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Teaching Games for Understanding: Teachers' Socialisation, Perceptions and Interpretations

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements of the University of Sunderland
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

PhD

April 2024

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Outputs

Conference Proceedings

Gambles, E.F., Anderson, S.D., Leyland, S.D. and Ling, J. (2023) Barriers to Teaching Games for Understanding: Teachers' Engagement and Implementation in England. *TGfU SIG 40th Anniversary Conference, TGfU SIG (online) January 2023, Oral Presentation.*

Gambles, E.F., Anderson, S.D., Leyland, S.D. and Ling, J. (2023) Pre-service teachers' influences, beliefs, and barriers to implementing Teaching Games for Understanding in England. *TGfU SIG 40th Anniversary Conference, TGfU SIG (online) January 2023, Oral Presentation.*

Anderson, S.D. and Gambles, E.F. (2021) PE Teachers' Engagement with Teaching Games for Understanding and Perceived Barriers to Implementation. *3rd Euro-Pak International Conference on Sport Sciences and Physical Education, Sarhad University, Peshawar, Pakistan (online) October 2021, Keynote Presentation.*

Gambles, E.F., Anderson, S.D., Leyland, S.D. and Ling, J. (2021) PE teachers' perspectives and identification of the barriers to implementing TGfU in England using Occupational Socialisation. *AIESEP Conference, University of Alberta and McGill University, Canada (online) June 2021, Oral Presentation.*

Gambles, E.F., Anderson, S., Leyland, S.D. and Ling, J. (2018) Barriers and Facilitators underpinning PE teachers' perspectives of the Teaching Games for Understanding approach using Occupational Socialisation. *North-East Postgraduate Conference, Newcastle Civic Centre, Newcastle November 2018, Poster Presentation.*

Gambles, E.F., Anderson, S., Leyland, S.D. & Ling, J. (2018) Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin physical education teachers' perspectives of the TGfU approach. *BASES Student Conference, Northumbria University, Newcastle April 2018, Poster Presentation.*

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisors, Dr Steven Anderson, Dr Sandra Leyland and Professor Jonathan Ling for your invaluable expertise, support and understanding. Thank you for your patience and kindness, particularly when I was struggling, throughout the past several years. I wish you all the very best.

I would also like to thank all the participants who took part in my PhD for their time. It was greatly appreciated.

I would like to thank all the academics and practitioners in the Teaching Games for Understanding field, in particular the TGfU SIG, for your support. A very special thanks to Dr Len Almond who unfortunately will never get the chance to read this thesis but who, through the later stages of my undergraduate degree and early stages of my PhD, believed in me and my research.

To my Mum and Dad. Your love, support and encouragement has been nothing short of priceless. Without you I would not have been able to complete this thesis. Words cannot truly express everything you have done for me. I would like to dedicate this work to you.

Abstract

The aim of this thesis was to provide evidence that can inform the future approaches of PE teachers when using a Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) approach (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). Three studies were conducted with in-service and pre-service teachers in England and investigated the teachers' perspectives on barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU. Study 1 utilised semi-structured interviews to explore the perceptions of in-service teachers through each phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory; acculturation (childhood), professional socialisation (university/teacher training) and organisational socialisation (on-the-job) (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). Organisational socialisation was identified as the most dominant phase that affects current practice, with the teachers offering five main barriers to the implementation of TGfU; (1) lack of knowledge, (2) lack of understanding, (3) lack of time, (4) lack of support and (5) reluctance to change. Study 2 aimed to evaluate the impact of teacher training professional development on in-service PE teachers' implementation of TGfU. A pre-post evaluation study was designed incorporating facilitators provided from Study 1 and which resulted in a reduction in three of the main barriers, namely lack of knowledge, lack of understanding and lack of time. Although the teachers found that the 2-hour Continuing Professional Development (CPD) workshop and 6-week teaching practice addressed barriers to varying extents, none were fully eliminated. Study 3 examined the socialising influences and beliefs about pre-service teachers' implementation of TGfU in PE through the lens of Occupational Socialisation Theory. Semi-structured interviews highlighted the school environment and consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic as impacting significantly on teaching practice. The subsequent discussion chapter compared the principal Occupational Socialisation findings from the Study 1 in-service and Study 3 pre-service teachers and discussed the TGfU barriers and facilitators from across all three studies. The research found that the socialising influences, TGfU barriers and TGfU facilitators were similar throughout all participant groups. Evidence is presented which shows that the key differences that emerged between in-service and pre-service teachers may be attributable to a number of factors. These aspects include changes in the United Kingdom (UK) education system, their career stage and their teaching experiences, such as, early work experiences, prior knowledge of TGfU and ramifications of the COVID-19 pandemic. A significant finding from the thesis was that a CPD programme can reduce the barriers to TGfU and that there may be further benefits with a longer period of support and instruction. The conclusions of Study 2 and Study 3 indicated additional barriers beyond the five identified in Study 1, namely lack of confidence and fear of loss of control, both of which were shown to improve with time and guidance

during Study 2. For the successful implementation of innovative pedagogies such as TGfU, a consideration of all phases of Occupational Socialisation is required. This thesis found that the greatest impact on the teaching practice of PE teachers is by targeting the organisational socialisation phase. Recommended facilitators for supporting the implementation of TGfU include an initial CPD with a facilitating expert and provision of teaching resources, early exposure to the Model, a higher focus on Game-Based Approaches (GBAs) in primary and secondary teacher training, and coaching awards from National Governing Bodies (NGBs) incorporating GBAs.

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

1.1 Overview

Physical education (PE) is part of the education system which advocates for physical activity, life-long health, and well-being (Sullivan, 2021). However, the World Health Organisation (WHO) stated there are rising worldwide health concerns with over 340 million young people aged 5-19 classified as overweight or obese in 2016 (WHO, 2021). Inactivity levels in high-income countries are twice as high as those in low-income countries (WHO, 2020). Despite the UK government's investments and promotion of life-long participation in physical activity, the Active Lives survey reported only 44.6% of children and young people were engaging in the recommended 60 minutes of physical activity per day; with 32.4% doing less than 30 minutes per day (Sport England, 2021). The evidence suggests that children and adults are failing to remain sufficiently active. PE teachers, using the vehicle of the PE curriculum, play an important role in the promotion of physical activity and lifelong participation of their pupils (DfE, 2013). Although not solely responsible, it is important that PE educators are aware of their role and impact on addressing the deficiencies within the profession that can subsequently influence physical activity both inside and outside of the classroom.

Kirk (2010) suggested that PE has serious problems due to its inadequacy to prepare teachers for the changes within the profession and wider societal impacts, and in the 'reproduction of social inequalities' (p.120) resulting in the continuation of privilege and marginalisation of some pupils based on their gender, sexuality, social class, religion, and ethnicity (Gerdin *et al.*, 2020). PE prevails in perpetuating the traditional notions of physical activity and health, such as slenderness equals healthy, which can frequently lead to pupils experiencing negative and unhealthy views of themselves (Gerdin *et al.*, 2020; Kirk, 2010). Ultimately, leading PE to its failure to achieve its primary objectives of preparing pupils to be skilful and lifelong participants in physical activity (Kirk, 2010). Kirk (2010) provided three possible future scenarios; (1) continuing in the same way, (2) radical reform or, the unlikeliest, (3) extinction. He argued that PE needs a substantial change for it to provide educational worth and have long-term prospects within the education system (Kirk, 2010).

Achieving a radical reform against the current teaching approach of 'physical education-as-sport-techniques' (p. 5) is acknowledged as a difficult undertaking, which will require both the support and

change in university PE teacher education (PETE) programmes and within schools (Kirk, 2010). Butler (2005, p.228) stated that teachers need the 'tools, time and space to engage in reflection, discussion and consideration of their views and beliefs' before such a radical change is possible. In addition, she noted that the nature of Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) is itself a radical approach which challenges practitioners to examine the roots of their curricula, and that in doing so pupils may become thoughtful and skilful (Butler, 2005). This suggests that the utilisation of TGfU into UK schools is a possible way of overcoming the deficiencies in PE and improving the health of children.

1.2 History and Development of PE and the National Curriculum

Historically, PE has evolved to meet the changing needs of the nation. During the late 1800s, key government policies were introduced to reduce child labour in workplaces and increase educational opportunities (Sullivan, 2021). The focus of PE in mainstream schools was driven by the need for a physically fit, productive workforce and greater military effectiveness (Bailey and Vamplew, 1999, cited in Sullivan, 2021). Organised games and competitive sport were central curricula components within private (boarding) schools¹ being used as a form of social and behavioural control (Donovan, Jones and Hardman, 2006). Organised games began to be introduced into mainstream PE programmes in the early 1900s, however they were often combined with other main objectives central to the changing political agendas (Donovan, Jones and Hardman, 2006; Sullivan, 2021). For example, military drills were adopted in the anticipation and fear of wars whilst Swedish gymnastics was introduced to develop strength and promote health (Donovan, Jones and Hardman, 2006). In post-war Britain, PE centred upon improving hygiene and the development of team sports (Sullivan, 2021). Since the 1950/60s, the main form of PE in UK schools has been a multi-activity approach with a sharp focus on the development of techniques (Kirk, 2010).

In the mid-1960s through to the late 1970s, education policy was dominated by debates concerning the structure of the secondary school system and the reorganisation of the education system, with minimal attention being paid to the curriculum (Houlihan and Green, 2006). It was predominantly during this period that PE teachers had self-doubts regarding their marginal status, the nature and

¹ Private schools (also known as independent schools) refer to schools which charge fees for pupils to attend rather than being funded by the government. They do not have to follow the National Curriculum.

purpose of PE and the lack of recognition for the subject (Houlihan and Green, 2006). From the 1950s through to the 1970s and 1980s, teacher education underwent the process of 'academicisation', where degree level qualifications were first introduced as a precursor to becoming a teacher (Kirk, 2010). A lack of success in UK elite sport, coupled with concerns for the health of young people, led to sport organisations taking an increasingly active role in policy making in schools (Evans, Penney and Bryant, 1993). Shortly after the teacher strikes of the 1980s and increased media and political debates surrounding PE (Houlihan and Green, 2006; Kirk, 1992), the British Government intervened, forming the Education Reform Act of 1988 and the first National Curriculum was finalised in 1992.

The National Curriculum for England is composed of a set of compulsory subjects which are delivered over 4 Key Stages covering the ages of 5 to 16, with children's performance being assessed at the end of each key stage. The curriculum is divided into core (English, Maths and Sciences) and foundation subjects (e.g., Languages, Geography, History, Music, PE etc.), with the former being given greater content depth. Since the inception of the National Curriculum for PE (NCPE) all subsequent revisions (1995, 1999, 2004, 2007, 2013) have included a strand for games to be delivered, and which has become a key component of state² school PE lessons in England. The 2007 NCPE promoted the 'outwitting [of] opponents' in game situations (QCA, 2007, p.194) and that children 'draw on what they know about strategy, tactics and composition to produce effective outcomes' (QCA, 2007, p.196). Recently, in an attempt to promote more holistically developed children, the NCPE has broadened its stance through a minimalistic curriculum, awarding schools greater flexibility in what they deliver (DfE, 2013). Despite this development, the 2013 NCPE maintained the need for children to 'use a range of tactics and strategies to overcome opponents in direct competition through team and individual games' (DfE, 2013, p.2). Since its creation, the NCPE has faced repeated political scrutiny, impacting on its future direction within schools, and most notably on its status in the curriculum.

As a foundation subject, PE is 'vulnerable to be de-prioritised' (AfPE, 2021, p.6). The Youth Sport

² State schools (also known as maintained schools) are referred to as primary or secondary schools offered to all children aged 5 to 16 free of charge in England. They are funded through local authorities or directly from the government. They follow the National Curriculum.

Trust (2018 cited in Harris, 2018) Survey of Secondary PE, stated that PE time had been reduced in over a third of schools due to decreased staffing, the pressures of external examinations and additional curriculum time being given for other subjects. A number of petitions and recommendations have been reported to the UK Government calling for the status of PE to be promoted to a core subject and for changes to Initial Teacher Training (ITT) that would impact PE provision. The most recent call has been issued by the Association for Physical Education (AfPE) (2021) after concerns of PE curriculum hours being used for catch-up in other subjects that suffered as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Will Quince, the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State at the Department for Education, noted that the COVID-19 pandemic led to changes in the delivery of PE in 73% of schools, 90% offering different or modified activities and 15% of schools with a reduced time for PE as a result of a lack of appropriate inside space (Long and Roberts, 2022). Subsequent information for primary schools cited a reduction in hours in 56% of schools for some subjects such as PE (Long and Roberts, 2022). Recent data from the 2023 PE and School Sport report from the Youth Sport Trust has highlighted a decrease in both the number of hours for PE (11.1%) and PE teacher numbers (8.8%) over the decade from 2011. Another worrying assertion is the redeployment of PE teachers in secondary schools to support other areas of the curriculum (Youth Sport Trust, 2023) which adds an emphasis to the continuing discussions of the need to re-prioritise PE within schools.

To provide additional context for the NCPE, within England there are a number of types and divisions of schools which have varying degrees of freedom over their operations including finances, student admissions, timetables and curriculum. In this thesis only three types/divisions of schools in England will be focused on: (1) state, (2) Trust³ and (3) Academy⁴. Although differing slightly in their features, state and Trust schools must follow the NCPE (New Schools Network, 2015). The emergence of Academy schools in the early 2000s and the creation of the Academies Act 2010 has had a profound effect on the UK educational system (Eyles and Machin, 2019). Initially introduced to improve the standards of schools, this led to many schools with poor performance being converted into

³ Trust schools (a division of a state/maintained school) are referred to as primary or secondary schools (pupils aged 5-16) who are funded by the Government with additional funding from a charitable source. They follow the National Curriculum.

⁴ Academy schools are referred to as primary or secondary schools (pupils aged 5-16) who receive direct funding from the Government and are run by a non-profit Academy Trust. They have greater control/autonomy over timetables, finances and the curriculum. They are not required to follow the National Curriculum.

Academies. Since the introduction of the Academies Act 2010, the remit has changed to include schools with Ofsted ratings of 'good' and 'outstanding' converting to Academies, which now dominate UK education (Eyles and Machin, 2019). As of January 2019, approximately one third of primary schools (pupils aged 5-11) and three quarters of secondary schools (pupils aged 11-16) are Academies (Institute for Government, 2019). Becoming an Academy permits a school to have greater control over some of its operations which includes not being required to follow the National Curriculum (New Schools Network, 2015). With the developments of the NCPE and differences among schools in how, what, and how much PE is assigned to pupils, there is a need to investigate changes which affect PE provision. This has implications for the application of innovative teaching approaches such as TGfU.

1.3 Game-Based Approaches (GBAs)

During the educational and social transformations in the 1950s and 60s, there was a paradigm shift within PE from teaching gymnastics towards teaching sports techniques (Kirk, 2010; Tinning, 2010). This teacher-centred approach of mastering techniques became the dominant PE teaching method and has remained resistant to change since its introduction (Kirk, 2010). However, as the technique-based approach became popular, there were corresponding growing levels of concern (Ovens, Gutierrez and Butler, 2021). Peters (1967, cited in Mauldon and Redfern, 1969) suggested that the description of a physically educated individual extends beyond the mastery of a skill and cannot be used as an indicator of such. Similarly, it was argued that pupils were leaving school having limited knowledge of and success in games (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). Siedentop (2002) stated that the situation had resulted in teachers who were pedagogically more skilful but who lacked content knowledge. In addition, Lopez *et al.* (2009, p. 48) stated that tactics and decision-making in games were often disregarded in the traditional approach to games teaching, declaring that this was regarded as 'incomplete, inadequate and destined to be ineffectual in efforts to develop game players of the highest ability'. Other issues of the traditional approach have included negative impacts on pupil participation in physical activity and decreases in student motivation (Light, 2003, cited in Forrest, Pearson and Webb, 2006; Lopez *et al.*, 2009). As a result, academics argued that there was a growing need to develop a teaching approach that catered to overcoming these issues, or as stated by Thorpe and Bunker (1986, p.5), 'surely there was something better for the majority in our classes?'

In France, Deleplace (1966, 1979), and in Germany, Mahlo (1969), recognised the importance of developing technique and tactical understanding during games teaching. Similarly in England, Wade (1967) and Mauldon and Redfern (1969) began to explore how games could be taught with a greater emphasis on the learner within the teaching environment. These ideas helped form the basis for what is commonly referred to as the game-based approach (GBA). Arguably, the key historical moment in GBAs was the publication of the Curriculum Model, commonly referred to as the Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) model by Bunker and Thorpe (1982) which, since its inception, has continued to stimulate global interest (Ovens, Gutierrez and Butler, 2021; Jarrett and Harvey, 2016). TGfU challenged the traditional approach as it proposed games teaching should not start with practising techniques but instead, modified games that are developmentally appropriate for the players (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982; Kirk, 2010). The TGfU model outlined a six-step process which focuses on problem-solving and decision-making to facilitate understanding within a modified game (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982).

The original TGfU model introduced in 1982 was considered simple by some researchers who suggested changes to the model to help conceptualise the learning process (Light, 2013). Over time, this has resulted in the development of second-generation interpretations and iterations, for example, the Tactical Games Model (Mitchell, Oslin and Griffin, 2021), Games Sense (den Duyn, 1997; Light, 2004), the Tactical-Decision Learning Model (Gréhaigne, Wallian and Godbout, 2005), Play with Purpose (Pill, 2007) and Game Insight (Weeldenburg, Zondag and de Kok, 2016). The hybridisation of TGfU with other instructional models such as Sport Education (see for example Gil-Arias *et al.*, 2021) and Cooperative Learning (see for example Chiva-Bartoll, Salvador-Garcia and Ruiz-Montero, 2018) have also been used. At the centre of all GBAs is a focus on placing the pupil in problem-solving situations that emphasise decision-making and skill development within the context of a game (Griffin and Sheehy, 2004).

An outcome of these iterations and other models was discussed at the TGfU Special Interest Group (SIG) 'World Symposium for Developing Future Game-Centered Approach' in September 2020, namely the range of terms used by researchers creating difficulties when others perform literature searches (Gambles and Gutierrez, 2023). In the four decades since Bunker and Thorpe introduced their Curriculum Model thousands of journal articles and books have been published with no

consistency of terminology. Researchers have used model names or terms such as learner centred/centered, game(s) based approach, game(s) centred/centered, tactical games etc. which has introduced unnecessary confusion and complexity which could result in a researcher overlooking significant literature (Gambles and Gutierrez, 2023). GBA is a generic term that encompasses TGfU and its iterations that are based on the concept of teaching through the game- ‘the modified games set the base and framework for developing thoughtful, creative, intelligent, and skillful players’ (TGfU SIG, 2021). At the start of the thesis the term ‘games-based approach(es)’ was used, as shown in the appendices. However, since the release of the TGfU SIG Consensus Statement the body of the thesis has been edited to align with the Statement and reflect current practices in the field.

TGfU has continued to be at the centre of an international debate in theoretical, practice and research-based PE contexts for 40 years (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982; Stolz and Pill, 2014). TGfU has been widely accepted in academia since its introduction with some academics increasingly teaching GBAs on university courses (see for example Butler, 2005; Forrest, Pearson and Webb, 2006; Memmert *et al.*, 2015; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016). In comparison to the technique-based approach, Butler (2006) suggested TGfU is more effective at developing holistic learning; a key value emphasised within the PE profession. TGfU has been adopted globally and recognised as a means of developing cognitive understanding and problem-solving with pupils, students, and athletes (Gambles and Griffin, 2023; Gambles *et al.*, 2022). Research from systematic reviews claim that pupils taught using a GBA tend to have better game performance, improved tactical knowledge, and have greater engagement and interest in physical activity (Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Stolz and Pill, 2014). GBAs have not only been applicable in teaching contexts but also within athlete-centred coaching empowering players/athletes with autonomy and leading to an enhancement in their performance (Pill and Gambles, 2023).

The TGfU model has been seen as a new innovation to help shape games teaching in schools (Almond, 2015; Butler and Griffin, 2005); however, since its introduction, it has failed to progress into mainstream schools as many teachers did not recognise its existence (Almond, 1986a). Over the past 40 years, TGfU has continually had limited implementation progress in schools and appears to exist only in isolated locations (Almond, 2010; Butler *et al.*, 2008; Harvey and Pill, 2016; Jones and Cope, 2011; Memmert *et al.*, 2015; Roberts and Fairclough, 2011). Similarly, O’Leary and Griggs (2007 cited in O’Leary, 2012) stated that only a small number of UK university teacher training

courses provide exposure to GBAs or TGfU. Almond (1986a) suggested that although the model was founded upon sound principles, teachers need to be provided with the practical guidelines and to experiment with it within their own context.

Stolz and Pill (2014) and Memmert *et al.*, (2015) suggest teachers find TGfU (and GBAs) problematic for numerous reasons including the divide between academic research and practical application, limited consensus on best practices and how they can be supported within the school environment. TGfU has gained popularity with researchers in Higher Education who regularly publish in academic journals that are inaccessible to most teachers (Memmert *et al.*, 2015). As a result, there is limited attention focusing on how ideas are incorporated in practice, the concerns and implications on teachers and the school environment, and how TGfU can be implemented into PE lessons (Memmert *et al.*, 2015). Harvey and Jarrett (2014) reported short instruction periods provide limited support to teachers and fail to develop sufficient pedagogical content knowledge of GBAs. Moreover, there is an epistemological gap between GBA academic theory and teaching practice (Light, 2008). Therefore, to promote the potential advantages of the approach it is recommended that continuing professional development and learning are required to support teachers in the implementation of TGfU and GBAs (Almond, 1986a; Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Light, 2008, Memmert *et al.*, 2015; Parry, 2014).

1.4 Theory Based Analysis

Understanding the key barriers and facilitators to the implementation of TGfU will be beneficial for future theoretical and practical application within education. Several theories have been used to understand TGfU and its application in practice; for example, complexity theory, information processing and schema theory, situated learning theory and dynamical systems theory (Gambles and Griffin, 2023; Ovens, Gutierrez and Butler, 2021). There is an inherent variability in the particulars of each individual teacher such as their background, the degree of understanding they have for any particular model and its application within their teaching context which would inevitably lead to differences in interpretation and implementation of curricula models (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008). Despite the extensive body of literature on innovative pedagogies the findings will not be generalisable across all instructional models (McCaughy *et al.*, 2004, cited in McMahan and

MacPhail, 2007). Therefore, McMahon and MacPhail (2007), recommend that research needs to be directly related to the teaching experiences of specific models.

Evans and Davies (2017, p.20) had described PE teachers as not being a 'homogenous community' and extorted on how an understanding of the potential of educational change within this field relies upon an analysis of teacher socialisation. Occupational Socialisation (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b) is a theory that has been widely accepted and which has been applied to gain an understanding of socialisation in PE and the influences affecting the implementation of instructional models. Occupational Socialisation has been applied to several pedagogical models most notably Sport Education (see for example Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009) and TGfU (see for example Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016).

Occupational Socialisation Theory provides researchers with a framework upon which to understand the influences within a teacher's life and the reasons they teach PE the way they do (Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009). Evans and Davies (2017) commented on the dearth of literature with respect to the socialisation of PE teachers particularly in the latter phases of Occupational Socialisation, with Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov (2019) noting only 15 articles out of 111 published between 1979 and 2015 originated in the UK. There have been previous studies which have focused on TGfU being underpinned by Occupational Socialisation (see for example Li and Cruz, 2008; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016), the largest volume of these have primarily focused on pre-service teachers outside of the UK. Several studies have examined UK teachers however, these were primarily in-service and with the research investigating a limited number (one-two) of participants (O'Leary, 2016; O'Leary, Longmore and Medcalf, 2014). Richards, Templin and Graber (2014) suggested greater exploration into pre-service and in-service teachers' socialisation including how this impacts the interpretation and implementation of curricula models is required. This notion was supported by O'Leary (2016) who also highlighted the need for studies to include more participants from differing backgrounds and experiences delivering TGfU.

The educational landscape in the UK has been experiencing a number of significant changes in terms of the types of schools, changes to the National Curriculum (DfE, 2013), alternative routes to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (DfE, 2017) and the increase in primary PE provision delivered by coaches (Griggs, 2010). Richards, Templin, and Graber (2014) noted that continuous research

underpinned by Occupational Socialisation Theory is required to investigate the ongoing changes within education and the socialisation of teachers. Therefore, to investigate the impact of the complex interaction of these factors in the lifetime of teachers in England, Occupational Socialisation will be used as a theoretical base for this thesis.

1.5 Thesis Research Aim and Objectives

This thesis will consist of three studies: Study 1 aims to identify from in-service PE teachers' perspectives, the factors that underpin engagement with the TGfU approach. Study 2 focuses on evaluating the impact of teacher training professional development on in-service PE teachers' implementation of TGfU. Study 3 examines pre-service teachers' influences and beliefs about the implementation of TGfU in PE. The thesis will also include a discussion chapter which compares the influences on pre-service and in-services teachers' Occupational Socialisation and the barriers and facilitators to the implementation of TGfU. This thesis therefore aims to provide evidence that can inform the future approaches of PE teachers when using a TGfU approach. To achieve the aim of this thesis, the following objectives will be addressed:

Objectives

Thesis objective:

1. To analyse the perceptions of pre-service and in-service PE teachers of the barriers and facilitators to the implementation of TGfU in schools in England

Study 1

1. To examine, in-service PE teachers' beliefs and experience of acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation.
2. To identify barriers that prevent in-service teachers from utilising the TGfU approach.
3. To identify teachers' recommendations that facilitate the implementation of the TGfU approach.

Study 2

1. To train in-service teachers to deliver a TGfU approach in a 6-week Continuing Professional Development (CPD) event.
2. To evaluate the success of PE teachers delivering a TGfU approach as part of a scheme of work, through the reduction of the barriers identified in Study 1
3. To identify teachers' and researcher's recommendations to facilitate overcoming the barriers associated with implementing a TGfU approach in PE.

