

1 **A Premier League Football in the Community Programme’s ‘New’ Coaches and**
2 **Support Systems: Practitioner Reflections**

3
4 **Abstract:**

5 In the UK, many sport coaching career paths are considered to be focused on skills
6 development, competence, and leadership within the context of performance. However, sport
7 coaching also sits substantially within the community and youth sectors, where sport is seen to
8 facilitate various social policy issues. Aligning non-performance related coaching contexts to
9 existing formal qualifications schemes is problematic, given they frequently emphasise athlete
10 and team performance. Whilst an emerging base of studies examining community sports
11 coaching exists, further insight and perspectives of *in-situ* learning and coach support in this
12 context is needed.

13 Using observations, evaluation, and feedback centred on practitioner competence and
14 confidence, and conducted over a two-year period with 13 new community/grassroots sports
15 coaches working with Albion in the Community (AITC – the official charity of Brighton and
16 Hove Albion Football Club), we present some of the key findings and principles that we believe
17 underlined their practice. These principles related to how, despite the majority being
18 appropriately qualified at NGB level 2, they generally needed additional support and expertise
19 for their specific (community) operational environment in terms of outcomes, practice design,
20 and challenging what was seen as a focus on providing competitive (team) environments above
21 individual player development.

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25 **Keywords:** Mentoring, Coach Development, Community Coaching, Grassroots sport, Real-
26 World Learning.

27 **Introduction**

28 Over the last 20 years in the UK, a number of work-place environments, occupations, and skills
29 sectors have become increasingly professionalised. Sport coaching, for instance, has benefited
30 from the United Kingdom Coaching Certificate (UKCC) system (one that oversees assistant to
31 master roles within coaching and is aligned to many NGB coaching awards) that oversaw much
32 coach education over this time period¹. However, whilst there a number of advantages related
33 to the use and promotion of NGB type courses and qualifications (for instance, meeting
34 minimum standards of deployment and professional requirements), there remain questions
35 related to the extent to which they continue to promote what can be seen as the more
36 performance related elements of coaching (i.e. skill acquisition, biomechanics, and physiology)
37 that persist (Author, 2016/18a Lyle, 2002; Meyers, 2006), and/or more inflexible, instrumental
38 approaches to learning that can stifle creativity and adhere to more rigid, competency-based
39 outcomes (Cushion et al., 2021; Dempsey et al., 2020).

40 These questions are inevitably drawn from the consensus that sport coaching operates
41 throughout a diverse range, one not constrained to performance characteristics only. Indeed,
42 whilst much literature outlines the term sport coaching through the lens of preparation,
43 competition, and improving performance within the context of sport competition or skills
44 (Gordon, 2009; Lyle, 2002; Martens, 2004), a growing body of work and policy focuses on a
45 wider perspective of coaching that extends beyond this. In fact, it is generally agreed that
46 outside of the sports pitch, court, or field, the use of sport to facilitate and/or expedite wider
47 social policy objectives (such as health, raising aspirations, and developing community

¹ The United Kingdom Coaching Certificate (UKCC), effectively started in 2002 by Sports Coach UK (scUK – now UK Coaching), is comprised of four functional coaching roles: assistant coach, coach, senior coach, and master coach. Having shaped contemporary approaches to coaching practice and more particularly coach education, it still exists as an endorsement process for a number of UK NGB coaching awards, although 1st4sport Qualifications (the trading arm of UK Coaching), now oversees the development and awarding of many NGB sport qualifications.

48 citizenship traits), requires certain coaching skills that are not necessarily endemic within the
49 realm of acquiring sport skills for the sake of sport skills/performance. Furthermore, the context
50 of recreational sport (with its focus arguably largely on maintaining participation), disability
51 sport, youth sport, and sport for the elderly, all arguably require different emphases and
52 subsequently, different coaching skills and objectives than coaches present and/or operating
53 only within the performance spectrum.

54 If much formal (i.e., through accredited courses and qualifications) coach education then
55 traditionally relies on what may well be seen as performance related, conventional ways of
56 coaching that are based on skill acquisition and/or leadership, then real-life coaches and real-
57 life coaching problems in non-performance environments may not have their needs met. What
58 this means, as many authors testify (e.g. Author, 2016; Griffiths & Armour, 2011; Taylor &
59 McEwan, 2012), is that coach development within ‘other’ sports coaching contexts can be
60 limited.

61 Indeed, we have already mentioned that alongside performance sport there are the
62 additional coaching contexts of recreational sport, disability sport, youth sport, and sport for
63 the elderly. There are, however, broad yet fine distinctions around performance and
64 participation sport, often based upon developmental concerns. Trudel and Gilbert (2006), for
65 instance, precisely outline the differences between recreational, developmental, and
66 performance sport. Moreover, Côté et al. (2007), proposed four general coaching contexts,
67 *Participation Coaches for Children, Participation Coaches for Teens and Adults, Performance*
68 *Coaches for Young Adolescents, and Performance Coaches for Late Adolescents and Adults.*
69 There have also been wider policy approaches applied within the UK context, for instance the
70 SportsCoach UK (now UK Coaching) 4x4 model² that articulated coaching contexts through

² The scUK 4x4 Model, through easily demarcated and conceptualised children’s, participation, performance, and elite (high performance) coach roles, acknowledges different coaching contexts and allows a range of coaching domains and perspectives to be formally acknowledged.

71 youth, participation, performance, and high performance, and the incoming (for 2023) Higher
72 Technical Qualifications (HTQs) that use a typology of community, school, and elite coaching
73 (GOV.UK, 2021). Central to all, however, are the key tenets of either performance related or
74 psychosocial development and/or social policy objectives, and they articulate how distinctive
75 practice features within the different contexts of sport competition and skills, and ‘other’ sports
76 coaching contexts described above, can meaningfully be theorised, divided, and disentangled
77 within conceptual models.

