 14-25 years to get involved in volunteering by linking up with organisations that require voluntary assistance. See www.vinspired.com for more details.

suggests, a core aim of Big Society is for people to “help themselves and each other out of the goodness of their hearts or the fire in their belly” instead of waiting for the government to make things happen (Evans, 2011: 167). In fact, this notion of citizens giving of their time to help others has been the norm for many years within UK sport, suggesting that community sport is the epitome of the Big Society (Nichols, 2011). Similarly, organisations such as Sports Leaders UK can potentially contribute to Big Society objectives by encouraging predominantly young people to volunteer in sporting activities in their local communities (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a), which may engender lifelong volunteering behaviours⁶.

Aside from the Big Society, the Coalition has already made a number of key changes to policy. However, some of these policy changes have had a negative impact on the delivery of sport and physical activity. A high profile debate took place towards the end of 2010 following the announcement by the then Minister for Education, Michael Gove, that the Coalition would be cutting the £162m annual school sport budget that the YST were receiving (YST, 2010). Anger and frustration among teachers, school sport coordinators, parents and pupils was widespread, with petitions being signed and support from Olympic athletes adding to the pressure being placed on the Government to re-think their decision. Following the protests, Gove agreed to a ‘partial U-turn’ by announcing that the funding would be allocated to continue funding the School Sport Partnerships. However, it is unlikely that the agreed level of funding will be able to sustain the current momentum and build on the progress already achieved to date. Nevertheless, with the recent publication of *‘Creating a Sporting Habit for Life’* (DCMS, 2012), school sport competition and developing a lasting legacy for sport in the UK appears to retain importance in political rhetoric.

⁶ A more in depth discussion on the role of volunteers in sport can be found in Chapter 4.

Time will tell as to the impact that continuing public sector cuts will have on the development of sport within the UK. The timing of the cuts to school sport angered people at a time when sport should be at the forefront of government policy with London hosting the 2012 Olympic Games. Fortunately, the British athletes performed, exceeding all expectations with a medal haul of 65, including 29 gold. Nevertheless, seeing what happens now following the games is particularly important to sport development organisations with talks of the ‘legacy’ now becoming a reality that will be analysed. For many in the profession, there is hope that London 2012 will have inspired the next generation of athletes, coaches and volunteers and continue to ensure that sport in the UK thrives.

2.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to provide the political backdrop against which UK sport sits. Sports development is inherently political in the UK given that sporting organisations are public bodies which are funded by the public purse. As a result, it is important to understand the mechanisms which have driven the delivery of sport over the past few decades. Whilst the promotion of sport for sport’s sake has gained increasing attention more recently, it is still recognised as a policy tool for tackling wider social problems, such as health issues, social exclusion and crime. Notwithstanding this, there is a lack of empirical evidence to support the credibility of policy objectives aiming to improve society via sport.

This research project evaluates the work of SLUK, an organisation tasked with the development of sports leaders to support the delivery of sport and who are likewise influenced by government policy. Furthermore, SLUK uses sport leadership as a vehicle for achieving both sporting and other social outcomes, therefore addressing many of the

policy aims discussed in this chapter. The next chapter looks in more detail at SLUK and its history, the role of sports leadership, and its contribution to the development of community sport.

Chapter 3

The Context of Sports Leadership

3.0 Introduction

Having discussed the changing nature of sports policy in the UK over the past 50 years, attention now turns to examining the details of sports leadership which is central to this thesis. This next chapter provides further context to the current research project which has been commissioned by Sports Leaders UK (SLUK). SLUK is a charity which has been operating for nearly 30 years, delivering sports leadership awards to volunteers in the community. Through developing relationships with schools, Local Authorities and other organisations, SLUK aim to develop core leadership skills predominantly in young people through their courses, and increase the number of volunteers involved in delivering sport and physical activity across the UK. This chapter will explore the beginnings of SLUK, the developments of their leadership award programmes and the current challenges facing the charity in an uncertain political environment.

3.1 History of the CCPR and SLUK

The history of SLUK can be traced back to the early 1980s. However, its roots extend further into the past with the influential role that the CCPR played in the development of UK sport policy. Sports Leaders UK was first established by the CCPR in 1982 under the trading name of the ‘British Sports Trust’, and since its inception, the organisation has continued to grow and develop the sports leadership opportunities that they offer.

The CCPR was founded in 1935 led by Miss Phyllis Colson, a passionate and enthusiastic physical education teacher working for the National Council of Girls’ Clubs. It was Miss Colson’s aim to develop a recreation body which could assist in

providing recreational activities and opportunities for communities, in particular, young people leaving school (Houlihan and White, 2001). The original objectives of the CCPR were: (i) to encourage as many people as possible to take part in sport and physical recreation; (ii) to represent the separate governing bodies of sport and promote their collective interests; and (iii) increase awareness about the importance of participating in sport and physical recreation (CCPR, 2010). As discussed in Chapter 2, the CCPR has been instrumental in the development of UK sport, particularly in the establishment of the Wolfenden Committee and the subsequent publication of the Wolfenden Report in 1960. However, since the creation of Sports Councils in each of the home countries and the subsequent transfer of staff and assets to the English Sports Council in 1972, the role of the CCPR has been somewhat sidelined (Evans, 1974). Nevertheless, it still remains vital in providing support for bodies of sport, independent of the government (CCPR, 2010). Therefore, the CCPR is now regarded as the umbrella organisation representing the views of its members – the governing bodies of sport (Sport and Recreation Alliance, 2011). Despite this more consultative role over the past 40 years, the CCPR has continued to pioneer opportunities within sport, particularly the development of the sports leadership awards.

In 1981 the CCPR launched the Community Sports Leaders Award (CSLA). The CSLA is an award for over 16 year olds which aimed to develop communication, organisation and confidence – skills which are crucial for volunteers involved in sport. Indeed, the nature of the course content has not changed since its inception, highlighting the strength and relevance of the award.

In 1982, the CCPR established a new charitable arm to their organisation, with the sole purpose of administering and further developing the CSLA and other potential

prospective awards. This charitable body was called the British Sports Trust, which would later be re-branded Sports Leaders UK.

3.2 The British Sports Trust and SLUK

The British Sports Trust continued to progress the initial work of the CCPR by developing an additional leadership award to enhance recreation in the outdoor environment. This was called the Basic Expedition Training Award (later to be called the Basic Expedition Leaders Award or BELA) and was launched in 1988. Other awards quickly followed including The Hanson Higher Sports Leaders Award (HSLA) which was made possible thanks to generous sponsorship from Hanson Plc. This award aimed to further develop the skills of CSLA graduates by offering opportunities to work with specific community groups such as elderly and disabled people (Tulley, 2005). In 1994 the Junior Sports Leaders Award (JSLA) was also launched which was developed to meet the needs of young people aged 14 years who wanted to help younger children through sport, as the minimum age required to undertake a leadership award previous to this was 16 years. This was the first sports leadership award to be made which was available to young people who were still in compulsory education, and was to soon become a popular and alternative course choice for PE teachers and pupils alike (Tulley, 2005).

In 2004 The British Sports Trust changed its operating name to Sports Leaders UK, as it was felt that the new name better described the function of the charity. Part of this rebranding included the acceptance of all SLUK awards onto the National Qualifications Framework in 2003 (Tulley, 2005) and in 2010, all Sports Leaders UK awards were placed on the Qualifications and Credit Framework (QCF) meaning that their awards became nationally recognised (Sports Leaders UK, 2011b). This resulted in

a realigning of the awards to ensure they corresponded to the levels on the framework. Therefore, each award was renamed and corresponded with the following levels on the framework⁷:

<u>SLUK Award</u>		<u>Current Level of Award (according to QCF)</u>
JSLA Award	—————→	Level 1 in Sports Leadership
CSLA Award	—————→	Level 2 in Community Sports Leadership
BELA Award	—————→	Level 2 in Basic Expedition Leadership
HSLA Award	—————→	Level 3 in Higher Sports Leadership

Since the awards have become part of the QCF, schools and other educational institutions have been able to offer the awards to their students through accessing different funding streams such as through the Young Persons Learning Agency and the Skills Funding Agency (Sports Leader UK, 2011c). This has resulted in significant numbers of young people in particular, registering for the Level 1 and Level 2 Sports Leadership Awards. Indeed, SLUK states that over 200,000 leaders are trained each year (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). Whilst it is apparent that SLUK's core business is from schools and FE colleges, and therefore the majority of candidates pursuing a sports leadership award are young people, it is not clear what the characteristics are of candidates who undertake the awards. Neither is it clear what characteristics might be observed in those who complete a particular award or progress to a subsequent level along the sports leadership pathway. Hence there is the need for a more in depth analysis of the demographics of candidates undertaking SLUK awards.

Since 2004, SLUK has continued to grow and develop the range of sports leadership awards that it offers, to include a Level 1 Award in Dance Leadership, a Level 3 Award

⁷ The QCF provides a framework for qualifications, according to the number of units and difficulty of that qualification. Therefore, similar types of qualifications will be grouped accordingly. See www.ofqual.gov.uk for more information.

in Day Walk Leadership and Maths, Literacy and Foreign Language Leader Awards (Sports Leaders UK, 2011b). Despite developing these alternative programmes, the sports leadership awards remain their most popular offering and the organisation's core business.

The key aims of SLUK are set out in their mission statement, which include two objectives. These are i) to educate and train leaders who gain recognition for their leadership skills and develop a sense of self worth; and, (ii) ensure leaders contribute to their local society thus impacting on the wider social aspects of sport, such as social capital, citizenship and community sport development (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). SLUK states that sports leadership awards were founded on the basis that volunteers are the lifeblood of community sports clubs, and that awards are designed to provide support and training to assist people in playing an active role in their local community and club(s). In addition, it has been found that over the past 28 years, professionals in the sport and education industry have recognised that the awards can have benefits to the individual, particularly young people and other marginalised groups (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). Indeed, at a time when many questions are being asked about the Britain's society and whether enough is being done to reduce the marginalisation of certain communities, there is perhaps now more than ever, a need to engage with socially excluded communities and provide them with hope and belief that they can play a worthwhile role in today's society.

Over the past 5 years, since the appointment of its current Chief Executive Officer, SLUK has recognised that far more can be done to engage with people from isolated communities, who are unable to access sport per se and the sports leadership awards. Such groups may include: young offenders and 'NEETs' (young people not in education, employment or training); older adults (particularly for lower socio-economic

backgrounds); unemployed people; disabled people; and those from ethnic minorities; groups which are often cited as being underrepresented in volunteering and participating in sport (Collins and Kay, 2003; Wickens, Earnshaw and Fox, 2009). As a result, SLUK recently underwent a process of restructuring, to divide the organisation into two parts: i) the Awarding Body, which continues to develop and administer awards within education and the mainstream routes, and ii) the Foundation Body, the remit of which is to “invest directly in community delivery of sports leadership, employing special project workers and sports leadership tutors to reach young people on the margins of our society” (Sports Leaders UK, 2011d: 1). Through this new Foundation Body, SLUK is dedicating more time and effort in reaching those people in greatest need of accessing sport and leisure opportunities.

Whilst SLUK identifies the need for targeting harder to reach groups within the UK, the challenge is in balancing its workload and priorities to ensure sustainability of the organisation in the future. This is particularly pertinent at a time when funding is at a minimum especially given the charity’s decision to invest in areas which are not necessarily self sustaining, such as funding courses in deprived communities. However, despite the fact that SLUK’s main source of income is from the sales of educational material and course resources to its mainstream educational customers (i.e. schools and FE colleges), from a social perspective, there is a question regarding the focus of such organisations. Perhaps more important for SLUK as it embarks on this alternative approach to the delivery of its awards, is exactly what impact do the sports leadership awards make to people as individuals and in their local communities? Despite the existence of anecdotal evidence from individuals, schools and clubs emerging, little research has been conducted in this area to provide insight into the benefits SLUK has to offer. As Grix (2010b) implies, government policy has focused on a pragmatic approach to delivery of social interventions for which there is an evidence base. In sport

however, this evidence base is not overly comprehensive (Long, 2008). Amidst a reduction in funding for third sector organisations it has become a priority for SLUK to ensure adequate income to support core business operations. They too need reassurances that their decision to shift priorities to include a focus on socially excluded communities is right for all involved.

3.3 What is ‘Sports Leadership’?

At this point it is perhaps useful to provide some discussion on the nature of sports leadership within the context of this thesis, given that there are a number of alternative definitions available in the related literature. Much has been published examining sports leadership from an elite sport perspective, such as the psychology of coaches (e.g. Weinberg and Gould, 2007) and role and characteristics of coaches, managers and key sports people (e.g. Lyle, 2002). Similarly, with regards to leadership more generally, there is wealth of literature exploring leadership traits and what makes a good leader, particularly within the context of business, education and the military (e.g. Bryman, Collinson, Grint *et al.*, 2011). These more widespread areas of leadership are, of course, beyond the scope for discussion. From a broad sense, leadership has been defined as: “the behavioural process of influencing individuals and groups towards set goals” (Barrow, 1977: 232). In relation to sports settings, Crust and Azadi (2009) suggest that such leadership is provided by coaching staff and that the leadership represents coaching behaviours. However, to add to the complexity of defining leadership within sport in particular, there does not appear to be a clear distinction between a ‘sports leader’ and a ‘sports coach’. As with many terms used to describe roles and positions in sport and society, (for example, teacher, coach and mentor) such terms are often used interchangeably as they each possess similar requirements and

skills (Lyle, 2002). Nevertheless, it is apparent in much of the related literature that a leader is perhaps more concerned with the individual athlete as a whole, and takes a role in ‘guided sport’ rather than ‘coached sport’ (SportsCoachUK, 2009). This may include giving attention to overall development of an individual and a guidance type role, rather than focusing on their sporting performance in which a coach would aim for improvements in sporting ability (Weinberg and Gould, 2007; SportsCoachUK, 2009).

Whilst many parallels can be drawn with leadership examples from the wealth of sport and business literature, sports leadership from the perspective of SLUK differs slightly. Leadership from the perspective of this research is viewed more from the entry level to sport, in which sports leaders are at the early stages of developing such leadership skills, and use those skills to assist others to participate in sport. Lyle (2002) provides a useful model in helping to define what is meant by sports leadership. He offers a model based on participation and performance coaching, and states that they are two distinct forms of coaching and not points on a continuum. However, he does envisage that coaches can move from participation coaching to performance coaching through education, experience and skill development. Lyle states that the key differences between the two forms of coaching are that ‘participation coaching’ is at the entry level to sports coaching, with an emphasis on recreational or beginner participants, whereas ‘performance coaching’ refers to coaches who work with athletes at the elite end of sport, with an emphasis on competition and developing sports performance (see Figure 1). This model provides a good framework for the analogies of the difference between sports leadership and sports coaching. Whether the progression between participation coach and performance coach is a continuum or two distinct roles could be debated, since some coaches may see the pathway as ongoing and progressive as they further increase their qualifications and experience.

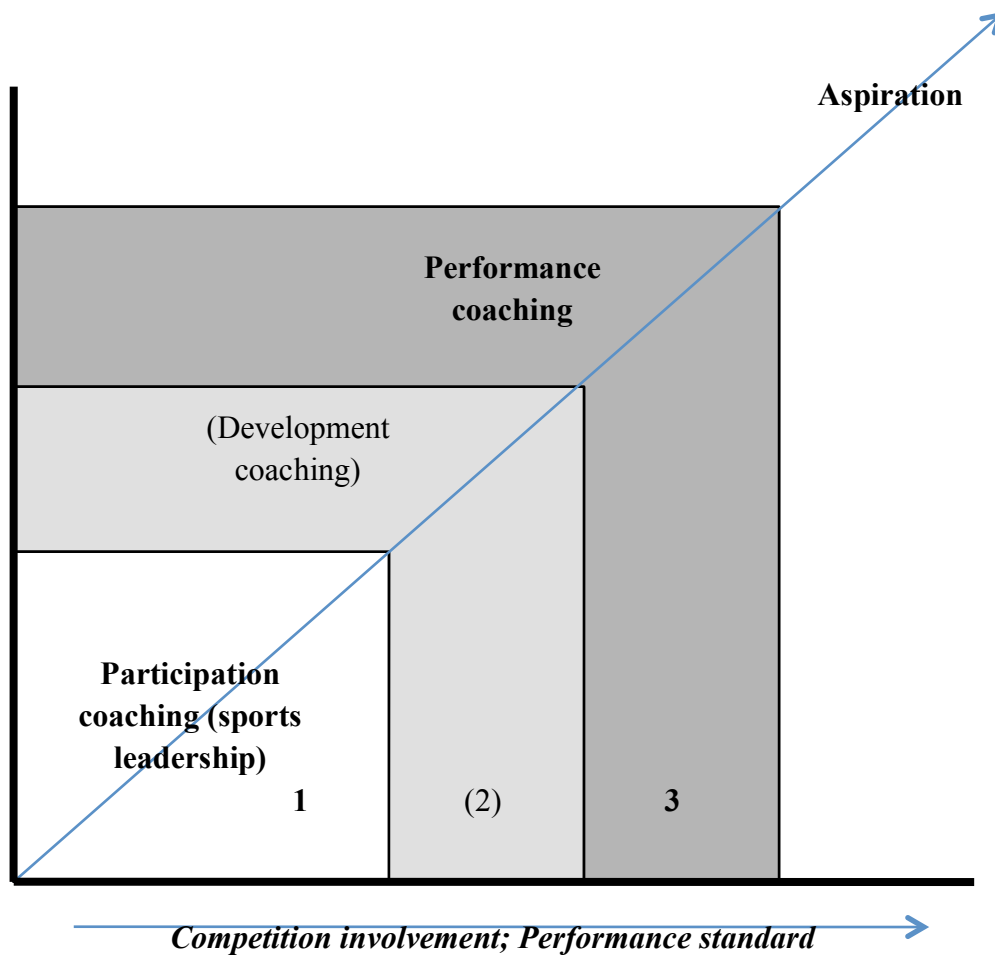


Figure 1: The relationship between sports leadership and coaching. *Adapted from Lyle (2002)*

1 *Participation Coaching*: The initial stage of coaching (or leading) within sport with basic skills teaching. Some will move quickly through this stage as they develop their leadership and coaching skills, whereas others will remain in this stage as a recreational and casual coach or leader.

3 *Performance Coaching*: Coaches at this stage are more heavily involved in competition and performance at a more elite level, with greater emphasis on decision making, performance analysis and specific competition goals.

According to the framework put forward by Lyle (2002), it is possible to locate sports leaders as ‘beginners’ in many instances, making their first steps into the sporting world as a coach or a leader. Considering the typical age of those undertaking an SLUK award (below 20 years), this assumption appears logical. Developing key leadership skills at this stage is crucial for sports leaders in progressing or simply adhering to a leadership role. SLUK state that skills such as organisation, planning and communication can be developed by those undertaking their courses (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). This suggests that SLUK courses contain specific practices and information to assist the sports leaders in learning how to be a leader, using sport as the vehicle by which to teach them. Simply participating in sport does not necessarily mean that young people will develop life skills, such as leadership (Gould and Voelker, 2010). Rather, specific learning has to take place, and in particular, experiential learning is crucial in effective youth leadership development (Gould and Voelker, 2010). SLUK awards are just one way to develop leadership skills in young people, with alternatives including the Duke of Edinburgh Award; Sports Captaincy (Gould and Voelker, 2010) and First Tee (First Tee, 2011).

These other examples of youth development programmes highlight the fact that there is some crossover in the outcomes of such programmes, i.e. life skills or leadership skills. Gould and Carson (2008) state that the difficulty with research examining life skills through sport is that there is no clear definition of what such programmes aim to achieve, with the related literature including positive youth development (e.g. Holt, 2008), leadership development (e.g. SLUK; Gould and Voelker, 2010) and life skill development (e.g. Gould and Carson, 2008). However, these terms are often ill-defined. Indeed, SLUK claim to engender a range of skill development which can be categorised

as leadership skills and general life skills, such as communication. An alternative approach would be to examine the specific skills which people feel they have developed as a result of being involved in such programmes, rather than looking at categories of skills which at times can be misunderstood or used interchangeably (Gould and Carson, 2008).

Loehr (2005) suggests that leadership skills learnt through sport programmes such as SLUK are transferrable to other areas of life and are often vital in business, education and career progression. As well as transferrable leadership skills, SLUK believe that the awards can engender positive attitudes and behaviours, such as commitment, dedication, confidence and increased self-esteem, which can help to motivate individuals to achieve career and personal goals (e.g. unemployed people) (Obare and Nichols, 2001). Indeed, research examining similar sports leadership programmes has suggested that factors such as social capital (Kay and Bradbury, 2009) and citizenship (Eley and Kirk, 2002) can also be developed. This raises questions concerning the impact of leadership programmes on other areas of society, which will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4.

3.4 Defining Volunteering

It is perhaps appropriate at this point of the thesis to introduce the concept of volunteering and discuss what is meant by the term, given its link to sports leadership and participation coaching. One factor which appears to present discrepancies in some of the research conducted concerns the nature of the volunteering, and whether it is regarded as ‘formal’ or ‘informal’. Low *et al.*, (2007: 11) define formal volunteering as: “Giving unpaid help through groups, clubs or organisations to benefit other people or the environment”. Alternatively, informal volunteering has been defined as: “giving

unpaid help as an individual” (i.e. not through a group, club or organisation) (Low *et al.*, 2007: 11). From a research point of view, this distinction between volunteering categories is clear and logical, and thus easy to use (Adams and Deane, 2009). Indeed, some recent research examining the impact and prevalence of volunteers (e.g. Low *et al.*, 2007; Gaskin, 2008) appears to only explore formal volunteering, rather than those who may give time to helping individuals on more of an ad hoc basis. However, other research (e.g. Taylor *et al.*, 2003) have specifically included both types of volunteering, possibly as there is the recognition that whilst the majority of volunteering in sport occurs within clubs, groups and organisations, some volunteers may also give their time to individuals within a sporting context but outside of the club setting. Nonetheless, a limitation of measuring informal volunteering is that many people who give their time in an informal capacity, may not perceive that what they are doing should be deemed as ‘volunteering’ (Cuskelly, Hoye and Auld, 2006; Adams and Deane, 2009).

Despite the fact that Cuskelly, et al., (2006) suggest that defining volunteers is extremely complex and not simply a distinction between whether volunteering is informal or formal, an in depth analysis of the range of definitions offered for the term ‘volunteering’ is beyond the scope of this thesis. However, some clarity of what the author considers volunteering to represent is necessary in ensuring consistency with previous research findings, particularly within the sporting context. Therefore, it is assumed that throughout this thesis, the term ‘volunteering’ refers to “helping others... and receiving either no remuneration or only expenses” (Taylor *et al.*, 2003: 6). Adopting Taylor *et al.*’s (2003) definition, volunteering includes both formal and informal volunteering given that people may give their time both within the club setting in addition to helping others in sport but outside of the club environment. In the context of sports leadership and the objectives of SLUK, a leader can therefore be a participation coach, a sports leader and a volunteer. Indeed, increasing the number of

unpaid sports leaders is a key aim of SLUK to ensure that community sport delivery is sustained (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a).

3.5 Chapter Summary

Lyle's (2005) model helps to provide a clearer understanding of what is meant by a sports leader in this research, which is most easily defined as a beginner assisting with the delivery of community sport, at the recreative and participative entry level of sport. Whilst this section has defined a leader, participation coach and a volunteer, it is quite possible that a sports leader can be all three, particularly at the grassroots level. As a leader develops their skills, increases the number of qualifications they possess and further develop their experience, some may progress into alternative roles, such as a coach, sports development officer or teacher. However, SLUK also hopes that many of these leaders continue to work within community sport as a volunteer and ensure that the number of volunteers assisting to deliver sporting opportunities remains buoyant, resulting in more athletes, greater participation and a fitter nation (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). The role of volunteers in sport and how they are essential in continuing to develop sporting opportunities in the UK will be discussed in more detail in chapter 4.

Chapter 4

Sport, Volunteering and Leadership: An Overview

4.0 Introduction

Sports leadership in the UK sits within an extremely congested policy space with many cross-cutting approaches to the delivery of sport, health and community objectives (Houlihan and White, 2001). Whilst the rationale for the delivery of SLUK objectives is heavily influenced by political rhetoric, the impact and influence of sports leadership on sport and other areas of society is less clear and potentially far-reaching. This research explores specifically how SLUK awards can play a role in developing leaders and the community (both from sport and non-sport perspectives). To this end, the present chapter examines the current evidence for the impact of sport on today's society. In doing so, it will provide an overview of the current literature, both from an academic and industry point of view, to highlight research in the area of sports leadership and its wider implications. The chapter is divided into sections. First, the role of volunteering in sport is discussed, including an overview of the motivations of volunteers and barriers to volunteering. Second, sport and society is explored; including the wider role that sport can play in achieving social goals. Next is a discussion of sport and social capital, followed by an overview of the literature surrounding community sport development. Finally, the link between sport, physical activity and health is outlined, including explanation of where sport fits into wider public health policy.

4.1 Volunteering in Sport

4.1.1 Introduction

As a concept, volunteering has received a great deal of attention over the past two decades across a range of contexts. As a result, many authors have reported on volunteering statistics and have provided reviews of the literature (e.g. Cuskelly, Hoye and Auld, 2006; Gaskin, 2004; 2008; Coalter, 2007a; Welch and Long, 2006; Low, Butt, Ellis Paine, and Davis Smith, 2007; D’Souza, Low, Lee, *et al.*, 2011). Volunteers are recognised as being crucial to the survival of UK community sports with 5.8 million sports volunteers (Taylor et al., 2003) estimated to be supporting the 150,000 voluntary sports clubs across the nation (Nichols, 2003). This represents over a quarter of all volunteering in the UK and 15% of the total population (Taylor et al, 2003). This workforce has been estimated to provide over 1.2 billion hours to sport each year, accounting for economic worth of over £14 billion (Taylor et al, 2003). Such is the tradition of volunteers servicing sport in the UK, that government has historically left the development of sport to the enthusiasm and common interest of unpaid volunteers (Roberts, 2004). It was not until the late 1980s that national schemes such as ‘Champion Coaching’⁸ were introduced, as a way of increasing the number of coaches and volunteers assisting with the development of sport (Jackson and Bramham, 2008). However, it could be argued that SLUK (then the British Sports Trust) were among the pioneers for developing leadership courses and assisting with the development of a volunteer workforce for sport through the inception of the Community Sports Leaders Award in 1982 (CCPR, 2010). Since then, all aspects of the community sport sector, including policymakers, Sports Councils, NGB’s and Local Authorities, have maintained a focus on the need to recruit, train and retain sports volunteers to ensure a

⁸ ‘Champion Coaching’ was a scheme launched by the National Coaching Foundation and the Sports Council, which enabled volunteers to access vouchers for coaching qualifications in return for their work in delivering youth sport sessions.

long and successful future for sport in the UK (Sport England, 2008; Sport Wales, 2010a). This section reviews the previous research with regards to volunteers in sport, particularly among young people, and examines the merits and limitations of research conducted in this area.

4.1.2 Demographics & characteristics

Over the last decade, a whole host of surveys researching volunteer characteristics have been conducted by government and independent research bodies (e.g. Institute for Voluntary Research; Volunteering England; Department for Education and Skills; Sport England; Sport Wales). Of the most influential was the 1997 National Survey of Volunteering conducted by Justin Davis Smith on behalf of the Institute for Volunteering Research (IVR). The survey sparked concerns that the number of young people volunteering was decreasing as results indicated a sharp decline in the percentage of those aged 16-24 years volunteering, from 55% in 1991 down to only 43% in 1997 (Davis Smith, 1998). Other research has also suggested that in recent years fewer young people are taking up volunteering due to various reasons including lack of time, lack of awareness of opportunities and the image of volunteering as being “something older people tend to do” (Gaskin, 1998: 35). Since then, subsequent volunteer programmes (and research reports) have challenged these claims, insisting that young people are still extremely active in volunteering and citizenship, particularly in sport (Davis Smith, Ellis and Howlett, 2002; Russell Commission, 2005; Low *et al.*, 2007).

With regards to the demographics of volunteers, research has consistently shown that volunteering rates correlate with socioeconomic status, with those from more affluent and educated backgrounds being more likely to volunteer (Davis Smith, 1998; Attwood

et al., 2003; D’Souza *et al.*, 2011). Likewise, geographical location appears to have an impact on volunteering rates, with some research suggesting that those who live in rural locations may find it more difficult to access leisure activities such as volunteering or sports leadership award courses. This may be due to the distances involved in travelling to facilities, a lack of transport (particularly for young people), and the cost of travelling to access facilities which may deter such individuals from pursuing certain activities (Collins, 2003; Matthews, Taylor, Sherwood, *et al.*, 2000). With regards to gender differences in volunteering rates, the literature shows a mixed picture. This is mainly due to the type of activities males and females volunteer for; females across all activities are more likely to volunteer (Gaskin, 1998), but males are twice as likely to volunteer in sport than females (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). Previous research has also consistently indicated that those from a white ethnic background are more likely to volunteer than other ethnicities, particularly in sport (Attwood *et al.*, 2003; Gaskin, 2008; Low *et al.*, 2007; D’Souza *et al.*, 2011). Despite this, Davis Smith *et al.* (2002) found that the Millennium Volunteer programme, which aimed to promote and encourage volunteering in sport, was successful in recruiting young people from a variety of ethnic backgrounds. More recent projects such as those implemented by ‘V’ have also found success in recruiting volunteers from ethnic minorities (NatCen, 2011). This suggests that targeted intervention programmes may have more success in attracting ethnic minority participants compared to naturally occurring volunteer opportunities.

Despite concerns that the number of young people volunteering has been declining, more recent evidence suggests that for those who do volunteer, sport is a popular sector. The Russell Commission (2005) found that 47% of all youth volunteering occurs within sport, and that 28% of all sports volunteers are young people aged 16-24 years (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, Low *et al.*, (2007) found that 26% of young people aged 16-24

years were involved in volunteering within sport and exercise contexts, with only those aged 35-44 years and 45-54 years found to be volunteering at a higher level. Whilst this is an encouraging picture for the future of UK sport, there is some concern that the majority of young people who do volunteer in related sectors, do so in minor roles (Gaskin, 2008). Much research points to the presence of an “ageing volunteer force” (Taylor *et al.*, 2003: 18) in which older people hold key management roles within sports clubs, but that there is a lack of new volunteers stepping forward to take on such roles. Indeed, it has been suggested that despite the high levels of young people actively volunteering in sports clubs, the presence of older people in committee positions may constrain young people to adopt such positions (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). This trend has been supported by a survey conducted for the CCPR examining the impact of sports clubs, which found that more than 80% of survey respondents were over the age of 40, and that no respondents were under the age of 30 years (Welch and Long, 2006). These findings suggest that there is a need to develop succession planning in clubs, by providing opportunities for young people to take up more ‘official’ positions as they develop their leadership skills, so can therefore step into the shoes of older club officials once they retire.

4.1.3 Motivations of volunteers

A question which has been asked by many researchers and professionals is ‘what motivates someone to give their time and volunteer?’ This is an important matter, particularly since understanding motivations can assist organisations and clubs in recruiting new volunteers. Much research has explored volunteer motivations among young people in sport (Gaskin 2008; Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; Welch and Long, 2006; Eley and Kirk, 2002) and it is well documented that motivations to volunteer cover a

wide spectrum. Furthermore, these motivations differ according to the demographics of the volunteers concerned, particularly with regards to age (Gaskin, 2004; Low *et al.*, 2007). A survey conducted by Sport Wales (2010) found that students were the most forthcoming in searching out volunteering opportunities, since they were keen to gain work experience; other groups of people were less proactive. Motivations which have been reported as important for young people to volunteer include opportunities to develop skills and gain experience to assist with career development, with gaining qualifications and CV building also identified as important motivations (Clary, Snyder, *et al.*, 1998; Eley and Kirk, 2002; Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; Gaskin, 1998). This has subsequently been identified as a key motivator for those undertaking sport leadership awards too (Obare and Nichols, 2001; Eley and Kirk, 2002). This appears to be of particular importance to young people who are in higher education, since there is an increasing demand for students to demonstrate previous vocational work experience if they are to be successful in gaining a place on a course of their choice (UCAS, 2012). Other motivations include social factors such as meeting other people and being with friends, and having an interest in the club or sport (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Gaskin, 2008). For volunteers working within sports clubs, a key motivation appears to be the altruistic desire to want to help the club and those members within it (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Welch and Long, 2006). From a sport-specific point of view, Eley and Kirk (2002) found that motives shifted as young people continued to volunteer. When first volunteering ‘developing leadership skills’ was identified as being most important but this changed following a period of nine months of active volunteering, when the most cited motivation was the fact that ‘it was sports-based’. This highlights the fact that motivations for volunteers may change over time.

Despite these frequently reported motivations, there appears to be little agreement on the importance of different motivations (Cuskelly, *et al.*, 2006). Indeed, people may be

volunteering in the same club and position, but have very different motives for doing so. Similarly, there may be a whole host of reasons why people volunteer, with numerous motives all being equally important. This appears to be the case in the National Survey of Volunteering and Charitable Giving, in which 8 different motivations received positive responses from over 25% of 16-25 year olds (Low *et al.*, 2007). Similarly, Clary *et al.* (1998) conducted a number of studies exploring volunteer motivations and suggested that continued volunteering is both person and situation specific and requires ‘fit’ between these two factors. They also suggested that motivations to volunteer fit into six different categories: values (altruistic motivations); understanding (skill and knowledge development); social (be with friends and develop relationships); career (gain benefits associated with gaining employment); protective (functions of the ego e.g. volunteering to reduce guilt felt due to being more fortunate than others); and enhancement (volunteering to build self esteem and personal development). Whilst these categories do appear to coincide with the motivations reported above, it is also noteworthy that Clary *et al.*’s (1998) study was conducted in the United States. This raises questions about possible culture differences that may exist, particularly as the USA was found to have a 10% higher volunteering rate (39%) compared to the UK (29%) in the 2010 World Giving Index (Stevens, 2011). People’s motivations to volunteer is extremely important for organisations such as SLUK to understand as this can help them with targeted approaches to recruiting different groups according to age, gender or other demographic factors. Furthermore, understanding how motivations may change over time can assist organisations in identifying who is more likely to progress through related award programmes and sustain voluntary involvement as sports leaders.

Despite these positive motivations, Sport England also identified negative motivations which pressured people to volunteer, such as fear that the club would fold without them or that there is no one else who would do it (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Welch and Long,

2006). This suggests that there may be different reasons as to why people initially decide to volunteer (more positive motivations) and why they then continue to volunteer (may, at times, be negative pressure). Certainly, research examining why people continue to volunteer is important to ensure retention of volunteers within sport. Indeed, it appears that there may be a drop off in volunteering rates particularly amongst young people as they progress in their educational and working careers, such as moving to university (Eley and Kirk, 2002; Kay and Bradbury, 2009). Lifestyle transition is therefore an important area of focus in ensuring young volunteers are tracked and their volunteering opportunities continue.

4.1.4 Barriers to volunteering

The reduction in volunteering rates is a cause for concern, particularly for sports clubs who rely on the commitment and enthusiasm of unpaid personnel. Gaskin (2008) identifies three key volunteer related problems for sports clubs; (i) a lack of volunteers; (ii) problems recruiting new volunteers; and (iii) increasingly heavy workloads for individuals within the clubs. However, the underlying reasons for these three problems are more complex against a continuously changing political, social and technological background (Nichols, *et al.*, 2005).

So what are the key underlying reasons as to why people do not volunteer? One frequently cited reason is a lack of time (Davis Smith, 1998; Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Gaskin, 1998; 2008; Nichols, *et al.*, 2005). Lack of time is perceived to have a considerable impact on volunteering with a quarter of respondents in Sport England's survey indicated that this was the main reason people did not volunteer (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, the CCPR's sports club survey revealed that 79% of respondents felt that other people did not volunteer as it was too time

consuming (Welch and Long, 2006). Nichols, et al. (2005) suggested that lack of time is often due to family and work commitments, and that those in managerial type jobs with families are under the greatest pressure. However, lack of time is not constrained to middle-aged workers with families. In a study exploring students' volunteering experiences, De Souza (2005: 9) found that those in the 16-25 age bracket indicated that 'little time left after study' (37%) and 'little time after paid work' (9%) were both reasons why they did not volunteer.

The image of volunteering has received much attention, particularly with regards to young people who have mixed views of volunteering (Hill and Russell, 2009). In the past, young people have been found to perceive volunteering as "something which older people tend to do" (Gaskin, 1998: 35). However, this observation of volunteering by young people appears to be changing (Gaskin, 2004) as organisations such as SLUK and V continue to work hard at providing attractive opportunities which are relevant and appropriate for those between the ages of 14-25. What is clear is that it is not the case that young people view those who volunteer as 'do-gooders' or 'amateurs' but rather that they see them as committed individuals who are professional and trustworthy (Gaskin, 1998:35). The negative attitudes instead come from those who simply view volunteering as something which is not seen as 'cool' or 'hip' among peers (Gaskin, 2004). Gaskin (1998) suggests that the younger generation prefer not to use the word 'volunteering' viewing the word as suffering from the same stigma associated with 'charity', which they do not view as something they want to admit to being involved in. In her survey, Gaskin found that 4 out of 10 people thought that their friends would think it was 'uncool' if they knew that they volunteered, particularly as it is often interpreted as unpaid work.

Despite these concerns and findings, there is a feeling in the literature (for example, V, 2008) that this attitude to volunteering among young people is changing, particularly with respect to sporting events such as the London 2012 Olympic Games highlighting the importance of such positions. Additionally, schemes such as Millennium Volunteers, the Duke of Edinburgh Award and 'V' have gone some way to promoting a positive volunteering culture among young people (Davis Smith, *et al.*, 2002; V, 2008). A recent report into young people's attitudes and perceptions of volunteering found that they expressed positive views about volunteering particularly in assisting them with skill and knowledge development and future career progression. Furthermore, females generally appeared to have more positive views about volunteering than males (V, 2008; NatCen, 2011).

What constitutes volunteering from the perspective of volunteers themselves continues to be challenging for researchers, specifically given that some may not view what they are doing as formal 'volunteering' (Gaskin, 2004; Cuskelly, *et al.*, 2006; Hill and Russell, 2009). Gaskin (2004) suggests that young people may state that they have not volunteered despite having taken part in an activity which falls into this category. For example, some involved in the Millennium Volunteers initiative stated that what they were doing could not be volunteering because they were 'enjoying it' (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002: 23). This perception clearly has implications for research which may not be able to accurately depict young people's volunteering behaviours, particularly if they do not recognise themselves as volunteers.

Awareness of, and a lack of knowledge of opportunities to volunteer are repeatedly cited as barriers to volunteering (Gaskin, 1998; 2004; Attwood *et al.*, 2003; Low *et al.*, 2007). Gaskin (1998: 35) suggested that a lack of people who were able to inform young people about available opportunities, had a negative effect on volunteering rates.

Similarly, respondents in Gaskin's survey indicated that they did not know where to look for information about volunteering opportunities, but that most young people were able to find out about opportunities through their school or college (Gaskin, 1998). This research did therefore suggest that once young people are no longer attached to an educational institution (i.e. a college), it was then more difficult to find out about routes into volunteering. However, it could be argued that this is changing given that volunteering initiatives and organisations more readily signpost young people to available opportunities, through programmes such as Millennium Volunteers and 'V' (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2003; NatCen, 2010). Word of mouth was found to be the most effective recruitment tool for the Millennium Volunteers programme (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2003), while 'V' state that a strong brand and good partnership working has enabled them to engage effectively with a range of young people and advertise appropriate volunteering opportunities (NatCen, 2010). Nonetheless, it does appear that a lack of communication between clubs who require volunteers and those people who are willing to volunteer could be a key reason for poor volunteer recruitment (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Welch and Long, 2006; Gaskin, 2008), and that more could be done on the part of clubs and organisations to advertise and promote opportunities for volunteers.

Another barrier to volunteering which has become more prominent over the past decade is that of increasing legislation and bureaucracy. In the 2006/2007 'Helping Out' survey, 49% of respondents stated that being put off by bureaucracy was a reason which either 'applied a lot' or 'applied a little' as a reason for not volunteering (Low *et al.*, 2007: 68). Indeed, it was the second highest barrier to volunteering after 'lack of time'. A barrier which also received a high response rate of 47% was being 'worried about risk/liability' (Low *et al.*, 2007). One factor responsible for this increased bureaucracy and perceived risk, is the professionalisation of sports coaching (Cuskelly *at al.*, 2006) and the result of media emphasis on accidents or incidents within sport, which has led to

greater conditions being imposed upon organisations (Nichols *et al.*, 2005). Sports organisations and associations have had to become more accountable for their actions resulting in the need for adequate training and background checking of its volunteers. Such is the emphasis on the safe recruitment and retention of coaches and volunteers that NGBs of sport are now encouraging clubs to have safeguarding and recruitment policies, which outline the many factors which have been taken into account when recruiting new volunteers.⁹ Whilst such procedures and systems are positive for the promotion of a safe sporting environment, processes which appear too rigid and intrusive can be off-putting for many would-be volunteers. Increased training requirements, Criminal Records Bureau (CRB) checks and lengthy application forms may all be barriers to people volunteering (Nichols, *et al.*, 2005; Sport Wales, 2010; Harris and Mori, 2010).

It is not only the recruitment of volunteers which is challenged by such requirements, but also retention. The workload placed on club volunteers is increased as they struggle to keep on top of risk assessments, child protection procedures and registration information (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). The danger with this is that new volunteers perceive volunteering roles to be too demanding, requiring high levels of commitment which they are not able to offer (Welch and Long, 2006). Furthermore, as coaching and sport at the grassroots level becomes more professionalised there is an increase in the number of paid positions taking on roles within sport, such as Community Coaches. This may have a detrimental impact on existing volunteers, as they may subsequently feel redundant, or undervalued, since they are not being paid (Cuskelly, *et al.*, 2006).

The retention of existing volunteers is crucial especially with greater demands, in the form of time and responsibilities being placed upon them (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). In the

⁹ See the NSPCC for more information:

http://www.nspcc.org.uk/Inform/cpsu/helpandadvice/organisations/standards/Standards_wda60694.html

Sport England survey (Taylor *et al.*, 2003), club personnel felt that potential volunteers would be deterred from a giving of their time, particularly in core volunteer roles, due to the perceived increase in workload (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). They also felt that due to the increasing bureaucracy surrounding volunteer positions within clubs, succession planning was becoming more difficult. This highlights the need for clubs to have a greater focus on recruitment and succession planning, to ensure that new volunteers are given the opportunity to take on tasks progressively so that they become accustomed to the job role and not deterred by the workload. Gaskin (2008: 7) supports this need for succession planning, by stating that “succession planning for leadership roles is a particular concern”. There is also a need for clubs to be more proactive in recruiting volunteers through volunteer coordinator roles (Taylor *et al.*, 2003), and being more willing to receive help from volunteers, as research has shown that some volunteers, particularly young people feel that they are not given the support to volunteer and perceive that organisations do not want young people as volunteers (Gaskin, 2008). Sometimes the fact that people are not asked is the biggest barrier to volunteering and simple gestures such as volunteer rewards can be enough to retain and motivate volunteers to continue (Welch and Long, 2006; Sport Wales, 2010).

4.1.6 Policy, Volunteering and Impact on Society

With so much empirical evidence investigating the prevalence, motivations and barriers related to volunteering, the crucial question remains – to what extent do volunteers contribute to society’s goals? Research suggests that volunteers can help achieve a wide range of objectives both within sport and beyond. Volunteering and the voluntary sector have been placed at the centre of David Cameron’s Big Society, as a vehicle for achieving some of society’s most challenging aims (Cabinet Office, 2010; Hansard

Society, 2011). As Gaskin (2004: 1) points out, volunteering has, for some years, been at the forefront of the political agenda, “not only as a good thing for individuals and for the delivery of services, but as central to the regeneration of democratic society”. Those with an interest in volunteering have suggested that volunteers can impact on a range of issues including: the development of social capital and communities; social exclusion and unemployment (see section 4.2); the development of community sport; and how they are crucial to the organisation and delivery of sports events, such as the Olympics and Commonwealth Games (e.g. Downward, Lumsdon and Ralston, 2005; Downward and Ralston, 2006; DCMS, 2010). In addition, the Coalition also suggest that volunteers can help to pull the UK out of recession by playing a more central role in the delivery of public services, and help to fix ‘Broken Britain’ (Evans, 2011: 165). The extent to which the voluntary sector can provide an alternative workforce is yet to be determined. Certainly, a number of academics have suggested that the Big Society is one of political ideology or a ‘political slogan’ rather than a realistic ambition (Alcock, 2010, p.386). Notwithstanding these assertions, there are examples of Cameron’s Big Society across the country; none more so than in community sport, where volunteers ensure the structure of UK sport continues to operate. In this sense, the role of volunteers in sport can contribute to the government’s core aims at a higher level, and perhaps indirectly contribute to other societal goals, whilst ensuring that sport at the grassroots level continues to be catered for. However, this is still an under-researched area and this study aims to provide some empirical evidence to support the notion that volunteers can contribute to sport and society.

4.1.5 Summary

This section has explored current research surrounding volunteers in sport. As outlined, there is a wealth of literature exploring barriers to volunteering both within sport and other areas of society, the motivations of volunteers and some of the challenges that face sports clubs and other organisations. However, whilst there is research exploring prevalence of people, particularly young people volunteering (e.g. Kay and Bradbury, 2009), there are fewer examples in the literature which examine the retention rates of volunteers. Similarly, exploration into the thoughts and perspectives of those who do not currently volunteer is required, since the majority of the literature into ‘non-volunteers’ appears to draw on the perceived views of current volunteers only. Finally, research investigating the impact of volunteers and leaders on sport requires further exploration; a topic which this research sets out to address. The next chapter explores how sport can play a role in the wider society.

4.2 Sport and Society

4.2.1 Introduction

In recent decades, sport in the UK at least, has been regarded as a vehicle through which to combat a range of social problems. Aspects of society which have been identified by policymakers and others as potentially benefiting from sport, include: crime and youth offending (e.g. Collins and Kay, 2003; Nichols, 1997; 2004; 2007); community development and social capital (e.g. Coalter, 2007a; 2007b; Eley and Kirk, 2002; Kay and Bradbury, 2009; DCMS; 2010); the development and education of disaffected groups (e.g. Obare and Nichols, 2001; Astbury, Knight and Nichols, 2005; Sandford, Duncombe and Armour, 2008); and the engagement of minority groups, such as ethnic minorities, people with disabilities and the unemployed (e.g. Obare and Nichols, 2001;

Collins and Kay, 2003; Hylton and Totten, 2008). Whilst a number of academics have attempted to conceptualise how sport can play a role in tackling such social issues, it is apparent that the current literature base is lacking in empirical evidence (Collins and Kay, 2003; Hoye, *et al.*, 2010). Nevertheless, despite the lack of this evidence, the notion of sport playing a wider social role in society continues to feature in sport policy and government agendas. This has resulted in increased pressure on the sports development industry to achieve a number of outcomes beyond the boundaries of ‘sport’ (Bloyce and Smith, 2010; Houlihan and White, 2002).

This section explores some of these wider social goals and how sport may contribute, in addition to discussing research which has attempted to show a relationship between sports interventions (such as volunteering and leadership programme) and other social objectives.

4.2.2 Sport and Social Inclusion

As noted by Hoye, *et al.*, (2010: 155), “the role of sport in social inclusion is apparent in both sport policy and non-sport policies that seek to use sport as a policy tool”. This certainly came to the fore within government policy during the New Labour years. The policy documents ‘*A Sporting Future For All*’ (DCMS, 2000) and ‘*Game Plan*’ (DCMS, 2002) both place crime reduction and social inclusion as potential benefits in relation to sport and physical activity. However, these policies suggest that this may be achieved through a process of recognising and identifying marginalised groups rather than the use of sport itself (DCMS, 2002). Despite sport being identified as a potential tool for impacting on social inclusion, the complex nature of the term social inclusion is less clear, and thus, research has failed to show a clear link between participation in sport and a direct effect on social exclusion. This research therefore explores links

between sports leadership and social problems such as social exclusion, thus contributing to the literature base in this subject area.

4.2.2.1 Social Inclusion Definitions

A number of interchangeable terms are used within the literature to explain what is meant by ‘social inclusion’, these include: social cohesion; social capital; and community development. However, there are also differing views regarding definitions and causes of social inclusion (and exclusion) (Collins, 2004; Collins and Kay, 2003; Hoye *et al.*, 2010), in addition to the meaning of the term ‘social capital’ (Coalter, 2007a). Here the focus will be on social inclusion at an individual level, which Collins (2004) terms ‘personal social capital’. This concept focuses on the individual engaging with sport, rather than examining the term from a community level (i.e. social capital which emphasises the building and development of community networks) which will be discussed later in section 4.2.3.

There has been some dispute surrounding the underlying causes of social exclusion (Collins, 2003; 2004). However, as Collins (2004: 727) argues, “poverty is still the core of social exclusion” and in the UK, relative poverty has become important in providing a measure of the standard of living. The Social Exclusion Unit (1998) provided a list of factors rather than a definition of social exclusion, suggesting that it is the combination of problems such as unemployment, crime, poor education and skills, low income, poor housing, bad health and family breakdown. These features have become widely recognised as contributing to the existence of marginalised groups. An alternative view has been offered by Barry (1998), who states that a society such as that in the UK is likely to have two thresholds of social exclusion, resulting in two socially excluded groups. The first group, as defined by the Social Exclusion Unit (1998), is those who do

not have the means (whether due to financial, health or lifestyle problems) to participate in sport and society. The other group represent those who are wealthy enough to live in gated communities, keep fit in private gyms and ‘choose’ not to engage with other sectors of society. Whilst it may be true that this latter group is also excluded, the notion of ‘choice’ becomes the key difference between the two and suggests that the latter could be regarded as ‘socially isolated’ rather than ‘socially excluded’ (Barry, 1998). From a policy perspective, the emphasis is on those who are unable to participate in sport, as this is not down to choice but opportunity and accessibility. Hence, this definition of social exclusion will be adopted throughout this thesis.

4.2.2.2 Lack of Empirical Evidence

It is well documented that, with regards to social inclusion, society is faced with “widely ambitious, extremely difficult to define and measure claims for the social impacts of sport, accompanied by a widespread lack of robust research” (Coalter, 2007a: 70). Coalter (2007a) suggests that the lack of research evidence ‘proving’ the wider role of sport can be explained by four factors: conceptual weaknesses (i.e. inconsistent definitions of terms and outcomes such as ‘participation’); methodological weaknesses in evaluations; little consideration of sufficient conditions; and the inherent limitations of drawing on limited published materials for research. Problems with defining and measuring outcomes within sport and wellbeing; a lack of funding; and the nature of projects being short-term are also cited as reasons for a lack of sufficient evaluation (Coalter, Allison and Taylor, 2000). Despite the lack of empirical research and the increasing need for evidence-based policy making made popular under New Labour, there is still a strong belief and commitment to the use of sport as a vehicle for tackling other social issues. This study sets out to draw some conclusions concerning

the contribution that sports leadership in particular can make to sport and the wider society.

This continuing belief, held among policy makers and professionals within the sport industry, has resulted in a number of programmes and initiatives being implemented, with the aim of improving social inclusion, albeit from two different perspectives. The first approach, which is likely to be the sports development professional's preferred method, places sporting priorities at the fore, but aims to include people from socially excluded groups, and encourage them to participate in sport. These have been referred to as 'sport plus' approaches in which sporting outcomes are the primary goal (Coalter, 2007a). Examples include providing dance sessions at a local community centre to enable local people to access the class without having to travel too far, or providing free sports sessions in areas of low income. Alternatively, sport may be used to improve social inclusion by using the power of sport to address broader social issues such as: education, behaviour management and improved health. These latter programmes (which tend to be the preferred method for politicians) are described by Coalter (2007a) as 'plus sport' approaches. These approaches place other social objectives as the key outcomes, with sport being used as the vehicle in which to achieve these goals. Different initiatives and programmes sit at varying points on this continuum, and there are examples of projects which aim to provide either a 'sport plus' or a 'plus sport' approach (Coalter, 2007a). These two approaches and examples of projects will be discussed in turn.

4.2.2.3 Sport focused interventions

Sports development programmes which have attempted to increase participation in sport and physical activity can be traced back to the early 1980s, with the introduction of

‘Action Sport’ (see Collins, 2010). The purpose of Action Sport was to employ sports leaders who would work predominantly in inner city areas to engage disaffected youths, particularly from black and ethnic minorities. According to an evaluation of the projects, Action Sport aimed to “demonstrate the value of sports leadership in increasing participation in sport and recreation by those who live in the inner city, specifically the unemployed together with other designated target groups” (Rigg, 1986 1). The initial Action Sport programmes were an “unqualified success” (Collins, 2010: 15) with Local Authorities adopting similar approaches in attempts to engage with people from across their communities. Following this, National Development Projects (NDP’s) were created to extend the provision offered by the Action Sport programmes, with two key aims:-

- To make use of facilities within the local community, such as school buildings, community centres and playing fields
- To work with a range of partners in order to extend the range of resources and connect with other agendas e.g. health centres, youth work, Women’s Institute

(Collins, 2004).

These programmes adopted a strong partnership approach and utilised resources and facilities at a local level so as to engage with all people in the locality, overcoming barriers to participation such as transport, lack of disposable income etc. The sports leaders who were employed (sometimes on a paid basis and sometimes voluntary) were typically young people who had completed a Sports Leaders UK award, such as the Level 2 Community Sports Leaders Award or the Level 3 Hanson Higher Award, and were thus qualified to organise and lead sport and physical activity sessions in the community. This also helped to develop the sports leaders themselves, leading to enhanced career prospects and skills development. This type of Action Sport approach

(which involves networks with a range of partners working at a very focused and localised level) can still be seen in many sports development programmes and initiatives (Pitchford and Collins, 2010; Robson, 2008).

Current strategies for both Sport England and Sport Wales highlight the need to engage with people from disadvantaged backgrounds and marginalised communities, particularly young people (Sports Council for Wales, 2005; Sport England, 2008). As Sport England (2008: 4) state, “for NGBs, developing the girl’s and women’s game, disability sport, and reaching out to diverse communities, is not an optional extra but a vital part of what they will be required to do”. Nevertheless, within this strategy Sport England is clear that their focus is on the development of sport for sport’s sake. Similarly, Sport Wales launched a scheme in 2008 called ‘5x60’ aimed at increasing participation rates in young people, with a particular focus on engaging ‘non-participants’ (Sport Wales, 2011). Funded by the Welsh Government, ‘5x60’ employs sports development officers to work in specific schools and communities and target those young people who do not currently participate in sport, such as ethnic minorities, children with disabilities and teenage girls. By extending the extra-curricular and community provision in specific localities, ‘5x60’ provide an alternative activity timetable including sports such as street dance, climbing and mountain biking, in an attempt to appeal to a wider audience (Sport Wales, 2011). The effectiveness of the 5x60 scheme has recently been evaluated as part of a PhD research thesis however the findings have yet to be published (Leyshon, 2011).

Millennium Volunteers was a volunteer programme which aimed to encourage young people to participate in sport and other activities but through volunteering roles (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002). Similar to ‘V’, one of the core principles of the Millennium Volunteers (MV) programmes is ‘inclusiveness’ through targeting those who have not

previously volunteered or who have “experienced social exclusion” (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002: 1). Key findings from the Millennium Volunteers evaluation (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002) suggest that the programmes have been successful in engaging with young people from a range of ethnic backgrounds when compared to the population demographic of 16-24 year olds (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; NatCen, 2011). Furthermore, MV was particularly successful at attracting young people new to volunteer work, with nearly half of all recruited having no previous volunteering experience. Another finding which was encouraging from an inclusion perspective was that 19% of Millennium Volunteers were young people who were unemployed. By providing these people with opportunities for volunteering experience, future work prospects were found to be improved through enhanced CV’s and gaining skills such as self-discipline and sustained personal commitment (Davis Smith, *et al.*, 2002). Other initiatives which also aim to include young people from disadvantages backgrounds include StreetGames¹⁰ which bring sporting opportunities to the ‘doorstep’ of disadvantaged communities (StreetGames, 2011); and Tops Sport, the Youth Sport Trust (YST) initiative which engages with children via schools and communities (Youth Sport Trust, 2011).

For sports development and other programmes aimed at improving social inclusion there is a tension between ‘quality’ and ‘quantity’, where quality refers to the nature of the outcomes being achieved (e.g. disengaged people participating in sport) and ‘quantity’ refers to the number of people engaged with sport. Recruiting and engaging socially excluded people more difficult and time-consuming than working with those young people who already participate in sport. However, for organisations such as StreetGames, engaging with disenfranchised groups is a priority. For the Millennium Volunteers programmes, this tension was highlighted as a barrier to delivering an inclusive initiative, particularly when achieving numerical targets is often required to

¹⁰ For more information about StreetGames please visit: www.streetgames.org

satisfy investors and justify funding (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002). Increasingly though, there is a need for more qualitative objectives which demonstrate where impact occurs (Long, 2008). Other barriers which have been found to challenge inclusive programmes include: language and culture; lack of financial resources; time to affect local attitudes; and challenges associated with partnership working across a range of local and regional agencies (David Smith *et al.*, 2002; Collins, 2004; Bolton, 2010).

4.2.2.4 Sport for non-sport objectives

The second way in which sport has been used to tackle social exclusion is through what Coalter (2007a) has termed ‘plus sport’ approaches, in which sporting outcomes are not necessarily the main objective. For example, health, education or reducing anti-social behaviour may be the desired outcome, but sport is used as the means by which to achieve such outcomes, due to its ability of being able to engage with and bring together a large group of people. This section examines some of the initiatives which have focused on developing non-sport objectives such as crime reduction, community cohesion and reduced anti-social behaviour.

One such initiative which is currently in existence across England and Wales is Positive Futures¹¹. Positive Futures, launched in 2001, is funded by the Home Office and works with young people from deprived communities across the UK, aiming to steer them away from a life of drugs and crime. Whilst the projects across the country vary, many use sport and sports leadership as a vehicle in engaging the youths, and channelling their efforts and energy into more constructive activities. The three key aims of Positive Futures are:

- Increased participation in sport and physical activity of 10-16 years olds

¹¹ For more information on the work of Positive Futures please see: www.posfutures.org.uk

- Reduction in youth offending in the local area
- Reduction in drug-use of young people participating in the schemes

(Coalter, 2007a: 116).

Research conducted on the Positive Futures scheme in 2003 found that the various projects across the county engaged with over 34,000 young people in deprived communities (Lee, Phillips and Fraser, 2003). Their evaluation also suggested that the scheme was having a positive effect on engaging with individuals who are ‘at risk’ of taking the wrong path in life (i.e. via drugs; crime etc). A key part of the Positive Futures programme in many areas was to provide sport and other activities to these young people. Furthermore, the provision of sports leadership training for volunteers and youths within the communities was important in helping to sustain programmes and increase awareness of training and work opportunities available to those who were currently disengaged from mainstream education (Lee, *et al.*, 2003).

Of particular importance to the success of Positive Futures projects is partnership working. The evaluation indicated that, on average, projects had 16 formal partners, with Youth Offending Teams (YOTs) being the most common partner to work with (Lee *at al.*, 2003). This type of cross-cutting partnership activity was central to the interests of the Labour Government who initiated such projects, and is still the rhetoric in many government policies and strategies including ‘*Game Plan*’ (DCMS, 2002) and ‘*At least 5 a week*’ (Department of Health, 2004).

Positive Futures was designed (and based) on the American ‘midnight basketball’ programmes which were found to be associated with reduction in crime rates in inner cities across the United States (Hartmann and Depro, 2006). Basketball leagues were organised between the hours of 10:00pm and 02:00am which were regarded as ‘high crime’ hours, as it was felt that young men from deprived communities had little to

occupy themselves during this time. Similar approaches through Positive Futures also organise activities and leagues during the later hours to provide similar groups of young people with constructive activities to keep them away from turning to petty crime.

The midnight basketball model provides some insight into how sport can help to impact wider social problems. Whilst some relationships between sport and other social sectors are tenuous, one argument for the effectiveness of sport in combating crime, rests on the notion that if young people are involved in sport and physical activity, they cannot simultaneously be committing a crime (Coalter, 2007a; Hartmann and Depro, 2006). Often, anti-social behaviour is spontaneous, opportunistic and as a result of boredom, which can be replaced by involvement in sporting activities (Crabbe, 2000). However, due to the complex nature of causal links between sport and anti-social behaviour, it is difficult to provide empirical evidence to suggest that such programmes can distract participants from such undesired actions (Hartmann, 2003; Hartmann and Depro, 2006; Bloyce and Smith, 2010).

Another UK intervention which aims to engage disaffected young people is the Fairbridge¹² Programme (Astbury, *et al.*, 2005). Fairbridge is a charity that aims to develop young people's personal and social skills, and hopefully lead them away from crime, similar to Positive Futures. Participation for the programmes is voluntary, with 15 centres currently operating across the UK. A 2010 evaluation of the programme found that over 3,500 young people aged 13-25 had engaged with the programme during the year, with 85% of participants achieving a positive outcome such as getting a job or going to college (Fairbridge, 2010). Similarly, an earlier evaluation of the Fairbridge programme found long-term behavioural improvements in the young people, measured via a longitudinal self-completion survey and interviews with participants

¹² For more information on the work of Fairbridge, please visit <http://www.fairbridge.org.uk/>

(Astbury *et al.*, 2005). Factors which were found to have lasting effects were increased confidence, self-esteem and impact on career, which provides some evidence that involvement in such programmes can help to improve the future opportunities for disaffected young people. The sample used was relatively small with only 30 young people participating in the 12 month follow up interview. Additionally, it could be argued that changes in positive responses may be a result of participants' perceptions of the Fairbridge programme (a willingness to 'buy in' to the programme) rather than an actual change in personal skills and behaviour (Astbury *et al.*, 2005). This may be particularly true considering that participation is voluntary; therefore those who do engage may be more susceptible and willing to changing their behaviour.

One factor which is highlighted as being crucial to the success of such behaviour change/management programmes, is the importance of staff and mentors who are involved in running the programs (Astbury *et al.*, 2005; Sandford *et al.*, 2008; Bloyce and Smith, 2010). The Fairbridge evaluation suggested that sport provided the initial 'hook' for participants to become involved, thereafter the strong relationships which were built between staff and participants lead to high levels of commitment to continue with the programme (Astbury *et al.*, 2005). This finding has been supported by Nichols (1997) and Sandford *et al.* (2008) who also suggest that peer mentor or leader support is crucial to maintaining participant efforts towards desired goals such as achieving qualifications and work placements. However, this does raise a question concerning the length of time that a programme needs to be running in order for relationships between participants and leaders to develop and lead to enhanced commitment.

4.2.2.5 Volunteering, Leadership and Social Inclusion

From a volunteering and leadership perspective, research suggests that being involved as a leader or coach within sport can provide people with a purpose away from a life of

drugs, crime or unemployment and into future work or volunteering (e.g. Lee *et al.*, 2003). Research conducted by Obare and Nichols (2001) which evaluated the impact of a sports training programme on unemployed steel workers, found positive results for the career prospects and development of participants involved in the programme. Participants completed vocational courses such as the CSLA and HSLA, and then volunteered in the community to prepare themselves for future work in the sports industry. Findings showed that being part of the programme lead to increased confidence and self-esteem; a greater willingness to volunteer; reduced boredom and enjoyment of regular activity; and long-term sports leadership positions (Obare and Nichols, 2001). Similarly, gaining additional qualifications was seen as positive with regards to future career potential. Moreover, it has been suggested that self-efficacy is crucial in maintaining a change to lifestyle, which such interventions can help to engender (Robson and McKenna, 2008). However, the sample size in this study was extremely small with only 13 of the 22 initially enrolled in the programme being interviewed. Furthermore, the programme was voluntary, which may suggest that those who did participate were positive about the scheme and willing to make changes to their lives (Obare and Nichols, 2001). Nevertheless, their research indicates that programmes such as this can help to develop personal skills and self-esteem which can subsequently alter behaviour and attitude to work.

Similarly, Positive Futures provide training and education opportunities for young people such as the SLUK awards. Involvement in training courses such as sports leadership awards can provide people with skills which employers may seek in potential candidates, thus increasing their chances of gaining employment in the future. It has also been suggested that leadership courses may also engender skills such as confidence and self-respect which can help disadvantaged people to succeed in life (Lee *et al.*, 2003).

4.2.3 Sport, Social Capital and Citizenship

4.2.3.1 *Definitions of Social Capital*

As has been discussed in depth by Fred Coalter (2007a), the concept of social capital is a contested topic. The two key theorists who have contributed significantly to the concept of social capital are Pierre Bourdieu and Robert Putnam. Bourdieu, who developed early theories of social capital in the 1970s, suggested that social capital was a resource which is only available to those higher classes and elite since an individual's access to resources comes at the expense of others (Bourdieu, 1986). Furthermore, he suggests that sport reaffirms such divides in the social classes through its organisation and accessibility. For example, Bourdieu suggests that private golf clubs exist to retain class differences in sport, but that in fact, such class differences represent society from a wider perspective. Despite some support for Bourdieu's perspective, this definition of social capital tends to be ignored in sports policy, since much of Bourdieu's work on social capital was just one part of 'class' research examining a range of different capitals (Bourdieu, 1986). However, the work of Putnam (2000) is of interest to policymakers and sports studies academics, primarily due to his focus on the role of voluntary organisations in helping to create social capital, and his concept is often used as a definition (Adams, 2011). Putnam who has provided alternative a perspective to that of Bourdieu, views social capital as a 'social good' which refers to social networks and connections between individuals which binds communities together (Nicholson and Hoye, 2008). This echoes some of the core objectives which the Big Society sets out to achieve (Cabinet Office, 2010). Furthermore, Putnam recognises that high levels of social capital are characterised by strong social networks; strong social norms; and trust and reciprocity among people within those communities (Putnam, 2000; Coalter,

2007a). He believes that civic engagement, citizenship and volunteering can help to bind communities together by promoting more efficient societies working together to achieve common goals. Collins (2004: 729) referred to this definition of social capital as “communal capital”. This perspective of social capital has been adopted by a number of academics and policymakers, particularly in the sport and leisure literature as a useful definition of social capital (e.g. Kay and Bradbury, 2009; Collins, 2004; ‘Game Plan’ (DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002); and the Coalition Government (Cabinet Office 2010)), particularly as it indicates that changing behaviours and attitudes of people within communities can potentially create more cohesive communities. Furthermore, as Nicholson and Hoye (2008) suggest, social capital is not always positive, given that whilst it has the potential to bind and sustain communities, it also has the potential to exclude or sustain disadvantage in communities. Therefore, they argue that that Putnam’s (2000) concepts of bridging and bonding social capital is applicable to the role of sport on social capital and perhaps one reason why Putnam’s articulation of social capital has become magnified in the sport policy arena.

Despite the interest in social capital and the role that sport can potentially play in building cohesive communities, the concept is often vague (Coalter, 2007a). Similarly, the concept of social capital is often intertwined with other similar concepts such as ‘active citizenship’, ‘community cohesion’, ‘civil society’ and ‘community development’. Nevertheless, there is the suggestion that sport and physical activity can be effective in bringing communities together, particularly older or isolated individuals, which can in turn improve people’s wellbeing (Almond, 2010). This is evident in the network of voluntary sport clubs which have become synonymous with social capital formation (Adams, 2010). Furthermore, there have been assumptions and subsequent research exploring the link between sport and sports leadership; and other concepts such as citizenship and social capital (e.g. Kay and Bradbury, 2009; Eley and Kirk, 2002).

4.2.3.2 Active Citizenship

The concept of citizenship was made popular by New Labour in the late 1990s. Citizenship Education became part of the National Curriculum in 2002 (Department for Education and Skills, 1999), aiming to provide pupils with an understanding of how they can play an effective role in society. It has been suggested that volunteer work can be effective in promoting active citizenship within young people (Eley and Kirk, 2002). Eley and Kirk (2002) conducted research to examine whether being involved in a volunteering programme as a sports leader encouraged citizenship and pro-social values. Surveys were conducted asking the young people about their views of volunteering and sports leadership. Findings which suggested that volunteering through sport resulted in more active citizenship included the fact that 97% of respondents in the 9-month follow-up survey indicated that they would volunteer again, and 20% stated that the biggest motivator to volunteer was “working in the community” (Eley and Kirk, 2002: 163). Eley and Kirk therefore suggest that young people taking part in the programme were motivated by helping in the community and were likely to continue, thus demonstrating high levels of citizenship. In particular, volunteering in sport was identified as important to young people when volunteering, which again provides support to the idea that sport is an effective vehicle in achieving wider goals. Indeed, as Coalter (2007b) suggests, sports volunteers are the real active citizens. However, Eley and Kirk’s (2002) research only contained a small sample ($n=31$) at the follow-up stage, so further research would provide support to their findings.