Study 3

1. To identify the influences that underpin pre-service teachers' acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation.
2. To ascertain pre-service teachers' barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

Following this introductory chapter, the thesis is presented in six chapters. An outline of each chapter is provided below.

Chapter 2- Literature Review: Teaching Games for Understanding and Occupational Socialisation Theory - this chapter initially introduces the TGfU model, the main pedagogical principles, and its theoretical underpinning. The facilitators and barriers to the model's implementation are introduced and explored. Occupational Socialisation Theory (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b) is explained with focus on the influences impacting teaching practice across the three phases of the theory (acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation). Finally, this literature review evaluates Occupational Socialisation Theory and examines its application with pedagogical models, particularly TGfU.

Chapter 3- Study 1: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin physical education teachers' perspectives of the TGfU approach- identified the factors that underpin the utilisation of the TGfU approach in teaching practice, as examined

using Occupational Socialisation Theory. The study utilised semi-structured interviews exploring the three phases of Occupational Socialisation and the barriers to implementing TGfU with in-service secondary school PE teachers. 15 PE teachers from across 13 state schools in Yorkshire with 4-32 years of experience working in schools, participated.

Chapter 4- Study 2: Teachers' Use of the Teaching Games for Understanding Approach- evaluated the impact of a teacher training CPD to address the five main barriers to teaching TGfU as highlighted in Study 1. A pre-post design study utilising questionnaires and focus groups which examined and evaluated the success of PE teachers delivering TGfU as a part of a 6-week scheme of work. A two-hour CPD session was conducted with PE departments, followed by the teachers implementing the TGfU approach for a minimum of one hour per week for six weeks. Participants were 17 PE teachers from across five secondary schools in the North of England, with nine months to 22 years of experience in schools.

Chapter 5- Study 3: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and barriers to implementing the TGfU approach- examined pre-service teachers' influences and beliefs about the implementation of TGfU. The study utilised semi-structured interviews exploring the three phases of Occupational Socialisation and the barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU with pre-service teachers. 10 pre-service teachers from the North-East of England participated.

Chapter 6- Discussion: Dialogic Perspective of pre-service and in-service teachers' Occupational Socialisation and the barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU - This discussion chapter utilised the findings from Study 1 and Study 3 to comparatively analyse in-service and pre-service teachers' acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation influences. Furthermore, the chapter compares the barriers and facilitators to implementing the TGfU model in schools as identified by the participants of Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3.

Chapter 7- Conclusions and Recommendations- a summary of the aims and objectives of the thesis and studies is included. A thesis summary and then key strengths of the thesis are provided and described. A discussion of the limitations of this work are identified with suggestions of how this could have been improved upon. Finally, future research opportunities and conclusion are provided.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW: Teaching Games for Understanding and Occupational Socialisation Theory

2.1 Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the TGfU model and of TGfU through the lens of Occupational Socialisation Theory. To achieve this, firstly this review will examine the TGfU model, barriers and facilitators to its implementation and its limited impact on games teaching in the UK. Secondly, this review will evaluate Occupational Socialisation (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b) with a focus on the five assumptions and three phases of the theory in order to understand the influences throughout teachers' lives and how teachers teach. Finally, an evaluation into the application of Occupational Socialisation and pedagogical models with particular reference to TGfU, will be provided.

2.2 Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU)

In the early 1980s, concerns arising from the observed inadequacies of isolated technical skill practices led to the formation of a project team at Loughborough University to overcome the failure of schools to physically educate pupils (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). Ultimately, this led to the development of the TGfU Curriculum model and subsequently several articles and presentations followed (Ovens, Gutierrez and Butler, 2021). A central component from the initial development of TGfU was that the theoretical concepts were informed by practice and engagement with teachers (Almond, 1986a). Unlike previous models of teaching techniques, the TGfU model focused on learning the tactics and decision making through modified games. Modifying complex games into simple game forms was proposed as an approach believed to enable pupils to quickly comprehend the objectives, resulting in increased enjoyment and engagement (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). Bunker and Thorpe (1982) strongly highlighted the need for introducing the game from the beginning to initiate the development of tactical awareness and decision-making, prior to skill execution. Through this sequence it was suggested that pupils will develop the knowledge and understanding necessary to play games (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). It is important to note that the TGfU model still includes skill execution and development, but these are only after the pupil or

player recognises the need for the particular skill (Werner, Thorpe and Bunker, 1996, cited in Forrest, Pearson and Webb, 2006). To understand the concepts of TGfU, firstly the primary practical issues needed to be addressed.

One of the primary practical issues was the need to convert the complex adult version of a game into smaller progressive units that were developmentally appropriate for the learner (Bunker, 1983; Thorpe, 1983). Racquet sports were chosen as an example as, although they are technically demanding, they have a simpler tactical format than those involving teams (Thorpe, 1983). Using tennis, Thorpe (1983), noted that beginners have low technical abilities which makes full version games unsuitable. When the children were fed the ball in a practice activity, they appeared to show improvement, but the techniques learnt during practice disappeared when playing the game. To provide opportunities for the learner to practise and understand the game, a reduction in the technical demands of play was needed (Bunker, 1983; Thorpe, 1983). This allowed teachers to observe play and intercede only when they needed to focus on a specific technical or tactical element which would allow for better game play. This new method of game play laid the foundation for increased innovations in games teaching (Almond, 1986a). The Loughborough University team applied the principles to other complex games, achieving similar results. This led them on to debating and reaching a consensus for defining games, including what is a game and what does it involve (Almond, 1986c; Thorpe and Bunker, 1986).

An early definition of a game was-

‘... an activity in which a minimum of two people, themselves on the move, engage in competitive play with a moving object within the framework of certain rules’ (Mauldon and Redfern, 1969, p.6).

Mauldon and Redfern were pioneers in the field of GBAs with their application to primary PE in the UK (Gambles and Griffin, 2023). This was one of the influences on the Loughborough team in their own research with teaching games to secondary school pupils (Bunker and Thorpe, 1986b). Although the Mauldon and Redfern (1969) definition appeared to cover the majority of games played in PE lessons, it neglected other games such as stationary target games. Brackenridge (1979 cited in Almond, 1986c) provided an alternative definition for a game. Almond (1986c) stated the importance of this definition was that it focuses on how the nature of the game problem, and

ultimately the means for solving it, is dependent upon the constraints imposed by its rules. Unlike other physical activities, games involve 'what to do', 'when to do it' and 'how to do it'. Due to the complexity of defining games, the founding members of TGfU came to an agreement of the elements of a game (L. Almond 2015, personal communication, 10 April). They decided that the aim of a game is to score more points than your opponent(s) by outwitting them. Winning was not necessarily the sole focus of the game as players look to improve their play or enjoy competition through seeking opponents who provide a challenge for them- if winning was the only point of game play, then players would select those opponents who were easy to beat, however this is not the reality. Outwitting opponents formed a further debate in TGfU development examining what does this mean and encompass. The founding members of TGfU agreed that the focus of outwitting an opponent was to develop tactics and strategies that enable more points to be scored. To accomplish this, a deeper understanding of the game beyond technical performance was required (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). This concept was the key focus of the development of the TGfU model.

2.3 TGfU Model

Bunker and Thorpe (1982) noted that the current method of teaching using a teacher-led technique-orientated approach was resulting in a significant proportion of children having little success in games. They believed that the prioritisation of learning techniques in preference to understanding games resulted in children leaving school with insufficient knowledge of games (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). This led to the introduction of the TGfU model in 1982 later republished in 1986, entitled 'The Curriculum Model'. The TGfU model maintained an emphasis on executing techniques like the traditional games model however, the focus was shifted to understanding what technique to use and when and where to use them prior to learning how to execute. This model emphasised the need to understand and learn the game before the need to 'perfect' the techniques (see Figure 2.2).

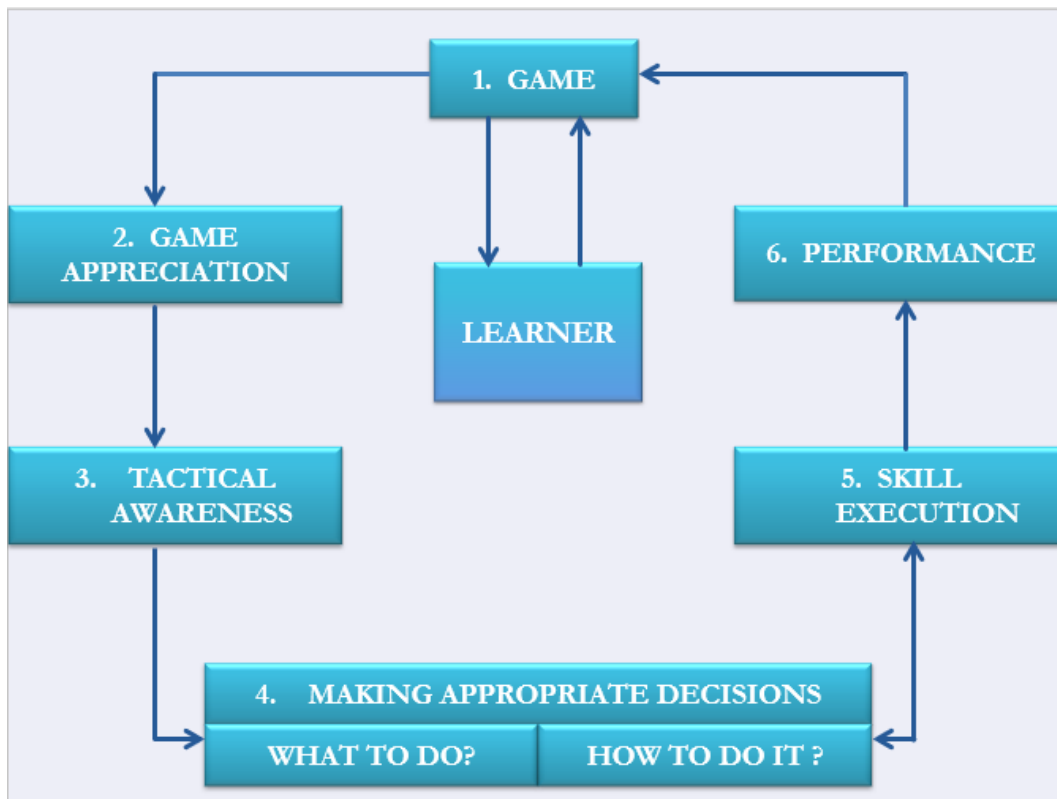


Figure 2.2: Teaching Games for Understanding Curriculum model (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982)

The TGfU model follows instructional stages that begin with the introduction of the game, developing towards the tactical awareness and decision-making stages before skill execution and performance (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). To help explain the model, each of the instructional stages needs to be examined.

The first stage of the model is the introduction of *the game*. This refers to a modified version of the advanced full game and is developmentally suitable for the learners. The modifications to the game could include number of participants, equipment used and/or size of the playing area. It is important that the pupils are engaged in the activity working towards mastery of the game. The second stage is what Bunker and Thorpe (1982) named *game appreciation*. In this stage the children are introduced to the rules of the game regardless of the simplicity of them. The focus is to create rules that meet the abilities of the children and that can create opportunities for tactics to be employed. *Tactical awareness* is the third stage of the model and causes children to consider what is needed to be successful within the game. A central component of TGfU pedagogy is the use of open-ended

questioning to stimulate learning and engage pupils to develop as intellectual games players. It is important that teachers or coaches use open-ended inquiry-based questioning for pupils to reflect on aspects of the game and provide solutions to the tactical problems that arise. This leads into the fourth stage of the model, *making appropriate decisions*. The 'what to do' refers to the tactical awareness of recognising what is needed within the current game situation, for example the need to create space when advancing up the playing field. The 'how to do it' allows children to decide the best way to achieve it. The model's fifth stage, *skill execution*, focuses on how to execute specific skills and movement in the context of the game. The final stage is *performance*. Performance is based on the appropriateness of the response and proficiency of the skill execution based on specific criteria according to the goals of the game/lesson/unit. The performance criteria leads to the development of competent games players. The completion of the stages results in restarting the cycle by modifying the initial game or creating a new game, and the model process progresses.

After their initial 1982 TGfU paper the authors expanded upon the Curriculum Model with four pedagogical principles which they introduced at the 1984 Olympic Scientific Congress (Thorpe, Bunker and Almond, 1986). Different games may give rise to similar problems and hence similar tactical solutions could be applied across a range of games. Thorpe, Bunker, and Almond (1986) argued that if one acknowledged this perspective within the PE games curriculum then a set of pedagogical principles could be applied that expands beyond presenting each game in isolation to others. The principles were: game sampling, modification-representation, modification-exaggeration, and tactical complexity (Thorpe and Bunker, 1989).

Game sampling refers to providing the opportunity for children to explore different games. The intention is for children to recognise the similarities and differences of the games and as a result lead them to having a greater understanding (Thorpe, Bunker and Almond, 1986). *Modification-Representation* involves developing games that employ the same tactical framework as the full advanced version of the game, but which are modified and/or simplified to be developmentally appropriate for the players. Thorpe, Bunker, and Almond (1986, p.165) suggested modification-representation means:

'That games are developed that contain the same tactical structures of the adult game but are played with adaptations to suit the children's size, age and ability'.

To facilitate the game sampling and representation processes, a system for classifying games was required. Almond (1986b) stated that Margaret Ellis’s earlier work and paper on her games classification system (presented at the 1983 AIESEP Conference in Rome), was a seminal contribution to their understanding. This informed the games classification system as described by Almond (1986b) which categorised games into; invasion, target, net/wall and striking/fielding. Whilst similarities in technique within different sports are limited, the games within each class have common tactical problems which are transferable across them. The games classification system advocates for providing pupils with a selection of games, as opposed to the traditional approach of teaching one specific sport as a discrete unit topic (Thorpe, Bunker and Almond, 1986). The pedagogical principle, *modification-exaggeration*, involves changing the secondary rules of the game to create specific tactical problems, for example, modifying the size of the goal. *Tactical complexity* refers to changing the game to meet the developmental ability of the pupils. As the pupils develop an understanding of the tactical problems and solutions, the complexity of the game can be increased. The focus is to ensure that the game forms are appropriate for the children. The four principles are not mutually exclusive, for example through the modification of equipment and sampling a wide variety of games with similar tactical demands, a teacher can devise a PE curriculum that is developmentally appropriate for the child (Thorpe, Bunker and Almond, 1986).

A TGfU lesson would typically begin with a developmentally appropriate game that has been modified using the pedagogical principles of *exaggeration* and *representation*. This will provide the necessary rules of the game and introduce the tactical problem(s) needed to be solved. During play, the pupils may need skill and/or technical teaching in order to complete their tactical decision making. They would then return to the game to apply what they have learnt. To aid successful engagement in the TGfU process and achievement of learning outcomes, a set of teacher and pupil benchmark statements may be employed to confirm the authentic implementation of the model (Butler, 2014; Metzler, 2011). An example of potential benchmarks is outlined below in Table 2.2:

Table 2.2: Teacher and Pupil Benchmarks (Taken from O’Leary, 2012)

‘TEACHER BENCHMARKS
A principle of play and/or tactical problem is used to organise learning tasks
The lesson begins with an initial game to develop game appreciation

Tactical and skill requirements are identified from the initial game
Modification-representation and/or modification-exaggeration are used to ensure developmentally appropriate games
The teacher uses a high rate of (tactical) feedback during games
On and off-the-ball techniques and skills are taught as required
Open-ended questions are used to get the pupils to solve the tactical problem
Peer/social interaction is evident
Authenticity/relevance of material is made clear to pupils
PUPIL BENCHMARKS
Pupils are given time to think about open-ended questions
Pupils are engaged in making tactical decisions
Pupils make progress on tactical knowledge as they move from an initial game to technique/skill practice(s) to final game
Pupils have learned tactical awareness, decision-making and skill execution'

In summary, TGfU focuses on creating a modified game of the advanced full game to meet the developmental needs of the learner. Teaching within the context of a game is central to the approach with emphasis placed on the tactical awareness and the decision-making of the pupils. TGfU aims to promote an understanding of games by creating different tactical situations which can then be applied to games of a similar nature. TGfU aims to create skilful game players by using problem-solving and open-ended questioning within the game as opposed to focusing solely on the reproduction and execution of techniques.

2.4 TGfU and the theorisation of learning

Child pedagogy is underpinned by several theories of learning that inform a practitioner's delivery and include behaviourism and constructivism. These two theories have strong fundamental differences, with behaviourist learning theory being the dominant approach in PE and games

learning for over 70 years (Butler, 2005; Kirk, 2010) and TGfU being largely built on the constructivist approach to learning. The underpinning concept of behaviourism is atomistic; that learners are isolated from the world and where although the body is governed by the mind, physical experience and mental processes are regarded as being separate (Light, 2013). Behaviourists acknowledge the inability to accurately reconstruct mental processes in the understanding of behaviour and so focus upon the objectively observable body and its responses to stimuli from its environmental conditions (Davis, Sumara and Luce-Kapler, 2000, cited in Light, 2013). Behaviourism requires a structured and technical pedagogical approach resulting in learning when the child passively receives knowledge from the teacher and then performs the appropriate response (Pissanos and Allison, 1993; Rink, 2002). Direct structured instruction, such as through the technique-based approach, presents tasks in fragmented/deconstructed forms, learning and response behaviours are reinforced by repetition and conditioning, encouraging pupils to repeat the desired/predefined behaviour (Woollard, 2010). For example, in an invasion sport drill, where two players repeatedly practice passing the ball between themselves but in the absence of defending players. Through the technique-based approach, consistent repetition can provide effective reinforcement of response patterns (Butler, 2005). The aim is for effective teaching with learning being successful in areas which require minimal thought and the ability to perform the correct response (Butler, 2005; Palincsar, 1998).

However, critics of behaviourist theory suggest that it over-emphasises basic skills and that its effectiveness at teaching higher order learning is questionable (Butler, 2005). By overlooking the development of higher order critical thinking skills, pupils learning lacks contextual application (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). Within a games situation the constantly changing environment requires pupils to solve problems and make their own decisions with the aim of outwitting their opponents. Therefore, the repetition of isolated techniques derived from behaviourist learning is unlikely to develop game understanding and create intelligent players (Almond, 2015; Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). TGfU was originally devised to address the practical concerns that children were good at techniques but were not skilful games performers (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). The theorisation of learning has been expanded to bring understanding to the application of TGfU, with the constructivist perspective being the dominant theory since 1998 (Kirk and Macdonald, 1998; Light, 2013). Variations which have similar epistemological, ontological, and philosophical assumptions have also been applied, including Complex Learning Theory (Davis and Sumara, 2003) and Situated Learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991). For example, Kirk and MacPhail (2002) intended to inform future practice through the development of a robust model that modified and expanded upon TGfU by

applying the situated learning perspectives. With consideration to the advancements in educational learning theory, they argued the need for a greater focus on the learner's perceptions of the game. Utilising a constructivist perspective enables researchers to understand, explain and enhance pupil learning when using TGfU (Light, 2009).

Constructivism involves learners drawing from their existing knowledge and actively constructing their own understandings and meanings of the changing environment (Light, 2013). This can be applied to games where the players have to adapt to the dynamic game situations as they unfold. Constructivist learning emphasises the examination of information using the mind, senses, and body in a holistically and integrated manner. This challenges the traditional theory of learning, behaviourism, which focuses on a separation between the body and mind (Light, 2013). This integrative principle is a favourable aspect of constructivism as PE places a high value on the development of holistic learning (DfE, 2013; Light, 2013; Sullivan, 2021). There are many forms of constructivism that may be used to explain the application of TGfU, however they can be categorised into two major groups: (1) psychological constructivism and (2) social constructivism (Phillips, 1997).

Chen and Rovegno (2000, p.357) stated psychological constructivism involves 'the activation and reorganization of existing knowledge to make a unique understanding of the world'. Psychological constructivism derives from the work of Piaget (1952) who argued that through interactions with the environment the learner constructs knowledge by assimilation and accommodation. The process of psychological constructivism begins with the learner being presented with new information which they attempt to assimilate into an existing schema, or knowledge construct, which allows them to interpret and understand the world (Piaget, 1952). If the information does not fit into an existing schema, this results in the learner having conflicting experiences. However, both cannot be true, and this is considered cognitive disequilibrium (Piaget, 1952). The learner tries to accommodate the new information by creating a new schema to assimilate the information which temporarily re-establishes equilibrium (Piaget, 1952). This process continues whenever the learner encounters new information which cannot be assimilated (Harlow, Cunnings and Aberasturi, 2006). In a TGfU lesson, the teacher could purposefully create a modified game to emphasise new situations such as a tactical problem. When confronted with the situation, the pupil may experience a sense of disequilibrium arising from the need to accommodate and assimilate this new information (Harlow,

Cunnings and Aberasturi, 2006). By challenging the pupil with problem solving activities their engagement is maintained in the lesson.

Social constructivism draws upon the works of Vygotsky and Cole (1978), Lave and Wenger (1991) and the social and cultural ideas of Bruner (see for example Bruner, 1966). Vygotsky and Cole (1978) emphasised the social and cultural environmental forces in developing learning and suggested that learning occurs through the interactions with other people, whilst conversely, Piaget believed that children's cognitive development was an individual process. Three of the major components within social constructivism are the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), intersubjectivity and scaffolding (Vygotsky and Cole, 1978). The ZPD is:

‘The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving, and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more able peers’ (Vygotsky and Cole, 1978, p.86).

Vygotsky believed teachers needed to facilitate learning and structure the learning environment to allow the development of the child's skills to alleviate boredom and anxiety. It is important that children's actual developmental levels (in terms of mastered knowledge and skills) are attended to prior to moving towards their potential developmental levels (which are skills and knowledge not yet mastered and will require the assistance usually in collaboration with others). The ZPD is considered a state of developmental readiness or a learning space in which children can explore what they currently know and what they are capable of learning (Doherty and Hughes, 2009). In a game scenario, the teacher can encourage pupils to work together, sharing their ideas and solving the tactical problems. The pupils find a shared understanding of the activity as each individual modifies the perception of the other(s); this is termed intersubjectivity. Through social interactions, children can develop their independence and refine their intellectual capabilities (Doherty and Hughes, 2009). Learning occurs in both social and cultural contexts, as indicated by the ZPD and intersubjectivity, hence the school environment and social interactions within these contexts needs to be considered during TGfU teacher education and practice (Wang and Ha, 2012).

Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) introduced the concept of scaffolding which represents the way learning can be supported at significant points by more competent individuals, with the support

being gradually removed as the learner succeeds. The teacher adjusts the learning environment to meet the children's ZPD and then assesses what, when and how much support the pupils require. Scaffolding can help learners engage with the lesson content to become more competent problem-solvers (Rosenshine, 2012), developing their cognitive levels (Vygotsky and Cole, 1978) and so facilitate their understanding of game play. In TGfU this can be achieved through game modification and questioning. By changing the modified game (for example players, playing area and equipment or through a change to the secondary rules to exaggerate tactical problems) the teacher can create a situation that is developmentally appropriate for the pupils to allow for game success. The teacher utilises simple language and skilled questioning to allow the child to understand the activity to a greater extent- enabling intellectual development to increase to a new level and the child to achieve success within the game (Butler, 1997).

Whilst the traditional 'PE as sports techniques' approach has been firmly entrenched in UK schools for decades (Kirk, 2010), conversely across the UK and wider international academic PE community there is a high degree of acceptance of GBA pedagogical models for pupil engagement and learning (Stolz and Pill, 2014). All iterations of GBAs incorporate understanding as a valuable component of game learning with constructivism being applied to underpin a theoretical examination of TGfU (and GBAs). However, Stolz and Pill (2014) and Almond (2015) suggested that 'understanding' is frequently neglected within the literature, and particularly an explanation of what and how understanding means for practice. This may in part be due to the research focusing on a comparison between the technique-based approach and GBAs and later, the differences in research methodologies (Stolz and Pill, 2014). As a consequence of the difference in research methodologies, some direct comparisons of study results have been problematic and resulted in inconclusive or contradictory conclusions in the support of GBAs over the technique-based approach (Rink, French and Tjeerdsma, 1996; Stolz and Pill, 2014). This may also be due to what is considered understanding in practice, particularly as Almond (2015) questioned that if understanding is such an important component of the NCPE, then why has there been limited time spent 'articulating how teachers can organise learning or providing informed guidance on how to achieve understanding and make appropriate assessments' (p.18). The TGfU literature indicates that teachers struggle with the adoption of the approach which could constrain its implementation (see for example Brooker *et al.*, 2000; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Stolz and Pill, 2014; Thorpe and Bunker, 1983). Teachers are at the forefront of the implementation of pedagogies within schools and therefore, it is appropriate to comprehend the barriers to TGfU as they may provide insight into the limitations of

employing constructivist teaching approaches and the perpetuation of the traditional technique-based approach.

2.5 Barriers and Facilitators of TGfU and GBAs

Overview

The popularity, benefits, and successes of using TGfU have been well recognised among academics in the field (see, for example, Allison and Thorpe, 1997; Butler, 1996; Kirk and MacPhail, 2002; Wang and Ha, 2009). To facilitate greater use of the TGfU approach in core PE, it is important to understand the barriers faced by teachers to implementation and the facilitators in helping teachers overcome the issues faced. Previous research has explored the barriers to implementing TGfU, starting with Thorpe and Bunker in 1983 to recent research including Harvey and Pill in 2016. Similarly, current studies such as Pill, Swabey and Penney (2017) and Silva, Farias and Mesquita (2021) have discussed the challenges to apply GBAs and other student-centred approaches.

Barriers

There are a number of recognised barriers to the implementation of TGfU and GBAs in PE for in-service and pre-service teachers. Many of these reside with the teacher and their ability/inability to implement the approach. Several studies have categorised the main barriers into conceptual, pedagogical, cultural, and political (Harvey, 2016; Harvey and Pill, 2016; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Roberts, 2011).