78 To add to this, there are also confluences between how grassroots sport and community
79 sport are defined. For instance, references to “grassroots community sport policy delivery” in
80 the work of Phillpots et al. (2010: 268), Hartmann’s (2003) case study that outlines the
81 grassroots view of a community-based sport programme, Adams’ (2014) work that explores
82 community-level sport policy within the context of grassroots sport, and Chapman et al.’s
83 (2019) overview of effective community sport (football) coaches within the ‘grassroots’. All
84 of the aforementioned contexts arguably require different emphases and subsequently, different
85 coaching skills and objectives than coaches present and/or operating only within the
86 performance spectrum.

87 In the domain of community sports coaching, for instance, community sport participation
88 projects frequently look to complement wider social policy and preventative services in the
89 UK. The purpose of much of these sport-based social-inclusion type programmes is oftentimes
90 wide ranging and complex. Examples here include projects that aim to specifically contribute
91 to social and community development, for instance through volunteering, helping address
92 systemic health inequalities that are often evident within areas of social deprivation, and
93 looking to reduce anti-social behaviour (ASB) (Coalter, 2005; Hodge & Lonsdale, 2011).

94 This definitional complexity throughout the different coaching contexts notwithstanding,
95 this paper draws some distinctions between the different contexts, and focuses on the term
96 community sport coaching (an area that Chapman et al. (2019) overview as concerned with
97 social development and supporting social issues) as the specific coaching context in which the
98 paper takes place.

99

100 *Coach Learning, Development, and Community Sport Coaching*

101 We refer above to formal coach education, and specifically note and frame this as a learning
102 process that can be seen through accredited courses. In the context of this paper this is
103 important, in that national governing bodies (NGB) regularly dictate, through formally
104 recognised qualifications, the entry points for many job roles in coaching, irrespective of
105 coaching context (particularly within the UK context). In this instance then, whilst we have
106 referred to (formal) coach education and how it is more limited in terms of being inherently
107 performance related, we must also acknowledge that there is a growing body of work
108 specifically tailored to coach development. In framing the way that coaches learn through
109 formal learning (qualifications etc.), non-formal learning (i.e. short courses, general continuous
110 professional development), and informal learning, which is seen as more unstructured, social
111 learning, we can see advantages and disadvantages within all of them, and yet also understand
112 them as interconnected modes of learning rather than separated (Cushion et al., 2010). The
113 consensus, however, is that formal learning can be too linear, absent of wider contextual
114 understanding and application, and parameterised by an over-reliance on some sport-specific,
115 skill acquisition type principles. Informal learning and interaction with others, on the other
116 hand, are seen to proffer the most significant learning opportunities (Cushion et al., 2003;
117 Stoszowski & Collins, 2014). Indeed, many coach development initiatives focus on

118 facilitating mutual support systems and reinforcing professional practice and understanding
119 through mentoring systems.

120 There is also a range of literature specifically referencing coaching fields, and best practice,
121 outside of and different to performance only contexts within academia and policy. The work
122 of Vierimaa et al. (2017), for instance, outlines how best practice in youth sport requires
123 encouragement, a focus on fun and inclusivity, and adult relationships that support young
124 people. Moreover, the work of Ives et al. (2021), highlights some of the inherently internal
125 conversations related to occupational identity that community coaches experience, and the
126 different ways that they deliver effective coaching practice in a fragile, unsecure (financially)
127 work environment.

128 Overall, distinct differences, and a possible disconnect, between performance and
129 community type coaching are evident within literature. This is in terms of the scope,
130 professional support, and emphasis that underpins the more widely understood body of work
131 supporting performance sport, and the more recent (comparatively), emerging body of work
132 that investigates what the form, content, and philosophy of community sport coaching means
133 (i.e. Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Debognies et al., 2018; Ekholm, & Dahlstedt, 2019). Generally
134 then, the community sport coaching context is largely understood as focusing on a variety of
135 developmental objectives, such as those included in social policy (Author, 2020a; Cronin &
136 Armour, 2015; Super et al., 2018), and more bespoke, contextualised coach development and
137 mentoring initiatives are considered more profound than many existing formal qualifications
138 in terms of supporting applied practice.

139 Nevertheless, despite these assertions and the evidence pertaining to how community
140 coaches can use different ways to underpin and regulate their applied practice, many authors
141 acknowledge the difficulties that many coaches (including beginner-coaches) encounter, and
142 have illustrated the fact that coaching (in the UK) is not classified as a profession (Lyle &

143 Cushion, 2016), meaning that at the less resourced levels (foundational) of sport, coaches are
144 still reliant on learning and accruing educational capital garnered from formal coaching
145 qualifications, and cannot (or do not know how to) access resources and best practice within
146 academia (Author, 2021; Vallance, 2019).

147

148 *Football in the Community (FitC) schemes – Albion in the Community*

149 Even though current political discourse within the UK still positions sport as an integral ‘tool’
150 to support a wide variety of social policy objectives, austerity measures within the UK over the
151 last decade plus have impacted significantly on wider funding patterns for sport (Author,
152 2020a). An example of how this has occurred can be seen through the systematically reduced
153 local authority spend, that clearly includes any wider provision of non-mandatory spend for
154 sport and recreation officers (Parnell et al., 2015). However, arguably in lieu of the
155 aforementioned austerity driven cuts to community engagement and funding, one area that does
156 currently significantly contribute to the promotion of sport in the community programmes is
157 the sport of football.