4.2.3.3 Evidencing the link between sport and social capital

Nichols (2003: 5) suggests that sports clubs “make a substantial contribution to social capital through both providing the structure which provides the opportunity for active citizenship to be expressed through volunteering, and the opportunities for social interaction, both for volunteers and participants”. However, as Coalter argues, more in

depth discussions are required to provide evidence of this link (Coalter, 2007b); a common discourse in the literature. Research which has attempted to explore links between sport and specific indicators or social capital was commissioned by DCMS (Delaney and Keaney, 2005). By examining existing published statistics on sport, volunteers and clubs, the authors attempted to draw inferences regarding the relationship between sport and social capital. Interestingly, they found that those who were currently members of a sports club were more likely to participate in civil behaviours, albeit voting, signing a petition or contacting an official (Delaney and Keaney, 2005). Similarly they found that being a member of a sports club was associated with being more sociable, trusting, healthy and positive towards the state – all indicators of social capital. However, as Adams (2010) identifies, social capital is not necessarily transferable to other areas of sport or society, given that his findings indicated that civic behaviours were focused at specific voluntary sports clubs or sports.

From a sports leadership and volunteering point of view, Kay and Bradbury (2009) conducted a study exploring the extent to which youth sport volunteering can contribute to social capital. Using the ‘Step into Sport’ initiative as the research context, they utilised a mixed methods approach to identify relationships between sports leaders and their commitment to their communities. A key finding suggested that by volunteering, young people interacted with a range of people in the local community, which in turn resulted in increased altruism and citizenship among the sports leaders. However, the range of ‘communities’ within which they were working were limited (i.e. a school or leisure centre) hence the sports leaders were unable to establish significant networks. Whether more extensive networks and social ‘bonding’ could be achieved if the sports leaders were working in a community on a larger scale though is unknown. When exploring motivations to volunteer, Kay and Bradbury (2009: 128) found that the top responses were selfish motivations such as wanting to ‘increase leadership skills’ or

‘develop confidence/communication skills’. These motivations appear to contradict core values of citizenship and social capital, although the authors do suggest that these initial motivations may lead to altruistic values once young people begin volunteering. This assumption is supported by Adams (2010: 100) who found that members of voluntary sports clubs stated that “putting something back in” was a key motivation for becoming a volunteer.

Despite these findings, it is apparent that more empirical research is needed to fully understand the link between sport and social capital. However, as Coalter (2007b: 552) identifies, the core issue surrounding the debate is that there has been a “failure to articulate systematically what is meant by social capital”. Nonetheless, the political rhetoric suggests that the assumption that sport and voluntary organisations can impact the building and developing of social capital is, for the foreseeable future, here to stay.

4.2.4 Sport Development, Community Sport and Community Development

The area of sport development, community sport and community development is one which is confusing and unclear, often with numerous definitions depending on an individual’s theoretical viewpoint or area of interest. This is particularly important considering that the work of SLUK exists in an ever-changing political and sporting environment, in which sports development, community sport and community development are all relevant.

Each of these terms are used frequently in sports organisations policies and strategies, and for these reasons, it is considered necessary to provide a brief explanation of their meaning. Hylton and Totten (2008, ch. 5) provide a useful starting point in understanding the differences (and commonalities) between the terms being discussed here.

A much contested concept is that of ‘community’. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), community can be defined as:

A specific group of people, often living in a defined geographical area, who share a common culture, values and norms, are arranged in a social structure according to relationships which the community has developed over a period of time. Members of a community gain their personal and social identity by sharing common beliefs, values and norms which have been developed by the community in the past and may be modified in the future (WHO, 1998).

This definition indicates that behaviours and beliefs may be changed over time. WHO also suggest that individuals may be part of more than one community, according to work, leisure and geographical factors, each with their own different beliefs and norms. Hylton and Totten (1998) maintain that community implies some notion of ‘togetherness’ and ‘collectivity’. However, defining community according to geographical location is becoming less favourable among academics, due to the increasing mobility of individuals in today’s society. Nevertheless, characterising a community based on geographical location is very much the favoured approach for policymakers and can be seen in many community and sport development programmes (Hylton and Totten, 2008).

With regards to defining sports development, community sport and community development, there is some suggestion that these sit on a continuum. As Hylton and Totten (2008) assert, sport development is concerned with sport for sports sake, supporting earlier views of Coalter (2007a), and is often facilitated by sports development professionals or voluntary organisations; via a top-down approach (Hylton and Totten, 2008). Conversely, community development sits at the opposite end of the

continuum, and is primarily concerned with empowerment, participation, inclusivity and democracy, in which members of the community are the key players (i.e. bottom-up). Through this approach, it is envisaged that community development is more sustainable. Figure 2 provides a graphical representation of this continuum.

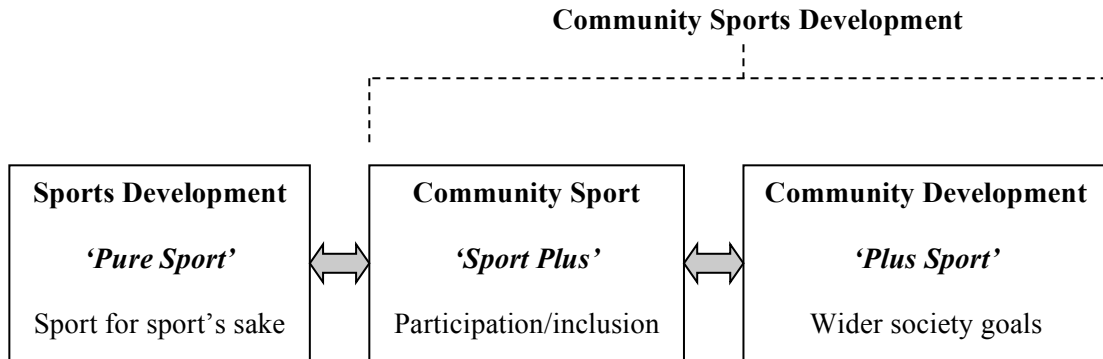


Figure 2: The community sports development continuum (Adapted from Hylton and Totten, 2008).

The continuum provided in Figure 2 has been adapted from Hylton and Totten's (2008) community sports development continuum, but includes an additional element to the scale. This addition is community sport (located in between sport and community development) with an overarching concept - community sport development - which encapsulates both community sport and community development on the continuum.

In providing a rationale for the above continuum, Coalter's (2007a) concept of 'sport plus' and 'plus sport' can be equated to the community sport and community development elements respectively, whilst sports development would represent 'pure sport'. In this way, even within community sport development, there may be differences in the emphasis given to sport. For example, some interventions may be located towards the far right of the continuum where the inclusion of sport in achieving community outcomes is minimal.

These definitions provide an understanding of the context within which sport development programmes operate. Many current initiatives, including the work of SLUK, have been identified as impacting across the continuum to varying degrees and with different focuses. Nonetheless, they collectively locate sport as the vehicle for achieving specified objectives.

4.3 Sport, Physical Activity and Health

As outlined in Sport England's 2008-2011 strategy, a core objective is to increase levels of participation in sport and physical activity across the UK (Sport England, 2008). Increasing the participation at the foundation level, or the 'grassroots' of sport can have a number of effects, such as developing the number of world class athletes and reducing crime and antisocial behaviour. Moreover, increased levels of participation improve health and wellbeing through living a more physically active life. The link between sport, physical activity and health has become increasingly important among policymakers particularly as the rise of obesity levels among the UK population. Evidencing the link between sport and health has become of interest to academics and health professionals alike, given that the relationship between sport and health may provide leverage for continued funding. However, it has not been until relatively recently that evidence for the health benefits of sport and physical activity have been explicitly stated (Bailey, 2006; Almond, 2008; Bloyce and Smith, 2010; Mountjoy, Andersen, Arnstrong, *et al.*, 2011).

The Department of Health's (2004) '*At Least Five a Week*' publication is still perhaps the most comprehensive review of research from around the world evidencing the benefits of physical activity on health. The report highlights the problems with inactivity (which range from obesity, to disease and disability), and examines recent

participation statistics, including the costs of inactivity to society. This section provides an overview of the relationship between sport, physical activity and health, draws on some important research and discusses how the work of organisations such as SLUK contributes towards promoting physical activity and health.

4.3.1 Public Health and Physical Activity Policy

One of the most worrying consequences of low levels of physical activity in the UK is the rapid increase in obesity rates and other related health problems. The WHO states that “unhealthy diets and physical inactivity are thus among the leading causes of the major non-communicable diseases, including cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes and certain types of cancer, and contribute substantially to the global burden of disease, death and disability” (WHO, 2004: 2). The estimated economic cost of inactivity in the UK has been calculated as £3.7bn, if costs attributed to both direct and indirect costs of obesity and inactivity are included (Department of Health, 2004; Collins, 2009). Such concerns have resulted in the development of policies, strategies and recommended guidelines for levels of physical activity in the UK (e.g. Department of Health, 2004; 2011). Despite this political rhetoric with aspirations of a fitter, healthier nation, the message concerning whose role it is to promote and increase physical activity is less clear (Bloyce and Smith, 2010).

Bodies of sport such as Sport England and Sport Wales have fluctuated between a focus on physical activity and that of sport over the past ten years. Currently, as acknowledged in their most recent strategy, Sport England’s pendulum is swinging towards a focus on sport (Sport England, 2008), leaving the promotion of physical activity to other organisations within public health. The Department of Health indicates that the NHS has a key role to play in the promotion of physical activity from a health

perspective, stating that the “health importance of physical activity, exercise and sport is recognised in the NHS Plan” (Dept. of Health, 2004: iv). Similarly, the White Paper *‘Healthy People, Healthy Lives’* outlines plans for promoting physical activity in the UK through initiatives such as a ‘Mass Participation and Community Sport’ legacy programme (Department of Health, 2011).

To help people understand the importance of physical activity, the Chief Medical Officer has published guidelines for the amount and intensity of physical activity that is required for optimum health. In the UK, school sport schemes such as Sport Wales’ ‘5x60’ initiative and Sport England’s ‘5 hour offer’ are designed around the current recommendation for children to participate in “moderate to vigorous intensity physical activity for at least 60 minutes and up to several hours every day” (Dept. of Health, 2011: 7). However, the Department of Education has only placed statutory requirements on all schools in England to provide at least two hours of PE a week rather than five (Dept of Education and Skills, 2003). For adults, the current recommendation is for 150 hours of physical activity per week (Department of Health, 2011). These recommendations have underpinned a number of physical activity participation programmes over the past few years, with government departments of sport setting targets for participation rates over the next two decades (e.g. Climbing Higher, Welsh Assembly Government, 2005; Change 4 Life; 2012).

There is a growing emphasis on increasing participation in sport and physical activity and an increasing body of evidence supporting claims of benefits to health (e.g. Bailey 2006; Mountjoy *et al.*, 2011). Nonetheless, more research is required in this area to explore direct effects of physical activity on health, particularly in the areas of sedentary behaviour which is not understood in the current guidelines, and justify the investment in new initiatives promoting participation in sport and physical activity.

4.4 Sports Leadership – potential benefits?

This chapter has explored a wide range of issues and considerations concerning sport and physical activity within current UK policy and practice. Whilst it is clear that sport has a direct role to play in each of the aspects discussed, sports leadership perhaps plays a more indirect part in the promotion of sport, increased participation and personal development. Nevertheless, it has been suggested that it can impact on a range of sport, health and social outcomes (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). In compiling this review of the current literature, this section concludes the chapter and in doing so, examines current research into sports leadership and locates this study's contribution to knowledge.

Whilst a great deal of research has explored the role and impact of volunteers on sport, far less has examined the role of sports leaders. The most notable studies which have investigated sports leadership have observed the motivations and personal development of leaders within the 'Step into Sport' programme (Kay and Bradbury, 2009); and the motivations to volunteer of those completing SLUK awards as part of the Millennium Volunteers programme (Eley and Kirk, 2002). Kay and Bradbury aimed to explore the contribution of the leaders to social capital, but findings were limited, due to that difficulty of proving the association between the presence of volunteers and long-term community social capital. The study was also limited from a sports leadership perspective due to the fact that the sample used were all school pupils, so the study's results are not representative of the range of sports leaders currently active across the UK working within a range of settings. This identifies the need for more research in this area to examine how sports leaders can impact on both sporting objectives and wider social goals, such as community development. This previous research has provided views and perspectives from a range of people involved in the delivery of the Step into

Sport programme, which is encouraging as such programmes are likely to impact on a wider audience than just the leaders themselves.

Eley and Kirk's (2002) study examined motivations of young sports leaders from a volunteering perspective. The study design was encouraging due its longitudinal nature with the data collection, which allowed exploration of changing motivations over time. However, the study focused on the individuals' motivations to volunteers, rather than their motivations to be a sports leader. The study did include a leadership element in the methodology, since participants were asked about their leadership skills and personal development as they progressed through the Millennium Volunteers programme. Findings showed that participants were motivated by gaining experience and career related benefits of volunteering. However, the quantitative methods adopted in the study were limited in providing more insightful information regarding these findings. Further qualitative research could perhaps explore 'why' and 'how' the sports leaders were motivated by gaining skills and experience through undertaking a sports leadership qualification.

Other research which has examined the role of sports leaders specifically has been extremely limited, due to small sample sizes (Obare and Nichols, 2001); being discursive rather than empirical (Tulley, 2005); or anecdotal (Lawson, 1994). Therefore, there is scope to contribute to the literature through producing more extensive, empirical research which explores the potential benefits that sports leaders have to play in the UK, both on the leaders themselves and on community sport outcomes. The contribution to knowledge that this thesis brings, rests in the exploration of the impact of sports leadership programmes (via SLUK) to developing community sport and the career development of leaders. Through using qualitative in addition to quantitative methods, the lived experiences of sports leaders will be explored, to gain their perspectives of

how sports leadership has aided in their personal development. Furthermore, contribution to knowledge also comes from the investigation of sports leader demographics, and their association with SLUK award completion. Finally, the present research will gain sports leaders' perspectives of the impact that SLUK awards can have on sport and other areas of society; an area within the literature which is currently lacking, and therefore add to the current literature base.

4.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the breadth of literature exploring sports leadership and related aspects of UK sport. Whilst at first glance, sports leadership appears to be a fairly discrete subject area, on greater investigation, the potential impact of sports leadership programmes are far reaching. Whilst the research base is extensive in areas surrounding volunteers both within sport and beyond, the evidence is less apparent with regards to the wider social role of sport and the potential benefits of sports leaders on sport, individuals and society. The role of volunteers in sport, and the impact of sport on the wider community have been discussed, including areas where further research is required. This research project fills some of these gaps in the literature, by investigating the contribution that sports leadership can make to sport and community development, and the impact of such awards on the development of leaders themselves.

Attention now turns to the research design of this study. Part 2 outlines the methodology, epistemology and methods employed in this thesis. The next chapter also provides a rationale for why particular methodological decisions were made, including sampling strategies, data collection procedures and analysis tools.

PART 2

Part 2 contains 5 chapters. First, Chapter 5 provides discussion of the methodology used, including the philosophical underpinnings of the research, the debates and issues surrounding the use of mixed methods in the social sciences and the justification for its use as an appropriate methodology in investigating the impact of SLUK awards on career and community sport development. Chapter 5 also provides the rationale for the study design, including a discussion about how each of the three component studies are linked to construct the thesis.

The remaining three chapters provide details of the methods employed for each separate component of the research. Chapters 6 and 7 outline the two quantitative phases of study, which present the decision making and implementation process for sampling, data collection and data analysis techniques. Finally, Chapter 8 provides the methods employed for the qualitative strand of the research, including interview design and process, and the coding and analysis of the qualitative data using Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS).

Finally, chapter 9 will present the limitations of the research, including the challenges of using mixed methods research, undertaking a piece of commissioned research and other challenges experienced throughout the PhD process. In explaining some of the key decisions which were made during the research process, an emphasis is placed on the pragmatic approach required in implementing evaluation research.

Chapter 5

Mixed Methods Research Design

5.0 Introduction

This chapter introduces the epistemology and methodological approach adopted in examining the impact that SLUK awards have on community sport and career development. It provides details of the mixed methods research design which was employed, in which qualitative and quantitative methods were combined to provide a more enhanced picture of the phenomena being investigated.

The epistemological foundations of the research are discussed, followed by the rationale for the use of a mixed methods approach. In turn, key issues and debates in the mixed methods literature are examined, followed by details of the methodology employed in this research. The research design is introduced, which includes details of the design components, including type of implementation, sampling schemes and the justification for utilising mixed methods. Finally, the process of integrating the data from the qualitative and quantitative components is outlined.

5.1 Epistemological and Philosophical Perspective

The research questions for this study were devised to ensure that the research met the requirements of SLUK and to inform the future direction of sports leadership. Fundamentally though, the research questions were designed to ensure that the researcher was able to meet the requirements of a PhD, through a contribution to knowledge. In undertaking such research, the complexities of designing a project which informs policy or practice, is heavily influenced by a range of political and other external pressures (Devine and Heath, 1999; Brannen, 2005). Furthermore, conducting

research which informs practice requires the researcher to present findings which can be easily understood by both academics and research users, i.e. the funders, among others (Neuman, 2003; Brannen, 2005).

Methodological approaches emanate from the research problems and questions in play (e.g. Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Similarly, methodological choices may be influenced by stakeholders and funders of research. Therefore, the need to ensure that appropriate methods are used to both answer research questions and satisfy stakeholders, can often mean that epistemological foundations of the methodologies are overlooked (Brannen, 2005). The researcher's own philosophical perspective of pragmatism, considers the traditional epistemological perspectives, but adopts a 'third alternative' given the researcher's belief that during the research process, elements of both positivism and constructivism may be present (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007). As a result, the researcher believes that the opposing philosophies of constructivism and positivism both have merits as philosophical perspectives, and recognises the strengths and weaknesses of both points view (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2009). Furthermore, pragmatism focuses on providing a solution to the research problem, through allowing a range of methods to be adopted, which is considered desirable for good social research, which will inevitably require the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods (Greene, Benjamin and Goodyear, 2001; Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher and Perez-Prado, 2003; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Pragmatism also "prefers action to philosophising and endorses 'practical theory'" (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009: 74). Pragmatism therefore places an emphasis on answering the research questions using whichever methods are deemed most appropriate within the financial and time constraints of the real world.

Pragmatism shares much ground with other epistemological perspectives. For example, pragmatists believe in the inductive-deductive research cycle, in which the role of theory shifts during any given research project (Morgan, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2009; Johnson and Onweugbuzie, 2004). As a result of rejecting the ‘either-or’ philosophical viewpoints, pragmatism promotes the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in answering the research questions. In so doing, pragmatists do not ignore the opposing philosophies of constructivism and positivism, but rather embrace both (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2009).

From an axiological perspective, pragmatists believe that research is influenced by researcher values much like constructivism; however, pragmatists are not overly concerned by the notion of bias (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Johnson and Onweugbuzie, 2004). Pragmatists suggest that the research process has some element of subjectivity, but also argue that achieving complete subjectivity (the belief that constructivists hold) would be difficult (Morgan, 2007). When considering the nature of being, ontologically, pragmatism supports the view that the world exists independently, and the pragmatist’s truth is that all individuals hold their own interpretations of that world around them (Morgan, 2007; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

From the perspective of SLUK and that of the practical pragmatist, it is important to remember that a preoccupation with philosophical debates does not get the research done (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Therefore, whilst a good understanding of the epistemological and methodological debates which are present in research is necessary, maintaining a focus on ‘what works’ in providing solutions to the research problem is essential in meeting the needs of funders of research.

Taking the researcher’s philosophical orientation into account, the practical constraints of the project, and crucially the research questions posed, a research methodology was

chosen which was deemed most appropriate. Answering the research questions as fully as possible should remain at the forefront of the researcher's priorities, and as a result, the research questions should drive the choice of methods, sampling schemes and analysis techniques employed (Onweugbuzie and Leech, 2006; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; 2006). This research methodology utilised both qualitative and quantitative methods to address the research problem.

5.2 Rationale for Mixed Methods Design

Pragmatism promotes the use of whichever methodology is best suited to answering the research question through adopting what is known as a 'what works' approach (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Onweugbuzie and Leech, 2006). This approach, which has been popularised by a number of mixed methods researchers (e.g. Howe, 1988; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) encourages researchers to utilise both quantitative and qualitative methods to ensure the most appropriate tools are employed in solving research problems.

The decision to adopt a mixed methods approach was based on the following reasons. Firstly, utilising both quantitative and qualitative methods would enable the analysis of a large sample of sports leaders from across the UK whilst also exploring the in-depth perceptions of participants undertaking the awards. In this way, mixed methods is used to provide stronger inferences as the limitations of one method are offset by the other method (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Wiggins, 2011). It has been suggested that with applied research "combining quantitative and qualitative information is not only advisable but inevitable" (Riggin, 1997: 87). Secondly, utilising both quantitative and qualitative approaches would allow a more in depth explanation of the phenomenon being investigated, particularly if the qualitative

strand follows the quantitative strand in the research (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). In this research, the final qualitative phase which explores the perceptions of those who have undertaken SLUK awards helps to explain and build upon the findings from the first two quantitative studies. Therefore, the decision to utilise a mixed methods approach within the context of the present study was able to ensure that the impact of SLUK awards on career and community development was explored fully.

5.3 Tensions in Mixed Methods Research

Despite the growing popularity of mixed methods, particularly in social science research, this approach is not without criticism (Devine and Heath, 1999; Bryman, 2006). Previous discussion has touched upon some conflicting tensions within the mixed methods literature. However, this next section provides a more in-depth overview of the key inconsistencies and debates regarding mixed methods research, which were considered in this study.

Since its rapid growth in popularity as a methodological approach, various definitions of ‘mixing methods’ have been offered including multi-methods (Morse, 2003); methodological eclecticism (Wiggins, 2011); mixed synthesis studies (Sandelowski, Voils and Barroso, 2006); and mixed methods (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; 2009; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson 2003; 2007; Greene, 2007). This confusing basis for mixed methods research is a concern for those in the field, particularly as different terms adopt different processes for ‘mixing’ qualitative and quantitative data (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). For this research, the term mixed methods will be used throughout, which has been defined as “a type of research design in which QUAL and QUAN approaches are used in types of questions,

research methods, data collection and analysis procedures, and/or inferences” (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2003: 711).

Another contentious point within the mixed methods literature, concerns the conflicting philosophical perspectives underpinning qualitative and quantitative methodologies, known as the incompatibility thesis (Bryman, 1988; Howe, 1988). This idea argues that mixing methods is not possible, due to fundamental differences in the scientific world-views of positivism and constructivism which underpin quantitative and qualitative methodologies respectively (Brannen, 2005). However, advocates of the mixed methods approach have suggested an alternative philosophical perspective, pragmatism, which as previously stated, overcomes the paradigmatic tensions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Similarly, other researchers have suggested that mixing methods is compatible, since “quantitative and qualitative methods are inextricably intertwined” (Howe, 1988: 12) and that the quantitative-qualitative dichotomy can be considered as more of a continuum, since research is unlikely to ever be completely objective and value free (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddle and Tashakkori, 2009). This belief also suggests that throughout the research process, the researcher may move backwards and forwards across the continuum from inductive to deductive logic, which thus allows researchers to both test hypotheses and generate theory in a research project (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2009). Collectively, proponents of mixed methods research suggest that a focus on choosing the appropriate methods according to ‘what works’ in the project (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Howe, 1988), and that epistemological debates will not be resolved quickly, nor do they get research done (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Another criticism of the mixed methods approach is the concern that pragmatists may focus too much on ‘what works’ and ignore the importance of the philosophical foundations of methodology (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2003). Similarly, researchers

may choose pragmatism as an easy answer or excuse to ignore epistemological debates or avoid explanations concerning rationales for the choice of research design (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Indeed, as Howe (1988: 10) points out, those proponents of the incompatibility thesis are cautious of the “epistemologically suspect criterion of ‘what works’”. Nonetheless, pragmatists who choose to adopt a mixed methods approach and carefully consider the rationale for combining methods and the research design used, are able to produce more complete research which overcomes the limitations of mono-method research (Kelle, 2006; Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002).

With regards to research design, another frequently cited concern with the use of mixed methods is the inconsistency between the justification for use and how they are actually combined in practice (Bryman, 2006). Certainly, given the unease surrounding the use of mixed methods as a means by which to avoid difficult questions regarding their research design, advocates of the mixed methods approach must ensure that the purpose of their research and subsequent methodological decisions made is transparent and carefully considered. In a study conducted by Bryman (2006) which examined the use of mixed methods in published articles, over 27% did not state the rationale for the choice of methodological processes used. A number of various typologies and rationales for employing mixed methods have been developed by various authors, which can be adapted by researchers to assist in designing their own strategies (e.g. Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006; Bryman, 2006; Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). These typologies include a number of methodological and practical considerations such as sampling strategies (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007), justifications for use of mixed methods (Bryman, 2006), timing of the research components i.e. sequential or concurrent (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006), priority of methodological approaches (Morse, 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006) and the stage of integration of methods (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006; Creswell and Plano Clark,

2007). What is clear, however, is that even with the vast number of typologies available, not all research projects will necessarily fit with a particular typology. Furthermore, researchers may not be clear on all aspects of the research design at the outset, such as methodological priorities, since the research process can be unpredictable (Bryman, 2006). Therefore, researchers must set out with a commitment to a particular research design, but understand that flexibility is necessary throughout the research process. This ultimately should be a strength for the pragmatic mixed methods researcher. Having discussed tensions in mixed methods and the subsequent considerations for research, we now turn our attention to the research methodology adopted in the present study.

5.4 Research Methodology

Methodology can be defined as “a way of thinking about and studying social phenomena” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p.1). As such, it presents a broad approach to research, specifying key elements to the research process such as epistemological considerations, sampling strategies, and rationales for data collection and inference strategies (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). In contrast, a discussion of the methods provides details of the specific procedures and techniques employed for data collection and analysis. In more recent years, the mixed methods approach to research has been referred to as the third research paradigm (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004) and the third methodological movement (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003), representing an alternative methodological approach to purely quantitative or qualitative methodologies.

Central to the definition of a methodology are the philosophical assumptions which underpin the particular methodology chosen (Greene, 2008). This has therefore resulted in a number of authors expressing concerns over whether methods can be mixed, and has questioned the notion that mixed methodology can in fact be constituted as a

methodology in its own right (e.g. Lincoln and Guba, 1985). However, some authors in the mixed methods field have attempted to demonstrate that mixed methods can be classified as a distinctive methodology (Greene, 2006; Greene, 2008; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Greene (2006) suggests that a methodology consists of four domains: philosophical assumptions, inquiry logistics, guidelines for practice, and socio-political commitments, and that a mixed methods approach is no different in providing its own stance for each of these four domains. Therefore, mixed methods can be classified as a distinct methodology. This perspective has been supported by other academics who also view mixed methods as a third methodological paradigm, and through future research, a third methodological movement will be established (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003). Subsequently, a mixed methods approach was adopted in the present study which underpins the research process and design.

5.5 Research Design

By employing a mixed methods approach, the aim of the research was to investigate the characteristics of sports leaders, and examine the perceived impact of SLUK awards on career and community sport development. The rationale for adopting a mixed methods approach was that the most appropriate methods for answering the research questions be utilised, ensuring a more comprehensive answer to the research problem (Morse, 2003; Kelle, 2006; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). However, deciding on the mixed methods design is more complex than simply assuming that both qualitative and quantitative methods will be employed. As a result, a number of differing typologies have been suggested by academics in the field of mixed methods research (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006; Creswell, 2007; Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Subsequently, I will now outline the specific research design which was adopted in this research.

5.5.1 Number of Research Phases

The first factor to consider in utilising a mixed methods approach is the number of phases or strands present in the study (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006). In this research, three phases were present; two quantitative and one qualitative phase. The first quantitative phase consisted of an analysis of SLUK participant data, to explore associations between demographic characteristics of sports leaders and whether they were likely to complete the awards. The second quantitative phase consisted of a survey questionnaire which provided an initial insight into the impact of the SLUK awards on career development of those who undertook an award. The third and final phase, which was qualitative, consisted of semi-structured interviews, conducted with sports leaders to gain their perspective of the SLUK awards, and whether they might contribute to career and community sport outcomes.

Each research strand served to address different research questions. However, the qualitative phase focussed on two research questions; therefore research question 2 was answered by combining the findings of two research phases, as can be seen in Table 1.

Research Question	Research Phase
RQ1: <i>What socio-demographic factors are associated with whether candidates register for, engage with or complete a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award?</i>	Phase 1(Quantitative) – Database
RQ2: <i>What perceived impact does engaging with a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award have on the personal and career development of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 2 (Quantitative) – Survey Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Interviews
RQ3: <i>What perceived impact does sports leadership have on the development of sport and the wider community from the perspective of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Interviews

Table 1: The Research Questions and their corresponding Research Phases

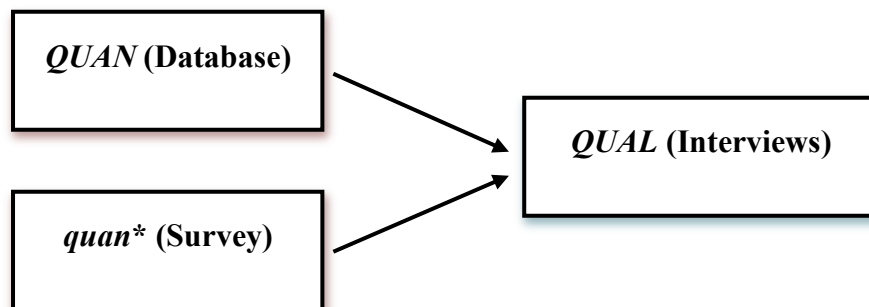
5.5.2 Type of Implementation

As previously mentioned, a number of designs have been suggested by researchers in the mixed methods field (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2006; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). These designs, or ‘typologies’, aim to assist researchers in designing their research projects, by providing structure and a common language (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2006). However, it is important to realise that not all research projects will ‘fit’ into one of these previously constructed typologies, but that the researcher must create their own typology to suit the specific research requirements of their own study (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Priority or dominance of each methodological approach (i.e. quantitative or qualitative) is a key factor which should be considered when deciding on the research design

(Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Morse, 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006). Morse (2003) suggests that this is necessary, as the researcher needs to know whether they are working inductively or deductively at any point in time. However, despite maybe initially pursuing a particular methodological approach at the outset of the research, this may change as the research progresses (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006). So whilst determining the relative priority of research methodologies requires some forward planning and commitment, it is also necessary to understand that the research process in unpredictable and elements of the design may have to change (Bryman, 2006).

Initially, in this research equal priority was given to both methodological approaches at the outset as it was felt that each component deserved equal commitment and attention. However, due to unforeseen events which resulted in a poor response rate to the survey questionnaire in Phase 2 (see chapter 7 for further details), the relative weighting was altered to reflect the contribution of each phase to the research. The subsequent priority given to each methodological approach and phase of the research can be seen in Figure 3 below.



(level of priority is denoted by the use of capital letters; lowercase letters demonstrates lower level of priority)*

Figure 3: Priority of each methodological phase

A key factor in the implementation process is the manner in which data is collected from a time orientation perspective, i.e. concurrently or sequentially (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Creswell, 2003; Ivankova *et al.*, 2006; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006). In this research, a sequential design was implemented, in which the qualitative research phase followed the initial quantitative strands, as can be seen in Figure 3 above. Therefore, the data collected in the quantitative phases was analysed prior to the design and implementation of the qualitative phase. This helped to inform the design and content of the interviews in the final stage of the research. Creswell (2003: 213) refers to this model as one of an “explanatory design”, as the qualitative data collected aims to provide some explanation of the initial quantitative data collected in the first two phases. Creswell (2003) also suggests that priority is often given to the quantitative phase. However, as previously discussed, equal commitment at the outset of the research was given to each research phase. This approach allows some mixing of the two methodologies during the design stage to ensure the qualitative data collected complements and enhances the previously collected quantitative data. This approach was particularly useful to the researcher given that unforeseen circumstances hindered the collection of data during Phase 2 (survey questionnaires) (see chapter 7). Due to a poor survey response at phase two, I was able to subsequently enhance the detail and content of the interviews at Phase 3 to compensate for the limited data collected in the previous phase. The other advantage of adopting a sequential design is that it allows the researcher to manage their time more effectively as the focus is only on one research methodology at a time (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006). Similarly, its linear nature provides a more straightforward approach to analysis and interpretation, as integration of the methodologies occurs at the interpretation phase following data analysis (Creswell *et al.*, 2003). Figure 4 provides a graphical representation of the sequential explanatory design used in this research.

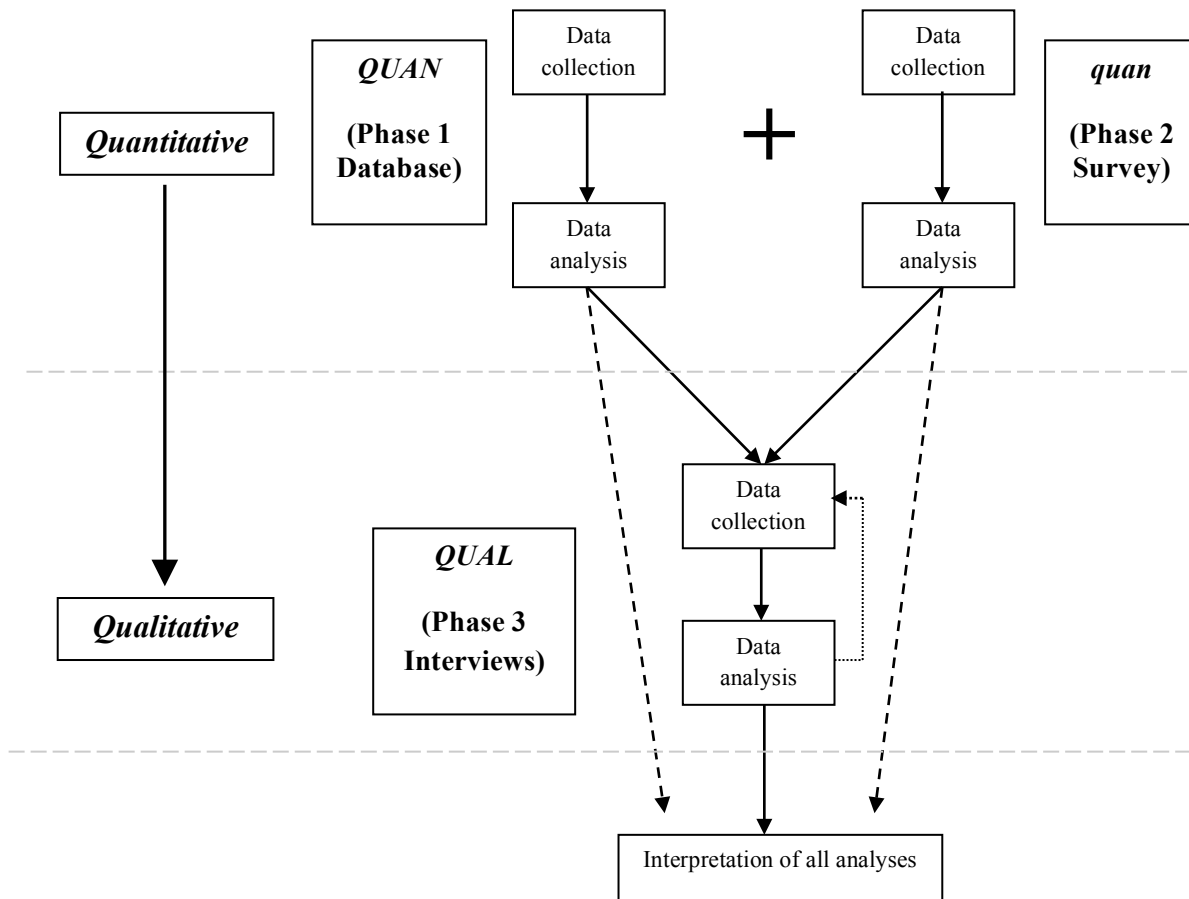


Figure 4: Research implementation process – sequential explanatory design

As can be seen in Figure 4, whilst there is a sequential process between the quantitative and qualitative elements of the research, the two quantitative phases are actually concurrent in design. This is because these two phases are independent in that they address different research questions, but the analysis from both helped to inform the design of the third qualitative phase. Therefore, the ‘+’ sign indicates a simultaneous form of data collection and analysis, and an arrow indicated a sequential form of data collection and analysis. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 277) refer to a sequential design which has more than two phases as an “iterative sequential mixed analysis”. However, as further noted by Teddlie and Tashakkori, such research designs can be increasingly complex, and as such, a complete list of mixed methods typologies would be near impossible to develop.

Whilst it is apparent that the implementation process of this research does not completely fit with the sequential design proposed by Creswell *et al.* (2003), it is necessary to adapt previously developed typologies to ensure there is a ‘fit’ with the current research project (Bryman, 2006), as illustrated above in Figure 2. However, this research will be referred to as a sequential explanatory design, as this definition best depicts the most important elements of the research design.

In this research design, another useful feature is that the sequential nature of data collection means that the initial quantitative phase can be useful in selecting cases for the qualitative phase (Kelle, 2006; Creswell *et al.*, 2003). Using the quantitative findings, criteria for the sampling of participants can be identified to overcome validity issues often present in qualitative research regarding a focus on marginal cases rather than considering the wider population (Kelle, 2006). Furthermore, a sequential design can enable the use of nested and purposive sampling (see section 5.5.4).

5.5.3 Justifying Mixed Methods

A key criticism of mixed methods approaches concerns the lack of forethought regarding their justification (Bryman, 2006). Researchers rarely state the reason for utilising mixed methods (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989). Furthermore, the rationale provided by researchers for employing a mixed methods approach may differ from how qualitative and quantitative data is mixed in practice (Bryman, 2006). Therefore, it is crucial to carefully consider why quantitative and qualitative research is being combined to ensure that in practice the research design and implementation is indeed ‘mixed’.

In the present study, the purpose for combining qualitative and quantitative methods was to achieve the ‘enhancement’ of results; that is, using one method to build on the findings of another (Bryman, 2006). This justification is similar to Greene *et al.*’s. (1989: 259) concept of ‘complementarity’ which “seeks elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with the results of another”. However, ‘enhancement’ aims to provide a more specific justification for combining methods. In this research, the interviews in the final phase which explored the views and thoughts of the sports leaders themselves, aimed to enhance and build on the existing findings gathered in the two initial quantitative phases. The justification for ‘enhancement’ has been found to be a popular purpose for mixing methods. In an analysis of 232 mixed methods articles published, 52.2% were found to use this rationale in practice (Bryman, 2006).

5.5.4 Sampling Strategies

A key part of any research project is the strategy chosen to select suitable cases or participants. This is important as decisions on sampling impact the quality and validity of the inferences drawn from the research (Collins and O’Cathain, 2009; Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Jiao, 2006). A range of sampling strategies and designs have been developed by theorists for mixed methods designs (Kemper, Stringfield and Teddlie, 2003; Teddlie and Yu, 2007; Collins, *et al.*, 2006; Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Two key factors need to be considered when choosing a sampling strategy, these are: (i) the time orientation of the research phases, and (ii) the relationship between the different phase samples (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). As we have seen, in this research, a sequential explanatory mixed methods design was adopted in which participants were selected for their views and experience of the phenomena being

investigated; i.e. the SLUK awards. Therefore, a sampling strategy was employed throughout the research which ensured that those individuals who were selected were actively involved with the SLUK awards. Determining the specific sampling design employed in this research is more complex. Due to the complexity of mixed methods research designs, there is a need to be flexible with the sampling strategy employed across the research process, as different sampling strategies may be needed at the different stages (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Changes to the sampling strategy may also be required due to unforeseen circumstances in the research process, which may result in alterations to approaches used. Therefore, the different sampling strategies employed at each phase of the research will now be outlined.

For Phase 1 of the research, a purposive sampling scheme was used (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007), as all candidates from a specific population were chosen to be used in the research. This population were selected as all participants represented one criterion – they had all registered to undertake an SLUK level 2 or 3 award within a five year period, thus providing a cross-section of the data available.

For Phase 2, a nested sampling scheme was adopted (Collins, *et al.*, 2006), in which participants were chosen from the population used in Phase 1. This sampling scheme actually represented a simple, random sample, in that all participants used in Phase 1 of the research were given an equal opportunity to complete a survey questionnaire, thus being included in the research.

Finally, for Phase 3, the qualitative strand, a purposive sampling strategy was adopted (Collins, *et al.*, 2006; Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Purposive sampling was used here because there was a need to address specific research questions which required the use of information rich cases (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The first sampling strategy meant that cases were initially selected from the sample used in Phase 2 of the

research, thus was a nested design (see Figure 5). However, to ensure data saturation was achieved, purposive and theoretical sampling was also used to fulfil the requirements of the research questions and stakeholders (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, Kemper, Stringfield and Teddlie, 2003). Furthermore, due to the selection criteria used in this phase, all cases were nested within the sample used in phase one, as Figure 5 illustrates.

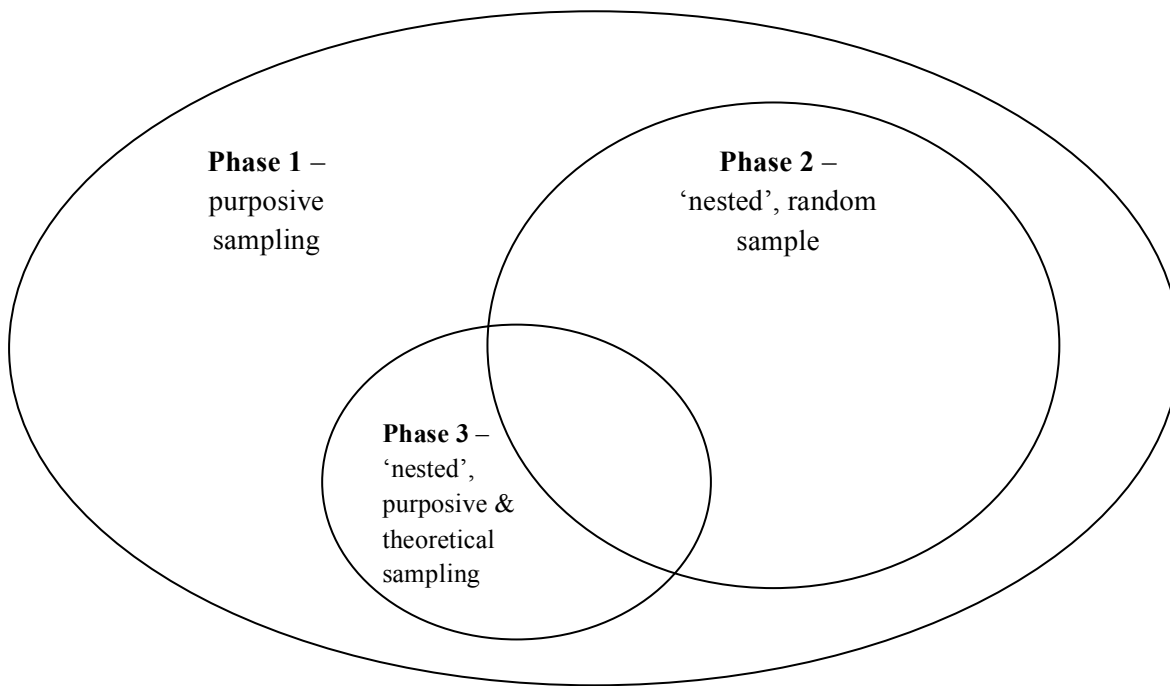


Figure 5: Sampling scheme employed across the three phases of research.

Figure 5 outlines the sampling strategy employed within the present research. Further details of the sampling design employed at each stage of the research can be found in chapters 6, 7 and 8.

5.5.5 Data Integration

A final consideration with regards to the process of mixed methods implementation is the stage at which data is integrated; representing the ‘mixing’ of qualitative and quantitative methods. It is this integration of the data which distinguishes mixed

methods from mono-method designs (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2006). In this research a mixing of data occurred at two stages: firstly during the research design stage, and then again following the analysis of the separate research phases, which is referred to as the inferential stage.

Design Stage

The research design stage refers to connecting one data type to another at the methods design stage (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). This is done by using the analysis of one data type, to help inform or design a subsequent research phase. In its purest form, this connection of data types would mean that the data analysis of one stage would result in identifying a *need* for a subsequent phase of research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). However, in this research, an approach more in line with that suggested by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2006) was employed, in which one phase of data collection aims to gather and analyse data associated with another phase. In this research, data collected in the two initial quantitative phases were analysed prior to the collection of qualitative data in the third phase. Therefore, any gaps in the analysis or questions which were identified in phases 1 and 2 were included in the design of the semi-structured interview schedules in the qualitative phase. This ensured that the final qualitative phase complemented and enhanced the initial findings from the quantitative phases.

Inferential Stage

The inferential stage refers to the point at which data is combined following the individual analysis of each research phase (Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003). Mixing methods at this stage of the research process is the most common way of combining data (Creswell *et al.*, 2003). This is also the easiest way of combining data, as the quantitative and qualitative data can be collected and analysed independently, and then combined at the end in the discussion stage. Whilst from a paradigmatic perspective

some authors are sceptical about integrating methods, the pragmatist's approach to conducting research recognises that mixed methods provides a useful and beneficial way of mixing data for purposes of enhancement, completeness or other reasons (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Greene *et al.*, 1989; Bryman, 2006). Furthermore, the preoccupation with epistemological debates results in a lack of focus on what is a crucial part of mixed methods research – the inference stage (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003: 35) suggest that the key strength of mixed methods research is “the quality of the inferences that are made at the end of a series of phase/strands of study”. Therefore, in this research, the findings of each study phase will be combined in the inference stage to provide meta-inferences from which conclusions can be drawn (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003) and achieve the purpose of enhancement through the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods.

5.6 Qualitative Methodological Approaches

There are a number of methods which can be adopted when conducting qualitative research (Bryman, 2008). Many of these strategies adopt similar techniques and generic processes and often, researchers simply refer to the use of qualitative research rather than specifying a particular strategy (Richards and Morse, 2007). The underlying qualitative strategy adopted in the present study is based on grounded theory methodology (GTM) (Glaser *et al.*). Whilst not adopting the GTM in its entirety, certain elements which are conducive to qualitative research approaches were utilised.

5.6.1 Issues with grounded theory methodology

Grounded theory methodology (GTM) was developed in the 1960s by Glaser and Strauss (1967) during their research into dying patients. Originally supporting the dominant epistemological viewpoints of the time, positivism, GTM provided researchers with a systematic and rigorous approach to conducting qualitative research which could generate theory (Charmaz, 2006). GTM can be defined as: “a specific methodology on how to get from systematically collecting data to producing a multivariate conceptual theory” (Glaser, 1999: 836). For Glaser and Strauss (1967), the key components which define GTM are:

- Simultaneous collection and analysis of data
- Developing codes and categories directly from the data
- The development of theory to explain phenomena
- Using the constant comparison method which compares data throughout the analysis
- Sampling according to theory development (i.e. theoretical sampling)
- Memo-writing to develop and elaborate themes and categories
- Conducting the literature review after the analysis

The aim of GTM is to achieve conceptual abstraction (Holton, 2007). Since its inception, the use of GTM has proved popular, particularly in social science and nursing (Morse, 1991; Charmaz, 2000; Cutcliffe, 2000), but more recently, GTM has come ‘under attack’ since its ongoing advancement has moved in various conflicting directions which at times do not encompass all of the components listed above (Charmaz, 2000). This inconsistent approach to GTM has in some cases, lead researchers to claim they are using GTM despite evident weaknesses in the approaches adopted (Charmaz and Bryant, 2007; Suddaby, 2006). Indeed, Glaser himself has stated

that the spread of GTM has become contaminated, and that this spread is “sometimes only by name” (Glaser, 1999: 838), which has lead others to refer to GTM as a ‘non-method’ (Holton, 2007). This therefore emphasises the need to recognise the differences in the processes used in GTM and qualitative research to ensure that the stated methods employed accurately reflect the research process adopted.

It is important to stress at this point that whilst strategies that have been employed in this study are based on GTM, the researcher recognises that it cannot be claimed that the study has adopted GTM in its entirety. Nevertheless, the key elements of its approach are appropriate in formulating a qualitative method that can effectively answer the research questions posed. These factors will now be discussed.

5.6.2 Delaying the Literature Review

Perhaps the most contentious point which has surrounded the use of GTM over the years is the requirement that the review of literature is only carried out following the data analysis (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The underlying assumption in conducting a literature review subsequent to the data analysis is that this can lead to preconceived ideas when analysing the data (Glaser, 2009, Holton, 2007). However, this is strongly opposed by other researchers in the field, who claim that for novice researchers, such as PhD students, ignoring the literature can be problematic (Charmaz, 2006). Reviewing the literature early on in a research project is necessary in stimulating ideas and areas for study, identifying gaps in the literature and formulating the research questions (Charmaz, 2006; McGhee, Marland and Atkinson, 2007). For the majority of PhD projects (as in the case of the present study), a rather rigid format needs to be followed, in which the student must engage closely with the relevant study area and develop a detailed research proposal prior to data collection and analysis (Charmaz, 2006). For

these reasons, according to Glaser it is impossible to conduct a GTM study if the researcher has prior knowledge and preconceived ideas on the study area. Therefore, this study does not claim to use GTM, but the methods are based on strategies employed within the approach.

5.6.3 Simultaneous data collection and analysis

The process of collecting data at the same time as analysis is conducted is a core element to GTM (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Through the process of analysing data as soon as the first piece of data is collected, codes and categories begin to emerge immediately (Bryman, 2008). By starting to analyse the data from the beginning, new cases can be selected via theoretical sampling, which ensures that all categories identified in the data are well formed, avoiding the presences of gaps in the analysis (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Similarly, the simultaneous collection and analysis of data can prevent an overwhelming amount of data piling up at the end of the data collection phase (Wiener, 2007). Whilst this is central to the process of GTM as it allows theoretical saturation to be reached and the development of categories to emerge rather than be forced (Charmaz, 2006), this approach of simultaneous collection and analysis is sensible in all qualitative research (Bryman, 2008). This is particularly true for the novice researcher who may become swamped by the volume of data collected, particularly with interviews (Bryman, 2008).

5.6.4 Coding in GTM

Coding is viewed as the core process within the ‘classic’ GTM model (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Holton, 2007). Through the process of coding at the analysis stage of the

research, segments of data are categorised and organised and the start of conceptual abstraction (Charmaz, 2006; Holton, 2007). In GTM, coding takes on a number of different forms, including open coding, axial coding and selective coding. Whilst coding and constant comparison (see next section below) are seen as the crucial process by which theoretical interpretations of the data can be determined, similar coding techniques are the basis to most qualitative data analysis (Richards and Morse, 2007; Bryman, 2008). Indeed, for most qualitative researchers, coding provides a method for sorting data, abstracting from the data and allowing themes or categories to emerge from the data (Richards and Morse, 2007). (Specific details of the methods adopted for the present study can be found in Chapter 8).

5.6.5 Constant Comparison Process

Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest that constant comparison is central to the process of GTM. Constant comparison is a technique whereby the development of theories arises through constant, systematic comparisons of the data during analysis (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007). Through this process, analytic distinctions are made between categories and codes, which help to identify differences and relationships in the data and in turn build theory (Charmaz, 1995; 2006). Through the use of the constant comparison method, researcher bias in the data is unearthed which therefore keeps the abstractions which emerge from the data, independent from the researcher (Glaser, 2007). Classic GTM utilises the constant comparative method to raise concepts identified in the data to higher, abstract levels, and integrating these abstractions into a theory (Holton, 2007). Raising qualitative data beyond the descriptive level is important in theory building, as it allows expansion of scope, generalisation to similar problems in other contexts and it enables the recognition of patterns and variations (Morse, 2004).

This higher level of abstraction is particularly important in PhD study, where a higher level of analysis beyond simple description may be expected and the constant comparison method can aid students in reaching this theoretical level of abstraction (Glaser, 2009). However, Corbin and Strauss (2008: 73) suggest that the use on comparison during qualitative data analysis is “one of those staple features of social science research”, indicating that forms of comparison are appropriate to other qualitative methods and particularly useful in identifying the properties and dimensions of categories (see section 8.8.3 for more detail on properties and dimensions).

5.6.6 Memo-writing

Memo-writing is regarded as the written records which contain the product of data analyses (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Memos are central to GTM as they allow the researcher to bring analysis of data and codes early on in the research process (Charmaz, 2006). Without the inclusion of memos in the research process, Glaser suggests that the researcher is therefore not conducting GTM (Glaser, 1978). Memo writing also helps to raise the data to an abstract level, and aid in guiding the researcher with the next steps of data collection, analysis and coding (Holton, 2007). Similar approaches to memo writing are described in other qualitative methods, such as code notes, which are written to record questions, ideas relationships and theoretical concepts about the codes developed (Flick, 2002; Richards and Morse, 2007). Nevertheless, in both GTM and other qualitative research methods, memos can provide a record to assist the researcher in reflection of the research process, in addition to providing a means by which more abstract and theoretical levels can be achieved in the data (Richards and Morse, 2007).

5.6.7 GTM and Qualitative Methods

The key components of GTM have been discussed. With the changing nature of approaches to GTM away from more classic approaches (e.g. Glaser and Strauss, 1967) to more constructivist approaches (e.g. Charmaz, 2006; Corbin and Strauss, 2008), the specific processes and techniques employed tend to vary, often according to one's theoretical perspective. Despite Glaser's insistence that there is only one way of conducting GTM (Glaser, 2007; Bryant, 2003), it is apparent in other areas of qualitative research, similar approaches may be used (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Richards and Morse, 2007; Flick, 2002). Indeed, the notion that Corbin and Strauss' latest book which utilises techniques from GTM, is simply titled 'Basics of Qualitative Research, 3rd Edition (2009) reflects a more open approach to using certain elements of GTM with other qualitative methods. Nevertheless, it would be wrong to claim the use of GTM unless the key components of the approach were employed in their entirety (Bryman, 2008). The discussions and debates concerning what GTM is and what it is not, will continue to be written, and clarity of the approaches taken and how these fit with a researcher's philosophical perspective and research objectives remains crucial. As stated by Walker and Myrick, it is perhaps "more about the researcher and less about the method" (2006: 558). Fundamentally, for the stakeholders of applied research, an appropriate method which provides the 'what works' is perhaps of greatest importance.

5.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a discussion of the methodologies employed, including the epistemological underpinnings and debates surrounding the use of mixed methods research. Issues, purposes and advantages of mixed methods research have been considered to provide a clear rationale for its use as an appropriate methodology in

exploring the impact of SLUK awards on career and community sport development. This has included a justification for the use of GTM in developing a theoretical model from the qualitative data (which is discussed in chapter 12). With references to literature discussing mixed methods typologies, the research implementation process including; design, sampling decisions and data integration have been outlined, to provide a clear and transparent approach to the research process. An overview of the key components in the research design can be found in Table 2.

The qualitative methods employed in the research which are based on techniques utilised in grounded theory methodology have been explained and discussed. An emphasis on the need to be flexible during the research process has been central throughout the chapter, in addition to the practical and pragmatic nature of such evaluation research, in which answering the research questions, achieving academic rigour and meeting the needs of stakeholders all need to be considered and balanced. Our attention now turns to the specific methods employed at each of the quantitative and qualitative phases. Chapter 6 and 7 focus on the data collection procedures and analyses of the quantitative phases, and chapter 8 outlines the processes involved in data collection and analysis for the qualitative phase.

Philosophical perspective	Pragmatism
Methodology	Mixed Methods (Quantitative & Qualitative)
Justification for Mixed Methods approach	Enhancement
Number of strands	3 (2 quantitative & 1 qualitative)
Type of implementation	Sequential Explanatory design
Sampling strategies	Purposive, nested design; Convenience & Theoretical sampling
Data methods & collection	QUAN: Secondary data – SLUK database; survey questionnaire QUAL: Semi-structured interviews
Data analysis	QUAN: Binary Logistic Regression; descriptive analysis; QUAL: Qualitative coding and theory generation
Stages of Data Integration	Design (methods) & inferential stages

Table 2: Summary of research design and implementation process

Chapter 6

Study 1: Candidate Database - Methods

6.0 Introduction

This chapter provides details of the methods used in Study 1, which addressed research question 1: *What socio-demographic factors are associated with whether candidates register for, engage with or complete a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award?*

This phase involved an analysis of SLUK data to explore the socio-demographic factors of candidates undertaking level 2 and 3 awards. This chapter provides details of the participants used in this study, including sampling strategies and the nature of the data with regards to anonymity, ownership and its origins. This is followed by a discussion of the time-consuming process of data cleaning and the method for calculating socio-economic measures for the participants. Finally, details of the analysis process employed to identify associations and correlations within the data.

6.1 Participants

Participants in this study consisted of candidates who had registered for an SLUK award. SLUK record on a database detail of all candidates who access their leadership awards which includes personal and course information. Through assigning unique identification numbers to each candidate, SLUK are able to track individuals as they progress through the leadership pathway, from one award to the next. Information recorded on the database is completed by candidates at the point of award registration and data is periodically updated on the internal database as candidates register for, or complete subsequent award programmes.

6.2 Sampling

A purposive sampling scheme was employed in phase one, given that all participants were specifically selected to participate since they met the criterion of having an involvement with the SLUK awards. Due to the volume of participants present on the database however, it was decided that a cross-section of the database would be analysed to explore the characteristics of the candidates undertaking SLUK awards. The cross-sectional sample included all candidates registered to undertake a level 2 or 3 award, during the time period of 1st September 2004 to 31st August 2009, providing 5 years of candidate data. I selected this data following discussions with SLUK as it was believed that it would provide a large dataset which allowed comprehensive analysis using the most recent data available, in addition to ensuring statistical significance at the analysis phase could be achieved (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Another reason for selecting this data sample was a preference expressed by SLUK to focus the research on Level 2 and 3 awards, as these are their most established awards. SLUK also underwent a large restructure in 2004, therefore data prior to this was considered outdated due to changes in their operational processes and qualification objectives post 2004.

6.3 Nature of the Data

The data from SLUK database used in study 1 was secondary data and not collected personally by the researcher. The database was (and remains) the property of SLUK, who had collected the personal details of candidates over the previous 5 years. For this reason, there were a number of things to consider in terms of how this data was handled. Firstly, to ensure data protection and anonymity, all personal information (such as names, addresses, contact telephone numbers and email addresses) was removed by SLUK from the database before it was sent to me. Unique candidate identification

numbers were generated by SLUK and included within the data which allowed the researcher to distinguish between different candidates, but only SLUK were able to link the identification number back to an actual individual and their personal information.

Secondly, SLUK controlled the process of data input into the database, therefore, it had to be assumed that data had been input correctly as I would have been unable to notice all errors. However, in an attempt to ensure that the data was complete and did not include obvious errors or omissions, the database was thoroughly checked and cleaned to remove incomplete datasets.

6.4 Data Cleaning

Once the sample data had been received as an Access database via email, it was immediately exported to an Excel 2007 spreadsheet for ease of cleaning. Due to the number of cases in the raw dataset ($n=152,772$), Excel 2003 was unable to store this number of data rows due to having a maximum capacity of 65,569 rows, hence the updated Excel 2007 was used.

The cleaning process was time consuming but essential in ensuring complete and accurate data with which to perform the necessary analyses. This was one of the disadvantages of inheriting secondary data rather than collecting research data directly. The first stage in the cleaning process was to remove duplicate entries for candidates as the data had been emailed to the researcher in three separate data files (due to the large size of the files). All candidates who had registered for both level 2 and level 3 awards were updated to appear on a single row, resulting in each row representing a different candidate. 34,668 cases had been removed following this duplication removal stage ($n=118,104$).

6.5 Missing Data

Within the database sample a number of candidate datasets were missing information. According to SLUK, this missing data was due to candidates failing to complete the registration forms fully, as it is not compulsory for candidates to provide certain information such as details of ethnicity or disability. An additional reason which may account for missing data is that SLUK personnel may only have input vital candidate information (e.g. date of birth, postcode etc.) required for their records during exceptionally busy periods. Due to being in the fortunate position of having such a large data set for the analysis, it was decided that where certain variables were missing for candidates, the complete data set was removed. Candidate data sets were removed where data was missing for the following variables: Gender, date of birth, ethnicity, postcode, occupation and centre type. This demographic information was considered important in answering research question 1, and therefore, where data was missing for any of these particular variables, the decision was made to remove the entire data set.

To be sure that removing certain candidates due to missing data did not produce a bias, frequency analyses were undertaken on both the cleaned data and the raw data before candidate removals, to ensure there was no significant skew in the results as a consequence of removing certain candidates' data. Figure 6 over the page illustrates a schematic of the logical process which was followed in cleaning the data and the amount of data removed at each stage. More details of the cleaning process can be found in Appendix A.

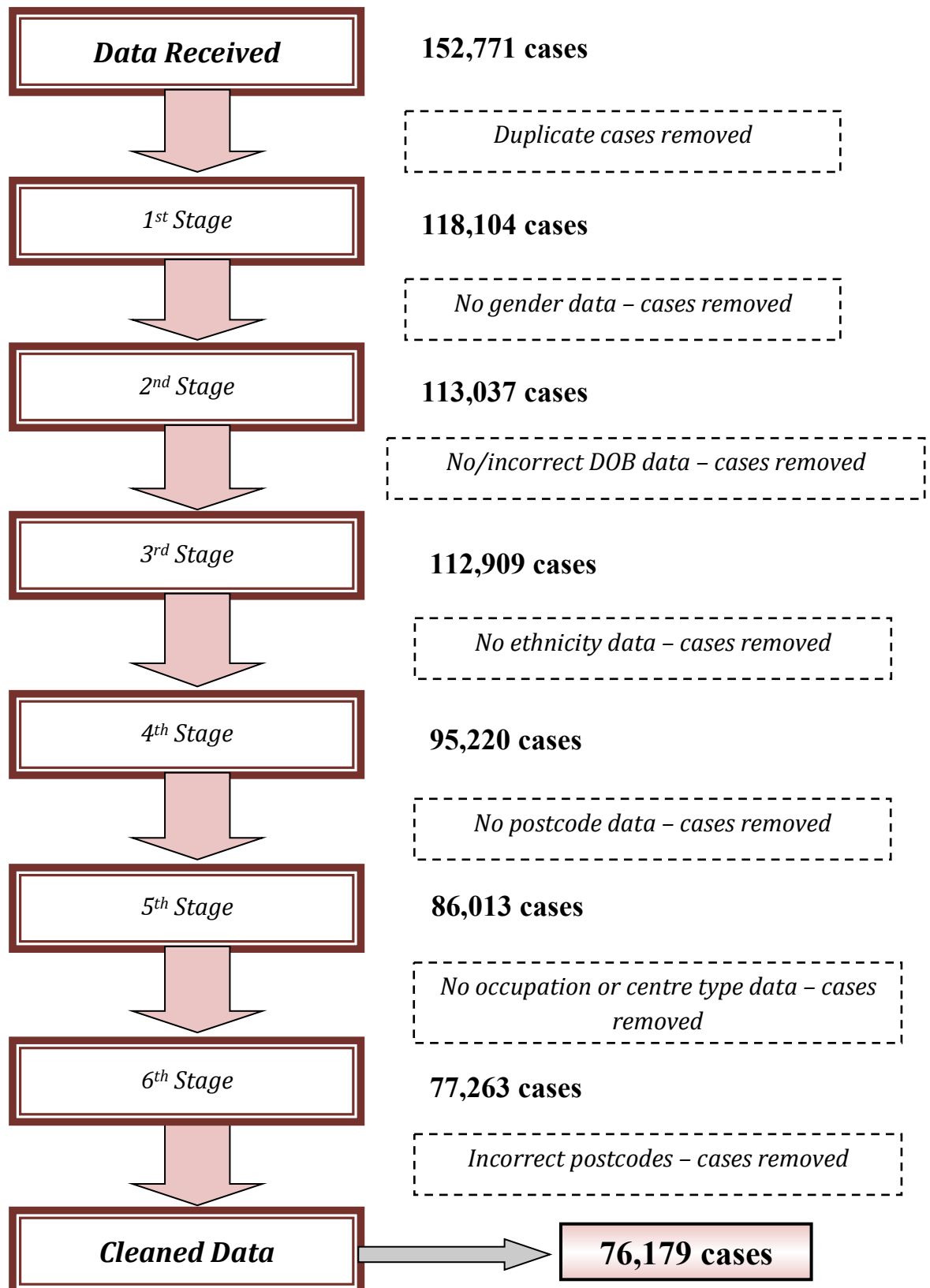


Figure 6: Schematic of the data cleaning process and subsequent removal of cases

Following the frequency analyses, it was decided that some categories for some of the variables required grouping due to low frequency of responses to ensure adequate statistical power for the logistic regression analyses (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). This was especially noticeable for the ‘occupation’, ‘ethnicity’ and ‘centre type’ variables. Therefore, certain categories with a frequency of less than 0.1% were grouped under ‘other’ to create a more meaningful category. (Details of the variables and associated categories can be found in appendix B).

6.6 Socio-economic Measurement

Once the existing data had been cleaned, the next stage was to assign socio-economic data to each candidate. This was necessary to explore associations between likelihood of award completion and participant socio-economic status.

The use of socio-economic measurement has been used extensively within health and epidemiological studies (e.g. Liberatos, Link and Kelsey, 1988; Gidlow, Johnston, Crone *et al.*, 2007; Brown, Raynor, Benton and Lee, 2010). However, the appropriateness of the various measures and methods used in calculating socio-economic status has been the subject of ongoing debate (Norman, 2009) and it has been suggested that the term ‘socio-economic’ classification or position does not provide a theoretical or analytical status, but is merely a generic, descriptive term which can be used to describe a number of different social inequality measures (Rose, 2005). There are a number of methods which have been (and continue to be) used in determining the relative socio-economic status of populations, each adopting different categories for measurement including material variables such as car and home ownership (Townsend, 1988) to more of a focus on individuals’ health, lifestyle and ‘status’ measures, such as education (Jarman Index, 1984). These discrepancies in the terms used for socio-

economic ‘status’, ‘class’ and ‘deprivation’, and the different measures used can cause some confusion in what is actually being measured (Townsend, 1988). There is also much variation in the geographical scale of analysis used in determining socio-economic status for particular populations, from individual measurement to categorising a population at ward or Local Authority Level (Norman, 2009).

6.7 Townsend Score

Considering the current debates regarding the determination of socio-economic deprivation detailed in the previous section and for the purpose of this thesis and analysis of SLUK candidate data, the method of analysis used in determining the candidates’ level of socio-economic deprivation is based on the Townsend Score of Material Deprivation (Townsend, 1988). Deprivation can be defined as:

“A State of observable and demonstrable disadvantage relative to the local community or the wider society or nation to which as individual, family or group belongs”. (Townsend, 1987: 16).

The Townsend Score of Material Deprivation distinguishes between measures of social and material deprivation in society. Material deprivation refers to the lack of resources, services or goods which are customary in today’s society (Townsend, 1988). The higher the Townsend Score, the more deprived an area is thought to be. The Townsend Score consists of four variables which are suggested to provide a valid indication of socio-economic material deprivation rather than an indication of social or other deprivation. The four variables which are used in calculating the Townsend score are:-

- 1) *Unemployment*. The percentage of economically active residents who are unemployed.
- 2) *Car Ownership*. The percentage of private households who do not possess a car.
- 3) *Home Ownership*. The percentage of private households not owner occupied
- 4) *Overcrowding*. The percentage of private households with more than one person per room.