Conceptual

Conceptual dilemmas are based upon the teachers' understanding, assumptions and beliefs about learning (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). These components help inform teaching practice but also aid understanding and application of pedagogical approaches such as TGfU (Butler, 1996; Harvey, Cushion and Massa-Gonzalez, 2010). Thorpe and Bunker (1983) found one of the barriers to TGfU was the in-service teachers' beliefs that you have to teach the techniques first before you are

able to teach the game. This has been a common barrier for over 40 years cited by in-service and pre-service teachers (see for example Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Pill, 2011; Wang and Ha, 2009) leading to the belief that GBAs are suitable for only high ability or older pupils (for example Pill, 2011). According to Harvey, Cushion and Sammon (2015) and Lortie (1975) this barrier is a result of the teachers' beliefs and assumptions constructed during their childhood experiences of PE which influences their perceptions, interpretations, and implementation of teaching approaches.

A lack of conceptual understanding is another recognised barrier to the implementation of TGfU and GBAs (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). Rossi *et al.* (2007) reported that Singaporean teachers found it difficult to understand the differences between the traditional behaviourist approach and the constructivist approach. This leads to teachers limited engagement with GBAs and reverting to their previous tried and tested methods of teaching (Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009) or modifying the innovative pedagogy to include parts they like that fit with their current beliefs (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008). Stolz and Pill (2014) noted that teachers find implementing GBAs difficult, therefore, it is suggested additional time is required for teachers to be able to understand the approach in depth and avoid over-simplification (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Roberts, 2011).

Pedagogical

Pedagogical dilemmas are concerned with the behaviours and activities which contribute to the design and development of the learning environment (Cushion, 2013). Pedagogical dilemmas intersect with the other dilemmas in the implementation of teaching practices (Cushion, 2013). These practices are shaped by the personal beliefs and experiences of the teacher, particularly those formed in childhood (Lortie, 1975), but are also affected by cultural and political influences such as the school ethos, government initiatives, the NCPE etc. (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Windschitl, 2002).

There are a number of barriers to the implementation of TGfU stated in the literature that can be classified as pedagogical dilemmas. Two of the foremost prominent are teachers' lack of content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge which have been barriers found with both pre-

service and in-service teachers (for example Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon, 2010; Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Harvey and Pill, 2016; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Silva, Farias and Mesquita, 2021; Stran, Sinelnikov and Woodruff, 2012). Barrett and Turner (2000) performed a case study of a sixth-grade teacher, researching how the teacher incorporated skills and tactics into their lesson of STXBALL (a non-contact lacrosse game). Due to the teacher's lack of experience in observing and teaching tactics, they found that she started with a techniques and skills practise prior to gameplay. Metzler (2011) noted that for successful implementation of models-based practices, teachers require expertise in content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge allowing them to identify and exaggerate tactical problems and develop appropriately modified games for their pupils. Previous research has made similar conclusions stating that changing how teachers teach from technique-based to game-based is dependent on how competent and knowledgeable they are about the content material (Almond, 1986a; Kirk, 2011). Metzler (2011) stated pedagogical content knowledge is one of the key features of being able to adopt a models-based pedagogy. A consequence of this lack of knowledge is teachers being hesitant to adopt the model (Li and Cruz, 2006 cited in Wang and Ha, 2009).

An additional barrier is a lack of time due to an increased amount of preparation being required for TGfU implementation (Howarth, 2005; Wang and Ha, 2009). Wang and Ha (2009) noted pre-service teachers claimed that there was a lack of information regarding teaching TGfU coupled with needing to consider a variety of class-related issues such as pupil experiences and skill levels, which therefore, resulted in increased preparation and time constraints. This has been supported by Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon (2010) whose in-service participants stated they required more organisational time due to the changed lesson dynamics. Previous literature has also noted that novice teachers are often so focused on completing all their tasks that they report there is a lack of time for questioning the pupils (see for example Griffin and Butler, 2005; Light and Fawns, 2003). Further barriers have included, but not limited to, questioning strategies, model fidelity and teachers' difficulties becoming and acting as the facilitator of learning (see for example Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Harvey and Pill, 2016; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2008; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009).

Cultural

Pedagogical practices are framed by the norms, values and expectations of wider cultural contexts

(Windschitl, 2002). Pedagogies which challenge the traditional and resilient culture of PE and the established views of the school, pupils and staff, can be viewed as problematic (Harvey, 2016; Harvey and Pill, 2016). Harvey, Cushion and Sammon (2015) posited cultural barriers have the most significant impact upon pre-service teachers. This can be attributed to the sheer contrast in cultures between the school environment and the PETE courses at university (Stolz and Pill, 2014). Pre-service teachers found that their GBAs and teaching methods conflicted with the traditional teacher-led instruction and empty vessel theory that the human mind is waiting to be filled (Harvey, Cushion and Massa-Gonzalez, 2010; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). Previous literature suggests new teachers have a reality shock (Lawson, 1989), due to the opposing innovative approaches taught in universities and the prevailing and established practices within schools (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). This is likely to result in the new teachers struggling to adopt constructivist approaches learnt in teacher education and reverting to teaching the dominant technique-based approach (Cushion, 2013; Graber, 1998; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wright, McNeill and Butler, 2004). Being able to understand and overcome some of the cultural barriers affecting pre-service teachers may help the emergence of innovative approaches being adopted in schools.

One of the primary barriers is the conditioned expectations and resistance from pupils (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Harvey, 2016; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Pill, 2011; Pill, Swabey and Penney, 2017). Pupils constantly exposed to traditional approaches within PE will form an expectation of what PE is which can result in alternative methods, such as GBAs, to be resisted (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008). Lawson (1989) has supported this notion stating pupil resistance is a key element which can result in the 'wash-out' of innovative practices taught in teacher education. Researchers have argued that the beliefs and perceptions of PE formed in childhood are powerful and all future experiences are compared to them (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). These beliefs are highly resistant to change and therefore is one way in which traditional practices are perpetuated in PE (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989).

Additionally, pupils' cultural understanding of what constitutes a game, derived from their experiences within PE and sport, challenge the ideas of GBAs (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). As GBAs adopt modified practices this can challenge pupils' perceptions of what a game is and reproduce queries about when they are going to play the 'real' game (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). With the growing number of sport coaches in UK primary

schools (Griggs, 2010; Huddleston, 2019; McEvilly, 2022) and teachers' limited understanding of the differences between PE and sport (Capel, 2007), this could affect pupils' perceptions of games. As a result, their experiences will be perpetuated and can lead to the reinforcement of a multi-activity technique-based approach (Green, 2002; Lortie, 1975). Additional suggested barriers to implementation include facilities, equipment, lack of collegial and PETE course support, class management and lesson scheduling (see for example Brooker *et al.*, 2000; Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Li and Cruz, 2008; Pill, 2011; Pill, Swabey and Penney, 2017; Silva, Farias and Mesquita, 2021; Thorpe and Bunker, 1983; Wang and Ha, 2013).

Political

Teachers are required to attain benchmarks, standards, and achievement levels in their everyday practice to meet the demands of the school and educational system (Rossi *et al.*, 2007). Many PETE courses and progressive teachers promote the use of innovative and creative practices with the intention of developing best practice in the school curricula (Harvey, 2016; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). The introduction of innovative pedagogies such as GBAs can result in controversy and conflict in the school setting (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Light, 2004). Cushion (2013) argued that political systems can often conflict with these practices by restricting teacher autonomy and freedom. Rossi *et al.* (2007) highlighted the challenges faced by in-service teachers of the government-mandated use of the Games Concept Approach within the national syllabus of Singapore, including the limited freedom of pedagogical choice this allows and the competing demands of meeting fitness requirements. They discussed the need to demonstrate model fidelity and efficacy as it had government directive (Rossi *et al.*, 2007). Whilst the NCPE for England states that children should be taught to 'use a range of tactics and strategies to overcome opponents in direct competition through team and individual games' (DfE, 2013, p.2), it does not currently provide PE teachers with a mandate for how that could be achieved. Thus, affording PE teachers in England with a greater level of autonomy over their choice and adoption of teaching approach(es) (see for example Green, 2002).

Conversely, Harvey, Cushion and Sammon (2015) reported pre-service teachers in England made little reference to government educational policies such as the NCPE. The authors stipulated this could be a result of pre-service teachers being unaware of the larger political agendas as they are focusing on practices directly relating to their daily teaching (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015).

Research suggests a strength of GBAs is its consistency with the goals of PE curricula (Wang and Ha, 2009), thus, could indicate limited political conflicts with teaching practices and curriculum demands. However, Harvey and Pill (2016) noted that the number of GBAs available has caused confusion in teachers' pedagogical conversations and could result in future poor practice and inability to choose the appropriate teaching approach for the pupils.

Facilitators

Within the body of TGfU literature, the primary usage of the term is in reference to the teacher as the facilitator of the model. The literature suggests the teacher *acts as a facilitator to learning* by creating positive learning environments that help pupils gain the necessary knowledge to participate in PE (Griffin and Butler, 2005). To achieve this, the teacher modifies game play to suit the needs of the pupil and uses open ended questioning to ensure understanding of the sporting situation. Within the TGfU approach, teachers need to ensure they are placing the pupil in the centre of the learning process (Dyson, Griffin, and Hastie, 2004; Memmert *et al.*, 2015). Those using TGfU have tended to adopt a variation of the original 1982 Curriculum Model (Lund, Gurvitch and Metzler, 2008). Within the context of this thesis the definition of a facilitator will refer to 'a person or thing that makes an action or process easy or easier' (Oxford Dictionary, 2018). This is in recognition of the concept that whilst a teacher *may* [emphasis added] make the process easier, it is also feasible that a teacher may act as a barrier to TGfU. The action or process will be discussed in terms of recommendations for overcoming the barrier(s) to implementation.

There are several recommendations for overcoming the conceptual, pedagogical, cultural and political barriers faced by pre-service and in-service teachers in implementing the TGfU model and GBAs in schools. Facilitators have been suggested for specific barriers; however, the primary recommendations include a more generic approach with a focus on improving teacher education, professional development programmes and building communities of practice.

Wang and Ha (2009) and Li and Cruz (2008) suggested that the provision of extended guidance in teacher education programmes is required. Gurvitch *et al.* (2008) stated that teacher education programmes should provide authentic learning opportunities that embed GBAs to facilitate

understanding and commitment to the instructional models. This was echoed by Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon (2010) who highlighted that teacher education needs to prepare teachers for coping with their pupils and any doubts they may have. Li and Cruz (2008) noted this could be improved through the enhancement of teaching and managerial skills in teacher education. However, it should be noted that for the successful implementation of TGfU, consideration of the amount of preparation and organisational time is required, particularly with teachers new to the approach or the profession (Silva, Farias and Mesquita, 2021; Wang and Ha, 2012, 2013).

Wang and Ha (2009) suggested that effective TGfU professional development programmes were required for both pre-service and in-service teachers. The GBA literature supports this notion with three main points. Firstly, that there is a gap between academic theory and practice, and secondly professional development could allow TGfU to be taught external to PETE programmes with pre-service teachers (see for example Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Jarrett and Light, 2017; Light, 2008; Memmert *et al.*, 2015; Wang and Ha, 2013). Finally, in the provision of professional development courses for in-service teachers who could also act as cooperating teachers to help embed the approach into practice with their colleagues or when mentoring pre-service teachers (see for example Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Memmert *et al.*, 2015; Parry, 2014; Rossi *et al.*, 2007). As a consequence, professional development training could help to reduce some of the barriers, for example a lack of conceptual understanding and lack of pedagogical content knowledge, by providing an in-depth examination and practice of the TGfU model with teachers (see for example Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wang and Ha, 2013).

Another recommendation was the formation of a professional community of practice to help teachers focus upon and reinforce the GBA (Butler, 2005; Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Jarrett and Light, 2018; Wang and Ha, 2009, 2013). Building a collaborative work culture will support pre-service teachers in the adoption of the approach and expose in-service teachers to new ideas and practices (Wang and Ha, 2009). Peer teaching and pre-service teachers discussing their experiences together, may help them to understand how they can improve and successfully implement the model (Wang and Ha, 2009). In addition, having cooperating teachers and university lecturers observing and communicating with other teachers will aid in the learning and reinforcement of TGfU in practice (Butler, 2005; Wang and Ha, 2013). Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon (2010) also noted that in-service teachers require support from TGfU experts

to assist them with teaching new situations and problems. Jarrett and Light (2018) suggested communities of practice are evident at an international level with the promotion in organisations such as the TGfU SIG. However, focusing on a local level may help increase teachers' pedagogical content knowledge via the support of mentors and colleagues (Jarrett and Light, 2018).

Summary

In summary, TGfU has and continues to encounter barriers to its implementation and ensuing use that have not changed since its introduction over 40 years ago. This is despite an increasing literature base demonstrating the benefits and successful application of the model in academic literature. The issues surrounding TGfU show teachers' experiences affect their uptake of the model and therefore identifying the challenging factors within teachers' past and current experience could provide insight into ways of removing the barriers and supporting teachers' use of TGfU. With the everchanging UK educational landscape and the limited current UK-specific literature (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; O'Leary, 2016; O'Leary, Longmore, Medcalf, 2014) investigating the barriers to implementing GBAs, further research is required to examine the effects on UK pre-service and in-service teachers.

Teacher socialisation and Occupational Socialisation offer understanding of the experiences of teachers throughout their life and how instructional models and GBAs could be implemented (see, for example, Jarrett and Light, 2017; Li and Cruz, 2008; O'Leary, 2016). The influences from the teacher's three phases of Occupational Socialisation have a prominent place in the process of developing their confidence to teach appropriately (Morgan and Bourke, 2008). This can support an explanation for how they comprehend a pedagogical approach and teach it in the way they do (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Jarrett and Light, 2017). Understanding the barriers and facilitators to TGfU implementation amongst pre-service and in-service PE teachers will benefit from the application of Occupational Socialisation as a greater understanding of their powerful influences will guide the researcher in knowing where leverage may be applied for the most significant effects.

2.6 Teacher Socialisation and Occupational Socialisation

Occupational Socialisation is born out of teacher socialisation which attempts to understand how an individual becomes a teacher (Zeichner and Gore, 1990). Teacher socialisation can be traced back to the early 1930s with the work of Waller (1932) and went on to receive attention from scholars such as Lortie (1975), Lacey (1977), Lawson (1983a, 1983b) and many others. Teacher socialisation provides insight into how teachers learn to understand and fulfil their professional responsibilities and as such can provide an explanation into how and why they teach the way they do. Continuing research of teacher socialisation is important to expand the body of literature on account of the ever-changing school environment and policies which influence pre-service and in-service teachers over time (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014).

Occupational Socialisation in a PE setting is defined as:

‘All of the kinds of socialization that initially influence persons to enter the field of physical education and that later are responsible for their perceptions and actions as teacher educators and teachers’ (Lawson, 1986, p.107).

Occupational Socialisation involves five primary assumptions that govern how the socialisation of PE teachers occurs (Lawson, 1983a). Firstly, the assumption that the socialisation of PE teachers is a lifelong process challenges the traditional belief that socialisation began with teacher education programmes in Higher Education (Lawson, 1983a). This assumption encompasses the need to address childhood socialisation and pre-career experiences as well as current career experiences which could be attributed to teacher socialisation (Earls, 1981; Lawson, 1983a).

The second assumption is that practices within PE are institutionalised. Lawson (1986) believed that schools are institutions which attempt to control behaviour and attitudes, thus influencing the way teachers teach. Over time these actions are reproduced and maintained. The assumption considers that as institutions are concerned with social control and not social change, the result will be predictable, reproduced PE practices that are directed by the institution that PE teachers work in (Lawson, 1983a).

The third assumption suggests that socialisation is problematic rather than automatic (Lawson,

1983a). Institutions attempt social control by influencing the way a teacher teaches, however teachers can also attempt to transform the institutions (Lawson, 1983a). This suggests that the school institution and the PE teacher can shape each other (Lawson, 1983a). Zeichner (1979) suggested one of three socialisation strategies could be used: teachers could fully accept and internalise the socialisation of the institution, accept on a short-term compliance basis and impression management or, attempt to change the socialisation setting and as a result look to amend the contents of socialisation that they were initially subjected to. The first of the three strategic outcomes results in a custodial response, the second a middle-of-the-fence sit to be later determined, and the latter is an innovative response (Lawson, 1983a). Lawson (1983a, p.4) stated,

“But in all three cases there is good reason to suspect differences between intended socialization outcomes and actual results, as amplified further in a fourth assumption”.

This suggests that a socialisation outcome is an intention to change the school environment through a socialisation strategy. However, due to all individuals being subjected to potentially divergent socialising agents from the experiences in their lives and the forces exerted by the socialising institution, the actual results are whether this intention did or did not happen.

The fourth assumption of Occupational Socialisation states that the socialisation process of teachers consists of three kinds, or phases, of socialisation that may be concurrent: acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation (Lawson, 1983a). Researchers tend to adopt a three phased approach to investigating Occupational Socialisation which is a time-orientated continuum (Lawson, 1983a). The initial phase of Occupational Socialisation known as acculturation, represents the period of time from birth to entering a teacher education programme. The second phase known as professional socialisation is when an individual is enrolled in a teacher education programme at a university. The final phase of Occupational Socialisation is organisational socialisation where the individual is placed in the role of teacher in a school setting.

This fourth assumption leads into the fifth and final assumption where competing forms of socialisation from different programmes can bring equally different views on what is perceived as exemplary and requisite in PE (Lawson, 1983a). The judgements regarding what is effective are dependent upon the situation and the person making them (Lawson, 1983a). For example, an innovative socialisation strategy may be praised in some schools whilst others may prefer traditional

teaching practices be maintained. The fifth assumption is therefore concerned with the decisions made by schools and teachers regarding effective PE, a subjective consideration influenced by the person and situation.

According to Lawson (1983a), all the assumptions are necessary to support analysis of the socialisation of PE teachers. The study of socialisation in relation to the teaching profession refers to understanding the process by which an individual becomes a teacher (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Zeichner and Gore, 1990). However, research tends to focus on assumption four as it reflects an appreciable amount of the realities of PE and demonstrates it using a time-orientated continuum that spotlights the process of an individual becoming a teacher. Through the lens of the fourth assumption, research can explain the relationship between Lawson's other assumptions and correlate them with the perceptions and actions of a teacher. At this point it is important to critically evaluate the three phases of Occupational Socialisation to understand the main influences on teachers throughout their lives and the effect on learning and teaching games and PE.

2.6.1 Acculturation

Acculturation is the first of the three phases of Occupational Socialisation's fourth assumption, and begins at birth (Lawson, 1983a). An individual's childhood experience of PE and sport will inform their perception of what a teacher is and becomes internalised as how they imagine themselves as a teacher (Bullough and Pinnegar, 2001). During this period, the child learns about the teaching profession from friends, family, teachers, sport coaches and other significant individuals in their life. The products of this phase are the dominant rules, meanings and actions that are taken for granted and referred to as 'common sense' that later goes on to inform the child's life as an adult (Lawson, 1983a). Values and beliefs are established during this phase, for example 'the belief that competition in life is inherently good' (Lawson, 1983a, p.4). An individual can refuse to accept such values however, the knowledge about them is almost impossible to escape. Research suggests that the acculturation phase is the most influential socialisation for PE teachers and can be more powerful than teacher education (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Zeichner and Gore, 1990). As such acculturation plays a significant role in shaping the perspectives of future teachers and therefore must be considered as a constituent for the whole context of a teacher's life.

Lortie (1975) used the term 'apprenticeship of observation' to describe how children spend over 13,000 hours interacting with and observing parents, teachers, coaches etc in and out of the school setting before leaving compulsory education. It is through these interactions that children may be influenced to pursue a PE career (Lawson, 1983a; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). During this time, children form perceptions of what the role of a PE teacher is including attributes and skills necessary to perform the job. Schempp (1989) noted that teachers do not view their pupils as potential future teachers requiring pedagogical advice or knowledge and therefore the child is provided a limited view of technical aspects of the teaching role. This leads a child to form an often-distorted view of what being a PE teacher entails. Nevertheless, these perceptions formed through the 'apprenticeship of observation' are believed to have a strong influence on the beliefs and practices of future PE teachers (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008).

Lortie (1975) introduced the term 'the subjective warrant' which describes the perceptions of the requirements of teacher education and the role of a PE teacher formed during the 'apprenticeship of observation'. The subjective warrant includes a self-evaluation of an individual's abilities to meet the requirements of a PE teacher and as such a pupil will form conclusions based upon their perception of becoming a successful PE teacher (Graber, 2001). Some literature suggests pupils with high subjective warrants tend to have enjoyed PE as children and have a comprehensive personal history in sport and physical activity (Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004). However, research also indicates that children who had negative experiences of PE in schools choose to become PE teachers with the intention to provide more positive experiences for pupils than their own teachers (Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009).

The 'apprenticeship of observation' is seen to rarely provide a complete insight into a PE teacher's responsibilities and roles; therefore, pupils may develop subjective warrants that do not align with the actual challenges of being a PE teacher (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). The inherent concern is that pupils view the PE teacher as a role model and undertake teacher training with limited knowledge of the profession (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1989). Due to their lack of knowledge of what are good or bad practices and the long influence of being subjected to these practices, children fulfil their belief of what PE teaching involves (Capel, 2007; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). The formation of subjective warrants is critical even if they are incomplete or flawed because it influences the child's experiences and learning in future

socialisation phases. Therefore, acculturation is said to occur through a child's interpretation of a PE teacher's job from an observation of their PE teacher.

Graber (2001) found that as a result of the 'apprenticeship of observation', the objectives of PE are: to promote fun, ensure all pupils are successful even with minimal instruction and to accommodate athletes. In the UK, the socialisation of sport has been identified as carriers of conservative values in PE teaching (Capel, 2007). Through examining the beliefs of PE teachers, Evans (1992) referred to what he called the 'sporting perspective' whereby the focus is on developing skills in a meritocratic system aiming for a love of sport amongst all children while securing the potential for the high-achieving pupils. With the increase in sports coaches in UK primary schools (Griggs, 2010; Huddleston, 2019; McEvilly, 2022) and PE teachers' inability to understand the differences between PE and sport (Capel, 2007) this has led to student teachers associating PE with sports coaching and reinforcing the traditional ways of teaching (Green, 2002). Furthermore, the exposure of traditional value PE programmes that emphasise custodial orientations can result in future PE teachers resisting experiences in teacher education programmes that highlight alternative methods of teaching (Capel, 2007; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014).

In summary, research suggests that the acculturation phase is the most powerful form of socialisation that represents one way in which continuity and tradition are perpetuated in the PE profession (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989; Templin, Woodford and Mulling, 1982). The most common reason a child decides to undertake a career in PE is believed to be because of their desire to continue their association with sport (Capel, 2007; Green, 1998), followed closely by the influence of their PE teachers (Capel, 2007; Mawer, 1995). Through the apprenticeship of observation pupils form perceptions of what are the attributes, skills and responsibilities of a PE teacher which all future practice is compared to, and this is very resistant to change (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). Pupils desire to recreate a familiar environment where PE is perceived as technique-oriented learning, underpinned by reproductive teaching styles and behaviourist learning (Capel, 2007). Acculturation does not represent a professional framework but instead the personalised experience of a pupil who believes it to be correct practice (see for example Capel, 2007; Lawson, 1983a; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). This perception could demonstrate why teachers find it difficult to change the way they teach, and the constant reinforcement of the traditional methods of teaching could result in a rejection of alternative methods such as innovative instructional models.

2.6.2 Professional Socialisation

Professional socialisation begins when an individual enters a teacher education programme (Lawson, 1983a). This term refers to the process by which would-be and experienced teachers acquire the knowledge, values, skills and sensitivities that are deemed necessary by Higher Education institutions for teaching PE. The knowledge and skills comprise what Lortie (1975) referred to as the 'shared technical culture' for teachers. During this phase, individuals are taught the skills and knowledge of the profession which are deemed important by the teacher education faculty. The aspiring teachers are also provided with the opportunity to partake in field-based experiences outside of the department in local schools (Capel, 2007; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Zeichner, 1979).

A teacher education programme is relatively short, typically a few years in length, and is therefore unlikely to affect the prospective teachers' beliefs and perceptions of what teaching entails (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009). This may be particularly true with custodial orientated prospective teachers in innovative teacher education programmes where they may resist change due to experiences from their acculturation phase (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). As the role of a PE teacher contains elements of both teaching and coaching, some prospective teachers will be more oriented to one over the other as influenced during their own acculturation (Lawson, 1983b). The socialisation effects of the balance between the prospective teacher's coaching-teaching orientations can be further discussed from two contributing influences from their acculturation phase: (1) the type of PE programme during their schooling and (2) prior working experiences before entry into a PETE course.

Firstly, Lawson (1983b) described three basic alternatives for school PE programmes and practices in terms of their impact on future PETE recruits. In the first type the teacher's behaviour is professional and the children's experiences of PE are enjoyable and instructive, resulting in PETE recruits that have strong teaching role orientations. In the second type, where there is a poor differentiation between inter-school sports and PE lessons this results in mixed messages for future PETE recruits. In the third alternative where PE is dominated by inter-school sports, this gives rise to PETE recruits with a strong coaching orientation and who may consider PE as a contingency career (Lawson,

1983b). This could result in strengthening the acculturation phase with a negative impact on the beliefs and perceptions that are developed during professional socialisation. In the UK there has been an increase in sports coaches teaching and coaching PE in schools, predominantly in the primary sector (Griggs, 2010; Huddleston, 2019; McEvelly, 2022), as such this strong coaching orientation may be further perpetuated.

Secondly, there is the consideration of prospective teachers already possessing work-related experiences prior to embarking upon a teacher education course. There has been an increase observed in what Zeichner and Gore (1990) termed 'non-traditional' students entering Higher Education courses. Traditional students are those who would enter university with no or limited work-related experience whilst non-traditional students have some prior experience in coaching or teaching. These experiences of non-traditional students prior to entering PETE expose them to different orientations, giving rise to a greater variability in their subjective warrants in comparison to traditional students (Lawson, 1983b; Zeichner and Gore, 1990).