158 Since the 1980s, Football in the Community (FitC) schemes have been used to address a
159 wide range of social issues (Parnell et al., 2013; Watson, 2000). These types of schemes were
160 initially set up by the Football League and the Professional Footballers’ Association (PFA) in
161 an effort to reengage with local communities, and reposition football clubs as beacons for local
162 endeavours, inclusion, and practical attempts at increasing aspirational targets such as
163 employability, reduced incidences of ASB, and increased community cohesion (Stone, 2018).
164 The intended completion of targets such as these were facilitated through extending traditional
165 coaching sessions (i.e. summer camps) for young people, and focusing on training, school
166 work, and the like. The ethos of community development work, in partnership with wider
167 accessibility to coaching (and potential screening of talent), persisted through the 1990s and

168 FiTC schemes now sit prominently within the Premier League and the Football League, and a
169 relatively considerable body of empirical evidence now supports their effectiveness in
170 addressing a range of social problems (Curran et al., 2014, Curran et al., 2017).

171 This well-established body of literature includes many of the positive influences that FitC
172 schemes have had on people in the community, and that are now championed within policy
173 circles. Much of the practice they undertake is contextualised within notions of Corporate
174 Social Responsibility (CSR). Walters (2009), for instance, used Smith and Westerbeek's
175 (2007) CSR model to highlight the effectiveness of the then Charlton Athletic Community
176 Trust and the Brentford Football Club Community Sports Trust. Smith and Westerbeek's
177 (2007) CSR theoretical framework, based on the premise that sport clubs/institutions are
178 uniquely placed to deliver social policy objectives, centres on the following seven features:
179 mass media distribution and communication power, youth appeal, positive health impacts,
180 social interaction, cultural understanding and integration, sustainability awareness, and
181 immediate gratification benefits.

182 More recent evidence supporting the effectiveness of FitC schemes in these types of fields
183 and which reference the power of football clubs' names, reputations, and impact, includes
184 Rutherford et al. (2014) who outline physical health improvement interventions undertaken by
185 Notts County Football in the Community. Clearly, there is much evidence related to sport and
186 physical activity benefits, irrespective of whether the sport is played or delivered by a FitC
187 scheme. Yet, consistent influence and impact has been achieved through football clubs in many
188 related social and health areas, for instance, Llewellyn et al. (2022) outline the benefits of
189 community football programmes within Wales running mental health projects. Indeed, Pringle
190 et al. (2021), who studied health improvement (physical and mental) provision by English FitC
191 clubs, remarked on the positive connections that the football clubs could deliver and leverage
192 with local populations. And as an overview of FitC impacts, Sanders et al.'s (2021) work

193 outlining the perceptions of ten FitC CEOs' beliefs related to the effectiveness of FitC schemes,
194 helps demonstrate much of the wider impact, transformational moments, and success that they
195 can have.

196 City United Albion, established in 1990, is a prominent example of a FitC scheme, and is
197 the context within which this Practical Advances paper operates. Indeed, City United Albion
198 has previously been lauded for its projects and impact in an academic context, which centred
199 on how City United Albion had supported marginalised people and communities in a variety of
200 educational and supportive contexts and formats (Anonymous et al., 2014). The charity has
201 grown exponentially over the last 30 years, and at time of writing reaches over 40,000 people
202 each year across 60 community projects and employs approximately 45 full-time members of
203 staff and a further 60 part-time staff (including football coaches to deliver their projects).

204 The projects that City United Albion oversee cover three strands of work. The first strand
205 relates to participation in football, and is predominantly concerned with providing
206 opportunities for participants (with two foci, one being youth sport and increased provision,
207 and the second on persons with disabilities) to play football. The second strand is concerned
208 with more aspirational, interpersonal skills related to educational achievement, lifelong
209 learning, access to training opportunities, and broader employment prospects. The third strand
210 focuses on well-being (for instance, mental health projects), and addressing systemic
211 community disadvantages, particularly within identified areas of social deprivation within the
212 city. These programmes include, but are not limited to, more widely accessible group training
213 sessions (for various abilities and disabilities), as well as individual support programmes.

214 In all, City United Albion employs a large workforce including full-time football
215 development officers, lead coaches, and community/grassroots coaches. All of these play an
216 integral role in the support and development of their part-time coaching workforce, for

217 instance, being ‘on hand’ to set appropriate working templates, conduct, and examples, to
218 provide mentoring support and advice, and to help set the standards within their delivery.

219 Based on his knowledge of the internal workings of City United Albion (as Disability
220 Manager), the second author is able to highlight how City United Albion adopts a pragmatic
221 approach to coach education. Their internal systems seek to provide their coaches with
222 effective support systems beyond the traditional qualification methods. Whilst this has
223 historically been carried out through informal mentoring, they can also highlight the fact that
224 numerous other coach education and context specific training opportunities have been made
225 available to staff over an extended period of time. These include support for specific formal
226 qualifications (i.e. futsal, progression from L1 to L2), non-formal workshops (such as ones
227 outlining behaviour management, bereavement training, talent ID), Makaton training (a
228 simplified version of sign language), and internal coaching conferences.

229 In addition, City United Albion has successfully run mentoring schemes for participants
230 with a disability/disabilities, which has seen a small (but not insignificant) number of
231 individuals progress from being a participant to becoming part-time coaches with City United
232 Albion. These schemes have included direct mentoring support, opportunities to gain
233 qualifications, and to meaningfully volunteer within sessions. In total, we believe that all of
234 this demonstrates City United Albion’s strong commitment to supporting coaches beyond the
235 traditional qualification frameworks.

236

237 ***Community/grassroots coaching: moving forward***

238 Notwithstanding the abovementioned approaches to coach education and support within City
239 United Albion, we feel it is fair to say that as regards a wider context, there are perhaps two
240 major problems related to community sport coaching. The first is that the promotion of and
241 subsequent sustainability of the types of projects they service requires significant funding, and

242 frequently has to rely on the voluntary sector for support. The second problem, as already
243 mentioned, is that there is a lack of specific (formal) coach education for the field. The context
244 within which this Practical Advances paper operates lies within the parameters of both of these
245 problems. This is because – despite the aforementioned City United Albion’s ethos of support
246 and development - we reflect on, and analyse, a range of on-site evaluations and interviews
247 undertaken with new community/grassroots sport coaches for City United Albion that focused
248 on their community coaching skills.