Whilst the Townsend Score is not necessarily the ‘right’ measure of deprivation, it is deemed appropriate to use in this study for a number of reasons. Firstly, the score has been widely used in academic and health studies (Norman, 2009). Secondly, it is fairly simple to calculate as it is constructed of only four variables. Thirdly, it has been suggested that the variables used in determining the Townsend score provide a good indication of material deprivation rather than social or occupational status, as the score is constructed only from direct measures of material deprivation attained from Census data (Townsend, 1987). Finally, the fact that the measure is based on Census data is a huge advantage to this study, as the SLUK candidate data to be analysed is UK-wide. Whilst there are slight differences in the wording of questions in the Census’ for each of the UK home countries, it is easier to construct a UK-wide ranking of deprivation levels for each candidate using this census data. Other measures of deprivation such as the Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD), which is the Government’s preferred indicator in England, are not directly comparable to the indices in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland (Brown *et al.*, 2010). For this reason, constructing a UK-wide IMD is not possible (Norman, 2009). In addition to these reasons, it has been suggested that census data provides the most reliable socio-economic data in the UK, and in particular, the census 2001 data are the only official statistics which provide data at Output Area (OA)

geographies without the need to convert data from other scales (Vickers and Rees, 2007).

The Townsend Score cannot however be compared to other studies or analyses of subsequent SLUK databases. This is due to the fact that the method does not provide meaningful or comparable scores, but simply ranks individuals' level of deprivation against each other. Likewise, scores calculated using 2001 census data cannot be compared to scores calculated using the imminent 2011 census for example, due to the time-series nature of collecting this data in which the relative importance of particular variables may change as society changes (Norman, 2009). The ranking nature of the data means that quartiles or quintiles can be used to organise the complete dataset into identifiable sections, which can be helpful in reporting findings and exploring relationships between deprivation levels and other variables, such as award completion.

6.8 Geographical Scale of Measurement

Another consideration in constructing socio-economic deprivation measures concerns the geographical area to be used in the calculations. Traditionally, the Townsend Score is calculated at electoral ward level. However, despite the fact that wards have traditionally been the choice of geographical area unit for government and Local Authority analyses due to practical and policy related reasons (Townsend *et al.* 1988), a number of disadvantages have been recognised which may outweigh the possible benefits. Firstly, the ward boundaries are likely to have been set arbitrarily to ensure an appropriate number of voters in each ward rather than provide a homogenous population (Townsend, 1988). Indeed, Norman (2009) suggests that due to the constant need for Local Authorities to ensure they have similar elector to councillor ratios, ward boundaries are regularly altered, resulting in few wards having the same boundaries for

both the 1991 and 2001 censuses. Secondly, there is huge variation in the populations of individual wards. For example, for 2009, the Office for National Statistics (ONS) estimated the smallest ward among the 8824 wards in England and Wales to have a population of 108 and the largest ward 33,829 (ONS, 2009a). Thirdly, ward boundaries do not correspond to postcode boundaries (ONS, 2010), which would provide some difficulty when assigning postcodes to specific wards and attempting to determine an individual's socio-economic position based on their postcode.

It has been suggested that OAs can provide smaller, more homogenous areas within which to examine socio-demographic deprivation (Gidlow *et al.*, 2009). Although OAs were designed to follow postcode boundaries, there are a few instances where postcodes had to be split across two OAs due to the size of the area that the postcode covered (ONS, 2007). OAs also have the benefit of representing the smallest geographical unit for census 2001 data across the UK (Vickers and Rees, 2007). OAs were initially designed to be as socially homogenous as possible, and be of similar sizes to each other to allow for better comparison, with the recommended size of each OA containing 125 households (ONS, 2007). As a result of these design considerations, OAs provide a useful and purposeful level of geography in which to analyse 2001 census data.

6.9 Calculating the Townsend Score

Following a clear rationale for use of the Townsend Score of Deprivation as an appropriate measure of socio-economic status, a relative Townsend score had to be assigned to each of the participants in the data. This involved a number of stages which will be outlined next.

6.9.1 Assigning Output Areas

Candidates' postcode data was required to assign socio-economic data to individual candidates. The candidates' home address postcode was used in this analysis, as this provided a more accurate indication of their own socio-economic status, rather than using their school or college's postal code.

The first stage in determining a candidate's socio economic position was to ensure all candidate postcodes were present in the correct format, according to the National Statistics Postcode Directory (NSPD). This correct format ensured all six digit postcodes included a space between the 'in' and 'out' codes of the postcode e.g. CF1_2HM, and all seven digit postcodes had no space between the 'in' and 'out' codes e.g. CF112HM. This was necessary to ensure that the look-up tables required for OAs matched the candidates' postcodes in the data.

Due to the lack of addresses present in the data, there was no way of verifying that the candidates' postcodes were correct, and so it had to be assumed that postcodes were correct according to the candidates' home location.

The next step was to download a copy of the NSPD (2010) look-up tables from the UK Borders¹³ section of the Edina UK national academic data centre web-resource. The look-up tables are available in both Access and Excel format, but to allow for easy assignment of OAs for participant postcodes, the look-up table was downloaded in Access format. The latest version was used which was a February 2010 table. At the time of the analyses and OA assignment, the look-up table was 5 months old.

The next stage was to upload the SLUK dataset into the Access database, and create a new column for 'Output Area'. Using Microsoft Access' 'Update Query' option, OAs

¹³ UK Borders is a service provided by Edina Data resource centre, which provides access to geographic look-up tables corresponding to UK geography. For more information visit: <http://edina.ac.uk/ukborders/>

were assigned to each candidate using the NSPD look-up table data, according to their postcodes. A total of 76,483 data rows were updated during the query, and those postcodes which were not assigned an OA were checked for inaccuracy and correct format again. Those postcodes which were partial or did not match with the NSPD data were removed from the data set as it was likely that an incorrect postcode had been recorded for that candidate. This resulted in a total of 76,179 cases in the final cleaned database.

6.9.2 Assigning the Townsend Score

In order to calculate the Townsend score for each output area, 2001 Census data was used which was accessed from Casweb¹⁴, a web interface which provides UK educational establishments with free access to Census data. According to Townsend (1988), the Townsend score should be calculated using four key categories which provide a good measure of material deprivation. These are: unemployment, Car ownership, home ownership and overcrowding. Within the 2001 Census, a number of univariate variables have been suggested as providing an accurate measure of these categories (Gidlow, 2008; Norman, 2009), which are outlined in Table 3.

¹⁴ Casweb is a web interface provided by the Census Dissemination Unit based within Mimas at the University of Manchester. For more information visit: <http://casweb.mimas.ac.uk/>

Townsend Category	Dataset Table Used	Univariate variable used
1. Unemployment	UV028 – Economic Activity	UV0280002 – ‘ <i>Economically Active</i> ’ UV0280012 – ‘ <i>Unemployed</i> ’
2. Car Ownership	UV062 – Cars or Vans	UV0620001 – ‘ <i>All Households</i> ’ UV0620002 – ‘ <i>No Car or Van</i> ’
3. Home Ownership	UV063 – Tenure Households	UV0630001 – ‘ <i>All Households</i> ’ UV0630002 – ‘ <i>Owned</i> ’
4. Overcrowding	UV058 – Persons Per Room*	UV0580001 – ‘ <i>All Households</i> ’ UV0580004 – ‘ <i>Over 1.0 and up to 1.5 persons per room</i> ’ UV0580005 – ‘ <i>Over 1.5 persons per room</i> ’

**This variable was used as it has been suggested that it provides a better measure for Overcrowding compared to UV059 – ‘Occupancy’ (P. Norman, Personal Communication).*

Table 3: Details of the univariate variables taken from the 2001 Census, which were used for each of the Townsend score components

Each of these variables were downloaded as excel spreadsheet look-up tables, which provided data on each variable for every output area in each of the four home nations. As the 2001 Census was different for each of the four countries is the UK, individual data for each of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland had to be downloaded separately. This also meant that there were slight differences in the number of the univariate variable (indicated by a ‘UV’) and also the terminology of a couple of the variable descriptions. For example, in Northern Ireland, the variable for ‘economic activity’ specifically specified ‘working age’. However, in England, Wales and Scotland, the variable was simply called ‘economic activity’ and so did not specify a working age. Whilst this may not provide significantly different results for Northern Ireland as a result, caution does need to be exercised when comparing such data from each of the four constituent countries as it is possible that different interpretations and categories may have resulted in slightly different figures (ONS, 2001; Norman 2009).

Previous research using the Townsend score also suggested that the variable ‘persons per room’ was a more accurate measure of overcrowding compared to using the variable ‘occupancy rating’ (Norman, 2009), as has been used by other researchers (e.g. Gidlow, 2008).

Once the census variables had been successfully downloaded into an Excel spreadsheet, further calculations were required in creating the Townsend scores. Three stages were involved in constructing the Townsend Score for each OA. The first stage involved calculating the percentages for each of the four Townsend categories, as shown in Figure 7:

Unemployment %	=	$\frac{\text{UV0280012} - \text{'Unemployed'}}{\text{UV0280002} - \text{'Economically Active'}} \times 100$
Car Ownership %	=	$\frac{\text{UV0620002} - \text{'No Car or Van'}}{\text{UV0620001} - \text{'All Households'}} \times 100$
Home Ownership %	=	$100 - \frac{\text{UV0630002} - \text{'Owned'}}{\text{UV0630001} - \text{'All Households'}} \times 100$
Overcrowding %	=	$\frac{\text{UV0580004} + \text{UV0580005}}{\text{UV0580001} - \text{'All Households'}} \times 100$

Figure 7: Townsend category percentage calculations

The second stage required transforming the proportions of two of the variables; Unemployment and overcrowding, using a logarithm, in order to ensure less skewed distributions (Gidlow, 2008; Norman, 2009). The final stage involved calculating the z scores for each variable to ensure they are standardised to national levels (Norman, 2009). These two stages can be followed in Figure 8.

Unemployment	=	$\text{Log } (\% \text{ Unemployed} + 1)$	=	$\frac{\text{Unemployment variable} - \text{Mean}}{SD}$
Car Ownership	=	$\% \text{ Car Ownership}$	=	$\frac{\text{Car Ownership variable} - \text{Mean}}{SD}$
Home Ownership	=	$\% \text{ Home Ownership}$	=	$\frac{\text{Home Ownership variable} - \text{Mean}}{SD}$
Overcrowding	=	$\text{Log } (\% \text{ Overcrowded} + 1)$	=	$\frac{\text{Overcrowding variable} - \text{Mean}}{SD}$

Figure 8: Z score calculations for each Townsend category

Once z scores had been calculated in this way for each of the four categories, they were then added together to create an overall Townsend score for each OA in the UK. These were then assigned to the candidate data using Microsoft Access and running an ‘Update Query’, therefore linking the Townsend scores to the corresponding dataset, according to the candidate’s OA. All 76,179 data rows were updated successfully during the query.

6.10 Calculating Urban and Rural classifications

In addition to the Townsend score of deprivation, another useful variable to explore is that of urban or rural locality of the sports leaders. This can also be determined using postcode data for each of the candidates. Data on urban and rural classification was obtained from the Office for National Statistics (ONS, 2009b) and the NSPD, February 2010 version, available from the UK Borders website.

Urban and rural classification across the UK differs across the home countries. For example, for each country in the UK, eight different settlement types are given to define the level of rurality for postcodes. However, the definition given to each of these classifications differs across the countries, with regards to population sizes, distances to settlements etc. (NSPD, 2010). The only consistent definition for all four home countries is that of rural or urban classification, which is presented as a dichotomous variable. The NSPD states that for each country, postcodes which contain more than 10,000 residents is considered urban, whilst postcodes with <10,000 population is classified as rural. Therefore, due to the added complication of dealing with UK wide data, it was decided that a dichotomous variable for rurality would simply be used rather than attempting to examine the different settlement types.

Rural/urban classification was assigned to each candidate by running another update query in Microsoft Access. Once necessary variables had been calculated and cleaning of the data had been completed, all variables were given numerical values to allow for analysis using SPSS. For a full list of the variables and their numerical codes, please see appendix B. Following all cleaning of the data and assignment of socio-economic status, a total of 76,179 participants were included in the data analysis for study 1.

6.11 Ethical Considerations

The main ethical consideration in relation to phase 1 data concerned the anonymity of the participant data, since the researcher had not collected the data and specific consent to use the data had not been provided by the candidates. However, SLUK do have a privacy policy for all candidates to ensure appropriate use of personal data. To this end, all information on the SLUK database had been collected by the organisation via a registration form, which included a disclosure and consent for the information provided

to be used by SLUK and other ‘carefully selected organisations’. In addition, all information used in the research was treated confidentially and anonymously via the use of unique candidate identification numbers rather than candidate names, to reduce the possibility of identifying individual candidates.

6.12 Binary Logistic Regression Model Development

Research question 1 required an analysis of the factors which are associated with candidate progression through the Sports Leaders UK awards pathway, from Level 2 registration through to Level 3 completion. Binary logistic regression (BLR) was chosen as an appropriate and effective statistical analysis due to its capability in measuring the influence of a number of independent or ‘predictor’ variables on the dependent or ‘outcome’ variable (Pallant, 2010). BLR was also chosen as it allows researchers to test models which include a number of different predictor variables all at the same time, and these variables can be categorical, continuous or dichotomous in nature (Pallant, 2010). However, the fact that BLR is ‘binary’ refers to the dependent variable, which must consist of only two outcomes. In this study, the two outcomes are either a ‘yes’ or a ‘no’ for the dependent variables in each of the models used, as explained below. BLR also requires large sample sizes, but more importantly, requires a sufficient ratio of cases to variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). For this reason, some categories were collapsed in some variables, as discussed previously in section 6.4 and appendix B.

Due to the various stages in the leadership pathway, three different models were designed which allowed for examination of the association of predictor variables and different outcome variables at each of these stages. Each of these three models will be outlined now.

6.12.1 Model 1 – Level 2 Completion

The aim of Model 1 is to examine the socio-demographic factors associated with those candidates who completed the Level 2 award compared to those who did not.

Model 1 = Completed L2 vs. (Not completed L2 + Dropped Out L2)

Sample = All candidates who registered for the Level 2 award

DV = '*Completed L2*' (1=Yes; 0 = No)

See figure 9 for an illustration of Model 1.

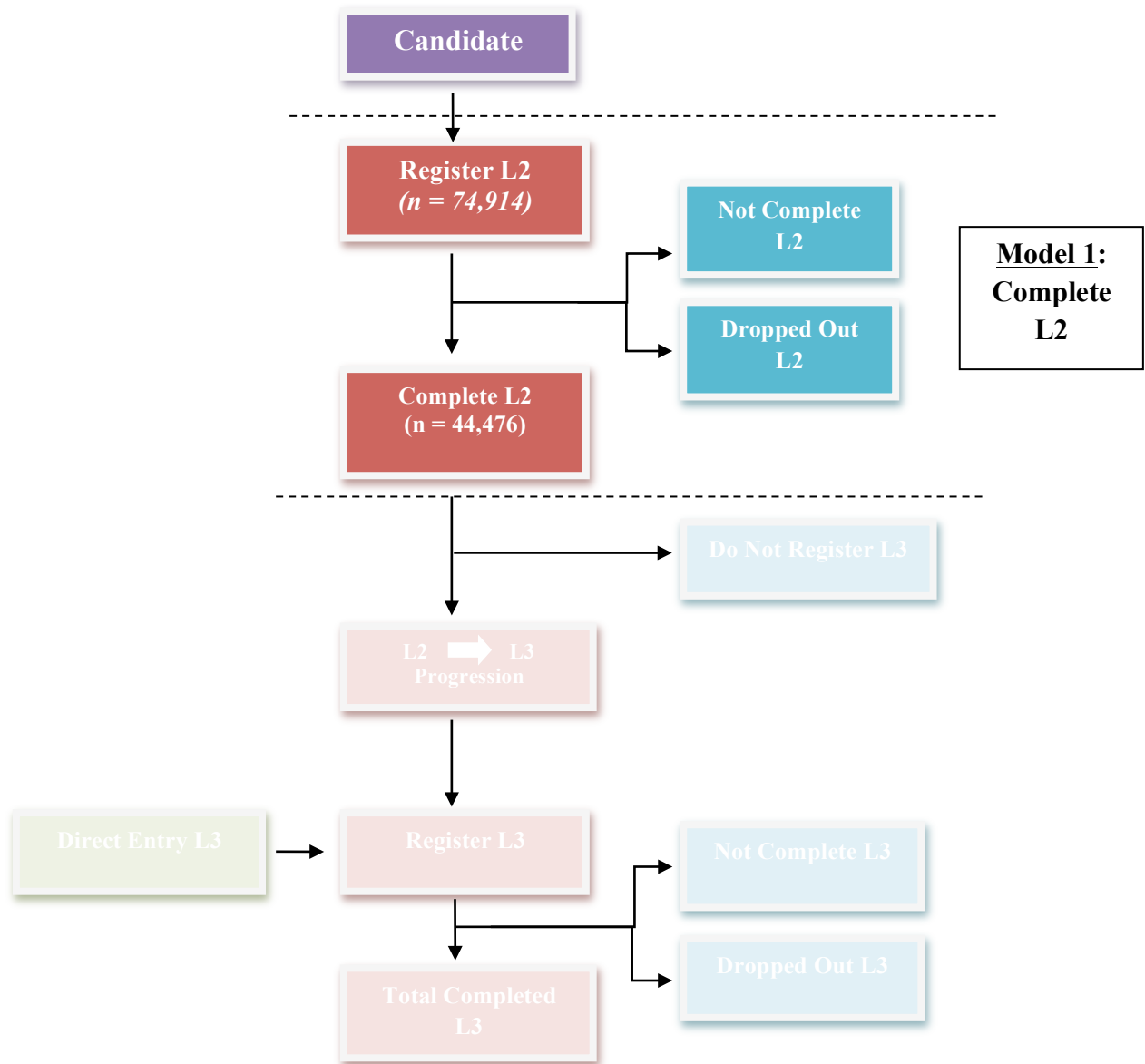


Figure 9: Leadership pathway highlighting stages included in analysis for Model 1: Level 2 completion.

6.12.2 Model 2 – Level 3 Completion

Model 2 aims to examine the socio-demographic factors associated with those candidates who complete the Level 3 award compared to those who do not. This model is an exceptional model due to the inclusion of ‘direct entry’ candidates into the pathway, who have not completed the Level 2 award. This may have been due to those

candidates already possessing an equivalent qualification which allowed them to access the Level 3 award directly.

Model 2 = Completed L3 vs. (Not completed L3 + Dropped Out L3)

Sample = All candidates who registered for the L3 award

DV = 'Total completed L3' (1=Yes; 0 = No)

See Figure 10 below for an illustration of Model 2.

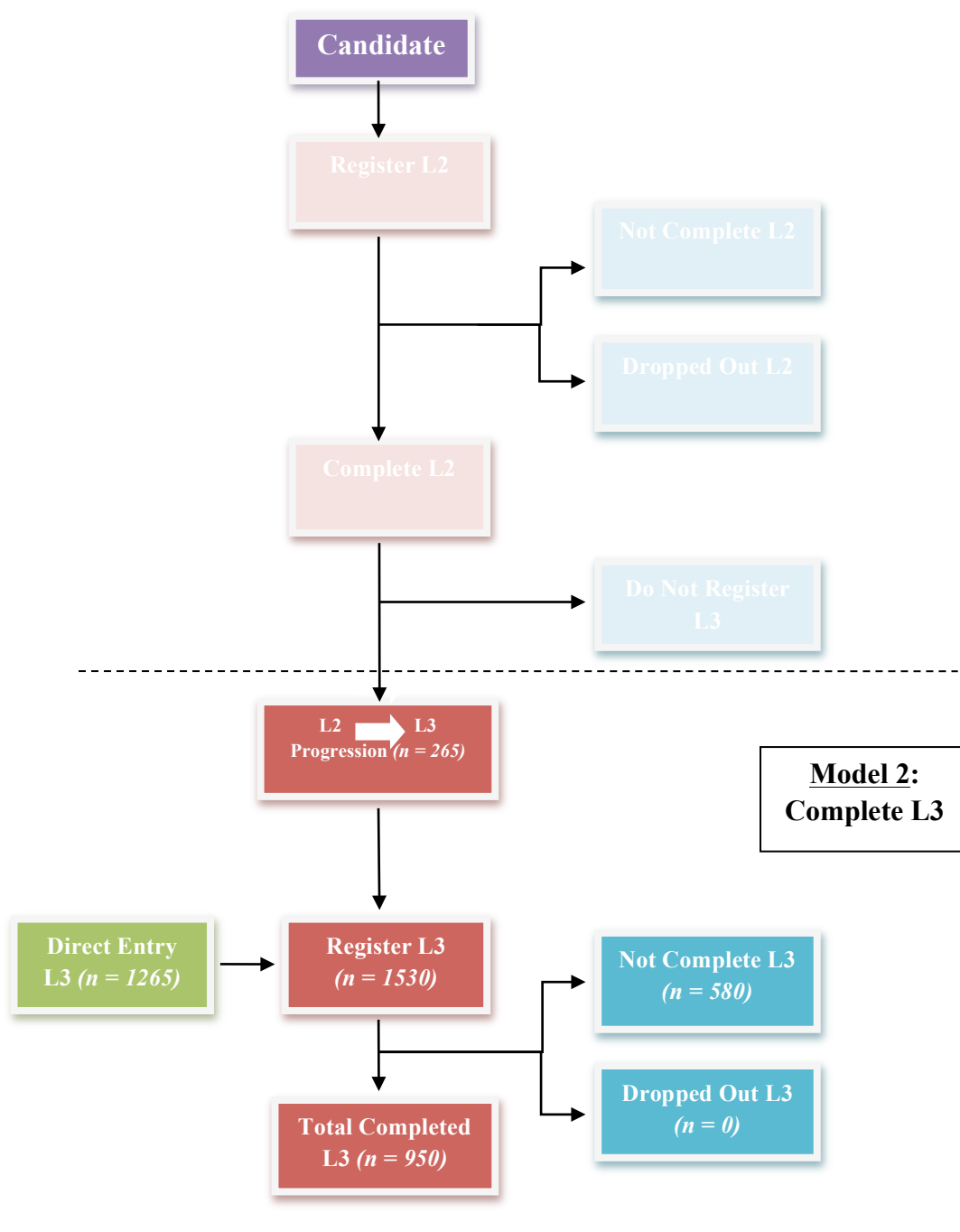


Figure 10: Leadership pathway highlighting stages included in analysis for Model 2: Level 3 completion with candidate direct entry.

6.12.3 Model 3 – Level 3 Registration

The aim of Model 3 is to examine the socio-demographic factors associated with those candidates who register for the Level 3 award, having completed the Level 2, compared to those who do not progress beyond the Level 2 award. This model does not include candidate data via the ‘direct entry’ into the pathway.

Model 3	=	Register L3	vs.	Not Register L3
Sample	=	All candidates who completed the Level 2 award		
DV	=	<i>‘Registered L3’</i> (1=Yes; 0 = No)		

See Figure 11 for an illustration of Model 3.

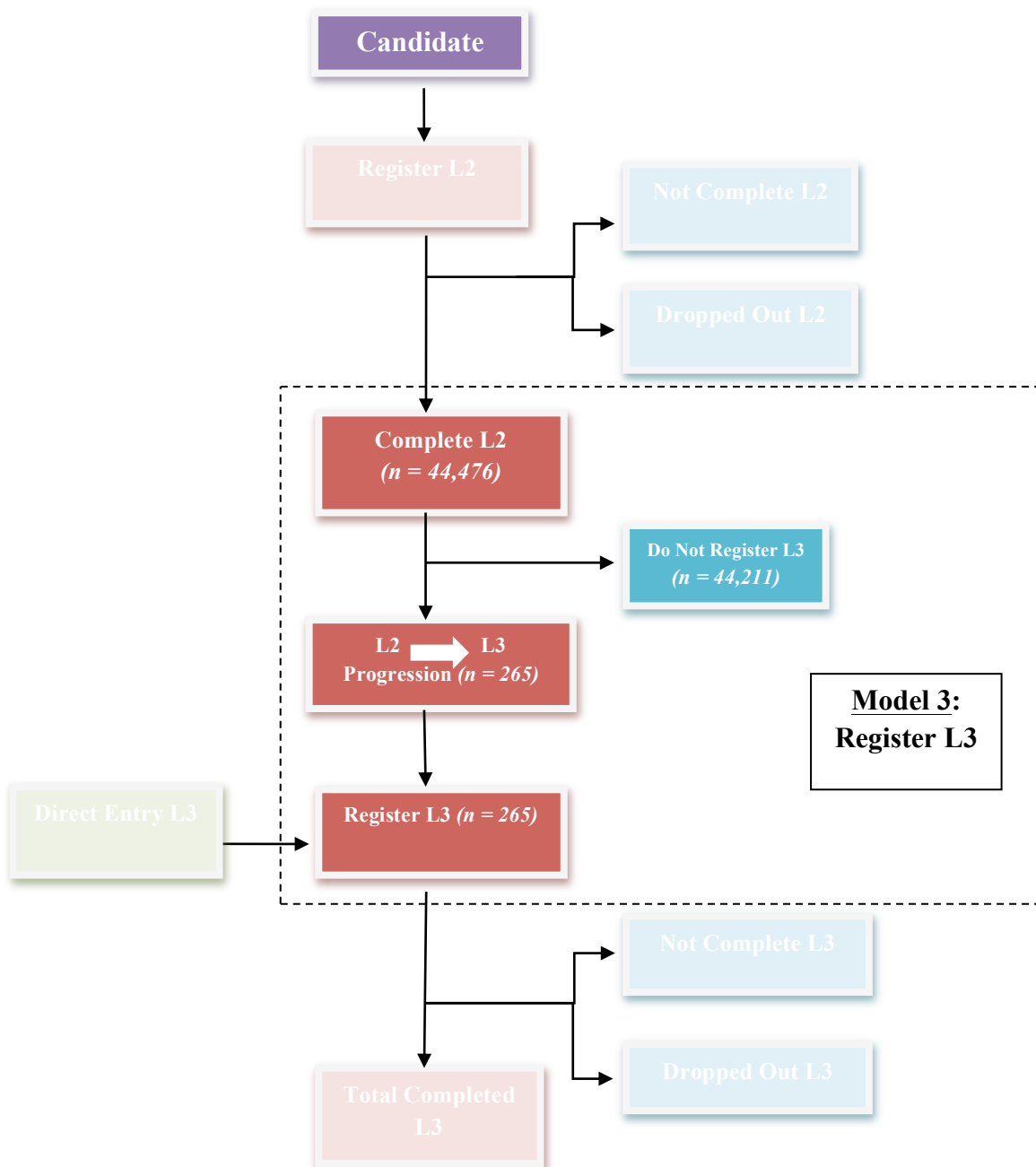


Figure 11: Leadership pathway highlighting stages included in analysis for Model 3: Level 3 registration.

A fourth model was considered which examined the socio-demographic factors associated with those candidates who completed both the Level 2 and Level 3 awards. However, due to the low number of candidates who followed the complete pathway through both Level 2 and 3 completions, it was decided that there would not be enough statistical power for a binary logistic regression analysis to be conducted, which trial analyses confirmed, so this model was removed. However, basic descriptive analyses were conducted on this model.

In addition to the BLR analysis described above, descriptive analyses were also undertaken to gain a clearer picture of frequencies and any patterns present in the data which could contribute to answering research question 1.

6.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided details of the methods used for study 1, the first quantitative component of the research. Challenges associated with inheriting secondary data, such as the time consuming data cleaning process have been outlined, including the process of ensuring the final dataset is statistically powerful enough to undergo the BLR analyses. This rigorous process undertaken was necessary in ensuring that the subsequent analysis of the data was appropriate and sufficient in answering research question 1 of the thesis. Results of the analysis can be found in Chapter 9. Next, details of the methods utilised in the second quantitative component, study 2 will be outlined.

Chapter 7

Study 2: Survey - Methods

7.0 Introduction

This chapter provides details of the methods used in Study 2, which aimed to answer research question 2: *What perceived impact does engaging with a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award have on the personal and career development of the sports leaders?*

This research phase consisted of a survey questionnaire which aimed to provide a quantitative insight into the impact of the awards on certain factors relating to the leaders' own education, career and personal development.

Due to changes made to the survey following a pilot study, the following chapter will be presented in a chronological order, to provide a more logical outline of the stages involved in the survey design and data collection process. Therefore, the chapter will begin with the participants selected for this research strand and process adopted for constructing the survey, followed by details of the pilot study. Next, changes made to the method as a result of the pilot study will be outlined, followed by the distribution process. Due to a poor response rate being achieved from the survey, a discussion concerning the use of postal and electronic distribution methods is included, concluding with subsequent changes made to the research design in light of the poor response rate achieved.

7.1 Participants

Participants selected to participate in the survey were chosen from the sample used in phase one of the research, representing a nested sampling design (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). SLUK had contact details of all leaders currently registered on their

database, and were therefore able to send correspondence and information regarding the sports leadership awards directly to the leaders. Surveys were emailed to candidates included in phase one of the research, who had registered for the Level 3 award during the period of 1st January 2007 and the 31st December 2009 (n=3028). This sample was chosen as it provided an adequate number of current Level 3 sports leaders who were likely to still be involved in either the course content and/or the practical experience. It was considered important to ensure that the responses from the leaders were based on recent experiences hence keeping a consistent time frame of a five year period from which participants were chosen.

7.2 Sampling Procedure

The sampling procedure adopted for Phase 2 of the research was a nested sampling design (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007), in which participants selected were chosen from the population used in phase one of the research. Technically, the sampling scheme used was a simple, random design, as all participants in the population stood an equal chance of being used in the study, particularly as a survey was emailed to all candidates on the database. However, there was a purposive element to the sampling, in that all participants met certain criteria, which included the fact that they had registered for a Level 3 award.

This sampling scheme was chosen as it was anticipated that a good response rate would yield enough data for statistical power, required for many quantitative analyses (Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Jiao, 2007). Moreover, it is assumed that the population (i.e. the SLUK database) is representative of those who have or will undertake a SLUK award. Therefore, the results gathered, providing that the sample yielded enough responses,

was able to reasonably provide an estimate of the whole population of sports leaders (Kemper, Stringfield and Teddlie, 2003).

7.3 Inclusion Criteria

The inclusion criteria stated that all participants used in the study had at least registered for either a Level 2 or a Level 3 award within the last two years (1st January 2007 to 31st December 2009). All participants were over the age of 18 years, which ensured that questions regarding career development could be answered, whilst also avoiding issues concerned with gaining ethical approval for working with children and young people. This inclusion criteria adopted was the same the criteria used in phase three of the research.

7.4 Survey Development

The survey design process included the review of similar previous surveys which had been undertaken by other institutions and organisations (e.g. Sport England, Sport Wales, Census). This review was beneficial as it provided some background and awareness of previous surveys which had been conducted into the area of sports leadership, volunteering and sports participation. This review also offered templates for standard questions such as personal details, which would therefore enable direct comparison with other surveys. Feedback from SLUK also assisted in the development of the survey, with the primary purpose of advising on appropriate use of terminology for their award programmes. However, it was ensured that any alterations suggested by SLUK as a key stakeholder in the research, did not detract from the study's research questions and focus.

Much time was spent ensuring clarity of the survey questions, with regards to both layout and question structure, in order to minimise differences in interpretation of the questions (Peterson, 2000; Foddy, 1993). It was also crucial to ensure that the survey was not onerous, but included all questions necessary to answer the research questions and assist in providing some direction for the subsequent interview phase. Following discussions with SLUK and supervisors, a final draft of the survey was completed in a Word document, ready to be piloted.

7.5 Pilot Study

To test the survey for understanding and structure, a pilot study was conducted. A total of 26 Level 2 Sport Education students completed the survey on the 5th March 2010 at the end of one of their lectures. Despite not all of these students having a clear understanding of SLUK awards and courses, 19 of the 36 had completed either a Level 1 or Level 2 SLUK award previously. Furthermore, the whole group should have had an understanding of volunteering in sport and organising sports sessions to a certain extent, due to the content of the undergraduate degree programme that they were pursuing. Also, the key aim of the pilot was to ensure that the structure to the survey was appropriate, easy to follow and the questions were clearly worded. Therefore, the participants involved in the pilot study were deemed appropriate for the pilot task.

Following completion of the survey, an open discussion was held between participants and the researcher to allow participants the opportunity to provide any feedback on areas of the survey which they felt were not clear or they did not understand. Participants were also encouraged to suggest any changes or improvements which they felt would further enhance the survey. All surveys were then handed back in to allow for a brief analysis of the answers given, in light of the feedback and discussions.

A small number of superficial changes were made to the survey following the pilot study. These were mainly changes to the sentence structure of questions, rewording of questions or the order of questions in the survey. A final version of the survey was completed in a Word document ready for distribution (see appendix C for a copy of the finalised survey).

7.6 Survey Distribution Model

Distribution of the survey was managed by SLUK under the direct guidance of the researcher, since they had access to the candidate database. This avoided potential data protection issues that would have been present if such sensitive data was transferred to the researcher. SLUK had also agreed to cover costs associated with the survey (e.g. postage). However, following further discussions with the organisation concerning the most effective distribution methods, alternative methods were explored, including electronic distribution. The advantages and disadvantages of postal or electronic distribution of the survey were thoroughly explored (see section 7.7), and due to a number of factors, it was decided that sending the survey out via email would be the most effective and practical method. This decision was based on the following reasons:

1. Limited administration personnel and the financial constraints of SLUK associated with posting out surveys, favoured the electronic survey method.
2. Previous positive response rates from similar online surveys (SLUK surveys conducted in partnership with ‘SkillsActive’¹⁵ received response rates of 17% and 21%) predicted a good response via email survey.

¹⁵ ‘SkillsActive’ is the Sector Skills Council for the active learning, leisure and well-being industries, including sport and fitness. See www.skillsactive.com for more information

3. Descriptive analysis of Level 3 leaders from the SLUK database in Phase 1 of research indicate majority are young people aged 17-20yrs (97.5%) which was indicative of the population to be targeted for the survey. Assumptions were made based on the literature which indicates that young people are more likely to respond to an email survey compared to postal surveys (Bachmann, Elfrink & Vazzana, 2000).
4. Due to time constraints, an electronic survey would enable faster collation of data and easier analysis through ‘Survey Monkey’¹⁶ Software.
5. Reliability and completeness of candidate postal address details on the SLUK database was questionable. This could have been due to a number of reasons including: candidates not completed these details fully on their registration forms; candidates’ registered address was the school or establishment at which they had undertaken the leadership course rather than their own address; data not fully input by SLUK staff during busy periods; some candidates may have moved onto University since doing the award. It was therefore hoped that email addresses would be more static and allow for direct contact with the candidate.

The completed survey was adapted and designed as an electronic survey using ‘Survey Monkey’. Initial plans were to use ‘Questback’, a similar online survey programme which had been successfully used by previous PhD students, but due to an impending lapse in the University’s registration of the software, it was decided that it would be safer to use Survey Monkey. In addition to this, SLUK subscribed to the full version and was therefore able to access all of the programme’s features. The online survey was designed in a similar format and layout to that of the initial paper version which had

¹⁶ ‘SurveyMonkey’ is an American company who provide web-based survey software to allow users to design their own surveys and questionnaires online. See www.surveymonkey.com for more information.

previously been tested in the pilot study. Whilst there are a number of advantages of electronic surveys compared to postal surveys, an electronic survey was decided upon; a rationale of which is provided in Section 7.7. The online method which was adopted for this survey involved embedding a hyperlink into an email, which directed participants to the online survey. The main body of the email consisted of the cover letter (see appendix D), which participants could read before being signposted to this hyperlink where they could click to directly access the survey, via the opening of a new browser window. Advantages of the electronic survey included:

- Participants were only able to select the correct number of choices as required by the survey.
- Participants were not able to move onto subsequent questions until the current question had been fully answered.
- Participants were directed to the relevant parts of the survey depending on their previous responses to questions regarding their sports leadership circumstances.
- The software allowed for constant tracking of participants and provided regular updates detailing the number of participants who had opened the email, clicked the link to the survey and completed the survey.

The electronic survey was tested by the researcher, SLUK staff and colleagues to ensure it was easy to follow and each section was clear and understandable.

7.7 Electronic v Postal Survey Distribution

The debate surrounding which method of distribution is more effective; postal or electronic, has been extensively rehearsed in recent years (e.g. Mehta & Sividas, 1995; Tse *et al.*, 1995; Tse, 1998; Ranchod & Zhou, 2001). There are advantages of using

electronic mail or internet based surveys, including increased speed of delivery and response, lower associated costs, greater sample control and convenience (Mehta & Sividas, 1995). However, research has shown that response rates for electronic surveys are often not as high as rates for postal surveys (Mehta & Sividas, 1995; Tse *et al.* 1995). Ranchod & Zhou (2001) suggest there a number of possible reasons for this lower response rate: Lack of anonymity; lack of formal image; lack of cosmetic features and lack of incentive. These issues will be discussed in an attempt to outline some of the inherent advantages and disadvantages associated with electronic surveys, in comparison to traditional postal surveys which were considered in this research design.

Lack of anonymity refers to the notion that electronic email surveys are conducted in such a way that the participants' identity (or certainly their email address) can be determined (Ranchod & Zhou, 2001). With the power of technology, it is also possible to determine the location of the participant using internet network information and IP addresses. However, postal survey returns can remain far more anonymous. With advances in internet technology, electronic surveys can possibly overcome this issue, by providing a link within the email which directs the participant to an external website where they are able to complete and submit the survey. This may provide an added level of anonymity, or certainly perceived anonymity for the participant.

It has also been suggested that electronic mail surveys may lack an authoritative image (Ranchod & Zhou, 2001). The ease of constructing and distributing a survey over the World Wide Web has resulted in individuals being regularly targeted by online research studies (Ranchod & Zhou, 2001). This may lead to individuals ignoring unsolicited emails, or surveys being filtered out by Internet Security software and therefore ending up in 'junk mail' folders (Sills & Song, 2002). Mehta & Sividas (1995) found that unsolicited survey emails resulted in a high number of email complaints from

participants. Whilst more recent and advanced survey software programmes feature better design capabilities, which can help improve the image of such surveys, it appears that a key factor in the success of survey response rate concerns the inclusion of a pre-notification email prior to distribution of the survey. One survey found a 23% higher response rate when a pre-notification email was sent before the survey compared to solely emailing out the survey to participants (Mehta & Sividas, 1995).

Internet and email based surveys often lack useful and attractive design features (Ranchod & Zhou, 2001). Emails particularly, constrain the format of surveys developed through this medium, resulting in a simple ‘flat text’ layout which was found to be the underlying reason for low response rates in one study (Smith, 1997). However, more recent developments in software and survey packages, such as Survey Monkey, have enabled more flexibility and options with regards to design features, survey structure and layout. Despite these advances in online technology, web based surveys often present a rather rigid structure, in which survey respondents are restricted in the way they present the answers or indicate their choices and preferences. Paper based surveys clearly allow for additional notes/choices to be made which may provide useful feedback to the researcher. Indeed, Mehta & Sividas (1995) found that there was a greater number of omissions from email based surveys compared to paper based ones. However, this element of respondent control and flexibility with paper based surveys may also pose problems for the researcher. For example, respondents may incorrectly indicate two or three preferences when only one was required, causing difficulties during analysis for the researcher, or even having to omit that particular survey. Online surveys can overcome this problem by restricting the inputting options for respondents. Likewise, survey software can encourage respondents to complete all sections appropriately, by preventing them from moving onto subsequent sections of the survey until the correct fields on the current page have been completed.

The last reason which Ranchod & Zhou (2001) suggest can result in lower response rates for electronic surveys, is the lack of incentives. It has been found in a number of studies that offering incentives can increase response rates compared to no incentive, in both postal and electronic surveys (Collins *et al.*, 2000; Cobanoglu & Cobanoglu, 2003). There is also a suggestion that prepayment of incentives can increase the likelihood of survey completion (Collins *et al.*, 2000). However, difficulty in being able to offer respondents with immediate tangible gifts such as vouchers, pens etc. has been found to lead to reduced response rates with email surveys (Mehta & Sividas, 1995; Smith, 1997). Incentives could be offered electronically in the form of either entry into a prize draw, e-vouchers or allocation of a gift following completion of the online survey. Nonetheless, there is also a suggestion that participants often have little confidence in email surveys, due to their lack of formal, authoritative image, and therefore may be unconvinced by promises of gifts or other benefits (Ranchod & Zhou, 2001).

An additional disadvantage of conducting web based surveys concerns bias in the sample that complete the survey (Sills & Song, 2002). Studies have shown that certain demographic factors affect survey response. For example, online surveys target those who have internet access and are technologically astute enough to be able to effectively use the internet (Shih & Fan, 2009) such as college students (Bachmann *et al.*, 2000). This suggests that electronic surveys may be the more effective method if the target population are young people or students. It has also been suggested that email users tend to be mainly wealthy, upper class professionals (Mehta & Sividas, 1995), however, this may have changed over the past fifteen years with the greater prevalence of the internet amongst wider populations. This highlights the need to consider the variation in accessibility of internet technology for different population groups when conducting electronic surveys.

One advantage of electronic surveys concerns the use of open-ended questions. Some studies have found that respondents are more likely to complete open-ended questions on web surveys compared with postal surveys (Bachmann *et al.*, 2000) and that answers provided were clearer and more ‘illuminating’ than mail respondents (Mehta & Sividas, 1995).

The difficulty in deciding which method is most appropriate to utilise in data collection depends on the research project in question, the target population and the personal preferences of the researcher. Also, whilst there is a great deal of research examining the success of postal versus electronic surveys, there are clearly differences in what ‘type’ of electronic method is used (i.e. email; internet; email link etc.), each of which have their own advantages and disadvantages. There also appears to be some confusion in the literature regarding the term ‘internet’ or ‘electronic’ survey. In their meta-analysis which compared studies investigating the use of mail versus electronic surveys, Shi & Fan (2009) stated, “such generic groupings of ‘electronic survey’ or ‘internet-based survey’ have made it difficult to understand the relative merits/demerits of e-mail versus mail surveys (p. 27). There is certainly a trade-off between the ease of data collation, lower costs and speedy responses of online surveys compared to the potential higher response rate with paper surveys, and this decision will need to be weighed up carefully when deciding on the best method to adopt for particular research projects For this research project in particular, it is impossible to know which method would have yielded a greater response rate, due to the fact that only one method was adopted, which at the time was chosen based on measured judgements at the time.

7.8 Data Collection

The email containing details of the research and a hyperlink to the survey questionnaire was forwarded to the participants outlined in section 7.1. To ensure that participants had ample opportunity to complete the survey, a deadline of three weeks was given. Additionally, anticipating that a number of participants may forget to complete the survey, two reminder, follow-up emails were sent out; the first 7 days after the initial email; and another a week later.

To encourage participants to complete the survey, it was also decided that an incentive would be included, courtesy of SLUK. The email therefore also contained details of a prize draw, which they could enter if they replied to the email, stating their name, email address and phone number, the details of which were emailed direct to Sports Leaders UK. Following the survey deadline date, the details of those participants who had completed the survey and replied to the email were entered into a prize draw to receive some sports clothes vouchers and a winning name was chosen at random by SLUK.

SLUK collated the results of all completed surveys since they ran the survey, and Survey Monkey recorded the findings in a report output. After the three week period, any surveys which were submitted were not included in the analysis. The final results of the surveys were then emailed over to the researcher with all personal details removed from the report.

7.9 Rationale for changes to the research design

At this point of the thesis, it is important to outline changes made to the research design as a result of a poor response rate achieved at phase two of the research. These results had implications for the rest of the research design including the subsequent design and

priority given to phase three of the research. For this reason, changes made including the rationale for the changes will now be discussed.

7.9.1 Survey Response

Following the closing date for submission of surveys, details of numbers completed were collated. The following statistics were gathered:

- Number of emails sent = 3028
- Number of emails which bounced (email address no longer in use or not valid) = 438
- Number of emails opened = 294
- Number of participants who clicked on the link to the survey = 84
- Number of participants who started the survey = 76
- Number of participants who completed the survey = 70

This was a lower response rate than expected. As a percentage of the total number of emails sent, there was only a 2.3% completion rate. There was however a response rate of 23.8% for those who opened the email ($n=284$). There are a number of reasons which could account for the poor response rate achieved.

Firstly, there were 438 emails which immediately bounced, indicating that these email addresses were no longer valid. An email bounces when the account has been actively closed down or is incorrect, as the reply email states that ‘the email address is incorrect or not valid’. However, in addition to this, there may be a large number of email addresses which are no longer in use by the participant. For example, considering the age of the majority of the candidates pursuing the Level 3 SLUK award, they may have registered by using a school or college email address which they no longer use.

However, this cannot be substantiated without closer look at the SLUK candidate database and attain further information regarding candidates' current occupations.

Another reason for the poor response rate may be due to participants regarding the email as 'junk' or unsolicited, and therefore simply deleting the email without opening it. The email subject read 'Sports Leadership Survey' which may not have provided enough incentive or information to encourage participants to open the email.

A final potential reason for the poor response rate achieved concerns the time of year that the survey was emailed out. It was emailed to participants on the 12th March 2010 with a deadline of the 31st March 2010. Easter fell on the 4th April that year, so any participants still in school, college or University may have been on holiday during some of this time and had therefore either been unable to access their emails or had been distracted by other interests or commitments during this period. Despite this though, it would be almost impossible to find a particular time in the year when all participants are not involved with other events, holidays or personal commitments.

7.9.2 Subsequent changes to methods and research strategy

Following the deadline of the survey and recognition of the poor response rate achieved, ideas for overcoming the data collection limitations initially included discussions concerning the need to improve the response rate. One proposal was that the survey would be re-sent to all participants via post, as a postal survey may enable those who do not have access to the internet to complete the survey. Another idea was to email another 'reminder' to all participants to persuade them to complete the survey. However, both of these suggestions had inherent problems such as possible duplication of surveys, the additional costs associated with posting out all the surveys and contextual bias due to sending out the surveys almost a month after the first completed

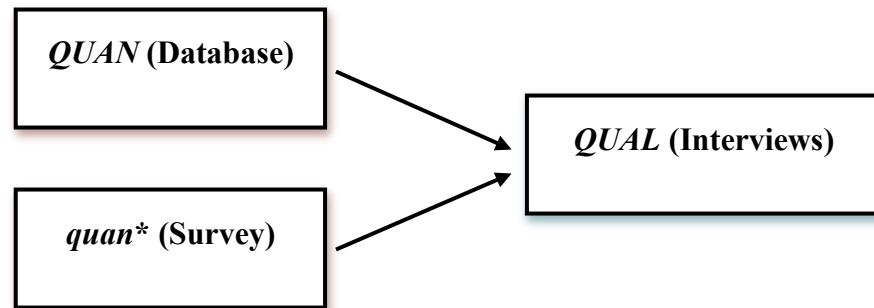
surveys had been submitted. Also, potential absences or inaccuracies of participants' postal addresses on SLUK's candidate database would pose a similar problem as was found with email addresses, which raised more cause for concern.

After much deliberation, it was decided that the survey would not be re-sent to participants. Whilst the current survey did not yield as good a response rate as was expected, it did represent a 'clean' survey, in that it was sent only once and the online software could ensure that each survey was completed by a different participant.

Having made this decision, changes to the methods and research strategy were required to ensure that the data collected over the three phases was sufficient in answering the research questions. Whilst the survey produced some interesting findings, there was the danger that the low response rate may not reflect the experiences of all sports leaders undertaking the Level 3 award and was potentially biased towards those who use the internet on a regular basis and are competent at using the technology. Similarly, the depth of exploration of the surveys was limited. Therefore, it was decided that more emphasis would be placed on the final phase – the qualitative interviews, to ensure more in depth data collection and analysis.

Revisiting the research strategy and mixed methods research design as proposed in Chapter 5, the initial proposed strategy was that all three phases of research were given the same commitment with regards to the priority and time allowed to the conduct the analyses (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006). Likewise, the findings from the quantitative phases would inform the content and design of the qualitative interview schedules. As a result of the poor response rate achieved in the survey (second phase), I decided that more 'weighting' would need to be placed on the qualitative phase in order to be able to answer research questions 2 more fully. Building on the findings from the database analysis and the survey, the qualitative strand would therefore provide a more in depth

explanation of the impact that SLUK awards have on career development of the leaders in addition to their contribution to community sport, resulting in more enhanced research (Bryman, 2006). As a result, the research mixed methods strategy was altered as discussed in chapter 5 and as illustrated in Figure 12 below:



(level of priority is denoted by the use of capital letters; lowercase letters demonstrates lower level of priority)*

Figure 12: Priority of each methodological phase

This revised research design placed less emphasis on the quantitative second strand of the thesis, but still ensures that the findings from the quantitative studies play a crucial role in guiding and informing the qualitative strand – the interviews. It was also realised that the survey results were rather limited in providing the thoughts and experiences of the sports leaders and many of the answers lead to more questions, as the survey design consisted of mainly closed questions to aid data analysis of the expected large number of survey responses. The inclusion of open questions may have provided further information but it would have been difficult to manage and analyse had a large response rate been achieved. This is a dilemma which requires consideration when designing a survey. By altering the research strategy and placing greater emphasis on the qualitative phase, the interviews can be a useful research tool in gaining more informative and

personal experiences from the views of the leaders, which can go beyond the quantitative findings from phases one and two.

7.10 Ethical Considerations

The key ethical considerations in Phase 2 concerned data protection and the anonymity of participants' completed surveys. With regards to anonymity, it was made clear in the email that all surveys would remain anonymous. The only disclosure of personal details was at the end of the survey, where participants were asked if they would consider being contacted for further research purposes. If they agreed to this then they were instructed to input their email address thus allowing for further correspondence. However, even with the inclusion of their email address, the researcher was not given this personal data. Only SLUK had the appropriate information required to link the email address to a particular individual in their database. Therefore, data protection issues were minimal. As with standard practice however, all surveys were stored electronically in a password protected file in a University computer for added security.

7.11 Data Analysis Procedures

Once the final results report had been received from SLUK, they were transferred into an Excel spreadsheet for ease of analysis. All results were checked for accuracy and completeness. Due to the poor response rate achieved, I decided that the analysis would include descriptive statistics, due to issues of statistical power with other, more complex analysis procedures (Pallant, 2010; Field, 2005). Descriptive and frequency analyses were conducted using both Excel and SPSS software packages.

7.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided details of the methods employed for Phase 2 of the research, the survey questionnaire. This strand represented the second quantitative phase of the research, which was analysed prior to the development and implementation of the final qualitative phase. This chapter has provided an outline of the participants used in the study and the development of the survey questionnaire. The pilot study was discussed, which was crucial in testing the survey and ensuring it was appropriate for the participants who would be participating in the research. Due to the poor response rate achieved in the survey, details of the challenges experienced with regards to the research design were detailed, which considered the views of Bryman (2006) in recognising the need to be flexible in the research process, due to the presence of unforeseen circumstances which are often experienced in practical research.

Following the decision to place greater emphasis on the qualitative phase of the research, it was imperative that the data collection process was carefully planned to ensure sufficient data to address both research questions 2 and 3. It is now therefore, that our attention turns to the final phase of the research, which constitutes the semi-structured interviews and the only qualitative phase of the mixed methods research approach.

Chapter 8

Study 3: Semi-Structured Interviews - Methods

8.0 Introduction

This chapter provides details of the methods used in Study 3, which aimed to address research questions 2:

What perceived impact does engaging with a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award have on the personal and career development of the sports leaders?

And research question 3:

What perceived impact does sports leadership have on the development of sport and the wider community from the perspective of the sports leaders?

Phase 3 comprised the qualitative element of the mixed methods research design, which followed the data collection and analysis of the first two quantitative phases. Phase 3 consisted of semi-structured interviews with participants who had undertaken at least one SLUK award, to gain an insight into their views and perceptions of the awards. This chapter outlines the methods and processes involved in the conducting of interviews, including the participants and sampling strategy employed, the interview schedule design, and the pilot study conducted. The ethical considerations of the research will be outlined and finally, details of the analysis procedure which utilised NVivo qualitative data analysis software will be discussed.

8.1 Participants

Participants used in Phase 3 were those who had undertaken a Level 2 or 3 SLUK award ($n=16$). These individuals were selected as it was identified that they would provide information rich cases (Patton, 2002) and would be able to provide useful

information about the phenomenon being investigated. Through their experiences of being involved with the SLUK awards, it was envisaged that these participants would be able to provide information which would be sufficient and appropriate in answering the research questions.

8.2 Sampling Strategies

As recognised by Patton (2002), more than one sampling strategy may be required in qualitative evaluation research. In this research, two sampling strategies were deployed to ensure sufficient information was attained.

Sampling Strategy 1 – Nested sample

The initial sampling method used for Phase 3 of the research was a nested sample, chosen from those participants who had already completed a survey in the second phase of the research. As noted, participants were asked at the end of the survey, whether they would consider being contacted about participating in further research, and if they agreed, they provided their name and email address. 43 survey respondents agreed to further contact and it was initially hoped that this would be a large enough sample for the final interview phase. These leaders were each emailed inviting them to participate in a research project which sought to gain the views of sports leaders and their subsequent experiences of the awards (see Appendix E). Attached to this email was an information sheet providing details of the interview procedure and background to the research project (see Appendix F). If a participant responded to the email stating that they would be happy to take part, a time and date for the interview was agreed, and consent forms were emailed to the participants to read and sign prior to interview (The consent form used can be found in appendix G). Reminder emails were sent two weeks

later to those leaders who had not responded to the initial email, and a final, third email was sent another week later if still no response. If there was still no response from leaders following the three emails over a period of a month, it was assumed that either their email address was no longer in use or they were not willing to participate in the interview.

Sampling Strategy 2 – Purposive sampling

The second sampling strategy adopted was a purposive sample in which participants were selected to participate in the study (Kemper *et al.*, 2003). Due to the fact that not all survey sample participants responded to the email request and theoretical saturation had not been reached with those already interviewed (Corbin and Strauss, 2008), there was a need to find additional participants who would be suitable for interview. Using this purposive sampling technique, an effort was placed on selecting cases which would provide the information required to fully answer the research questions. Purposive sampling was employed (by approaching those who had completed a survey in phase 2) to ensure participants were selected according to their depth of involvement in the SLUK awards, in attempts to identify those who may be able to provide greater detail regarding the impact of the SLUK awards on career development and community sport. The use of purposive sampling is recognised within qualitative research as a means in which to achieve theoretical saturation (Corbin and Strauss, 2008).

As part of the qualitative analysis procedure, simultaneous analysis of the interviews was undertaken whilst data was still being collected. This process unearthed gaps in the data which indicated that parts of the research questions remained unanswered. In particular, these gaps concerned the impact of Sports Leaders UK awards on community sport development outcomes. The participants interviewed at that point were of a similar demographic, particularly with regards to their age, as the majority were 18-20

years old. Possibly due to the participants' lack of understanding of such topic areas, certain questions were not answered fully. Therefore, purposive sampling allowed for a more diverse range of participants to be interviewed, including older participants with more work and life experience, which enabled more in depth discussion of certain themes which had not previously been fully explored.

8.3 Inclusion Criteria

The inclusion criteria stated that all participants used in the study had at least registered for either a Level 2 or a Level 3 award within the last two years (1st January 2007 to 31st December 2009). All participants were over the age of 18 years, which ensured that questions regarding career development could be answered, whilst also avoiding issues concerned with gaining ethical approval for working with children and young people. This inclusion criteria represented the same criteria that was employed in Phase 2.

8.4 Interview Schedule Development

The individual interviews formed the final part of the study and therefore the questions developed were informed by the results of the first two quantitative phases. This meant that the interview schedule and questions to be asked were designed following initial analysis of the quantitative data collected in Phases 1 and 2. In this way, the interviews allowed for a more in-depth exploration of certain aspects of the research questions which were unanswered by the quantitative data as well helping to explain and enhance the findings gathered in the quantitative phases (Bryman, 2006).

A combination of strategies was used in developing the interview questions. Firstly, the research questions were broken down into key categories and themes which were to be

explored; themes such as volunteering, community sport outcomes and personal development. Secondly, a review of the current literature on sports leadership and volunteering was undertaken to examine areas where previous research had been undertaken as well as gaps in particular areas surrounding community sport and leadership. Thirdly, input from SLUK contributed to the development of the interview questions to ensure that specific areas of interest were included. Finally, an analysis of the findings from phase one and two of the research was undertaken to identify gaps or themes within the data which could benefit from further research and explanation through the interviews.

Once these tasks had been completed, key questions to be included were developed and a number of draft interview schedules were designed. Semi-structured interviews were used to allow for emerging themes and the development of concepts from the participants own words and ideas (Bryman, 2008). Burgess (1984) stated that semi-structured interviews are “conversations with a purpose” (p.102) and that they allow participants to formulate their answers outside of the constraints of structured questions. The use of semi-structured interviews also allows for constant reviewing and iteration of the interview schedule throughout the process, as on-going analysis of the data is conducted during the data collection period, which is a key advantage of qualitative research (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Flexibility in the interview schedule (see Appendix H) also allows for theoretical saturation as probing questions can ensure answers and concepts are fully expressed by the participants and the data is more complete.

Throughout the interviewing phase, the same interview schedule was used by the researcher, but additional notes, prompts and ideas were added to this schedule for later interviews, as part of the iterative process in which data collection and analysis occurs simultaneously (Bryman, 2008; Corbin and Strauss, 2008).

8.5 Pilot Interviews

Prior to data collection, two pilot interviews were conducted to ensure that the interview schedule was appropriate and that the researcher was confident in undertaking the study interviews. These pilot interviews were conducted with students from the University of Gloucestershire, who were studying for Sport Coaching and Physical Education related degrees. To ensure that the students used for the pilot were similar to the sample being interviewed for the study, both had previously completed a Level 2 SLUK award in the past 5 years. This ensured that they had an understanding of the award programmes and could therefore answer the questions in the pilot interviews and use their own experiences to support their views and opinions. All procedures during the pilot interview were conducted in the same way as they were in the study interviews, including providing an overview of the research, completion of consent forms and the digital recording of the interview. In addition to this, the pilot interviews were a useful opportunity to gain some feedback from the students regarding the interviewing process and information given. Some constructive suggestions were made regarding slight alterations to the information sheet and use of the digital recorder, which were altered ready for the final interviews. The two interviews lasted for between 30 and 40 mins. Data generated from the pilot interviews were not included in the final analyses.

8.6 Data Collection Procedure

Once participants had agreed to take part in interview and had read the information sheet provided, a convenient time and place to meet was agreed. Most participants suggested a place convenient for themselves, which was fairly quiet and easy to travel to. All interviews were conducted in person on a one-to-one basis. A consent form was signed by the participant to indicate that they understood and agreed to the interview

process (see appendix F for a copy of the consent form). The use of a digital recorder to assist with data analysis was explained to the participant and consent to record the interview was granted. To record the interviews an Olympus digital voice recorder was used.

When the interview had finished, participants were asked if there was anything else useful or important which they may like to add or change, after which point the recording was terminated. Participants were also offered a copy of the interview transcript should they wish. They were then thanked and de-briefed on the research, whilst also reassured that their interviews would be kept anonymous once transcribed. All interviews were transcribed verbatim, and were entered into QSR NVivo for data analysis.

8.7 Ethical Considerations

The key ethical considerations in Phase 3 of the research concerned the need for anonymity and data protection following transcription of the interview. Following ethical criteria detailed in the University of Gloucestershire's (2008) research guidelines, consent forms and information regarding the role of the researcher was conveyed to the participants.

To preserve anonymity pseudonyms were allocated to participants in the transcribed interviews. All geographical and persons names were removed and replaced with alternative names. With regards to data protection, all details of the participants gathered during the interview stage were kept electronically in a password protected file on a University computer, in a secure office. This included the audio files and NVivo files gathered through the data collection and analysis process.

8.8 Analysis Procedures

NVivo was used to assist with the analysis of the qualitative data and aid in the identification of codes and categories and development of the conceptual model. As explained in Chapter 5, techniques based on grounded theory methodology assist the researcher in ‘raising’ the data to an abstract level, which help to explain the phenomenon of the research (Holton, 2007). To assist with this process, the creation of diagrams and models which provide a conceptual representation of the phenomenon are also useful in organising data and showing relationships between concepts (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). This section will explain how data was analysed from initial coding using NVivo through to the development of the conceptual model which provides an explanation of the phenomenon being studied. Techniques and processes used were based largely on those suggested by Charmaz (2006) and Corbin and Strauss (2008).

8.8.1 Use of computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS)

CAQDAS has become popular in recent years in assisting researchers with the management and analysis of qualitative data (Bringer, Johnston and Brackenbridge, 2004; Bazeley, 2006; Hutchinson, Johnston and Breckon, 2009; Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2011). Whilst CAQDAS can be a useful aid to novice researchers, it is important to realise that such software is only as effective as the researcher utilising it (Bazeley, 2007). Similarly, the use of CAQDAS cannot analyse data for the researcher. Rather, the researcher utilises the software to aid in the analysis (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2011). Nevertheless, whilst it is still apparent that ‘computers offer no instant solutions to the problems faced by qualitative researchers’ (Richards and Richards, 1994, p. 445), the use of CAQDAS can enhance the data management and analysis process when used appropriately (Bringer et al., 2004; Hutchinson et al., 2009).

In this study, the specific CAQDAS programme which was used was QSR NVivo (version 9). Previous research has suggested that NVivo is useful in aiding researchers with the iterative process involved with the qualitative data analysis, and through its data management capabilities, provides a transparent account of processes followed (Bringer et al., 2004). Interview transcripts were uploaded into Nvivo as text files, which were then each saved as separate ‘source’ files, therefore resulting in 16 separate sources being present in the programme. The process of coding and analysis will now be described. It is important to note, that whilst this is written in a linear fashion for the purposes of clarity, the actual practice of the following procedures were not linear, as some were conducted simultaneously, as the researcher moved backwards and forwards through the techniques during the coding process. Furthermore, the process of analysis and data collection occurred simultaneously.

8.8.2 Open Coding

Once transcripts had been input into the Nvivo file, the first step was initial or ‘open’ coding. Coding is often seen as the first step in qualitative data analysis (Richards and Morse, 2007), and involves naming sections of data which ‘summarises and accounts for each piece of data’ (Charmaz, 2006, p. 43). This is the first step in organising data into categories, or ‘nodes’ as described in NVivo. Different methods of open coding are suggested (e.g. word by word coding; line by line coding), however, in this study, line by line (or sometimes sentence by sentence) coding was the preferred choice, as it enabled the researcher to engage closely with the data whilst providing a technique which encouraged the researcher to remain fresh and open to the data (Charmaz, 2006). With this initial coding, it was important to ensure that the data created the codes, rather than the data fitting into pre-existing codes based on the researcher’s preconceptions.

The process of constant comparison helped to identify nodes within the data, and began the process of theoretical concept development, rather than simply ‘describing’ the data segments (Holton, 2007). As suggested by Charmaz (2006), initial open coding is best completed when ‘speed and spontaneity’ are employed (p. 48). This was followed to ensure that the data ‘did the talking’ so to speak, and that the large amounts of interview transcripts were coded in a timely fashion. This quick process also helped to avoid the issue of the coding process becoming automated and mechanical (Kelle, 1995).

8.8.3 Axial Coding

Axial coding refers to the process of identifying a category’s properties and dimensions which characterise that category (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Corbin and Strauss, 2008). According to Strauss and Corbin (1998: 117), the property of a category refers to the “general or specific characteristics or attributes of a category” and dimensions “represent the location of a property along a continuum or range”. Through the process of axial coding, relationships between categories and subcategories begin to emerge and are identified within the data (Charmaz, 2006). Subsequently, axial coding assists the researcher in being able to organise and sort through large amounts of data following the initial open coding process (Creswell, 1998). In addition to identifying properties and dimensions, to assist in detecting patterns and relationships between categories, Corbin and Strauss suggest the use of the conditional/consequential matrix (2008). This process includes the identification of conditions, actions/interactions and consequences, which are defined in table 4 below and are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 12 which presents the results for study 3. Using the matrix helps to identify the context within which the phenomenon occurs (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Through the process of systematically organising codes and categories in this way, data is built back up into

a meaningful and coherent whole (Charmaz, 2006). Axial coding can also help to provide some structure to the analysis process, and further extend the analytical ideas which emerge from the data. However, some have criticised the use of axial coding, suggesting that it is an unnecessary level of coding, which can further complicate the novice researcher (Urquhart, 2007). Nevertheless, the process was undertaken and proved useful in building theoretical links between categories and subcategories, which initiated the beginnings of a conceptual model.

Table 4: Definitions of key category components and ordering of categories

<i>Category</i>	High level concepts or themes under which lower-level concepts are grouped according to shared properties.
<i>Properties</i>	Characteristics that define a category
<i>Dimensions</i>	Variations within the category's properties
<i>Conditions (Causal and Intervening)</i>	The reasons or 'conditions' which lead to responses in the data. Includes the what, why, where and how of a situation.
<i>Interactions/Actions</i>	The responses made by individuals when reacting to a situation
<i>Consequences</i>	The outcomes of interactions providing answers about what happened following an interaction to a situation

(Adapted from Corbin and Strauss, 2008)

8.8.4 Focused Coding

A simultaneous process which occurred alongside axial coding was that of focused coding (Glaser, 1978) in which codes and categories are examined in greater detail. In particular, the most frequent codes were focused on, and decisions were made at this point as to whether these codes were adequate in categorising the data (Charmaz, 2006). At this stage, in addition to formulating properties and dimensions, tree nodes were used

in NVivo, which allows the researcher to further categorise the nodes and organise data. Using tree nodes also helps to identify missing categories, codes that overlap and identify common properties of categories (Bazeley, 2007). Important to theoretical and conceptual development, tree nodes also help to identify patterns in the categories, and assist with the classification of causal/intervening conditions, actions/interactions and consequences.

8.8.5 Memo writing

A critical process in qualitative data analysis is that of memo writing. Memo writing refers to the process of writing down thoughts, ideas, explanations, questions, reflections and conceptual links (Hutchison et al., 2009; Lempert, 2007; Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Essentially, it is through writing memos that the emergent theory remains grounded in the data and provides the link between coding and analysis (Charmaz, 2006; Lempert, 2007). In the present study, memos were written both in paper format in note form, and also as connected memos in NVivo. These memos in NVivo were linked to each node and provided a valuable tool in recording thoughts and explanations concerning the data. The key benefit of redounding memos in NVivo was the fact that they were easily stored and organised in a logical format. Figure 13 illustrates a screen shot of a memo written in NVivo for the category of ‘Access and availability of SLUK courses’.

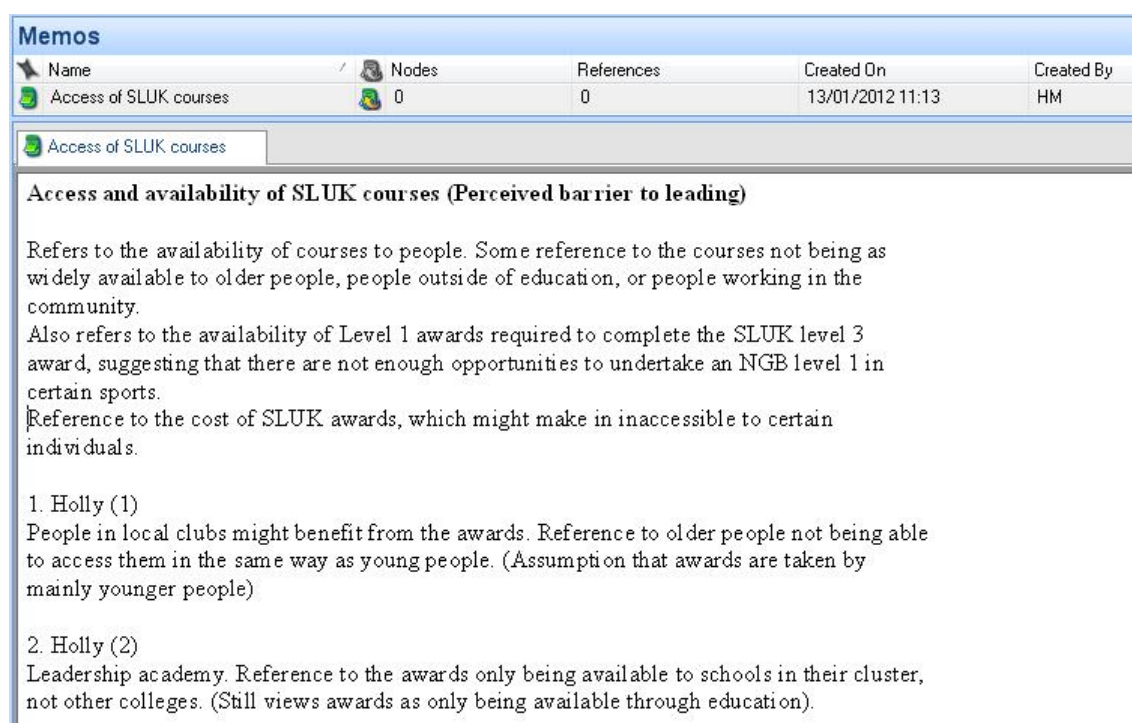


Figure 13: Screenprint of an example memo in NVivo

From the information stored within the memos, the process of theory building is more possible, as writing down reflections and thoughts allows for greater abstraction of ideas. Memo-writing also helped to check the organisation of categories and most crucially, assist in the identification of the core category. Furthermore, memo-writing encouraged a desire to draw graphical models as patterns and relationships in the data began to emerge. These stages subsequently lead to the development of the conceptual model, which explained in the following section.