On teacher education courses opportunities for students to practise teaching are highly valued by the students. The chance to teach can provide the student with reassurances that they can teach and allow the student to experience and observe pupils and teachers in schools (Dodds, 1989; Lortie, 1975). Research has suggested that prospective teachers find practical teaching experiences of greater importance than theoretical lectures in developing teaching knowledge (Capel, 2007; Lortie, 1975). This can result in a conflict developing for the student between the university-based learning and the schools-based learning, as students will prioritise the latter believing that the information gathered during the teaching practices has higher relevance to their future working in schools (Capel, 2007). This may result in alternative teaching approaches being temporarily embraced to pass the course and later rejected if it is seen as irrelevant when teaching.

The temporary beliefs that students embrace to graduate are seen as a coping mechanism where they project the image that is viewed favourably by academic tutors; however, they do not internalise the beliefs (Graber, 1991). The student engages in a 'studentship' where it is perceived that they are 'buying into' the course's orientations (Graber, 1991). This projection could be due to the contradictory messages the staff provide about PE or the reality shock of the difference between

their expectations and the reality of classroom life (Weinstein, 1988). PETE courses have shown that students have often experienced inconsistent messages about PE and teaching due to their lecturers having contradictory views on education and schooling (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lortie, 1975). Such messages, combined with the reality shock and prior socialisation, can result in students resisting the knowledge provided during their degree and retaining their own beliefs about what PE teaching entails (Capel, 2007).

Another complication to professional socialisation in the UK is the method of obtaining Qualified Teaching Status (QTS). Since the Cameron-Clegg coalition government in 2010, the method of obtaining QTS has changed with the socialisation of new teachers differing from previous cohorts. The different avenues to qualification vary between academic university settings and extended hands-on school placement(s) (DfE, 2017). Prospective PE teachers now have greater choice and opportunities regarding providers with more time to experience on the job teaching through the Schools Direct and School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) programmes. Post 2010, the government has sought to expand school-based routes into teaching, giving schools the responsibility to recruit and select their own trainees with the intention that the student teachers would be employed at the end of their training (DfE, 2017). In these situations, student teachers may encounter an overlap of the professional and organisational socialisation phases by exposure to classroom and workplace experiences. Notably, there is limited research regarding this new approach to obtaining QTS and how it affects the socialisation of the teacher. Within the Schools Direct and SCITT programmes, the teacher works in one or two schools within the year and therefore will be subjected to the schools' ethos on teaching and learning. This could reinforce innovative or custodial orientations depending on how the teacher and school institution shape one another, as suggested by Lawson's (1983a) assumptions.

Research suggests that qualified PE teachers who act as mentors can influence the way the student teacher teaches (Capel, 2007; Lawson, 1983b). The mentor's role can be to help the student teacher learn instructional techniques and their role within the school (Tinning and Siedentop, 1985). However, the mentoring can result in a narrow approach to pedagogy. One example is that students are often restricted from questioning existing practices and teach the same way as their mentor (Schempp, 1987, Tsangaridou, 2006). This can occur if the student teacher holds the same values and beliefs as their mentor, which results in behaviours and practices being reinforced and

strengthened (Capel, 2007). Alternatively, if the mentor holds a different view to the student teacher, then the prospective teacher will likely change their teaching so that they fit in. Student teachers who support innovative and alternative teaching practices could feel as though they cannot introduce them into the schools which hold custodial orientations (Stroot and Ko, 2006). This is reinforced by the mentors due to the strong socialisation of PE teachers who tend to socialise with people who are interested in sport and hold similar beliefs to themselves, thus the status quo is maintained (Capel, 2007).

If the strong socialisation of PE teachers occurs then one potential outcome is their inability to differentiate PE and sporting experiences, thus teach and prioritise a sporting model in PE (Capel, 2007). This is significant when discussing the knowledge that qualified and trainee teachers have. Research suggests mentors and their student teachers have a limited view of the knowledge they require for teaching, and this supports the traditional way of teaching PE (Capel, 2007; Hayes *et al.*, 2008). Pedagogical content knowledge is perceived as desirable, however content knowledge that is required to be able to teach the NCPE areas of activity and the immediate teaching situation is deemed an essential element (Capel, 2007). Student teachers prioritise the content knowledge they are required to teach in school placements, and do not prioritise further development in areas they consider themselves to be good at. The prospective teacher relies on their previous experiences and existing knowledge of PE and sport to teach an activity (Capel, 2007). They do not explore the alternative methods to teaching provided on their teacher education course and are likely to teach the same way as they were taught, reinforcing the traditional ways of teaching PE (Capel, 2007; Stroot and Ko, 2006).

In summary, professional socialisation is the period of time an individual is on a teacher education programme. The increase in non-traditional students being recruited, coupled with the reality shock between their experiences of being taught PE as a child and at degree level, is significant in influencing the practices of prospective PE teachers. Research has indicated that through teacher education programmes, student teachers can explore alternative approaches to teaching and move away from technical teaching, however it is evident that acculturation remains a dominant factor for their chosen teaching approach (Capel, 2007; Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004). The method of obtaining QTS and the influence of mentors can serve to reinforce these beliefs. For socialisation to be effective lecturers and mentors must accept that the prospective teachers have prior beliefs and

experiences and be willing to form a discussion about them with the student (Schempp and Graber, 1992).

2.6.3 Organisational Socialisation

Organisational or bureaucratic socialisation is the third phase of Occupational Socialisation. This is the process by which individuals are placed in the role of the teacher acquiring the knowledge and skills valued by the school (Lawson, 1983a). During this phase teachers internalise how PE should be taught, thereby employing one of the three socialisation strategies (innovative, custodial, or fence-sit ideology) of Occupational Socialisation Theory's assumption three. Organisational socialisation can be said to be at odds with professional socialisation due to the evidence warranting the assumption that the two are different in form, content, and consequences (Lawson, 1983a). This phase is long-lasting, encompassing the beginning of their educational experience up to them exiting the profession, with teachers having unique life experiences and circumstances (Schempp and Graber, 1992).

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) referred to organisational socialisation as the phase where an individual is influenced by the workplace and is taught and learns the organisational role. A teacher's actions, beliefs and teaching orientations are shaped within the school setting (Feiman-Nemser and Folden, 1984). The organisational culture helps the school to meet external environmental demands and facilitates the integration of school workers (Lawson, 1989). This can result in the school environment or the teacher adopting innovative or custodial orientations that may complement or conflict with each other. Members of the Senior Leadership Team (SLT) in schools are deemed socialising agents who aim to create a suitable working environment for their staff and have some influence over the socialisation of teachers (Watkins, 2005). The SLT develops the tone of the school culture and depending upon their beliefs and orientations, can either encourage or inhibit high quality PE (Richards and Hemphill, 2017; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Parents can also be important resources for PE teachers; however, many PE teachers have reported that parents can be unsupportive and perceive PE as of a lower status to other subjects and therefore unwilling to assist with the teacher's efforts (O'Sullivan, 1989; Richards and Hemphill, 2017). Whilst the SLT and parents are influential in the socialisation of the teacher, the literature suggests the most influential factors affecting the adoption of innovative or custodial approaches for teachers, are the pupils and

the teacher's colleagues (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards and Hemphill, 2017).

According to Lawson (1988) pupils have always been strong socialising agents. A pupil's characteristics and actions coupled with the teacher's perceptions of the pupil, influence what the pupil will receive (Lawson, 1988). Lawson (1986, 1988) suggested that PE programmes are often what the pupils will permit. Whilst this could affect any school subject, it is found to have a greater influence on 'manual' subjects, for example PE, in comparison to 'mental' subjects, for example Sciences and Mathematics (Lawson, 1986, p.112). Research in PE has shown children's influence on teachers through expectations or curriculum goals being altered to align with pupil expectations (Curtner-Smith, 1997). The pupils can affect the teaching alternatives designed, adopted, implemented, and even considered by the teacher (Lawson, 1986). Lawson (1989) suggested a significant reason for the diminution of teacher education is attributable to pupil resistance. Wahl-Alexander and Curtner-Smith, (2013 cited in Richards, 2015) stated that teachers may modify their pedagogical approaches as a compromise with the pupils' expectations for their role. Due to the nature of PE and the associated physical isolation from colleagues, pupils exert a strong influence on the socialisation of the teacher (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019; Stroot and Ko, 2006). Zeichner and Gore (1990) commented on the powerful effect of pupils on pre-service teachers as relating to the amount of time spent with them. This strong socialisation effect by pupils was supported by Templin (1981) and Randall (2008) who highlighted that pre-service teachers may be prevented from focusing on pupil learning due to attending to pupil management and compliance. Research suggests the maturity and experience of the teacher may also determine the impact on pupil learning (Fuller, 1969), with the influence of pupils increasing as teachers gain experience (Larson, 1986).

The influence of colleagues can also have a significant effect on the socialisation of a teacher (Capel, 2007). Teachers in other departments have been reported as viewing PE as of lower status and lacking respect for the subject (O'Sullivan, 1989; Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019). The status, rewards and support other subject teachers receive is different from that of PE (Sparkes, Templin and Schempp, 1993). For example, the differences can include the teaching environment, teacher's clothing and the organisation and structure of PE (Lawson, 1983b). These differences set PE teachers apart from teachers in other departments and it could be these traits that cause PE teachers to become more likely to bond together (Lux and McCullick, 2011). The features that create

PE in schools conflict with what is learnt in teacher education courses resulting in reality shocks and adding power to Occupational Socialisation. Approval and recognition from colleagues within a community of practice can be important for teachers, especially for those new to teaching (Keay, 2009 cited in Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019; Richards *et al.*, 2018) and teaching in a marginalised subject.

Newly qualified teachers (NQTs) rely on their acculturation and professional socialisation to influence their teaching as well as the orientations and beliefs about the school (Lortie, 1975; Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1985). Initially NQTs have to decide how they are going to teach, and this is predominantly based upon their past experiences (Capel, 2007). They will apply a trial-and-error process to their teaching and judge the outcomes, becoming able to assess the quality of their teaching (Lortie, 1975). As they develop, the teachers accept advice from colleagues but what they learn is aligned with their own experiences (Lortie, 1975). Lortie (1975) opined the teachers learn 'tricks of the trade' as opposed to theories of learning and teaching. These influences and past experiences can result in the development of custodial or innovative orientations.

When a new teacher (NQT or existing in-service teacher in a new job) enters a school, they encounter colleagues who usually prefer continuity and the new teacher tends to not question the approaches (Tsangaridou, 2006). This can often result in the new teacher learning, accepting and implementing customary strategies (Stroot and Ko, 2006). The 'institutional press' is a process where new teachers are taught the knowledge and culture deemed significant by the experienced colleagues of the school, this in turn can encourage custodial orientations and a maintenance of the status quo (Capel, 2007; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1985). If the views of the new teacher align with that of the colleagues, they become reinforced, and it is unlikely that there is a need to change behaviours. However, if the new teacher has a conflicting orientation, the desire to fit in may rise in importance resulting in them often adapting their behaviours and practices to align with those of their colleagues. The focus becomes the preservation of the school's current practices and new teachers find it difficult to teach differently to their colleagues (Capel, 2007; Wright, McNeill and Butler, 2004). This could result in a reality shock (Lawson, 1989; O'Sullivan, 1989) and lead to innovative professional socialisation becoming 'washed out' (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1985). This 'wash out' can result in some of the elements of teacher education being abandoned when entering

the school, whilst other elements may be endorsed (Graber, 1998; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Stroot and Ko, 2006).

Lacey (1977) expanded on Blumer's (1969) work that described the socialisation strategies new teachers can employ to conform with or to resist the social structures of the school institution. The strategies include strategic compliance, internalised adjustment, and strategic redefinition. Strategic compliance occurs when the teacher complies with the behaviours and beliefs of the institution maintaining the school's practices, but the teacher keeps private hesitations (Lacey, 1977; Skelton, 1990). This will most likely occur when there is a conflict between the teacher's and school's beliefs. This strategic compliance of behaviour adjustments can become permanent (Etheridge, 1989) which leads to the second socialisation strategy of internalised adjustment. Internalised adjustment occurs when the teacher complies with and adopts the policies and procedures of the school believing it is the best situation for everyone (Scarth, 1987; Skelton, 1990). This most often occurs when the new teacher's subjective theory aligns with the school's approach (Graber, 1998). Strategic redefinition occurs when the new teacher acknowledges the conflict between the differing beliefs and actively challenges it by trying to change the status quo and bring in new ideas and values (Lacey, 1977). In custodially orientated schools this can be met with resistance from the school's culture. Socialisation strategies are 'not absolute' as teachers can make internal adjustments to some elements of the school's practices whilst other elements could be strategically redefined or complied with (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014, p.125). The new teacher's innovative or custodial orientations depend upon how the socialisation is structured.

The seminal work of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) provided Lawson (1983b, p.7) with the viewpoint of two fundamental types of schools.

'1. Schools with socialization tactics that are collective, sequential, variable, serial and involve divestiture will breed custodial orientations in new teachers.

2. Schools with socialization tactics that are individual, informal, random, disjunctive, and involve investiture, will nurture innovative orientations in new teachers.'

According to Lawson (1983b) the innovative or custodial orientations of teachers are dependent upon the orientation of the school/department, the orientation of the new teacher and the socialisation tactics employed by the school institution. If these orientations and tactics differ then

this can result in tension, demonstrating that organisational socialisation is powerful and can oppose professional socialisation (Lawson, 1983b).

In summary, organisational socialisation occurs when the individuals build their skills and beliefs as a teacher within the school environment. Typically, organisational socialisation encourages a custodial approach with the teachers endeavouring to be accepted by the school and their colleagues, however research suggests this is not always the case (see Lawson, 1983b; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Teachers have the ability to employ one of the three socialisation strategies (innovative, custodial or fence-sit ideology) which can determine how PE is taught. Although within a school the pupils may be viewed as lower ranking by comparison to work colleagues, they also have a powerful influence on a teacher's socialisation. The evidence suggests that PE programmes are designed and implemented based upon what the pupils will permit (Lawson, 1986, 1988). Depending upon the resistance of the pupils this could either encourage or inhibit the application of innovative pedagogical approaches in schools.

2.7 Occupational Socialisation Theory: Strengths and Weaknesses

A key strength of Occupational Socialisation Theory is the extensive quantity of research supporting its main principles and beliefs (Capel, 2007). There have been in excess of 120 studies, spanning almost 40 years, investigating the influences and beliefs of pre-service and in-service teachers. Research topics have included the theory's three phases, teacher burnout, faculty development, career stages and culturally responsive pedagogy (Richards and Gaudreault, 2017). When Lawson (1983a, 1983b) initially proposed his socialisation theory there was limited evidence available, and it was largely positivistic in nature. However, his initial hypotheses have been the foundation on which most of the research has been built, supported and expanded upon with increased insight into the beliefs and perceptions of recruits through the interpretivist approach (Curtner-Smith, 2017). Such information that was unavailable to Lawson when he first constructed the theory (Curtner-Smith, 2017).

An additional strength and what pushes it beyond other models of socialisation, is that it takes a

dialectical perspective acknowledging an individual's ability to respond to socialising agents (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Early views of socialisation adopted a functionalist perspective whereby individuals passively fit into society by assuming the attitudes and behaviours valued by the social group. The individual is seen as the one that adapts to fit into society whilst the existing social structure remains relatively unaltered (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). This approach however has been criticised as research suggests that the individual can overtly and covertly resist the ideological and material constraints from socialising agents (Schempp and Graber, 1992). Thus, the dialectical approach acknowledges that whilst the individual is influenced by organisations, they may also take an active role in their own socialisation. The individual has some impact from the socialising agents but there is also a reciprocal impact of the individual towards the agents (Zeichner, 1979).

Another important attribute of Occupational Socialisation Theory is that it recognizes that experiences formed during the acculturation phase are key as they serve to frame individuals' receptivity to future socialising experiences (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). The strong perceptions formed during the 'apprenticeship of observation', result in the individual comparing all future practices to their understanding of the role and responsibilities of a PE teacher (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). For example, the exposure to PE teachers/coaches who prioritise core PE lessons or, who prioritise extra-curricular, can influence the teaching or coaching orientations of PETE recruits, strengthening the beliefs formed during acculturation (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). Identification of the beliefs formed in the acculturation phase are fundamental to an understanding of how they can be later deconstructed in professional socialisation and organisational socialisation (Curtner-Smith, 2009, 2017).

Occupational Socialisation Theory articulates the influences and processes which socialise individuals into work roles. However, critics of the theory suggest that it fails to extensively explain how the role of a PE teacher is socially defined, developed, and negotiated which has led to the recent introduction of Role Socialisation Theory (Richards, 2015; Richards and Hemphill, 2017). Role Socialisation Theory is an integration of Occupational Socialisation Theory with Role Theory that was proposed by Richards (2015). This limitation of Occupational Socialisation reduces the ability to understand how the PE teacher role is perceived in different school contexts (for example the marginalisation of the subject), and the interpersonal relationships between role-sets (for example

pupils, SLT, parents etc.) and the PE teacher that can impact upon their teaching practice (Richards and Hemphill, 2017). Although Occupational Socialisation has components pertaining to interpersonal relationships and brief mentions on role stress and role conflict (see for example Capel, 2007; Lawson, 1983a, 1983b; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014), Richards (2015) argues these are not comprehensively discussed. This expansion of Occupational Socialisation into Role Socialisation Theory is currently in its early stages of development but may provide a greater depth of understanding into the role of the PE teacher and the interpersonal relationships and expectations adopted between role-sets and the teacher in future research (Richards and Hemphill, 2017).

Occupational Socialisation Theory has been primarily researched in the United States of America (USA), which limits the theory's applicability (Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019). Socialisation is largely based on an individual's context and influences which may vary in other countries and cultures. Further relations to authorship suggest that although there are numerous scholars publishing within this field, there are relatively few who have chosen this as their career focus. In Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov's (2019) scoping-review of literature, seven authors had produced over half of the studies examined. In addition, the majority of literature has centred on a qualitative paradigm using interviews, observations and document analysis to gain in-depth insights into teaching practices (Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). As a result, quantitative or mixed methods paradigms have been relatively underutilised. This poses potential weaknesses of the theory as the research direction has been largely determined by the primary scholars which could have limited the topics investigated and the choice of methods used (Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019).

A further criticism of Occupational Socialisation Theory is that it is often presented in a linear manner that assumes every individual experiences socialisation in a similar way. This perception is challenged by those who come into teaching PE as a second career, the socialisation of doctoral students, the socialisation of PETE faculty members and those individuals who return to teaching after a period of absence (Lee and Curtner-Smith, 2011; Richards and Gaudreault, 2017; Woods, Gentry and Graber, 2017). Research has argued that there needs to be additional phase(s) to the Occupational Socialisation Theory as individuals could experience secondary professional socialisation (such as doctoral students) and could experience secondary organisational socialisation

(such as PETE faculty who have had prior experience teaching in schools and have moved into Higher Education or those returning to the PE profession) (see for example Fletcher and Casey, 2017; Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017; Woods, Gentry and Graber, 2017).

Research using Occupational Socialisation has primarily focused on the professional and organisational socialisation phases, with limited attention on the acculturation phase and of what individuals think about PE prior to embarking upon teacher education courses (Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019). There are a number of retrospective accounts in the literature that consider the influences from the acculturation phase (for example Curtner-Smith, 2001; Richards and Templin, 2011) on pre-service and in-service teachers. However, there is a lack of real-time accounts which could facilitate the development of teacher education courses through an increased understanding of recruits' motivations and goals for a career in PE (Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to target the acculturation phase directly as it would require an extensive longitudinal study and would have to investigate the multitude of potential influences in a child's life (for example family and friends, primary and secondary school experiences including pupil-teacher relationships, extra-curricular activities including pupil-sport coach relationships etc). This thesis will target professional and organisational socialisation with retrospective accounts of the acculturation phase, as childhood experiences are strong socialising factors on an individual's life which need to be considered in teachers' development and practice.

2.8 Application of Occupational Socialisation with Pedagogical Models

Occupational Socialisation Theory has been applied to a number of pedagogical models including Sport Education (see for example Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; McMahon and MacPhail, 2007; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009), TGfU (see for example Li and Cruz, 2008; O'Leary, 2016; O'Leary, Longmore and Medcalf, 2014), Outdoor Education (Timken and McNamee, 2012), Direct Instruction (Jayantilal and O'Leary, 2017) and Cooperative Learning (Legrain *et al.*, 2021). A discussion of the application will be undertaken using the three temporal phases of the theory.

Acculturation

There is currently no literature from pre-service or in-service teachers describing the experiences of models-based practice during the acculturation phase (Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017). This is likely to be primarily due to the lack of research of real-time accounts of the acculturation phase (Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019) and the time that has lapsed in retrospective accounts. Research has indicated that the dominant teaching approaches are 'physical education as sport techniques' (Kirk, 2010, p.41) and 'decontextualized physical education' (Siedentop, 1994, p.7) where games and sport are taught in ways that do not resemble the full-version and limited in their use of modified games. Therefore, it could be suggested that any current research into acculturation would indicate that there will be limited experiences of models-based practices.

Professional Socialisation

Professional Socialisation is the primary research area for Occupational Socialisation Theory. Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov (2019) reported that out of the 111 studies on Occupational Socialisation published between 1979 and 2015, over 70% of the participants were pre-service teachers. From this there are numerous studies describing the introduction of pedagogical models in teacher education courses (for example Curtner-Smith, 2012; Li and Cruz, 2008; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009). The experiences discussed span university-based (including discussions, reading articles and participation in models-based units) to field-based (including practice teaching in school settings) with components in between (including watching examples, followed by peer teaching) (Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017). From the number of strategies employed they all appear to have positively affected the participants (Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017). However, to be most effective, Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin (2008) and Stran and Curtner-Smith (2009) suggested that they needed to be a part of systematic and repetitive experiences. Therefore, it could be suggested that increasing models-based introduction and strategies within PETE courses and providing students early practice in schools, will increase their delivery and impact on pre-service teachers (Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017). This has the potential to strengthen the professional socialisation phase which has frequently been viewed as the weakest (Curtner-Smith, 1999, Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017).

Organisational Socialisation

Within this phase of Occupational Socialisation, there is a limited amount of research on teachers applying pedagogical models. The literature has largely been dominated by the Sport Education Model (see for example Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Ko, Wallhead and Ward, 2006; Sinelnikov, 2009). For TGfU, there have been only a handful of studies underpinned with Occupational Socialisation Theory and they have typically focused on one to two in-service teachers (see for example O’Leary, 2016; O’Leary, Longmore and Medcalf, 2014). Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin (2008) suggested that there can be different interpretations of instructional models based upon an individual’s socialisation experiences. These different interpretations can lead to varying degrees of model fidelity (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008). They suggested that teachers interpreted and delivered the Sport Education model in one of three ways; (1) full version, (2) watered-down version and (3) cafeteria style (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008). The full version application was a high fidelity to the original intentions of the model. In the watered-down version, most of the model’s features were incorporated but there were also significant parts of the model that were misinterpreted. Finally, the cafeteria style was where the teachers would pick and choose parts of the model that suited their current teaching approaches. This has been similarly echoed in literature that has examined teachers in the application of the TGfU model (see for example Barrett and Turner, 2000; Lund, Gurvitch and Metzler, 2008). With the limited use of TGfU in UK schools (Jones and Cope, 2011) continued research is required in the application of Occupational Socialisation Theory and the influences affecting teachers’ use of the model. Moreover, there is a need for ongoing research which examines a greater number of participants and those with differing experiences and backgrounds (O’Leary, 2016).

2.9 Summary

Teaching games has been largely dominated by the technique-based approach (Kirk 2010), but this has been seen to result in widespread pupil inadequacy due to a lack of tactical understanding (Almond, 2010; Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). It was within this environment that GBAs were developed to integrate learning and understanding of the game prior to mastering technique. The TGfU pedagogical Curriculum Model provides a six-stage process of introducing the game, developing

tactical awareness and decision making before skill execution and performance (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). Since its introduction the TGfU model has been developed and expanded upon to include pedagogical principles (Thorpe and Bunker, 1989) and the games classification system (Thorpe, Bunker and Almond, 1986). In addition, several second-generation variations of the approach have been developed globally, most notably Games Sense in Australia (den Duyn, 1997; Light, 2004) and the Tactical Games Model in the USA (Mitchell, Oslin and Griffin, 2021). Despite the acceptance of GBAs within academia, they have had limited adoption in schools (Almond, 2010; Butler *et al.*, 2008; Harvey and Pill, 2016). There have been numerous barriers documenting teachers' use and implementation of TGfU in PE (see for example, Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Harvey and Pill, 2016; Wang and Ha, 2009). As socialisation influences beliefs through experiences, Occupational Socialisation Theory has been used to provide an understanding of why teachers follow this career path. This can also be used to consider their teaching approaches and provide insight into removing barriers to instructional models such as TGfU (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Li and Cruz, 2008; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009; Wright, McNeill and Butler, 2004).

Occupational Socialisation has been extensively researched over the past 40 years, providing five primary assumptions with which to understand the socialisation of PE teachers (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). The fourth assumption is that socialisation is a time-orientated continuum identifying the influences and experiences within a PE teacher's life from the three phases of acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). Research suggests the most influential form of socialisation is acculturation and that all future experiences are compared to it (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Schempp, 1989; Ziechner and Gore, 1990). The enjoyment of games (Green, 1998) and influential role models such as a PE teacher or coach (Capel, 2007; Mawer, 1995) from the long acculturation phase, may encourage pupils to pursue a career in PE. Personal experiences through the 'apprenticeship of observation', can develop into powerful beliefs that are resistant to change despite later experiences (Lortie, 1975).