249 As mentioned, the second author, ANONYMOUS NAME, is a current employee at City
250 United Albion, and has (at time of writing) worked full time for them for 12 years, and
251 including his current role as Disability Manager for the last six years. The first author,
252 ANONYMOUS NAME, works with the second author on a peripheral basis for City United
253 Albion (supporting some projects, student-coach placements and practice), and both have
254 collaborated previously on various coach education projects for over a decade. With this
255 insight, and fundamentally based on the premise that existing formal coach qualifications do
256 not necessarily prepare coaches for the community sport coaching context, this Practical
257 Advances paper then is situated within a FitC and concerned with the following: how these
258 emerging, learning coaches operate, what they feel they need to work on, how they might be
259 best supported, and how successful the existing coach support they are receiving is.

260 Much of the rationale for this sits in our own personal experiences, with a combined
261 background of approximately 45 years of sport coaching (the majority of which has been
262 community based, but also includes near 30 years in coach development roles – NGB/sport
263 organisations) and/or youth work. Added to this, in our previous collaborations on coach
264 education projects, we have consistently argued that community sport workers could and
265 should occupy a prime position in front line engagement within areas with low sport
266 participation and/or areas of social deprivation, yet that many times formal training and

267 qualifications seem to inadequately prepare practitioners for some of the peculiarities and
268 differences within the community context.

269 This Practical Advances paper set out to examine our thoughts and claims, by specifically
270 focusing on the experiences of a number of emerging, learning coaches and the extent to which
271 they felt confident and prepared to operate within the community sport coaching context. In
272 order to help us, this broadscale research aim was then refined into the following two questions
273 to guide our monitoring, evaluation, reflections, and feedback of existing practice:

274

275 • **Q 1:** How do the emerging, learning (new) community/grassroots sport coaches describe their
276 work/coaching experiences and favoured learning opportunities, and the perceived
277 appropriateness of their existing coaching qualifications?

278

279 • **Q 2:** To what extent is appropriate knowledge of the role, function, and impact of
280 community/grassroots sport coaching context specific, and how much knowledge, and practice,
281 is evident in emerging, learning (new) coaches in the field of community and grassroots sport?

282

283 *Overview of practice - reflections on improving coach practice and supporting development*
284 *and coaching 'literacy'.*

285 Operating in the fashion of a case study, through an analysis of one strand of one particular
286 FitC scheme, monitoring, evaluation, and feedback of existing practice was given to 13 coaches
287 in total (all male, all remunerated and on contract), who all worked for City United Albion on
288 either a part-time (11) or full-time basis (two). Whilst all of them had various experience of
289 sport coaching (ranging from one to 22 years, $M=7.85$, $SD=7.29$), crucially, all of them had
290 less than two years' experience of coaching within the community sport context – thus making
291 them 'new community/grassroots coaches' and therefore part of this paper's objectives of

292 understanding how prepared the emerging, learning coaches for City United Albion’s FitC
 293 scheme felt. In terms of coaching qualifications, four held level 1 FA badges, six held level 2,
 294 and three had a level 3 (in either football or futsal) qualification. See *Table 1: Coach*
 295 *Experience* below for full participant demographics.

Coach	How long coaching	Qualification	When achieved	Qualification	When achieved	Qualification	When achieved
1	1 year	1	2019				
2	1 year	1	2018				
3	1 year	1	2018				
4	2 years	1	2016	2	2019		
5	4 years	1	2015	2	2017		
6	4 years	1	2015	2	2018	GK 1	
7	5 years	2		L1 Goalkeeper		L3 Futsal	2018
8	7 years	1	2015	2	2018		
9	8 years	2		Disability qualifications			
10	11 years	1	2008	2	2017		
11	20 years	1	2002	2	2012	L3 Football	2015
12	22 years	1	2006	2	2009		
13	16 years	L3 Football		L3 Futsal		L3 Youth	2018

296

297

Table 1: Coach Experience

298

299 The monitoring, evaluation, and feedback of existing practice took place over a 24-month

300 period. Over this time, there were structured, formal observations with these 13

301 community/grassroots coaches new to the City United Albion system. These formal

302 observations were led by the second author in their role of line manager and community coach

303 educator for City United Albion. Overall, each of the new community/grassroots coaches was

304 formally observed and given feedback twice within this 24-month period for a total of 26

305 observations. These systematic (loosely focused on enjoyable, meaningful participation)

306 observations lasted approximately 60 minutes and focused on the core tenets of engaging and

307 suitable activity for participants. Criteria included, but were not limited to, appropriate

308 activities, effective communication, progressive activities, efficiency of planning, suitable

309 differentiation, standards of professional behaviour, and a positive learning environment

310 (including enjoyment, engagement, and participant satisfaction).

311 The rationale for these observations, within the professional context, was to ensure that a
312 framework of standardisation, quality, and appropriateness of the coaches' sessions was
313 undertaken. This process sought to ensure minimum standards, competency, and conduct, as
314 well as to contribute to ideas of sharing good practice.

315 Each of the coaches received written reflections on their sessions, with action points, and
316 met with the second author to discuss their ideas, responses, and feedback within the next two
317 weeks of their formal observation. Additionally, alongside these formal observations, there
318 were informal, quick, brief interactions/advisory observations (typically watching/observing
319 approximately 20 minutes of a session and talking for 15-20 minutes afterwards) taking place
320 with the same coaches on a bi-monthly format. Typically, these observations would occur
321 within recreational football/sport sessions, either within after school or community based (and
322 disability) environments, or (at times) developmental pathway contexts (for those coaches who
323 were aspiring towards working with the academy or performance hubs for City United Albion).
324 Here, in a supervisory yet supportive fashion, the second author would outline and discuss the
325 relative strengths and weaknesses with each of the same coaches. Overall, 78 of these informal,
326 quick interventions took place, resulting in a total of 104 pieces of observational and
327 conversational data (in the manner of written reflections and feedback).