8.8.6 Conceptual development

The final stage involved in the qualitative analysis was to develop an abstract, conceptual model to explain the processes, relationships and outcomes involved in the data (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). To achieve a useful, explanatory model which helps to describe the phenomena being investigated, the coding and memoing needed to be lifted

to a more abstract and theoretical level (Charmaz, 2006). This is achieved by exploring the relationships and processes at work between the different codes and categories, using the memos to help facilitate the method. Tree nodes assisted with the stage too, since codes were organised into higher order categories and their corresponding sub-categories and properties (Hutchison *et al.*, 2009). NVivo also incorporates tools for drawing graphical diagrams which aid the researcher with mapping out the relationships and associations between different categories, such as the presence of conditions, interactions, and consequences. An example of a model created with NVivo can be seen in Figure 14.

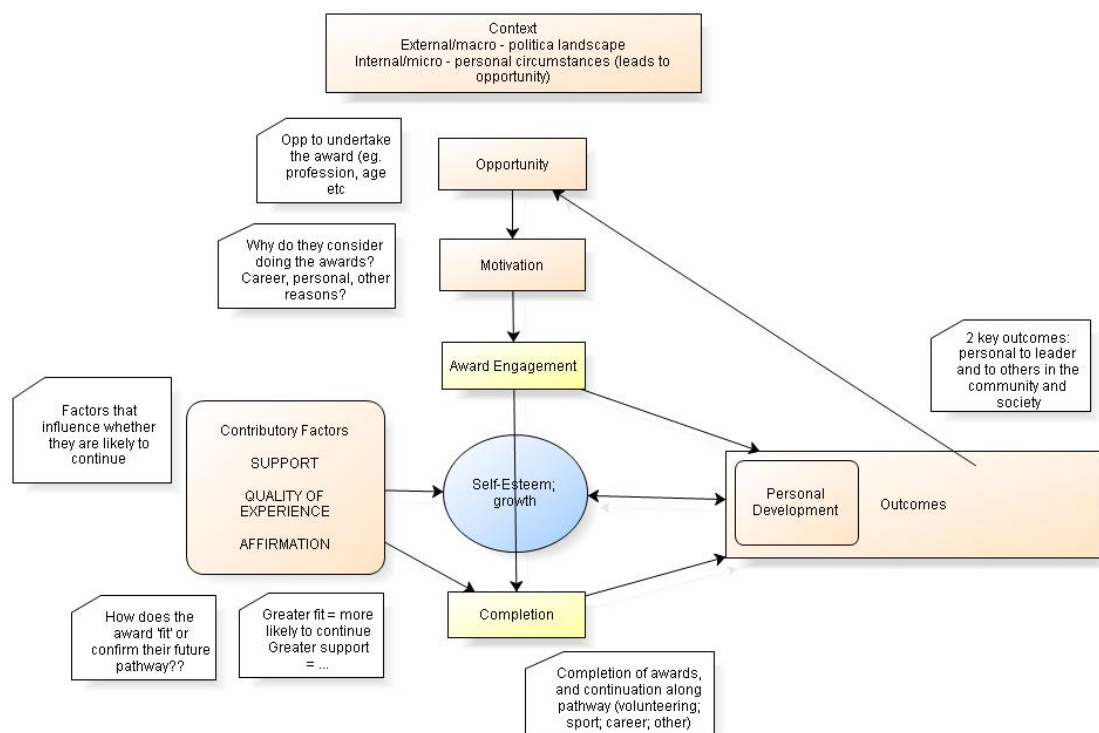


Figure 14: Example of a basic analytical model constructed in NVivo

Figure 14 presents an early model of the process of SLUK awards, and begins to suggest some of the consequences of the awards and the interactions involved in the categories. All categories included in the model were taken directly from the categories

and memos developed following coding of the raw data. Moreover, some categories were not included in the model as they were not deemed pertinent to addressing the research questions posed. Further memos and notes were made during model development as this continued the practice of thinking analytically and abstractly. Models and diagrams were created both on NVivo and via paper-based activities, as this allowed for more iterative and creative approaches to model development. Other tools such as post-it notes and white boards also assisted with conceptual development, as these enabled easy movement of categories to challenge the possible relationships. Certainly, at this point of analysis, it was felt that NVivo did not allow for flow and creativity in conceptual development that paper-based exercises offered. The process of model development also allowed the researcher to test the core category, but examining its role in the overall theory, by ensuring that it was actually ‘core’ to the model.

The end of the process occurred when theoretical saturation was achieved and no new insights were found (Charmaz, 2006). At this point, further improvements to the model were limited, as I felt that the model was effective at providing an explanation of the phenomena under investigation – i.e. the role of the SLUK awards in contributing to career and community sport development.

8.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the details involved in the data collection and analysis of the qualitative phase of the research. This final phase of the research used semi-structured interviews as a means by which greater insight could be gained to address the research problem and enhance the findings from the two quantitative phases. Through using procedures born out of GTM, systematic and rigorous analysis of the interview data enabled me to develop a conceptual model to explain to processes and associations

involved in the delivery of the SLUK awards and their contribution to the personal development of the leaders and to sport and the wider community. The results for this qualitative phase are presented in Chapter 12. To conclude to methodology part of the thesis, it is now that we turn to Part 3 of the thesis and the findings of the research.

Chapter 9: Limitations of the Research

9.0 Introduction

Limitations are an inherent part of research (Bryman, 2008). Different limitations are present according to the methods employed, which include the practicalities involved in data collection, sampling strategies and the role of the researcher. This final section of Chapter 13 outlines the limitations identified in the present study and their implications for the research process.

9.1 Use of secondary data

The first limitation concerns Phase 1 of the research and the SLUK candidate database. The database included participant data collected by SLUK over a period of five years. As a result, the researcher was not responsible for collecting or inputting any of that data. Whilst there are benefits to utilising such secondary data (i.e. time and cost; access to large data sets; and avoiding the practicalities of collecting such data firsthand) there are also inherent limitations which cannot be controlled or accounted for (Bryman, 2008). For the present research project in particular, one key limitation of utilising secondary data was not having control over the quality of the data collected. Whilst utilising certain datasets from research or statistics organisations may come with assurance that data has been collected accurately, this is not necessarily that case as the database from SLUK. From their point of view, the data serves a purpose is providing a record of candidates who have registered for the awards, rather than the need for completely accurate data to be comprehensively analysed. Therefore some caution was taken in checking the data for inaccuracies or inconsistencies which were apparent, which with such a large dataset was time consuming.

Leading on from the previous point, the absence of certain variables was also problematic and common with secondary data (Bryman, 2008). While cleaning the data it was apparent that certain data was missing, which resulted in a reduction of usable datasets. Fortunately, due to the large number of data available ($n=76,179$), the removal of certain candidate data did not significantly impact on the statistical significance of the data during analysis. However, with smaller datasets, this limitation may pose problems.

9.2 Survey design and implementation

A significant limitation to the project was the survey response in phase 2 of the research. Potential reasons for why a poor response was achieved have already been discussed in section 7.7. In addition to the poor response, another limitation concerned the design of the survey, which impacted on the way that the subsequent data could be analysed. As previously discussed, the survey was designed via Survey Monkey – an electronic, internet-based survey programme. Whilst there are advantages to using electronic surveys, in particular the way that the software is able to collate results quickly, careful consideration is required when designing the survey. Such programmes include various settings and design features depending on what you want to achieve. An agreement was put in place with SLUK that they would implement the survey, since they owned the registration to the software and were able to maintain candidate anonymity. Furthermore, during that time, the University's own electronic survey software licence was due to expire which created complications. Nevertheless, following the draft survey as designed by the researcher, SLUK created the electronic survey. Unfortunately in doing so, the survey was designed in such a way that data could not be analysed by tracking data through a survey; only by comparing responses

from questions across surveys. In other words, a response from one respondent regarding question 1 could be compared to another respondent answering the same question; but one respondent's answers throughout a survey could not be examined to explore trends and relationships in their responses. This did present a problem at the analysis stage as the range of statistical tests that could be performed on the data was limited. This limitation coupled with the poor response rate rendered the survey theoretically weak in the project.

9.3 Sample selection

Clear inclusion criteria were used in all three stages of the research. Whilst the limitations concerning sample selection are less acute in phase 1 given that the data is secondary data and a large sample, issues regarding sample selection were more problematic for phases 2 and 3.

For phase 2, a nested sample from phase 1 was chosen as an appropriate sample to use, as this ensured that the same leaders would be used in both phases, in addition to access of contact details which the database presented. Furthermore, the geographical spread of the sample was significant, with candidates located in each of the four home countries. Issues arose with the survey at the point of emailing candidates, since it was apparent that contact details and email addresses were either not accurately recorded or no longer in use. From the sample of 3028 emails which were sent, 438 bounced, indicating that the addresses were incorrect or not in use. Moreover, it appeared that a large number of other emails were not opened, possibly due to spam filters in email inboxes (Sills and Song, 2002). Follow up postal surveys was a possibility to help increase the number of surveys received, but elements such as cost, time and logistics were factors that would then become problematic. Therefore, no follow up survey was sent out.

With regards to phase 3, a nested sample from phases 1 and 2 was used, in that the survey respondents were contacted for interview. Moreover, purposive and theoretical sampling was used, in which participants were selected according to their lived experiences of the SLUK awards, as information rich cases are necessary in developing relevant theory (Charmaz, 2006). Furthermore, theoretical sampling ensures that data saturation is achieved (Kemper *et al.*, 2003). The approach to recruiting participants therefore also involved contacting those who were willing, accessible and knowledgeable about the SLUK awards. In recruiting such participants via more convenient methods, other potential participants were missed. The inclusion criteria contributed to overcoming limitations in sample selection, given that all participants were suitable. Nonetheless, participants who deemed themselves as important to the research volunteered to participate, therefore posing questions concerning self selection and respondent bias (e.g. an interest in the SLUK awards). Notwithstanding this limitation, theoretical saturation was deemed to be achieved, indicating that the sample size was sufficient in constructing relevant theory.

9.4 Researcher bias

Researcher bias is said to be present during qualitative research due to the social interaction between the researcher and respondents (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). From a Grounded Theory Methodology (GTM) perspective, Glaser rejects the presence of researcher bias, by instead suggesting that the tools utilised in GTM results in an objective social reality (Glaser, 2007). However, from a constructivist and pragmatist perspective, the researcher's own beliefs, opinions and views are inherent in research (Charmaz, 2006). Furthermore, this is not viewed as a negative, but rather this is part of the research process and the subsequent theory is dependent on both the researcher's

and respondents' views. It is therefore recognised that in the present study, the results and findings are an interpretation of the researcher, and another researcher analysing the data may draw slightly different conclusions. Nevertheless, through a reflective approach to data analysis, the thoughts, ideas, actions and relationships in the data are explored determining how the theory is developed, whilst simultaneously accepting the interplay between the researcher's values and the data (Charmaz, 2006).

One limitation that may appear in research is that of hidden agendas on the behalf of the researchers (Richards and Morse, 2007). This refers to the researcher's own ideas, beliefs or interests held about the area or topic being studied. My own personal interest in SLUK awards from delivering the awards in the community, did pose a potential problem. However, it was imperative that my own views did not interfere with data collection (particularly in the qualitative phase), and no leading questions were asked. Furthermore, peer review and support from the supervision team helped to reduce the likelihood of first researcher bias. Nonetheless, there is always an inherent risk of researcher bias imposed on the participants.

9.5 Chapter summary

This final chapter in Part 2 has discussed the limitations that were present in the research project. All research has inherent limitations and whilst no study is perfect, there is a need to be aware of the key weaknesses which may impact on the collection of data and subsequent analysis and credibility of the project being undertaken. The key limitations in the present study concerned phase 2 (the survey). To help counteract the weaknesses found in the stage of the research, changes were made to the research project to ensure that all research questions were addressed. The discussion of the thesis

now turns to the findings gathered in Part 3, with each of the three research phases presented in turn.

PART 3

Part 3 presents the findings of the research. Each of the three phases will be discussed in turn, with the two quantitative components presented in chapters 10 and 11; and the qualitative component presented in chapter 12.

Chapter 10 outlines the key results gathered following analysis of the SLUK candidate database. Frequency statistics will be presented in addition to the BLR models designed to show associations between predictor variables and the outcome variables – registration or completion of an SLUK award. These results address research question 1.

Chapter 11 presents the descriptive findings of the sports leadership survey conducted in phase 2 of the research. These results address research question 2.

Finally, chapter 12 presents the findings of the qualitative component of the research – the sports leader interviews. This chapter illustrates the conceptual model developed during the qualitative analysis, and discusses each of the categories identified in the data. This final chapter addresses research questions 2 and 3 and builds on the findings from the quantitative phases.

Chapter 10

Study 1: Candidate Database - Results

10.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative findings from the first stage of the research – the analysis of the SLUK candidate database. This phase of the research set out to address research question 1 as highlighted in table 5 below:

Table 5: The research questions and their corresponding research phases

Research Question	Research Phase
<i>RQ1. What socio-demographic factors are associated with whether candidates register for, engage with or complete a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award?</i>	Phase 1(Quantitative) – Database
<i>RQ2. What perceived impact does engaging with a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award have on the personal and career development of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 2 (Quantitative) – Survey Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Interviews
<i>RQ3. What perceived impact does sports leadership have on the development of sport and the wider community from the perspective of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Interviews

This chapter begins by providing descriptive data of the total sample used, outlining key frequencies including participant demographics and SLUK award statistics. Next, each of the Binary Logistic regression (BLR) models will be presented. Models 1, 2 and 3 provide descriptive statistics and BLR analyses. Model 4 only provides descriptive analyses since the sample was not large enough for BLR analysis. Details of each of the models can be referred to in chapter 6.

10.1 Total Dataset – Frequencies

The first stage of the analysis involved examination of the complete dataset including all those who registered for a SLUK Level 2 or 3 award in the period 1st September 2004 to 31st August 2009.

The total number of candidates included in the data analysis following the cleaning process and removal of duplication entries was 76,179 candidates. These cases were complete datasets, in that they contained all necessary socio-demographic data, as any missing data resulted in the removal of that candidate prior to analysis.

10.1.1 Gender, Age, Disability and Ethnicity

Of the total sample, 40.8% were female (n=31,112) and 59.2% were male (n=45,067), illustrating a slightly higher proportion of males pursuing SLUK awards. The majority of candidates were aged 25 years or younger, with 90.7% of the sample being aged between 16 and 23 years (n=69,078). The ages with the largest representation in the sample were 20 and 21 years old, which accounted for 21.7% and 22.2% of the sample respectively. Indeed, the mean average age of the whole sample was 21 years. However, one limitation of the data is that ages are calculated as of the 1st January 2010, and therefore do not necessarily represent the age of the candidate upon registering or completion of the awards. Therefore, candidates may have completed an award a few years ago, and the database now provides their age a few years on. This limitation was unavoidable due to the fact that date of registration or completion of awards was not present on the database, however, given that data is no older than 5 years, it can be assumed that candidates would not have been more than 5 years younger when they registered for an award. Figure 15 and 16 provide an illustration of the age distribution

of candidates in the sample. 16 years is the minimum age for registration on the Level 2 award, hence there is no one in the sample who is younger than this.

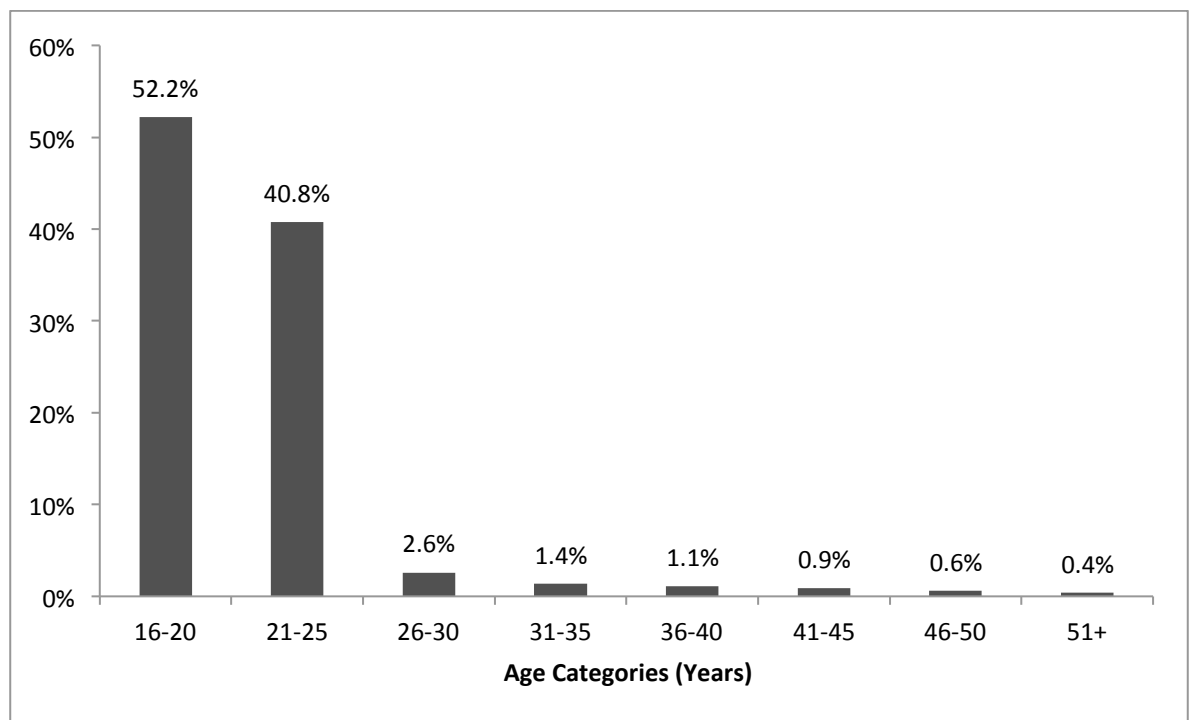


Figure 15: Age category distributions of all candidates Sports Leaders UK database sample

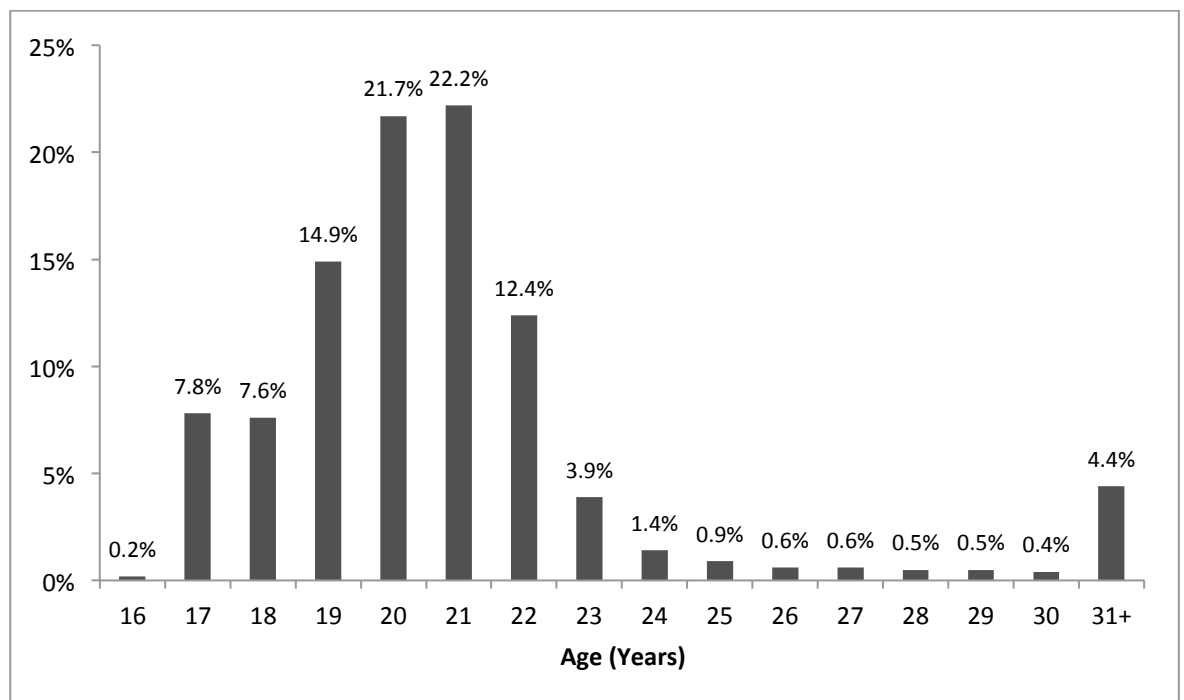


Figure 16: Age distribution of candidates in Sports Leaders UK database sample

There was a fairly similar split in age distributions for both men and women as can be seen in figure 17, however there were slightly more females in the youngest age group, the '16-20 yrs' (54.5%) compared to males in this group (50.6%). Conversely, more males (41.6%) were found in the 21-25 year age group compared to women (39.6%), with more males present in the 26-30, 31-35 and 36-40 year age groups also.

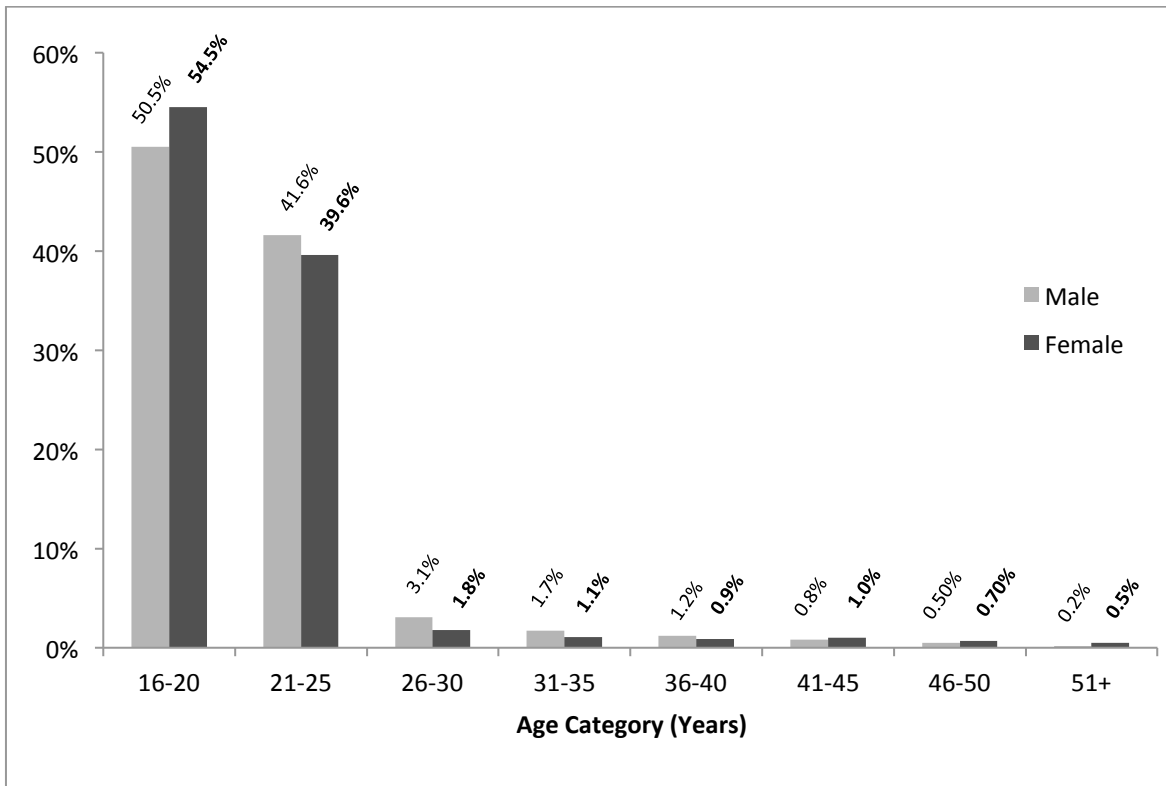


Figure 17: Distribution of ages for male and female sports leaders for the total sample registering for Level 2 and 3 awards.

Of the total sample, only 302 of the 76,179 candidates indicated that they had a disability, which accounted for 0.4% of the sample.

With regards to ethnicity, nine different ethnic categories were used. People from a white ethnic background represented the majority with 89.5% of candidates on the database providing this response. Table 6 provides an overview of the distribution of ethnicity in the total sample.

Table 6: Distribution of ethnic background of candidates in Sports Leaders UK database sample

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
White	68213	89.5	89.5
Black - Caribbean	1525	2.0	91.5
Indian	1147	1.5	93.0
Black - African	1089	1.4	94.4
Pakistani	860	1.1	95.6
Black - Other	602	.8	96.4
Bangladeshi	400	.5	96.9
Chinese	240	.3	97.2
Other	2103	2.8	100.0
Total	76179	100.0	

9.1.2 Occupation, Course Centre Type and Volunteering Experience

Six different occupations were categorised in the final sample, with ‘full-time education’ providing the response for the vast majority with 89.1% (n=67884). Part-time education only accounted for 1.1% (n=857), with full-time employment and part-time employment representing 3.4% (n=2573) and 2.0% (n=1486) of the candidates’ occupations, respectively.

Course centre type referred to the location where the SLUK course was delivered, otherwise called Accredited Assessment Centres (AAC). Education establishments were the most common centre for delivery of the sports leadership awards, with ‘schools’ representing 44.4% (n=33843) of the total and ‘Further Education Colleges’ providing the second highest proportion with 39.4% (n=29992). Figure 18 provides an illustration of the distribution of other centre types attended.

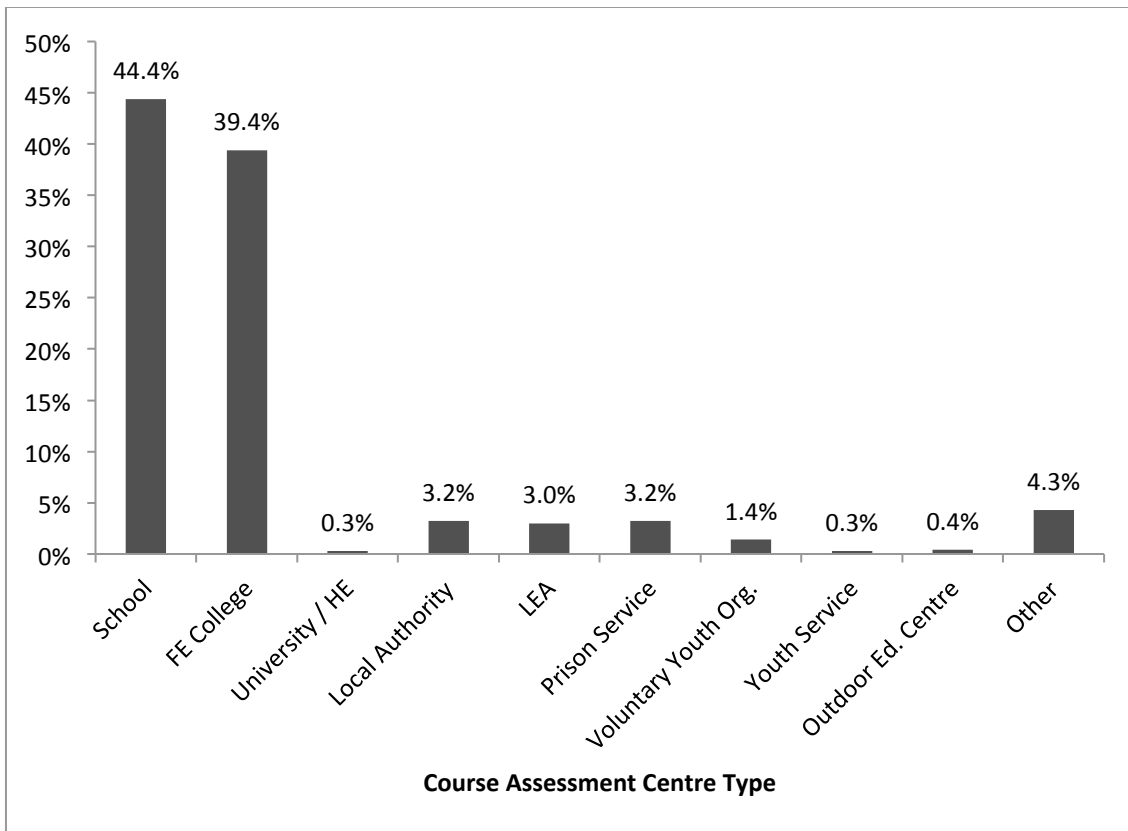


Figure 18: Distribution of the type of course centre candidates attended within which to undertake their Sports Leaders UK award.

The original three categories for volunteering were collapsed into two categories, due to duplication and multi-collinearity of variables provided. Therefore, the two variables created, were ‘volunteered previously’ (which combined responses for ‘volunteered before’ and ‘volunteered past 12 months’) and ‘volunteering currently’, which indicates a candidates’ volunteering behaviour at the time of award registration. Of the total sample on the candidate database, it was found that 56.1% had volunteered at some point previously, but only 32.7% were currently volunteering. It was found that overall, only 58.7% of candidates had volunteered at all, either previously or currently. Table 7 presents these findings.

Table 7: The number of candidates who have undertaken volunteering work

	Response 'Yes' (%)	Response 'Yes' (N)
Volunteered Previously	56.1	42715
Volunteering Currently	32.7	24912
Volunteering Experience*	58.7	44714

**Refers to any volunteering experience that the candidate has had, determined by collapsing all three original variables provided in the database*

9.1.3 UK split of Sports Leaders

The data analysed shows that candidates from all four UK countries have registered for SLUK awards. The relative split on the number of candidates registered on the database are shown in Table 8 below:

Table 8: Split of candidates registered on Sports Leaders UK database according to the UK constituent countries.

	Number of Candidates	% of Total Sample	Total Populations ¹⁷	% of population
England	69827	91.66	51,809,700	0.13
Wales	1982	2.60	2,999,300	0.07
Scotland	4267	5.60	5,194,000	0.08
NI	103	0.14	1,788,900	0.01
Total	76179	100	61,791,900	0.12

As can be seen in Table 8, as expected, the vast majority of candidates live in England, consisting of 91.66% of the database sample. Scotland is the second largest represented

¹⁷ Data shows 2009 mid-year population estimates for UK constituent countries, available from the Office for National Statistics: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/product.asp?vlnk=15106>

country (5.60%), followed by Wales (2.60%) and Northern Ireland (0.14%) respectively. This is as expected due to the difference in population sizes between the countries. Table 8 therefore also includes the proportion of candidates from each individual country according to their actual populations (based on ONS data from 2009). England has the highest proportion of candidates in the data, representing 0.13% of the population. Northern Ireland has the smallest proportion, with only 0.01% of the population registering for SLUK awards. Overall, 0.12% of the UK population were represented in the SLUK data. With regards to urban and rural locality of candidates, 24.8% of total sample were recorded as living in a rural area within the UK (n=18,916).

10.2 Binary Logistic Regression Models

The next stage of the analysis was to run the 3 Binary Logistic Regression (BLR) models to examine any associations between variables in the data. Before BLR was conducted, all models underwent a test for multicollinearity using multiple regression in SPSS. This test is important in determining whether there are any strong correlations between the independent variables. Ideally, there should be some correlation between the independent (or predictor) variables and the dependent (or outcome) variable, but no correlation between the predictor variables. For each of the three models in this analysis, all independent variables had a Pearson's correlation value of less than 0.7. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that the correlation between independent variables should not exceed 0.7, and if they do, some consideration should be given to removing one or more of the variables responsible for the multicollinearity. During initial analyses, the volunteering categories were collapsed due to the presence of multicollinearity. Making this alteration resulted in the absence of multicollinearity for the final analyses.

SPSS 'collinearity diagnostics' were also performed to double check the presence of multicollinearity, but again, this was not present in the data, indicated by high tolerance values (>0.1) for all independent variables in the test.

Descriptive analyses and BLR analyses were conducted on each of the 3 models. For each regression model, the 'enter' method was used, which is the default method in SPSS. This method enters all variables into the model in one block to examine their predictive power. This differs to 'Stepwise' approaches, which have been criticised due to the likelihood of variables being influenced by random variation in the data (Pallant, 2010; Field, 2005). The key findings for each model are outlined next.

10.3 Model 1 – Complete Level 2 Award

10.3.1 Frequency Data

Model 1 aimed to explore associations between the predictor variables and whether candidates who registered for a SLUK award completed the Level 2 award or not. The sample included in this model were those candidates who registered for a Level 2 award ($n=74,914$). The sample contained a slightly higher number of males, representing 59.1% of the total. The age of candidates included in Model 1 showed a similar spread to the entire dataset, with an average age of 21.3 years ($SD=4.84$) as can be observed in Figure 19.

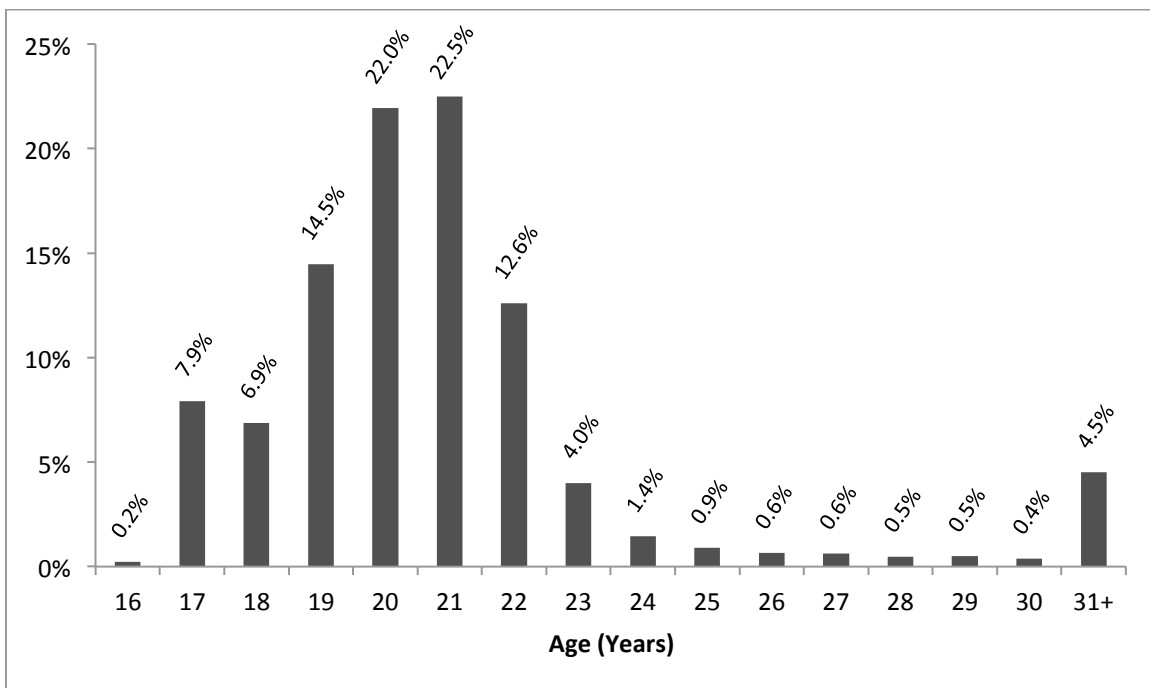


Figure 19: Distribution of ages for male and female sports leaders in the sample for Model 1 – completion of Level 2 award ($n = 74,914$)

With regards to ethnicity, ‘white’ category accounted for 89.5% of the sample, and 99.6% reported no disability. The ‘occupation’ variable showed a similar picture to the total dataset, as illustrated in Figure 20. Likewise, ‘centre type’ presented similar

frequencies to the total dataset with the vast majority of candidates undertaking a course at either a 'school' or an 'FE college' (44.7% and 39.0% respectively).

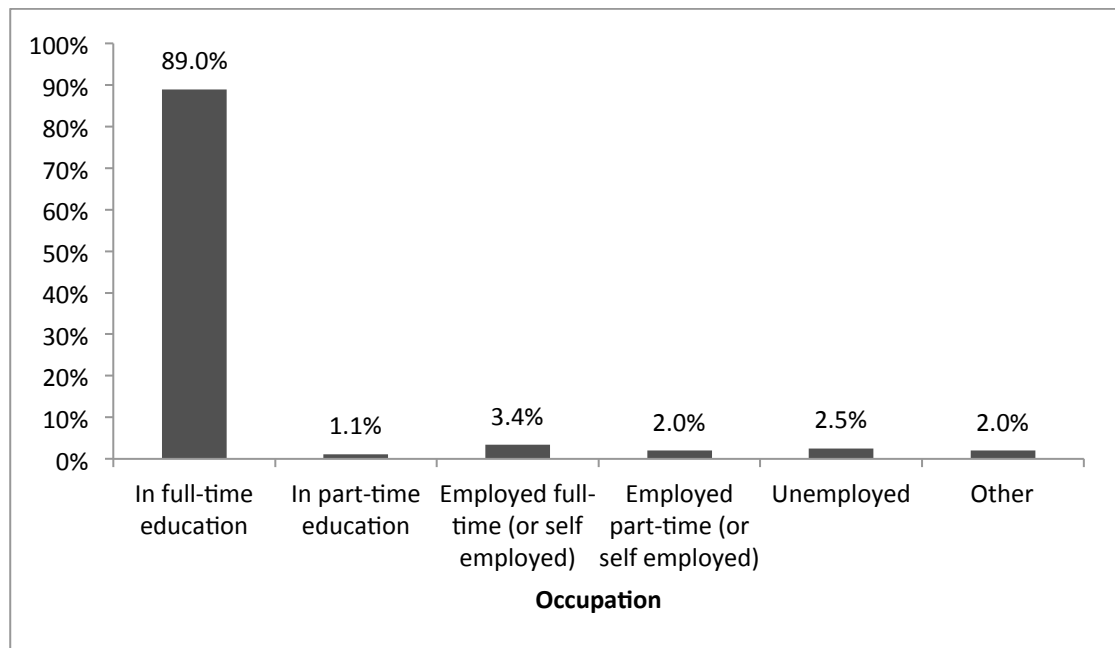


Figure 20: Occupation of candidates registering for a Level 2 award (Model 1)

A higher proportion (75.1%) of candidates registering for a Level 2 award were from an urban area, and a greater number of candidates stated that they had volunteered previously compared to currently volunteering (Figure 21).

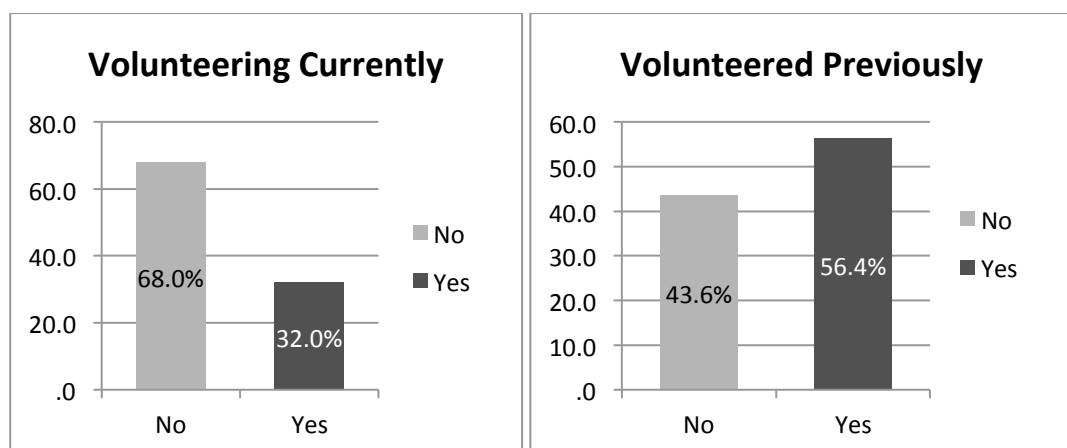


Figure 21: Proportion of candidates in Model 1 with volunteering experience

Finally, of the total who registered for the Level 2 award, 59.4% went on to complete the award.

10.3.2 Associations with Outcome Variable ‘Completed Level 2 Award’ (BLR analysis)

Logistic regression was performed on Model 1 to explore the variables which were likely predictors in determining the outcome of the dependent variable: ‘complete Level 2 award’. 10 variables were included in the analysis which can be seen in table 9, along with the breakdown of categories included in some of the variables.

The overall model fit was found to be statistically significant, χ^2 (29, N= 74,914) = 1818.02, $P < 0.005$, which indicates that the model is able to determine the difference between those candidates who did complete the Level 2 award compared to those who did not. A Hosmer-Lemeshow Goodness of Fit test did not provide support to the model fit, indicated by a low significance value ($P < 0.005$). However, this test of fit may not be suitable for this model, as in very large sample sizes (as is present in this model), small deviations from the model can result in significance for this test. With regards to variance, only 2% (Cox and Snell R Square) to 3% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variation in the outcome variable can be explained by the model and this set of variables. Additionally, there was only a 0.6% improvement in the prediction power of the model with the variables included, compared to the percentage accuracy in classification test with no variables entered for Block 0 in SPSS (59.4%).

Table 9: BLR analysis for outcome variable completing a Level 2 award (Model 1)

<i>Predictor(Independent) Variable</i>	β	<i>S.E.</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i>	<i>95% C.I. for Odds Ratio</i>	
						<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
CorrectAge	0.03	0.00	212.33	0.000*	1.03	1.03	1.04
Gender (Male)	-0.11	0.02	49.82	0.000*	0.90	0.87	0.92
Ethnicity (White)			67.31	0.000*			
1 = Bangladeshi	-0.14	0.10	1.86	0.173	0.87	0.71	1.06
2 = Black – African	-0.25	0.06	15.58	0.000*	0.78	0.69	0.88
3 = Black – Caribbean	-0.08	0.06	2.09	0.148	0.92	0.83	1.03
4 = Chinese	0.02	0.13	0.02	0.898	1.02	0.78	1.32
5 = Black other	-0.18	0.09	4.51	0.034*	0.83	0.71	0.99
6 = Indian	-0.20	0.06	11.20	0.001*	0.82	0.72	0.92
7 = Pakistani	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.946	1.00	0.86	1.15
8 = Other	-0.29	0.05	39.99	0.000*	0.75	0.69	0.82
Disability (Y)	-0.28	0.12	5.35	0.021*	0.76	0.60	0.96
Occupation (full-time education)			45.38	0.000*			
1 = In part-time education	-0.08	0.07	1.31	0.253	0.92	0.79	1.06
2 = Employed FT (or self employed)	-0.17	0.05	11.05	0.001*	0.85	0.77	0.93
3 = Employed PT (or self employed)	-0.33	0.06	32.22	0.000*	0.72	0.64	0.81
4 = Unemployed	-0.20	0.05	13.25	0.000*	0.82	0.74	0.91
5 = Other	-0.04	0.07	0.27	0.604	0.97	0.85	1.10
Volunteering Currently (Y)	0.21	0.02	114.91	0.000*	1.23	1.18	1.28
Volunteered Previously (Y)	0.06	0.02	10.68	0.001*	1.06	1.02	1.10
CentreType (School)			1061.16	0.000*			
1 = FE College	0.50	0.02	864.01	0.000*	1.65	1.60	1.71
2 = University /HE	-0.10	0.13	0.69	0.406	0.90	0.70	1.15
3 = Local Education Authority	0.46	0.05	94.47	0.000*	1.58	1.44	1.73
4 = Prison Service	0.86	0.06	204.04	0.000*	2.35	2.09	2.65
5 = Youth Service	0.75	0.14	27.74	0.000*	2.12	1.60	2.80
6 = Voluntary Youth Organisation	-0.06	0.06	0.77	0.380	0.94	0.83	1.07
7 = Outdoor Education Centre	-0.39	0.13	9.32	0.002*	0.68	0.53	0.87
8 = Local Authority	0.15	0.04	11.74	0.001*	1.17	1.07	1.27
9 = Other	0.32	0.04	62.13	0.000*	1.37	1.27	1.49
Townsend	0.00	0.00	0.56	0.455	1.00	1.00	1.01
UrbanRuralTotal (Urban)	0.01	0.02	0.57	0.450	1.01	0.98	1.05

Reference category in brackets

*Significant predictor variables at $p < 0.05$

Overall, the variable which indicated it was the strongest predictor of a candidate completing a Level 2 award was ‘prison service centre type’ (OR=2.35, 95% C.I. = 2.09-2.65, $P=0.000$). This finding suggests that those candidates who undertook a Level 2 award organised through the Prison Service, were 2.35 times more likely to complete compared to those who accessed a course through school (reference category). Similarly, attending a course through the Youth Service indicated that a candidate is 2.12 times more likely to complete a Level 2 award than through a school (OR= 2.12, 95% C.I. = 1.60-2.80, $P=0.000$). The findings also suggest that those candidates with a disability are less likely to complete the level 2 award compared to those candidates without a disability (OR=0.76, 95% C.I.=0.60-0.96, $P=0.021$). Other significant predictor variables included ‘volunteering currently’, gender and ethnicity.

Identifying independent variables which are not significant predictors of the outcome are also useful in observing factors which are not likely to affect whether candidates complete an award or not. As can be seen from Table 9 above, where a candidate lives (urban / rural classification) and level of socio-economic status (Townsend score) did not appear to be associated with completion of the Level 2 award.

10.4 Model 2 – Complete Level 3 Award

10.4.1 Frequency Data

Model 2 aimed to explore associations between the socio-demographic factors and whether candidates completed the Level 3 award or not. The sample consisted of those candidates who registered for a Level 3 award ($n=1530$). This model was an exceptional model as it contained candidates who had previously completed a Level 2 award ($n=265$) and candidates who achieved direct entry onto the Level 3 award ($n=1265$).

The sample consisted of a higher proportion of males, representing 65.4% of the total. There was less variation in the age of candidates included in Model 2 and candidates were on the whole younger than in the previous model with an average age of 18.8 years (SD=1.61) (see Figure 22).

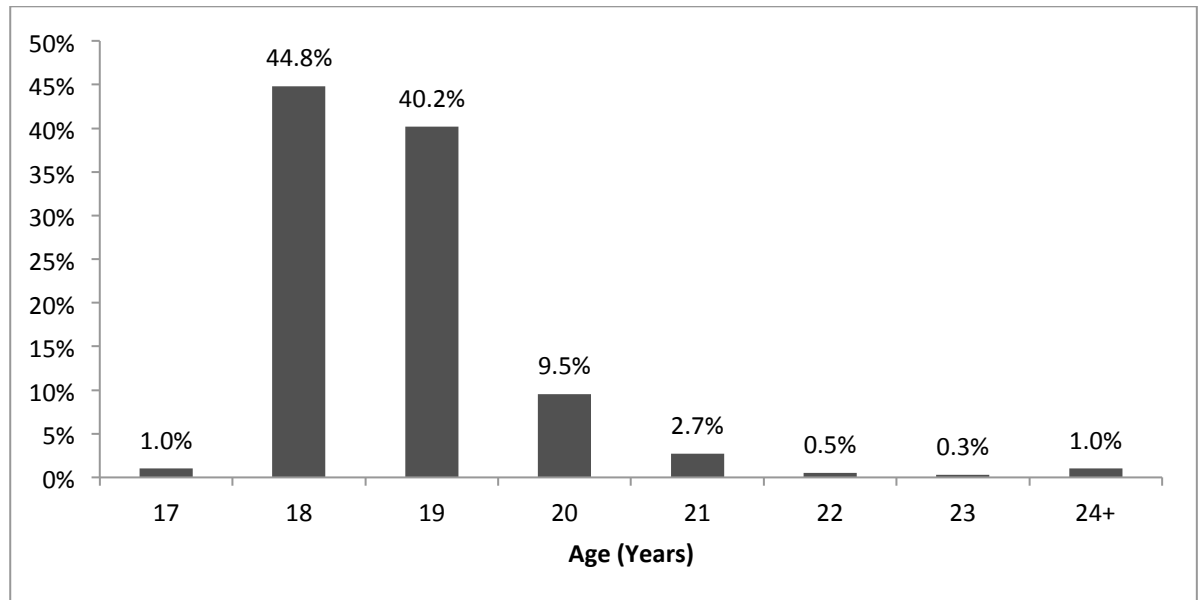


Figure 22: Distribution of ages for male and female sports leaders in the sample for Model 2 – completion of Level 3 award (n=1530)

With regards to ethnicity, ‘white’ category accounted for 94.8% of the sample which was higher than in Model 1. 99.5% reported no disability and ‘full-time education’ was the highest reported occupation type which was also higher for this model compared to Model 1 (see Figure 23).

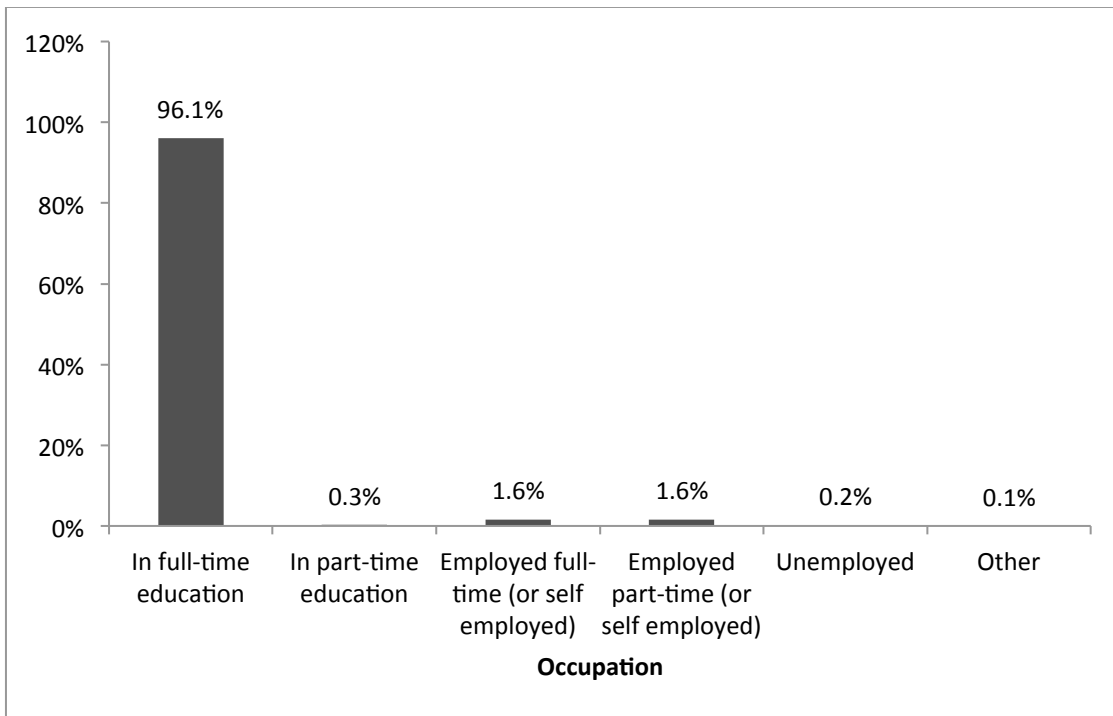


Figure 23: Occupation of candidates registering for a Level 3 award (Model 2)

With regards to ‘centre type’ for Model 2, responses differed compared to the previous model, with ‘FE college’ representing the largest proportion with 61.7% of candidates undertaking a Level 3 course here, followed by ‘school’ with 31.8% of candidates, as seen in Figure 24.

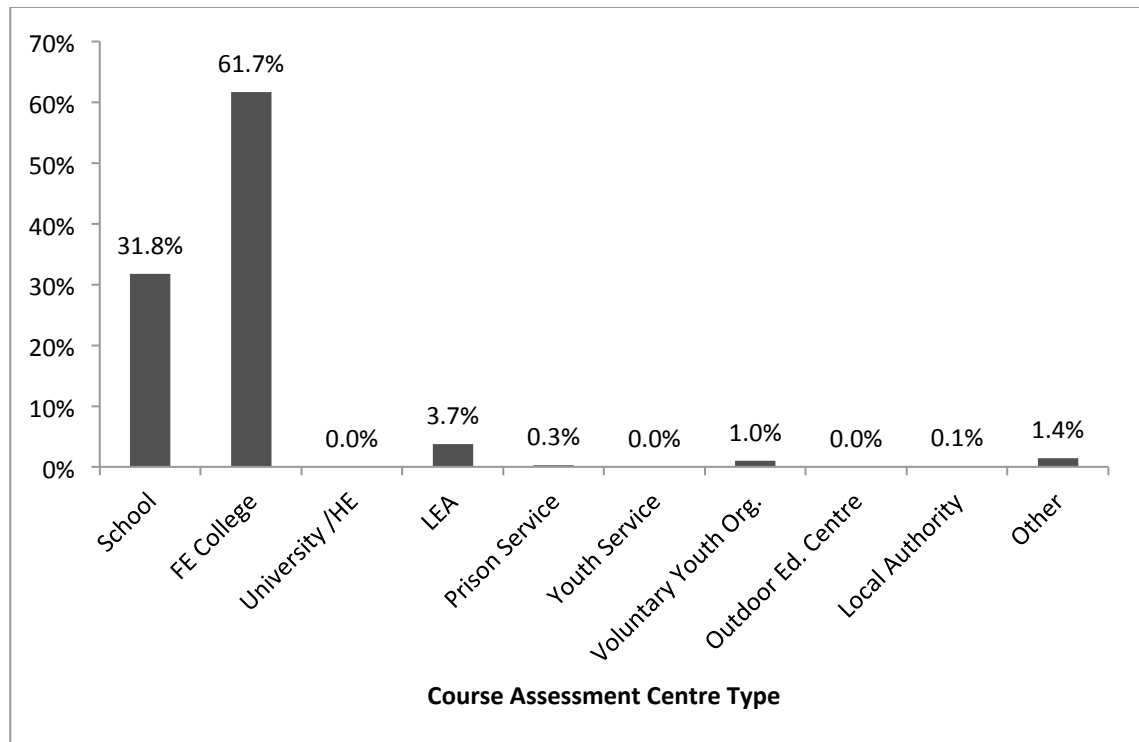


Figure 24: Assessment Centre Type for candidates registering for a Level 3 award (Model 2)

A higher proportion (78.1%) of candidates registering for a Level 3 award were from an urban area, and a far greater number of candidates stated that they had volunteered previously and currently compared to Model 1 (Figure 25).

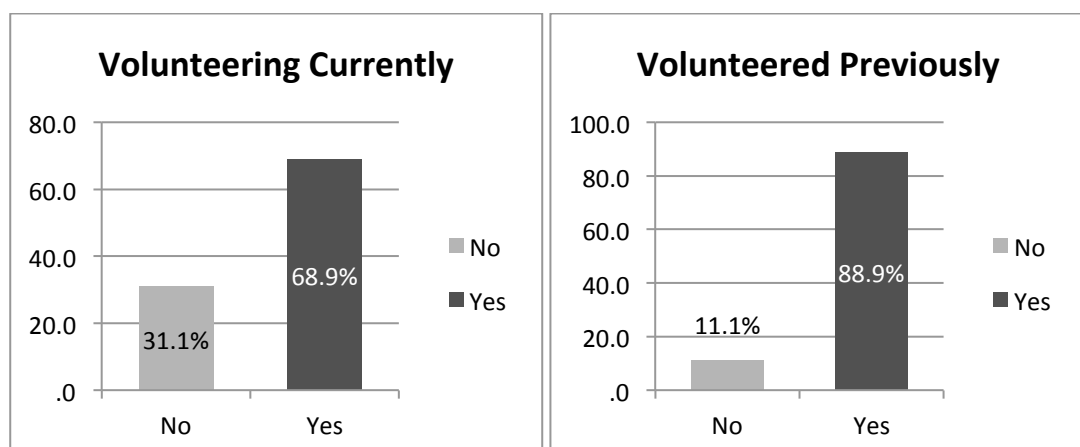


Figure 25: Proportion of candidates in Model 2 with volunteering experience

Finally, of the total who registered for the Level 3 award, 62.1% went on to complete the award (n=950).

10.4.2 Associations with Outcome Variable ‘Complete Level 3 Award (BLR analysis)’

Logistic regression was performed on Model 2 to explore the variables which were likely predictors in determining whether candidates completed the Level 3 award or not. 10 variables were included in the analysis which can be seen in Table 10, along with the breakdown of categories included in some of the variables.

Table 10: BLR analysis for outcome variable of completing a Level 3 award (Model 2)

<i>Predictor(Independent) Variable</i>	β	S.E.	<i>Wald</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i>	<i>95% C.I. for Odds Ratio</i>	
						<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
CorrectAge	0.08	0.05	2.90	.089	1.08	0.99	1.19
Gender (Male)	-0.12	0.12	1.13	.288	0.88	0.70	1.11
Ethnicity (White)			9.62	.293			
1 = Bangladeshi	-0.74	1.43	0.27	.604	0.48	0.03	7.85
2 = Black – African	-0.82	0.62	1.77	.183	0.44	0.13	1.47
3 = Black – Caribbean	-0.77	0.54	2.08	.149	0.46	0.16	1.32
4 = Chinese	-1.36	1.25	1.17	.279	0.26	0.02	3.00
5 = Black other	0.60	1.28	0.22	.641	1.81	0.15	22.27
6 = Indian	0.74	0.68	1.20	.273	2.11	0.56	7.98
7 = Pakistani	-1.84	1.17	2.48	.115	0.16	0.02	1.57
8 = Other	-0.31	0.42	0.54	.462	0.74	0.33	1.66
Disability (Y)	0.50	0.82	0.36	.547	1.64	0.33	8.27
Occupation (full-time education)			10.01	.075			
1 = In part-time education	-2.00	1.17	2.89	.089	0.14	0.01	1.36
2 = Employed FT (or self employed)	1.43	0.60	5.67	.017	4.17	1.29	13.50
3 = Employed PT (or self employed)	0.47	0.46	1.04	.307	1.61	0.65	3.98
4 = Unemployed	-1.14	1.50	0.58	.445	0.32	0.02	6.01
5 = Other	-21.21	28114.23	0.00	.999	0.00	0.00	0.00
Volunteering Currently (Y)	0.46	0.14	10.39	.001*	1.59	1.20	2.10
Volunteered Previously (Y)	-0.53	0.22	6.01	.014*	0.59	0.38	0.90
CentreType (School)			56.79	.000*			
1 = FE College	0.47	0.12	15.84	.000*	1.61	1.27	2.03
3 = Local Education Authority	3.03	0.61	24.62	.000*	20.67	6.25	68.39
4 = Prison Service	-3.63	1.51	5.77	.016*	0.03	0.00	0.51
6 = Voluntary Youth Organisation	-2.14	0.78	7.52	.006*	0.12	0.03	0.54
8 = Local Authority	-0.27	1.60	0.03	.866	0.76	0.03	17.61
9 = Other	-1.31	0.54	5.84	.016*	0.27	0.09	0.78
Completed Level 2 (Y)	0.06	0.16	0.15	.699	1.06	0.78	1.45
Townsend	-0.02	0.02	0.57	.449	0.98	0.94	1.03
UrbanRuralTotal (Urban)	0.42	0.13	10.00	.002*	1.52	1.17	1.97

Reference category in brackets

Significant predictor variables at $p < 0.05^*$

The overall model fit was found to be statistically significant, χ^2 (27, N= 1530) = 120.69, $P < 0.005$, which indicates that the model is able to determine the difference between those candidates who did complete the Level 3 award compared to those who did not. A Hosmer-Lemeshow Goodness of Fit test provided support to the model fit, indicated by a high significance value ($P = 0.996$). With regards to variance, between 7.6% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 10.3% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variation in the outcome variable can be explained by the model. Additionally, there was only a 3.2% improvement in the prediction power of the model with the variables included in the model (65.3%), compared to the percentage accuracy in classification test with no variables entered for Block 0 in SPSS (62.1%).

Overall, there were fewer significant predictor variables identified by this model compared to Model 1. The independent variable which indicated it was the strongest predictor of a candidate completing a Level 3 award was ‘local education authority centre type’ (OR=20.67, 95% C.I. = 6.25-68.39, $P = 0.00$). This finding suggests that those candidates who undertook a Level 2 award organised through the LEA, were 20.67 times more likely to complete compared to those who accessed a course through school (reference category). However, due to the huge confidence interval, it is difficult to determine the true value of the odds ratio. Attending a course through a ‘Voluntary Youth Organisation’ indicated that a candidate was less likely to complete a Level 3 award compared to a course undertaken through a school times as indicated by an Odds Ratio of less than 1 (OR= 0.12, 95% C.I. = 0.03-0.54, $P = 0.006$). Similar to Model 1, this model also suggests that volunteering currently is likely to be associated with completion of a Level 3 award (OR=1.59, 95% C.I.=1.20-2.10, $P = 0.001$), however, a candidate who had volunteered previously was reported to be less likely to complete a Level 3 award compared to those who had (OR=0.59, 95% C.I.=0.38-0.90, $P = 0.014$).

Other significant predictor variables included ‘urban / rural classification’ and the centre types: ‘prison service’ and ‘FE College’.

Independent variables which were found to not be significant predictors of the outcome variable included: level of socio-economic status (Townsend score), gender and ethnicity, which suggests that these factors are not associated with whether a candidate completes a Level 3 award or not.

10.5 Model 3 – Register for Level 3 Award

10.5.1 Frequency Data

Model 3 aimed to explore associations between the socio-demographic factors and whether candidates who had completed the Level 2 award, then went on to register for the Level 3 award or not. The sample consisted of those candidates who completed a Level 2 award (n=44,476). The sample once again, consisted of a higher proportion of males, representing 58.7% of the total. Average age of the candidates in this model was similar to that observed in Model 1 (21.6 years; SD=5.09) (see Figure 26).

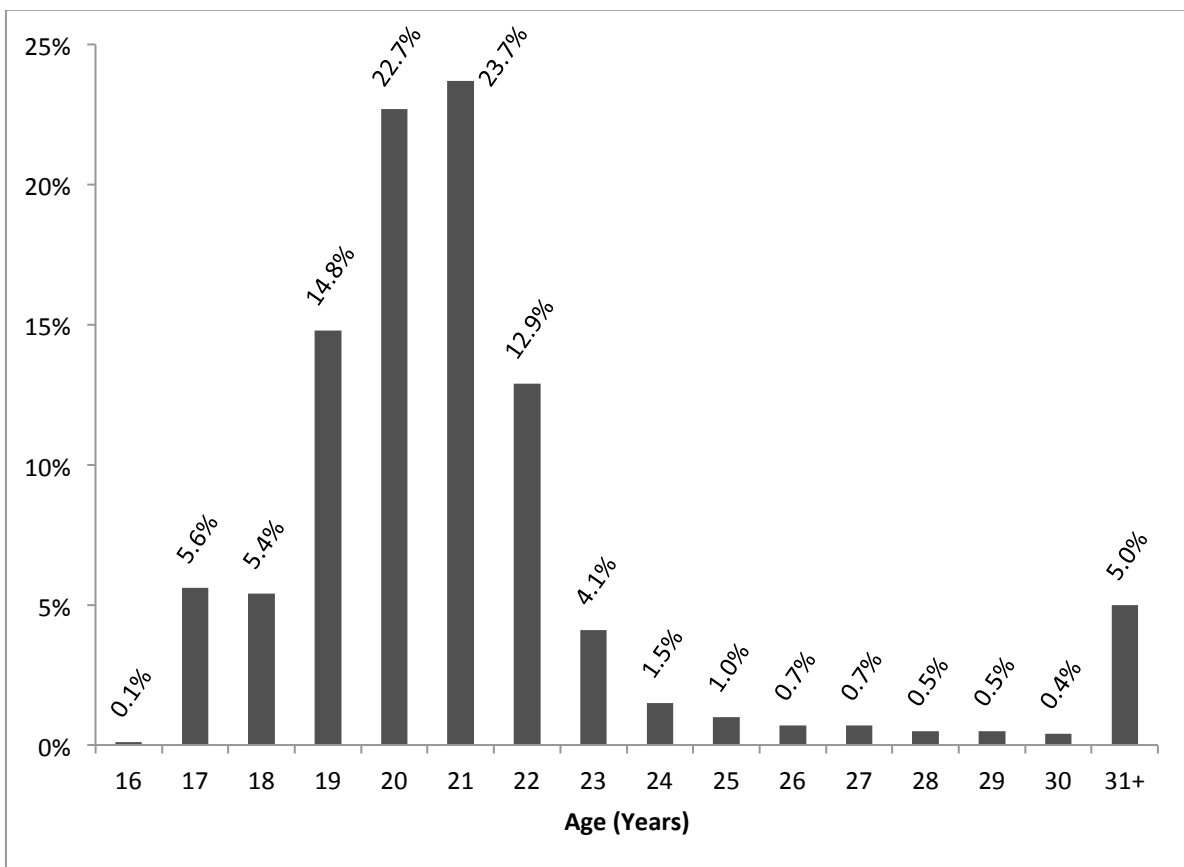


Figure 26: Distribution of ages for sports leaders in the sample for Model 3 – registration of Level 3 award (n=44,476)

With regards to ethnicity, ‘white’ category accounted for 90.0% of the sample with the second largest proportion represented by ‘other ethnicity’ which accounted for 2.5% of

the total sample. 99.6% reported no disability and once again, ‘full-time education’ was clearly the highest represented occupation type which was lower than seen in the previous two models (see Figure 27).

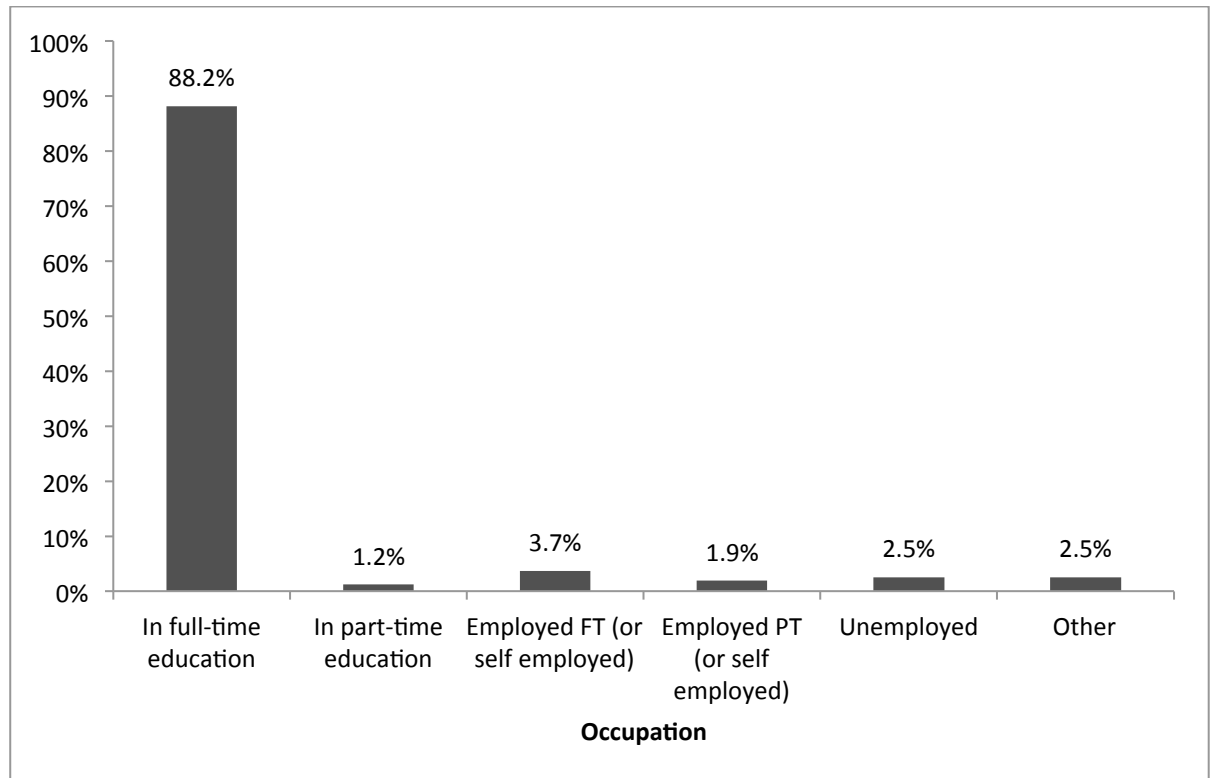


Figure 27: Occupation of candidates included in Model 3's sample

With regards to ‘centre type’ for Model 3, responses differed compared to the previous model, with ‘FE college’ representing the largest proportion with 42.4% of candidates undertaking a Level 3 course here, closely followed by ‘school’ with 40.2% of candidates, as seen in Figure 28.