Professional Socialisation consists of several years in a PETE programme and is often unlikely to affect the beliefs of the pre-service teacher due to the strong socialisation processes of the acculturation phase (Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009). The variations in PETE courses, 'studentship' behaviours and the influence of mentors could assist in reinforcing the beliefs acquired during childhood (Graber, 1991; Lawson,

1983b). This is particularly prevalent when the pre-service teachers encounter mixed messages of PE teaching and experience a reality shock due to the differences between their schooling expectations and the reality of teacher education (Capel, 2007; Weinstein, 1988). A teacher's actions and beliefs can be shaped within the school from socialising agents such as pupils, colleagues including mentors and senior leadership, the NCPE and parents. Typically, teachers seek acceptance from their colleagues and the school and so adopt custodial orientations, however, this does not always happen (Capel, 2007; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Stroot and Ko, 2006). During organisational socialisation, the teacher can conform or resist the social structures of the institution through strategies such as strategic compliance, internalised adjustment, and strategic redefinition (Lacey, 1977).

An important consideration is that there are constant changes in policies, education and institutions, the socialisation of PE teachers is never absolute (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). For example, research conducted in the 1980s, 1990s and early 2000s may not be applicable to the experiences and perspectives of pre-service and in-service teachers today. The barriers to TGfU show that the experiences of teachers affect their uptake of the model and therefore, identifying these factors in the teachers' lives and the facilitators to help overcome them, could provide insight into supporting teachers' future use of TGfU. Using Occupational Socialisation Theory to examine these changes over time and across different countries and circumstances, is necessary to understand how teachers are educated and influenced in the existing school system. Research within the Occupational Socialisation field has largely consisted of pre-service teachers with the majority of studies having been conducted in the USA. Similarly, research into pedagogical models underpinned by Occupational Socialisation Theory has been dominated by pre-service teachers' use of the Sport Education model. This thesis aims to provide evidence that can inform the future approaches of PE teachers when using a TGfU approach. To achieve this the three studies of this thesis were carried out investigating in-service and pre-service teachers' Occupational Socialisation and the barriers and facilitators to the implementation of TGfU in England.

CHAPTER 3: STUDY 1: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin physical education teachers' perspectives of the TGfU approach

3.1 Overview

Research into Occupational Socialisation and TGfU is limited with very few studies investigating the use of the model with in-service teachers. Research into the socialisation processes of current PE teachers will address a gap in the literature to help account for the role of the school environment in influencing current teaching practice (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Study 1 will review TGfU within the framework of Occupational Socialisation Theory to identify the influences within each phase of a teacher's life that affects their teaching practice, and to understand in-service teachers' current use and knowledge of TGfU. This will then be followed by a contemporary review of existing barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU during core PE lessons to understand if the perceived barriers are similar or different to previous literature accounts.

3.1.1 Occupational Socialisation and TGfU

Occupational Socialisation provides a framework for investigating the possible influences on why teachers teach the way they do (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lawson, 1986; Li and Cruz, 2008). Through acculturation (childhood experiences), professional socialisation (university/teacher training) and organisational socialisation (workplace), teachers develop beliefs and values of what it means to be a PE teacher and how to teach (Lawson, 1986). By reflecting upon these experiences, researchers can begin to understand how teachers are influenced throughout their lives and within their teaching practice. Once the barriers to adopting TGfU are identified and understood, teachers can provide facilitators which they believe will help to overcome the challenges with implementing the model in PE lessons.

Research into Occupational Socialisation, within a PE setting, has allowed academics/researchers to learn about the background characteristics of PE recruits (Schempp, 1989), assess the effectiveness of teacher education programmes (Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004; Graber, 1996; Lawson, 1986), and understand the influence of induction assistance in aiding new teachers in the transition to the school setting (Richards and Templin, 2011; Stroot and Ko, 2006). A great deal is known of pre-

service teachers' perspectives however very little is known about the thoughts and opinions of in-service PE teachers on approaches to teaching. The experiences of teachers are important to help explain why teachers teach the way they do and could provide examples of what is needed to develop innovative teaching approaches. The perspectives of teachers show what happens daily in schools, their responses to changes in the curriculum and how that affects the school, children and PE lessons. Through addressing in-service PE teachers' perspectives, a greater understanding can be gained of their needs and ways in which teaching practice can be developed to accommodate the effect of the changing educational environment on core PE lessons.

3.1.2 Barriers and Facilitators to Implementing TGfU

The introduction of the TGfU model (and GBAs) was a challenge to the dominant teaching method within PE, the technique-based approach. This was considered necessary as there were growing levels of concern of pupils leaving school without an understanding of games (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982), decreases in pupil motivation (see for example Lopez *et al.*, 2009) with PE teachers having limited content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (for example Harvey and Pill, 2016; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Siedentop, 2002). The literature suggests that TGfU has many benefits including improving pupil engagement and interest in physical activity, improving game understanding and performance and developing holistic learning (see for example Almond, 2015; Bunker and Thorpe, 1982; Butler, 2006; Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Stolz and Pill, 2014). Despite 40 years of research and practice demonstrating its success and benefits within PE globally, it has continually failed to be adopted into mainstream PE lessons and exists only in isolated locations (Almond, 2010; Butler *et al.*, 2008; Harvey and Pill, 2016; Jones and Cope, 2011; Memmert *et al.*, 2015; Roberts and Fairclough, 2011).

To promote an increase in the uptake and use of TGfU during school-based PE lessons, researchers have attempted to identify the barriers inhibiting its use by in-service teachers. Shortly after the introduction of TGfU, Thorpe and Bunker (1983) produced a list of barriers cited by in-service teachers, in addition to making suggestions for how these barriers can be overcome. This was given in a FAQs format of teachers' questions or statements and accompanying answers from the authors. Since then, researchers have explored further bringing to light a number of additional barriers including, but not limited to, the teachers' belief in the need to teach techniques in order to teach

the activity/sport, a lack of familiarity with GBAs, that teachers lack game knowledge and understanding and the inappropriate use of mini games (see for example Brooker et al, 2000; Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejón, 2010; Harvey and Pill, 2016; Pill, 2011; Thorpe and Bunker, 1983).

There has been the deeply entrenched belief among PE practitioners of needing to teach techniques before even considering playing a game (see for example Brooker et al, 2000; Harvey, 2016; Thorpe and Bunker, 1983). But, as advocates of the TGfU approach, Thorpe and Bunker (1983) suggested that teachers needed to modify practices to meet the child's ability, with many children being able to play sport without needing to be taught techniques. Another barrier is that many teachers lack familiarity with GBAs or have struggled to apply them in practice, resulting in a lack of confidence and competencies (see for example Brooker *et al.*, 2000; Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon, 2010; Pill, 2011). Research reports that when teachers adopt pedagogical models, one of three options may occur; they may maintain the full model fidelity, apply a watered-down version, or take a cafeteria style approach (see for example Barrett and Turner, 2000; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lund, Gurvitch and Metzler, 2008). Wright, McNeill and Fry (2009) opined that in such circumstances teachers may also revert to their previous teaching methods. To help overcome this barrier, teachers would need exposure and training of GBAs with clear guidelines demonstrating how to implement the approach effectively (Butler, 1996).

Common barriers are teachers' lack of pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge and conceptual understanding (for example Almond, 1986a; Barrett and Turner, 2000; Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon, 2010; Harvey, 2016). This relates to teachers' limited knowledge and understanding of different sports and the connections between sports with similar tactical components. The implications of these barriers are that teachers' ability to design appropriate games and activities are limited (Harvey and Pill, 2016). Thorpe and Bunker (1983) stated the teachers' previous methods of teaching, and their lack of game understanding may be attributable to a problem with teacher training. Specifically, those involved with training teachers have failed to teach them the necessary tools to be able to understand the game and the ability to teach it to children. Therefore, appropriate training is required in PETE courses and in professional development programmes to provide teachers with the necessary level of detail they would require teaching using a GBA (Butler, 1996; Wang and Ha, 2013).

An additional barrier is that, although the teachers have been using mini games for years, they had not utilised them as a substantive part of the lesson and for teaching *through* the game. By contrast they had employed them merely as a vehicle for the demonstration of the initial technical and skill practices that had formed the major focal point of the lesson (Thorpe and Bunker, 1983). Thorpe and Bunker (1983) responded to the teachers' statements explaining that the mini games have not been suitable for the children's ability, nor have they been progressive. The implication of this barrier is that the teachers are either lacking the knowledge and understanding of how to teach GBAs or, as Harvey and Pill (2016) noted, there could be culturally established views of how PE should be taught and maintaining its currency is a predominant barrier for adopting a GBA. The barriers for implementing TGfU in a school setting may be affected by the way the teacher has been socialised and how teachers are influenced to teach (see for example Lawson, 1983a; O'Leary, 2016). To overcome the barrier, an examination of the socialising influences of teachers is required and increased learning opportunities with teachers to improve their understanding of what constitutes a GBA.

This study will apply Occupational Socialisation Theory through the lens of the three phases (acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation) to explain how teachers are influenced to teach the way they do. Further, it will investigate the barriers and facilitators to TGfU that appear throughout an individual's life. This theoretical stance has been under-researched in relation to teachers' views and specifically with in-service teachers in the UK. With the ever-changing UK educational landscape, there is a need to ascertain the ongoing Occupational Socialisation of teachers and understand the barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU. There has been limited research into Occupational Socialisation and TGfU in the UK since the development of the new NCPE in 2013, changes to the methods of obtaining QTS, and the emergence of Academy schools in the early 2000s with an increasing uptake since the Academies Act 2010 (see for example O'Leary, 2016; O'Leary, Longmore and Medcalf, 2014).

3.2 Purpose

The aim of this study was to identify from in-service PE teachers' perspectives, the factors that

underpin engagement with the TGfU approach. Occupational Socialisation Theory (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b) was used as the foundation for understanding, structuring, and analysing the factors identified. This process involves sourcing teachers' views across the three phases of the Occupational Socialisation Theory: experiences in childhood, university/teacher training and current workplace, to identify the socialisation processes and the teachers' perceived barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU. The results can be used to inform areas that can be targeted to promote the use of TGfU by PE teachers in schools. To achieve the aim of this study three objectives are set:

- To examine, in-service PE teachers' beliefs and experiences of acculturation, professional socialisation and organisational socialisation.
- To identify barriers that prevent in-service teachers from utilising the TGfU approach.
- To identify teachers' recommendations that facilitate the implementation of the TGfU approach.

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Design

This study utilised semi-structured interviews to examine secondary school PE teachers' experiences of PE in relation to Occupational Socialisation and the facilitators and barriers to implementing the TGfU model in schools.

Semi structured interviews are a flexible way to collect important information on a topic whilst providing the opportunity for the participant to report and expand upon their own thoughts and beliefs. Participants were guided by a flexible interview schedule utilising open-ended questions to allow the participant to provide detailed information (Sparkes and Smith, 2014). The ordering of questioning was facilitated using the Occupational Socialisation framework- whereby an in-depth chronological understanding of the influences on the teachers within acculturation (childhood), professional socialisation (university) and organisational socialisation (job experiences) was gained. This was followed up with questions regarding TGfU and its barriers and facilitators to implementation. The data provided by each of the three phases of Occupational Socialisation were

used to structure the analysis and results of Study 1. A qualitative design allows the research to deal with complex details which are deemed difficult to explore within a quantitative paradigm (Merriam, 1998; Wang and Ha, 2013). The qualitative domain requires open-ended, flexible yet disciplined research methods to produce the rich data needed to answer the aim of the study (Sparkes and Smith, 2014).

3.3.2 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Sunderland Ethics Committee. Participation was voluntary with all participants giving their informed written consent (Appendix 1) after being provided with an information sheet detailing the study (Appendix 2). All participants were fully informed as to the purpose of the study and the nature of data collection. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured with no names or contact details mentioned within the study. A personal identification code was issued to each participant to assure privacy (e.g., 'Participant F6' refers to female in-service teacher number 6). The semi-structured interviews were audio recorded to aid with transcription of the data. The data was transcribed by a Randstad Student Support worker as consented to by the participants (see Appendix 3 for Randstad Transcription Policy). The participants were given the right to withdraw from the study at any stage without reason. All data were stored on a password-protected personal computer for the purpose of transcription and analysis. The data were destroyed up to ten years after the conclusion of the study.

3.3.3 Sampling Procedure and Participants

Sampling Procedure

The sampling frame for the study was secondary school PE teachers in Yorkshire, England, including both those who have and have not used the TGfU model. This was considered important for identifying any facilitators and barriers underpinning the model's use in core PE lessons and for encouraging a wide background of experiences. This study employed opportunity sampling based upon the replies from secondary schools that could commit to the requirements of the study.

Participant Recruitment

Participants were sourced from 5 out of the 15 Local Education Authorities in Yorkshire, England. A maximum of four emails were sent to the school administrators, using their main school contact details, over the term time periods from mid- May to the end of September 2017. A total of 133 schools were contacted with 98 failing to respond. Of the responses received from 35 schools, a total of 16 declined without stating a reason or who declined on the grounds of time constraints. Provisional agreement was given by 6 out of the 35 schools but later declined citing time constraints. The remaining 13 schools provided the participants for this study.

Participants

15 PE teachers from 13 schools took part in this study with ages ranging from 25-56 years. Of the schools making up the final sample there were six State schools, five Academies and two Trust schools. The participants had between 4-32 years of experience teaching in schools. Each participant provided demographic information prior to interview (Appendix 4). Eight male and seven female qualified PE teachers participated in the study. Twelve out of the 15 participants had additional roles or duties within the school including 10 of those having the job title of either Head of PE or Curriculum Leader for PE.

Nine participants had completed an undergraduate sports related degree and then completed a one-year PGCE with QTS. Participants F2, M2 and M8 had completed an undergraduate sports related degree that was combined with QTS. Participants M6, F3 and F4 had completed their undergraduate sports related degree programme followed by a Schools Direct programme to achieve QTS. Participant M5 is the only participant with additional academic recognition by achieving a master's qualification. Nine participants had completed a sports science undergraduate degree, one participant completed a sport and media undergraduate degree, and five participants had completed a PE undergraduate degree.

Based on governmental classification, the teachers' schools ranged from affluent to deprived. All the schools admitted pupils solely from their local constituency. The sizes of the PE departments ranged from two to 14 members of staff. The departments typically had over five staff members with a variety of full time, part time or sport specific teachers. The schools' PE departments each had an

equal number of male and female staff except for one department in a single-sex school that had only two male PE teachers.

All the schools had both indoor and outdoor sports facilities. The minimum indoor sports facilities for all schools were a full-sized sports hall and a gymnasium. One school also had a climbing wall, and one school had an indoor five-a-side football court. Three schools had a dance studio that was solely for the PE department with two schools stating their dance studio was combined with the performing arts department. Seven of the schools had a fitness suite on-site and one school had offsite access to a fitness suite in a local public sport centre. Two schools had an on-site swimming pool for use in PE lessons with one school using the local sports centre's pool. The outdoor facilities for every school were playing fields with football and rugby sized pitches and every school had a minimum of one netball court that also had a marked tennis court for use during the summer term. Ten schools had more than one or separate tennis courts, and 12 of the 13 schools had additional Astroturf pitches and/or 3G pitches.

The participants' schools' curriculums and extracurricular activities were all similar. The six state schools and two Trust schools followed the NCPE (DfE, 2013), whilst the five Academies designed their own curriculums with comparable broad aims and objectives to those outlined in the NCPE. All the schools taught football, rugby and cricket for boys and netball, hockey and rounders for girls, with dance and gymnastics for both males and females in Key Stage 3 core PE lessons. Nine of the schools provided 2 hours per week of core PE for Key Stage 3 with the focus of 1 hour being predominantly game-based sports and 1 hour for physical activity and health-related fitness. Four schools provided 3 hours of core PE over a fortnight timetable for Key Stage 3 and 4 pupils. Many of the schools claimed they were now trying to introduce other sports, for example handball, to give the children exposure to a wider variety of activities. The schools also commented about removing the gender stereotypes from sports with girls playing football, rugby etc and boys playing netball, hockey etc. Schools with access to swimming pools and fitness suites tried to incorporate these activities into their lessons and extra-curricular time. The extra-curricular activities were the same sports that were taught in the core PE curriculum with the formation of sports teams who competed in inter-school leagues.

3.3.4 Measures and Procedure

Measures

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with four primary questions being asked, one for each phase of Occupational Socialisation, and one for the barriers and facilitators of teaching using the TGfU model (Appendix 5). The ordering of questions was chronological, starting with childhood experiences through to university and then their job experiences, in line with the phases of Occupational Socialisation Theory. The aim of opening the discussions using the phases of Occupational Socialisation was to encourage the participants to reveal details of their backgrounds without being influenced to reflect on how TGfU was part of it. Only the final question of the interview focused on TGfU, which allowed the teachers to reflect upon their earlier comments and to discuss if and where TGfU was a part of it. They were encouraged to expand upon and explain their opinions of the facilitators and barriers to the model's implementation. Probing of participant responses was used to encourage and elaborate on issues raised, or themes that emerged from the Occupational Socialisation framework.

Procedure

Prior to the interviews, the participants were given a paragraph defining and detailing the TGfU approach (Appendix 6) and were provided with the opportunity to ask questions to affirm their understanding of the model. All the interviews were conducted within school between May and November 2017 and lasted between 45-60 minutes. Interviews were conducted face-to-face, in quiet rooms aside from distraction within the PE designated area of the school. The interviews were conducted either during the school day or after school hours. During the interviews, the researcher asked open questions to encourage the participants to provide detailed information. Probing questions were asked to allow the participants to expand upon the points raised providing greater detail. On completion of the interviews, all participants were offered the opportunity to ask any further questions.

3.3.5 Methods of Data Analysis

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data using inductive reasoning. Inductive reasoning is the logical process of examining existing knowledge for patterns or general principles which can be

applied in new situations to predict or explain outcomes (Hayes and Heit, 2017). Thematic analysis was specifically chosen as it assigns greater meaning to the data (Marks and Yardley, 2013). Braun and Clarke (2006) state that thematic analysis is a more accessible approach due to the lack of theoretical underpinning by a given theory, giving the researcher greater control over the outcomes unlike other analysis methods.

Audio recordings of the participant interviews were transcribed using Microsoft Office Word (see Appendix 7 for an example extract). From the transcripts, the key important data was coded and arranged into first order and second order themes and general dimensions for each phase of Occupational Socialisation and the barriers and facilitators to TGfU (see Appendix 8 for an example of thematic analysis). Coding was inclusive of all quotes made by the participants.

3.3.6 Trustworthiness

The components of trustworthiness; dependability, objectivity, reliability, and validity were upheld in this thesis (Sparkes and Smith, 2014). To establish dependability, objectivity and reliability a logical audit trail was applied to ensure consistency and accuracy. The audit trail in this context was used to make transparent the decision-making processes of the researcher in order that any interpretations of the data provided by the researcher can be inspected and reviewed by the reader (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Following the direction of Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Patton (1990) the interview transcripts were verified by the individual participants to confirm the accuracy of the data which provides validity to the study by member checking. While the strategies to ensure trustworthiness in the thesis are not a seamless way of guaranteeing credibility, highlighting the issues provides the reader with the opportunity to make their own informed decision regarding the credibility of this work.

3.4 Results and Discussion

The key themes to arise within each of the three phases (acculturation, professional socialisation and organisational socialisation) of Occupational Socialisation will be discussed. Questions regarding

the barriers and facilitators to TGfU were posed only after the initial discussions of the teachers' sporting influences had been recounted. However, the barriers have been included within the discussions of the pertinent phase to identify the implications of their influence on the implementation of TGfU. The recommendations for the facilitators of TGfU are outlined separately after the discussion of the key themes within each phase of Occupational Socialisation.

- Acculturation- the teachers' childhood experiences
 - Parental Influences
 - Teacher's Experience as a Pupil
- Professional Socialisation- the teachers' university experiences
 - University Education
 - University Placements
- Organisational Socialisation- the teacher's on the job experiences
 - Department Ethos
 - Teacher Knowledge and Practice
- Teacher Recommendations of the facilitators for overcoming barriers to Implementing TGfU

3.4.1 Occupational Socialisation- Acculturation

Parental Influence

A major impact on the teacher's childhood involvement in sport was their parental influence, with either the parent(s) playing a specific sport and actively encouraging their child to join a local club or by taking them to practices and games. The influence and support from parents and family members were major determinants for all the teachers engaging in sport during their childhood.

'Just always enjoyed my sports, my mum was quite sporty, my dad was quite sporty...they just always encouraged me, they were always there, they always helped out in terms of getting to places and making sure I was there on time...' Participant M4 (Line 45)

'As a child, was taken to a variety of sporting clubs, teams, et cetera, by my mum, netball, badminton, rounders, swimming, variety of different things as a child, pretty much taking up every night and all weekend.' Participant F6 (Line 17)

This finding helps to demonstrate the considerable influence on how children become involved in sport. Research suggests that PE, sporting experiences and interactions with significant others within childhood are vital in the formation of subjective warrants (Templin and Richards, 2014). Parents' involvement in, and promotion of, sport is a key influence in a child's initial interest in pursuing a career in PE (Curtner-Smith, 2017).

Teachers' Experience as a Pupil

The teachers' primary and secondary school experiences presented itself as a key influence on their current practice. Literature suggests that PE teacher recruits' own schooling experiences has been shown to play a major role in the acculturation phase, specifically in the extensive 'apprenticeship of observation' whereby teachers develop the beliefs and values they consider to be relevant to PE teaching (Curtner-Smith, 2017; Lortie, 1975; Templin and Richards, 2014). The teachers' secondary school experiences featured prominently, with primary school experiences cited as less important notably because fewer teachers were able to recollect their primary school experiences. Those who were able to recall primary school experiences did so with negative recollections of a limited variety of games/activities that predominantly centred on gymnastics as suggested by Participants F2, F5, F7 and M2, or on their teachers' lack of PE knowledge as cited by Participants F2, F4 and M6.

'I can't remember a lot of it but it was pretty weak, a lot of like gymnastics where you just sort of like stood as a tree, like that was it really. It wasn't anything more than that.'

Participant F2 (Line 70)

Secondary school experiences were largely positive with the participants discussing the variety of sports they participated in across both PE lessons and school sport. The participants claimed they were taught through a technique-based approach in their core PE lessons with a 'game' towards the end of the lesson. This demonstrates a potential barrier to TGfU as the teachers' lacked exposure to GBAs during their childhood PE lessons and hence have no practical knowledge of GBAs as experienced through their perspective as a pupil (McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016). The implication is that as the teachers held largely positive experiences associated with PE and secondary school sport, this helped to underpin their desire to provide their pupils with the same positive experiences. This is supported by the way the teachers described their enjoyment of lessons, brought about in the main because of their affection or positive relationship with their PE teacher, and how this led to them pursuing some of these sporting activities outside of school.

'I suppose my love of sport and how I kind of decided I wanted to get into it was when... a new younger teacher came and taught in the school and she kind of introduced it to be a bit more fun and I really wanted to do the same when I became a teacher' Participant F1 (Line 56)

The majority of the participants described a PE teacher as being their role model and how they had inspired them in their chosen career path. This echoes the literature which suggests that prospective PE teachers' positive interactions with their own PE teachers and school sport help to influence their career choice due to the beliefs and desires to become like their teacher (Templin and Richards, 2014). However, the study showed that the reverse was also true of teachers who had a negative experience of their PE teacher(s). Research has noted that children who become PE teachers and who have had negative experiences of PE and/or of their PE teacher, do so because of their motivation to provide improved PE experiences for others, so they do not have to suffer the same negative experiences (Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009; Wright, 2001).

'My biggest role model was my secondary school PE teacher [teacher's name]. He was great and inspiring...' Participant M6 (Line 121)

'...my actual PE teacher, she was quite negative coz I wasn't of average size for someone who was into sport... I always vowed when I became a teacher not to be like that, to not stop anyone, girl or boy because of their weight to achieve something in sport because anything is possible' Participant F4 (Line 34)

Notably, the participants became teachers due to the attributes and behavioural characteristics they considered desirable and necessary from observations of their own schooling PE teachers. This finding is in accordance with the literature which indicates that it is from their perceptions of the role model that the child creates an aspirational self-concept for their adult self that encourages the career as a PE teacher, not the job's roles and responsibilities (see for example Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Moreover, the finding suggests that the 'apprenticeship of observation' may have failed to provide the future teachers with a complete understanding of the roles and responsibilities of a PE teacher, and it is more likely for pupils to have limited and distorted impressions (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1989). Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin (2008) and Spittle, Jackson and Casey (2009) commented that teachers are an important influence in a pupil's recruitment into PETE programmes. This was reiterated by Richards, Templin and Graber (2014) however, they also stated the influence of teachers on pupils enrolling in PETE appears to be stronger than the influence from family members. This strengthens

the finding that the participants' experience of PE, and specifically their experiences of their PE teacher(s), is an important consideration in the socialisation of teachers.

Summary: Acculturation

The role models in a child's life encourage them to partake in sport and influence how they will later teach as qualified professionals. This study's findings support the existing body of literature on the acculturation of PE teachers through their parents and teachers. Parents were found to be a source of early engagement in sport, which is later maintained through the continued support and encouragement that individuals receive. School sport experience and the PE teacher as a role model were also major influences on the participants joining the profession. During their acculturation phase the study participants recalled the dominant teaching style experienced was the technique-based approach, and they were unfamiliar with the TGfU model. McNeill *et al.* (2004) suggest that pupils' unfamiliarity with GBAs is a key barrier to its implementation and can result in the reinforcement of traditional pedagogies. The literature indicates that parents and family are important facilitators, but teachers and coaches have a stronger influence on the child becoming a PE teacher (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014).

Moreover, research suggests that unless the children's beliefs and values of teaching formed during this phase are deconstructed during teacher training or on the job experiences, their future teaching practice would replicate what was learnt during childhood (Curtner-Smith, 2017; Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). The findings from this section show that future teaching practice needs to consider the influencers during childhood through focusing on the PE teacher, as these individuals are significant in inspiring children to follow the same profession. This can be achieved by addressing the ways in which they teach and their attitudes to teaching.