328 In order to support further investigation into professional practice, short (approx. 10-15
329 minutes) semi-structured interviews were also undertaken with each of the 13 new
330 community/grassroots coaches after meeting with the second author for their second
331 observation. The new community/grassroots coaches were asked a range of questions to
332 establish their experiences within 'community sport', for instance, how long they had been
333 coaching, which qualifications had they achieved, how much of the content they had learnt had
334 they applied to their coaching, and what the biggest influences on their coaching were. In many
335 respects, alongside operating as a broader method to investigate the current coaching practice

336 of the coaches, and thus inform future and/or bespoke internal coach education plans, these
337 interview questions were deliberately designed to support the development of their coaching
338 and allow, through limited use of prompts and direct questions, an opportunity for the coaches
339 to freely express thoughts and recollections. Moreover, the intention, informed by professional
340 practice and expectations, was to allow the interviewees scope to explore and use reflective
341 practice, and contribute - in part - to the identification of particular strengths, weaknesses or
342 concerns that they recognised. Interviews were deliberately designed then, to allow the coaches
343 leeway to express reflections on their professional practice.

344 Each of these interviews were recorded and transcribed, and combined with the information
345 and reflections garnered from the observations and feedback, allowed us to review the
346 fundamental principles guiding the work, practice, and philosophies of the City United Albion
347 new community/grassroots coaches and elaborate on the key questions we had set to guide our
348 understanding.

349

350 *Data Analysis*

351 The data generated from these two methods (observations, short interviews, total - 117 data
352 points) was combined and then analysed to explore our guiding questions. An inductive
353 approach to analysing the data took place in order to identify emerging and then recurrent
354 themes and commonalities (Bryant & Charmaz 2007). As the data analysis progressed and
355 refinement of the themes and commonalties took place, a resultant categorisation of the results
356 in relation to the two previously stated guiding questions was developed.

357 For the purposes of transparency and recognising how our current (particularly the second
358 author's position within City United Albion) and previous experience may well have shaped
359 our interpretations of the data, we feel it is important here to note that there are certain
360 behaviours, practice, and traits that we view positively (in essence ones that encourage

361 enjoyment, connections, and participants satisfaction). In order to limit any possible bias
362 occurring here, we engaged in a process of data analysis that went back and forth, iteratively,
363 to ensure that we checked and rechecked the data, and created as objective a consensus as
364 possible.

365 Also note, that as we have positioned this as a Practical Advances paper, one that is based
366 upon a ‘practical and applied perspective’ and how we might illustrate best practices (and/or
367 contribute to how we would consider ‘developing’ this in future) of a specific documented
368 effort’, we sought to highlight exactly what ‘happened’ in regards to community coach
369 observations and support, and our subsequent reflections and interpretations of practice. In this
370 sense, whilst much of the paper is ‘research’ oriented, this is not so in the sense of a traditional
371 academic undertaking. Instead, if anything, it operates through taking more of an ‘action
372 research’ stance, one that is firmly encamped within the field of applied practice. This can be
373 explained through examining the premise of action research, which is to actively inform future
374 practice, through cycling through iterations of planning, ongoing research, and modifying
375 existing practice (Somekh, 2005). Indeed, the rationale for the research, reflections, and
376 applications within this paper were always intended to move beyond the acquisition of data in
377 and of itself (arguably a relatively fixed concept) and to account for ‘how’ changes could be
378 effected, and to actively implement them.

379 The next section outlines the results of our reflections we had set ourselves with our key
380 questions, and what we identified as themes and subthemes. At times, we refer to and use
381 quotes from the interviews, and these are presented in anonymised fashion, with any reference
382 to the new community/grassroots coaches designated by numbers only to differentiate between
383 them.

384

385 *Benefits of qualifications and extended learning preferences*

386 The first question we asked ourselves was what the emerging/new community/grassroots sport
387 coaches thought of their working practice and learning opportunities, and the extent to which
388 their existing coaching qualifications had appropriately prepared and/or supported them. First,
389 all of the coaches saw the *incremental benefits* of gaining coaching badges in relation to
390 minimum standards of understanding and deployment. As an example, three of the level 1
391 coaches felt that, with respect to the content they applied to coaching, they had “used most of”
392 (C2/C3/C6) it at a basic level, with one stating that the course content was “ok, I used bits and
393 pieces but heard L2 more relevant” (C4).

394 Those that had completed their level 2 qualifications, in contrast, were more bullish in their
395 reflections on how much they had used, with all of them stating that they had used “practically
396 all” of the material. Indeed, this confidence extended to several giving specific details on
397 certain sessions and the like that they felt were very helpful in terms of technical knowledge.
398 The level 3 coaches extended this frame of answers, stating that the Level 3 qualification had
399 further influenced their learning, through such mechanisms as allowing and fostering “lots of
400 trial and error in delivery but have opportunity to do so in a formative fashion” (C7).

401 Admittedly, these are simple enough answers. However, we also found a second subtheme,
402 *practical and mentoring opportunities*, that related to the first question of how the coaches
403 described their favoured learning opportunities. This uncovered the fact that the preferred
404 learning methods of all of the coaches sat outside of traditional, formal education. Here, all of
405 the coaches revealed that mentoring, practicing, and observing others, illustrated by “working
406 with other coaches” (C1), “being mentored” (C2/C3/C4/C5), and “practically coaching and
407 watching and learning from other coaches” (C6/C2/C13), were their preferred methods of
408 reflecting upon and improving their practice. Interestingly, many of the coaches also pointed
409 to having their existing practice positively, substantively impacted by other environments. This

410 is illustrated through such findings as “coaching as much as possible in different environments”
411 (C8), “other sports” (C10), and learning from the players themselves (C5/C6).