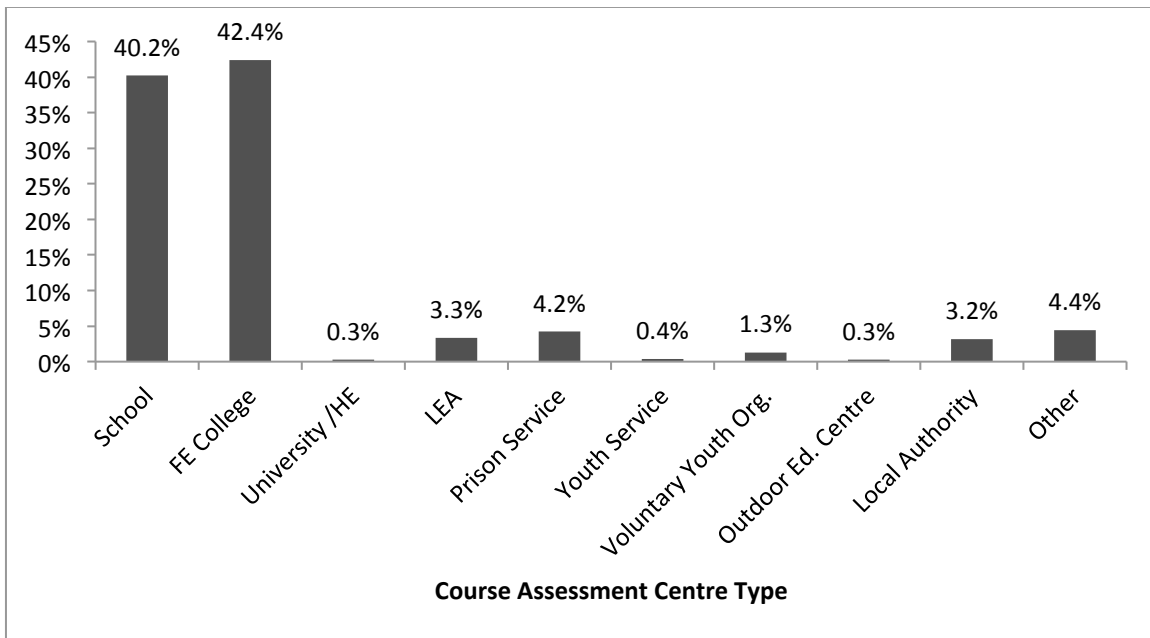


Figure 28: Assessment Centre Type for candidates completing a Level 2 award and registering for a Level 3 award (Model 3)

A higher proportion (75.4%) of candidates registering for a Level 3 award were from an urban area, and 33.4% of candidates stated that they currently volunteer and 57.3% stated they had volunteered previously which was similar to Model 1 (Figure 29).

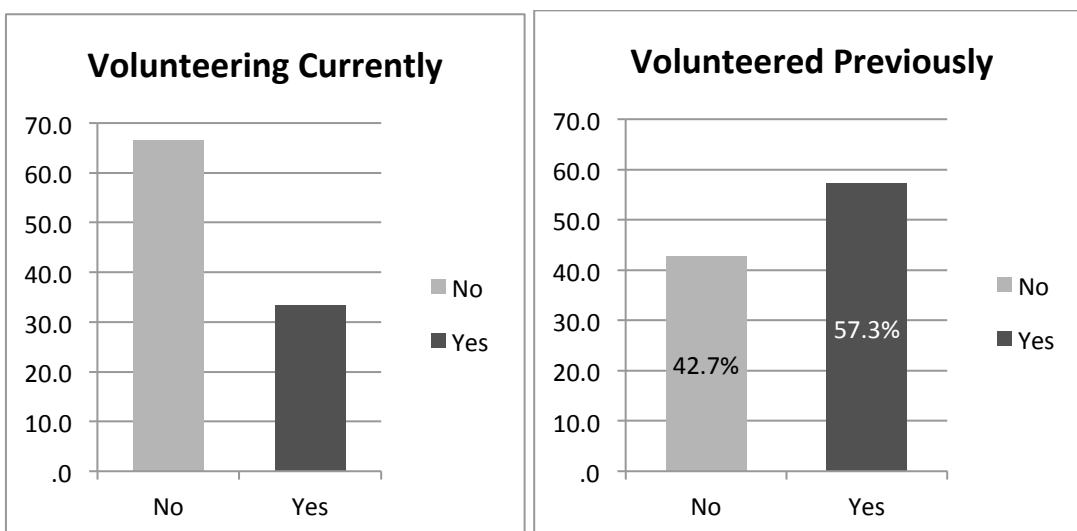


Figure 29: Proportion of candidates in Model 3 with volunteering experience

Finally, of the total who completed the Level 2 award, only 0.6% (n=265) went on to register for the Level 3 award.

10.5.2 Associations with Outcome Variable ‘Register for Level 3 Award’ (BLR analysis)

Logistic regression was performed on Model 3 to explore the variables which were likely predictors in determining whether candidates registered for the Level 3 award or not. 10 variables were included in the analysis which can be seen in Table 11, along with the breakdown of categories included in some of the variables.

Table 11: BLR analysis for outcome variable of registering for a Level 3 award (Model 3)

<i>Predictor(Independent)Variable</i>	β	<i>S.E.</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i>	<i>95.0% C.I. for Odds Ratio</i>	
						<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
CorrectAge	-.31	.04	71.08	.000*	.73	.68	.79
Gender (Male)	.51	.14	14.40	.000*	1.67	1.28	2.18
Ethnicity (White)			2.79	.947			
1 = Bangladeshi	-.48	1.03	.21	.643	.62	.08	4.67
2 = Black – African	-.17	.59	.09	.770	.84	.26	2.69
3 = Black – Caribbean	-.39	.59	.43	.511	.68	.21	2.16
4 = Chinese	-15.95	3257.15	.00	.996	.00	.00	
5 = Black other	-.73	1.01	.51	.473	.48	.07	3.51
6 = Indian	-.13	.59	.05	.829	.88	.28	2.78
7 = Pakistani	-1.08	1.01	1.15	.284	.34	.05	2.45
8 = Other	-.39	.51	.58	.446	.68	.25	1.84
Disability (Y)	-15.83	2856.09	.00	.996	.00	.00	
Occupation (full-time education)			40.76	.000*			
1 = In part-time education	-15.32	1527.15	.00	.992	.00	.00	
2 = Employed FT (or self employed)	1.91	.31	39.22	.000*	6.75	3.71	12.28
3 = Employed PT (or self employed)	.70	.52	1.86	.172	2.02	.74	5.54
4 = Unemployed	-.19	.74	.07	.798	.83	.19	3.54
5 = Other	.31	1.02	.09	.761	1.36	.19	10.03
Volunteering Currently (Y)	.99	.16	39.29	.000*	2.70	1.98	3.68
Volunteered Previously (Y)	.01	.17	.00	.969	1.01	.72	1.41
CentreType (School)			27.72	.001*			
1 = FE College	.34	.13	6.47	.011*	1.41	1.08	1.83
2 = University /HE	-14.31	3034.99	.00	.996	.00	.00	
3 = Local Education Authority	-1.36	.72	3.58	.058	.26	.06	1.05
4 = Prison Service	-14.13	774.76	.00	.985	.00	.00	
5 = Youth Service	-15.41	2828.91	.00	.996	.00	.00	
6 = Voluntary Youth Organisation	1.19	.36	10.89	.001*	3.30	1.62	6.69
7 = Outdoor Education Centre	-15.79	3471.87	.00	.996	.00	.00	
8 = Local Authority	-2.07	1.01	4.19	.041*	.13	.02	.91
9 = Other	-.44	.43	1.04	.307	.64	.27	1.50
Townsend	.01	.02	.36	.551	1.01	.97	1.06
UrbanRuralTotal (Urban)	.36	.16	5.02	.025*	1.43	1.05	1.95

Reference category in brackets

*Significant predictor variables at $p < 0.05$

The overall model fit was found to be statistically significant, χ^2 (29, N= 44,476) = 261.50, $P < 0.0005$, which indicates that the model is able to determine the difference between those candidates who did complete the Level 3 award compared to those who did not. A Hosmer-Lemeshow Goodness of Fit test did not provide support to the model fit, indicated by a low significance value ($P < 0.005$). However, as with Model 1, this test of fit may not be suitable for this model also, due to the large sample size. With regards to variance, between 0.6% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 8.3% (Nagelkerke R Square) of the variation in the outcome variable can be explained by the model. Additionally, there was no difference in the prediction power of the model with the variables included compared to the percentage accuracy in classification test with no variables entered for Block 0 in SPSS (99.4%).

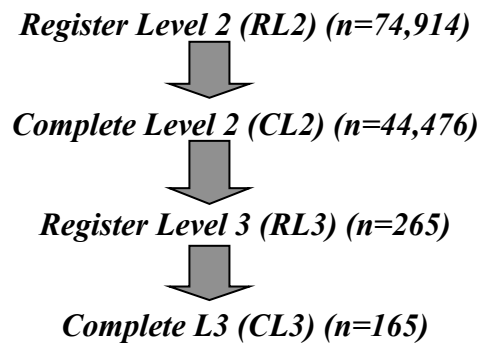
This third model produced a number of significant predictor variables which were associated with the outcome variable, registering for a Level 3 award. The variable which indicated it was the strongest predictor of a candidate registering for a Level 3 award was 'full-time employed' as the candidate's occupation which suggested that those candidates who were employed full-time were 6.75 times more likely to register for a Level 3 award having completed the Level 2, compared to those candidates who were in full-time education (OR=6.75, 95% C.I. = 3.71-12.28, $P=0.000$). However, with this result there is a fairly large confidence interval range which indicates that it is difficult to determine the true value of OR for this variable. 'Volunteering currently' was also identified as a significant predictor variable, suggesting that candidates who were currently volunteering were 2.70 times more likely to register for a Level 3 award compared to those who were not (OR= 2.70, 95% C.I. = 1.98-3.68, $P=0.000$). This finding was consistent with both Models 1 and 2. Candidates from an urban area were slightly more likely to register for a Level 3 award compared to those from a rural area (OR= 1.43, 95% C.I. = 1.05-1.95, $P=0.025$) Other significant predictor variables

included ‘age’, ‘gender’ and the centre types: ‘voluntary youth service’ and ‘Local Authority’.

Independent variables which were found to not be significant predictors of the outcome variable included: level of socio-economic status (Townsend score) and ethnicity, which suggests that these factors are not associated with whether a candidate registers for a Level 3 award or not following completion of a Level 2 award.

10.6 Model 4 – Completion of Level 2 and Level 3 awards

Model 4 aimed to explore patterns in the socio-demographic data of candidates who progress right through the leadership pathway as shown:



Due to the small number of candidates who actually progressed through the entire pathway (n=165) it was difficult to undertake BLR analysis on the data. Therefore, it was decided that only descriptive analysis be conducted to examine differences in socio-demographic factors of the candidates as they progress through the different stages of the leadership pathway. This section will examine the data at each stage in the pathway, and compare how the samples differ, in an attempt to identify bias in the samples and which variables are more likely to be associated with the outcome variable at stage.

10.6.1 Gender, Age, Disability and Ethnicity

As candidates progressed through the pathway, the proportion of males and females in the relative samples differed quite extensively, as shown in Figure 30.

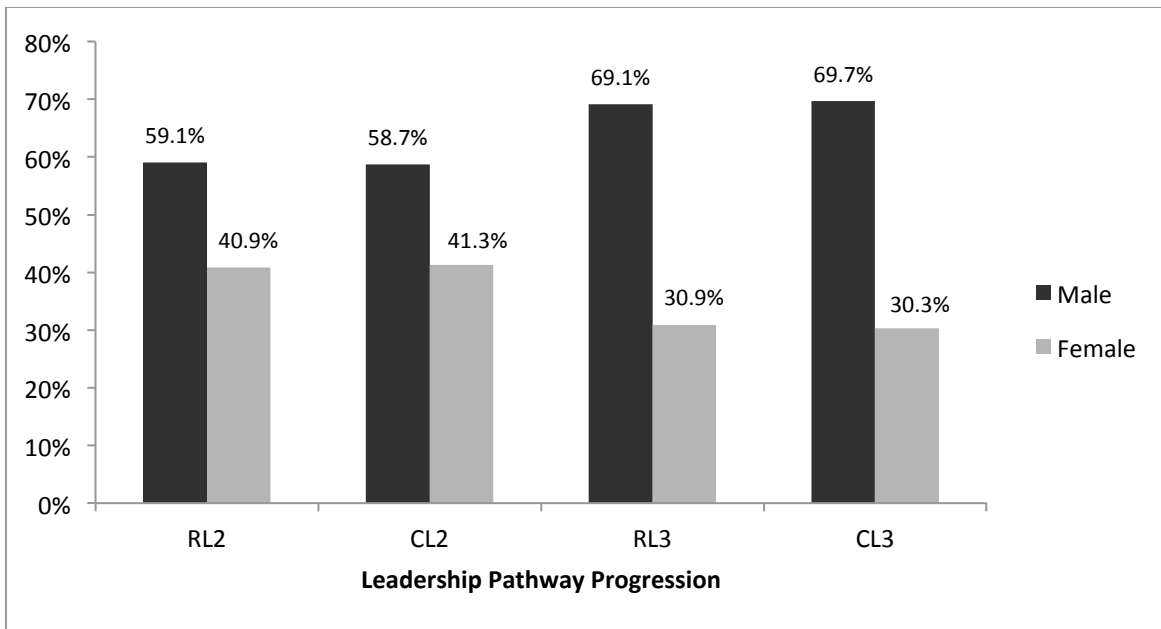


Figure 30: Proportion of male and female candidates at the various stages of the spots leadership pathway

Examining Figure 30, it can clearly be seen that more males engage with or complete the SLUK awards generally across each stage of the pathway. Also, the proportion of males increases with engagement and completion of the Level 3 award, with 39.4% more males completing the level 3 award compared to females. The proportion of each sex does not differ greatly between the register for and completion stages of each award however. For example, there is 40.9% of the sample who are female registering for the Level 2 award, and this proportion increases to 41.3% at completion of the Level 2; an increase of only 0.4%.

With regards to the average age of candidates at each stage of the leadership pathway, there is not a huge difference evident, particularly from registration to completion of the awards. However, the average age from level 2 completion to Level 3 registration does decrease by 2.1 years, from 21.6 years to 19.5 years. There is no change in the average age from Level 3 registration to Level 3 completion (Figure 31).

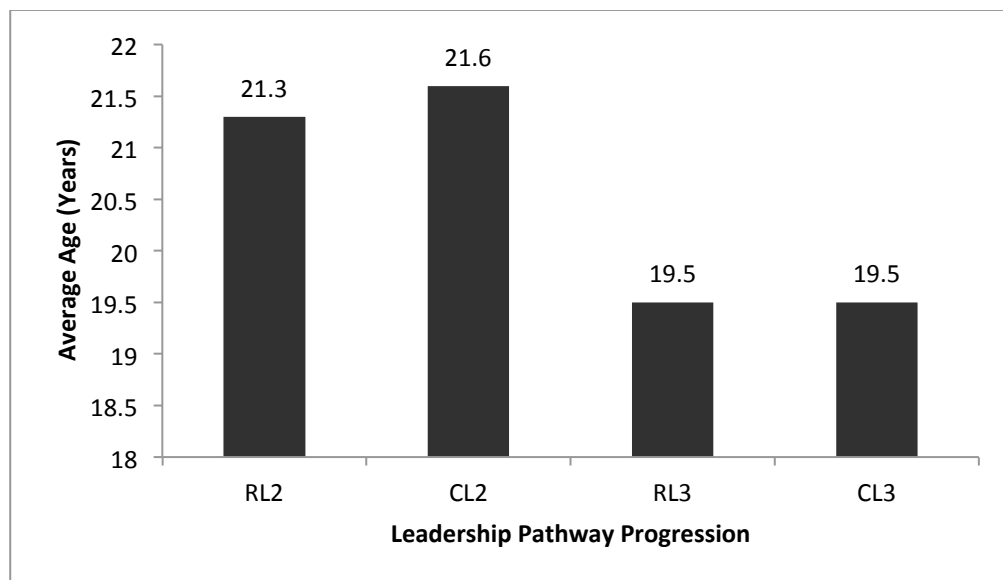


Figure 31: Average age of candidates at each stage in the sports leadership pathway

There was very little change in the proportion of candidates with a disability across each stage of the leadership pathway. 99.6% of candidates reported no disability at registration and completion of Level 2, compared to 100% reporting no disability at Level 3.

Similarly, there was no great change in the ethnicity of candidates in each stage, as illustrated in Figure 32. White ethnicity accounted for such a large proportion of the sample in all stages, and increased by 5.7% from Level 2 registration (89.5%) to level 3 completion (95.2%). Black Caribbean represented the second largest proportion of candidates, particularly at Level 2 registration and completion.

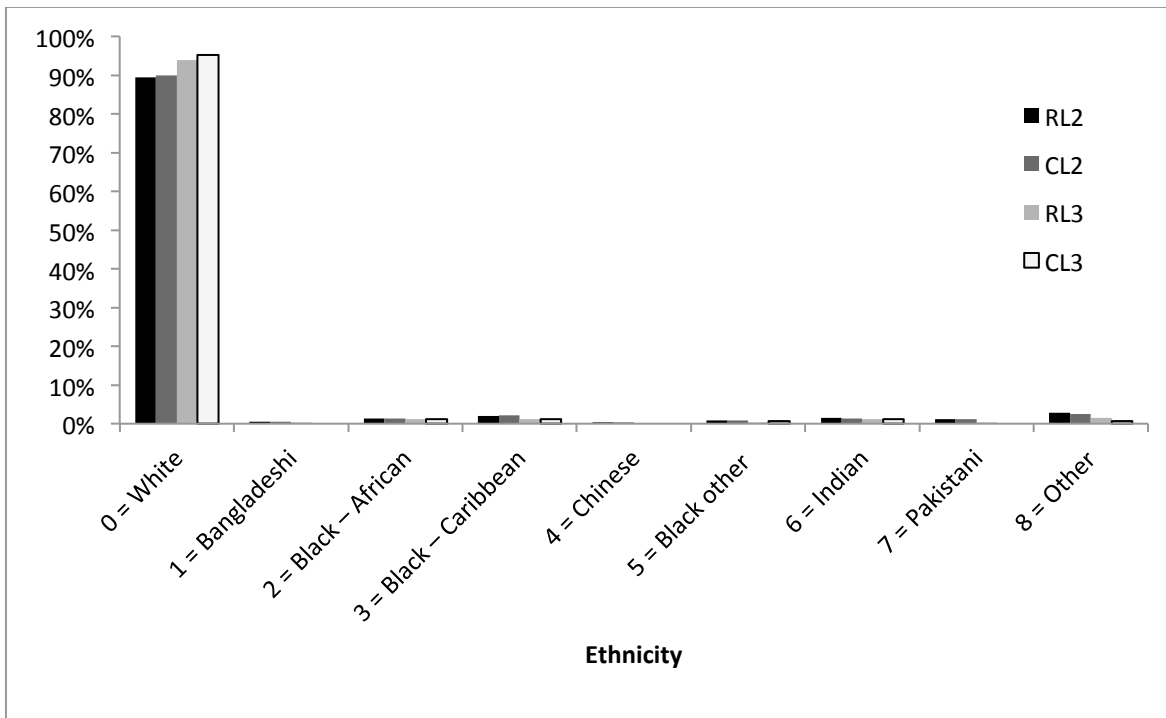


Figure 32: Ethnicity of candidates at each stage of the sports leadership pathway

10.6.2 Occupation and Course Centre Type

The occupation of candidates registering for or completing a Level 2 or 3 award, did show some slight differences across the leadership pathway (see Figure 33). Registering for a Level 3 award showed the highest proportion of candidates who were in full-time education (92.5%) whilst only 88.2% of candidates completing a Level 2 award were reported as having that same occupation. Full-time employed also showed some differences across the pathway, with the highest proportion of candidates recorded as being full-time employed were those who completed the Level 3 award (7.3%).



Figure 33: Occupation of candidates at each stage of the sports leadership pathway

With regards to the course assessment centre type (i.e. where the course was delivered), some differences were noted, as can be seen in Figure 34.

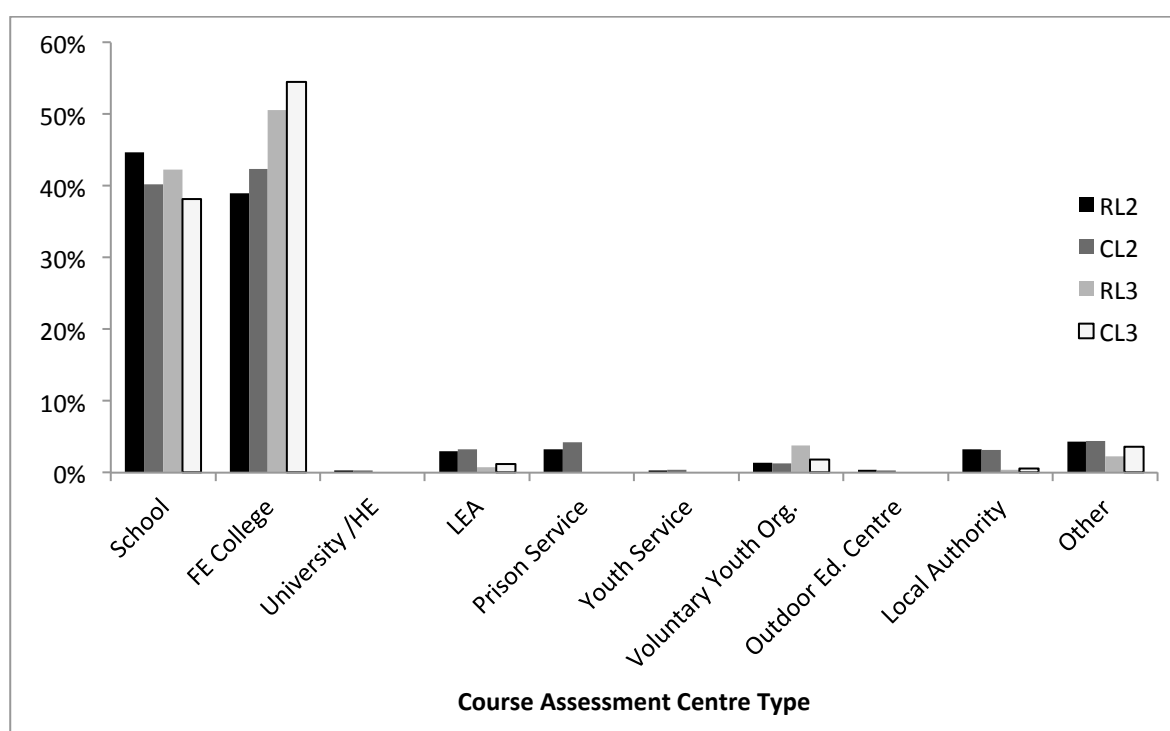


Figure 34: Course assessment centre type at each stage of the sports leadership pathway

Firstly, Local Education Authorities appeared to have a higher proportion of Level 2 than Level 3 awards with 3.3% of candidates completing a Level 2 award through this type of assessment centre, compared to only 1.2% of candidates completing a Level 3 award through an LEA. The highest proportion of candidates completing a Level 3 award did so through an FE college (54.5%), compared to only 39.0% registering for a Level 2 award through an FE college. The youth service, prison service and University/HE centres did not appear deliver a Level 3 award, as illustrated by 0% registration and completion of the Level 3 award.

10.6.3 Volunteering Experience and Urban Rural Classification

Finally, volunteering experience and urban/rural classification was examined across the different stages of the leadership pathway. With regards to volunteering experience, the first observation concerns the fact that across each of the four stages, more candidates were reported to have previously volunteered compared to currently volunteering (see Figure 35). A greater proportion of candidates were currently volunteering for both Level 3 registration and completion (56.2% and 51.5% respectively) compared to the Level 2 award. It appears that there is a slight drop off in the proportion of candidates currently volunteering from Level 3 registration to Level 3 completion. Interestingly, there is also a decrease in the proportion of candidates who report having previously volunteered from Level 3 registration to completion (70.6% to 63.0%).

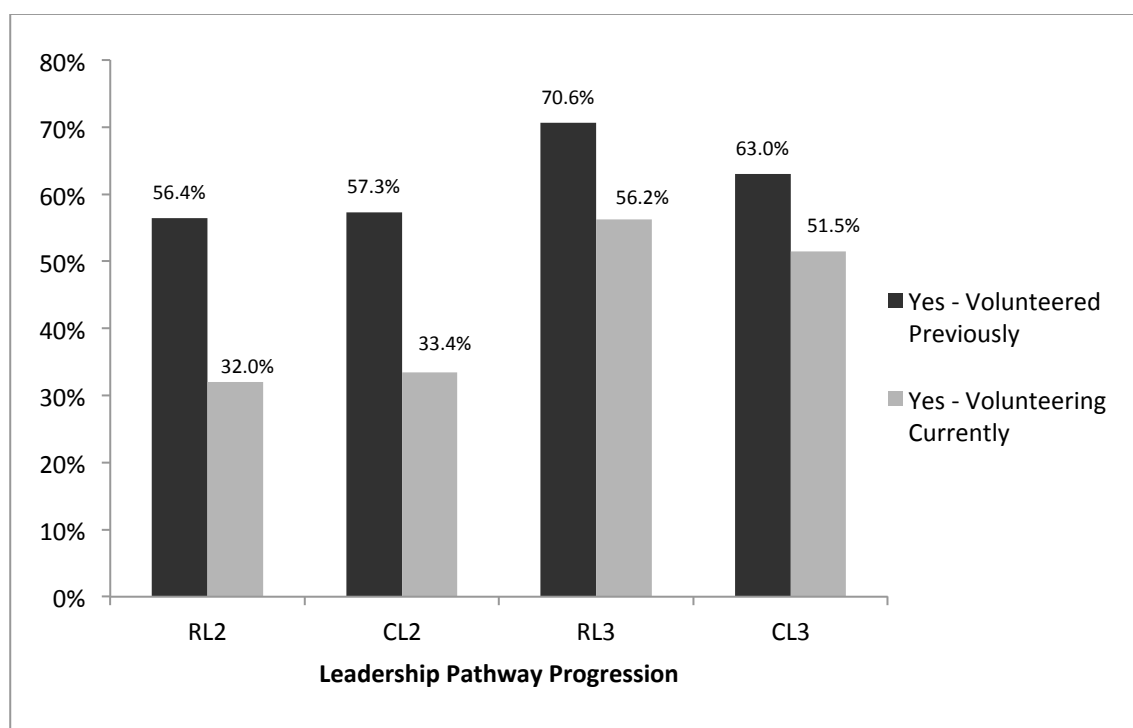


Figure 35: Volunteering experience of candidates at each stage of the sports leadership pathway

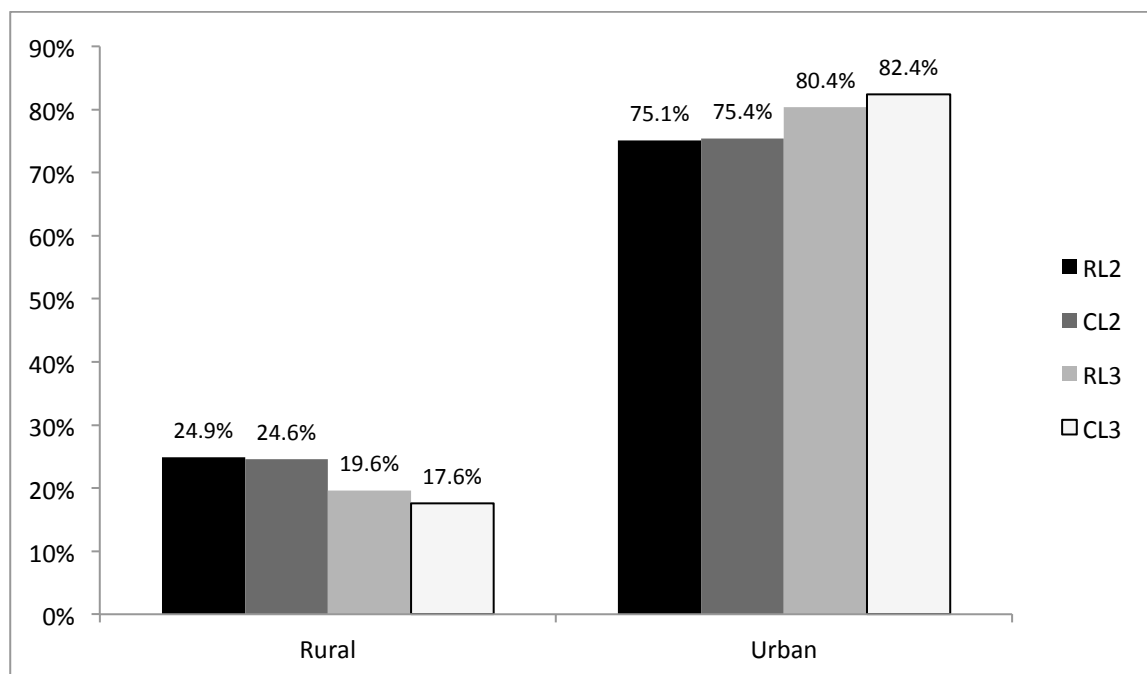


Figure 36: Urban/rural classification of candidates at each stage in the sports leadership pathway

Finally, Figure 36 provides an illustration of the urban or rural classification assigned to each candidate according to their postal code. As can clearly be seen, there is a steady decline in the proportion of people from a rural location as the leadership pathway progresses, with 24.9% of candidates registering for a Level 2 award coming from a rural area, compared to only 17.6% of candidates completing the Level 3 award coming from a rural geographical area.

10.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the results from the descriptive and BLR analyses conducted on the quantitative phase 1. In addition to analyses of the dataset as a whole, results of the 4 different outcome models have been provided, which explored some of the associations present in the data. Key findings from this research phase suggest that the location of the award (i.e. centre type) is associated with award completion likelihood. Of particular note was the fact that leaders who undertook a Level 2 award via the Local Education Authority, the prison service or the local authority, who were all more likely to complete the award compared to those undertaking the award in school. A more in depth discussion of the findings presented in this chapter can be found in Chapter 13. Attention now turns to the findings from the second quantitative component of the research; the sports leadership survey.

Chapter 11

Study 2: Survey - Results

11.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative results from the survey conducted at phase 2 of the project. The findings from the phase address research question 2 as illustrated in table 12 below.

Table 12: The research questions and their corresponding research phases

Research Question	Research Phase
<i>RQ1. What socio-demographic factors are associated with whether candidates register for, engage with or complete a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award?</i>	Phase 1 (Quantitative) – Database
<i>RQ2. What perceived impact does engaging with a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award have on the personal and career development of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 2 (Quantitative) – Survey Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Interviews
<i>RQ3. What perceived impact does sports leadership have on the development of sport and the wider community from the perspective of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Interviews

As explained in the chapter 7, the response rate received from the survey was poor despite sending follow up emails to the 3028 sports leaders on SLUK awards database. The survey was sent to all candidates registered to undertake a Level 3 award during the period between the 1st January 2007 and the 31st December 2009. A total of 76 candidates started the survey online via ‘Survey Monkey’, but only 70 completed it, which represented a response rate of only 2.3%. The following section present the findings from the survey conducted. The full survey with questions asked can be found in Appendix C.

11.1 Participant Demographics

The first section of the survey asked participants about their personal details including age, gender, ethnicity and any disabilities. All candidates who started the survey completed these socio-demographic details.

**Table 13: Age, gender, ethnicity and disability information of survey respondents
(*n* = 76)**

Age (yrs)	Gender	Ethnicity	Disability
Average = 20.9	Male = 47.4%	White = 91%	Yes = 2.6%
SD = 6.29	Female = 52.6%	Black = 3.9%	No = 97.4%
Youngest = 17		Asian = 2.6%	
Oldest = 62		Other = 1.3%	

The results in Table 13 illustrate a fairly even split between males and females pursuing a sports leadership award, with 52.6% being male. The average age of those pursuing a level 3 award is 20.9 years, however, this was their age as of March 2010, not necessarily their age at the time of undertaking the sports leaders award. Figure 37 illustrates that those pursuing an SLUK Level 3 qualification are young people aged 17-20yrs, representing 75% of the total, followed by the 21-25 year age group, with 14.5% of the sample. There is a strong bias towards people from white ethnic groups, with only a small proportion of respondents stating that they are registered disabled, as seen in Table 13.

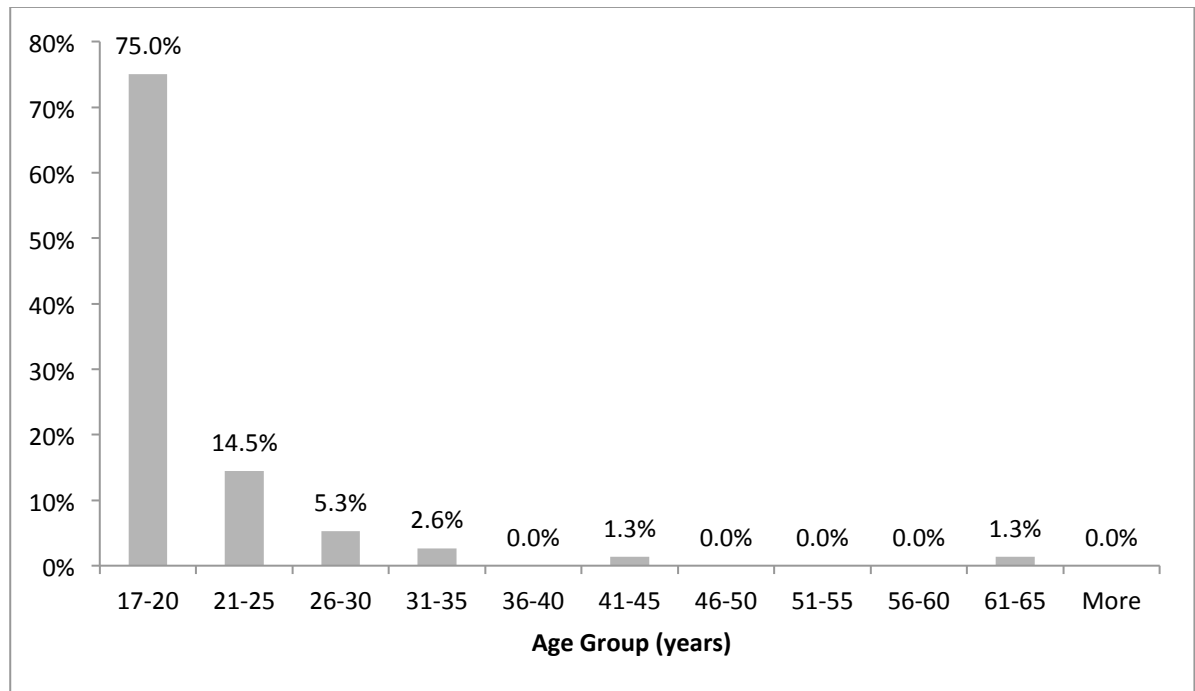


Figure 37: Age category distribution of survey respondents ($n = 76$)

To examine relative locations of candidates completing the survey, respondents were asked to input their postal code. Figure 38 overleaf illustrates the spread of respondents according to the first part of their postcode. Whilst there is a reasonable spread across England, there are no respondents from either Scotland or Northern Ireland and only two from Wales. However, it is unknown whether this is representative of the total population sampled without plotting all 3028 leaders included in the sample.

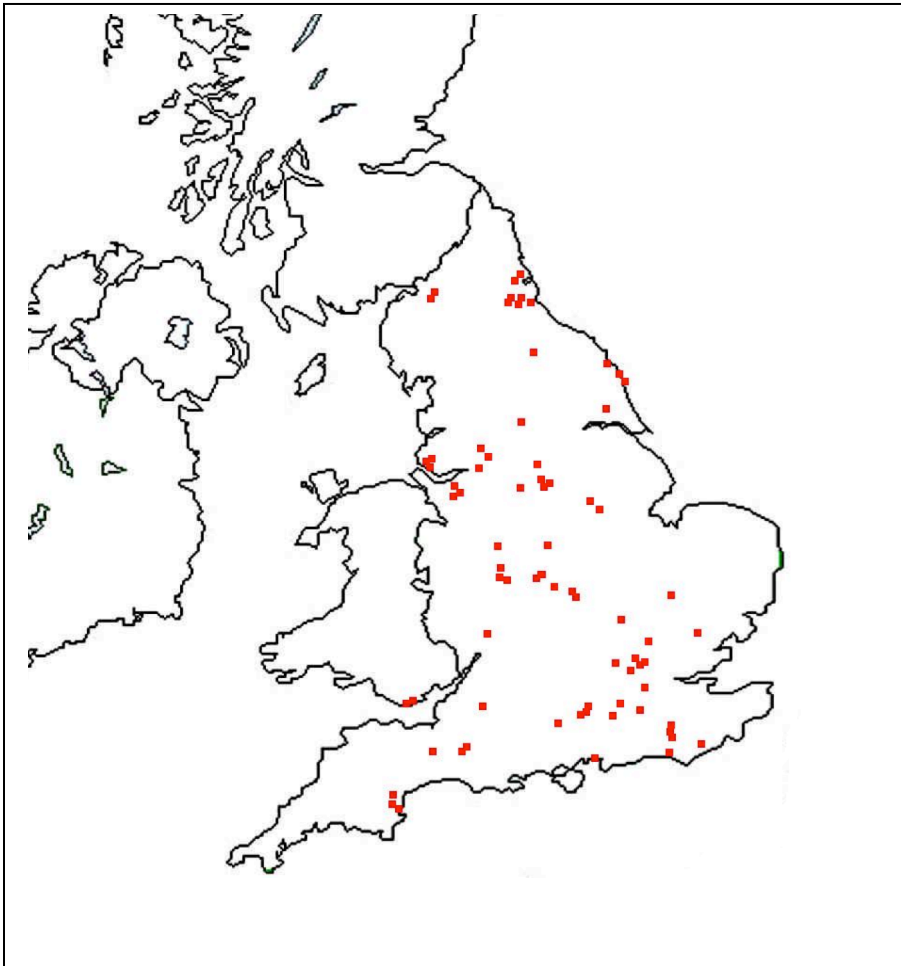


Figure 38: Geographic spread of survey respondents according to postal code prefix

11.2 Education and Occupational Background (Questions 7-11)

The second part of the survey aimed to gather information about the participants' education and career history. Figure 39 below provides a graphical representation of participants' current occupations. Of the total number of responses, 46.7% were in Higher Education at the time the survey was conducted. Working as an employee was the second largest category with 20.3% of participants choosing this category to best describe their main occupation. Being in education (school, FE and HE) accounted for 77.0% of the respondents answers. This coincides with the age of respondents completing the survey typically being 17 – 20 years old.

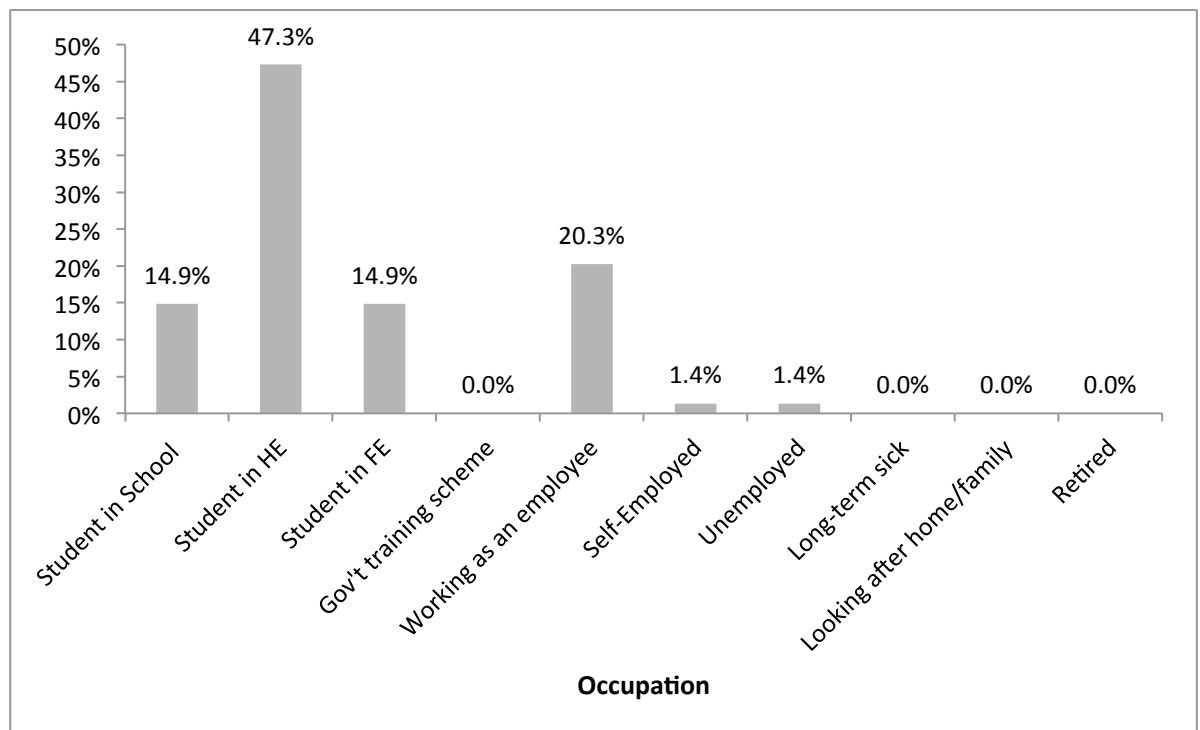


Figure 39: Survey respondents' current occupation ($n = 74$)

Participants were asked whether their main occupation involved coaching, leading or coordinating and sport and physical activities. Figure 40 illustrate the responses.

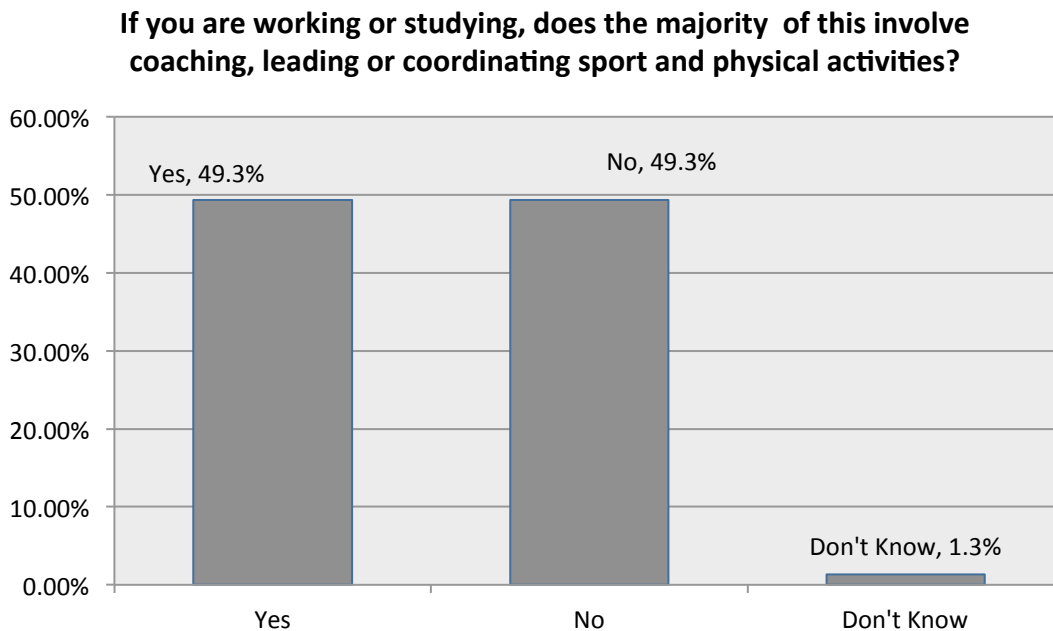


Figure 40: Number of respondents whose work involves sport and physical activity ($n = 74$)

Figure 40 above shows that there is an even split between those leaders undertaking the Level 3 award who are actively involved in working in sport and physical activity from an occupational or educational perspective and those who are not. However, it is unclear from this chart how many are involved in sport or physical activity in a part-time capacity or voluntary role in the community, as this question concerns their ‘main’ occupation only.

Next, participants were asked about their education history. The results as shown in figure 41 indicate that all leaders who completed the survey have some kind of educational qualifications ($n = 75$). The majority have Further Education qualifications (such as A Levels or BTEC) represented by 46.7% of the respondents, which corresponds with the largest age group of respondents being 17-20 years and the majority currently in Higher Education. It is unknown, however, how many of these

leaders are continuing with their education at University or other qualifications following this survey.

Participants were also asked about whether they had undertaken a sport specific qualification during their educational history, such as GCSE PE, A Level PE or a Sports Degree. Of the total respondents for this question ($n = 74$), 89.2% said they had, 10.8% had not. The 89.2% of respondents who had answered 'Yes' to undertaking a specific sport qualification, were also asked to specify which qualifications in particular they had completed, as shown in figure 42 below.

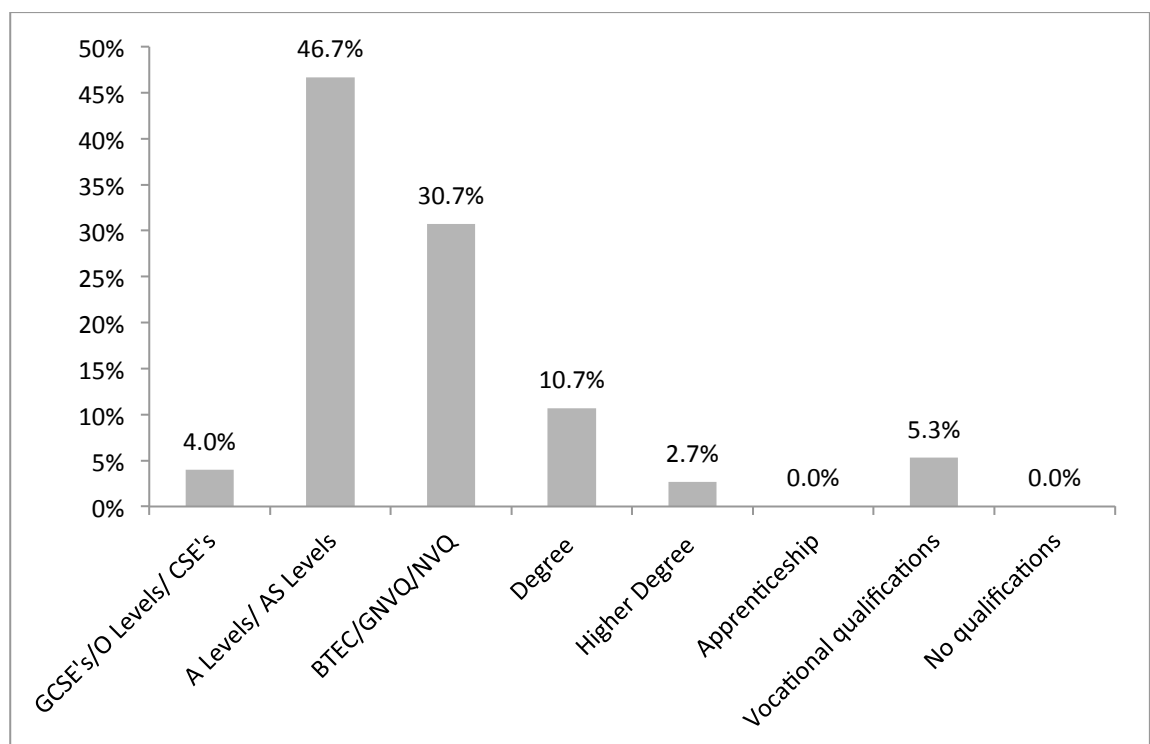


Figure 41: Participants' highest level of educational achievement at time of survey completion ($n = 75$)

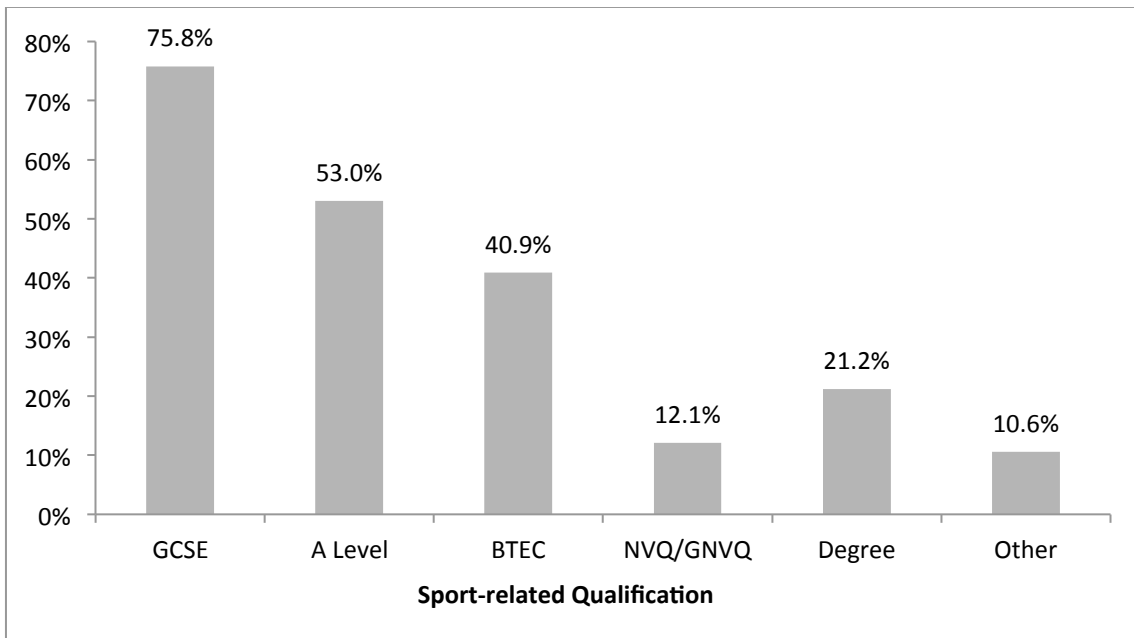


Figure 42: Sport specific qualifications undertaken by respondents ($n = 66$)

Figure 42 illustrates that the majority of respondents have obtained a GCSE in a sports related subject, such as Physical Education (75.8%). Respondents were able to indicate more than one answer for this question, hence the reason that the percentages total more than 100%. It was also found that 53.0% have an A Level and 40.9% have a BTEC in a sport related subject. ‘Other’ responses accounted for 10.6%, with most of these responses stating completion of SLUK awards. The results indicate a fairly low response rate for sport related degrees, which again could be a reflection of the typical age of participants undertaking the Level 3 and completing the survey. For a complete list of ‘other’ answers provided by the respondents for particular survey questions, please see Appendix I.

11.3 Previous Sports Leaders UK Qualifications (Questions 12 – 20)

Section 3 attempted to gather information regarding the participants' experience of undertaking Sports Leaders UK qualifications, to examine whether they followed the leadership pathway through the range of awards available. Completion rates were indicated by respondents as illustrated in Table 14.

	Yes	No	Don't Know
Level 1 Sport(JSL)	66.2%	32.4%	1.4%
Level 1 Dance	4.1%	95.9%	0.0%
Level 2 Sport (CSL)	93.2%	5.4%	1.4%
Level 3 Sport (HSL)	74.3%	17.6%	8.1%

Table 14: Responses of whether participants had completed the various Sports Leaders UK awards ($n = 74$)

These findings show a high completion rate for each of the SLUK awards at Level 1, 2 and 3. 93.2% of respondents had completed the Level 2 Sport award, which is also a prerequisite to register for the Level 3. There were a number of '*don't know*' responses also given for these questions, at which point respondents were asked to give an explanation. One respondent had completed the old Level 1 CSL, before the course was updated and altered to ensure it was a Level 2 qualification in 2007. Respondents indicating a '*don't know*' answer in response to whether they had completed the Level 3 or not (8.1%), all explained that they had not completed the award yet but were in the process of doing so. (For a complete list of explanations provided by the respondents for particular survey questions, please see Appendix I)

Participants were asked why they have not yet completed the Level 3 award, as the survey was sent to all candidates registered for the award. 13 respondents indicated that they had not completed the Level 3 award and so answered the following three questions. Firstly, the participants' current level of engagement with the Level 3 award was assessed.

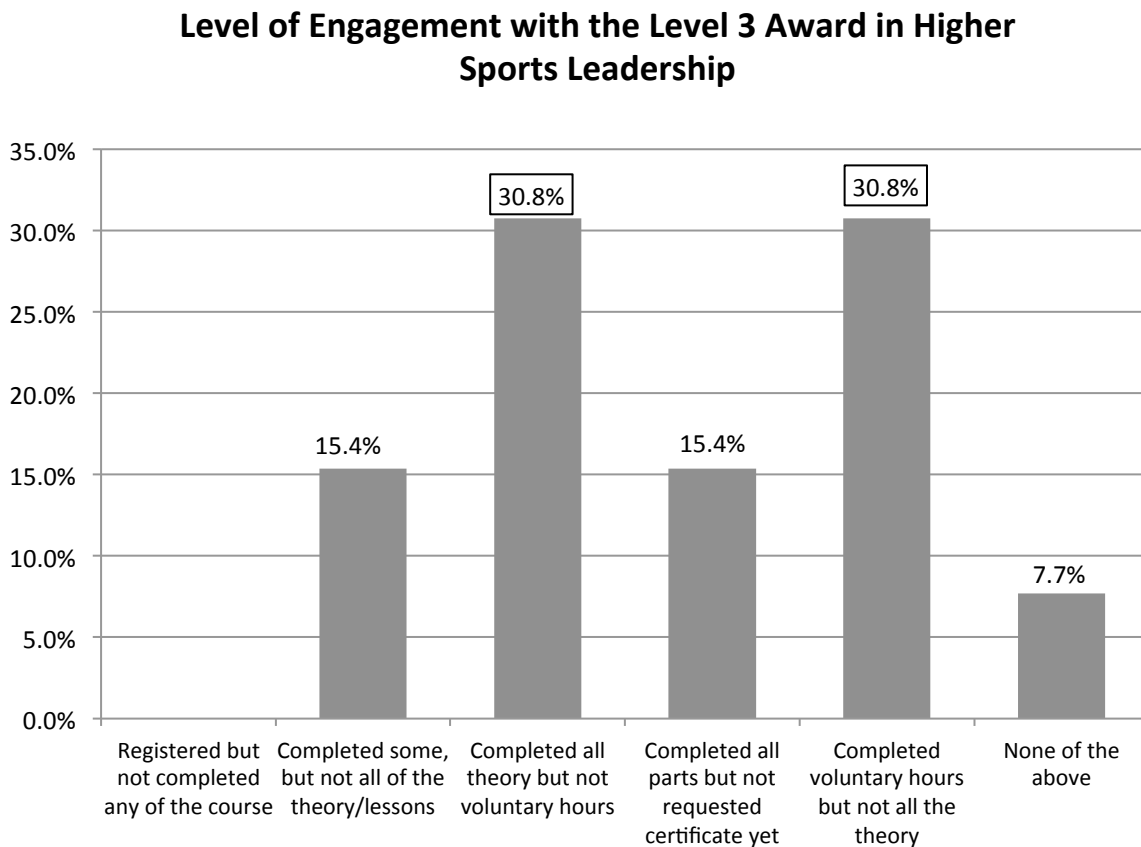


Figure 43: The current level of engagement for participants who have not yet completed the Level 3 Award ($n = 13$)

The graph in Figure 43 shows a range in the level of engagement with the Level 3 award at the time of the survey. Another option was made available to the participants which was *'I registered for the course but did not complete any of the course'*. However, no participant chose this as their level of engagement, which suggests that all candidates have engaged with the course to a certain extent. The two highest scoring

categories were ‘*completion of voluntary hours, but not the theory*’ and ‘*completion of the theory, but not the voluntary hours*’, both selected by 30.8% of the respondents.

Of the 13 participants who had not yet completed the Level 3 award, 61.5% stated that they would be looking to complete it within the next two years. The third question in this section asked the 13 participants for their reasons as to why they had not yet completed the Level 3 award, as illustrated in Figure 44.

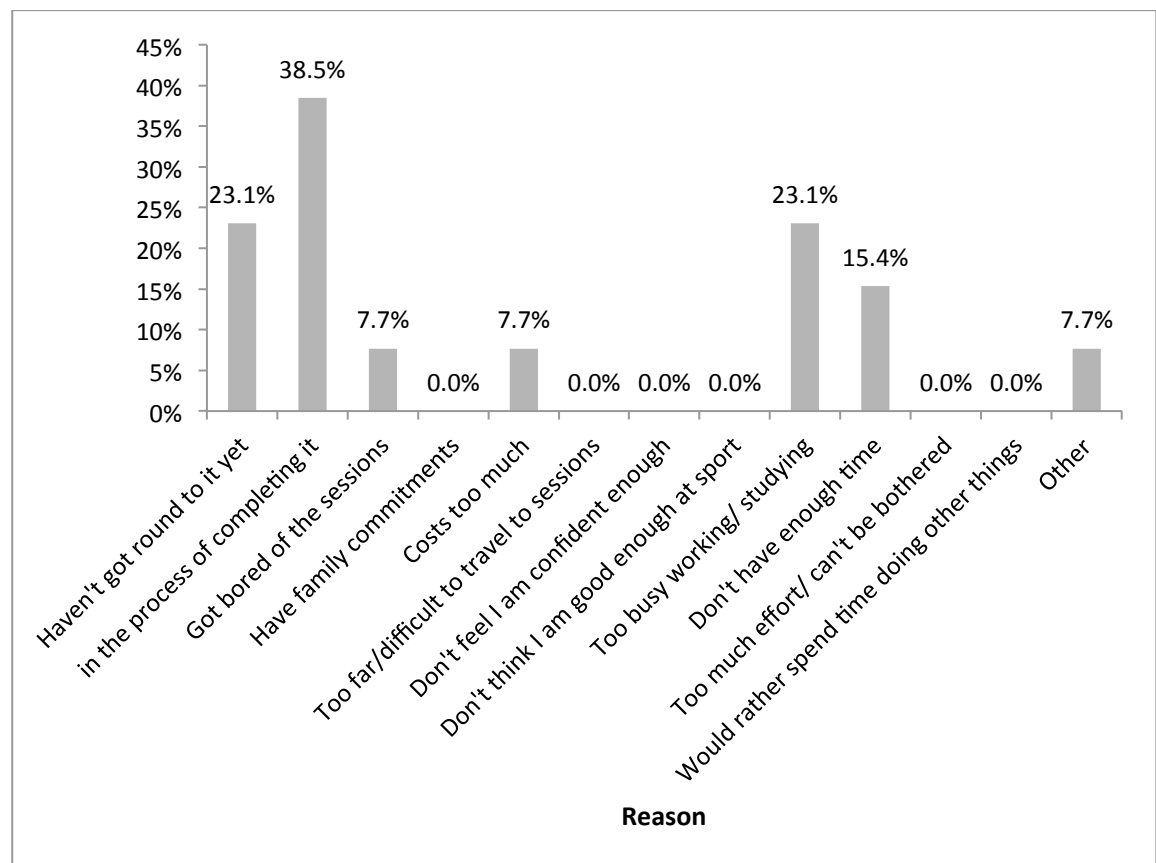


Figure 44: Reasons survey respondents gave for why they have not completed the Level 3 Higher Sports Leaders award ($n = 13$)

Clearly, the biggest response indicates that the majority of participants are planning on finishing the award but are still in the process of completing it (38.5%). Other

commitments in work or study and a lack of time also feature quite highly (23.1% and 15.4% respectively). The Level 3 is quite an intensive course with a recommended 107 hours of contact time and 30 hours of voluntary leadership experience in the community, which highlights the commitment required to complete the course. There was quite a large response for '*haven't got round to it yet*' as represented by 23.1% of the sample.

The final question which was asked in this section regarding SLUK awards, referred to the reasons why the participants initially decided to pursue the Level 3 award. All participants, irrespective of whether they had completed the award or not, were asked to complete this question ($n = 72$).

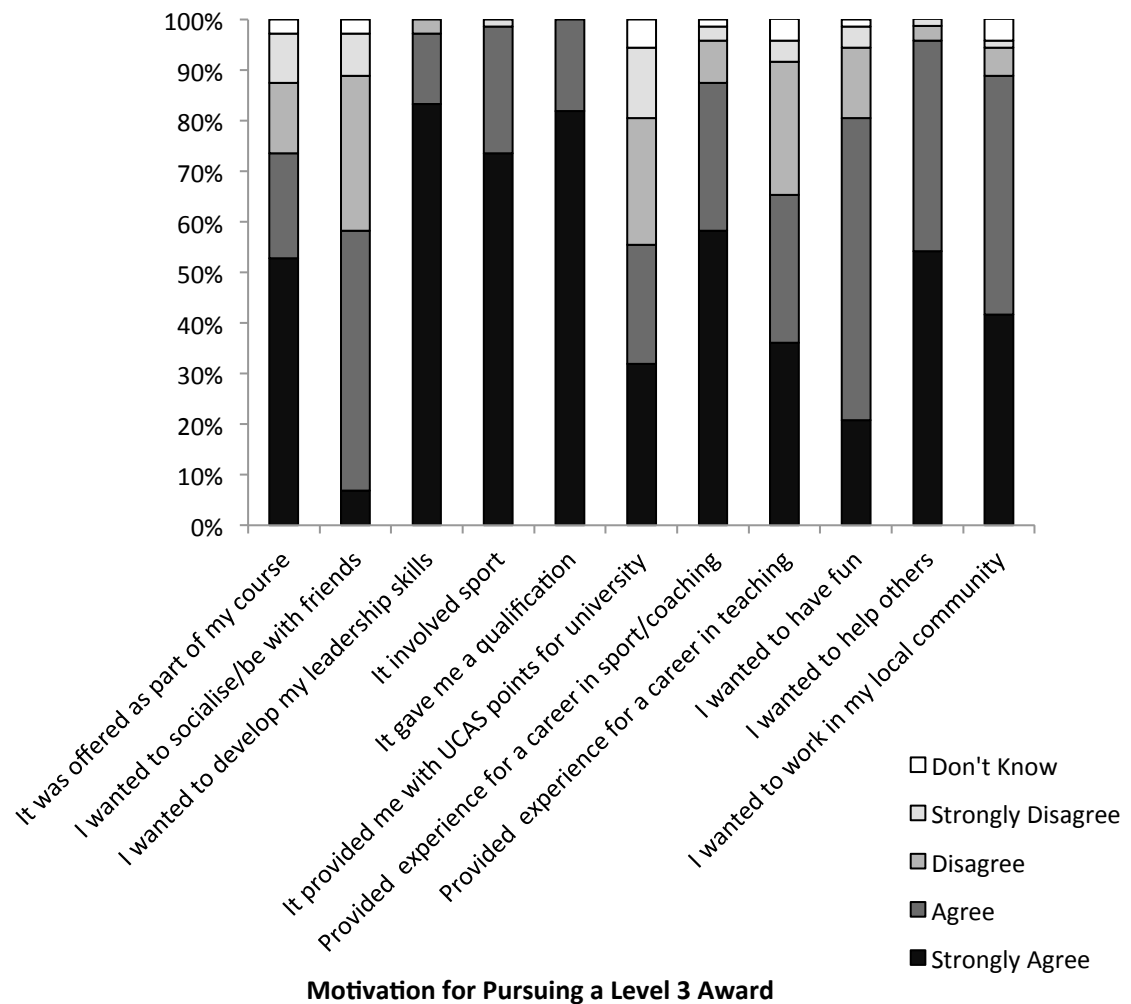


Figure 45: Participants' responses and extent of agreement for each statement offered as a reason for deciding to undertake the Level 3 SLUK Award ($n = 72$)

Figure 45 illustrates the fact that the highest responses given for why participants decided to undertake a level 3 award were; '*developing leaderships skills*' and '*gain a qualification*' which received the highest number 'strongly agree' responses (83.3% and 81.9% respectively). In fact, it appears that the greatest motivation for the participants to undertake the award was the fact that it gave them a qualification, as this category was only given either a '*strongly agree*' or '*agree*' answer. Other categories which also indicated popular reasons for why the candidates decided to undertake a level 3 sports

leaders award with high agreement scores achieved were; '*it involved sport*' ('strongly agree' and 'agree' total = 98.6%) and '*I wanted to help others*' ('strongly agree' and 'agree' total = 95.9%). However, one participant did strongly disagree with this statement '*it involved sport*'. The least favourable answer provided was '*it provided me with UCAS points for university*' which represented the largest 'strongly disagree' score with 13.9% of responses.

11.4 Coaching, Leading and Volunteering Experience (Questions 21 – 31)

The final section of the survey aimed to get some information about the participants' volunteering and work experience in sport and find out about any other coaching and leading qualifications that the participants' possessed.

From the survey responses, it was found that 81.9% (n=59) of participants possessed other leader, coaching or instructor qualifications (n=72). Although only 59 participants stated that they possess another coaching award, 65 participants completed the following question on the survey regarding the number of qualifications. 20% possessed 5 or more separate leader, coaching or instructor qualifications, as illustrated in Figure 46.

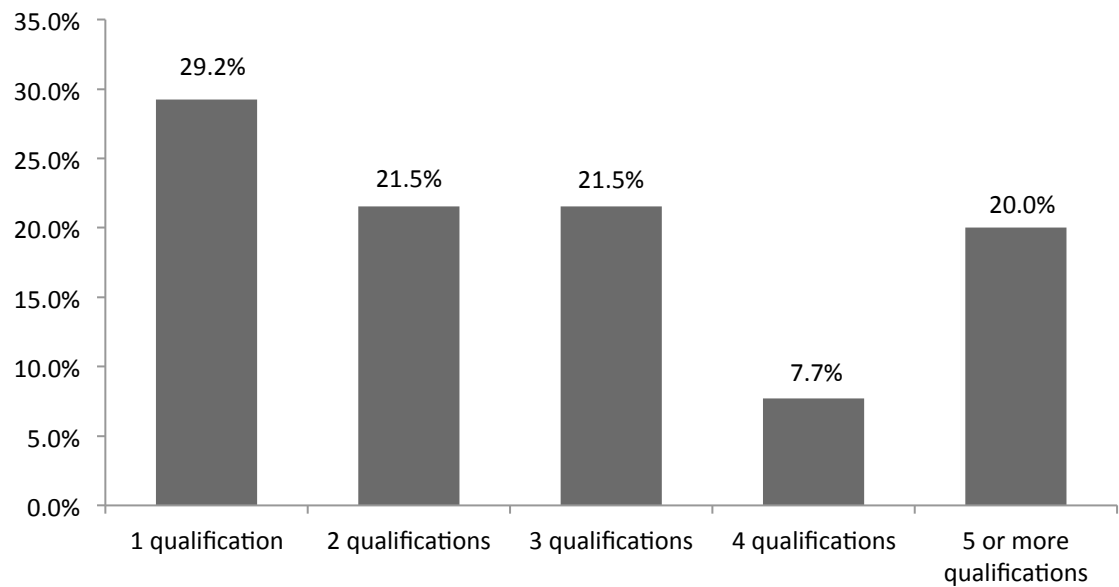


Figure 46: The number of other leaders, coach or instructor qualifications possessed by survey respondents ($n = 65$)

When asked which qualifications they possessed, participants disclosed a wide range of qualifications and certificates. The awards which received the highest number of responses included:-

- FA Level 1 Football Leaders Award
- EBA Level 1 Basketball Award
- UK Athletics Awards (Sportshall and Level 1 Awards)
- ECB Level 1 Cricket Award
- England Netball Level 1 Award

The majority of participants reported they possess a Level 1 award in a particular sport e.g. Football Association Level 1 Leaders Award and a number of participants also reported that they had completed various umpiring and refereeing awards, first aid

qualifications and other Sports Leaders UK leader awards. A full list of the awards and qualifications provided by the respondents can be found in Appendix I.