3.4.2 Occupational Socialisation- Professional Socialisation

University Education

When entering university, students possess personal beliefs that stem from childhood experiences of PE and teaching. Teacher educators intend for recruits to adopt effective teaching skills and

innovative approaches to teaching; however, the literature and this study suggests teacher education may have a limited effect on the recruits (Darling-Hammond and Richardson, 2009; Zeichner and Gore, 1990). In the main the study participants' general beliefs about PE teaching did not change whilst at university, however their beliefs were expanded to incorporate new aspects related to their career.

'I mean they put a lot of meat on the bones, in terms of your knowledge, but they didn't really change my beliefs about it, it just kind of reinforced what, what, what you thought and they would tell you how important it was and things...' Participant M1 (Line 210)

Although the participants' beliefs remained unchanged whilst at university, they did discuss their behaviours that changed as required for their degree programme. The participants' lecturers provided students with messages regarding PE and teaching, which previous literature has suggested these messages may be inconsistent/mixed (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lawson, 1983b; Lortie, 1975). This study found that seven participants believed their lecturers were providing similar messages whilst five participants stated that the messages were different and that the course content contradicted itself as a consequence of the lecturers' multi-disciplinary approaches. The participants adopted 'studentship' behaviours to complete their degree programme with the intention of ease, success, and the least amount of effort (Graber, 1991; Graber, Killian and Woods, 2017). The strategic compliance behaviours adopted by the participants is often due to an unwillingness to challenge the teacher educators who are responsible for awarding their certification. The degree to which recruits accept or resist the orientations of teacher educators, together with the notion that some of the participants in this study were given mixed messages, demonstrates a need for lecturers to review what key messages they are trying to disseminate and to encourage students to question their assumptions of teaching.

When inquiring about the participants' time at university, discussions on what they could remember from theoretical/pedagogical lectures and practical sessions were frequent. However, the teachers appeared to have been unable to recollect the information they learnt during their theoretical/pedagogical sessions. Hence, for some of the participants it cannot be said with any certainty that they did or did not receive teaching on GBAs whilst at university. As the majority of participants did not recall learning about GBAs, the lack of knowledge of TGfU is a key barrier encountered in professional socialisation. Only two participants could recall TGfU from university and could explain the basic principles of the approach, but they could not offer any further

information. This appears to be an additional barrier to implementing TGfU as the participants had a lack of understanding of the model. Retention and understanding of innovative teaching approaches is likely to be aided by an initial delivery of the model and then refreshing their knowledge and understanding whilst they are practising teaching. This will provide teachers with fresh insight into their delivery, contemporary knowledge and help to develop their skills. In line with TGfU literature which suggests that little uptake of the model exists in modern practice (see for example Almond, 2010; Butler *et al.*, 2008; Harvey and Pill, 2016; Jones and Cope, 2011; Memmert *et al.*, 2015), this could provide an opportunity for introducing/reintroducing the model for use in core PE.

‘My theoretical lectures I think probably I haven’t got much memory of those, didn’t probably have much impact on me...’ Participant F5 (Line 190)

Unlike the theoretical content of the university courses, the practical content on the university campus generated positive discussions with most of the teachers. All participants described in detail their practical teaching sessions where they taught members of their course or visiting children. Participant M3 (Line 140) stated ‘Oh yes, definitely. Probably got memories of every single one really’. The participants described their practical teaching as an effective experience that helped provide feedback on aspects of their teaching that worked well or did not go so well. This was an important finding in comparison to the negligible remembrances of theoretical/pedagogical lectures as it shows teachers have greater recall of information from a practical approach than from a theoretical input. GBAs encourage a practical delivery because the theoretical content is largely taught within (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982). Therefore, if the teachers have a preference for, or believe that they benefit from, a practical delivery, this provides scope for the introduction and embedding of game-based delivery into the university course.

University Placements

The teaching experiences of the participants from their time on placement were easily recalled and they discussed the key influences of how they conducted their job role. Placements allowed the teachers to experiment with aspects they learnt at university and to apply them within their PE lessons. The intention was to give the teachers the opportunity to try out new methods so they could decide what they considered was a useful approach. The teachers’ comments were largely negative when they recollected their time spent on school placements. The most commonly cited reason for the negativity described was the inconsistencies between the placement mentor and the

university lecturer(s). This was at its worst when the student teacher's practice was being observed, resulting in inconsistencies in the feedback provided on their performance. Lawson (1983b, p.4) described the student teacher on placement as 'caught between two worlds, the university and the school' where there might be inconsistencies due to both establishments having responsibilities for the student's supervision.

'We [participant and school mentor] didn't really see eye to eye on a lot of stuff...'

Participant M7 (Line 181)

'I was visited maybe twice in total throughout the PGCE year I think, to be observed [by university lecturers], but I think they were by people who I hadn't met before...there was just a difference [in comparison to school mentors] in sort of where they sort of saw PE going' Participant F6 (Line 191)

The participants stated that they were observed infrequently on placement by a lecturer from their PETE course, and at such times felt compelled to temporarily display a teaching style that aligned with that of the lecturer to ensure a pass mark. This action led to adopting studentship behaviours (Graber, 1991), however they did not internalise these beliefs and teaching approaches. The teacher's perception that their university education was contradicted by their placement mentor, led to many ignoring their university education in favour of adopting the mentor's teaching methods as a survival strategy to pass their placements and seek their mentors' approval (Maynard, 2001). This is particularly significant if the school mentor's teaching practices are similar to those experienced during their childhood as the student teacher will use the influences formed during acculturation to compare against all future experiences (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). Moreover, Schempp (1987) and Richards, Templin, and Graber (2014) stated that student teachers rarely feel able to challenge the existing practices in schools and therefore this perpetuates the status quo. The consequence of the recruits following the direction of their mentor is that any contemporary practice is likely to have been replaced with their mentor's teaching approach/philosophy. As the mentor themselves may have practised an extended period of compliance within a conservative school, termed the 'institutional press', (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1985) this will have the effect of reinforcing the traditional practices and washing out innovative approaches (see for example Curtner-Smith, 1999, 2001; Sofo and Curtner-Smith, 2010). Notably, any conflict with the school mentors could result in the student teacher reverting to the teaching practices experienced during the strong socialisation processes from the acculturation phase- which will likely be reinforcing the traditional approach (see for example Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and

Kinchin, 2008; Lortie, 1975; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009).

‘They [university lecturers] don’t really get to know what is going on, it’s your mentors that have the biggest effect [on the student teacher’s teaching practice].’ Participant M7 (Line 221)

All the participants described success whilst teaching on placement using the technique-based approach in lessons with approximately 5-10 minutes at the end for ‘games’. This initially demonstrates that the placements were failing to embed TGfU.

‘When I tried it [TGfU], I completely messed up my lessons and I remember my mentor had never heard of it so she said it was rubbish and told me just to teach the skills.’ Participant M2 (Line 574)

Conversely the research of Herold and Waring (2018) found that school mentors supported the use of TGfU for teaching PE and that the student teachers were able to embed it into their practice. This study’s implications for recruits suggests that the lack of support from lecturers when associated with a custodial orientation in the school may lead to a wash out of innovative approaches such as TGfU. Similarly, any lack of support from school mentors may lead to the student teachers reverting to the strong beliefs formed during their acculturation and which are most likely based on the traditional approach. Current day teacher training guidelines cite the need for school mentors to work in partnership with the Initial Teacher Training (ITT) provider to ensure the provision of high-quality training for recruits. The recommendations strongly highlight the importance of support for the recruit in the wide-ranging aspects of effective teaching practice and the job role. As this also includes their joint responsibility for grading students (DfE, 2014, 2016), moderation of the assessment process would appear to be a major factor in student satisfaction, in addition to promoting a positive learning environment. Harvey, Cushion and Sammon (2015) noted that for the successful implementation of TGfU, endorsement was required from the Head of PE. For the introduction of TGfU, these findings show that such approaches would need to be supported and already present in the school.

Summary: Professional Socialisation

Professional Socialisation is shown to have a limited effect on teachers as many could not retain the

knowledge taught during their training/education, consequently this is a significant barrier to TGfU- a lack of knowledge of the approach. The participants stated that the school mentors had a 'bigger effect' on their teaching practices than their university lecturers. Research echoes this by suggesting mentors have greater influence on recruits than the university tutors in their development resulting in the recruits accepting the mentors and school-based teaching in place of those coming from the university (see for example Capel, 2007; Curtner-Smith, 1999, 2001).

The participants complained of inconsistencies or mixed messages both between their lecturers, and between lecturer(s) and their placement mentor. In the first instance, this resulted in the recruits complying with the beliefs of the university lecturers who were responsible for their certification, adopting 'studentship' behaviours on a short-term compliance basis to pass their course. When on placement, the inconsistencies resulted in largely negative experiences for the teachers with them adopting the school mentor's teaching approaches as a survival strategy to conform and seek approval within the school environment. The recruits may see innovative approaches taught within university but may not consider their relevance on placements or once qualified (Capel, 2007).

Conflict with the mentor, or a lack of support from the mentor or university lecturer, can lead to an erasure of innovative approaches with the recruit reverting to the potent beliefs formed in acculturation. If the school mentors use custodial teaching approaches which appear to emulate the student teacher's own schooling teachers rather than the teacher educators they encounter, then it can lead to the reinforcement of traditional pedagogies (see for example Capel, 2007; Curtner-Smith, 1999, 2001; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008). The few years spent during professional socialisation have shown that the 'apprenticeship of observation' plays a significant role in the teaching approaches of recruits and can result in all experiences being compared to the acculturation phase (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989).

3.4.3 Occupational Socialisation- Organisational Socialisation

Department Ethos

The teachers believed that the departmental ethos was crucial for the embedding of teaching practice. Without support from the head of department, little to no changes in teaching practices

were incorporated. Likewise, the SLT can assist or challenge the priority and quality of PE within the curriculum (see for example Richards and Hemphill, 2017; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). The participants described a conflict between their personal goals for PE, which included an increase in participation and pupil enjoyment, and the schools' goal of examination results.

'It's all about participation and attitude... We are trying to create students with a positive attitude towards physical activity...' Participant M3 (Line 298)

'The main goals are to raise our GCSE standards... so one of our main priorities is to ensure that the students we have down here doing GCSE PE are able students and that we are sort of, hand picking them in a way so that our results go up.' Participant F4 (Line 148)

The majority of teachers personally preferred to focus on getting children to enjoy PE. However, the schools' need for good results placed increased pressure on both staff and students, to the extent that some of the participants mentioned having to 'cut back' on extra-curricular activities for the lower year groups so they could focus on the GCSE groups passing. Similarly, the participants noted that their core PE lessons would largely centre on sports that could be used to meet the demands of the GCSE practical assessment criteria. To give pupils the best chance of developing their skills to aim for better grades, a narrow curriculum of sports is provided in the years leading up to the GCSE examinations. The conflicting pressures of personal philosophy versus the school's philosophy, coupled with time constraints can result in role stress and if not regulated can lead to teacher burnout (Richards, 2015; Tsouloupas and Carson, 2017). The school's influence on the department through its demands to place emphasis on examination PE results is a strong socialisation factor that contributes to the development of the department's curriculum. This in turn can reinforce or more often challenge the department's teaching philosophy which is directed and highly supported by the Head of PE. Therefore, the implication for this finding suggests that TGfU needs to accomplish both the department's goals and school's goals by demonstrating its success through children's engagement and academic results. Furthermore, it indicates that the Head of PE (Brooker *et al.*, 2000; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015) or members of the SLT (Brooker *et al.*, 2000; Richards and Hemphill, 2017) need to promote the approach for it to become embedded in teaching practice.

As a consequence of the departmental ethos all the teachers described how the pupils are placed into ability sets in core PE. The teachers claimed that lower ability classes would get basic technical practices or fewer aspects to focus on with rigid practices, whilst the higher achieving classes would

get greater independence with more to focus on, and in some cases, progress onto games quicker. The teachers appeared to be in a unanimous agreement that pupil ability was a major factor in influencing how they taught. In turn, TGfU was viewed by Participant F6, for example, as challenging to introduce in its entirety because of the difficulty in being able to 'differentiate' pupils and due to the pupils' limited technical abilities. Participant M3 mentioned that the children take a long time to master their 'skill practices' and so when they would potentially move onto a TGfU part of the lesson the children would be at different stages of knowing the skill, and so would be unable to complete the TGfU parts. These comments illustrate potential barriers to TGfU of the teachers' limited knowledge and understanding of the approach. Butler (1996) found teachers believed that TGfU was suitable only for children who were highly motivated, emotionally mature or those with social problems. However, TGfU based lessons can be designed to cater to children of any ability with it being the responsibility of the teacher to create a learning environment suitable to the demands of the child (see for example Thorpe, 1983; Thorpe and Bunker, 1982). One means of successfully removing these barriers, lack of knowledge and lack of understanding, is by offering teacher training on the TGfU approach. The intention would be to facilitate TGfU uptake with teachers by demonstrating the ease of the approach which in turn would aid the development of the pupils.

Teacher Knowledge and Practice

According to Occupational Socialisation Theory, investigating the influences on current teaching knowledge and practice of the teachers is critical as it demonstrates the strength of the different phases. The participants recounted occasions of their lessons being observed by Ofsted or workplace colleagues, reflecting upon their personal teaching practice and what they perceived as the most appropriate way to teach.

'When Ofsted came to inspect my teaching, they gave me outstanding and I wasn't teaching TGfU, so what incentive is there to teach like that when I'm already classed as outstanding''
Participant F2 (Line 818)

The participants recalled that the observers were not concerned with how they taught but that all the children were engaged in the activities. The fundamental basis of the NCPE (DfE, 2013) is not prescriptive regarding teaching approaches and an interview with a former Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools reiterated that when inspecting and grading schools, Ofsted concern themselves with outcomes and not particular methodologies (Sir D Bell 2021, personal

communication, 17 November). The teachers later claimed that the same teaching outcomes could be achieved with technique-based approaches equally as well as with TGfU, so posed the question as to why TGfU was better and why they should change. Therefore, the implication for the implementation of TGfU is a reluctance to change their teaching practices. A requirement for change is that teachers would need to understand and experience the benefits of TGfU in relation to their context.

Some of the participants referred to the need to change their own teaching, whereas others saw no need claiming their teaching was based on the long serving experiences of 'old fashioned' PE teachers which they considered to be a successful approach. The 'traditional', 'elitist', 'old-fashioned' teachers usually occupied leadership roles in their schools and often made the new teachers conform to their teaching philosophies and reject innovative ideas. Established teachers within a school often prefer the continuity of practices which can lead to new teachers adopting the teaching strategies already employed (Stroot and Ko, 2006; Tsangaridou, 2006). Hence the custodial orientation of their colleagues and institution is internalised by the new teacher (Lawson 1983a). As a result, the barrier to implementing TGfU is a reluctance to change from their colleagues. This confirms the findings of Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin (2008), Wang and Ha (2013) and Harvey, Cushion and Sammon (2015) which encompassed both in-service and pre-service teachers. This study highlights the need for the full support of colleagues and senior staff members to introduce novel approaches such as TGfU into the school environment, so that other PE teachers feel confident, validated, and supported to implement the approach for themselves.

A key discussion point within the interviews was the influence and impact of the NCPE on how the teachers taught. There was a general consensus of negativity from the participants surrounding the NCPE commenting on a lack of detail and limited description for what is required of the teacher.

'...it may as well not exist because it's so woolly and vague and brief that, that there's not a lot to take away from it really. So it has not really had a lot of influence.' Participant M1 (Line 339)

There was agreement from the majority of the teachers discussing the content of the NCPE which included topics such as competition and promoting active participation in lessons. However, in terms of influencing how they teach, the NCPE had little to no effect on their current practice, with many

participants commenting how they have not looked at the NCPE for years or in some cases, such as Participant F6, not since their teacher training. Whilst the teachers had commented on the briefness of the NCPE, the introduction of a mandate for a particular way of teaching could restrict their freedoms and is contrary to the ethos of the 2013 NCPE (DfE, 2013) which had given them greater autonomy and flexibility. If one were to consider modifying the NCPE to specifically direct PE teachers to teach using GBAs, by adopting a top-down approach, there would be a number of issues. Rossi *et al.* (2007) commented on the Singaporean Government mandated PE curriculum changes that introduced a GBA for all schools stating that the teachers felt restricted by its emphasis on a particular teaching pedagogy. It is of note that Participant F6 who was incumbent as head of department and in their later career so, despite their job role in determining the departmental ways of working and PE curriculum, their earlier statement indicates that they might not have re-visited the NCPE in over 25 years and may be unaware of changes. Moreover, academies are not obliged to follow the NCPE and may devise their own curricula, implementing them as they feel fit. Hence adding a requirement to teach using a GBA to the NCPE would be flawed if the teachers do not have to follow it, or some choose not to look at it. The implications for TGfU implementation indicate that a bottom-up approach may have greater success as teachers' autonomy is maintained.

In terms of their current teaching practice, all the study participants referenced completing a warmup and technique-based practice based upon how they were taught at school, on university placements and how their colleagues taught. This suggests that the socialisation during acculturation, coupled with the survival strategies the teachers assumed whilst on university placements, became fully accepted and internalised within their job and institution. Thus, creating the custodial response, as outlined in the third assumption of Lawson's (1983a) Occupational Socialisation Theory, namely that socialisation is problematic rather than automatic. The majority of participants claimed a technique-based practice was their primary focus of the lesson, teaching a 'sports skill' such as a 'pass' and with a full adult version of the game in the last 10-15 minutes of the lesson. When questioned about TGfU the teachers provided an additional barrier to its implementation, a fundamental lack of time, and they detailed a number of ways that it could impact them. The first way they described concerned a lack of time for lesson planning.

'I haven't got time to sit and plan everything out to the finer detail, you know, I will know what I am doing for each stage of the lesson...unfortunately, teachers haven't got the time to research and you know, put something totally new in...' Participant F1 (Line 708)

'I use the same lesson plans every year and never change them, I don't have time to change them.' Participant F3 (Line 455)

To change their teaching practice could demand a considerable initial investment of time in learning and modifying schemes of work, lesson plans, curricula, assessment tools and new activities. With their already high workloads and over-stretched resources, the implication of this finding is that the teachers would struggle to make this commitment. The teachers elaborated to provide an additional sub-barrier, a lack of time within lessons, which would hinder their practice.

'... the actual time it takes to set, to set up an activity like that and, and maintain it for the duration of the sport, you know if you are doing that with every class you wouldn't have time to do that.' Participant M2 (Line 608)

The teachers' perception was that lesson times were too short for teaching using a GBA, hence describing their dilemma with a lack of time within lessons as being twofold. Firstly, their concerns were regarding not meeting planned lesson outcomes and assessment targets with lower ability pupils, due to the misconception that the children would take longer to demonstrate progression through modified activities in comparison to the technique-based approach. Secondly, the teachers were uncertain about the amount of time required to set up activities, including equipment and providing initial game instruction to the pupils. The culmination of these beliefs results in a hesitancy and resistance towards adopting TGfU. These barriers echo those in the literature, that teachers who are new to using GBAs require an increase in preparation time to be able to implement the approach (Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon, 2010; Wang and Ha, 2009). Although McNeill *et al.* (2004) and Wang and Ha (2009) highlighted the concerns of pre-service teachers for a lack of time within lessons, this has also been confirmed for in-service teachers by Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon (2010). Therefore, to mitigate these lack of time barriers the teachers require access to appropriate resources and the necessary time to adapt and integrate them for their teaching context.

After the initial discussions focusing on the three phases of Occupational Socialisation, the participants had been queried regarding GBAs and TGfU to establish the extent of their knowledge and implementation. This fourth question also gave them the opportunity to reflect on their earlier comments. Seven of the 15 participants could describe one or more pedagogical approaches, such as Sport Education, Cooperative Learning and TGfU. Two of the participants had previously heard of

TGfU from university whilst three participants had knowledge of the approach from their experiences as a teacher. The three participants who had knowledge were self-taught in the TGfU approach, with one participant disliking it, one participant liking it but struggling to apply it in practice due to his stated lack of knowledge of the approach, and the third participant active in its application. Many of the teachers remarked that they already employ small-sided games and therefore believed that TGfU was similar to what they were doing already, 'I think it's pretty much what we do anyway, we just don't label it as that' Participant F1 (Line 663). Thorpe and Bunker (1983) had found that teachers gave similar responses, they focused on using small-sided games to develop techniques and skills but not necessarily using the games as a vehicle through which to teach the lesson. Although the teachers gave positive responses to TGfU, many of them had problems with its concept and potential application. In accordance with the findings of Bunker and Thorpe (1986a), they gave the reason for their pupils' lack of technique for not teaching the TGfU approach. Therefore, a lack of underpinning knowledge through training of the TGfU approach and a lack of understanding in the belief of needing to teach the techniques (first derived for the majority from their comprehension of the TGfU explanation sheet provided at the start of the interviews), are major barriers to its use. Demonstrating the potential of the model can help promote TGfU as it supports its value in PE. Furthermore, the teachers suggested that to increase their knowledge of the approach they needed to complete CPD sessions with an external individual. This would allow them to be educated in effective TGfU lessons where they and the children learn the game.

Summary: Organisational Socialisation

This study demonstrated that organisational socialisation is an important phase in the teachers' lives, culminating in influences from the departmental ethos and school shaping the teachers' current teaching knowledge and practice. The school, staff, pupils, and environment wield strong socialising influences that may act as barriers or facilitators in impacting the success of a teacher's method of delivery and ultimately their lesson.

The majority of participants described a sense of conflict in trying to find a philosophical equilibrium between school and self, with the goals of examination results and enjoyable participation seemingly mutually exclusive. These role stressors can ultimately lead to role burnout (Richards, 2015; Tsouloupas and Carson, 2017), an issue that some participants were taking action against by cherry-picking students to sit exams, narrowing the practical sports curriculum and cutting back on extra-

curricular sports for younger children. The teachers all discussed placing pupils in ability sets, with lower ability groups having fewer or basic technical practices and the higher ability sets progressing onto games quicker. The competencies of their pupils are a big determining factor which informs their teaching practice. In all cases, this resulted in a technique-based approach with full version game to conclude the lesson, taught based upon their previous experiences in the acculturation and professional socialisation phases and the influences within the school context. The evidence suggests that teachers' previous influences combine with the powerful socialisation of pupils, and by observations on their colleagues, to modify their practice to align with the departmental ethos and school to internalise and perpetuate the custodial institution values (Lawson, 1983a).

The findings of this study have confirmed the literature in that the full support of the SLT (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards and Hemphill, 2017), in addition to that of the Head of PE (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015), are imperative for the successful introduction of an innovative approach such as the TGfU model. Moreover, the participants commented explicitly and implicitly on an additional underlying factor that impedes the implementation of TGfU, namely a lack of time; time to learn a new teaching approach and create new lesson plans, and especially the teaching time for setting up activities and meeting assessment targets in short PE lessons. In addition, the participants had a clearly limited knowledge and understanding of GBAs, as demonstrated by the common misunderstandings around the application of small-sided games and rigid beliefs about the unsuitability of the approach for children with lower technical abilities. The participants stated that CPD courses would be helpful in breaking down these barriers and misconceptions.

Targeting the departmental ethos and school to produce an environment that welcomed change would not only affect the in-service teachers but would cascade from mentors to pre-service teachers and ultimately to the pupils (Richards *et al.*, 2021). New colleagues should be encouraged and supported in adopting the approach to ensure it is embedded in teaching practice. Richards and Hemphill (2017) state that for a paradigm shift to occur in schools, in-service teachers need to be leading the change. This is particularly important as demonstrated in their beliefs surrounding the government mandated NCPE. This suggests that the school environment houses the potential to make the biggest inroads into how teachers teach, and that it is where the implementation of TGfU should be focused for greatest effect.

3.4.4 Teacher Recommendations of the facilitators for overcoming barriers to Implementing TGfU

The teachers made recommendations on ways of overcoming the barriers to the implementation of TGfU which were highlighted in the professional socialisation and organisational socialisation phases. To overcome the barriers in the professional socialisation phase the teachers suggested more opportunities for learning and that greater emphasis was required on innovative pedagogical approaches. This is considered necessary due to their limited recollection from lectures and the 'wash out' occurring within placements. Educating about GBAs, such as TGfU, will facilitate the development of the preservice teacher's knowledge and reduce any misconceptions. For the implementation to be successful, the university lecturers would need to support their students and provide consistent messages about PE and the pedagogical approaches. Similarly, a partnership between the university and school, including school mentors' support for the innovative approach, is required to minimise the internalisation of custodial approaches derived from the pre-service teacher's acculturation and from the placement school.

To overcome the barriers in the organisational socialisation phase, the teachers suggested a CPD session to provide them with the necessary information on the model, along with resources and lesson plans. This would simplify the information, reduce the amount of time spent on researching and planning and reduce the barrier of lack of time. This session would also provide a demonstration of the model in a practical setting showing the successful implementation of the model from theory into practice. A CPD course could provide the knowledge and understanding of the TGfU approach, however, this would need to be ratified by the Head of PE, PE department and SLT for its successful implementation.

Another solution which could target pre-service and in-service teachers, was to introduce National Governing Bodies (NGBs) coaching awards to give people a greater understanding of using TGfU within different sports and highlight the validity of the model. Some NGB level 1 and 2 awards, such as the Football Association (FA) and England Netball in the UK, are promoting the use of GBAs (Anderson *et al.*, 2022; Gambles *et al.*, 2022). The introduction of these qualifications would create a new market to promote and advertise contemporary methods of teaching to all PE teachers. The teachers believed that practising their skills on a coaching course with an expert instructor would reduce the barriers associated with their lack of knowledge and lack of understanding. The teachers

added that advertising the approach on social media and teacher-centred websites would aid in the dissemination of information and, by reaching a wider network, propel TGfU onto the national and international stage.