412 Overall, our reflections and understanding related to Q1 show what the coaches considered
413 were the main constituents of learning to coach (in a generic sense). Whilst there were no
414 explicit discoveries related to what coaches may need to develop effectively, the coaches did
415 feel that they needed to learn some basic guidelines through formal qualifications - but then
416 subsequently needed to engage in the process of coaching as well as benefit from learning from
417 others (whether through mentoring, observing, etc.). This concurs with the accepted literature
418 related to experiential learning, whereby understanding, competency, proficiency, and expertise
419 are extended beyond traditional educational formats (i.e. formal qualifications/official
420 accreditation, and non-formal learning such as small courses and workshops), by specifically
421 working and reflecting on in-situ, on-the-job, settings, contexts, and practical application
422 (Author, 2018b; Erickson et al., 2008; Miettinen, 2000, Van Woezik, et al., 2021).

423 Widely recognised as the most important way of developing vocational, professional skills
424 within the field of coaching (Cushion et al. 2010) and work systems as a whole (Compton &
425 Compton 2016; Kuk & Holst 2018), much of this first-hand, on-the-job experience is seen to
426 accelerate learning through: reflecting on one’s own performance (Knowles et al., 2006); from
427 observing others’ professional practice (Cushion et al., 2010; Wright et al., 2007); through
428 direct support and advice in the field (i.e. advisory systems and mentoring); and also incidental
429 learning - which takes place as a by-product of other activities, such as social interaction and
430 observing others, and is unintentional, yet a positive influence (Author, 2018b). Whilst the
431 benefit of mentoring, informal learning opportunities, and work placed practice does hold true
432 across most coaching contexts (for instance, Chapman et al., 2019; Leeder et al., 2022, Sawiuk
433 et al., 2018, and Van Woezik, et al., 2021), in the findings outlined in this paper the processes
434 seem to be particularly helpful and effective. Indeed, and specific to the learning context of

435 youth/community football coaches, the results here strongly concur with those of Hertting
436 (2019), who stated that flexibility and mentoring systems/informal learning were best suited to
437 complement a framework of mandatory education.

438

439 *The essentiality of onsite and experiential learning - extending qualification foundations*
440 *through mentoring and support, the (then) City United Albion approach*

441 The second question we used to guide our monitoring and evaluation sought to determine the
442 extent to which training programmes and qualifications had prepared newly qualified/beginner
443 (community/grassroots) coaches. Building a variety of core competencies through
444 qualifications only, has been seen to lead to variations in newly qualified/beginner
445 (community/grassroots) coaches' readiness, professional knowledge, and ability to engage in
446 professional level work (Author, 2020b). In so much as orthodox formulations of existing entry
447 level (1) coach qualifications in the UK seek to provide a platform for workers as 'assistant'
448 coaches, and the level 2 qualifications meet the generally accepted wider criteria for 'lead
449 coaches', it stands to reason that coaches entering what is often the more contested reality (for
450 instance, beyond peer coaching) that the workplace presents, will experience a wider range of
451 challenges.

452 It in this context that the second author sought to observe, support, and standardise the work
453 and the psychological and social processes (such as positive relationships) at play within
454 interactions between the coaches and the participants within City United Albion's community
455 engagement programme. Whilst the second subtheme in the first theme at first glance appears
456 to perhaps quite closely correspond to the second theme, the subtle difference is that here we
457 outline City United Albion's (then) approach of guiding the coaches (and subsequent impact),
458 and the specific thoughts and recollections of the second author. Of note, and linked to the idea
459 of social processes just mentioned, the intentions of many of the objectives of the coaching

460 sessions led by the coaches centred on developing relationships, life skills, and supporting
 461 various other social and health initiatives through what can be termed sport *and* social
 462 intervention (sport projects that embed a number of non-sport objectives projects) programmes
 463 (Buelens, et al., 2015; Author, 2021). Given this, the second author sought to determine
 464 standards, and oversee improvements if necessary, for the 13 community/grassroots coaches
 465 new to the City United Albion system through structured, formal observations that centred on
 466 enjoyable, meaningful participation.

467 The results from this element of monitoring, evaluation, and personal interventions, advice,
 468 and joint problem-solving (through probing questions), one that uses the professional support
 469 systems in place at City United Albion, are presented below in *Table 2: Coach Observations*.
 470 Of note, these are deliberately situated within the context of how coaches could ‘improve’, and
 471 are mindful and informed by Côté et al.’s (2007) previously mentioned coaching definitions of
 472 ‘Participation Coaches’, and Côté and Gilbert’s (2009) outline of coaching expertise and
 473 effectiveness (whereby coaches’ ability to interact and engage with participants demonstrates
 474 coach knowledge and ability), irrespective of domain. Using these, the recommended
 475 ‘improvements’ centred on what areas needed focus, and how coaches could relate their session
 476 aims more to the principles of participation as opposed to sporting performance/excellence (all
 477 per City United Albion community coaching aims). Whilst positive elements of coaching were
 478 recorded, the nature of ‘feed forward’ feedback (Wolstencroft & de Main, 2021) underpins, in
 479 totality, the common reflections and advisory feedback evident in *Table 2: Coach Observations*
 480 below:

Common themes from coach observations	
Positive behaviours	Areas for improvement
Good player engagement during sessions	Poor behaviour management
Coaches are inquisitive or open to learning	Drills lacked consistency
Coaches had appropriate equipment	Inability to be flexible in planning/delivery
Sessions were planned in advance of delivery	Over-reliance on line-drills