Questions 24 – 30 asked participants about their current and recent levels of voluntary and paid work in the sport and physical activity industry.

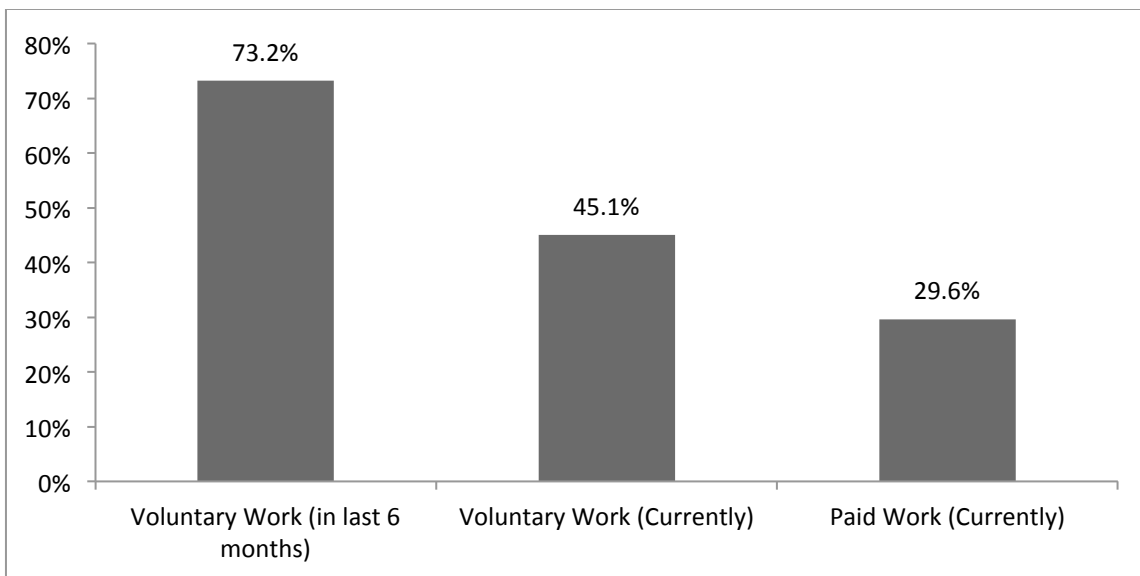


Figure 47: The number of respondents who have acted as a leader in a sport or physical activity session in either a voluntary or paid capacity ($n = 71$)

Figure 47 illustrates the number of participants who indicated that they have worked in sport or physical activity in either paid or voluntary capacity. It can be seen that there is a drop off of 28.1% in the number of participants *currently* acting as a leader in a voluntary capacity compared to the number during the last 6 months. There is also a smaller proportion of respondents who have indicated that they are currently employed in a paid sport or physical activity job (29.6%). Participants were next asked about the location of their voluntary and paid sessions.

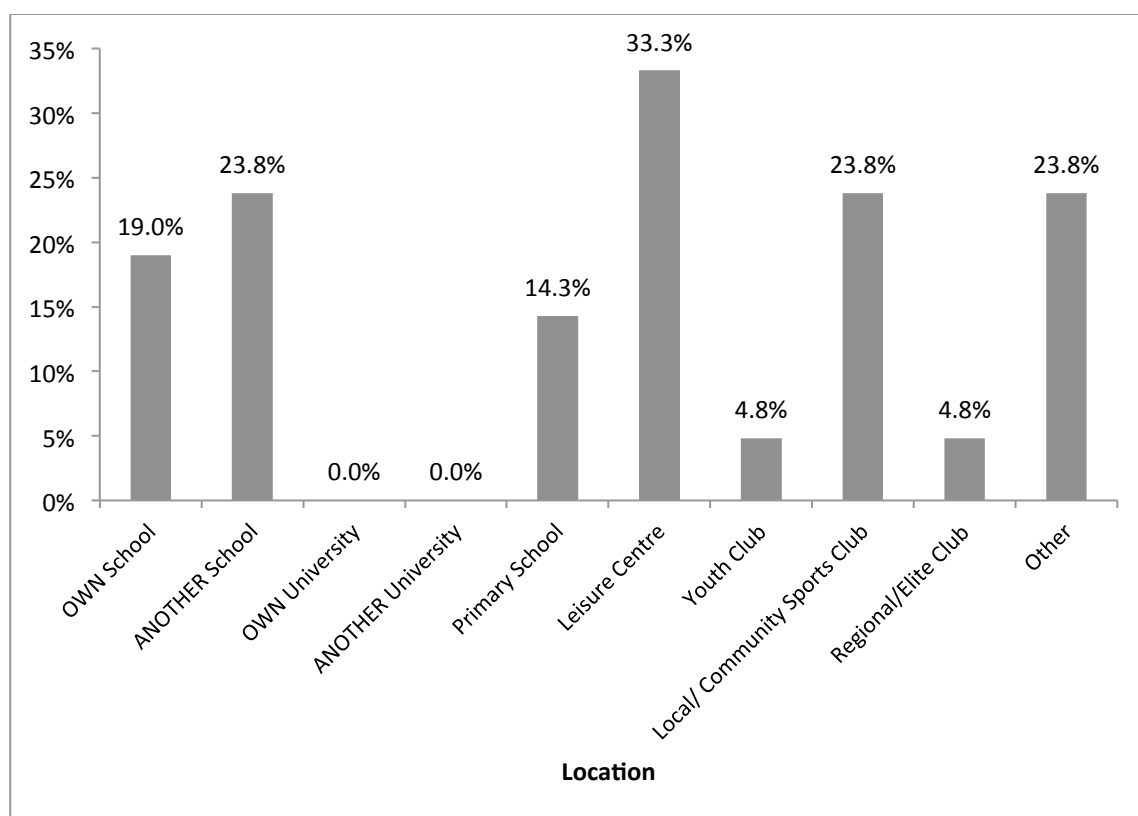


Figure 48: Responses for the location of paid work in sport and physical activity sessions ($n = 21$)

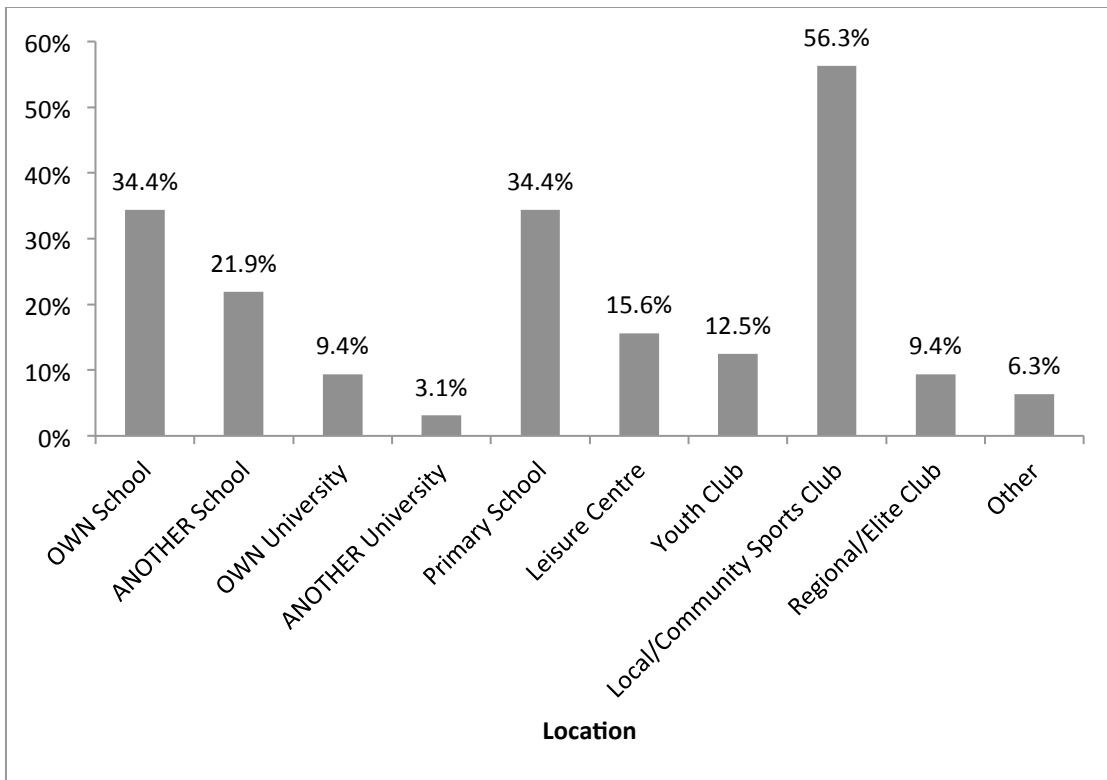


Figure 49: Responses for the location of current voluntary work in sport and physical activity sessions ($n = 32$)

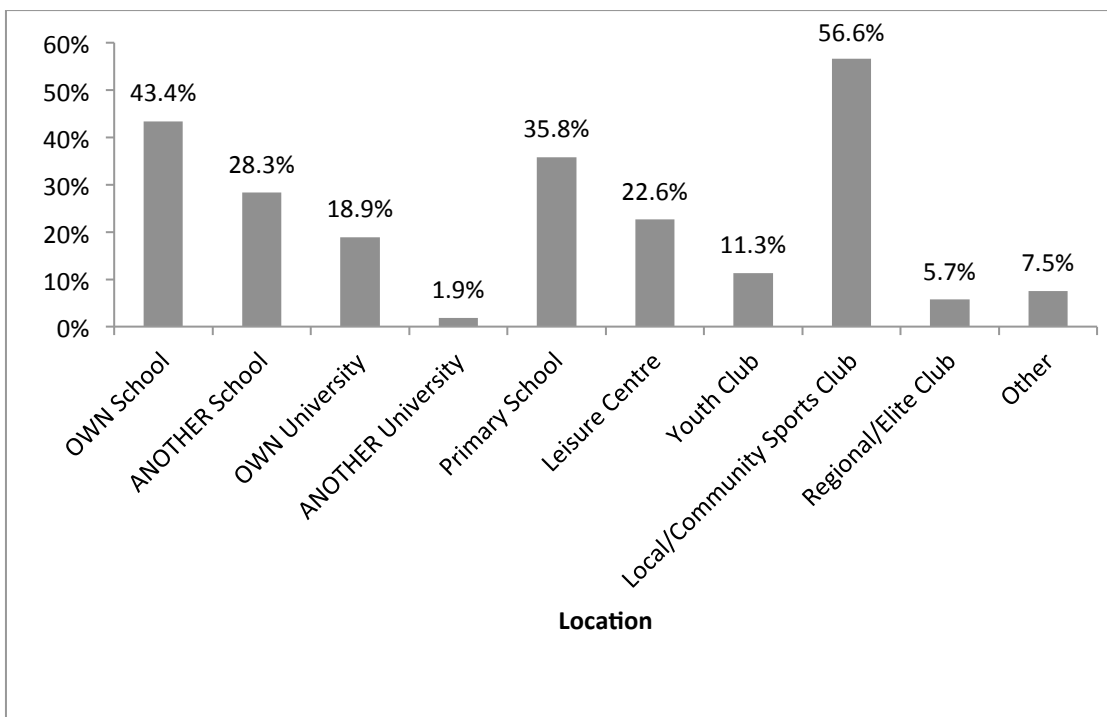


Figure 50: Responses for the location of voluntary work in the last 6 months in sport and physical activity sessions ($n = 53$)

There are some interesting differences in the results illustrated in each of the three bar charts presented above. Firstly, in figure 48 it appears that the most common locations for paid employment in sport are Leisure Centres with a third (33.3%) of respondents stating that this is where they work. This differs greatly to voluntary work, with the highest response being *'local/community sports clubs'* with a response of 56.3%. In fact, for voluntary work, leisure centres do not feature very high at all, with only 15.6% stating this as the location for their current volunteering and 22.6% reported as having volunteered here in the last six months. In addition to this voluntary leading, 23.8% of respondents also stated that they were paid for coaching and leading within a community club.

'Own school' and also featured highly on responses for both current volunteering and volunteering location in the last 6 months, with response rates of 34.4% and 43.4% respectively. Similarly, *'primary school'* was also a popular selection for respondents, with approximately 35% stating they either volunteer currently at a primary school or had done so in the last 6 months; a far higher response than for paid work. Some participants stated *'other'* as the location for their paid and volunteering work. The answers provided included:-

Paid work locations:-

- Outdoor Education Centre
- Military Fitness Company

Voluntary work:-

- Church Group

- Brownies
- Personal Fitness training

In a separate question concerning voluntary experience, participants were asked how often they lead sport or physical activity sessions. 78.8% indicated that they volunteered in these sessions once a week or more, followed by 15.2% stating that they lead sessions voluntarily once every two weeks. The remaining 6.1% of participants stated that they lead sessions less than once a month.

The final question on the survey explored the participants' own engagement with sporting organisations as members themselves. Of the 71 respondents who completed the full survey, 59.2% stated they were members of a sports club or organisation. However, this finding does not provide any indication of whether the leaders are regularly physically active or not, and in what capacity they are a member of a sports club (e.g. whether are they a player, coach or both). 4.2% of respondents gave a 'don't know' answer to this question which might suggest they were unclear of what was meant by the term 'member'.

At the end of the survey, 43 participants provided their name and email address, therefore consenting to be contacted for further research purposes, which provided a nested sample from which to select participants to be interviewed in phase 3.

11.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided the descriptive results from the survey at phase 2 of the project. Taking into consideration the poor response achieved in the survey, the results

have provided some insight into the career and personal development of the leaders undertaking the awards. A key finding from this phase of the research highlighted the key motivations for young people undertaking the awards was the fact that it gave them a tangible qualification and provided them with leadership skills, which supports previous findings (Eley and Kirk, 2002; Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002). The importance of this incentive as a motivator for leaders completing the SLUK awards is further discussed in both the qualitative results (chapter 12) and the discussion chapters (chapter 13). Due to the fact that the results were fairly limiting in this study, a greater emphasis was placed on phase 3 to address the research questions more fully. It is now that we turn to the Chapter 12 which presents the findings from the qualitative component of the research – the semi-structured interviews.

Chapter 12

Study 3: Semi-Structured Interviews - Results

12.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the qualitative findings from the final phase of the research – the semi-structured interviews with sports leaders. This qualitative phase of the research aims to answer research questions 2 and 3 as highlighted in Table 15 below:

Table 15: The research questions and their corresponding research phases

Research Question	Research Phase
<i>RQ1. What socio-demographic factors are associated with whether candidates register for, engage with or complete a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award?</i>	Phase 1 (Quantitative) – Database
<i>RQ2. What perceived impact does engaging with a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award have on the personal and career development of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 2 (Quantitative) – Survey Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Interviews
<i>RQ3. What perceived impact does sports leadership have on the development of sport and the wider community from the perspective of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Interviews

This chapter begins by providing descriptive data from the qualitative sample, outlining key characteristics of those interviewed. The conceptual model is introduced, which provides a framework for the subsequent results. An explanation of the model and its constituent categories will be provided, including the macro and micro contexts, the categories' properties and dimensions and the relationships between the categories. To help explain the theoretical themes constructed, quotations from the participants will be used, which will demonstrate that the emergent categories were derived directly from the data.

12.1 Participant Characteristics

This first section provides information regarding the participants who took part in the interviews. The inclusion criteria stated that all participants ($n = 16$) had registered for either a Level 2 or 3 SLUK award, and were recruited using the sampling strategies outlined previously in Chapter 8. Of the sample (see Table 16 overleaf) 43.75% ($n = 7$) were female and 56.25% ($n = 9$) were male. The mean age of participants was 22.25 years, with the youngest being 18 years and the oldest being 45 years. However, of the sample, only two participants were older than 22 years, representing a skew towards the lower age bracket. Of the 19 participants, 56.25% ($n = 9$) were students in Higher Education at the time of the interview. Other professions included community sports coaching type roles, which accounted for 18.75% ($n = 3$) of the sample; one respondent was personal trainer; one an activities coordinator; and one a trainee physiotherapist. Only one participant in the sample was currently in a profession with no link to sport, health or physical activity (retail analysis). With regards to ethnicity, 87.5% ($n = 14$) identified themselves white British, whilst the final two participants categorised themselves as Indian British and Mixed Race British. Finally, participants represented 14 different counties from across England and Wales. Pseudonym place names have been given in Table 16 to maintain anonymity of participants in the research. Similarly, throughout the results chapter, pseudonyms have been provided for the interview details, including participants' names, locations mentioned and other personal information provided. This is to protect the identity of those interviewed.

Table 16: Details of the individual characteristics of the qualitative sample

<i>N</i>	<i>Pseudonym</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Ethnicity</i>	<i>Location of Award</i>	<i>Occupation</i>
1	Rory	M	18	White British	Cranley	Student
2	Susie	F	23	White British	Sidshire	Student
3	Ollie	M	18	White British	Craddock	Student
4	Sophia	F	19	White British	Charlstone	Student
5	Jay	M	19	White British	Todston	Student
6	Rachel	F	18	White British	Gareford	Student
7	Holly	F	18	White British	Chisel	Student
8	Ciaran	M	20	White British	Wormsley	Community Sports Coach
9	Scott	M	22	White British	Nutshell	Student Activities Coordinator
10	Jackie	F	21	White British	Botshampton	Personal Trainer
11	Josh	M	21	White British	Headhampton	Retail Analysis
12	Elen	F	18	Mixed Race British	Marlesea	Student
13	Lucy	F	19	White British	Craddock	Student
14	Kyle	M	20	Indian British	Cloversley	Trainee Physiotherapist
15	Jeff	M	45	White British	Notton	Community Sports Coach
16	Patrick	M	37	White British	Notton	Community Sports Coach

12.2 Conceptual Model

It is necessary to introduce the conceptual model at the outset of the qualitative results chapter as this provides a useful framework in which the findings can be discussed. The conceptual model (Figure 51 below) has been developed using Grounded Theory Methodology (GTM) in which a systematic and rigorous approach to the qualitative data analysis produces a conceptual theory (Glaser, 1999) (see chapter 5). The theoretical model is built around the core category ‘improving self-worth’ and provides an understanding of the phenomenon being investigated, which is the process of engagement with the SLUK awards and subsequent outcomes (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Through the use of a graphical model, relationships between the different themes can be more easily illustrated (Hutchison, et al., 2009) and allows the reader a high-level perspective of the theory generated from the data.

The model illustrated in Figure 51 provides a conceptual representation of a leader’s journey as they progress through the leadership pathway from being provided with the opportunity to undertake an award through to continuation, where the leader may remain involved in sport, leading or other related activities following the awards. Although predominantly from the perspective of the individual leader, the model also includes the direct and indirect links to other, wide-reaching elements (i.e. community and society) of which the leader may impact upon throughout their journey.

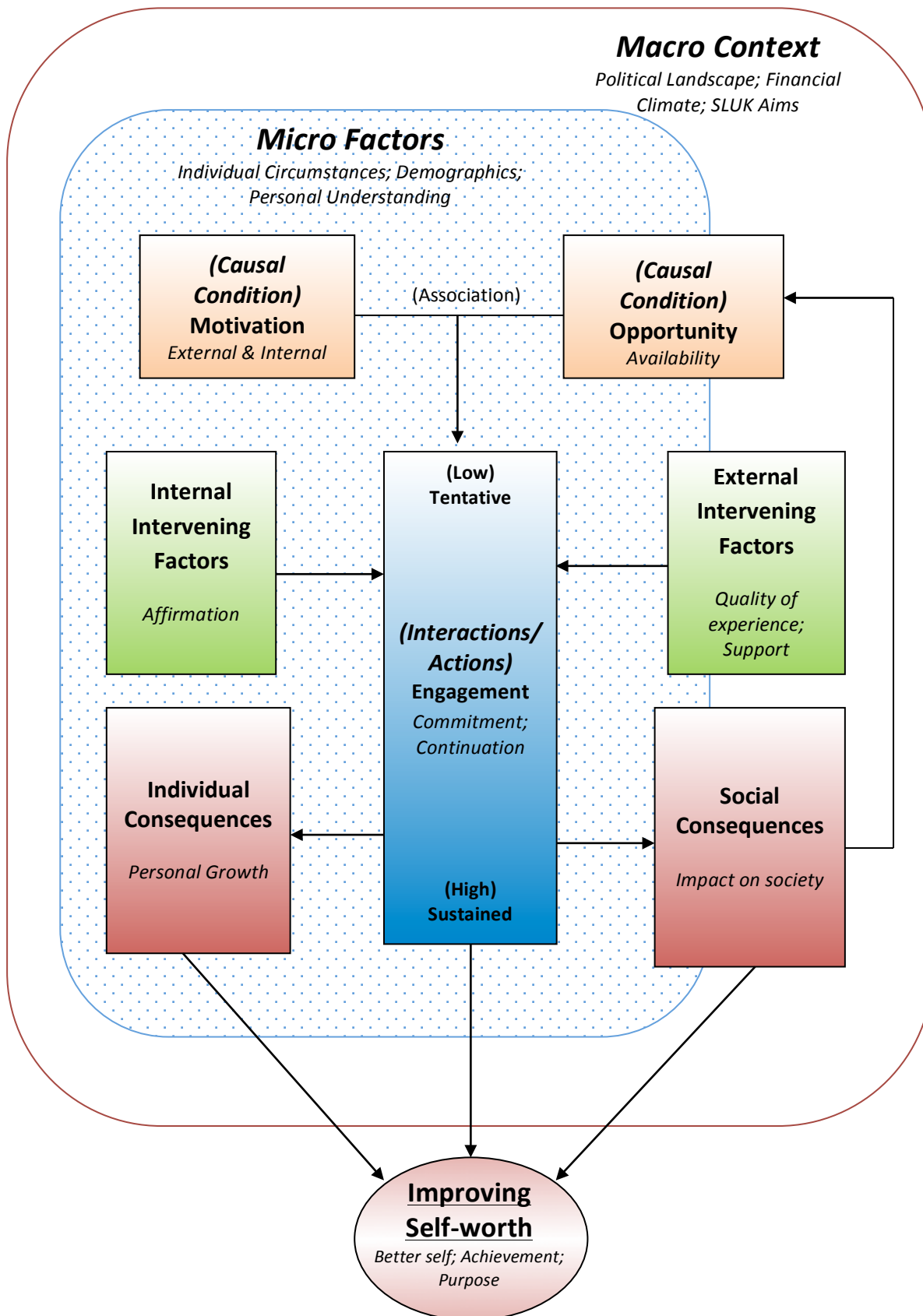


Figure 51: Conceptual Model – Improving self-worth through sports leadership

To help explain the component parts of the model which together explain the theory developed, each category is discussed in turn, beginning with the macro and micro context in which the sports leaders' journey takes place. The core category which is central to the phenomenon is introduced, followed by each of the other key categories according to their order (see Table 17 below) which together form the conceptual model. Each of the categories are organised according to whether they are a condition, interaction or intervening factor, or a consequence. Each of these classifications is explained to illustrate the relationships and connections between each theme, in addition to highlighting each theme's 'properties' and 'dimensions' (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Definitions for each of these elements are given in Table 17 below.

Table 17: Definitions of key category components and ordering of categories

<i>Category</i>	High level concepts or themes under which lower-level concepts are grouped according to shared properties.
<i>Properties</i>	Characteristics that define a category
<i>Dimensions</i>	Variations within the category's properties
<i>Conditions (Causal and Intervening)</i>	The reasons or 'conditions' which lead to responses in the data. Includes the what, why, where and how of a situation.
<i>Interactions/Actions</i>	The responses made by individuals when reacting to a situation
<i>Consequences</i>	The outcomes of interactions providing answers about what happened following an interaction to a situation

(Adapted from Corbin and Strauss, 2008)

Quotations from respondents (also referred to as 'leaders') will be used to help describe each category and demonstrate how themes have been derived directly from examples in the data. Where a quotation is used, a code follows which provides details of the participant and interview, e.g. Rory, S, 141-143. This code specifies the participant

pseudonym, their profession and the line numbers which correspond to the location of the text in the interview transcript. Details of the codes used for the professions can be seen in Table 18 below.

Table 18: Interview participant codes for profession

Profession	Code
Student	S
Community Sports Coach	CSC
Student Activities Coordinator	SAC
Trainee Physiotherapist	TPh
Personal Trainer	PT
Retail Analysis	RA

12.3 Macro and Micro Context

The macro and micro context refers to the environment within which situations occur. As Corbin and Strauss (2008: 91) suggest, “most situations are a combination of micro conditions and macro conditions”. Therefore, it is important to understand these conditions in order to gain a clearer insight into their relationship with situations, actions and consequences. Due to the overarching impact that the macro and micro context has on the situations which occur, it is perhaps best to explain this category prior to explanation of the core category, which will then follow this section.

The interaction between macro and micro factors is often complex, ambiguous and not always visible to the researcher (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). For clarity, the properties of this category were identified as the ‘macro environment’ and ‘micro factors’, as illustrated in Table 19. The following explanations of each property and its

corresponding dimensions have been formulated using the words and perspectives of the participants interviewed.

Table 19: Properties and dimensions for category: Macro and micro context

Category Title	Properties (Dimensions)
Macro and micro context	<p>Macro environment (Political landscape; financial climate; SLUK aims)</p> <p>Micro factors (Demographics; individual circumstances; level of understanding)</p>

12.3.1 Macro environment

Macro conditions refer to those factors which are outside of the individual. For example, these may be political, environmental, or social. Despite being distant from the leader, these conditions can impact on them, influencing their decisions, choices, and attitudes to certain situations. For the leaders interviewed, three elements of the macro environment impacted on their experiences as a sports leader undertaking an SLUK award. These dimensions were identified as the political landscape, the current financial climate and SLUK's aims and objectives as an organisation.

Political Landscape

This dimension refers to the influence that policy and government have on the sporting industry, in particular the recent changes to funding for sport since the election of the

Conservative-led Coalition in May 2010. Whilst not being something that the leaders could control, this policy influenced their decisions regarding career priorities;

'...its expanded my CV. It's a really selfish way to look at it but everybody's out there like, especially with the government changes and stuff coming. Obviously from September schools and school sport partnerships and local leisure centres; everything is going to look so different' [Susie, S, 365-368].

This current political context therefore lead some leaders to question whether a career in teaching or sport was achievable; *'you say right well there's jobs available. They say that but there isn't.'* [Ollie, S, 257].

The leaders were also aware of the Coalition Government's Big Society strategy, but some expressed uncertainty regarding its feasibility; *'...and the Tory government at the moment with their Big Society, yeah its great it's put on paper, but into practice? You know it won't happen.'* [Jeff, CSC, 272-274]. Others suggest that the core principles of the Big Society were already happening in their communities;

'...there's a big drive at the moment working on building communities and neighbourhoods. I think they do already exist, like the conservative government I think they do exist and all these volunteering strategies are already set up, but I just don't think that they have been focused on or particularly examined in the past so... now with Big Society coming in, I don't know, claiming to reinvent the wheel to be honest with you, because I think there is volunteering there already.' [Josh, RA, 288-293].

Financial Climate

As a result of this uncertain political climate and perhaps the public speculation surrounding the financial cuts and recession, some leaders decided not to pursue a career in sport as they saw this as more of a risk:

‘A lot of people on my course wanted to be teachers or coaches or work in the sports industry. But I think because it’s not a very stable industry at the moment, or people are perceiving it as not very stable industry; it’s being re-labelled rather than being cut as much as what people think it is. So I think at the moment, people have gone into jobs where they can afford a mortgage, where they can afford to run a car, and they’ve not sort of taken that leap of faith and gone to Uni.’ [Susie, S, 518-523].

The current recession was also impacting on whether people were willing to give their time to helping out with sport in their community;

‘...most people my age that haven’t gone to Uni have got kids, a mortgage, a marriage and a car, volunteering is the last thing on their mind. What they want is an extra few hours paid work at work to be able to pay for new school shoes or you know, to pay that extra payment on their mortgage...’ [Susie, S, 525- 528].

The current financial climate was irrelevant for some leaders with regards to volunteering in sport;

‘I always say the same thing, I don’t think the climate has got anything to do with it. You know, because if you’re... if you’re passionate you should be willing to do this voluntarily, you know. And that’s... you should be going... you should just be wanting to be going out there and getting people active

and getting people doing stuff, and that's the same as I should.' [Ollie, S, 746-750].

Certainly for some, the perceived reduction in volunteers provided the context within which they were motivated to pursue a SLUK award;

'So many are like folding because of lack of members or lack of volunteers, you know. Lack of people just giving up time to the clubs. I think, if you can get sports leaders out into those to not only volunteer but to just sort of spread the word, and just get people channelled into these clubs...' [Rachel, S, 421-424].

SLUK aims

SLUK aim's were also identified as a dimension of the macro environment, as the organisation's aims impacted on people's perceptions of, and access to, the awards. For example, the leaders suggested that the key aim of SLUK was to encourage more people to take up leading roles;

'I think they [SLUK] are trying to get more people into the coaching/leadership side so there is more people, so then there can be more participation and more things for different like smaller groups or... I think just trying to get more people participating on every level really' [Holly, S, 309-312],

but with a focus on grassroots participation; *'...to deliver sport to those people in a way where you are not kind of thinking, oh yeah they are going to be the next Johnny Wilkinson. But just making it fun and getting people involved'* [Rachel, S, 75-76].

With regards to access, the leaders perceived the awards to be aimed at particular groups of people, which may result in certain individuals not being aware of the opportunities; *'I think they have to take themselves a little bit more seriously as a vocational qualification, because it's just seen as one of those little things because you get it when you are young'* [Jackie, PT, 615-617] rather than being promoted within community settings;

'I think that they need to push it more on clubs locally, because it seems... again, just from experience and the fact that I have been down a rowing club for 12 years and have never once been approached about sports leaders awards.' [Jackie, PT, 642-645].

All of these factors are part of the macro environment which whilst being a little more removed from the leaders, they can affect thoughts, perceptions and decisions surrounding participation in the SLUK awards.

12.3.2 Micro Conditions

Micro conditions refer to factors which directly affect the individual and are close to the individual in nature (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Some of these factors may be within the leader's control, whilst others may be fixed and therefore difficult to change. For the sports leaders, three dimensions were identified which explains the variation in the micro conditions; Individual circumstances; demographics; level of understanding.

Demographics

This dimension refers to the characteristics and circumstances that defined the leader at the time of engagement with the SLUK awards. This may include factors such as career or educational status; age; and location; all of which may impact on the leader's choices, opportunities and perspectives.

With regards to accessing the awards, the leaders' geographical location impacted on their participation in the awards;

'...Basically I got involved from my community. They had a community link there, so it's like a drop in centre there for like the whole community... I basically started off volunteering a couple of hours a week which progressed and progressed into more and more hours. So yeah she [Community Link Officer] started putting me through some of my courses then, like my coaching football, my Sports Leaders level 1 and 2...' [Patrick, CSC, 5-10].

Educational circumstances had a significant impact on their views and experiences of the awards, including entry into the award programmes; *'I took up the course through my school, who actually offered it through physical education so that was part of the course'* [Kyle, TPh, 6-7].

In terms of characteristics, certain demographics were regarded as being linked to the SLUK awards;

'From my experience it's younger people talking between maybe 16 and 21. .. I may well be wrong. There may well be older people doing it as well, but my main experience is of younger people, male and female. A fair mix. I

didn't see anything particularly mainly more male or mainly more females it was generally quite split.' [Josh, RA, 273-278].

Younger people were also identified as having more time to take on leadership and volunteering roles, therefore impacting the likelihood of individuals engaging with SLUK awards;

'Between 16 and 21 you've got far more time I think and far less pressure, in terms of real life pressure. Yeah there's exams and everything, bits and pieces like that you have to do, but you've got far more time to do it.' [Josh, RA, 321-323].

Individual circumstances

This dimension refers to the personal situation that affected the leaders' engagement with the SLUK awards. These were factors that went beyond demographics, and may include factors such as personal interests, influences from others and changes in circumstances. Personal interest was identified as a significant dimension which influenced the leaders' perceptions of the awards;

'It [the level 2 award] was offered and then there was a group of us who were kind of quite sporty together at school, and we just went for it together.' [Josh, RA, 9-10], and for many the award was offered as part of a sports related course; *'I did JSLA at school. It was part of our PE programme so if you did GCSE PE you were basically told that's what you had to do.'* [Susie, S, 5-6]

In addition to personal interests, changes in individual circumstances were also found to result in some leaders becoming more involved in sports volunteering and ultimately leading to them undertaking an SLUK award;

'First, my background is rugby, so I was doing rugby, and when I got injured and I couldn't play anymore I started coaching my son, so I started on the volunteer side of things.' [Jeff, CSC, 7-9].

These individual circumstances in some instances resulted in the leaders being offered the opportunity to pursue an SLUK award and make a start with sports leading and coaching;

'I was in school when I started off, and I, well Harry approached me and said listen, we're running Dragon Sports and we're doing this, that and the other, so I said, that would be fun, so I went straight into doing that.' [Ollie, S, 6-8].

Similarly, influences of significant others such as teachers, friends or family inspired some to pursue an SLUK award as part of a certain career path;

'When I started secondary school and I met my PE teachers, and I started playing football with them, for their team as well when I started in year 10, and I just, I learnt the lifestyle with them and I did my work experience with them as well, and so I just sort of set my mind that I wanted to, to be a PE teacher' [Rory, S, 377-381].

Level of Understanding

The last dimension identified for the micro context is level of understanding. This dimension concerns the awareness and knowledge that leaders had regarding the SLUK awards or similar qualifications and opportunities. This understandably would affect the views and perceptions of the leaders and impact on the likelihood of an individual undertaking an SLUK award. For some, gaining an awareness of the awards lead to the

leader deciding to pursue an award; *‘My son was doing sports and also doing a little bit of coaching as well. Um, so he got me involved basically. He let me know all the information I needed to know because it wasn’t out there.’* [Patrick, CSC, 46-48]. Similarly, having a basic understanding of the content of the SLUK awards and how they may fit with career or personal goals, was identified as another factor which influenced the leaders’ views of the awards;

‘We were introduced to the procedure and I thought it was really interesting to like gain experience because for me personally I wanted to develop some skills for future purposes, so I was interested in that and then just started my level 1’ [Elen, S, 10-12].

12.4 Core Category – Improving Self-worth

‘Improving Self-worth’ has been identified as the core category which is central to the theory constructed. This section provides an overview of this core category, its properties and dimensions, and its relationship to the other themes discovered in the data.

Table 20: Properties and dimensions for core category: Improving self-worth

Category Title	Properties (Dimensions)
Improving Self-worth	<p>Better self (Self-esteem; confidence; self-motivation)</p> <p>Achievement (Gaining success; overcoming challenges)</p> <p>Purpose (Realising potential; satisfaction)</p>

Improving self-worth refers to participant perceptions and feelings about themselves when engaged with SLUK awards. This is central to the participants' involvement in the awards and how they assess their personal experiences of sports leadership. The more that a leader improves their self-worth, the more positive their perceived experience of being involved in the sports leaders awards, and thus, the more likely they are to continue leading and volunteering. In particular, improving self-worth refers to feelings of bettering themselves; gaining achievement and having a sense of purpose, a subject to which we now turn.

12.4.1 Better Self

This property refers to the desire of the leaders to want to better themselves and improve their lives. One way in which they were able to achieve this improved self-worth is through the SLUK awards as their experience had a positive effect on their own lives. For the leaders interviewed, there was the perception that the awards can change people's lives for the better;

'...and the amount of kids that, alright if they had got into sport and that, they could go onto college and Uni. Get better jobs from it. Because it [the award] changed me. So if it can change me, it can change anyone.' [Lucy, S, 368-370].

Better self has three dimensions which provide the variation within this characteristic. These dimensions are self esteem; confidence; and self-motivation.

Self-esteem

Participating in the awards was found to increase the leaders' feelings of self-esteem;

'I think... by the level 2, it was a different step up. Obviously it takes you out of your comfort zone Again by doing them awards it gave me the self esteem and the ability to go out and run these sessions.' [Jeff, CSC, 99-101].

The majority of leaders also spoke of the pride that they felt in being a sports leader;

'It's [leading] so great to do it and the pride you get in yourself, knowing that you give something back. You are getting all these skills yourself. You are being able to pass them on to other people' [Lucy, S, 560-562].

Confidence

A key aspect to leaders' feelings of a better self which contributed to improved self-worth was that of increased confidence as a result of being involved in the awards; *'they were good skills to be learning at that point as well for me in terms of building confidence, like handling groups, stuff like that so it was really worthwhile.* [Josh, RA, 42-44]. Being placed in new situations during their leadership voluntary placements, such as working with people with disabilities was a crucial part of this confidence building;

'I mean it's definitely built my confidence because, I know it sounds awful, but on the first day when I went to the access for all thingy [session for disabled children], I was quite nervous because I had never worked with disabled people before and its always so hard to know how to approach it. But, by the end of it just felt really good.' [Rachel, S, 129-134].

Being given the opportunity to undertake an SLUK award was also found to give one leader the confidence to change his life dramatically by getting off state benefits for the first time;

‘Like I said I was quiet; I didn’t do nothing, I was just on the dole. I wasn’t getting... just didn’t feel like being myself. I was just down all the time. Just getting in that rut and can’t get out of it. But yeah, doing that [the SLUK award] really brought my confidence through.’ [Patrick, CSC, 78-81].

Self-motivation

This final dimension for better self refers to the amount of self motivation that the leaders expressed as a result of engaging with the SLUK awards. An example of this is increased self-motivation as expressed by Lucy, who stated that her experience of being a sports leader gave her the motivation and desire to get up early and arrive promptly to her coaching sessions;

‘Because I’d be like the one that you know, you’ve got to be up at 8 o’clock. I’d be getting up at quarter past. You know, you’ve got to be somewhere by half past mind... that was me. But when it came to that [leading] because I enjoyed it I was getting up at quarter to 8. I was like “come on , I’ve got to be there!” I’d be there by 20 past but it wouldn’t start until half past!’ [Lucy, S, 484-488].

This also highlights the enjoyment that the leaders gained from their experience as a sports leader, which is an important factor in increasing self-motivation.

12.4.2 Achievement

This concept refers to the feelings of achievement and success that the leaders gained from being a sports leader. Achievement is characterised two dimensions: gaining success and overcoming challenges.

Gaining Success

This dimension refers to the degree of perceived success that leaders have achieved as a result of participating in the SLUK awards. This success may take various forms depending on what the leader views as being important to them, such as gaining skills, employment or impacting on other people's lives. Some leaders felt that they gained success from being able to make a difference to the young people that they were coaching; *'I was able to sort of flourish, and that was the first time where I thought I could actually teach children, help them to play sport really, so it was quite good'* [Kyle, TPh, 44-45]. Others felt that they gained success from the progress that they have made due to the award programmes;

'Well I started off volunteering for about a year, year and a half. Obviously it was putting me through courses in the meantime. So yeah it was great. Started off with all the little ones. And now progressed to the seniors as well so I run a senior football side now as well' [Patrick, CSC, 30-33].

Overcoming Challenges

The leaders' experiences of the awards were found to be challenging, but in a positive way, as situations pushed the individuals out of their comfort zones but made them realise that they were capable of achieving something which they may never have thought they were;

‘I had never been put in that situation so I found it quite challenging and from that I found a real buzz from it because it was just sort of putting yourself in that situation where you sort of think to yourself, can I really do this? And when you achieve it you think it’s very rewarding’ [Kyle, TPh, 242-244].

For many leaders, overcoming challenges increased their confidence and self-esteem, which in turn encouraged them to continue developing as leaders.

12.4.3 Purpose

The dimension purpose refers to the feelings that the leaders expressed concerning their role in sports leadership. Through undertaking the SLUK awards and the practical experience, the leaders realised that they had a purpose and that they were an important player in the development of sport in their community;

‘...like netball I lead at one school, and some of the girls without it... if I didn’t coach that they wouldn’t have played netball. And some of them were really talented.’ [Holly, S, 47-49].

This property has two dimensions; realising potential and satisfaction.

Realising potential

This dimension refers to the extent that the leaders discover their own potential as a result of doing the SLUK awards and associated activities. For some, being able to lead others effectively and confidently surprised the leaders, as they realised that they had greater potential than they initially realised;

‘...at the start of the course a lot of my friends would be, “oh I don’t want to stand in front of them and say it” sort of thing. And they got to the stage where they were just like, “actually I’m going to do this”, so if they were leading the session and some of their peers were mucking about, they would say “no. Shut up and listen”’. [Holly, S, 109-112].

Similarly, some leaders discovered that they had skills which they had not put into practice before or realise that they possessed;

‘I mean I’d never dream of you know... because I am technologically challenged anyway, but on a computer setting out a power point that would apply to year 7’s and presenting that in assemblies in front of 300 kids is a pretty daunting experience but it was really good. You come out the end of it and you think yeah, I think we sorted something out there and we’re on the ball’ [Rachel, S, 166-170].

Satisfaction

Participants expressed satisfaction from their role as sports leaders, particularly with regard to seeing others develop and benefit directly from the sessions they lead;

‘...it’s given me that ability to go out there into the community and drag people in and say... do you want to come over and have a go at this sport? ... And that’s what I have got out of it and obviously satisfaction and encouragement in seeing these young people develop into young adults, developing into Welsh internationals. Developing into players like Collins for West Ham, who I had a part in his coaching’. [Jeff, CSC, 77-84].

Similarly, Lucy gained huge satisfaction from seeing the team she coached achieve;

‘But like when it was the kids they like look up to you. Like when the kids won the tournament, pride wasn’t the word. I just felt so great for giving something to someone else. And you get... when they are like that you get something returned to yourself.’ [Lucy, S, 177-180].

Much of this reported job satisfaction came from the enjoyment that the leaders had in undertaking the SLUK awards and through delivering sports sessions;

‘I actually really enjoyed those hours and that’s why I am still doing disability coaching now. And why I’ve picked to do an adaptive physical activity module [at University], because there’s just something about coaching disability football, that you can try and get more out of it’ [Jay, S, 453-455].

This highlights the impact that job satisfaction had on both the leader and the participants, and can have the impact of continued involvement of the leader in coaching and leading.

12.5 Causal Conditions

Conditions refer to the reasons or ‘conditions’ which lead to responses in the data. These reasons includes the what, why, where and how of a situation (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). More specifically, causal conditions refer to those reasons or factors which lead to the phenomenon or study subject occurring (Brown, Stevens, Troiano and Schneider, 2002). In this research, the causal conditions which lead to individuals engaging with SLUK awards were found to be motivations and opportunities, as shown in a section of the conceptual model in Figure 51. The causal conditions of motivation

and opportunity are associated in that both of these conditions are required to some degree if an individual is going to engage with the award programmes. In other words, motivation is not enough on its own, as being provided with the opportunity to undertake an award was also necessary if one is to engage, and vice versa, therefore these two causal conditions have an associated link. This next section will explain these causal conditions including their properties and dimensions.

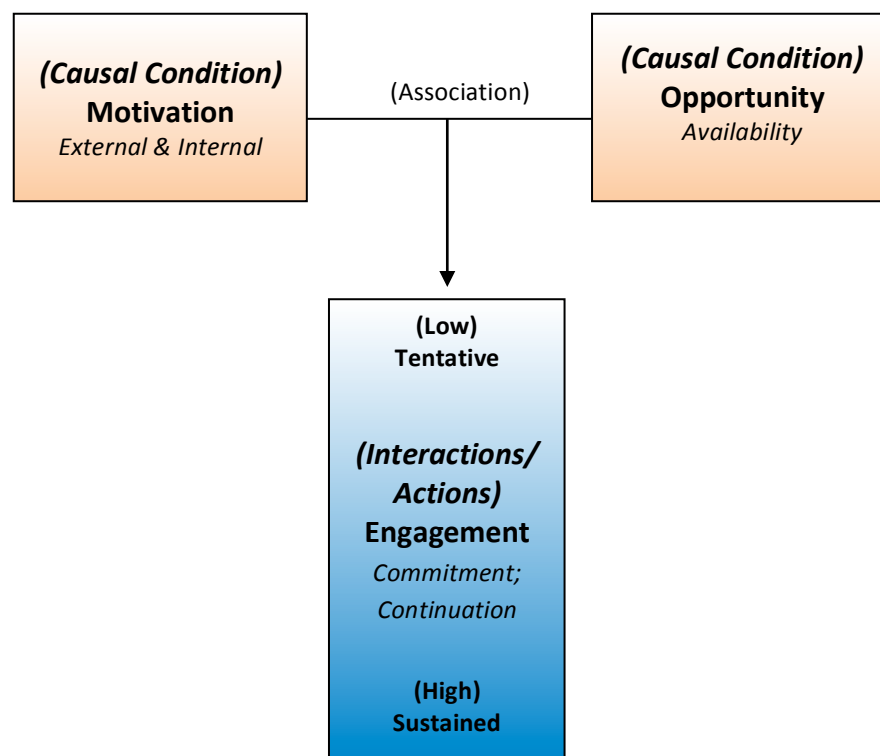


Figure 52: Section of the conceptual model containing causal conditions

12.6 Motivation

This category refers to the different motivations which may result in an individual deciding to pursue an SLUK award. Motivation is characterised by two properties: external and internal factors as illustrated in Table 21.

Table 21: Properties and dimensions for causal condition: Motivation

Category Title	Properties (Dimensions)
Motivation	<p>Internal (Self-centred motivations; altruistic motivations; personal interest)</p> <p>External (Choice of participation)</p>

12.6.1 Internal motivations

Internal motivations describe the drive and determination that an individual will possess internally. Whilst this may be influenced by both micro and macro factors, ultimately this particular motivation to pursue an SLUK award and continue to lead, coach or volunteer, is a driving force that comes from within. The internal motivations can vary between individuals, but have been found to include selfish motivations; altruistic motivations; and personal interest.

Self-centred motivations

This dimension refers to those motivations which are more self-centred in nature, i.e. motivations which set out to benefit the individual leader. These motivations were found to be a key factor in whether participants chose to engage with SLUK awards or not. There were a range of self-centred motivations that were highlighted as being influential to leaders: ‘engagement including career progression, CV building and gaining qualifications *for the JSLA, the first one I just literally wanted to get a qualification because obviously I was going to university and it would look good on my*

CV' [Jackie, PT, 40-41]. For others, selfish motivations included the chance to gain work experience and therefore improving the chances of gaining employment in the future;

'And it's great experience in terms of whacking it on the CV, in terms of it gives you experience... like a lot now jobs are based on sort of competencies where you have to provide like real life examples and I think a lot of kids that are coming out of schools now will not be having that kind of actual real life experience to be able to fill in those questions properly, and that's what I am finding at the moment is really helping myself' [Josh, RA, 58-62].

Other selfish motivations included the opportunity to gain more skills; *'then just started my level 1 and then gradually got offered to do the level 2 in school and was interested to do that and further my skills'* [Emma, S, 12-13] and to attain 30 UCAS points for university; *'it was worth an extra 30 UCAS points and I was, needed every UCAS point I could get, so why not I thought. I can't lose on that'* [Rory, S, 10-11].

Altruistic motivations

As this category title suggests, this dimension refers to the more unselfish motivations which influenced participants' decisions to pursue an SLUK award. Altruistic motivations were found to centre predominantly on the desire to make a difference to other people as a result of respondents' work as a sports leader or volunteer. These included wanting to see young people enjoy sport; *'I like to see whatever age I teach, to be enjoying themselves through sport. Because I've loved sport all my life and I want to see someone else enjoy it'*. [Jay, S, 321-322]; and the aspiration to see others develop and improve; *'I was big on rugby and I was big on golf and all sorts so, you know,*

that's well, you know, it really inspired me to kind of help people to do as well as I'm doing' [Ollie, S, 18-20]. For many of the leaders, they explained that a key motivation for them to lead was that they wanted to 'give something back' to the community and others;

'it's also good to give something back rather than take all the time, like I said I was on the dole for years. And yeah, it does get you down into that rut. But it is really good to give something back as well to the community' [Patrick, CSC, 90-92].

Altruistic motivations such as these focused on wanting to make a difference to other people's lives, however small their contribution was;

'I also work with the youth offending team. So these guys, you know, I always say it to myself – 'I'm not the good lord, you know, I'm not God!' But if I can make some sort of change in their life, that's all that matters to me'. [Jeff, CSC, 250-253].

Personal interest

For all the leaders, a prior interest in sport and physical activity was a key driver in their motivation to pursue an SLUK award. While discussing motivations, Jeff revealed that his biggest motivation to participate in the awards was his interest in sport; *'My love for sport really. My love for sport. I've always been involved and active in sport. All my life.'* [Jeff, CSC, 37-38]. The participants suggested that while a high level of skill as a player of sport is not necessarily required to be a sports leader; a personal interest is necessary;

'I don't think you have to be good at sport though. You don't have to be a good athlete at something, it's just bringing enjoyment to others through the

means of sport really. So no. I'd say you have to enjoy it but not be good at it necessarily' [Jackie, PT, 481-484],

as is a basic knowledge of sport;

'I think you have to have a basic knowledge... you might not... you don't need to be an expert, but you sort of do need to have a basic knowledge of what you are doing, so you are telling the children the right things' [Holly, S, 142-144].

12.6.2 External Motivations

This category refers to conditions which might influence an individual's engagement with sports leadership, which are external to the individual. Whilst there may be number of possible external motivations which can impact on people's decisions, the key motivation in this study was that of choice of participation.

Choice of Participation

This dimension refers to the impact that personal choice has on leaders' decision to engage with the sports leadership awards. This choice in a number of instances, was found to be imposed on the participant, and as such, some did not have any choice in whether they wanted to pursue an SLUK award or not; *'the school made everyone do JSLA in year 10 and 11. It was to get you a leadership qualification'* [Sophia, S, 6-7]. In some instances, where participants were found to not be given a choice and participation was compulsory, there was the indication that many of these leaders did not sustain their involvement with sports leadership as they were not interested; *'I know there was*

people in my class that just couldn't be bothered with it, weren't interested. They were just there because they had to do it' [Jackie, PT, 491-493]. Similarly, where the awards were offered to individuals as an option, some would elect to pursue an SLUK award as it was perceived to be the best of the options;

'in my school there was a choice. They didn't have to do compulsory PE, they didn't have to do whatever. They did the JSLA award, so some of them probably weren't as motivated to do that as people who were actually interested in sport. So some people do it for the right reasons and some people are just doing it because, well they didn't want to do something else' [Holly, S, 63-67].

Whilst there appears to be some suggestion that compulsory participation is not an effective motivator for all, having this external motivation was beneficial in helping some individuals to complete the awards;

'I think so because the school pushed... like not pushed you into doing it but, they did check up that you... and if you hadn't got all your hours and you needed like an extra hour here, they would try and find somewhere for you to go and do it if you didn't know where you could fit it in' [Sophia, S, 264-267].

However, the participants did feel that being given the choice to undertake the award and it being offered as an option rather than compulsory was more effective in retaining sports leaders for longer;

'if people are just turning up because they have to be there then they are not going to... their willingness isn't there so it's not going carry on. But if people actually want to and they get enjoyment from it then they will carry on doing it.' [Jackie, PT, 755-757].

12.7 Opportunity

This category includes the causal conditions which relate to whether individuals had the opportunity to access and undertake the SLUK awards or not. Clearly, this will have an impact on whether someone is likely to pursue an award, due to the fact that if they were not able to access the award programmes, it would be difficult for them to participate in sports leadership activities. The property and associated dimensions for opportunity are outlined in Table 22 below.

Table 22: Properties and dimensions for causal condition: Opportunity

Category Title	Properties (Dimensions)
Opportunity	Availability (Awareness; Access; Funding)

Opportunity is characterised by a single property, availability, which is constructed of three dimensions.

12.7.1 Availability

Availability concerns the accessibility of the SLUK awards to individuals. Depending on their individual circumstances as explained in section 12.3.2 micro factors, the awards and related opportunities will be more available for some than others. For all of the participants interviewed, availability of the award programmes was high, due to the fact that they all engaged with the SLUK awards. However, there were differences in the availability of subsequent sports leadership opportunities following engagement with the awards between the leaders. Availability refers to three concepts; awareness, access and funding.

Awareness

Awareness refers to the participants understanding and knowledge about the existence of awards and subsequent opportunities for sports leadership. For those in full-time education, the institution provided participants with the awareness to the awards, as they were in some instances offered to those pupils who were pursuing particular sport and PE based qualifications; *'I took up the course through my school, who actually offered it through physical education so that was part of the course'* [Kyle, TPh, 6-7]. For others, information regarding the SLUK awards was given to pupils for them to choose whether to explore further; *'I think it was in a school assembly we had. It was offered out to our school year, and it was sort of sporty based so we were encouraged to get some information on it and go from there.'* [Josh, RA, 5-7]. However, for those participants not in education, gaining awareness of the presence of the awards was more difficult to come by and was by word of mouth;

'My son was doing sports and also doing a little bit of coaching as well. Um, so he got me involved basically. He let me know all the information I needed to know because it wasn't out there. There's no information from the job centre or anything like that. So the community [link] he then introduced me to Layla, which I didn't know anything about before and I just went from there then' [Patrick, CSC, 46-50].

This lack of wider awareness could therefore impact on some suitable leaders not engaging with the awards;

'...what's on offer and the general knowledge of the public then there's the breakdown between that process, then the people that might be great for the role might not be getting the information' [Josh, RA, 225-227].

Access

Whilst representing a similar concept to awareness, access refers more to the practicalities and logistics of accessing the SLUK awards and leadership opportunities, rather than simply possessing the knowledge. The leaders suggested that there difficulties of accessing awards for those individuals outside of an education institution;

‘there are people who I know are a lot older than myself who are with me in University and say, “well how did you get that [Sports Leaders Award]? Where did you do that? Well I was never given that”, and they are 25, 26 years old. “I want to do that.” So they’ve obviously... because they can’t... they’re not in school they are missing the opportunity’ [Ollie, S, 650-653].

Those interviewed also felt that other leadership and volunteering opportunities are not too easy to access either and this could be improved;

‘I think if there was somewhere where you’ve got a bit more, sort of easy access to which sports clubs and what are available and what time and someone to contact from the club, so you can help make the opportunity and the access easier for people to get more involved’ [Holly, S, 387-390].

Funding

This final dimension concerns the cost of SLUK awards and the availability of financial support for individuals to access the courses. For many undertaking an SLUK award through their school, college or Local Authority, the cost of the course was covered by the school; *‘I think funding is a big thing when it comes to it. Cos like I was lucky, I had my courses funded for me. But I know there is a lot of people that don’t’* [Lucy, S, 393-394]. For others, they either had to pay the whole cost or contribute to the award; *‘basically you paid, I think it was something like £35, I can’t remember what it was, and then basically you got a certificate to go with your CV’*. [Jay, S, 67-69]. Leaders

suggested that for some people deciding to pursue the award in a compulsory capacity, it was a potential waste of money as they were not likely to continue leading or even finish the award; *'it seems like a lot of money is being wasted on people that don't care. So I think it would be better to have as an option'* [Jackie, PT, 501-502], so the alternative could be to charge participants but if they complete the award then they are reimbursed, which is what happened for Lucy;

'With like the CSLA was £50. They asked us to pay. But then, once the course had been completed they ripped up the cheques and gave the cheques back to us. So they weren't accepted. Just so that they knew that we were doing the course' [Lucy, S, 398-400].

However, the nature of providing funding for people may result in more people being able to access the award, particularly those who are not currently in education; *'if people weren't in education then money might be a sway from them doing it, but if it's funded then the majority of people would usually go for it anyway.'* [Jackie, PT, 235-237].

12.8 Intervening Factors and Interactions/Actions

This next section will describe the intervening factors which influence the interactions/actions of the phenomena, and the interactions/actions themselves. The intervening conditions 'act to either facilitate or constrain the action/interactional strategies taken within a specific context' (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Within this study, the intervening factors facilitate or constrain the extent to which an individual will engage with the SLUK awards and subsequent leadership related activities. The relationship between these two types of categories can be seen in Figure 53.

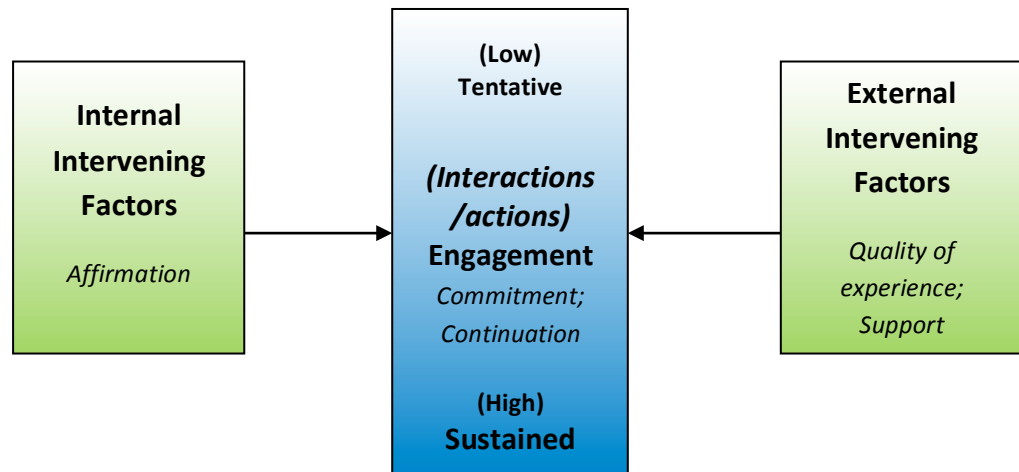


Figure 53: Section of the conceptual model containing interactions/actions and intervening conditions

To help explain the impact that the intervening factors have on the phenomena, first the interactions/actions will be introduced and discussed, followed by the intervening conditions.

12.9 Engagement

Engagement describes the interactions/actions or responses to the causal conditions of the leaders' motivations and opportunity. Leaders who possess an appropriate level of motivation to pursue an SLUK award, and are given the opportunity to undertake an award, are likely to therefore engage with the award programmes and associated activities. Engagement is a continuum which ranges from 'low' or 'tentative' engagement to 'high' or 'sustained' engagement. The extent to which the leaders engage with the awards is dependent on the causal and intervening conditions, and are influenced by both micro and macro factors. Engagement with the awards is

characterised by the properties of commitment and continuation, as presented in Table 23 below.

Table 23: Properties and dimensions for interaction/action: Engagement

Category Title	Properties (Dimensions)
Engagement	Commitment (Completion; voluntary experience; drop out) Continuation (Short-term; long-term)

12.9.1 Commitment

Commitment refers to the extent of dedication that the leaders show whilst pursuing the SLUK awards. Commitment is crucial in achieving sustained engagement in the awards and sports leadership long-term;

‘Some people’s heart just aren’t in it are they. And like when I was on the HSLA, there was some people on the course and they just thought all you had to do was the volunteering and everything, and you know, getting involved. Whereas there’s a lot of paperwork behind it as well... And like they didn’t want to do any of that. So they failed the course.’ [Lucy, S, 279-284].

Commitment has three dimensions: completion; voluntary experience and drop-out.

Completion

This dimension describes those leaders who achieved a high level of commitment to the awards and therefore, went on to complete one or more SLUK awards. Some leaders demonstrated a high commitment to the award programmes as indicated by their

progression through the different levels; *'then I went on my Sports leaders 1, my sports leaders 2 and I should be going on my sports leaders 3'* [Jeff, CSC, 17-18]. Extent of completion varied among leaders, with some not gaining the qualification, due to factors such as time constraints, other commitments or lack of interest in parts of the course;

'Because you had all that other work going on, but it was like come on! You've got to fill your log book out, you've got to do this... it was tedious. And that's why I didn't actually pass my HSLA. Because I did all the hours, but it was just when they set a deadline to do the work, I was doing all my other work and completely forgot' [Jay, S, 42-45].

Voluntary Experience

This dimension concerns the amount and type of voluntary experience that the leaders undertook as part of their SLUK award. For the participants interviewed, completing their voluntary hours was an extremely positive part of the awards with many going above and beyond the required number of hours; *'I think I did something like 350 hours in my two years coaching so, I enjoyed it. It was something I enjoyed doing so I did quite a lot of it'*. [Holly, S, 29-30]. Leaders found value in the voluntary work and felt that they were directly making a difference to people's lives; *'I think it's making a difference like, making a difference to other people's lives, sort of... well you get enjoyment out of doing it anyway but making other people's enjoyment'* [Holly, S, 173-174], as well as boosting themselves individually;

'I'd tell them to do it because it is worthwhile. It brings a lot of things out in you that you didn't realise, like it can build your confidence and whatever. And it does look good as well to other people like on your CV and stuff'

[Sophia, S, 189-191].

The range and diversity of people who the leaders worked with during their voluntary hours was also highlighted as a positive;

‘Such as hospices, so elderly people, children with disability, just general schools as well. With each area you found different challenges but each was quite rewarding’ [Kyle, TPh, 222-223].

Drop Out

Drop out refers to situations where a leader drops out of an award during the programme. This may be before they have completed the voluntary hours or before they have completed the theory units of the course, as in Jay’s case; *‘the theoretical side, and the paperwork side, it bored me to tears... and that’s why I didn’t actually pass my HSLA.’* [Jay, S, 41-44]. Due to the sample used in this study, most interviewed had completed the awards, but had experience of others who had dropped out of the awards. Similarly, the leaders suggested that other dropped out due to the amount of paperwork associated with the awards;

‘there’s a lot of paperwork behind it as well. Like I probably wouldn’t have as much as some of the other people, but planning the sessions, and evaluating the sessions... when you think about it, it is quite a bit. And they didn’t want to do any of that. So they failed the course’. [Lucy, S, 281-284].

12.9.2 Continuation

This next property describes the extent to which sports leaders continue to be involved in sports leadership and associated activities following completion of the awards. These

associated activities might include volunteering, coaching, work experience or career choices which follow on from the SLUK awards in the sport, physical activity and health type industries. This property is characterised by two dimensions; short-term continuation and long-term continuation.

Short-term

For some leaders, whilst they were committed to the SLUK awards and successfully passed them, subsequent involvement in sports leadership activities was quite limited;

‘I went a slightly different path. But I mean sport stays like a massive part of my life and if I’m not playing something then I feel like I’m lost. But terms of actually using coaching skills and stuff like that I’m not in my day to day’. [Josh, RA, 408-410].

Reasons people gave for not continuing with sports leadership and volunteering were mainly lack of time and being unaware of local opportunities to volunteer;

‘it doesn’t really give me a lot of time to do other things, as well as doing my course and relaxing. So I think that’s one of the reasons I don’t do it [volunteering] now. I don’t really know the area as well’ [Holly, S, 154-156].

Long-term

For others, their continuation in sports leadership has been more sustained, through volunteering: *‘I suppose you could count it as volunteering because I help out a lot with the rowing club and I coach once a week down there for free’* [Jackie, PT, 453-454],

continued education; *'the degree that I am doing which is physiotherapy and the sort of field in physiotherapy which I wanted to go into was more sports based'* [Kyle, TPh, 34-36] and current job: *'I work in a sports centre now down Dutton as well... That's something else obviously from the sports leaders award, so yeah I've got full-time employment.'* [Patrick, CSC, 210-213]. This highlights the link between engagement in the SLUK awards and continued involvement in sports leadership for many leaders.

12.10 Intervening Factors

This next section will outline the intervening factors which may impact on the level of engagement with the SLUK awards for a leader. These intervening factors may either hinder a leader's engagement, which may therefore result in them dropping out or only engaging in sports leadership activities on a short term basis, or alternatively, these intervening factors may have a positive impact on the leader, therefore contributing to a sustained involvement in sports leadership and associated activities. The intervening factors are characterised by three properties; one which can be described as internal to the leader, and two which are external. These factors and their corresponding dimensions are outlined in Table 24 below.

Table 24: Properties and dimensions for intervening factors

Category Title	Properties (Dimensions)
Intervening Factors	<p><i>External</i></p> <p>Quality of Experience (Course delivery; skills of course tutor; balance of theory versus practical)</p> <p>Support (during course; after course)</p> <p><i>Internal</i></p> <p>Affirmation (fit with career plans; fit with personal goals; meeting expectations; clarifying uncertainties)</p>

Each of these intervening factors will now be discussed.

12.10.1 Quality of Experience

Quality of experience is an external intervening factor as it is relatively uncontrollable for the leader. This factor refers to the experience of the SLUK awards and associated activities that the leaders encounter. The more positive the experience of undertaking a sports leadership award, the more likely that an individual is to remain engaged long-term in sports leadership and volunteering. Quality of experience is characterised by three dimensions; course delivery, skills of the course tutor; and balance of theory vs practical.

Course delivery

This dimension describes the structure and approach used when delivering an SLUK course to potential leaders. Due to the nature of SLUK awards, there is a degree of

autonomy in the way that an award can be delivered, provided that the learning outcomes for each unit of the award are achieved. This therefore means that there can be slight variations in the way that different awards are delivered and subsequently, the leaders may encounter different experiences. As already mentioned in section 12.6.2, differences in course delivery included compulsory or voluntary participation which could affect leaders' motivations. In addition to this, differences in course delivery included the location and type of leadership experience which the leaders were involved in. For example, many of the participants interviewed lead sports sessions for their cluster primary schools, but on their own school site;

'we did it all on site anyway so everyone came to us. We never branched out anywhere; we didn't go to deliver sessions anywhere else because we obviously had an astroturf and swimming pool and everything like that, so they came to us.' [Jackie, PT, 533-535].

Others however assisted with the delivery of afterschool sessions in a primary school, and a few also volunteered in their local community; *'I went to like all the community centres and all them sort of groups. Cos that's where the activities were being run'* [Lucy, S, 730-731]. With regards to the location of their leadership experience, the leaders suggested that it was a big step to go from leading in the relatively familiar environment of a school, to assisting in a community setting;

'especially going out of the grounds, then that is a big step and especially into an environment with adults or children that they haven't been necessarily been around before may be a bit of a shock' [Jackie, PT, 536-538].

However, they agreed that this was the type of setting where more of a difference could be made for certain groups;

'I think if you can take like an HSLA project and make it broader and take it out into the community, I think then you know, I think then you'd be looking at achieving bigger things' [Rachel, S, 390-392].

With regards to impacting on a leader's level of engagement, courses which provide more of a focus on community based delivery to a range of participants can better prepare the leaders for working or volunteering in these environments and therefore may result in a more sustained involvement;

'...whereas community, it's like building relationships with people that aren't students, that's the big thing I sort of thought about. It was that the only way you are going to get successful is if you've got a good rapport with like the community. If you stay in your own friendship groups you are not going to have the communication skills as such when you go outside.' [Jay, S, 108-112].

This highlights the importance of providing SLUK courses which sufficiently prepare people to be able to confidently lead in a range of settings.

Skills of the course tutor

The skills and enthusiasm of the teacher or tutor delivering the course was found to have a big impact on the leaders' experience of the award programmes. Most of the leaders interviewed reported to have extremely effective course tutors, who motivated them and made the award extremely positive;

'I was really lucky I had a really charismatic leader who sort of coached us through and tutored us and helped and did the assessments and they were fantastic at actually getting the best out of us' [Josh, RA, 368-370].

However, where the course tutor was not perceived by the leaders as being competent, this had a huge impact on the leaders' perceptions of the award and subsequent unlikelihood of completion;

'...she [the course tutor] wasn't there, and to be fair, she was pretty useless anyway, so she didn't email these guys at all, so they were just like stuck in the middle of nowhere, so I'm not sure whether they are actually going to qualify for their HSLA award' [Rachel, S, 201-204].

The leaders also felt that the course tutor was also able to provide them with other opportunities to progress further in sports leadership and coaching;

'our assessor who was great, because she oversaw the whole sports leaders awards, and she was also coordinating a lot of the different courses that were running within the county. So it meant that you had a lot of other opportunities to develop your other sort of coaching qualifications and bits like that' [Josh, RA, 124-128].

Balance of theory versus practical

This dimension refers to the amount of theory and practical delivery provided in the SLUK awards. The balance of theory and practical content varies course to course, due to the flexibility given in course delivery. Therefore, some of the units can be achieved via practical delivery or classroom based theory. This factor has already been mentioned in section 12.9.1 as the theory side of the course was a reason that some people did not complete the award and could affect the extent to which leaders engage with them. However, some elements are inevitably theory based, and an important part of the awards, which the leaders understood; *'you always want to kind of go and do the*

practical stuff, but there's no point if you don't know the theory behind it, so you've kind of have to have it really' [Scott, SAC, 539-540] However, the leaders felt that they gained most from the practical elements;

'I think that it's [practical experience] more beneficial than some of the written activities that we get to do. I think that's a better, more productive way to spend your time. And I think you learn so much more - like I said earlier about on the job training - you learn so much more by going in and assisting your coach or the PE teachers in the schools than what you do sat in classroom' [Susie, S, 604-608].