3.5 Summary and Conclusions

The aim of this study was to investigate teachers' perspectives of the factors underpinning their engagement with the TGfU approach, using Occupational Socialisation Theory. Three objectives structured the focus of the study upon the teachers' key influences and beliefs throughout each of the three phases (acculturation, professional socialisation and organisational socialisation). Subsequently the barriers that prevent teachers from utilising the TGfU approach were classified, and informed recommendations to mitigate them were discussed.

Strong beliefs regarding teachers and how they teach become established during the lengthy 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975) of the acculturation phase with the establishment of distorted subjective warrants that persist. In this study, these were developed under parental influences and later nurtured by the PE teacher role models who inspired the prospective teachers. The brief professional socialisation period had a limited influence (Lawson, 1983a) with the participants' restricted and negative descriptions of theoretical lectures in high contrast to the detailed, positive accounts of practical content. Consensus was divided regarding receiving conflicting information on teaching philosophies from their tutors and placement mentor resulting in the participants adopting a short-term compliance of aligning their teaching style appropriately. However, whilst on placements within the strong socialising environment of the school the participants lapsed back into the familiar traditional PE teaching approach, rarely experimenting with innovative approaches.

Within the organisational socialisation phase the in-service teacher encounters socialising effects from pupils, colleagues, and the school environment, adapting their behaviours to fit in. The departmental ethos coupled with the teacher's current teaching knowledge and practice are significant influences on how they are socialised and why they teach the way that they do. The

participants displayed a lack of knowledge of GBAs, misunderstanding factors in its practical applicability. Coupling the synergy of the strong environmental influences with leadership endorsement is critical for the successful implementation of innovative teaching approaches in the school.

On the whole the teachers were not introduced to TGfU until university if at all, and the lack of mentor support caused them to disregard the model. During acculturation and professional socialisation, the teachers had limited opportunity to experience the TGfU approach, instead tending to engage with traditional teaching pedagogies. The five main overarching barriers identified as preventing in-service teachers utilising TGfU in schools were lack of knowledge, lack of understanding, lack of support, lack of time and reluctance to change.

The provision of CPD sessions, teaching resources and coaching awards could reduce the barriers facing teachers during the organisational socialisation phase as there appears to be a void between academic practice and on the ground delivery, which may benefit from introducing new ideas to current teachers. The beliefs formed during acculturation are often confirmed during field-based training in professional socialisation and in organisational socialisation, resulting in a perpetual cycle of reinforcement from teacher to child. Hence to engender change, in-service teachers need to be targeted as this ultimately affects the pupils and student teachers on placements. Study 2 will investigate the organisational socialisation phase, incorporating suggestions made by the Study 1 participants to provide in-service PE teachers with TGfU professional development training and teaching resources to allow them to experience and implement the model in practice.

CHAPTER 4: STUDY 2: Teachers' Use of the Teaching Games for Understanding Approach

4.1 Overview

Using Occupational Socialisation Theory, Study 1 explored the socialisation of PE teachers as influenced by their childhood, university, and on-the-job experiences. Childhood influences were the participants' parents, school experiences and PE teacher role models who encouraged their career aspirations and enjoyment of sport. University teaching experiences were found to have a limited effect on teachers' current practices due to a lack of knowledge retention, particularly in theoretical lessons. Participants reported negative experiences of university and placement due to receiving conflicting information from lecturers and placement mentors. On placement, the teachers predominantly adopted the teaching approaches of their mentors or the familiar practices of their acculturation phase stating they did not employ the teaching approaches taught at university except on a short-term compliance basis during observations to pass their degree. On-the-job experiences provided strong influences from the school, staff, pupils, and environment that affected teachers' current ways of teaching. The school through the departmental ethos and teachers' knowledge and practice affected daily PE, demonstrating that this is the most influential phase to affect current ways of teaching.

There is a need to target in-service PE teachers as the influences at this stage have a powerful effect on their current teaching approaches. For the introduction of innovative teaching practices, in-service teachers need to be committed and endorse the approach. In particular, Study 1 concluded with five main barriers to the implementation of TGfU that should be focused upon; lack of support, lack of understanding, lack of knowledge, reluctance to change and lack of time. The teachers suggested the delivery of a CPD session and provision of resources to in-service teachers would be the most effective way for engaging with new teaching methods.

4.1.1 Implementation of GBAs in Teaching Practice

The emergence and development of GBAs and models of teaching over the past 40 years has led to a significant change in the PE landscape. Since its initial introduction by Bunker and Thorpe in 1982,

TGfU and by extension GBAs have made a prominent contribution to teaching and research in PE (Griffin, Brooker and Patton, 2005). Despite support for this approach from research, its impact and progression into mainstream PE has yet to be fully achieved (Almond, 1986a; O'Leary, 2012; Stolz and Pill, 2014). The literature has argued that traditional approaches that focus on technique and skill practices still dominate PE (see for example Butler, 2005; Kirk, 2010; Sullivan, 2021).

GBAs were introduced to address the growing and prevailing concerns with the dominant traditional pedagogy and behaviourist teaching practices (see for example Kirk, 2010; Kirk and MacPhail, 2002; Lopez *et al.*, 2009). GBAs shift from the traditional linear, performance-based pedagogy to a student-centred teaching approach with characteristics of constructivism. The advocacy of the TGfU approach was based on the notion that the modified games developed tactical problem-solving and skilful performance creating competent games players beyond the comparison of the traditional approach which focused primarily on the mastery of techniques (Almond, 1986a; Bunker and Thorpe, 1982; Kirk, 2017).

There are a number of reasons proposed for the failure to implement GBAs including: pedagogical, political, cultural, and conceptual dilemmas (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Roberts, 2011). Problems with high level questioning skills (McNeill *et al.*, 2008; Turner, 2005; Wright and Forrest, 2007), personal experience and habit of traditional approaches (Light and Georgakis, 2007) and short induction periods leading to limited support and failure to develop sufficient pedagogical content knowledge (Harvey and Jarrett, 2014). However, there is a growing body of global literature endorsing the benefits of GBAs including: enhancing motivation (Evans and Light, 2008), developing holistic learning (Butler, 2006), increased game understanding and performance (Almond, 2015; Bunker and Thorpe, 1982) and the development of tactical knowledge (Butler, 1997; Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Mitchell, Oslin and Griffin, 2021). To support the implementation of TGfU and GBAs, teachers need effective professional development to educate them with the knowledge and application of its use in schools (Memmert *et al.*, 2015; Parry, 2014).

4.1.2 Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

Professional development is used as a mechanism to facilitate teacher learning (Bechtel and O'Sullivan, 2006). Professional development, CPD, training, in-service learning are terms that are

often used interchangeably to denote 'all types of professional learning undertaken by teachers beyond the point of initial training' (Craft, 2002, p.9). Professional development and CPD can be used broadly to encompass courses, conferences, private reading and shadowing, or can be used specifically to focus only on professional courses.

The wider professional development literature reflects a concern in the support for in-service teachers and describes it as 'inadequate' and 'insufficient' (Armour and Yelling, 2004b, 2007; Bechtel and O'Sullivan, 2006). These concerns are echoed in PE professional development arguing there is a lack of depth and challenge with limited progression and consistency (Armour and Yelling, 2004b, 2007). Armour and Yelling (2004b) suggested there is a gap between what teachers want and need to know, and what is available. Research indicates that quality teaching affects pupil learning, and teachers can improve their practice using professional development tools (Armour and Yelling, 2004a). For teaching approaches such as GBAs/TGfU, professional development programmes need to be sophisticated in design to develop conceptual understanding and teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. The implication of providing this level of detail within CPD courses will facilitate teachers' ability to implement the approach and by extension improve pupils' experiences (see for example Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). Therefore, the quality of professional development programmes is important in determining the quality of teaching (Armour and Yelling, 2004a).

There is an increasing volume of research which identifies features of effective professional development (Armour and Yelling, 2004b, 2007; Darling-Hammond and Richardson, 2009). CPD programmes are ideally long-term, acknowledge teachers' existing beliefs and practices, encourage collaboration among colleagues and make use of an outside facilitator (Richardson, 2003). Traditional CPD formats are one- or two-day workshops that lack follow-up and are often described as brief or sporadic (Hemphill, Templin and Wright, 2015). Whereas CPD models that provide a greater number of contact hours have been seen to be more impactful on practice (Guskey, 2002). This is reiterated by Harvey and Jarrett (2014) who noted that longitudinal studies are effective in determining the prolonged use of GBAs and understanding the complexities of learning. Although reports of GBA interventions have increased within the literature, the length and time scales of the research have been restricted to typically four to eight weeks (Harvey and Jarrett, 2014). Armour and Yelling (2004b) provided one possibility to explain limited professional development and that is

that securing time with teachers can be difficult. Therefore, consideration of the teachers' availability and context is required when conducting a professional development programme.

Effective professional development programmes need to allow teachers the opportunity to engage with the material, provide thought-provoking ideas and give teachers examples that they can use in their own teaching (Armour and Yelling, 2004b; Borko, 2004). The CPD needs to be content-rich, relevant, and engaging (Desimone, 2011; Little, 2012) and have the opportunity for reflection and collaboration (Armour and Yelling, 2004b; Guskey, 2003). Borko (2004) suggested that professional development suffers due to being over simplistic and not embedding within teachers' working contexts. Nash (2009) highlighted the success of using 'communities of practice' to create a social learning experience, assisting pre-service teachers in developing a deeper understanding of how to implement TGfU effectively. Therefore, for the effective implementation of TGfU in schools the professional development programme needs to be designed to encourage discussions among teachers, provide detailed content and pedagogical content knowledge and be applicable for the teachers' school contexts (see for example Butler, 2005; Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Jarrett and Light, 2018; Memmert *et al.*, 2015; Wang and Ha, 2009, 2013).

Despite decades of research into professional development, Armour *et al.* (2017, p.799) have recently argued that 'there remains little robust evidence to support definitive claims about what constitutes "effective" CPD'. This has been acknowledged in the GBA literature indicating there is a limited consensus on the best practices for supporting teachers within their own contexts using professional development training (Memmert *et al.*, 2015). With limited studies examining the use of GBAs with in-service teacher professional development programmes (Harvey and Jarrett, 2013), further research into this area is required to provide greater attention to understanding how professional development can support teachers incorporating TGfU into their practice (Memmert *et al.*, 2015).

This chapter will focus on the organisational socialisation phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory. Unlike the previous two phases, when working with in-service PE teachers their on-the-job experiences can be targeted to make a difference for current practitioners. Study 2 will focus on the five main barriers to implementing TGfU that were derived from Study 1. Study 2 will follow a simplified protocol of Parry (2014) which involves a teacher-led model of professional development

with the aim of having teachers implement TGfU during core PE lessons. For the purpose of this study, '2-hour CPD' will refer to the 2-hour classroom training event with the term '6-week CPD' used to describe the complete 2-hour classroom training event plus 6-week teaching practice. The term 'professional development' will be used to refer to any professional learning since initial teacher training.

4.2 Purpose

The purpose of Study 2 was to evaluate the effectiveness of a 6-week CPD event with in-service teachers that focused on overcoming five of the main barriers to implementing TGfU as discovered in Study 1 – lack of support, lack of understanding, lack of knowledge, reluctance to change and lack of time. The aim of Study 2 was to evaluate the impact of a teacher training CPD on in-service PE teachers' implementation of TGfU. To achieve the aim of this study three objectives were set:

- To train in-service teachers to deliver a TGfU approach in a 6-week CPD event.
- To evaluate the success of PE teachers delivering a TGfU approach as part of a scheme of work, through the reduction of the barriers identified in Study 1
- To identify teachers' and researcher's recommendations to facilitate overcoming the barriers associated with implementing a TGfU approach in PE.

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Design

This pre-post design study utilised questionnaires and focus groups to examine and evaluate the success of the 6-week CPD training in helping PE teachers overcome the main barriers to implementing TGfU within their practice. Baseline data were collected prior to the 2-hour CPD, and subsequently further data were collected after the 6-week practical delivery to investigate for differences. In this study, the independent variable was the 6-week CPD training, and the dependent variables were the main and sub-barriers to implementing TGfU identified in Study 1.

Purposeful Design to Mitigate Barriers

The set up and design of the study had the aim of mitigating some of the barriers to implementing TGfU. This was achieved through addressing the lack of understanding and lack of knowledge during the 6-week CPD training when the teachers were introduced to the TGfU approach, modified their schemes of work, and practised the approach with their pupils. In addition, this research study requested for a minimum of two PE teachers from each school to participate, helping to create a community of practice to assist in reducing the lack of support barrier. The colleagues could collaborate on changing their schemes of work, lesson plans and implementing TGfU in practice. Additionally, on-going support through regular communication with the researcher was included to help reduce the lack of support barrier. The sub-barriers of lack of support from lecturers and school mentors are not addressed in this study due to not directly targeting those components and the professional socialisation phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory. However, if the participants are or would become school mentors themselves, the study may have future positive outcomes for new teachers.

During the 2-hour CPD session, the teachers had the opportunity to evaluate their current schemes of work and lesson plans and were also provided with a variety of TGfU teaching resources. The intention was that this experience would reduce the barrier of the teachers' lack of time for planning. As the teachers become better prepared and knowledgeable it was anticipated their confidence would increase in delivering the approach and providing high quality teaching. With the intention of assuaging negative feelings towards the approach an atmosphere that allows the teachers to teach TGfU effectively was encouraged in the CPD session and subsequent teaching practice, which was aimed at reducing the final barrier, reluctance to change.

Within Study 2, it was considered important to obtain teachers' suggestions about how to overcome the barriers to implementing the TGfU model. Although Study 1 initially identified some facilitators, it must be noted that these were based upon largely theoretical beliefs as the majority of the participants had little theoretical knowledge or experience in the practical application of TGfU. Only five of the 15 participants of Study 1 had any prior knowledge or training in the utilisation of the TGfU model. Two teachers recalled TGfU from university and three were self-taught. Of these three, one teacher was using it in their practice, one stated difficulty in applying it and the third participant

disliked it. Almond (1986a) had stated that teachers needed to have a practical experimentation and understanding of TGfU within their own teaching contexts. In contrast to Study 1, Study 2 will include theoretical and practical learning opportunities which will allow for the identification of any additional barriers and facilitators to the implementation of TGfU.

Focus Groups and the Researcher-Moderator Role

Focus groups are utilised as a method of data collection for qualitative research as they source individual and group perspectives within the discussions (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). Individuals sharing a common identity and goals creates a group homogeneity that is positively associated with the levels of cooperation and communication. Focus groups have been shown to encourage participants to talk more than when interviewed individually, which may be enhanced if the discussions include a common situation and are held within a familiar setting (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). Utilisation of a semi-structured questioning format allows group members to provide their own perspectives on the responses from other members (Green *et al.*, 2009). Being a part of a discussion can lead to the creation of opinions arising from within the social situation providing insights into the situational context as members' suggestions are debated and rejected or accepted (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014).

Effectively obtaining insightful data from focus group interactions is dependent upon the particular characteristics of the moderator when taking this supportive leader role; gender, age, training, experience in the role and academic background in addition to key personal attributes such as objectivity, adaptability, and empathy (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). A good moderator has a strong aptitude for communication and balances professional detachment with a complement of 'soft skills' that sets people at ease and builds rapport yet can control any domineering personalities that emerge (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). The moderator also needs to have a critical awareness of their personal responses, body language and interactions to avoid introducing bias by appearing to favour certain viewpoints in preference of allowing all to be heard. (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014). Also important are those aspects related to the situation such as the degree of controversy of the research area, the physical environment used for the discussions, the group size, the constraints arising from deadlines and interview duration balanced against the desired depth or breadth of the inquiry. Similarly, the degree of structure applied to the questioning can facilitate the ensuing

discussions in generating ideas, investigating barriers and problems or for reaching conclusions. All these aspects require planning (Morgan, 1997; Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014) on the part of the focus group moderator.

Prior to all data collection the researcher had completed a post-graduate level module on research methods which included ethics training and data collection methodologies. In addition, the researcher utilised their previous experiences of the moderator role from interviewing undergraduate student peers for a research study. In this thesis, the academic background and previous working experiences provided the researcher-moderator with an expert level of knowledge of the research subject coupled with a personal awareness and understanding of the demands and expectations placed on a secondary PE teacher. The participants' potential view of the moderator as an 'other' (non-staff member) was tempered by knowledge of the researcher's previous employment in secondary schools. From their university academic tutor role, the researcher-moderator was able to draw upon their student management skills to build relationships with participants whilst being vigilant towards negative group dynamics. The moderator followed key recommendations from the literature, encouraging full engagement and participation from all the group members.

4.3.2 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Sunderland Research Ethics Committee. Participants were provided with an information sheet detailing the purpose of the study and nature of data collection (Appendix 2) prior to giving their informed written consent (Appendix 1). Participation in the study was voluntary with each participant being given the right to withdraw from the study at any stage without reason. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured with no names or contact details included in the study write up. All participants were assigned with a pseudonym determined by the researcher to ensure anonymity. The focus groups were audio recorded to aid with transcription of the data. The data was transcribed by a Randstad Student Support worker as consented to by the participants (see Appendix 3 for their Transcription Policy). All data were stored on a password-protected personal computer with restricted access for up to ten years before the data will be destroyed.

4.3.3 Sampling Procedure and Participants

Sampling Procedure

The sampling frame for this study was secondary school PE departments in England with individuals who either have or have not previously used the TGfU model in classes. This was considered important as it helped to identify how teachers with varying degrees of knowledge on the approach found teaching a TGfU scheme of work and the barriers they have encountered. The degree of prior knowledge was reported in the demographic questionnaire (see the Participants section below) and considered in the 2-hour CPD course (refer to the Procedure section below). The researcher requested a minimum of two participants from each school with the intention of creating a 'community of practice' (Butler, 2005; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Jarrett and Light, 2018; Wang and Ha, 2009, 2013). In addition, potential participating schools were informed of the desired level of commitment which included time for delivery of the CPD course, a minimum of 1 hour per week teaching TGfU and subsequently a 45-minute focus group. This study employed opportunity sampling based upon the replies from secondary schools that met the inclusion criteria and could commit to the requirements of the study.

Participant Recruitment

The participants from Study 1 were contacted to ascertain whether their PE department would be willing to participate in the next stage of the study. After a consultation period none of these schools consented to taking part in Study 2 stating they were either unable to commit the time or they had a new Head of PE who was disinterested in taking part. As a result of these difficulties, a number of secondary schools within the North of England were contacted to request participants for the study. Over the period of September 2018 to March 2019, a maximum of 3 emails were sent to the school administrators, using their main school contact details. 286 schools in total were contacted, covering 14 Local Education Authorities in Yorkshire, Manchester and the North-East of England. 225 schools failed to respond and 42 declined citing time and staffing constraints. One further school declined stating that 'TGfU does not fit with their school learning and teaching policy'. Whilst 12 schools initially expressed an interest in participating, they later declined giving a range of reasons for why they couldn't fully commit. These included being unable to provide more than one participant, and current time constraints but added that they would have been interested to participate at another

time. Six schools agreed to participate in the study as they could fulfil the selection criteria – to provide commitment from more than one member of their PE department and were available to provide the time necessary for this study.

Participants

Seventeen PE teachers from five secondary schools completed all elements of the study. One school that had originally committed to participating, took part in the first questionnaire, 2-hour CPD and had begun the teaching practice, however, were unable to commit to the final questionnaire and focus group due to time constraints and chose to withdraw entirely from the study. The ages of the teachers ranged from 22 to 45 years and had between nine months and 22 years of in-service experience teaching in schools. All the schools involved in the study were Academies. Each participant provided demographic information prior to data collection (Appendix 4). Eight male and nine female in-service PE teachers took part in the study. Seven out of 17 participants had additional roles within the school including teaching other subjects, head of year and project or progress management. Six of the participants had the role of Head of PE, with two of these sharing their role.

The participants all taught games during core PE lessons using ‘mini’, ‘small-sided’ or ‘modified’ games. Ten of the participants had no previous experience or knowledge of TGfU. Seven participants had prior knowledge of the existence of the approach with two of the seven being able to correctly outline and explain the approach though with only a basic understanding.

The schools taking part in the study were generally from low socio-economic background areas accepting children from within their local catchment regions. Each teacher quoted the pupil premium⁵ for their school was between 33-55% and the figures were similar to that for pupils attending the school who were entitled to free school meals. The PE departments ranged from having 3 to 7 members of staff which included full time and part time teachers. Each school provided most of their department except for one or two members of staff who were unable to participate. Therefore, each school had a minimum of two staff members participating in the study to support

⁵ The Pupil Premium is a grant paid to state-funded schools for under-privileged children with the aim of improving their educational attainment. The allocation of Government funding for free school meals and pupil premium grants is a measure of the proportion of disadvantaged children in a school and thus can act as an indication of the socio-economic levels of the area.

each other during the 6-week CPD event.

As academies, the schools were not required to teach using the NCPE but designed their own curriculum to meet the demands of their context and pupils. The curriculums in the schools were similar in structure and broad aims with each school offering a variety of sports including football, rugby, cricket, netball, hockey, rounders, gymnastics, dance, and athletics. The participants all stated that the school tried to offer a wide range of sports and activities when available with some sports such as football and hockey being taught to all pupils. The number of hours of PE taught to Key Stage 3 pupils varied between 1.5 to 2.5 hours equivalent each week and 1 to 2 hours equivalent each week for Key Stage 4 pupils. Every school offered extra-curricular activities which were the same sports and activities that pupils took part in during core PE lessons, and all competed in inter-school competitions and leagues.

All the schools had indoor and outdoor facilities. Each school had a minimum of an indoor sports hall and PE specific classrooms, with three schools having a gymnasium while another possessed two. Three schools had an indoor fitness suite and two schools had access to a dance studio. One school had an on-site swimming pool. All the schools had similar outdoor facilities which included sports fields, 3G pitches/Astro turf and a multi-use games area with tennis and netball court painted lines.

4.3.4 Procedure

Procedure

The procedure for this study was a simplified version of the teacher-led model of professional learning introduced by Parry (2014). A full version of the protocol could not be used due to the availability and time-constraints affecting the participants. Therefore, outlined below is the amended version which was conducted in reflection of the four phases of Parry (2014).

In advance of the 2-hour CPD session, participants were queried on their level of knowledge and understanding of TGfU to establish a baseline for each teacher- seven teachers had heard of TGfU but only two were able to provide a basic understanding of the approach (Appendix 4). This was taken into consideration during the 2-hour CPD by ensuring that all the participants understood the

approach and greater detail on TGfU was provided to all teachers who required it. The teachers were provided with a copy of the questionnaire (Appendix 9) devised based on the primary barriers outlined in Study 1, which they completed at the start of the 2-hour CPD session. The 2-hour CPD session was conducted with each PE department between January and April 2019. The session took 2 hours and provided teachers with information on TGfU, including why it was initially developed, how it is structured with the incorporation of the four pedagogical principles and how it is different from the 'traditional' technique-based approach (Appendix 10). The 2-hour CPD content was consistent for all participants and planned similarly to Parry (2014) who incorporated the same subject matter in their first session workshop.

During the 2-hour CPD, the teachers were asked to apply TGfU through active learning and problem-solving tasks and they were provided with written and practical examples of how to apply TGfU to their lessons. The final part of the 2-hour CPD had the teachers working as a group under the guidance of the researcher to reflect upon and change their current schemes of work into a TGfU-centred approach (see Appendix 10 for CPD training content). During the 2-hour CPD the teachers were given the opportunity to ask any questions to ensure they had understood the content. The teachers were asked to deliver a minimum of six TGfU lessons within a 6-week period (1 hour per week) to secondary school children aged 11-16 with their own choice of activity, group, and ability of pupils. Halfway through the 6-week period, the researcher emailed the participants to check their progress and participants were also given the opportunity to ask any questions or discuss any concerns they currently had via an email exchange. Throughout all stages of the study, the participants were able to contact the researcher if they required assistance or clarification. At the end of the teaching practise a focus group was held in each participating school where the teachers were also given another copy of the questionnaire (Appendix 9) to complete, to allow for cross-comparison of the answers provided related directly to the barriers faced for implementing TGfU into teaching practice. Semi-structured questions (Appendix 5) were asked during the 45-minute focus groups, and then all the data were analysed.

4.3.5 Measures

Questionnaires were developed focusing on the five primary barriers to TGfU found during Study 1, namely, lack of knowledge, lack of understanding, lack of time, lack of support and reluctance to

change. The five primary barriers were expanded on in the questionnaire to include 2-3 first order themed barriers, totalling 11 sub-barriers, outlined during the thematic analysis from Study 1. For example, Study 1 found lack of time the primary barrier, which was split between lack of time in lessons and lack of planning time. The barriers derived from Study 1 became the outcome measures to establish whether the 6-week CPD training event reduced them. The questionnaires consisted of two main sections. Section 1 employed a 5-point Likert scale anchored by (1) 'not at all' to (5) 'very much so' to discover the teachers' opinions on the extent of a number of barriers to teaching TGfU. Section 2 contained two open-ended questions to probe for further information on additional barriers and suggestions for overcoming them (Appendix 9).

The focus groups were conducted, and audio recorded with each individual school on their premises between April and July 2019. They were held within two to three weeks after the completion of their 6-week TGfU teaching practice. The focus groups were semi-structured with each participant contributing to the conversation as facilitated by the researcher. The questions focused on providing a depth of information regarding the barriers outlined in Study 1 and discussions around responses to the questionnaire. The focus group questions provided details about the teachers' implementation of the model including their perceptions of TGfU, the aforementioned barriers, and discussion around any supplementary barriers faced. This qualitative approach allowed a comparison both between individual participants and between schools, whilst the flexibility of the semi-structured questions provided an opportunity for new ideas to emerge.