Coaches adapted and learnt quickly during sessions	Lack of player/participant engagement
	Minimal contact for players with coaches
	Minimum contact with ball for players
	Coaches had one style – autocratic
	Coaches lacked control due to rigidity of approach
	High emphasis on performance / result rather than fun or engagement,
	Lack of awareness of different ability levels

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Table 2: Coach Observations

Throughout the observations, it was relatively evident how the coaches’ range of experiences (i.e., their previous coaching experience, whether they were well-versed, novice, or newly qualified) influenced their coaching. From a positive perspective, all of the coaches were generally well-prepared and showed a desire to learn and progress their coaching. Overall, their primary skills (no doubt informed by formal qualifications) such as planning sessions, safeguarding standards and providing safe environments for participants were clearly displayed. However, some of the issues observed related to an inflexibility in the coaches’ delivery and an over-reliance on a small number of practices (essentially those taught within official qualifications, in the sense that they were more skill and performance oriented); this resulted in mixed participant experiences around some poor behaviour management, engagement and differentiation.

Overall then, in terms of practice design, implementation, and methods, the coaches as a whole displayed some habits that erred away from some of the true principles necessary for participation coaching. For instance, the already mentioned engagement and differentiation, as well as fun, positive communication, high activity, motivating participants (ensuring they come back), and dealing with group and individual problems (Author, 2020b; Hopkinson, 2014).

As can be seen from the results of the observations, many of the 13 new community/grassroots coaches displayed practice that might be seen as counter-intuitive to

502 facilitating maximum activity and enjoyment. Focusing on performance, being rigid in
503 approach, lacking an ability to differentiate, overemphasising the role of the coach compared
504 to the participants, and poor behaviour management are all elements of feedback that
505 demonstrate how, on the whole, coaching practice was constrained through a prism of
506 performance coaching principles – essentially the wrong context. There was also, importantly,
507 some divergence and discord between what had been the relatively positive understandings of
508 coaching that the coaches had attributed to themselves in the first section (through the short
509 interviews), and the results continued and apparent within this second section.

510 In total, it would be fair to say that the second author's observations shed light on what can
511 be seen, at times, as the newly qualified/beginner (community/grassroots) coaches (whilst
512 displaying some admirable qualities) being seemingly unable to break historical poor practice
513 design and implementation. Moreover, the general impression formed was that the sessions
514 and approaches lacked, overall, a sense of drive beyond what traditional 'professional'
515 coaching qualifications and coach requirements seem to embed/promote at lower levels.

516 Much of this was, no doubt, due to the manner in which the minority of coaches who 'work'
517 in the profession of football with full time equivalent wages (where continuous professional
518 development is often compulsory), have to gain their initial qualifications with the majority of
519 coaches who operate in the voluntary sector, where completing a basic course is sufficient to
520 coach for years. Expecting short courses to address, check, and ensure a wide totality of
521 coaching expertise in such a brief intervention (a matter of several weekends at level 1), would
522 likely be impossible (or at the least tremendously difficult), leading to further development,
523 support, and reflection (or combination thereof) being necessary to improve and likely meet
524 professional standards. Indeed, in some respects this may well be reflective of much previous
525 literature that critiques formal coach education systems (Author, 2016/18a), preferred methods
526 of acquiring coaching knowledge (Erickson et al., 2008), and how resistance to culture change

527 (i.e. different coaching philosophies and objectives) in sports organisations exists (Spaaij et al.,
528 2018). Furthermore, there is also the strong possibility that emerging, learning coaches
529 (essentially ‘beginner’ coaches) face issues, through unfamiliarity, in transitioning to (and
530 developing) professional practice, and navigating time-restrictions and new coach education
531 systems (Anonymous & Author, 2022; Wiersma & Sherman, 2005).

532 Overall, the results from our monitoring and evaluation, and our understanding of them
533 within the context of the questions we set out to answer, highlight the following: that coach
534 education systems provided a platform for coach delivery and a basic knowledge; that coaches
535 found mentors or other coaches significantly influenced their practice; and lastly, that coaches
536 also found learning through experience and working with players ultimately influenced their
537 own coaching more than their qualifications. Overall then, whilst behaviour management and
538 catering for a diverse range of players were missing as skill sets for a high percentage of
539 coaches (although the more experienced coaches were more adept in this area), and coaches
540 seemed to lack flexibility in their delivery and planning and only those with more experience
541 were able to adapt drills/sessions confidently, the coaches improved through gaining
542 experience and, importantly, specific interventions (i.e. through regular delivery, feedback, and
543 guidance by other coaches or mentors).

544 Quite clearly then, this paper demonstrates that formal coaching education, in many cases,
545 inadequately prepares coaches for the community/grassroots context. Institutions, sport
546 providers, and coach education programmes in general should be aware of the need to balance
547 formal qualifications and nationally agreed minimum standards of deployment, with
548 appropriate and supportive professional context-worthy education. In the next (final) section,
549 alongside summarising the paper, we will briefly detail how the City United Albion FitC
550 scheme has started to oversee training and supervision that incorporates a specific sensibility
551 to the participant and community coaching contexts.

552

553 **Conclusion**

554 The monitoring, evaluation, and feedback we undertook within this Practical Advances paper
555 uses professional guidance and the real-world application of coach education to address the
556 challenges inherent in supporting new entrants to the profession of community/grassroots
557 coaching. Here, the context presented both within this paper and wider literature (i.e. Gilbert
558 et al., 2009; Luguetti et al., 2017), posits that it is becoming increasingly evident within
559 community-based sports sessions (in particular grassroots sports) that whilst knowledge of how
560 to deliver effective sessions has improved (within academic and professional environments),
561 this information is not necessarily reaching coaches delivering at grassroots level through the
562 sole practice of formal coaching pathways. As this Practical Advances paper evidences, this is
563 resulting in continued poor practices being delivered, unless questioning of these takes place.