The practical side of the course was for many, the reason that they decided to undertake an award. Furthermore, there was a concern among the leaders that for certain individuals who may not be strong academically, they may struggle to complete the higher awards due to the theory content;

'I guess maybe some of the classroom stuff, if somebody's not necessarily in education or not far out of it, they might find it a little bit tough... with sort of younger people and older people that haven't been in education for, you know, 10 to 20 years, they find it hard to relate to the sort of classroom based, paperwork stuff' [Scott, SAC, 528-533].

Therefore, there was a strong suggestion that more of an emphasis is placed on practical delivery if leaders are to be involved in leading or volunteering long-term;

'others who have had a slight negative experience from the HSLA who said, 'oh, maybe this isn't what I want to do, maybe I'll go and do something else', ... I certainly wanted to go down the direction of sport development, and

when I'm speaking to other people they say it's just not for me because like I said, there's too much paperwork' [Ollie, S, 195-199].

12.10.2 Support

This intervening factor refers to the help and advice which is given to the leaders from others. This support may be provided by peers, teachers, coaches or the course tutor, and may be practical, social or emotional in nature. Where leaders felt that they received sufficient support from others to continue with the SLUK awards, they were more likely to complete and sustain involvement. Support was found to be important both *during* the awards and after the award completion, which are the two dimensions for this intervening factor.

During the award

For the leaders interviewed, having support from others around them was important in helping them to complete the awards and take on new leadership challenges. Many sought help and advice from fellow leaders and teachers in school; *'we just really helped each other out and the teachers were also there at hand so if anyone was struggling then they could seek advice on how to manage their time better'* [Kyle, TPh, 120-122] while others gained considerable support from their course tutor or other sport officers;

'he [course tutor] was always on the phone if we needed him... And there were a couple of them that gave us their numbers. So if we needed them, because they all had their specific sports... And they weren't really even anything to do with us and they were still giving us support. So to know that

you have got that net to fall back on is a big thing for us.’ [Lucy, S, 313-319].

This suggests that having people around them to support them was important in helping to build and maintain the leaders’ confidence;

‘I found that that the teachers and the children were very encouraging. Like it kind of influenced my behaviour towards everyone like it brought out my personality a bit more. I felt comfortable in my environment, and my peers who I was working with, they made me feel comfortable working’ [Elen, S, 307-310].

After the award

The leaders also indicated that support provided after they had completed the award was important if they were to sustain involvement in the award. This was particularly true with regards to providing support for ongoing volunteering placements at Level 2;

‘HSLA you are kind of getting to grips with it that you know where to look for volunteering. But CSLA I wouldn’t be... I wasn’t really sure where to sort of start so to have that guidance was key really.’ [Rachel, S, 235-237].

Whilst most felt that they received sufficient support during the award, this was not the case for some following completion of the award;

‘afterwards when its [Level 3 award] finished, you kind of think, well where do I go now. There was no one there to say here you are, I’ll take you under my wing, and we’ll go and do a bit of everything. We’ll just get you geared up for future, but there really wasn’t any of that.’ [Ollie, S, 262-265].

This lack of direction following the award resulted in some leaving sports leadership behind, as they were unclear on the next step;

‘Maybe there could be more in terms of linking up, like, “what do I do with this award now?”. I mean, yeah it’s great, I’m really happy to have got it and got it on my CV, but it’s the next step I think that’s maybe missing. Like I didn’t have the information of what the next step was or could be. So then I kind of moved away from that and continued on my own career path sort of leaving that off to the side’ [Josh, RA, 426-431].

12.10.3 Affirmation

Affirmation refers to the connection or ‘fit’ that the awards pathway has with the leader’s own career or personal goals. For some, undertaking the award was confirmation that this was a potential future career to pursue, and for some, the awards acted as a filtering system in which leaders were able to more specifically identify what they did and did not want to pursue in the future. Where the awards had a stronger affinity to the leader’s goals and expectations, they were more likely to complete the awards and continue their involvement in leadership, either on a voluntary basis or via a career pathway. Affirmation is characterised by four dimensions: fit with career plans; fit with personal goals; meeting expectations; clarifying uncertainties.

Fit with career plans

Where the SLUK award programmes were closely aligned with a leader’s career plans, then it was likely that they would complete the award and continue to sustain involvement in sports leadership and associated activities; *‘I think it’s more career driven, but then at that time in my life, sport was everything I was doing, so as far as I knew that was what I looking to do later in life. That’s why I was grabbing it from that point of view.’ [Josh, RA, 265-267].* For some, undertaking the awards also helped the

leaders to focus on what they did want to do career-wise, as it opened up new possibilities and career pathways that they were otherwise unaware of previously;

'because I want to be a PE teacher, the working in primary schools, working with special needs, and working within the secondary schools as well, has really honed in on what I want to do as a PE teacher. Like, I know full well that I want to work secondary. But I've had the experience to work primary too, and I know that I'm ok at that, but that's not where my skills lie. My skills lie at secondary school level.' [Susie, S, 100-104].

Fit with personal goals

In addition to fitting with career aspirations, where the award programmes connected well with the leaders' personal goals and values, then they were more likely to continue following a sports leadership pathway;

'I didn't want to like leave sport behind. I wanted to stay in there but because I was hurt I couldn't play. So I thought if I could coach someone then at least I could help someone even if it's only one person. To help someone is better than no one.' [Lucy, S, 35-38].

For the leaders, sports leadership was a way in which they felt that they could do something to help others and achieve certain personal goals;

'it's also good to give something back rather than take all the time, like I said I was on the dole for years. And yeah, it does get you down into that rut. But it is really good to give something back to the community' [Patrick, CSC, 90-92].

Where the awards provided an outlet for the leaders to achieve certain personal goals, they were more likely to continue their involvement.

Meeting Expectations

This factor refers to whether the leaders' experiences of the awards lived up to their initial expectations. Where their experience fell short of their expectations, continued engagement was less likely. For the majority of leaders interviewed, their experiences lived up to their expectations, hence the reason that they completed the awards. For some however, they felt that certain elements of the course or their experience did not meet their expectations, and therefore their engagement was not sustained. Elements of the award programmes which did not live up to expectations included the amount of theory work and not enough practical experience; *'they were expecting a lot of, you know, hands on stuff and coaching, like actual delivering'* [Ollie, S, 87-88] and the lack of support or signposting following completion of the awards, particularly at Level 3;

'I've been a bit disappointed really because whether I, I don't feel I've let people down, but I feel as though I'm a bit of a waste, because I've done all those things and I've enjoyed them all and I think well where's it all gone?'
[Ollie, S, 754-757].

Clarifying uncertainties

This final dimension concerns the extent to which the awards help leaders to make sense of uncertainties in their lives, whether this is personal, career or education related. Depending on how the awards helped leaders to clarify uncertainties in their lives, influenced their likelihood of sustaining their involvement in sports leadership. For some, engaging in the SLUK awards, their experience of working in certain situations enabled them to identify where their own strengths and interests lay;

'Like when I was working with reception kids they got a bit like.... It was a Friday afternoon so some were a bit hyper and ...I think it was like my

second time there and it was a bit like, do I really want to be doing this if they are going to be like this every week'. [Sophia, S, 296-301].

For others, involvement in the SLUK awards helped them to clarify career pathways which they were not clear of before;

'before I did the CSLA... sport wasn't something that I thought well, I'm going to take a route down that. I played sport but it really boosted my confidence to say, oh, this could be a really good. career path, then after the CSLA I was really wanting to go and do teaching schools. But then, when I did the HSLA, it was like... Sport Development, that's what I want to do, and I've just had my mind set on that since'. [Ollie, S, 175-181].

These intervening factors therefore have a huge influence on the extent to which leaders pursuing an SLUK award are likely to engage longer term. If leaders have a positive experience of a number of these intervening factors, for example, the awards fit well with their career goals, they have plenty of ongoing support from others and their experiences of the awards meet their expectations, then it may be that this leader has sustained engagement with sports leadership and volunteering. The next section will examine the final part of the conceptual model, which explains the potential outcomes or consequences which result from engagement in the SLUK awards.

12.11 Consequences

This final section describes the consequences or outcomes of the phenomena. Consequences “answer the questions about what happened as a result of those interactions/actions” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008: 89). In this conceptual model, the consequences are the outcomes which may occur as a result of a leader's engagement in

the SLUK awards. Whilst these consequences are a result of the conditions and subsequent interactions/actions, the relationships are rarely linear and predictable, due to the complex nature of these relationships (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Figure 54 presents the corresponding section of the conceptual model which shows the relationship between engagement in the award (interaction/action) and the possible consequences or outcomes.

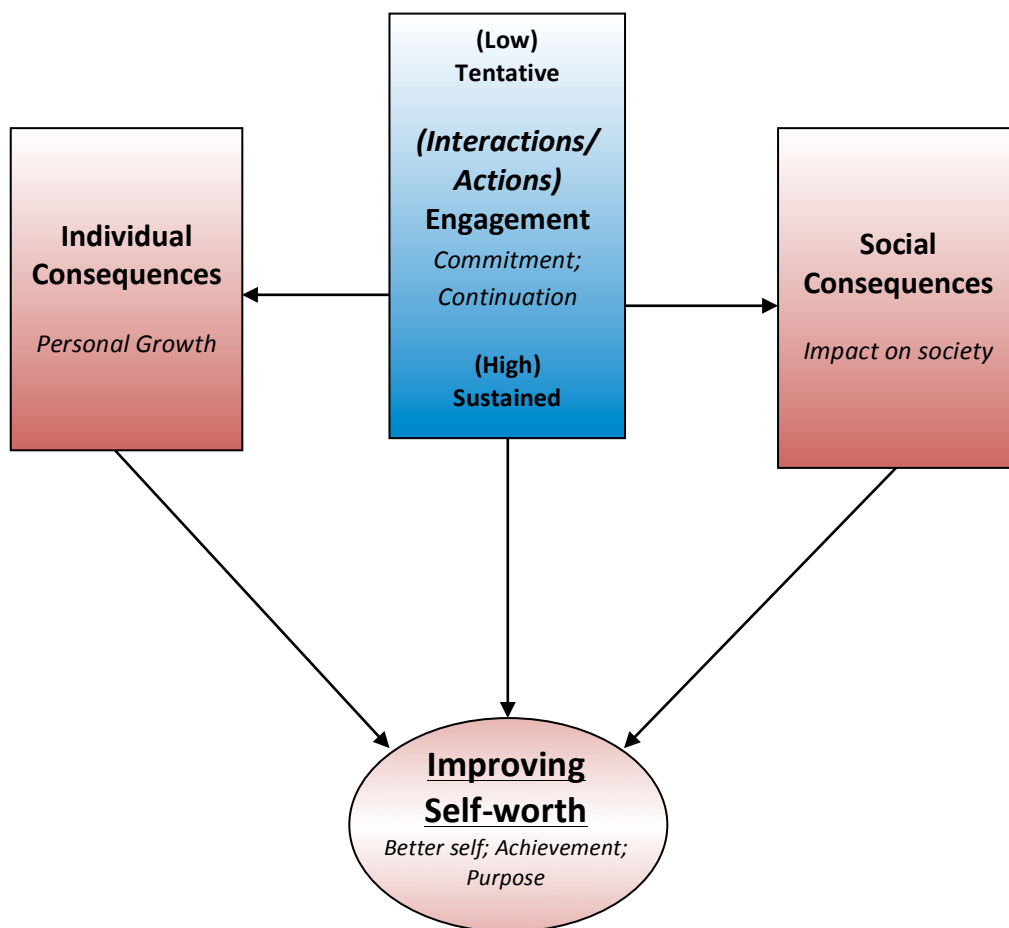


Figure 54: Section of the conceptual model containing consequences/outcomes

Two types of consequences were found to result from engagement in the SLUK awards: Individual consequences which are personal and internal to the leaders; and social consequences, which are external to the leader. As can be seen in Figure 54, there is a causal relationship between engagement in the awards and the subsequent consequences, as indicated by the presence of arrows. Similarly, there is a causal

relationship between engagement and consequences, and the core category – improving self-worth. The more sustained a leader’s involvement in sports leadership, the more significant the consequences are likely to be. Similarly, more sustained involvement in sports leadership and more significant consequences are likely to result in more significant feelings of improved self-worth. Each of the consequences identified in the research will be explained next, including their properties and dimensions which are outlined in Table 25.

Table 25: Properties and dimensions for consequences

Category Title	Properties (Dimensions)
Individual Consequences	Personal Growth (Skill development; career progression; ‘opening doors’; placing self at advantage)
Social Consequences	Impact on Society (Developing sport; improving health and wellbeing; community engagement; impact on others; leadership lifecycle)

12.11.1 Individual Consequences – Personal Growth

This property refers to the personal development that the leaders gain as a result of engaging with the SLUK awards. Leaders suggest that they ‘grow’ as individuals, as a consequence of undertaking the awards and their experiences of being a leader in their local community. Personal growth is characterised by four dimensions: skill development, career progression, ‘opening doors’ and placing self at an advantage.

Skill development

This describes the attainment of new skills or the growth of existing skills that the leaders possess as a result of their engagement with the SLUK awards. The skills which were reported by the leaders as being developed included: communication skills, teamwork, adaptability, time management and organisational skills;

'you could go on the big reel of adjectives. I think it [sports leadership] definitely brings in the whole teamwork, and acceptability, responsibility, communication etc. etc. that you could bring into it' [Jackie, PT, 489-491].

For some, the awards equipped the leaders with a range of skills which enabled them to take on new challenges;

'Sort of leadership skills which I never knew I had really before, as I had never been a leader prior to the actual awards, so it just put me in a completely new situation out of my comfort zone. I was able to sort of flourish' [Kyle, TPh, 42-45],

whilst for others, the awards helped them to hone existing skills; *'I think I already had the majority of them [skills] anyway, but it... they [the awards] helped'* [Jay, S, 483].

For one leader interviewed, undertaking the award even helped them to develop their basic literacy skills; *'it's helped me a little bit with my reading and writing as well, which I never had much help with before'* [Patrick, CSC, 81-82].

The leaders also suggested that the practical nature of the SLUK awards gave them the opportunity to apply the skills that they had;

'with HSLA especially, you sort of like you have to put yourself out there and work with people of different abilities, ages, everything. So I kind of got a much broader understanding of how to apply my skills to suit different

people's needs and stuff like that.' [Rachel, S, 43-46].

This was particularly important for the majority of the leaders who were at the stage in their lives where they were embarking on new careers.

Finally, the leaders suggested that the awards enabled them to develop a range of generic skills which can be transferred to other careers and areas of their lives.

'Sports Leaders gave me the experience to transfer those leadership skills into more of a sort of business role, like what I am doing now, and other sorts of general team demographics, like how you fit into a team,' [Josh, RA, 163-166].

Due to the generic skill development that the awards can help instil, there was some suggestion that the SLUK awards could be used on a broader scale;

'I think it's easy to put sports leaders into a box and say it's just for sport, but I think a major success could come from actually opening it up and involving the whole sort of business element side of things. Because the examples that I have gained from it and the experience that I have gained from it, I'm using for major business opportunities and applications and interviews and stuff like that. It's the same skills, just in a different situation.' [Josh, RA, 487-492].

Career progression

This describes the extent to which the leaders feel that the SLUK awards can help to progress their own careers. Some leaders suggested that their involvement in sports leadership was a significant influence in them gaining a place at University;

'I know the only reason I got into Brightshire, because obviously I did a BTEC I didn't do any A levels... but it was just all the other extracurricular stuff that I had done ... but somehow they picked me for it, so I guess it [Level 3 award] does obviously serve a purpose.' [Jackie, PT, 366-372].

Others stated that undertaking the awards lead to them being given job offers; *'I've been offered a full-time job with sport Craddock, which that's amazing like. I would never have done that otherwise if I hadn't done the courses'* [Lucy, S, 254-256], whilst others suggested that the awards directly impacted on them gaining employment in the sports industry;

'Like I work in a sports centre now down Dutton as well. So that was a good stepping stone for me as well. That's something else obviously from the sports leaders award, so yeah I've got full-time employment' [Patrick, CSC, 210-213].

For the leaders, being involved in the SLUK awards exposed them to other career pathways which they were able to consider as possible career pathways; *'after a couple of different events that I did, I would come out of it thinking, maybe I want to go into doing sports coaching all the time. Or becoming an SS Co full time'* [Rory, S, 353-355]. For some, they had such a positive experience of undertaking the awards that they have altered their career path to pursue a teaching or sport development related role;

'I've been rethinking it [career] a bit after the HSLA stuff because you know, I wouldn't be able to work with kids and as broad a spectrum of people in a job like the RAF job that I'm looking at, so it's kind of made me rethink teaching a lot more.' [Rachel, S, 177-180].

‘Opening doors’

This dimension of personal growth is an ‘in vivo’ code, as the phrase ‘opening doors’ has been taken directly from an interviewee’s words (Corbin and Strauss, 2008) but accurately represents the notion that the SLUK awards can provide opportunities for people;

‘I’ve seen people that may well be from different backgrounds, but still have the skill sets to be able deliver within this role, and it[SLUK awards] may open the doors for them to actually decide to pursue like a career in sports development or anything like that’ [Josh, RA, 336-339].

Due to the nature of the Sports Leader UK awards, opportunities which were given to the leaders tended to sport-related, such as being given the opportunity to volunteer at the Paralympic World Cup;

‘the basketball section of the Paralympic World Cup, so we had access all areas, we were doing filming, we were like speaking to all of the international athletes, working with their coaches, it was awesome’ [Susie, S, 92-94];

and the UK School Games and British Transplant Games;

‘I think that some of the skills which I have learnt from this have obviously gone a lot into what I have done. And from this I have also been able to take up the UK School Games, the British Transplant Games’ [Kyle, TPh, 488-490].

Other opportunities which were given to the leaders following engagement in the SLUK awards, included further professional development, such as coach education courses and referees and officials courses;

‘with the HSLA you got about 10 things on there [CV], from like I have basketball level 1, rugby tag leaders, working with disabled performers, the list goes on. Other things that they offer you through that, that is fantastic... you were open to do all these different things, like I can do rugby, I can do a refereeing course you know’. [Ollie, S, 314-316].

Similarly, involvement in the awards lead to further volunteering work, which in turn enabled leaders to access paid work;

‘it sort of opens you with opportunities like through um, the one I did I got some work at the council, voluntarily. But the next year I was actually working for the council doing sort of like a play scheme in the holidays, as a permanent job sort of thing’ [Holly, S, 245-247].

Finally, the addition of UCAS points with the Level 3 was also seen as opening up opportunities; *‘HSLA it’s also got UCAS points attached to it, so it helped with getting into uni, and it opens up more options and stuff for you’* [Susie, S, 29-30].

Placing self at an advantage

This final characteristic of the consequence personal growth, refers to the leaders’ ability to gain a competitive edge in various situations that they may encounter, such as job positions and university places. As a result of their experiences and increased skill level, the leaders interviewed felt that the SLUK awards helped them to gain an advantage over other individuals;

‘To say that you’ve done like HSLA and CSLA and done like the extra through that like the volunteering that you’ve had to do, it makes you look like a more rounded, dedicated person, which may put you above someone else in the same situation like’. [Holly, S 362-364].

This was particularly the case with the work experience that the leaders undertook as part of the awards;

‘in terms of it [the award], it gives you experience. Like a lot now jobs are based on competencies where you have to provide real life examples and I think a lot of kids that are coming out of schools now they will not be having that kind of actual real life experience to be able to fill in those questions properly, and so that’s what I am finding at the moment is really helping me’ [Josh, RA, 59-62].

Volunteering was also seen as something which gave the leaders’ a competitive advantage over others;

‘voluntary hours is something that does sell yourself on a CV and if I want to get a job later on, if I’ve done 120, 200 hours of voluntary work, compared to someone who has done 30 hours of voluntary work but has been paid, that’s going to sell me, because of my commitment’ [Jay, S, 323-326].

The leaders therefore suggested that volunteering was absolutely essential in gaining that work experience for jobs;

‘You have to [volunteer]. To get where you want to be. I would never have got a job at Wormsley football club without volunteering there first. And I think, especially in the sport world, a lot of people, appreciate you more if you’ve done voluntary work. They look at you in a different light’ [Ciaran, CSC, 152-155].

For the leaders who were therefore looking at pursuing future careers in sport, they saw volunteering as very positive;

‘it’s fantastic. It gives people experience like for free. You’re not paid to volunteer, but if you turn it around, yeah, you’re not getting paid to do the

work, but at the same time, you are getting free experience’. [Josh, RA, 210-212].

12.11.2 Social Consequences – Impact on Society

This category describes the outcomes or consequences which impact on areas of society, beyond the leader themselves. For example, as a consequence of the SLUK awards being delivered, one of the knock-on effects could be that more young people are participating in sport;

‘it comes back down to the grassroots of the people who aren’t doing enough exercise. And by giving people something to look forward to like coaching, or whatever, or leading sports... then, the more people doing it and the more people who are going to take part’ [Ollie, 727-730].

Impact on society is characterised by five dimensions; developing sport; improving health and wellbeing; community engagement; impact on others; leadership lifecycle, each of which will now be discussed.

Developing Sport

The first dimension of impact on society concerns the potential ways in which the SLUK awards may directly or indirectly contribute towards the development of sport. In particular, the leaders interviewed suggested that the awards can contribute to the development of community and grassroots sport;

‘I suppose like organising more events, and making people aware that they are there, they are supporting the grassroots, the lower levels because if

there's no grassroots participation sport will just die, because that's where everyone comes from.' [Jay, S, 334-337].

In particular, the leaders suggested that a key area where the awards can make a difference is in helping to increase levels of participation in sport and physical activity;

'I think they [SLUK] are trying to get more people into the coaching /leadership side so there is more people, so then there can be more participation and more things for different like smaller groups or... I think just trying to get more people participating on every level really.' [Holly, S, 309-312].

This suggests that through the awards, new leaders can lead new sessions which therefore can increase the number of people participating in the sessions. Certainly, some leaders said that if they had not been delivering their sessions, the participants would not have otherwise had that opportunity to participate;

'the teachers weren't able to deliver it so I was delivering it for them for free, and because their school hadn't got the money to pay me, if I hadn't volunteered to do it then those children wouldn't have had that hour and skill and enjoyment' [Holly, S 177-179].

The leaders also felt that if grassroots sport was not catered for with regards to having enough leaders and volunteers leading sessions, then this would impact on more elite levels of sport in the UK;

'if people stopped doing it then, you know sport at grassroots level would stop, which I guess in turn means that you know, professional sport or representative sport will come to and end' [Scott, SAC, 198-200].

This therefore suggests that the SLUK awards can potentially impact on the development of sport at both the grassroots and elite ends of the sporting spectrum.

Improving Health and Wellbeing

The leaders interviewed suggested that the SLUK awards can impact on health and wellbeing of people. Through the delivery of additional sessions in the communities as a result of the awards, participation in sport and physical activity can help tackle health problems such as obesity;

‘with obesity being as big in the country at the moment, I think SLUK can have a massive influence on... at the grassroots level, the amount of actual exercise that people do. Because if people can get sessions which kids really enjoy doing and want to be there, then it will help make them more active, therefore helping reduce the obesity’ [Holly, S, 268-272].

Similarly, leading and volunteering in the community can help improve the wellbeing of the leader;

‘the wellbeing of doing this work is totally different to driving lorries. For number one, you are sat there all day long. Alright, so you are eating the wrong types of food. You are getting up [early] in the morning so you are tired and lethargic and you don’t know if you are coming or going. With this job [leading], at least you are out in the open you are running around with young people. Quality of life is better’ [Jeff, CSC, 339-343].

One leader even suggested that the potential long-term, indirect effect of having more leaders working in the community, is the reduced burden on the NHS; *‘If they are out*

volunteering or even just playing sport then if they are active they are going to lose weight and not be obese. Help the NHS'. [Sophia, S, 364-366].

Community Engagement

Community engagement refers to the ways in which the SLUK awards can help engage with people in local communities and help to build relationships; *'Actually making a difference in your community which they'll feel part of it. There's a big drive at the moment working on building communities and neighbourhoods'. [Josh, RA, 287-289].* There was a particular belief that the awards can be used to help impact more deprived communities;

'in not so privileged parts it is quite difficult, but I think if people were willing to volunteer, I think that will really bring the whole society together, and sort of develop relationships within societies as well so I think that might be really helpful as well.' [Kyle, TPh, 318-320].

One key aspect of communities which the leaders interviewed suggested could be improved was that of antisocial behaviour, by providing activities for young people to become involved in;

'getting kids off the street would be another thing that springs to mind. Sort of getting them into something useful rather than hanging around on a corner somewhere or you know, causing a nuisance to residents or people that live in that area. Trying to sort of channel that existing energy, into something useful or worthwhile' [Scott, SAC, 410-414].

Finally, the leaders felt that the presence of the SLUK can help to maximise the use of community facilities in certain areas;

'I suppose the other benefit would be, you know if there are community centres or anything like that that are just not being used for anything, then

that get some usage. It kind of highlights to the rest of the area that this is here, this is what benefit it can bring to you if you take advantage of it'
[Scott, SAC, 453-456].

This can in turn provide a focal point for the community and the awards.

Impact on others

The awards provided a means by which a variety of other different people were either inspired, motivated or impacted upon. For example, one leader was directly affected by the SLUK awards, as being able to undertake the award 'changed' his life for the better;

'Literally I was stuck on the dole for years. I didn't have no education really, reading and writing is terrible. So basically I started off on that [the awards]. Confidence was really low after being on the dole for so long and they chucked me a lifeline basically, from a community link. They give me the opportunity' [Patrick, CSC, 43-46].

Whilst this has impacted directly on the leader, the effects of creating employment for Patrick has a far wider-reaching impact on society with regards to employment figures, benefit payments and the wellbeing of individuals, which could be replicated with others. Since undertaking the SLUK awards, some of the leaders have become more involved in community development work, aimed at improving the lives of others;

'I work with the inclusion unit, on the verge of being excluded from schools. And I work with what we call 'fusion', which is a drug and alcohol awareness so I get them guys to come over here and we'll have a game with the positive futures and get them linked into playing sport.... I also work with the youth offending team' [Jeff, CSC, 245-251].

SLUK can therefore help to provide alternative opportunities for young people who are at risk;

‘So I think inclusion of youth, sort of going off the rails definitely. Helping the community, actually sort of... you’re setting up schemes for people to get involved in, so you give opportunities for other people to actually come and take part’ [Josh, RA, 348-350].

From a different perspective, those interviewed suggested that the leaders can help to engage disengaged people who do not participate in sport, by involving them in alternative ways;

‘a lot of people are disengaged in sport these days, get them involved in sport in um a different way. So instead of having them sat out on the sidelines, the non-doers and stuff, they’re up and they’re getting involved and they are coaching the teams and they are doing the warm-ups and all that sort of stuff, even though they not actually participating’ [Susie, S, 704-708].

Leadership lifecycle

This final dimension of impact on society concerns the ongoing cycle of leadership. This refers to the notion that a consequence of engagement with the SLUK awards may be the recruitment of new leaders who have been inspired to undertake the awards. Within the conceptual model (Figure 51) the leadership lifecycle is represented by an arrow which connects Social Consequences back to the causal condition; Opportunity. This section of the conceptual model can be seen in Figure 55 below. Therefore, these potential leaders who have been inspired or recruited, will enter into the conceptual

model at the top, and provided they have the motivation and opportunity to pursue an award, they will follow a similar leadership journey through the model.

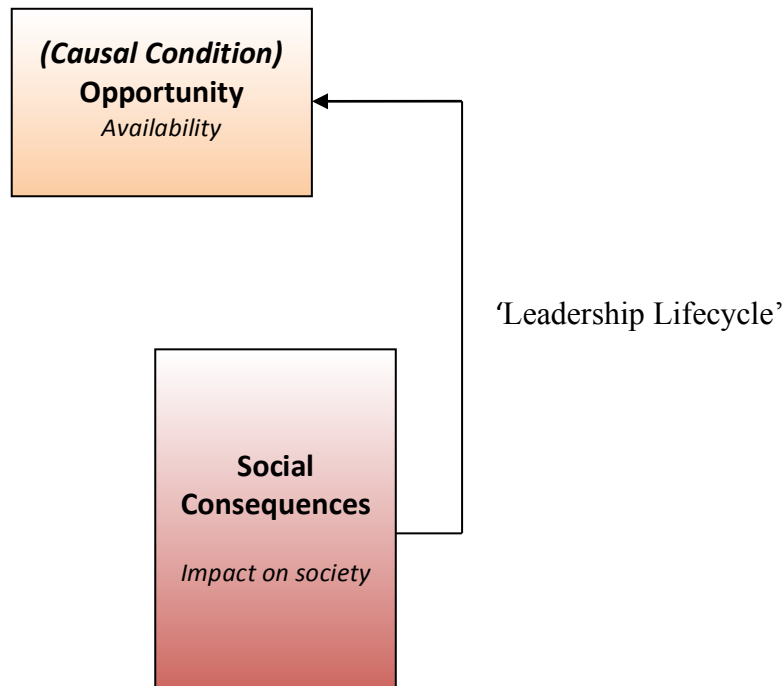


Figure 55: Section of the conceptual model illustrating the link between social consequences and the causal condition opportunity, which represents the leadership lifecycle

This situation may occur as a result of leaders who are currently working in the community inspiring the next generation of young leaders; *'I think as well if people when they are young get to be coached by leaders, it may inspire them to do the same when they are at the age when they can do it'* [Holly, S, 277-278]. Encouraging young people to take on leadership and coaching roles was seen as a satisfying part of the leader's role;

'from speaking personally you kind of see the effort that people put into you so its nice to be able to continue that cycle to hopefully like get somebody

further up the scale in terms of performance or even get somebody else involved in coaching.’ [Scott, SAC, 208-211].

However, some of the leaders felt that it was challenging to recruit new leaders and volunteers today;

‘They [participants] can become leaders and then it will be a tiered effect.

So they should be bringing people through, but I just think it’s not happening at the moment. It’s that brick wall there somewhere. And I can’t put my finger on it, I wish I could!’ [Jeff, CSC, 199-210].

12.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the results from the final qualitative phase of the research. The qualitative component set out to address research questions 2 and 3, and enhance the findings from the first two quantitative phases (see Chapters 10 and 11). Analysis of the interview data has resulted in the development of a conceptual model consisting of categories which are interlinked to help explain the phenomena under investigation. Through the processes of intervening factors, causal conditions and the subsequent consequences, conclusions can be drawn regarding the impact of SLUK awards on the career development of the leaders and on the development of sport and other community outcomes. Key findings from this study have suggested that leaders who undertake the SLUK awards develop a strong feeling of ‘self-worth’ which was identified as the core category in the conceptual model. This finding suggested that as a result of this increased self-worth, leaders reported increased confidence, purpose and a sense of achievement which impacted on other areas of their life, including their career progression. This concept will be discussed further in chapters 13 and 14 of the thesis.

This chapter concludes Part 3 of the thesis, and in Part 4, we now turn our attention to the discussion of these findings.

PART 4

This final part of the thesis will present a discussion of the research findings and conclusions drawn from the research. Part 4 is split into three sections.

Chapter 13 will provide a discussion of the findings and how they have answered each of the research questions in order as presented at the outset of the study. Attention is also focused on the findings of the research in relation to current literature in the area of sports development and leadership and the wider social role of sport. To conclude this chapter, an integrated discussion will be provided which pulls together the findings from each phase.

Chapter 14 presents the conclusions of the research study and discuss how the findings contribute to new knowledge. Finally Chapter 15 discusses implications of the research from both a policy and practice perspective, which will also include recommendations for future delivery and reflections on the research process.

Chapter 13

Discussion

13.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an examination of the findings of the research. The chapter is split into four sections. The first three sections provide a review of the findings in relation to each of the research questions and key themes, as presented at the outset of the thesis. Each section concludes with an overview and summary which highlights the key findings. The final part of the chapter brings the main findings from each research phase together as an integrated discussion of the study as a whole.

13.1 Socio-demographic factors

This section provides a discussion of the associations between leaders' socio-demographic factors and award completion as was addressed by study 1 of the project (outlined below in Table 26). Therefore, this section will discuss the variables which showed interesting associations with whether leaders completed or registered for the level 2 and 3 SLUK awards.

Table 26: Overview of research question 1 and associated study phase

Research Question 1	Research Phase
<i>What socio-demographic factors are associated with whether candidates register for, engage with or complete a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award?</i>	Phase 1(Quantitative) – Analysis of Sports Leaders UK candidate database

(Please refer back to Chapter 6 for Phase 1 methods and Chapter 9 for Phase 1 results.)

13.1.1 Age & Gender

The first phase of the study presented an analysis of the candidate data over a 5 year period and included 76,179 data entries. Of this total, 90.7% were aged between 16-23 years, which indicates that SLUK currently have a heavy skew towards training young people, particularly those who are in education (90.2%). This is mainly due to the fact that schools and colleges represent a ‘captive’ audience who can be easily engaged in the awards. Similarly, schools and colleges, particularly in England, have been able to provide students with more vocational courses in addition to the more academic routes (Hodgson and Spours, 2007). This is also supported by the finding for Model 3, which indicates that an increase in the age of a leader is associated with a lower likelihood of them choosing to register for a level 3 award (OR=0.73, 95% C.I=0.68-0.79, $P=0.000$), suggesting that young people are more likely to get the opportunity to access this award. However, changes may be afoot with the Department for Education lowering the value of many vocational qualifications in schools in an attempt to ensure that only courses that are beneficial for further career progression are offered to young people (Department of Education, 2012). These policy changes may therefore see a reduction in the number of schools choosing to offer SLUK awards as options for their pupils in future years, resulting in a different age demographic. Certainly, SLUK have expressed a future commitment to engaging with a wider range of people through their Foundation work (Sports Leaders UK, 2011d).

Of the whole sample, there were a slightly higher percentage of males who registered to undertake an SLUK award (59.2%). For level 3 award completions this figure rose to 69.7% males, which suggests that despite the awards being offered to all, more males are engaging with the awards. Indeed, this finding is further supported by the BLR result for Model 3 which shows that males are 1.67 times more likely to register for a

level 3 award following completion of the level 2 award compared to females. This supports previous research which suggests that males are more likely to volunteer in sport compared to females (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). One explanation for why this is the case was proposed by Schroeder (1995) who suggested that people tend to volunteer for activities that are perceived to coincide with their gender. However, the BLR finding for Model 1 indicates that females are slightly more likely to complete a Level 2 award than males (OR=0.90, 95% C.I=0.87-0.92, $P=0.000$). This therefore corresponds with previous research which has produced mixed findings with regards to gender and levels of volunteering (Gaskin, 1998) or equal participation across the sexes (Eley and Kirk, 2002). Furthermore, this finding could provide some support to the notion that girls perform better compared to boys with regards to achievement at secondary school level (Sutherland, 1999), particularly as the majority of Level 2 awards are delivered to this age group within the school setting.

13.1.2 Disability & Ethnicity

The number of candidates included in the sample who had stated that they have a disability was only 302 leaders, which represents 0.4% of the total sample. According to the Office for National Statistics (2011), the percentage of people of economically active age (16-64 years) who were registered as having a disability that limits their daily activities (DDA) is approximately 18.3% (7.1 million people). Of these people, 45.6% were found to be employed in some form or another. This therefore indicates that the number of people with a disability who are accessing SLUK awards is under-represented. Furthermore, those leaders with a disability were found to be less likely to complete the level 2 award compared to people with no disability (OR=0.76, 95% C.I=0.60-0.96, $P=0.021$). This finding supports previous research which indicates that

people with disabilities are underrepresented in volunteering and participation in sport (Wickens *et al.*, 2009; Collins and Kay, 2003). Nevertheless, SLUK are actively trying to engage more with people with disabilities through the development of an inclusion resource for tutors, in a bid to make the awards more accessible for these groups (Sports Leaders UK, 2012).

With regards to ethnicity, 89.5% of the total sample was white. This is comparable to UK populations based on the 2001 Census, which found that 91.9% of the UK population were white, and mirrors reported socio-demographic data for community volunteers elsewhere in the literature (Eley and Kirk, 2002; Kay and Bradbury, 2009). This suggests that the number of ethnic minorities accessing the SLUK awards (10.5% of candidates) is proportional to UK populations which contradicts previous findings that ethnic minorities are under-represented in volunteering and sport (Wickens *et al.*, 2009; Collins and Kay, 2003; Kitchen *et al.*, 2005). Nevertheless, there is some recognition that these population estimates may now be out of date since mid-2006 estimates suggest that the percentage of Black and Ethnic Minorities (BME) in the UK had risen to 13% (Wickens *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, research evaluating targeted interventions such as the Millennium Volunteers programme has suggested that such initiatives have been successful in recruiting people from a range of ethnic backgrounds (Davis Smith, *et al.*, 2002). Despite this, the BLR results for Model 1 indicated that those with a Black (African), Black (Other), Indian or 'Other' ethnic background were less likely to complete a Level 2 award compared to someone who is categorised as White. One explanation for why ethnic minorities are less likely to complete the Level 2 award has been proposed by Kitchen *et al.* (2005) who suggest that participation rates for voluntary activity is lower among people who are born outside the UK, possibly as a result of cultural differences.

13.1.3 Occupation

Occupation was found to have a significant association with the outcome variable ‘completion of Level 2 award’ for Model 1 and ‘registration for Level 3 award’ for Model 3. The likelihood of completing a Level 2 award was found to be reduced for candidates who were employed (either full-time or part-time) or unemployed, compared to those who were in full-time education (see Model 1, section 10.3). Furthermore, full-time education accounted for 89.1% of the sample, which could be explained by the large number of leadership award courses being delivered through schools and colleges, particularly for the Level 2 award. One possible explanation for why candidates are more likely to complete the award if they are in full-time education may be due to the fact that the awards are delivered as part of their education (e.g. GCSE or A Level qualification) which therefore places extra pressure on those leaders to complete. The findings from the qualitative strand further support this assumption, as proposed in the category of choice of participation (section 12.6.2). This causal condition proposes that for some of the leaders, they were not given a choice in whether they wanted to complete the award or not, which therefore resulted in many successfully completing the award despite the fact that subsequently some may not sustain their leadership or volunteering role after this point.

For Model 3 (registration of the Level 3 award), being employed full-time was found to have a positive association with the outcome variable. Specifically, those candidates who were employed full-time were found to be 6.75 times more likely to register for a Level 3 award compared to those in full-time education. Furthermore, frequencies for full-time employment were highest for ‘registering for’ and ‘completing’ the Level 3 award as illustrated in Model 4 (section 10.6). This may be due to the fact that the Level

3 award is delivered by establishments that are outside of education (e.g. Voluntary Youth Organisations, Armed Forces, Local Authorities). Therefore, those who are in full-time education would be less likely to find out about and access courses delivered through these organisations. One possible explanation for why those candidates who are in full-time education are less likely to register for a Level 3 award following completion of a Level 2 award may again be down to the leaders' choice of participation in the awards. During the qualitative study, it was implied that many leaders chose not to pursue a Level 3 award following compulsory completion of the Level 2 as part of their education qualification. This matter of compulsory attendance as a reason for why a candidate may have undertaken a sports leadership award does not appear to have been examined closely in other literature on volunteering and sports leadership, but does pose questions about the apparent contradiction of 'compulsory volunteering'.

13.1.4 Centre Type

Centre type refers to the establishment within which candidates accessed the SLUK awards. 83.8% of the candidates undertook an award through either their school or college. Again, this supports the assumption that the majority of awards are education based and delivered as a 'closed' course for young people. Centre type was found to have a significant association to the outcome variable for all three BLR models. In particular, those who completed an award via their further education college were more likely to complete or register for an award across all three models. One possible explanation for this finding is that individuals undertaking an award through their college are most likely choosing to do so and as a result are motivated to complete the award and progress to the next stage. Certainly, those who are interested in sport or

wanting to enhance their CV at this stage in their career may be more likely to complete the awards and continue along the leadership pathway (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; Welch and Long, 2006; Eley and Kirk, 2002).

Looking more closely at Model 1 and predictor variables for completing the Level 2 award, those candidates who pursued an award through the prison service were found to be 2.35 times more likely to complete the award compared to those who undertook the award through a school. It could be argued that the prison establishment represent a captive audience of whom few have any qualifications or skills (HM Government, 2005). Moreover, prisons and youth offending institutions are expected to provide training and education programmes for prisoners in attempts to reduce recidivism (HM Government, 2005). Subsequently, this may provide a rationale for an increased likelihood of award completion for prison service courses. SLUK are also actively working with organisations such as Positive Futures to engage with people, particularly young people, who are at risk of committing a crime and therefore intervening before prison becomes a reality (Sports Leaders UK, 2010).

13.1.5 Volunteering Experience

Leaders who had previous volunteering experience were found to have a significant association with registration and completion of awards across all three models (see Chapter 10). In particular, those leaders who were found to be currently volunteering were more likely to complete or register for a subsequent award. The largest odds ratio was found in Model 3, where those leaders who were currently volunteering were 2.7 times more likely to register for the Level 3 award following successful completion of the Level 2 award, compared to those who were not. This is understandable, given that these leaders already have an interest in volunteering, possibly a regular volunteering

role, which means that they are able to meet the required 30 hours of voluntary experience needed to complete the Level 3 and therefore keen to progress with this next award. Furthermore, research has shown that volunteers of clubs are motivated to continue volunteering since they feel altruistic desires to help members within the club (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). This factor combined with the frequently cited motivation of CV building for young people (Gaskin, 2004; Low *et al.*, 2007), gives support to the notion that current volunteering is likely to lead to the attainment of further qualifications, particularly for young people.

13.1.6 Socio-economic and geographical background

The last two variables which were identified as potential predictors of successful award completion were the candidate's socioeconomic status as measured by the Townsend score, and whether they lived in a rural or urban location. For Model 1 (completion of the Level 2 award) neither predictor variable was found to be significant. This indicates that accessibility to the awards and subsequent completion is not dependent on where a candidate lives. This is reassuring for SLUK as it suggests that the awards at Level 2 are provided in locations which are easily accessible to all, and that people in more remote or deprived areas are not significantly less likely to complete an award compared to those who live in more urban or affluent areas. This contradicts findings from previous research into volunteers which suggest that those from more affluent backgrounds are more likely to volunteer (Attwood *et al.*, 2003; Davis Smith, 1998). Similarly, the findings contradict Collins (2003) who argues that poverty is at the core of social exclusion, suggesting that those from more deprived areas are more likely to be excluded from sport and other activities. However, the findings from this research do support more recent research into young people's volunteering through 'V', who found

that the organisation has been successful in engaging with young people from poorer, more deprived backgrounds (NatCen, 2010; 2011). Nevertheless, the current research does not provide any indication as to whether people from affluent backgrounds are more likely to continue volunteering in the future.

Furthermore, socioeconomic status was not found to be significant for any of the three models (see Chapter 10). This again is surprising given the previous research into the area, but is nonetheless encouraging for SLUK who is actively trying to engage with a wider range of people including those from more hard to reach areas (Sports Leaders UK, 2011d). However, urban and rural classification was found to be a significant predictor variable for both registering for (Model 3) and completing (Model 2) a Level 3 award. Specifically, it was found that candidates who live in an urban area are 1.52 times more likely to register for a Level 3 award, and 1.43 times more likely to complete the Level 3 compared to those who live in a rural area. This may be due to the location in which the Level 3 courses are run, which may result in some more rurally located individuals having difficulty accessing them. Factors such as distance to facilities, lack of transport (particularly for young people) and cost of travelling to access facilities and opportunities such as a sports leadership award, may deter such individuals from pursuing certain activities (Collins, 2003; Matthews *et al.*, 2000). In addition to accessing the course itself, leaders at Level 3 are required to complete 30 hours of voluntary leadership experience, which again may present difficulties if the leaders is to travel to a suitable place to volunteer. Therefore, these findings could suggest that there is a need to offer courses in more remote locations if SLUK wants to engage with more difficult to reach populations.

Summarising this section, it is apparent that a number of independent variables are significant predictors of sports leadership award progression. This may help SLUK and

other similar organisations to identify associations between certain characteristics of leaders and likelihood of award completion. Whilst the use of binary logistic regression does not indicate direction of cause (i.e. one cannot be clear that volunteering currently results in award completion, as it may be the case that award completion results in current volunteering behaviour), it is able to illustrate the extent to which variables are associated. It is evident that volunteering experience appears to have a strong association with award completion and progression, as does the centre type, where the course was delivered. Socio-economic status was not a significant predictor variable of award completion which was surprising given the previous literature into the area of sport and volunteering (e.g. Collins, 2003; Davis-Smith, 1998; Attwood *et al.*, 2003). However, this finding supports more recent research which suggests programmes and interventions are having an increasing impact at engaging with a wider range of people (NatCen, 2011). The next section will build on these findings and discuss the results which sought to answer research question 2.

13.2 Impact on personal and career development of the leaders

This next section provides a discussion of the impact of the SLUK awards on the leaders' career development. This was addressed both quantitative and qualitative approaches in studies 2 and 3 and provides some evidence to answer research question 2 (see Table 27 below).

Table 27: Overview of research question 2 and associated study phases

Research Question 2	Research Phase
<i>What perceived impact does engaging with a Sports Leaders UK Level 2 or 3 award have on the personal and career development of the sports leaders?</i>	Phase 2 (Quantitative) – Survey of sports leaders Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Sports leader interviews

(Please refer back Chapters 7 and 8 for Phase 2 and 3 methods and Chapters 11 and 12 for Phase 2 and 3 results.)

For clarity, this section will be split into different parts, according to the various elements of the leaders' career and personal development, which include: skills and personal development; new opportunities; educational development; and career progression.

13.2.1 Skills and Personal Development

A key outcome from engaging in the SLUK awards was found to be the personal development of the leaders (see chapter 12). The core category identified in the conceptual model was that of increased self-worth for those engaging with the awards. This category was found to embody characteristics such as increased confidence, self-esteem and realising own potential. The more positive their experiences of being involved in sports leadership, the greater the leaders' perceived feelings of self-worth appeared to be. Research into similar interventions and sports volunteering programmes have reported comparable results, particularly in reporting increased confidence and self-esteem in participants as a result of engaging in such schemes (e.g. Obare and Nichols, 2001; Astbury *et al.*, 2005; Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; NatCen, 2011). SLUK also state that their awards can provide people with “a sense of self-worth and empowerment not otherwise available to them” (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a: 5).

Self-worth was found to be an outcome and a process of sports leadership. In other words, those who engaged with the SLUK awards reported increased feelings of self-worth as a result of their involvement. Moreover, self-worth was found to be a process since greater feelings of self-worth consequently led to increased engagement in the award pathway and volunteering (i.e. a cyclical process). This too has been found to be the case in other projects, where through engagement with leadership and volunteering, people become more aware of their community, their own role in developing that community and a commitment to continue (Eley and Kirk, 2002; NatCen, 2011).

Developing skills such as leadership skills, organisational skills, communication and teamwork were reported as important outcomes for the sports leaders following engagement with the awards. Developing leadership skills was also found to be a widely reported motivation for pursuing a SLUK award from the survey findings (see Chapter 11). Particularly for young people, the improvements of these skills are crucial for their career development, irrespective of their chosen career path. Kay and Bradbury (2009) also found that the improvement of skills such as these were widely reported by community sports volunteers, particularly those who had completed more than 100 hours of volunteering in a range of venues. Whilst these skills are important for volunteering and coaching type roles, perhaps more important is the generic requirement of basic skills which are transferrable and fundamental in many different jobs (Loehr, 2005). Leaders interviewed recognised the importance of developing transferrable skills and many stated that the SLUK awards were an effective vehicle for helping to develop these skills. However, the extent to which the leaders interviewed already had these skills prior to engagement with the awards (i.e. some stated that they were already confident, which was a reason they chose to pursue an award) is difficult to state, since no pre-award interviews were conducted.

13.2.2 New opportunities

The opportunities and new experiences which became available to the leaders as a result of engaging with sports leadership and volunteering, were widely reported during the interviews (see Chapter 12). Being given the opportunity to progress with volunteering opportunities, work in more diverse roles, or being offered paid work were all examples of how the awards were the catalyst to further personal and career development. Central to this concept was the notion that engaging with the awards allowed a certain level of ‘networking’ to occur between leaders and others, therefore resulting in a greater understanding and awareness of opportunities available. This was particularly evident during the interviews with regards to career opportunities, as young people appear to have limited knowledge of the range of careers in sport and other industries that are available to them. This was also found to be the case for volunteering opportunities as the SLUK awards provided a mechanism which ‘opened doors’ to a range of volunteering and work prospects. This finding supports previous research examining barriers to volunteering, which suggest that a lack of knowledge or awareness of opportunities is a major barrier to getting involved (Gaskin, 1998; 2004; Attwood *et al.*, 2003; Low *et al.*, 2007). Central to being given new opportunities was the role of a significant tutor or mentor who assisted and supported the leaders in taking on new experiences and progressing. Gaskin (1998) referred to such people as ‘gatekeepers’ who were key in relaying information to people about ways of getting involved. Similarly, the findings showed that the need for ongoing support from tutors or mentors was found to be extremely important for guiding young volunteers towards achieving personal goals, such as qualifications or a career. This substantiates claims made by previous research that strong relationships between staff and participants is important in

helping to retain high commitment levels to volunteer and other interventions (Astbury *et al.*, 2005; Nichols, 1997; Bloyce and Smith, 2010). For SLUK, this appears to be something which varies widely according to the course delivered and the tutor or teacher involved, as findings from this research were mixed with respect to the level of support which leaders felt they received.

13.2.3 Education Development

Education development refers to the ways in which the leaders' felt that their engagement in sports leadership helped with furthering their education. A key component of the Level 3 SLUK award is the inclusion of 30 UCAS points. Leaders valued the attainment of these UCAS points which for some, was a significant factor in them achieving a place at University. For some candidates being offered the opportunity to undertake the awards whilst at college or sixth form, the additional UCAS points was the deciding factor in pursuing the awards. Furthermore, the survey results showed that nearly half of respondents (47.3%) who had registered for a Level 3 award were in full-time education at University. This supports research which indicates that gaining qualifications and building their CV is a key motivator for deciding to volunteer or take on leadership roles in the community (Clary, Snyder *et al.*, 1998; Eley and Kirk, 2002; Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; Obare and Nichols, 2001). Interestingly, the desire to pursue a degree following completion of an SLUK award was not isolated to those leaders at the younger age bracket. The qualitative results indicated that being involved in the sports leadership awards appeared to be a catalyst for leaders opting to pursue further educational qualifications such as degrees or teaching qualifications. Furthermore, the experience of working in the community and the commitment demonstrated by leaders who have volunteered was found to be useful in University applications. This appears to

be particularly important for over-subscribed or popular courses, such as sport-related degrees where additional work experience or qualifications can provide a competitive edge for certain applicants over those who are simply relying on admission based on their A-Level results (UCAS, 2012).

In addition to furthering academic careers, sports leaders suggested that being involved in sports leadership and volunteering encouraged them to pursue further vocational qualifications such as coaching awards, first aid courses and officiating courses. This desire to continue with gaining further qualifications and training is supported by ‘V’ (2011) who also found that ‘V’ volunteers were given the opportunity to gain further qualifications. Indeed, the survey results from study two indicated that 81.9% of respondents possessed coaching or instructor qualifications in addition to their SLUK award. These additional qualifications did however tend to be sport related, but included both coaching and officiating awards, in addition to more generic qualifications such as first aid. Certainly, young people do appear to place high importance on gaining as many qualifications for their CV as they can (Gaskin, 2004; Kay and Bradbury, 2009).

13.2.4 Career Progression

The impact of the SLUK awards on the leaders’ career progression is central to research question 2. Findings from phases 1 and 2 of the research suggested that leaders who had undertaken a SLUK Level 2 or 3 award felt that their experiences had impacted positively on their careers. From a sports industry perspective, an encouraging finding was that of the number of leaders who since completing an SLUK award, had decided to pursue a career in a sports-related area. Survey results showed that 49.3% of respondents were working in a sports related industry and 89.2% had previously undertaken a sport related academic qualification. These findings may not be surprising

however, given the fact that leaders interviewed suggested that the awards were offered as part of their PE courses at either school or college. Furthermore, these leaders expressed a personal interest in sport which is likely to have been a catalyst in their decision to complete an award. Survey results for what motivated respondents to pursue the awards indicated that the sport-based content was a key motivator, with 98.6% stating that they either ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ with this statement (see Chapter 11). The fact that the awards are sport-based was also found to be a strong motivator for young people to get involved in volunteering in other research (Eley and Kirk, 2002; Astbury *et al.*, 2005; Lee *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, the SLUK awards may provide an opportunity to gain appropriate qualifications and work experience necessary to successful career progression in the sport industry.

The inclusion of relevant work experience throughout the sports leadership pathway was also regarded as highly important to successful career progression. Survey results indicated that the awards were perceived as more useful in providing appropriate experience for a career in sport or coaching over a career in teaching. Over 80% of respondents strongly agreed that gaining relevant experience for a career in sport was a key motivation for them in pursuing the Level 3 award. Results from the qualitative phase supported these findings, as leaders stated that gaining experience or working in the industry was extremely important in obtaining job positions. They felt that work experience was as important as qualifications on their CV and job applications, and it also helped in placing themselves at an advantage over other candidates. Furthermore, gaining a wide range of skills and experience which could be transferrable across a number of different careers was also seen as a positive outcome of the awards. These benefits of such leadership awards and volunteering placements have been reported in similar studies, particularly for young people (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; Loehr, 2005; Low *et al.*, 2007; NatCen, 2011). Interestingly, one recent report (D’Souza *et al.*, 2011)

suggested that the potential career benefits associated with volunteering are likely to be less important to older people. However, findings from this research suggest that this is not always the case, as some of the leaders interviewed were over 35 years old but were keen to gain further qualifications and work experience through their involvement in the awards, as a means to either reduce the need for state benefit and gain employment or in assisting with a career change. This may particularly be true in the current financial climate where redundancy is forcing people to retrain and change careers.

Being given the opportunity for work experience was also beneficial to the leaders as it gave them an accurate idea of what a related career would involve. Qualitative results showed that leading young people gave sports leaders a good insight into coaching and teaching type roles. For some, this simply cemented their aims to pursue such careers, but for others, they were considering altering their career path to pursue a sport related career due to the positive experience that they had received. This is beneficial to young people in particular, as it can open their eyes to what such jobs would involve, whether they are suited to such roles and therefore act as an early filtering system which identifies those who are committed to working in sport and their community.

The most significant finding which suggests that the SLUK awards can impact on leaders' career progression is the finding that leaders interviewed suggested that their involvement in the awards led to them either being offered or actually securing full-time employment. Leaders saw the sports leadership awards as the first rung of the ladder which resulted in employment in a sport or leisure related role. Whilst this may not have been a direct link, the awards appeared to act as a conduit by which networks, relationships and personal growth developed, resulting in the leader being in the right place to accept a job role when the opportunity arose. Positive Futures programmes have seen similar results regarding employment of their young people, claiming that the

work of the organisation has facilitated these successes (Lee *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, ‘V’ demonstrated an increase in the number of young people gaining employment following volunteering through the organisation (NatCen, 2011). However, due to their data collection methods, they are unable to ascertain a link between the young people’s involvement with ‘V’ activities and their subsequent employment.

From this research, it appears that SLUK provides a package which can help people to develop confidence and self-esteem, attain skills and qualifications, and gain appropriate work experience, which all contribute to enabling even the most hard to reach people (for example, interviewee Patrick) to achieve their potential. However, it is also important to recognise the importance of other factors presented in the conceptual model such as support, further opportunities and commitment, which will determine the extent to which sports leaders are able to obtain future employment.

13.3 Impact of sports leadership on sport and community outcomes.

This section pulls together the findings that provide evidence for the impact of sports leadership on the development of sport and community outcomes. Through this part of the chapter, both quantitative and qualitative approaches in studies 2 and 3 will be discussed which set out to answer research question 3 (see Table 28 below).

Research Question 2	Research Phase
‘What perceived impact does sports leadership have on the development of sport and wider community outcomes, from the perspective of the sports leaders?’	Phase 2 (Quantitative) – Survey of sports leaders Phase 3 (Qualitative) – Sports leader interviews

Table 28: Overview of research question 3 and associated study phases

As with the previous section which discussed the impact of the awards on career and personal development of the leaders (see section 13.2), this section will be separated into different parts to aid the reader. The sections will examine the following components of sport and other community outcomes: developing sport; improving health and wellbeing; and enhancing communities.

13.3.1 Developing sport

This first section discusses the impact that the SLUK awards were found to have on the development of sport in the UK, from the perceptions of the leaders themselves. The objective of developing sport, particularly at the community and grassroots level, is a core aim of SLUK. Findings from the interviews suggested that leaders felt that they were directly contributing to develop sporting opportunities at the participation levels, particularly in primary schools, which is where volunteers have been found to play a significant role (Taylor *et al.*, 2003). For some leaders, it appeared that the sporting sessions that they were delivering were of a higher standard to that which primary school teachers are able to deliver, due to the leaders' skills, knowledge and interest in the sport. This is interesting given the fact that government funding over the past decade has made attempts to improve the quality of PE and extra-curricular sporting provision, predominantly in primary schools (Bergsgard *et al.*, 2007). Nonetheless, leaders experienced primary teachers who lacked the confidence and expertise to deliver certain sports, thus the leaders took a lead in ensuring these sessions took place.

Volunteers such as sports leaders have been found to benefit sport in three ways: by contributing to players' technical improvement; motivating and inspiring young players to continue participating; and attracting new players to the sessions (Sport Wales, 2010a; Gaskin, 2008). Findings from this research supported each of these elements; in

particular being able to motivate and inspire young players through providing fun activities across a wide range of sports. Leaders felt that their presence at sessions provided a fresh approach to extracurricular clubs which enthused the young people who were taking part. In addition to this, some leaders saw that they were responsible for increasing the awareness of sporting opportunities that are available to young people, such as signposting players to community club sessions outside of school. This highlights the contribution that sports leaders can play in helping to develop school-club links; a key focus of current sport policy (Sport England, 2008; DCMS, 2002).

Whilst sports leaders recognised that their role was predominantly to engage with young people and get them involved in simply participating in sport, some leaders were involved with leading and coaching at a higher level - such as clubs, academies and regional teams - indicating that they were helping to develop sport across the continuum. Furthermore, through additional opportunities presented to a number of the sports leaders as a consequence of their involvement with the SLUK awards, they were playing important volunteer roles in major sporting competitions such as the UK School Games, the British Transplant Games, and the Paralympic World Cup. This echoes the value that was placed on volunteers in ensuring that the London 2012 Olympics was a success, stating at the outset that the Games will 'rely' on these volunteers (DCMS, 2010: 10).

Sports leadership can also make a significant contribution to developing sport due to the increasing levels of leaders and volunteers being deployed within sport. Sports leaders interviewed indicated that fairly large cohorts of leaders were being trained up within their schools, particularly at Level 2. This is supported by the findings from Phase 1 of the research which showed that over 76,000 leaders registered for a Level 2 or 3 award, and overall, SLUK claim that over 200,000 leaders register for one of their awards each

year (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). Whilst this is a relatively small percentage of the 5.8 million volunteers who contribute to sport in the UK (Taylor *et al.*, 2003), leaders interviewed stated that the awards were an important first step to moving onto more significant volunteering roles in the community. Survey results also indicated that 45.1% of respondents were still volunteering at the time of the survey, with the majority volunteering in community sports clubs (56.3%). This again, is encouraging as there is a need for volunteers within community clubs and this result suggests that young people are taking on volunteering roles within their local clubs (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Sport Wales, 2010a).

13.3.2 Improving health and wellbeing

Sports leadership can play a role in contributing to the wider health benefits associated with participating in sport and physical activity. For some non-participants, sport is not viewed as a health gain but rather is seen as a risky activity which can result in injury and embarrassment (Robson and McKenna, 2008). However, sports leaders interviewed spoke about the growing range of sports and activities which they are able to lead in schools, which have a strong emphasis on fun and safety, therefore suggesting that they were able to engage with a wider range of young people who would not normally take part in traditional sports. Research has shown that there has been a shift in the type of activities being offered in schools and the community as a means by which to encourage non-participants to participate more frequently (Bloyce and Smith, 2010; Sport Wales, 2011). Consequently, leaders recognised the importance of being physically active in order to retain a healthy lifestyle. They suggested that the sessions they were delivering in schools were in addition to the existing sporting provision, therefore increasing the amount of physical activity that young people are participating in. Interestingly, there

was suggestion that in some instances, schools were not providing the minimum two hours of compulsory PE, particularly in primary schools (DfES, 2003). As a result, leaders indicated that the session which they were delivering was the only hour of physical activity that those children were receiving. Whilst there is some evidence to suggest that the number of schools providing at least 2 hours of PE a week is increasing year on year and stood at 96% of primary schools in 2007 (TNS, 2007), the findings of this research lays doubt as to whether all schools are sustaining these levels of provision.

The findings suggested that leaders felt they were contributing to lowering levels of obesity, particularly for children and young people. Those interviewed suggested that through providing additional sporting opportunities in schools and the community, young people attending those sessions would be more physically active, thus reducing the chances of obesity. Furthermore, leaders recognised the importance of the recommendations for physical activity levels for children (5 times 60 minutes), and felt that in some instances they themselves were responsible for providing one or two of these occurrences. Some leaders interviewed were also assisting in the delivery of initiatives such as '5x60' (Sport Wales, 2011) and were therefore a key component in these schemes being delivered. One sports leader even went as far to suggest that indirectly, sports leadership is helping the NHS, given that physical inactivity places an extreme burden on the NHS, with the direct cost of obesity estimated to be in the region of £1m (Collins, 2009). In addition to lowering obesity levels, findings suggested that wider health and wellbeing benefits could be achieved through the delivery of SLUK awards and the subsequent sessions, such as improved social and physical development, healthy lifestyles and greater understanding of the importance of healthy choices. These benefits of physical activity have been reiterated by other research (Collins, 2009; Bailey, 2006; Robson and McKenna, 2008; Mountjoy *et al.*, 2011; Almond, 2010).

From the leaders' perspective, involvement in the awards was highlighted as improving the wellbeing of those undertaking the awards. One leader interviewed who had made a career change pursuing a role as a community sports coach, spoke of how his lifestyle since completing the sports leadership awards has greatly enhanced his health and wellbeing, both physically and mentally. Spending much of his day outside being active and helping people in his local community were aspects of being a sports leader which had given him a better quality of life, compared to his old job as a long distance lorry driver. Furthermore, the awards provided him with the confidence and self-esteem to continue progressing in his current career pathway and continue seeing the wellbeing benefits of adopting a particular path in life. Indeed, in order to make a change in life such as adopting a more physically active way of life, self-confidence has been found to be crucial (Robson and McKenna, 2008). This suggests that the SLUK awards can therefore be an effective tool for providing people with the confidence to take on a role which promotes better health and wellbeing, whether as a career or on a part-time, voluntary basis. However, it may also be the case that currently, SLUK is only attracting those who are already likely to lead a physically active lifestyle, since survey results indicated that 98.6% were motivated to undertake the awards given that they involved sport, suggesting they have a strong interest in it. In other research, prior interest has also been found to be a strong motivator for volunteering in sport (Eley and Kirk, 2002). Nevertheless, as one leader commented, SLUK may be able to attract new leaders and provide them with an opportunity for leisure time away from the stresses and strains of their busy lives and go some way in improving their personal well being.

13.3.3 Enhancing Communities

This final section discusses the findings of the research which concerns the impact of the SLUK awards on community development. Many factors influence the way in which communities function of which sport and volunteering have been reported to play crucial roles (Coalter, 2007). Findings suggest that leaders too feel that the SLUK awards can contribute to improving communities, particularly with regards to bringing people together. The sports leaders spoke of instances where they had provided new sporting opportunities to their local community in the form of sports festivals. In their view, these events helped to build relationships between people and give them something positive to get involved in. Previous research has touched on the power of physical activity, in that it can help to tackle isolation and improve well being through bringing communities together (Almond, 2010). Other projects aimed specifically at ensuring more isolated communities can access sport and physical activity are also reporting success in helping to build relationships across localities (Lee *et al.*, 2003; Street Games, 2011). Furthermore, some of these ‘doorstep’ programmes are incorporating SLUK awards into the work they do as a means by which to train local people.

Despite the lack of much empirical data to support claims, much research has suggested that sport can help to tackle social problems such as anti-social behaviour, particularly among young people (Nichols, 1997; Coalter, 2007; Hartmann, 2003, 2006; Lee *et al.*, 2003). Results from the qualitative study revealed that leaders also thought that sport can play an important role in helping to reduce nuisance behaviour in communities. Furthermore, they suggested that SLUK awards can assist in reducing anti-social behaviour via several means. Firstly, the increased availability of sporting opportunities in local areas as delivered by sports leaders can provide a welcome activity from the

boredom of some communities. Leaders suggested that if more activities are available which capture the interests of young people, then they are less likely to be causing problems elsewhere. Positive Futures have also seen that this tends to be true for many young people, as boredom is a menacing problem (Lee *et al.*, 2003). Secondly, sports leaders can become role models within local communities, particularly for young people, who therefore try to instil values such as respect and responsibility through encouraging them to take on sports leadership roles themselves. One leader spoke of how the SLUK awards can be used to channel the young people's energy into something more worthwhile away from negative behaviour. Similar theories have been offered which suggest that sporting interventions can otherwise engage at-risk adolescents, therefore reducing crime rates (Hartmann, 2006). Nevertheless, there is a need for more in depth research to examine the causality of such links but also the longer term benefits of such interventions.

In addition to reducing antisocial behaviour, there were significant findings which suggested that the SLUK awards can help to engage with people who have been excluded or disengaged from society. Leaders interviewed gave personal experiences of how they had helped to engage with young people who are following the wrong path in life and need some guidance and support. One leader for example, spoke of how getting involved with the awards gave him a 'lifeline'. He had no qualifications, had been on unemployment benefits for years and had extremely low self-esteem and confidence. Through his step-son he found out about volunteering in his community and the SLUK awards, which he decided to undertake. Subsequently, as he self reports, he is now happy, full of confidence and working full-time as a community sports coach, helping others like him in his local community. Whilst it is important to recognise that the SLUK awards are not solely responsible for creating this huge change in his life, leaders identified that the awards can be 'first stepping stone' to making those changes.

These findings help to provide support to existing claims in the literature in suggesting that sport and volunteering can be a powerful tool in improving peoples' lives (Coalter, 2007; Nichols, 1997; Crabbe, 2000; Sandford *et al.*, 2008). However, due to the complexities of social behaviour and inherent difficulties in establishing causal links between a reduction in anti-social behaviour and specific initiatives such as SLUK, it is important to focus on the process of such programmes rather than purely outcomes (Sandford *et al.*, 2008).

13.4 Integrated Discussion

This final section of this chapter will bring together key findings from the three phases of research. Given that the research design is mixed methods, it is important to now mix the quantitative and qualitative strands in order to demonstrate the process of enhancement; specifically how the final qualitative study builds on the initial two quantitative studies. This section also provides an opportunity to present some other key results which although are not directly concerned with answering the three research questions, were inherent in the research findings and do pose important questions about the work of SLUK and the role of sports leadership.

13.4.1 Enhancement through mixed methods

This section will discuss the findings which were explored in depth through the process of enhancement (Bryman, 2006), in which the latter research phases helped to build on findings gathered in the initial phases. Enhancement was best achieved in the final research phase which was the qualitative interviews. Due to the nature of qualitative research, in depth probing and analysis was possible which focused on specific

questions which were raised following the quantitative data analyses. Key findings in which greater depth and insight were achieved through the mixing of methods in this way included: the characteristics of leaders; importance of course type; understanding of volunteering behaviour; and extent of engagement. These will be discussed next.

13.4.2 Sports leaders characteristics

A range of characteristics were analysed across all three research phases. For most characteristics examined, results from studies 2 and 3 corroborated those found in study 1. With regards to age, findings from study 1 showed an overall average age of leaders in the database to be 21 years. Similarly, results from the survey gave an average age of respondents as 20.9 years and the average age of leaders interviewed for study 3 was 22.3 years. The interviews provided an opportunity to examine reasons behind this average age of sports leaders and qualitative findings suggested that the majority of people are accessing the SLUK awards through mainstream education at school, college or University. Leaders interviewed also did not think that there were the opportunities out there to undertake a SLUK award if you were not attached to an educational facility, which provides one explanation for the young age of leaders. These findings also corroborate volunteer research which suggests that the largest age group represented is 16-24 year olds (Low *et al.*, 2007; Gaskin, 2008; NatCen, 2011). Moreover, BLR results indicated that younger people were more likely to continue along the leadership pathway and progress onto the Level 3 award, as an increase in age showed a negative association with Level 3 registrations. However, it is important to note that while young people are more likely to volunteer, the roles that are adopted tend to be of less importance and tend to contribute to more minor activities within clubs, rather than taking on committee member roles (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Welch and Long, 2006).

Nevertheless, it is crucial that people are taking on volunteering roles such as coaching and leading to ensure that grassroots sport can continue to thrive.

There were some slight discrepancies in the findings relating to gender of sports leaders across the three phases. Study 1 indicated that 40% of leaders on the SLUK database were female. Survey results from study 2 demonstrated that 52% of respondents were female; a 12% higher proportion of females. However, caution is needed with the survey results due to the poor response rate, so results cannot necessarily be generalised. 43.8% of leaders interviewed in study 3 were female and qualitative results suggested that leaders thought there was a fairly even split with regards to sports leaders' gender, with both being as likely to pursue an award. Interestingly, BLR results showed differences in associations between gender and the likelihood of completing a Level 2 award (females more likely to complete than males) and the likelihood of registering for a Level 3 award (with males being 1.67 times more likely to register than females). Whilst these findings are a little inconsistent, they do support the wealth of literature on volunteering which presents mixed results with regards to gender differences (Gaskin, 2004). However, research into volunteering in sport specifically does appear to suggest that men are more likely than women to volunteer (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Skills Active 2005; Welch and Long, 2006), but others have argued that females tend to take up less important roles within sports clubs i.e. support volunteers, and rates of female students volunteering in sport is also high (Gaskin, 2008). Conclusions from this research do seem to indicate that SLUK are attracting a fairly even split of both males and females, which is encouraging for community sport.

Quantitative results from studies 1 and 2 for both ethnicity and disability corroborated each other and seemed to mirror the national averages. There was a slightly higher proportion of survey respondents with a disability (2.6%) compared to findings from

study 1 (0.4%), but again, caution needs to be taken with the survey results due to the extremely low response rate. Despite study 1 showing some interesting findings regarding associations between Level 2 award completion and both ethnicity and disability, possible reasons for these associations were not explored in depth in the latter research phases. More research perhaps needs to be undertaken to explore whether those individuals from different ethnic backgrounds or those with a disability find the awards accessible and a positive experience.

13.4.3 Course type

The type and location of course was found to be an interesting factor which was strongly associated with award completion. BLR results indicated that leaders undertaking an award through the prison service, youth service, LEA, FE college and Local Authority were more likely to complete the Level 2 award compared to those leaders who attended a course in a school. Reasons for why this might be were explored in the qualitative phase. Leaders interviewed suggested that those undertaking an award in a school may be less likely to complete, due to the circumstances under which they are pursuing the award. For many, the Level 2 award was integrated into their curriculum programmes such as BTEC or A Level sport courses. This therefore resulted in compulsory attendance of the award rather than candidates choosing to undertake an award. Leaders interviewed spoke from experience of others who had completed the theory aspect of the course due to the compulsory, curriculum-based nature of these sessions, but due to a lack of interest in leading or coaching they chose not to complete the voluntary leadership hours. For this reason a certain number did not complete the awards. Whilst one could argue that engaging with the award even to a small extent is beneficial as the leaders may learn useful, generic skills such as communication and

planning, from a community sport perspective there is little benefit. Community sport needs leaders on the ground delivering sports sessions and therefore one could argue that SLUK awards are best offered to those who *want* to pursue the course. Certainly, leaders interviewed suggested that those who were interested in leading and where the course affirmed their longer-term goals, then these leaders were far more likely to continue volunteering and leading in the community, beyond the requirements of the awards. This assumption was further corroborated by survey findings which showed that the fact that the award involved sport was a significant motivation for respondents in pursuing a sports leadership award. Indeed, previous research appears to emphasise the importance of personal interest in the activity for long-term volunteering and leading, particularly for young people (Eley and Kirk, 2002; Taylor *et al.*, 2003; D'Souza *et al.*, 2011). These findings therefore allude to a possible need for SLUK to consider how the awards are offered to individuals if they are to attract leaders who will be committed and motivated to continue leading and volunteering beyond award completion.

13.4.4 Volunteer behaviours

Prior experience of volunteering was found to have a strong association with award completion in the BLR analyses. In all three models, it was found that those leaders who were currently volunteering were more likely to either register or complete an award compared to those who were not. Of the total sample, just over half were recorded as having voluntary work experience (58.7%). Survey results presented slightly higher figures, with 73.2% of respondents stating that they had undertaken voluntary work in the past 6 months, with most of this voluntary experience taking place in either a school or a community sports club. It is perhaps not surprising that there is a positive

association between volunteering experience and award completion, since voluntary hours are a compulsory part of the SLUK award programmes. It is also important to note that the significant association found in the BLR analyses does not provide us with information regarding the direction of causality. In other words, whilst judgements can be made regarding which variables are shown to be making a significant contribution to the prediction to the outcome variable, it is not known whether volunteering experience *results* in award completion or vice versa (Pallant, 2010). What is known though is that there is a positive association between these two factors.

From a community sport perspective, what is perhaps important to know is the number of leaders continuing to volunteer following award completion. Whilst the quantitative analyses are unable to provide an insight into this, results from the qualitative strand explored this question in more depth. Findings suggested that those leaders who felt that the award programmes had a strong affinity to their own personal and career goals, they were more likely to firstly: engage with the awards and secondly: continue with their leadership involvement in the future. For some, this continued engagement was via career pathways in coaching and sports development related roles, and for others this continued involvement was through volunteering in sport. It was also found that key factors in the leaders' continued leadership in sport was an interest in sport itself and the desire to want to give something back to their community. The vast amount of previous research into volunteer motivations supports the idea that people choose to volunteer to help others out (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Gaskin, 2004; Cuskelly *et al.*, 2006; Davis Smith, 1998; NatCen, 2011). Similarly, a commonly cited motivation for choosing to volunteer or coach in sport is having an interest in that sport (Sport Wales, 2010a; Cuskelly *et al.*, 2006; Gaskin, 1998; 2008). However, for young people, a particular interest in pursuing a career in a sport related job appears to be a key motivation, since volunteering and leading in sport can provide them with a useful insight into the typical job roles and

more importantly, the work experience required for attaining future positions (Gaskin, 1998, 2008; Eley and Kirk, 2002; NatCen, 2011).

The qualitative findings also provided an interesting insight into leaders' perceptions of where they choose to volunteer. What was apparent from the interviews was the fact that the majority of leaders undertook their voluntary experience within either their own or a local primary school. Furthermore, these findings were corroborated by the survey results which indicated that a large proportion of the sample was at the time volunteering in their own school (34.4%), another school (21.9%) and a primary school (34.4%). Clearly here respondents were able to select a number of locations which were appropriate. Interviewees suggested that volunteering in their own school or a local primary school was convenient and something that was typically organised for them with the assistance of their tutor or teacher, particularly at the Level 2 award stage. There was some feeling that the step from volunteering in a primary school to then leading in a community sports club was quite a big step. Some felt that the support that they received from teachers and tutors helped them to take the step into the community environment away from the comfort of their schools, whilst others did not feel that they had the adequate support to assist them in this transition. From a community sport perspective, this is where support is needed for leader and volunteers to ensure that clubs have enough help from willing volunteers (Taylor et al., 2003). This presents a barrier to volunteers in the community, as leaders suggested that without the support of connected people they may not know where to go or who to contact with regards to volunteering outside of schools, and likewise, research indicates that club personnel do not know where to look (Welch and Long, 2006). This indicates that there needs to be some work done to help in joining up the links and pathways for leaders out of the school environment and into the community where they are needed. Indeed, word of

mouth and personal contacts appears to be the most common way in which volunteers in the community are recruited (Gaskin, 2008).

13.4.5 Extent of engagement

This final section draws together findings which are related to whether a leader commits to completing an award or not and the factors which play a role in impacting of the extent to which they are likely to engage. Among survey respondents and leaders interviewed, there appeared to be huge differences in the extent to which they committed to the award programmes and ongoing leadership. According to survey results, 17.6% indicated that despite registering for the Level 3 award, they did not go onto complete it. Further findings presented the reasons for this; of this 17.6% of the sample, it was found that 30.8% had completed the theory sections but not the voluntary experience, and interestingly, 30.8% had completed the voluntary work experience but not the theory units. This suggests that there are various reasons why people do not commit to completing an SLUK award. The reasons given in the survey included being too busy, having a lack of time, or that the leaders are currently in the process of completing the award. These findings align to volunteering research which commonly indicates that a lack of time is given as a reason for why people do not volunteer (Davis Smith, 1998; Gaskin, 2008; Low *et al.*, 2007; Welch and Long, 2006). Consequently, no survey respondents gave the answer of not feeling confident enough as a reason as to why they have not completed the awards, which is a reason that is often given for why people do not volunteer (Sport Wales, 2010a; Gaskin, 2004).

Interview findings enhanced the survey results by providing more in depth insight into why some leaders do not complete the awards. Qualitative results corroborated the survey findings and offered additional reasons for low levels of engagement. On the

whole, for those who did not complete the award, leaders appeared to be in one of two camps; either completing the theory only, or completing the voluntary hours only. For those who completed the theory only, this was perceived to be due to the fact that this part of the course was delivered as a compulsory part of the curriculum in schools. Therefore, leaders engaged with these units of the awards, but due to either lack of interest or not wanted to pursue a career in sport, they had no intention of voluntarily completing their leadership experience hours. Alternatively, those leaders who had a great deal of interest in the leadership and coaching side of the awards completed their voluntary hours and more, but felt that there was too much theory work with some subsequently not completing these parts of the awards. Whilst it is clear that there needs to be a balance in the content of the awards, particularly if they are to remain as national qualifications, SLUK do have a challenge in ensuring that those who are practical minded and keep to start volunteering and leading in their communities, are not dissuaded to undertake an award by the theory content involved.

Previous research has suggested that geographical location and socioeconomic status affect the likelihood of volunteering (Davis Smith, 1998; Attwood et al., 2003; Collins, 2003; Matthews et al., 2000). Results from this study contradicted much of this research since BLR analyses showed no significant associations between Townsend score and award completion. Survey results indicated a large spread in the location of respondents, indicating that Sports Leader UK is engaging with areas across the UK. However, BLR analyses did find that candidates who live in an urban area are more likely to register for and complete a Level 3 award compared to those who live in a rural area. This indicates that for the Level 3 perhaps the access and awareness of the awards are less evident. This finding was explored further in the qualitative study, which was able to provide more evidence regarding awareness and accessibility of the SLUK

awards, as this was envisaged as being important to the development of community sport.

Qualitative findings suggested that awareness and availability of the awards was a significant factor in whether someone is likely to pursue an award. This appeared to particularly the case outside of mainstream education. Leaders interviewed felt that those outside of education are unlikely to be able to access the awards, due to either lack of awareness that the awards exist, or due to the lack of 'open' courses on offer in communities. Indeed, one leader who found out about the awards via his step son felt that more needs to be done to market the awards to those who may be interested. Certainly, from his prior circumstances as unemployed, he suggested that there is more of a need to advertise voluntary positions and training courses at the job centres to help engage with people who are out of work. Without improving the awareness of the SLUK awards, it is likely that many suitable leaders are missed and not given the appropriate introduction into sports volunteering that the SLUK awards are able to provide. These findings do seem to echo the opinions of other research, which too indicates that information regarding volunteering opportunities is less accessible for those outside of an educational institution (Gaskin, 1998). Furthermore, a lack of knowledge regarding how and where to go to get involved has been suggested as a major barrier for potential volunteers (Attwood *et al.*, 2003; Gaskin, 1998, 2003, 2004). With a need for more volunteers in the community, SLUK have a role to play in ensuring that their awards become more accessible to those outside of education, and that communication links continue to grow between schools and community clubs. With the introduction of their new Foundation Body, the hope is that SLUK will soon be making inroads into developing this area of their business, which will in turn contribute to the development of community sport.

A range of intervening factors which were found to affect the extent to which leaders engaged with the award. These included: the level of support received during and after the award; the quality of their experience of the awards; and the degree of 'fit' of the award programmes with the leaders' personal and career goals. Receiving support was perceived as extremely important for the leaders in helping them to progress with the awards, identify volunteer placements and assisting the leaders in their continued development following the awards. For some, the support was sufficient in guiding them through the awards successfully and securing enjoyable volunteer placements. However, a common issue appeared to be the lack of guidance or support following the Level 3 award. Some leaders interviewed indicated that when they had finished the Level 3 award, which often appeared to coincide with leaving school or college, they felt that the next step was missing resulting in some dropping out of sports leadership or pursuing an alternative career path. This for some was a big disappointment, particularly when they had progressed through the three levels of the awards. It is well documented in sport strategies and policies that coach and volunteer recruitment and training tend to be the measures of success i.e. outputs rather than outcomes of having more coaches deployed in the community (Coalter et al., 2000; Sport England, 2008). The findings from this research demonstrate that SLUK is successful in training large numbers of sports leaders, but there is little evidence to indicate the number that are still actively working as sports leaders in their communities. This is where community sport will significantly benefit. Despite this apparent reduction in the numbers of people sustaining their leadership roles, the research does strongly suggest that the training process in itself is worthwhile due to the skills and experience young people gain. Nevertheless, building in better support mechanisms and progression pathways following the Level 3 award would help to greatly enhance the continued experience of sports leadership and volunteering. Indeed, there is an increasing focus in the literature

on the importance of managing volunteers to ensure they continue to feel valued and motivated (Gaskin, 2003).

The quality of the experience gained by the leader was highly influential in whether award completion and sports leadership continuation was achieved. The key elements of this category as identified through the qualitative analysis were the award course delivery and the skills of the course tutor. Whilst the flexible way in which the award programmes can be delivered is a positive in that it can be adapted to suit different audiences, the downsides of this approach can result in differing levels of quality in delivery. During the interviews it was apparent that the leaders had different experiences of undertaking the awards; some more positive than others. Differences included the location of their voluntary hours (school and community); organisation of their theory lessons; and the balance of theory and practical. What appeared to be of most importance to the leaders was the inclusion of community based voluntary work experience as this is where they felt they were able to develop personally, but also make a difference to those who do not currently have access to sporting opportunities. Furthermore, the vast majority of leaders indicated that their voluntary leadership hours spent working with people with disabilities was the most rewarding and fulfilling part of the Level 3 SLUK award. Research seems to suggest that there needs to be opportunities for variety and challenge if volunteers are to be kept motivated and interested in giving their time (Gaskin, 2003). Certainly, one leader interviewed lost faith in sports leadership due to the fact that he was not provided with any variation in the voluntary work he was undertaking, despite doing above and beyond his required hours for the Level 3 award.

The skills of the course tutor were also fundamental to the experience of the awards for the leader. Encouragingly, the leaders interviewed reported having enthusiastic and

competent course tutors who provided a supportive and enjoyable environment during the award. However, some reported experiences where others had not had the same motivated course tutor and as a result had a far less enjoyable experience of the award programmes. One leader actually indicated that fellow school mates who had a different teacher for the award, did not actually complete it due to the lack of competence and support from their tutor. This emphasises the importance of the role of the course tutor and something which SLUK can continue to ensure is a priority. This leads onto the other crucial factor which influences the likelihood of the leaders' commitment to the awards – support. Research into leadership programmes and other targeted interventions suggests that success of such programmes is contingent on the support provided by staff (Astbury *et al.*, 2005; Nichols, 2004). Providing a mentor type role to young people such as sports leaders is crucial is assisting with their personal development (Astbury *et al.*, 2005). Similarly, the need for a mentor was reported as being important for the sports leaders both during and after the awards. However for some, they did not feel that there was anyone who fulfilled this role, resulting in some leaders feeling neglected and unsupported. This appeared to be particularly true with young leaders who are keen to learn and develop and take on new challenges, but with the support of a more experienced tutor or coach. One leader indicated that they were extremely motivated to continue leading following the Level 3, but due to the lack of support from anyone within the school or sports development department, they dropped out of volunteering. This suggests that there needs to be more emphasis placed on providing guidance and support for leaders at the point of award completion to ensure that their leading and volunteering is sustained. Furthermore, links between the SLUK awards and further qualifications or career progressions need work to ensure that leaders do not feel like they reach a dead end once they complete the Level 3, resulting in the loss of good sports leaders.

13.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a discussion of the findings of the research in relation to the research questions of the thesis. Through providing a discussion of the results, I have drawn on literature from within the field of community sport and volunteering which has helped to locate the present study within that field. The final section of this Chapter provided an integrated discussion of the three studies conducted which also discussed some of the findings which may have wider implications beyond this thesis. The next Chapter will draw conclusions of the research based on these findings.

Chapter 14

Conclusions

14.0 Introduction

The role of volunteers in sport and the wider community has been well documented in the literature. However, the role of sports leaders in helping to contribute to community sport outcomes has been less researched. This research project has set out to explore the role of SLUK awards on the development of the sports leaders themselves, and the subsequent contribution that those leaders make to the development of sport and the wider community. In order to gain an understanding of the role that SLUK may play in the development of community sport, a mixed methods approach was adopted, which sought to gain the views of sports leaders from across the UK. To address the research questions posed at the outset, the specific method employed, results found and discussion of the results have been presented.

This chapter draws conclusions based on the findings and discussions to help pull together answers surrounding the role of SLUK awards and highlight contribution to knowledge. From these conclusions, implications for further research and practice will be discussed, to better inform SLUK, policy and the sport development industry.

14.1 Key findings and conclusions

The importance of volunteers, coaches and leaders in the development of UK sport has been widely recognised in the literature (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Welch and Long, 2006; Gaskin, 2008). Furthermore, there is recognition that structured programmes which equip predominantly young people with the skills and experience required to take on leadership roles in sport, have grown over the past few decades (Eley and Kirk, 2002;

Kay and Bradbury, 2009). SLUK are one organisation who has developed the variety of awards that they offer to people, in addition to engaging with a wider range and number of people (Sports Leaders UK, 2011a). However, there is an increasing need to provide more empirical evidence to demonstrate how such programmes can: (i) impact on the leaders from a career and personal development perspective; and (ii) contribute to the development of sport and the wider community. The present study has sought to address these two questions in particular, in addition to exploring associations between leader characteristics and SLUK award engagement. The following section will present the main conclusions from the research based on these areas.

14.1.1 Self-worth

Self-worth was identified as the core category in the conceptual model. In other words, leaders developed feelings of self-worth through engaging with the SLUK awards, which gave them purpose, confidence, self-esteem and a sense of achievement. The stronger the feelings of self-worth that were experienced, the greater the level of engagement the leaders reported to have with the awards. Indeed, confidence and self-esteem are fundamental to an individual's motivations and desire to progress in education, work and life, but is situation specific (Robson and McKenna, 2008). In other words, leaders who engage with the SLUK awards are likely to gain confidence and self-esteem specific to leading sports sessions, which is likely to give them the drive to continue progressing with this behaviour. It was found that certain situations such as new opportunities and gaining success resulted in further feelings of self-worth which reinforced the leaders' engagement in sports leadership. A number of other leadership programmes have found similar results which suggest that confidence and self-esteem is a key benefit to individuals who engage with sport leadership and volunteering

programmes (Obare and Nichols, 2001; Astbury *et al.*, 2005; and Bradbury, 2009). This may be particularly true for young people who are at a period within their lives where change is imminent following the end of compulsory education. Support for this comes in the results which showed that 90.7% of leaders undertaking SLUK awards were aged between 16 and 24 years, so the significance of gaining skills and confidence may therefore be an important perceived benefit for this younger age group. Findings add contribution to knowledge by suggesting that for some leaders, the SLUK awards provided them with a career path which they would otherwise have been unaware of, and gave them the confidence to pursue such careers. Involvement in the awards appeared to open up a range of careers and opportunities within sport, beyond coaching and teaching, which only became apparent following their leadership experience.

14.1.2 Career progression

From the leaders' perspective, perhaps the most significant benefit of the awards was the work experience which they gained from being a sports leader. This appeared to be particularly important to the younger leaders who were acutely aware of the need to have relevant work experience on their CV in addition to appropriate qualifications if they were to succeed in gaining either a job or university placement. Other studies have demonstrated similar findings (Davis Smith *et al.*, 2002; Loehr, 2005; Low *et al.*, 2007; NatCen, 2011), but that work experience is less important for older people (D'Souza *et al.*, 2011). The present study contradicted this research by instead suggesting that leaders of all ages were keen to gain qualifications and experience necessary for career change or progression. This may be particularly true in the current financial climate, with a greater number of redundancies resulting in more people looking to move into a different career. Perhaps one of the most encouraging findings from the present study

was the contribution of the SLUK awards in enabling one leader to gain full-time work following 16 years of unemployment and state benefits. This implies that the SLUK awards can contribute to changing the lives of people and giving them a first, crucial step on the ladder to employment – a finding which adds to the current research in this area, particularly in identifying associations between leaders' occupation and award progression, with those in full-time education being 6.75 times more likely to progress to a Level 3 award, compared to those in full-time education. This has useful implications for both SLUK and other bodies of sport.

In what appears to still be a highly competitive industry, the findings suggested that engagement in the SLUK awards enabled leaders to gain a competitive edge over other candidates when applying for either university or jobs within sport. The inclusion of 30 UCAS points was highlighted as a benefit to pursuing the award programmes, but was also viewed as problematic given that the inclusion of the additional points attracted individuals with no interest in pursuing sports leadership or volunteering long-term.

The present study provided strong evidence to indicate that the SLUK awards can help to develop leadership skills in those who engage with the awards. Frequently reported skills included communication and organisation skills, in addition to better teamwork, time management, increased confidence and adaptability. Whilst it is apparent that leaders value these skills from a sports leadership perspective, findings also highlighted the transferability of such skills to other areas of business, education and life on the whole (Loehr, 2005). One leader in particular spoke of how he had used skills gained directly from his involvement in sports leadership in a different work field, demonstrating the transferrable nature of the skills he had developed. This begins to explore the wider impact of personal and skill development gained through such award

programmes, beyond the findings of previous research investigating the personal development of sports leaders (Eley and Kirk, 2002; Kay and Bradbury, 2009).

14.1.3 Accessibility of the awards

The availability and access to SLUK awards appears to be rather limited. For young people in education, the awards were easily accessible, particularly for those pursuing sport qualifications in school or college. In fact, 83.8% of the total sample was found to have undertaken an award in either a school or college. Whilst this is advantageous to those who attend these institutions, the lack of other opportunities in different areas of the community is limiting the range of sports leaders and volunteers who may wish to become involved. Certainly, it was found that those leaders who undertook a Level 2 award via the LEA, youth service and local authority were all more likely to complete the award compared to those who pursued the award in school. As discussed in Chapter 12, the notion of compulsory versus voluntary participation in the award may be a factor which affects the likelihood of completion. The finding that courses undertaken via the Prison Service demonstrated stronger associations with award completion compared to school-based courses adds to existing knowledge given that there is currently a lack of research examining the link between crime and sport. This finding also has implications for SLUK and other organisations such as Positive Futures, who may engage with such groups using sport as a vehicle.

As original contribution to knowledge, findings from the present study appeared to indicate that more needed to be done to open up the opportunities for others to engage with the SLUK awards, and that currently, there is a lack of awareness of the award programmes including ways in which people can get involved in volunteering. Other research has also suggested that this is true of volunteering opportunities (Attwood et

al., 2003; Gaskin, 1998, 2003, 2004). Furthermore, leaders who undertook an SLUK award in their school or college were reluctant to continue volunteering out in their local community once they left school, since they were unsure of who to speak to regarding the next steps. This highlighted the importance of support from mentors or other experienced sports professionals both during and after the awards, if leaders were to remain involved in volunteering. Perhaps more commonly, leaders undertook voluntary experience in a cluster primary school, which therefore meant that transition into a local club was seen as extremely daunting. Nevertheless, it is this step from school to community which needs attention, given the apparent lack of committed leaders and volunteers in local community clubs (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Gaskin 2008; Sport Wales, 2010).

14.1.3 Contribution to sport

As original contribution to knowledge, this research has indicated that the work of the sports leaders, particularly within schools, has helped in the development of grassroots sport. This was mostly notable in primary schools, given that sports leaders felt that they were able to provide alternative opportunities in sport which the school were otherwise unable to cater for. Leaders also implied that some schools were not providing the required two hours of PE a week (DfES, 2003), and that in some instances, the extracurricular sessions which the leaders delivered were the only source of organised physical activity that the children were receiving. Whilst this does raise questions over the number of schools reportedly providing a minimum of two hours of PE a week (TNS, 2007), it does place SLUK in high regard, given that they are perceived as providing important physical activity to children and young people. Furthermore, there was suggestion that the sports knowledge and of the leaders their

subsequent confidence in delivering a sports session was far greater than some primary teachers, which also indicated that the children were gaining a better experience. Moreover, sports leaders were able to offer a wider range of sports which many children perhaps had not tried before, therefore indicating that they were contributing to the development of participation sport within schools. Notwithstanding this assumption, there is still a recognised need to extend these opportunities beyond the school environment, given that there was little evidence to suggest that leaders were impacting on sport within the wider community.

Whilst there was little suggestion that the sports leaders contributed to the development of elite sport, this is not surprising. Furthermore, it is perhaps not important that SLUK do not contribute at the higher end of the sporting spectrum, given that they have a huge role to play in simply getting more people involved in sport and physical activity at a participation level. By helping to develop sport at the grassroots level, the hope is that more young people will take up sport, and therefore progress up the sporting ladder. It is at these higher levels that other organisations such as NGB's and SportsCoach UK can play a further role in helping to progress sporting talent. Findings from the present study supported these assumptions, stating that sports leaders were distinct from coaches, and that they have an important role with engaging more people in sport, through providing more sporting opportunities in their communities.

14.1.4 Potential impact on the community

Findings implied that SLUK awards have the potential to contribute to the wider community and society beyond the boundaries of sport. Most notably, was the impact which the awards were perceived to have on the life of some leaders, for example Patrick, who attributed the positive changes in his life with regards to gaining

employment, to his involvement in the SLUK awards. Gaining confidence, boosting self-esteem, and being given opportunities to progress with sports leadership and coaching, provided leaders with employment in their local community. Whilst other research has suggested that volunteering and leadership programmes have the potential to provide people with jobs (Obare and Nichols, 2001), few have actually presented evidence for the link between undertaking such awards and subsequently gaining employment, hence a significant contribution to knowledge. Positive Futures works hard with people from disadvantaged communities and has been found to help people gain skills, jobs and better lives (Lee *et al.*, 2003). Indeed, findings from the present study indicated that some had been involved in the work of Positive Futures in their communities, suggesting that successes at bettering their own lives is likely to have been as a result of a number of organisations coming together to work in partnership to achieve mutual goals (Lee *et al.*, 2003).

Other findings suggested that SLUK awards can present opportunities for people from isolated and disadvantaged communities. In contributing to knowledge, leaders gave experiences of the awards being used as a tool to overcome boredom in young people, resulting in the potential to reduce crime, antisocial behaviour and other social issues, which has important implications for SLUK, other organisations of sport and policymakers. This supports other research into the use of sport as a social tool (Nichols, 1997; Coalter, 2007; Hartmann, 2003, 2006; Lee *et al.*, 2003).

14.2 The future of sports leadership

The findings of the present study indicate some interesting associations and potential links with the development of sport and the community, as have just been discussed.

This next section will draw some conclusions which concern the context within which sports leadership currently sits and the future role that sports leadership has to play.

As discussed in Chapter 2, government policy plays an integral role in the delivery of UK sport, given the nature of funding for its development. Despite the somewhat confused nature of sport policy over the past few decades, the introduction of the Coalition government has altered the landscape of sport and public services amidst a global recession and subsequent financial cuts. Whilst the current climate appears rather bleak given that there does not appear to be much pending sign of significant improvements to the economy, Prime Minister David Cameron's plans for a Big Society aim to boost community spirit through a greater role for voluntary sector organisations (Cabinet Office, 2010). Furthermore, with the London 2012 Olympic Games having been a resounding success for the nation, government policy such as '*Creating a Sporting Habit for Life*' (DCMS, 2012) appears to locate sport and the voluntary sector high on the agenda. For organisations such as SLUK, this can only present a positive opportunity.

The legacy of the Olympics is central to much political rhetoric (DCMS, 2010). Central to the legacy is the role that volunteers and leaders of sport will now have in communities across the UK following the Games. Whilst SLUK were unsuccessful in their bid for becoming the provider of Sports Makers for London 2012, they still have a role to play in ensuring that all people have the opportunity to train and volunteer as sports leaders. Certainly, the need for more committed volunteers continues to be discussed and prioritised by sport organisations. The hope is that people who were inspired by the London Games are able to easily access opportunities for sports leadership and volunteering quickly whilst they are still keen and passionate to do so.

The worry is that London 2012 has been and gone, with many sporting organisations having missed the opportunity to capitalise on what could have been.

Aside from the Olympics, SLUK still have a role to play in providing alternative opportunities for people away from crime, antisocial behaviour and disengagement. Policy recognises the importance of sport in engaging with the disengaged (DCMS, 2000; DCMS, 2012), with more recent initiatives focusing on 'doorstep sport' through organisations such as StreetGames. With changes to the structure of SLUK, similar inroads can be made by the Foundation Body, which aims to engage more with those who are marginalised from society (Sports Leaders UK, 2011d). Whilst policy rhetoric appears to be placing more of a focus on the delivery of sport for sport's sake (DCMS, 2012), SLUK still recognise the importance of sport, in particular sports leadership, in helping to tackle social issues. Furthermore, the heightened attention given to tackling health problems such as obesity and inactivity point to the need for people to be more physically active (Dept. of Health, 2011). Sports leadership can certainly help to encourage more people to be physically active by providing a greater range and opportunity for sport in schools and communities across the UK. Certainly, findings from the present study have suggested that sports leaders are helping to ensure that young children in particular are going some way to meeting physical activity requirements, specifically two hours of PE a week. However, there is more that needs to be done to further increase the physical activity levels of the nation.

This chapter has presented the key conclusions of the research and highlighted the contribution to knowledge that the research has made. This thesis has made this original contribution through identifying that the SLUK awards can help sports leaders to develop feelings of self-worth, which subsequently can increase self-confidence and self-esteem. Conclusions drawn also highlight the impact that sports leadership can

have on the development of sport and on the wider community, and the benefit that the leaders gained through undertaking purposeful work experience. Attention now turns to the implications of the research findings for both practice and further research.

Chapter 15

Research Implications

15.0 Introduction

This final section discusses some of the implications of the research and is divided into two sections. The first section discusses implications of the findings for future research. Experiences of utilising mixed methods will be discussed, which also provides my reflections on the process of using both qualitative and quantitative methods and associated challenges. The second section discusses implications for practice with regards to sports leadership. This will help SLUK and other organisations of sport to identify areas for improvement and future delivery in light of this research's findings.

15.1 Mixed methods research

A mixed methods approach was utilised in this research to provide greater enhancement of findings than would otherwise be achieved by using mono-methods (Bryman, 2006). Whilst the mixing of methods has been highly contested (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009), its use in the social sciences as a third paradigm has become popular (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Nevertheless, the use of both methods within one research project is not without its problems. Challenges concerning epistemology, justification, and integration are unavoidable in mixed methods research designs. As a result, a certain amount of compromise of the part of the researcher is important if the use of mixed methods is to be a success. Perhaps the fact that the present study was applied and given the researcher's philosophical perspective of pragmatism, the mixed methods approach was successful since a focus on 'what works' remained central. Nevertheless, caution is needed particularly in the early stages of planning research, to ensure that

researchers have a clear rationale and justification for the use of mixed methods. This will help novice researchers to avoid the pitfalls associated with mixed methods which are commonly experienced when research decisions are not carefully planned and thought through (Bryman, 2006).

For the novice researcher, in particular the PhD researchers, issues concerning time constraints and practicalities are almost inevitable when designing research projects. On reflection, this was particularly true with a mixed methods study, when the qualitative component came last. Finding a suitable balance between conducting appropriate and sufficient research and meeting the demands of a PhD proved challenging, particularly given that I had not conducted qualitative research prior to this project. Therefore, the time taken to collect, transcribe and analyse the qualitative component was greatly underestimated. Nevertheless, the qualitative data presented to most useful and insightful evidence of the process of engagement with the SLUK awards and altered my perception of qualitative research.

15.2 Research design

The methodology which was chosen in this study was mixed methods. Elements of Grounded Theory Methodology (GTM) were adopted to assist in the analysis of the qualitative data analysis. Whilst some might argue that GTM cannot be used in part, one might argue that from a PhD perspective, it is impossible to employ GTM in its entirety. This is particularly true given the need to examine the literature prior to the research proposal in identifying potential research questions which contribute to new knowledge. As Glaser (1978) points out though, engaging with the literature is a big taboo in pure GTM. As a result, whilst I was clear not to claim that GTM has been used in this project, caution needs to be exercised by other researchers when claiming to use GTM

or elements of the methodology. This research project has attempted to utilise a pragmatic approach by utilising a range of methods and tools which were deemed most suitable to answering the research questions. As with all research, it is perhaps more important that the research questions drive the choice of methods rather than allowing the methodology to drive the research.

15.3 Implications for practice

This final section will discuss the implications of the research for future delivery and practice.

15.3.1 The importance of support mechanisms

One of the most significant implications for practice concerned the need for greater support mechanisms to support the development and progression of the sports leaders. Findings suggested that support during the course was crucial in helping leaders to take on new roles, particularly during their voluntary leadership experience. Whilst transition from the Level 2 to the Level 3 award was on the most part fairly easy, given the educational environment within which the awards were offered and delivered, the transition from the Level 3 to other opportunities or continued leadership experience in the community appeared to be far more problematic. Leaders asserted that without a support mechanism following award completion, sustained volunteering was difficult, given that leaders were unfamiliar with the next step on the leadership and coaching continuum. This highlights a key focus for SLUK and organisations of sport if they are to retain sports leaders within sport beyond school and college. Furthermore, this also highlights the importance of mentors and course tutors in being able to effectively

provide adequate support to all leaders within their courses. Recommendations for improving practice in this area include the identification of mentors for sports leaders (particularly at Level 3) to provide this support and career guidance. These mentors may be sports development officers, teachers or other working in the profession, who can assist leaders in identifying the next step in their career pathway following completion of the Level 3. Furthermore, the role of HE institutions in providing a bridging link between SLUK courses delivered in schools and FE colleges and those delivered at degree level, could also help to facilitate a smooth transition onto the next stage of the leaders' career pathway.

15.3.2 Broadening access

Of particular note in this research is the extent to which young people engage with the SLUK awards, given that most opportunities are presented within mainstream education. Whilst the present research has suggested that engagement in the awards for young people is particularly beneficial in helping to develop personal skills and build career prospects, the need to engage with a wider audience is important if SLUK are to meet their aims in local communities. As has already been mentioned, sports leaders are finding it difficult to make the transition from schools out into their local community without support to help them do so. Furthermore, sports leaders felt that many potential sports leaders were missing out, given that the SLUK awards are less readily available to individuals who are older and outside of the school setting. This highlights the need for a more focused effort to offer appropriate leadership opportunities within a variety of community settings if a wider range of people are to become involved. The hope is that SLUK's new Foundation Body will begin to address this issue, and start to embed SLUK awards in more corners of society. Local sport development units and County

Sport Partnerships may also have a key role to play here, in enabling sports leaders to access opportunities to lead sport in different community sectors. Since many SLUK awards are delivered within educational institutions, a better coordinated approach between schools/ colleges and community providers would improve this link. To attract a different group to undertake the SLUK awards, there also needs to be a range of 'open' courses which are available for anyone to attend, which again, is a focus of SLUK's Foundation Body moving forward.

15.4 Concluding remarks

This research project adopted a mixed methods approach to exploring the role that sports leadership can play in the career development of sports leaders and the contribution to sport and the wider community. Through exploring the views and experiences of sports leaders themselves, evidence was gathered concerning the role of sports leadership, in particular SLUK awards programmes. An original contribution to knowledge has been achieved through investigating the associations between sports leader characteristics and award engagement, in addition to exploring the contribution that SLUK awards can make to the development of community sport. It is evident from the findings of this research that given the right motivations, support and experience, sports leaders develop personally and professionally, through enhancing their career prospects and skills. Furthermore, sports leadership can impact on grassroots community sport through the increased number of sporting opportunities being offered to children, particularly within the school environment, which can in turn, help to develop UK sport in the long-term.

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Appendix A: Details of Data Cleaning Stages

1. Duplicate cases

- On receiving the data from SLUK, it was apparent that there was some duplication in the data, possibly due to a program error rather than human inputting error. Therefore, these duplicate rows of data were deleted.
- Also, candidates who had completed more the one award but appeared on two separate rows were updated to appear on a single row with both courses appearing.
- Where there was some discrepancy in the candidate data when two courses had been registered, the associated data was updated according to the most recent course. This was not a frequent occurrence and only typically occurred when a candidate had completed both a Level 2 and 3 qualification but at different venues.

2. No gender data

- Any dataset which contained no record of gender, the whole row was removed

3. No/incorrect DOB

- Any dataset which contained no Date of Birth was removed.
- Also, correct ages were calculated using the Excel 'DATEDIF' function and any DOB's which returned an unlikely age (e.g. 4 years old) were deleted.
- Ages of candidates ranged from 16 years to 79 years.

4. No ethnicity data

- Any dataset which contained no ethnicity data was removed.

5. No postcode data

- Any dataset which contained no postcode, or the postcode was not in the correct format, was removed.
- All postcodes were formatted to fit with NSPD 'eGif (e-Government Interoperability Framework) standard postcode format, which allows for a space between the inward and outward parts of the postcode, allowing for easy analysis (e.g. CF1_1AA or CF11_1AA)

6. No occupation data

- Any dataset which contained no Occupation data was removed.

7. Incorrect postcodes

- Following assignment of OA codes and corresponding Townsend scores, any candidate postcodes which could not be matched to NSPD data were removed. This was mainly due to incorrectly input postcodes or partial postcodes.

Rationale for Data Removal Decisions

Due to the large amount of data available (initially 118,104 after duplications removed), it was decided that removal of all but complete datasets could be afforded to still achieve statistical power for any analysis which was required following the cleaning process. Therefore, any candidate data missing resulted in the total candidate being removed from the spreadsheet.

Appendix B: SLUK Candidate Database – Variables Explained

This appendix provides details and explanations of each of the variables included in the candidate database analysed in answering research question 1 (see chapter 6). Each variable listed below is in order of how they appeared as columns in the Excel spreadsheet, from left to right.

1. **Candidate ID Number**

Provides a six-digit unique identification number for each candidate registered on the SLUK database. Using this identification method, SLUK can easily search for, track and identify candidates on the database. For research purposes, this is only an identification number, necessary for distinguishing between candidates in the data.

2. **DOB**

Provides the candidates date of birth in the format of MM/DD/YYYY. For research purposes, this will mainly be used to determine candidates' ages and as an additional method of identifying candidates.

3. **Age**

Provides the age in years of the candidate as of 1st January 2010.

4. **Postcode**

Provides the postal code of the candidates' home address at the time of registration for the award. This may be updated as the candidates may move and provide additional information to SLUK on completion of the award or registration of a new award. Post codes were used to determine Townsend scores of material deprivation for each candidate.

5. **Gender**

Provides the gender of the candidate. Recorded in binary form, where Female = 0 and Male = 1.

6. **Ethnicity**

Provides the ethnicity of the candidate. Recorded in numerical form according to the categories used by SLUK on their registration forms. (Some categories were combined due to low frequencies for these particular categories). Categories are as follows:-

- 0 = White
- 1 = Bangladeshi
- 2 = Black – African
- 3 = Black – Caribbean
- 4 = Chinese
- 5 = Black other
- 6 = Indian
- 7 = Pakistani
- 8 = Other

7. **Disability**

Indicates whether candidate is registered disabled or not. Recorded in binary form; No = 0, Yes = 1.

8. Occupation

Provides details of the occupation of the candidates recorded at the time of registration. Recorded in numerical form according to the categories used by SLUK on their registration forms. (Some categories were combined due to low frequencies for these particular categories). Categories are as follows:-

- 0 = In full-time education
- 1 = In part-time education
- 2 = Employed full-time (or self employed)
- 3 = Employed part-time (or self employed)
- 4 = Unemployed
- 5 = Other

('Other' also includes the groupings of other categories listed but received low responses. These categories were: 'Primary Carer', 'Sick Capacity', 'Retired', 'Government training Programme' and 'Other')

9. Volunteered Previously

Indicates whether candidates have volunteered previously or not. Recorded in binary form where No = 0, Yes = 1.

10. Volunteering Currently

Indicates whether candidates are currently volunteering. Recorded in binary form where No = 0, Yes = 1.

11. Centre Type

Provides details of the location / centre at which the sports leaders UK course was delivered at. Recorded in numerical form according to the categories used by SLUK on their registration forms. (Some categories were combined due to low frequencies for these particular categories). Categories are as follows:-

- 0 = School
- 1 = FE College
- 2 = University /HE
- 3 = Local Education Authority
- 4 = Prison Service
- 5 = Youth Service
- 6 = Voluntary Youth Organisation
- 7 = Outdoor Education Centre
- 8 = Local Authority
- 9 = Other

('Other' also includes the groupings of other categories listed but received low responses. These categories were: 'Youth offending', 'Duke of Edinburgh', 'Armed Forces', 'Overseas Centre' and 'Other')

12. Registered L2

Indicates whether the candidate had registered for the SLUK Level 2 sports leadership qualification. Recorded in binary form where No = 0, Yes = 1.

13. Registered L3

Indicates whether the candidate had registered for the SLUK Level 3 higher sports leadership qualification. Recorded in binary form where No = 0, Yes = 1.

14. Completed L2

Indicates whether the candidate had completed the SLUK Level 2 sports leadership qualification as of the 31st August 2009. Completion means that candidates have completed logbooks, sent them into SLUK and certificates have been distributed to the successful candidates. Recorded in binary form where No = 0, Yes = 1.

15. Completed L3

Indicates whether the candidate had completed the SLUK Level 3 higher sports leadership qualification as of the 31st August 2009. Recorded in binary form where No = 0, Yes = 1.

16. Completed L2 & L3

Indicates whether the candidate has completed both the Level 2 and Level 3 awards. No = 0, Yes = 1.

17. Dropped Out L2

Indicates whether candidates have dropped out of completing the SLUK Level 2 award they had registered for. Candidates are only recorded as having dropped out if they specifically contact SLUK to inform them they are no longer continuing with the qualification. However, it is unknown how much of the course content they completed before dropping out. Recorded in binary form where No = 0, Yes = 1.

18. Dropped Out L3

Indicates whether candidates have dropped out of completing the SLUK Level 3 award they had registered for. Recorded in binary form where No = 0, Yes = 1.

19. SOA

This column provides the Super Output Area code for the candidate based on their postcode.

20. OA Code

This column provides the Output Area code for the candidate based on their postcode.

21. Townsend

This column provides the Townsend score of the candidate based on their output area, using the Townsend method of calculating material deprivation (Townsend, 1988). The score simply provides a ranking for the area within which the candidate lives.

22. Urban Rural UK

Provides a comparable measure for urban and rural classifications for each candidate, based on the individual home country scores. Urban refers to an output area with a population of 10,000 or more; rural refers to an output area with a population of less than 10,000. Recorded in a binary form, where urban = 1 and rural = 0.

Appendix C: Sports Leadership Survey



Sports Leadership Survey



Section 1 – Personal details – This first section is all about you. Please answer all questions.

- 1.1** Are you? **1.2** What is your age?
- Years ☐ Male ☐ Female
- 1.3** What is your date of birth?

D	D	M	M	Y	Y	Y	Y
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
- 1.4** Are registered as having a disability? ☐ Yes ☐ No
- 1.5** Which of the following ethnic groups best describes you?
- ☐ White ☐ Black – African
☐ Black – Caribbean ☐ Asian - Chinese
☐ Asian - Indian ☐ Asian – Bangladeshi
☐ Asian - Pakistani ☐ Mixed ethnicity
☐ Black - Other (please specify).....
☐ Asian – Other (please specify).....
- 1.6** What is the full postcode of your home address?

Section 2 – Education and Career Development - This next section aims to gain some information regarding you education and career.

- 2.1** Which of the following best describes your MAIN occupation? (Please tick ONE only):
- ☐ Full-time education at school ☐ Working as an employee
☐ Student in Higher Education (e.g. University) ☐ Self-employed
☐ Student in Further Education (e.g. College) ☐ Unemployed
☐ On a government sponsored training scheme ☐ Long-term sick or disabled
☐ Looking after home or family ☐ Retired
☐ Other (Please specify)
- 2.2** If you are working or studying, does the majority of this involve coaching, leading or coordinating sport and physical activities?
☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know
- 2.3** Which of the following best describes your HIGHEST level of educational achievement? If your UK qualification is not listed, tick the box that contains its nearest equivalent (Please tick ONE only)
- ☐ GCSE's/O Levels/CSE's ☐ A Levels/AS Levels
☐ BTEC/GNVQ/NVQ ☐ Degree (e.g. BSc, BA, HND)
☐ Higher Degree (e.g. MA, PhD, PGCE) ☐
☐ No qualifications
☐ Other vocational / work related qualifications
 Apprenticeship
- 2.4** Did you undertake a Physical Education or a Sports-related academic qualification at school, college and/or University? (for example, GCSE PE; BTEC Sport; A Level PE)
☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, which qualification/s? (Please tick ALL that apply):

- ☐ GCSE ☐ A Level
☐ BTEC ☐ NVQ/GNVQ
☐ Degree (e.g. BSc) ☐ Other

If other, please specify.....

Section 3 – Sports Leaders UK Awards

Part A

This section refers to whether or not you have completed certain Sports Leaders UK awards. By completion, we mean you have completed all parts of the course **AND** have received your certificate to demonstrate your qualification.

3.1 Have you completed the Sports Leaders UK Level 1 Award in sports leadership (SL – formerly JSLA)?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know

If don't know, please comment

Have you completed the Sports Leaders UK Level 1 Award in dance leadership (DL)?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know

If don't know, please comment

3.2 Have you previously completed the Sports Leaders UK Level 2 Award in community sports leadership (CSLA)?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know

If don't know, please comment

3.3 Have you previously completed the Sports Leaders UK Level 3 Award in higher sports leadership (HSLA)?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know

If don't know, please comment

If yes, when did you complete the award?

M	M	Y	Y	Y	Y
---	---	---	---	---	---

3.4 This next question is about the reasons why you decided to undertake the Sports Leaders Level 3 Award. Even if you have not completed the award, please indicate your initial reasons for deciding to undertake the award. Please respond to **ALL** of the following statements, by circling on the scale the extent to which you agree with each statement:

The reason I decided to take the Sports Leaders Level 3 Award was because:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't know
It was offered as part of my course	1	2	3	4	5
I wanted to socialise / be with friends	1	2	3	4	5
I wanted to develop my leadership skills	1	2	3	4	5
It involved Sport	1	2	3	4	5
It gave me a qualification	1	2	3	4	5
It provided me with UCAS points for University	1	2	3	4	5
It provided me with experience needed to pursue a career in Sport / coaching	1	2	3	4	5
It provided me with experience needed to pursue a career in teaching					
I wanted to have fun	1	2	3	4	5
I wanted to help others	1	2	3	4	5
I wanted to work in my local community	1	2	3	4	5

Other (please specify)

Part B – Only complete this section if you have NOT completed the Level 3 award(If you have completed the Level 3 award, please skip this section and go to **section 4** below)

3.5 Which of the following answers best describes your level of engagement in the Sports Leaders UK Level 3 award? (Please tick **ONE** only)

- a) I registered for the course but did not complete any of the course ☐
- b) I attended some, but not all of the lesson ☐
- c) I attended all of the lessons, but have not completed my voluntary hours ☐
- d) I have completed all aspects of the award, but have not requested my certificate yet ☐
- e) None of the above ☐

(If none of the above, please explain your level of engagement).....

.....

3.6 Are you planning to complete the Sports Leaders UK Level 3 award within the next 2 years?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know

If don't know, please comment

3.7 Which of the following reasons best describes the reason why you have not yet completed the Level 3 qualification? (tick ALL that apply):

I have not completed the Level 3 Award because:

- ☐ I haven't got round to it yet
- ☐ I got bored of the sessions
- ☐ I have family commitments
- ☐ It costs too much
- ☐ It is too far / difficult to travel to clubs / sessions
- ☐ I don't feel I am confident enough
- ☐ I don't think I'm good enough at sport / fit enough
- ☐ I am too busy at work / studying
- ☐ I don't have enough time
- ☐ It is too much effort / I can't be bothered
- ☐ I would rather spend my leisure time doing other things
- ☐ Other (please specify)
-

Section 4 – Personal Development

4.1 Do you have any other leader, coaching or instructor certificates/qualifications?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know

If yes, how many coaching qualifications do you have?

- ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 or more

Who is the awarding body for your coaching/leadership qualifications, and what level do you have?

'Awarding body' refers to the organisation that provided you with the qualification, for example, the Football Association (FA). Please complete the table below for any coaching qualifications you have:

Awarding Body (e.g. Football Association)	Level (e.g. Level 1)

Section 5 – Leadership & Volunteering

This section refers to any **PAID** coaching or leading you may currently do, in which you receive a financial payment for your work.

5.1 Are you currently coaching / leading any physical activity, sport or dance sessions regularly in a **paid capacity**?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If yes, where do you lead your paid sessions? (Tick all that apply)

☐ OWN school / college

☐ ANOTHER school / college

☐ OWN university

☐ ANOTHER university

☐ Primary school

☐

Leisure centre

☐ Youth Club

☐ Local/Community Sport club

☐ Regional/Elite club

☐ Other

If other, please state where

This section is all about any voluntary leading (this includes any coaching) you may have done. By ‘voluntary’ we mean leading in any sport, physical activity or dance sessions that has NOT resulted in any financial payment for the work.

5.2 In the last six months, have you acted as a leader in any physical activity, sport or dance sessions in a **voluntary capacity** (i.e. not PAID work)?

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ Don't know

If yes, where did you lead these voluntary sessions? (Tick all that apply)

☐ OWN school / college

☐ ANOTHER school / college

☐ OWN university

☐ ANOTHER university

☐ Primary school

☐

Leisure centre

☐ Youth Club

☐ Local / community sports club

☐ Regional / elite club

☐ Other

If other, please state where

5.3 Are you currently leading any physical activity, sport or dance sessions regularly in a **voluntary capacity**?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If yes, how often do you lead these session?

☐ Once per week or more

☐ Once every two weeks

☐ Once per month

☐ Less than once a month

Where do you lead your voluntary sessions? (Tick all that apply)

☐ OWN school / college

☐ ANOTHER school / college

☐ OWN university

☐ ANOTHER university

☐ Primary school

☐

Leisure centre

☐ Youth Club

☐ Local / community sports club

☐ Regional / elite club

☐ Other

If other, please state where

5.4 Are you currently a member of any sports club or organisation? By club we mean any pure sports organisation which may offer one or more sports, as well as leisure centres and health clubs, but not youth clubs.

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ Don't Know

☐

Thank you for your help in completing this survey, we are extremely grateful for your feedback and answers.

Prize draw contact details:

Email or phone:

The information you have provided on the survey will remain anonymous, however, by ticking this box you give consent for us to contact you for further research purposes ☐

Don't forget to return your survey to Sports Leaders UK in the stamped addressed envelope provide!

Appendix D: Survey Cover Letter

Dear Sports Leader,

Over the past 25 years, Sports Leaders UK has been training individuals from all over the UK to become qualified Sports Leaders. The work of these leaders is invaluable in ensuring that young people in our communities have the opportunity to participate in sport and become more physically active.

Sports Leaders UK is continually seeking to develop the awards and the support that they provide. To this end they have formed a partnership with the University of Gloucestershire, in order to carry out research into the effectiveness of their programmes of accreditation.

One of the ways in which the research will be conducted is via a survey of recently registered leaders. You have been selected to receive a survey to complete as you have registered to undertake the Level 3 Sports Leaders UK award (Higher Sports Leaders Award) in the last 2 years.

As a valued Sports Leader, we recognise the good work that you do, and we are therefore keen to get your views on the Sports Leaders UK awards and qualifications. If, for some reason, you have not yet completed the Level 3 award, we would still like you to complete the survey, as we are keen to hear your views. The survey should take no longer than 10 minutes to complete and we are offering a ***prize draw*** to receive some sports clothing voucher, to thank you for your views.

Please follow the link below to complete the online survey. When completing the survey, please be as open and honest as you can. Your responses will remain anonymous.

Survey Link: *[Insert http:// web address]*

We are very much looking forward to hearing from you and hope that you are able to help us gather this important information by completing this survey by **Wednesday 31st March 2010**.

If you have any queries regarding the survey or if you would like any further information on its completion then please email hmawson@glos.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

Hannah Mawson
Researcher, University of Gloucestershire

Appendix E: Interview Invitation Email

Dear

My name is Hannah Mawson and I am a researcher at the University of Gloucestershire. I am currently undertaking an evaluation of Sports Leaders UK award programmes, which will include finding out about the views, opinions and experiences of sports leaders themselves.

I am contacting you as you completed a survey last March asking about your reasons for undertaking a Sports Leaders UK award and your education and career history. I am now looking to interview a number of sports leaders from across the UK to gain their own personal experiences of being a sports leader. The results from the research will help to identify the impact of Sports Leaders UK awards and assist in further developing the leadership opportunities available to people in the future.

Interviews will only take approximately 45 minutes and will be conducted by myself at a time and place convenient to you. All data collected during the interviews will remain anonymous.

If this may be something which you would be interested in helping with and you would like to know more, please reply to me at this email address. I would very much like to hear your views and experiences as a sports leader and the valuable role you play in developing sport in the UK.

Yours sincerely,

Hannah Mawson

PhD Researcher
University of Gloucestershire
Room LC213
Oxstalls Lane
Gloucester
GL2 9HW
Email: hannahmawson@connect.glos.ac.uk

Tel: 07930 860206

Appendix F: Participant Information Sheet – Sports Leadership Interviews

Title of Project: Evaluation of the Sports Leaders UK awards and their impact on career development and community sport outcomes.

You are invited to take part in an evaluation of Sports Leaders UK awards as you completed a survey online about your experiences of the awards, back in March. The evaluation is being carried by the University of Gloucestershire by PhD Researcher Hannah Mawson.

This information sheet is designed to inform you about the evaluation because it is important to understand why it is being undertaken before you decide whether or not you would like to take part. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with friends and relatives. Please ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Feel free to take your time before coming to a decision.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of the study is to investigate the experiences of Sports Leaders who have engaged with the Sports Leaders UK awards. You may be currently working towards an award, have completed one or more awards or completed only part of an award. Whatever your level of engagement with the Sports Leaders UK awards, we are keen to find out your opinions and experiences of being a Sports Leader.

What will we do with the information?

The information gathered will form part of my PhD research which I am currently pursuing at the University of Gloucestershire. A report will also be provided for Sports Leaders UK summarizing what people think about the awards and being a Sports Leader. This work will help us to understand what is good about Sports Leaders UK's award programmes and what needs to be improved, so possible changes can be made in the future.

Any information or data that you provide us with will be treated in confidence and handled in accordance with data protection principles. This means that it will be made anonymous so you can not be identified, handled and processed securely on a secure and password protected office computer at the University of Gloucestershire. Following completion of the report, data will be disposed off in a secure manner.

Do I have to take part?

Taking part is voluntary. Although we would be very keen for your views and experiences, it is up to you whether or not to take part. Even if you decide to participate you are free to withdraw from the study at any time without stating the reason.

What will you be asked to do if you decide to take part?

Participants who agree to be involved will be asked to take part in an individual interview which will be recorded to allow us to undertake data analysis. This interview will last approximately 30 minutes and will give you the opportunity to talk about your opinions and perspectives of the Sports Leaders UK Awards and tell us about your individual experiences of being a Sports Leader.

You will be asked to answer only the questions that you want and there are no right or wrong answers; it is only your experiences, opinions and attitudes of the leadership awards and of being a Sports Leader that are of interest to the researcher. The topics of conversation will include questions about how and why you got involved in the sports leadership awards, what you thought/think about them, your experiences of being a Sports Leader and going through the awards programme, and what you think you have got out of it.

What are the possible benefits to taking part?

The information derived from the evaluation will help Sports Leaders UK to better understand what works well and what needs to be improved with the Sports Leaders awards, and you can help with this by participating in the interview. Finding out and understanding about the Leaders' own experiences will help make necessary changes to improve the awards available for future leaders to take part in it.

What do you do now?

If you would like to be involved in research, please return the reply slip below, indicating whether you would like to be involved, and whether you are happy to be contacted for the interview date and time to be arranged.

Many thanks for your consideration of this invitation. I look forward to hearing from you.

If you need further information on this study, please contact:

Hannah Mawson, Research Students Office, University of Gloucestershire, Oxstalls Campus, Oxstalls Lane, Gloucester, GL2 9HW.

Email: hannahmawson@connect.glos.ac.uk

Tel. number: 07930 860206

Reply Slip

Sports Leader's Name: _____

Please respond either yes or no, to the following questions:

- I would like to be interviewed individually about my experiences of the Sports Leaders UK leadership awards **YES/NO**
- I am happy to be contacted by the researcher for the interview dates and times to be arranged. **YES/NO**

I can be contacted on: Tel number: _____

My preferred time of contact is, weekdays: AM/ PM/ EVE.

Email: _____

Please return this slip to:

Hannah Mawson, Research Students Office, University of Gloucestershire, Oxstalls Campus, Oxstalls Lane, Gloucester, GL2 9HW.

Email: hannahmawson@connect.glos.ac.uk

Tel. number: 07930 860206

Appendix G: Consent Form – Interview Participants

CONSENT FORM (Please return to Hannah Mawson)

Title of project: Evaluation of the Sports Leaders UK awards and their impact on career development and community sport outcomes.

Name of Researcher: Hannah Mawson

Please indicate yes or no.

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

YES/NO

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, without my legal rights being affected.

YES/NO

3. I understand that the interview will be audio taped for the purposes of an accurate account of my experiences and for data analysis purposes. This will be transcribed and made anonymous, handled and processed securely and then destroyed, following completion of the project.

YES/NO

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

YES/NO

5. I would be interested to receive a copy of the transcript of the interview.

YES/NO

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Researchers

Date

Signature

Appendix H: Interview Schedule

Conversation

1. Tell me about how you became a sports leader
 - How / why?
 - Awards
 - Where and when?
2. Tell me about what you do as a sports leader
 - Role and responsibilities
 - Positives / negatives
 - 'Leadership'
3. What do you think of the sports leaders awards?
 - Own opinion
 - Other people
 - Benefits and outcomes
4. What do you think about volunteering?
 - Own experiences
 - Benefits and downsides
 - Where / when
 - 'Volunteering'
5. What do the sports leaders awards achieve?
 - Impact on sport/community/health
 - Developing people
 - Future direction
6. Is there anything else you would like to tell me?

Purpose

1. How did you become a sports leader? What awards have you undertaken? Where did you do the award? What are the reasons for deciding to do a sports leadership award
2. Role as a leader? 'Day in the life'? Tasks and responsibilities? Positives / negatives? Challenges? What aspects did you enjoy/ not enjoy? What does the term 'leadership' mean to you?
3. Why do you think people do them? What is your opinion of the awards? Benefits and outcomes of undertaking the awards.
4. What does the term 'volunteering' mean to you? What did volunteering do for you? What are your own experiences of volunteering for the awards / in sport? Where did you/do you volunteer? Have you continued volunteering? Volunteering vs paid work?
5. What is your opinion about how the awards can impact on sport? Impact on citizenship and community development? What do you understand by these terms? Impact on health & well-being? Ways the awards can help to educate or develop people? Will any of your experiences as a sports leader affect your future direction? Anything you would change about the awards?
6. Anything else which may be useful?

Appendix I: Additional Survey Answers

Q11. Qualification Undertaken at School/college

1. National Diploma - Outdoor Education	Sun, Mar 14, 2010 9:28 PM
2. CSLA HSLA	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 9:32 PM
3. JSLA, CSLA, HSLA (CURRENT) AND DANCE LEADERSHIP AWARD	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 9:21 PM
4. Community/Higher Sports Leadership Award L2/3	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 1:40 AM
5. In process of taking A levels	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 10:56 PM
6. Level 2 Community Sports Leader, Level 3 Award In Higher Sports Leadership, Personal Trainer Certificate (Currently undertaking assessments)	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 6:58 PM
7. sports academy	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 5:22 PM

Q17. Level of Engagement (None of the above)

1. Haven't done Level 3 Award in Higher Sports Leadership	Wed, Mar 17, 2010 9:22 PM
2. Not quite finished all modules yet in college but completed hours	Tue, Mar 16, 2010 10:34 AM
3. currently still completing this award. Have completed 30 voluntary hours and have 1 unit remaining	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 9:24 PM
4. Done all volunteering. Still running through the theory.	Fri, Mar 12, 2010

Q19. Reasons why have not completed L3? (Other)

1.	still currently doing the course	Fri, Mar 19, 2010 1:12 PM
2.	havent finished it in college yet	Tue, Mar 16, 2010 10:34 AM
3.	Quite busy with other assessments. i.e. ML, SPA, Lvl.2 Coach, Raft Guide, 4* Canoe / Kayak etc	Sun, Mar 14, 2010 9:34 PM
4.	Only have 3 HSLA lessons per week. Have about another month until completion of the course	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 9:24 PM
5.	We are still required to go to the lessons	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 10:58 PM
6.	Still need to complete my voluntary hours	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 6:41 PM

Q23. Other coaching qualifications

1.	UK Athletics	Thu, Mar 25, 2010 12:18 PM
2.	ECB Young Leaders	Wed, Mar 24, 2010 9:08 PM
3.	Football Association (FA) - Level 1 Sports 1st Football Association (FA) - Level 2 England Basketball Level 1 England Basketball Level 2 Sport 1st Cricket Level 1 Swimming Association Level 1	Thu, Mar 18, 2010 12:56 PM
4.	FA Level 1 SLA Level 1 CSLA Level 2 HSLA Level 3 NVQ Sports Development Level 3	Thu, Mar 18, 2010 12:45 PM
5.	British Gymnastics Association	Wed, Mar 17, 2010 9:24 PM

6.	FA - Junior Football Orgainser RFU - Tag Rugby Coach ECB - Level 1 ECB - Level 2	Wed, Mar 17, 2010 1:23 PM
7.	FA Level 1 ASA teaching aquatics level 2 Speedo Aqua Shallow water certificate Sports Leader HSLA	Wed, Mar 17, 2010 9:49 AM
8.	Hockey Foundation Coaching Badge	Tue, Mar 16, 2010 11:09 PM
11.	British Fencing Association, Level two foil coaching British Academy of Fencing, Level one epee coaching	Tue, Mar 16, 2010 11:27 AM
12.	AQA swimming teaching level 1 NPLQ Lifeguard Sports leaders level 1 + 2	Tue, Mar 16, 2010 10:36 AM
14.	football association (FA) - Level 1 RFU Level 1 in Coaching Rugby ETTA Level 1 in Coaching Table Tennis EBA Level 1 in Coaching BasketBall	Mon, Mar 15, 2010 6:46 PM
15.	level 1 coaching in athletics	Mon, Mar 15, 2010 5:35 PM
16.	Basketball level 1.	Mon, Mar 15, 2010 3:17 PM
17.	FA LEVEL 1	Mon, Mar 15, 2010 2:22 PM
18.	RFU Level 1 Coaching	Mon, Mar 15, 2010 2:21 PM
19.	Basketball Assistant coach, Level 1 Teaching orienteering Gym Instructor level 2	Mon, Mar 15, 2010 1:30 PM
20.	english basketball association cya in teaching young children health related exercise	Mon, Mar 15, 2010 11:21 AM
22.	UK Basketball Association	Sun, Mar 14, 2010 10:05 PM

23.	BCU Lvl 1 - Lvl 2 trained BMC - SPA BCU - Star Awards	Sun, Mar 14, 2010 9:37 PM
24.	ECB - UKCC LEVEL 1 cricket coaching award ECB - UKCC LEVEL 2 cricket coaching award	Sun, Mar 14, 2010 3:58 PM
25.	FA, Sport Leaders UK, Basketball Association, YMCA	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 10:45 PM
26.	FA Basketball Leaders Hockey Leaders	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 10:08 PM
27.	Swimming Teachers Level 1 (ASA) Swimming Teachers Syncro Level 1 (ASA) Sportshall Athletics (AAA) High Five Netball (England Netball)	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 9:37 PM
28.	Junior sports leadership award level 1 (JSLA) Community sports leadership award level 2 (CSLA) Dance leadership award	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 9:26 PM
29.	FA LEVEL 1 BASKETBALL LEVEL 1 HOCKEY LEADERSHIP COURSE FUTSAL LEADERSHIP COURSE FUTSAL LEVEL ONE	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 8:48 PM
30.	Basketball Level 1	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 8:12 PM
31.	All England Netball Association UKCC	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 7:07 PM
32.	UK athletics level 1	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 5:39 PM
33.	Lawn Tennis Association (LTA)- Level One England Netball- Level One	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 4:25 PM
34.	Archery GB Level 1	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 2:00 PM
36.	FA Level 1 football coach England Netball C Award Umpire Boccia Leader	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 9:13 AM

37.	Cheerleading Level 3 (British Cheerleadeing Association) Dodgeball Level 2(UK Dodgeball Association) Higher Sports Leadership Award Level 3 (Sport Leaders UK) Community Sports Leadership Award Level 2 (Sports Leaders UK) Piste Assistant Award (British Fencing) Orienteering Level 1 (British Orienteering)	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 2:00 AM
38.	nvq level 1 /2 gym, etm , childrens fitness, swimteacher	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 1:36 AM
39.	Cricket (ECB)- Level 1 Cricket (ECB)- Level 2	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 1:21 AM
40.	UK:Athletics British Gymnastics (BG) YMCA	Sat, Mar 13, 2010 12:41 AM
41.	football association level 1 and 2 football association referee futsal level 2 cheerleading introduction to gymnastis judging introduction to netball umpiring introduction to table to cricket TOPPS swimming course level 1 gymnastics	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 11:22 PM
42.	Football association level one	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 11:08 PM
43.	(Football Association of Wales (FAW) - Leaders Award) (UK Athletics (UKA) - Level 1) (UK Athletics (UKA) - Children in Athletics) (England Basketball Association (EBA) - Level 1 Coach/ Level 1 Referee) (Welsh Rugby Union (WRU) - Tag Rugby Award) (Dragon sports Organisers Award) (Tri-Golf Activators Award) (Duke of Edinbrough - Bronze Award) (1st Aid at Work Certificate) (Sports Leaders - JSLA, CSLA & HSLA) (Street Dance Beginners Workshop)	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 11:05 PM
44.	England Basketball - Level 1	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 11:00 PM
46.	Football Association (FA) - Level 1 Football Referee First Aid at Work	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 8:58 PM
49.	Football Association (FA) - Level 1 Central YMCA Qualifications - Level 2 Gym Instructor Sports Leaders UK - Day Certificate In Sports Leadership, Level 2 CSL, Level 3 HSL	Fri, Mar 12, 2010 7:02 PM

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| 50. | Rugby Football Union Level 1
NCFE | Fri, Mar 12, 2010
6:52 PM |
| 51. | football association (fa) level 2, england basket ball foundation and CYQ
fitness & exercise and resistance training level 1. | Fri, Mar 12, 2010
6:15 PM |
| 52. | Netball England - Level One Assistant Coach
English Cricket Board - Level 1 Coach
England Basketball - Leadership award
Badminton England - Level One Assistant
Table Cricket - Umpiring
La Crosse - Leadership | Fri, Mar 12, 2010
6:09 PM |
| 53. | National swimming qualification | Fri, Mar 12, 2010
5:54 PM |
| 54. | FA - level 1
England hockey - Foundation
BUCS - Sportshall Athletics | Fri, Mar 12, 2010
5:52 PM |
| 57. | FA level 1 coaching award | Fri, Mar 12, 2010
5:26 PM |