564 Indeed, our overarching research aim was to examine the extent to which the emerging,
565 learning coaches felt prepared to operate within the community sport coaching context, and in
566 this we feel that our intentions have been met. Moreover, we argue that what it adds, whilst not
567 necessarily entirely novel or unexpected, and perhaps more confirmatory in nature at first
568 glance, is a particular insight into the professional workings of a FitC programme and potential
569 future practical implications. Given that this professional domain is still (in many respects) in
570 a state of flux, and given the high ‘churn’ rate of well-funded community programmes through
571 promotion and relegation processes (as well as the short-term nature of related funding
572 initiatives), there are few well-established FitC programmes in the UK that are not subject to
573 possible significant funding variations year on year. To be clear then, by well-established we
574 mean programmes that have had consistent funding streams and have been allowed to fully
575 develop as institutions and cultures. The City United Albion programme, for instance, has only
576 received the Premier League payments towards community provision for a period of five years

577 at time of writing, in many respects a short time to plan, implement, deliver, and oversee a wide
578 range of institutional support processes, including coach recruitment, training, and support. As
579 an example, internal coach education programmes (such as the observations and feedback
580 outlined in this paper), require significant resource and must be balanced against meeting
581 community and operational targets.

582 In returning to our first reflection, and subsequent theme (based on the first of two questions
583 we used to guide our reflections and feedback of existing practice), *Benefits of qualifications*
584 *and extended learning preferences*, we found that the new community/grassroots coaches felt
585 that coaching qualifications were a good base and foundation upon which they could construct
586 their coaching competence, knowledge, and delivery and practice. They also felt that mentoring
587 type programmes and extending their learning through observing others was a natural
588 progression and, oftentimes, led to more meaningful knowledge and practice construction. The
589 second theme that we found (more so based on the second question we used to guide our
590 monitoring and evaluation), *The essentiality of onsite and experiential learning - extending*
591 *qualification foundations through mentoring and support*, was perhaps more critical in that it
592 shifted gaze from participant introspection and reflection, to observation of practice. Here,
593 whilst there are various different coach education systems in place, they seem – in practice - to
594 at times be unable to effectively develop coaches' knowledge of simple engagement practices
595 and core participation aims. Indeed, the results of this second theme indicate ongoing structural
596 issues related to the ethos of coach qualification (NGB) programmes (Twitchen & Oakley,
597 2019), and the persistence of what can be termed internally competing discourses and struggles
598 to adapt and develop professional practice - demonstrating resistance to culture change, i.e,
599 Spaaij et al., (2018) – within the community/grassroots coaching context. To be sure, this
600 second theme reinforced how new community/grassroots sports coaches struggle to balance

601 the relative salience of performance type coaching edicts within the community/grassroots
602 context, with actions and practice that are more contextually specific (Author, 2020b).

603 In part, the differences between the construct and belief of the coaches evident in the first
604 theme, and the more critical feedback within the second theme, are perhaps reflective of the
605 nature (and some of the limitations) of this Practical Advances paper. Admittedly, at a more
606 simplistic level it is necessary for the authors to acknowledge that the professional context and
607 expectations of the formal observation process, whilst fundamentally concerned with
608 improving coaching ‘literacy’ and expertise within the specific context the coaches were
609 operating in, may well have been skewed in terms of expectations and existing biases of the
610 authors. In short, the observations were intended to ‘find’ practice that could be commented on
611 and improved, and we must note that they took place in the context of operational work and
612 on-going, standardization and continuous professional development activities that the second
613 author oversees.

614 Nevertheless, the paper does contribute to existing practice and literature pertaining to
615 professional support and mentoring systems in coaching (Jones et al., 2009; Leeder et al.,
616 2022),, much in part because it is applied in a professional, meaningful, real-world context,
617 particularly in light of the positions and roles that the authors inhabit. What is perhaps of most
618 note, is that the key implications from our reflections suggest that: first) current coach
619 education systems are not sufficiently providing coaches with the broad skill set required to
620 deliver in grassroots or community sports and coaches are learning more through experience
621 than qualifications, and second) formalised support programmes can benefit new coaches
622 through accessing mentor knowledge. There is also a third, significant implication that reflects
623 how we strongly believe that we bring an authenticity as practitioners reporting on the very
624 nature of what ‘happened’, and have recognised a potential to build upon this and (in some

625 ways) future proof the coaching philosophy and coach development systems for City United
626 Albion.

627 In this respect then, per the *International Sport Coaching Journal's* ethos regarding
628 Practical Advances papers about, with, and for coaches, the results of this paper helped set the
629 scene for the City United Albion DNA system, that at time of writing is already in motion. In
630 brief, this system is a framework that details the delivery philosophy of the City United Albion
631 FitC scheme. Fundamentally predicated on ensuring consistency of what are considered 'good'
632 and 'meaningful' sessions for participants through intentionally, rather than incidentally,
633 achieving coaching and social outcomes, the framework is embedded through practice, theory,
634 and continuous standardisation processes. Moreover, it provides internal coaching conferences
635 and forums, and uses a guided discovery platform as part of ongoing continuous professional
636 development. The City United Albion DNA system was, in part, informed and guided by the
637 results of this Practical Advances paper, and we look to outline and reflect in more detail on
638 the City United Albion (FitC scheme) DNA system in the future.

639 Overall then, the authors posit that much 'learning' in the context of community/grassroots
640 coaching is seen to be 'enabled' best through informal learning, the more unstructured,
641 reflective, self-directed type of acquiring knowledge and skills that oftentimes comes through
642 experiential learning. It is for organisations that oversee coaching staff in the context of this
643 Practical Advances paper (community and grassroots coaching, and potentially some other
644 FitC programmes), to shift from what can be an over-reliance on 'amateur' or volunteer
645 coaches (or approaches), and instead provide and reinforce not only the content of coach
646 education programmes, but further the support systems around coaches to promote continued
647 development.

648

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