4.3.6 Methods of Data Analysis

The study design was of a mixed methods approach. The Likert scale data from the questionnaire was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS Version 25). A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare the participants' scores on the perceived barriers before and after the 6-week CPD training. Both sets of results from the Likert scale data in Section 1 are presented and discussed in the Inferential Analysis section below. Section 2 of the questionnaire consisted of two open-ended questions that provided the teachers with an opportunity to comment on additional barriers and how they might be overcome. The questionnaire's open-ended questions and the focus group data were analysed using thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

4.4 Results

With reference to Section 2, nine of the 17 teachers made comments in the pre-CPD course questionnaire stating two potential barriers to TGfU namely, non-PE specialist observations of their teaching practice, and pupil assessment in the TGfU approach. These points for discussion mapped to two of the five barriers outlined in Study 1 - lack of support and lack of knowledge. In Section 2 of the post CPD questionnaire 14 of the 17 teachers highlighted three perceived barriers to teaching TGfU. These barriers again included non-PE specialist observations of their teaching practice, but also insufficient time for re-working their lesson plans and schemes of work, and teaching pupils with differing sporting abilities. These points map to barriers of lack of support, lack of time and lack of knowledge. It is important to note that the potential barriers to teaching TGfU, 'insufficient time for lesson planning' and 'teaching pupils with differing sporting abilities' had been included in Section 1 of the questionnaire. The teachers expanded upon these components during the focus group and are explored in the discussion section below.

Inferential analysis

Paired sample t-tests were conducted to compare the mean scores of the barriers to implementing TGfU for in-service teachers before and after a 6-week CPD event. Participants' perceptions of the barriers were measured at the start of the 2-hour CPD course and again at the focus groups after the 6-week teaching practice (n=17). Of the 11 TGfU sub-barriers recorded, there was a significant decrease ($p < 0.05$) in the participants' scores for five of the categories - lack of time: for planning TGfU lessons, lack of time: within lessons to teach using the TGfU approach, lack of understanding: needing to teach the skills first, lack of understanding: unsure how to apply TGfU in practice, and lack of knowledge: lack of training in how to apply TGfU (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: A Paired Samples T-test showing in-service teachers' perceptions of barriers to the implementation of TGfU

Barrier		Mean	Standard Deviation	Significance (two-tailed)
Lack of Time- for Planning	Pre	3.05	1.29	0.017
	Post	2.17	0.80	
Lack of Time- within lessons to teach TGfU	Pre	2.52	1.17	0.029
	Post	1.82	0.72	
Lack of understanding- needing to teach the skills first then focus on TGfU	Pre	3.41	1.37	0.003
	Post	2.29	0.91	
Lack of understanding- unsure how to apply TGfU in practice	Pre	3.11	1.49	0.002
	Post	2.11	0.92	
Lack of knowledge- of how pupils with different abilities cope with TGfU	Pre	3.05	1.19	0.12
	Post	2.52	1.06	
Lack of knowledge-lack of training in how to apply TGfU	Pre	3.23	1.34	0.002
	Post	2.11	0.99	
Teachers' reluctance to change how they teach	Pre	1.35	0.49	0.496
	Post	1.47	0.71	
Colleagues' reluctance to change how they teach	Pre	2.00	1.00	1.00
	Post	2.00	0.86	

Barrier		Mean	Standard Deviation	Significance (two-tailed)
Lack of support- from university lecturers	Pre	2.76	1.48	0.118
	Post	2.05	1.14	
Lack of support- from school mentors	Pre	2.88	1.40	0.074
	Post	2.05	1.34	
Lack of support- from colleagues	Pre	1.82	0.88	0.668
	Post	1.70	0.98	

4.5 Discussion

The participants' perceptions of three of the five primary barriers sourced from Study 1, and found by the inferential statistics to significantly decrease after the 6-week CPD event, arose as key conversation topics during the focus groups. The participants further discussed in detail one of the primary barriers that from the inferential statistics was found not to have changed significantly - reluctance to change. All the focus groups concluded with teachers recommending ways of overcoming perceived barriers. The remaining barrier, lack of support, was mentioned in the open-ended questions within Section 2 of the questionnaire and during recommendations for overcoming the barriers in the focus groups, however it did not differ significantly from pre to post test. Accounting for the findings of the mixed methods approach, the following six themes will be discussed:

- Lack of knowledge
- Lack of understanding
- Lack of time
- Reluctance to change

- Lack of support
- Recommendations for overcoming the barriers

4.5.1 Lack of knowledge

Participants' perception of lack of knowledge was found to significantly decrease as a result of the 6-week CPD event, suggesting that teachers felt that they were better placed to deliver PE lessons with a TGfU approach. The implication is that by providing teachers with the underpinning knowledge to deliver PE lessons using the TGfU model, this significantly reduces one of the most influential barriers to the approach's implementation. Consideration should therefore be given to the utilisation of a CPD event within PE departments to aid embedding new pedagogies. According to Harvey and Jarrett (2014) a CPD event extending beyond the 6 weeks awarded in the current study would be more beneficial and bring sustained improvements in teacher knowledge of the approach.

Focus group findings provided additional information that underpinned the success of the CPD event towards improving teacher knowledge of the TGfU approach. The focus groups revealed that the teachers' lack of knowledge centred around three key areas: pupil assessment, differentiated learning and improved application of the model within sports that teachers considered to be their area(s) of expertise. Pupil assessment techniques were directly addressed during the 6-week CPD event, this included revision and adaptation of the teachers' existing assessment documentation and familiarisation with assessment tools such as the Game Performance Assessment Instruction (GPAI) (Mitchell, Oslin and Griffin, 2021). Six teachers initially noted that this was a potential barrier in Section 2 of their pre-test questionnaire, however discussed in the focus groups that their lack of knowledge of assessment methods was reduced post 6-week CPD event. As Kirk (2017) highlights, assessment is important to staff and pupils to demonstrate progression in PE, but this has been a problematic topic within education and for those teaching games.

Some of the teachers discussed an improvement in their knowledge, stating that the TGfU approach helped cater for differentiated learning, 'it is something [differentiation] that I would actually plan for rather than just accidentally happening' Anne, School 3 (Line 6). They saw that through their games, differentiation occurred without them necessarily planning it, and this was largely affected

by how they grouped the pupils. For example, Connor in School 3 mentioned how he teaches with groups of similar and mixed ability and differentiation is usually highlighted when he teaches the latter. Through teaching with the TGfU approach he noted there were 'different types of differentiation' (Line 21) that he had not previously recognised and could apply them to all his classes as 'each child has a different need' (Line 22). The participants' opinions are echoed in the literature which suggests that teachers using a TGfU approach benefit from modifying their games to meet the demands of their pupils as they have different experiences, abilities, and understandings (Kirk and McPhail, 2002; Thorpe and Bunker, 1983; Wright *et al.*, 2005).

Further improvements in the teachers' knowledge resulted from engaging with TGfU in sports which aligned with the teacher's main knowledge base. Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez, and Castejon (2010) found that when some teachers who have only taught sports by teaching techniques try utilising the TGfU approach, they realise that they lack the depth of understanding and knowledge of the game to appreciate the tactical aspects they need to teach. This was later supported by Harvey and Pill (2016) who stated that a lack of content knowledge of games hindered teachers' application of tactical games models. Having a lack of sport specific content knowledge could affect teachers' ability to design good games and their ability to observe and assess (Harvey and Pill, 2016). This finding suggests that in situations where a teacher has a sufficient level of subject content *and* tactical knowledge of a game, the perceived barrier to the implementation of TGfU attributable to a lack of knowledge is lower. On the contrary, teachers noted that they struggled to transfer their tactical knowledge across sports, both within and between categories of the games classification system (Thorpe, Bunker and Almond, 1986). For example, some participants could identify the main tactical problems in football but struggled to understand there were similar tactical problems present in other invasion games such as hockey or basketball. Therefore, there is a greater need to help teachers overcome their lack of knowledge when planning and delivering sports with which they are less familiar and across the games classification system.

The inferential statistics showed that there were significant improvements in teachers' lack of knowledge (lack of training in how to apply TGfU) however, this was not the case for lack of knowledge (of how pupils with different abilities cope with TGfU). In the focus groups several teachers continued to cite a lack of knowledge of how pupils with different abilities would cope with TGfU as a key barrier to the implementation of the approach. This resulted in some of the teachers

reverting to their original technique-based practice. Research has suggested when teachers are new to adopting GBAs in their lessons they can often face challenges which can cause them to revert to their previous teaching practices (see for example Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). Therefore, a lack of knowledge of how pupils of different abilities can be taught through a TGFU approach remains a barrier for consideration in future research.

The teachers lacked the knowledge, and in some cases the understanding of, how to modify their lesson to meet the needs of their pupils. They claimed that their pupils lacked the skills and cognitive ability necessary to perform in game situations, particularly those in lower ability groups.

‘we have still got a lot of students who are really weak, you know in those lower groups...the kids can’t play football’ John, School 1 (Line 284).

The teachers further explained how the older year groups, who have had more experience with skill development, were more able to perform in modified games. Wang and Ha (2013) found that cooperating teachers believed that the skill practice must be completed before game play as the game would not run smoothly with pupils of low ability. Bunker (1983) stated that teachers need to stop trying to fit less able children into a game that the rest of the class are playing and focus instead on developing what the child can do. Pupils do have sports skills when they enter secondary school, however they may not have the ability to perform the skills to the extent that the teacher requires (Thorpe and Bunker, 1983). This belief regarding learning is commonly cited across the literature and, by consequence, it is suggested that GBAs be reserved for experienced or older pupils (for example Pill, 2011). To overcome these problems, the teacher must take responsibility to ensure the correct structure of teams and game play. Therefore, teachers need continuing education on how to apply the model with different ability groups, which can be achieved with follow up training sessions provided by a person competent in the application of the model.

4.5.2 Lack of Understanding

An outcome of the 6-week CPD event was a significant reduction observed in the measure of the teachers’ perceptions of the lack of understanding TGFU barrier. This suggests that teachers felt they had a greater comprehension of the application of TGFU in practice and that they did not need to teach the techniques and skills prior to introducing a modified game. According to Harvey, Cushion

and Sammon (2015, p.245) needing to teach skills first is a 'relatively stable and inflexible belief' which has been discussed previously in TGfU literature (Thorpe and Bunker, 1983). The present study raises the possibility that by providing teachers with a professional development session and subsequent teaching practice time, they are able to recognise and effectively translate TGfU theory into practice. Thus, significantly reducing one of the primary and often immovable barriers to its implementation. By providing professional development sessions that expand beyond the one conducted in the current study, improvements in teachers' understanding may be sustained.

Focus group findings provided additional information that underpinned the teachers' understanding of TGfU. All the participants stated the 6-week CPD helped them in understanding the approach and how to apply it in practice.

'I felt very prepared, I felt like the session you provided was almost like a recap in the sense of this like, here's this approach, try it, but yeah, that's, that's kind of it.' Luke, School 1 (Line 428).

Many of the teachers noted that they felt they had success in their lessons and concluded they believed the approach 'worked'. Within the focus group, the teachers reflected on how they felt at the beginning of the 6-week CPD to where they were at present. All the teachers discussed how they believed they could teach the TGfU approach relatively quickly during the 2-hour CPD training but when they were practising found this was not the reality. Many of the teachers initially struggled to adopt the approach having some unsurety of how to apply in practice; however, their confidence grew as they progressed through their lessons.

'... the barrier of thinking, right, well have I done that, have I done it right... have I done enough TGfU or have I let them play too long and not interjected... it's knowing how much impact I have had within the lesson in terms of the knowledge and understanding....' Eliza, School 2 (Line 358).

Brooker *et al.* (2000) found similar findings with teachers who were new to teaching basketball using a GBA. The teachers' confidence impacted their teaching, because they were focused on trying to follow the lesson structure thus many believed they missed opportunities for embedding pupil learning (Brooker *et al.*, 2000). This transpired to be the case for the majority of the teachers in this study, with some describing an overconfidence in their ability resulting in rushing through their modified games spending limited amounts of time checking for student understanding. This was

particularly apparent at the start of their 6-week teaching practice. However, the teachers noted that through the 6-week CPD they were able to clarify information about their teaching practice and felt by the end of the study they had a greater understanding of what the TGfU approach entailed and felt more positive in their ability to teach it. Several of the participants felt that, although they were happy with the 6-week CPD, they would have liked extra training to assure themselves of their practice. To embed their understanding the teachers believed that they need to have the initial training on the pedagogical approach, and for it to be continued with practices and follow ups to monitor and support their development.

Despite these positives, six of the teachers explicitly stated they had a fear of losing control of the class when teaching TGfU, stating that the approach was 'less structured' than their previous methods of teaching. The fears centred on the lesson moving from a teacher-centred towards a student-centred approach, giving the pupils' greater ownership over their own learning.

'Just passing over that control for me that was a barrier, ...I still let myself down because at the start I was like, oh this is how you do a long barrier, instead of doing it through the games and letting them explore, I think it's just time and practice.' Katherine, School 1 (Line 230)

This was recognised across every school and discussed with all the teachers who added and explained how 'stepping back' and not knowing how much and when to 'step in' caused difficulties in the early stages of practising the approach. However, the in-service teachers recognised that their confidence increased and had feelings of success as they progressed through the teaching practice. The traditional pedagogical approach places the teacher as the focus who makes all the decisions and the pupil reproduces the knowledge provided (Kirk, 2005; Pill, 2011). The TGfU approach opposes this methodology by emphasising the pupil explores the problem, then makes an appropriate decision and carries out the action. Pill (2011) found that there was a barrier to teachers who had a lack of experience and exposure to student-centred approaches, like TGfU, in planning and implementing the approach. Studies on TGfU have shown that in the early stages of teaching, teachers feel of a lack of confidence and uncertainty however, with time and practise these feelings diminish and lead to feelings of satisfaction (for example Butler, 1996; Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez, and Castejon, 2010; Gubacs-Collins, 2007; Mitchell, Oslin and Griffin, 2021). The participants' comments suggest teachers need advanced tuition (Richardson, 2003) in addition to the initial 2-hour CPD and require additional understanding of applying the approach with

opportunities to practise, beyond the minimum 1-hour per week over 6 weeks.

4.5.3 Lack of Time

As a consequence of the 6-week CPD course both sub-barriers related to a lack of time were found to decrease significantly. This indicates that the in-service teachers acknowledged that the study had provided some of the necessary preparation time prior to and within the lesson to be best placed to deliver TGfU. Through training, it is expected that knowledge will improve with continued familiarity and by extension a potential further reduction in the time required will occur.

The inferential statistics highlighted improvements in reducing the barrier, lack of time, a finding which was supported in the focus groups. During the early stages of the 6-week teaching practice, several of the teachers had concerns when setting up a TGfU lesson, stating that it regularly took longer than their usual approach in terms of facilities, equipment, size of playing area etc. As they were new to the approach, they were initially slower in learning how to adopt TGfU into their lessons, though the time to set up was reduced as their familiarity increased. Prior to the 6-week CPD event, many of the teachers had no experience of the TGfU approach and were trying to understand this new teaching method. Wang and Ha (2009) found similar concerns from pre-service teachers teaching TGfU, stating increased effort and time was needed to incorporate the model into practice due to the limited information on how to instruct and implement the approach. Stolz and Pill (2014) discussed how implementing GBAs can be difficult, therefore teachers require sufficient time to understand the approach. Therefore, an assumption can be that teachers need to persevere in their practices to become familiar with the approach and will ultimately reduce the amount of time spent setting up their lessons.

Despite some of the improvements for this barrier, many of the teachers still felt a lack of lesson planning time remained. The teachers acknowledged that the 2-hour CPD had provided them with some teaching materials to aid a reduction in their planning time. However, they felt that the necessary continued research into incorporating ideas and different sports would still be restricted by the amount of time they have available for planning. 'I won't have the time, I won't spend the time researching and looking for these things.' John, School 1 (Line 240) and 'it comes back to having

time to plan and, and sort of like, trying to get resources together' Emily, School 2 (Line 351). This finding was also identified by Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon (2010) and Wang and Ha (2009) who suggested that due to the unfamiliarity and changes with their teaching approach, teachers needed additional preparation time. Evidence from this finding shows that in the early stages of exposure to TGfU teachers need time to understand TGfU and develop their lessons, which could be executed through extended CPD courses to support them in adapting their lesson plans and activities. Planning time could potentially be reduced after the teachers have developed their schemes of work and become more confident with the approach. However, research would be needed to see if this could be achieved as much of this planning time is directed by and dependent upon the institutions, with teachers being reliant on the school and educational systems to allocate their necessary amounts of time.

4.5.4 Reluctance to change

From Study 1, one of the main barriers to the implementation of TGfU was a reluctance for teachers to change their teaching approach, both personally and as an assumption about their colleagues' teaching practices. Study 2 was specifically designed to address this barrier with the requirements for participants acting as a filter to pre-select those open to consider change. As could have been anticipated, the pre-CPD questionnaires demonstrated low scores attributable to these factors. Whilst a potential consideration is that where there is no significant change measured in the teachers' perceptions post-test this may be attributable to the event being ineffective. However, the low Likert Scale pre- and post- test scores suggest that it is more likely that the teachers perceive these aspects as low barriers to the implementation of TGfU. As participants in the study the implication is that the teachers already had a mindset to be more open to engaging with the TGfU approach, dedicating the time and commitment needed to complete the professional development training. Similarly, as the study was designed to form a community of practice among members of the PE departments this could suggest the participants would anticipate that their colleagues' reluctance to change was also diminished. According to Harvey and Jarrett (2014) forming communities of practice within professional development programmes could be beneficial to the implementation of GBAs. After the 6-week CPD event, despite the reluctance to change scores still being low with no significant difference in the inferential statistics, the teachers included the theme as a key discussion point within the focus groups.

Little discussion might have been expected on the barrier, reluctance to change, on the basis of the absence of evidence from the inferential statistics arising from the low scores recorded in the questionnaires. However, the teachers spoke openly and enthusiastically during the focus groups about their positive perceptions of using GBAs. Prior to the 6-week CPD, the teachers noted they were hesitant about TGfU due to their long-standing use of the technique-based approach. Nevertheless, they were willing to try the model, and found that throughout the practice their beliefs and confidence in the approach developed. The teachers' attitudes were very enthusiastic with many commenting how after the 6-week CPD event that they would like to continue teaching using a GBA.

'I actually had quite a good time teaching the TGFU approach... it makes life quite a bit easier for myself...' Rory, School 1 (Line 9)

'I think the TGFU approach is probably the way forward doing PE now, especially in this school...' Grace, School 5 (Line 5)

These statements were echoed by their colleagues in each of the five schools. Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez, and Castejon (2010) support this notion, believing that as teachers become familiar with the approach, their confidence increases, and they experience feelings of satisfaction. This finding suggests that the teachers need to have the opportunity to learn and experience using a GBA for them to feel the positivity of the teaching method. The inclusion of multiple colleagues from each PE department has helped to reduce the barrier of the colleagues' reluctance to change. Through the training and experience of TGfU in the 6-week CPD event, the teachers began to change their perceptions of the approach which in turn would have an influencing effect on the other members of the department. This could have future implications for new members joining their department who could also be influenced to teach using the TGfU approach. Through having personal experiences coupled with a robust understanding of TGfU, the barrier of reluctance to change may be reduced.

A major component that affected the teachers' barrier of reluctance to change was pupil engagement within the lessons, with many teachers stating this was what they needed to evidence when they were being observed by a colleague or member of SLT. They acknowledged this was usually achieved using the technique-based approach, however, through the 6-week CPD event

there was a noticeable recognition of being able to demonstrate the same or better observable outcomes through a TGfU approach. By understanding the benefits of TGfU and applying the model in practice, the teachers noted that there was increased engagement from their pupils in core PE and extracurricular activities and pupil acceptance of this alternative way of teaching.

‘... the engagement is there without you having to be stood next to them’ Eliza, School 2 (Line 107).

‘The kids instantly buy into the idea of learning through a game and they don’t actually realise they are’ Colin, School 5 (Line 57)

School 5’s teachers made specific reference to the pupils who were regularly resistant to taking part in lessons as they found that through employing TGfU the pupils would engage for the whole lesson; something which previously had been more restrictive. Many of the teachers discussed how the continuous game play resulted in the pupils being physically active for more of the session than when they taught in their technique-based approach, due to stopping the class only when questioning for understanding. The concepts of fun and enjoyment are noted as benefits to TGfU in the literature (Light and Tan, 2006; Wang and Ha, 2009) with Wright *et al.* (2005) finding that the second most common motive for teaching basketball in a tactical approach was that it would stimulate enjoyment in playing. Pupil engagement is a key criterion when being observed by colleagues and SLT, therefore, teachers need to have experience and evidence of success to adopt and accept the approach.

Several of the teachers highlighted that their pupils believed themselves to be ‘just playing’ and ‘not realising’ they were also learning. The development of learning was further supported when the teachers recapped lessons from previous weeks- ‘they sort of remembered the focus of the lesson better by doing it through games than doing skills in isolation’ Eliza, School 2 (Line 130). TGfU is based upon the constructivist learning theory which focuses on the pupils becoming active learners, in comparison to the traditional approach which views them more passively (Butler *et al.*, 2008). Through active learning, pupils can gain competence in game scenarios and better development of decision-making skills (Almond, 2015; Butler *et al.*, 2008). Of note, the teachers stated they needed to ensure the pupils understood they were learning otherwise it could result in the pupils becoming disinterested in the lesson and beginning to misbehave. This would cause the teachers to revert to the technique-based approach and would reinforce the barrier, reluctance to change. The study

showed that pupil engagement and acceptance of TGfU helped to reduce the barrier of teachers' reluctance to change. When teaching using a TGfU approach, teachers noticed higher engagement in the learning process by the pupils and were able to demonstrate its success within SLT observations. A recommendation is that continued integration of TGfU into the curriculum needs to showcase the successes and benefits of the approach and allow teachers to experience these for the barrier to be reduced or overcome.

4.5.5 Lack of Support

The participants' perception for the barrier, lack of support, was found to reduce although not significantly between pre- and post-test. A potential consideration underpinning the teachers' perception for a lack of support is that the recruitment strategy of the study was purposefully designed to reduce this barrier prior to the teachers' participation; namely, to include peer collaboration and to encourage a community of practice. Researchers have recommended the use of these methods to facilitate the adoption of GBAs and to provide a work culture which will expose teachers to new concepts and practices (Butler, 2005; Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Jarrett and Light, 2018; Wang and Ha, 2009, 2013). Additionally, Harvey, Cushion and Sammon (2015) stated that the positive attitude of the Head of PE was critical for supporting the implementation of new initiatives within a PE department. Therefore, to begin overcoming the barrier of lack of support, a condition of participation in the study was that a minimum of two members of staff from the PE department were required. The Heads of PE in all the five schools took part which ensured a high level of commitment to the study.

In the questionnaires' open-ended responses, the teachers identified an additional barrier to TGfU as being observed by non-PE specialists. This barrier could be encompassed within the lack of support (from colleagues); however, it suggests that participants may need more distinction of who and what this sub-barrier entails, or it may require the creation of an additional sub-barrier, lack of support (from SLT or non-PE specialist). This additional barrier was briefly expanded upon within the focus groups with explanations that teachers from other departments or members of the SLT lack familiarity with PE settings and PE teaching approaches. A potential repercussion of this is that the non-PE specialist will use their prior knowledge of PE formed during their own acculturation as the exemplar for how they believe a PE lesson should be taught. As such, the traditional technique-

based approach dominant in schools may be the prevailing example by which the non-PE specialist views PE teaching. Similarly, the geographical isolation of PE away from the school alongside the practical aspect of the subject in comparison to other classroom-based subjects, may suggest that the non-PE teachers lack understanding of how PE lessons are constructed and taught (see for example Curtner-Smith, 2001). Richards and Hemphill (2017) stated that administrators can challenge or accept high quality PE and therefore, PE teachers need the support of colleagues within the school to introduce innovative pedagogies such as TGfU. This concept was elaborated upon in the teachers' recommendations for overcoming the barriers in section 4.5.6 below.

4.5.6 Recommendations for Overcoming the Barriers

Despite the positive responses to TGfU, changes to their current practice created some difficulties for the teachers. The questionnaire and focus groups revealed several advances on the main barriers to impede TGfU delivery in schools. While some of the barriers remained, for example a lack of support from university lecturers and school mentors, others were reduced, such as lack of understanding, lack of time, and lack of knowledge. None of the barriers were overcome entirely. The researcher and teachers outlined key recommendations for overcoming the barriers to implementing TGfU in schools. These were:

- Initial CPD training
- Time
- Facilitating Expert
- Endorsement of the approach
- Resources

Researcher's recommendations with teacher commentaries

The 6-week CPD event was shown to be effective for certain areas for example providing teachers with the knowledge of teaching a variety of sports in the TGfU approach. However, it is recommended this is extended and delivered over a longer period. This recommendation was also supported by the teachers who stated an initial awareness and promotion is important particularly

as many had limited knowledge of the approach. 'Being given up to date CPD sessions on suitable ways you can bring this into different activities' (Grace, School 5- pre-test questionnaire). The teachers noted that this study's 6-week CPD event helped them to reduce some of the barriers to the implementation of TGfU but greater detail and clarification on topics would be required. This included knowledge and practice teaching pupils with different abilities and increased time to plan their lessons across a variety of sports. Furthermore, the teachers discussed a 'primary intervention' and 'developing TGfU' through the older year groups. The teachers suggested that if a trial were conducted and found to be successful, they would apply the approach across every year group and ability. To encompass these changes the CPD structure would need to change to a year-long series of training sessions with at least one-year group and would include an initial CPD training event (e.g., 2 x 2-hour session), follow up support sessions, additional CPD events as required and collaboration with other members of the PE department.

Before and after the 6-week CPD, the teachers emphasised a way to help them teach TGfU would be with their planning. Those who discussed this recommendation divided it between time to plan and what to plan. As previously discussed, a perceived barrier to implementing TGfU was the lack of time to plan. The teachers echoed the need for increased time institutionally to plan their lessons and review how they have structured their lessons so that they can incorporate the 'TGfU principles' and have 'clear learning outcomes' that are tailored to the approach. Light and Butler (2005) suggested that in-service teachers need more preparation time because they need to have greater knowledge of tactical strategies. Similarly, Wang and Ha (2009) found that pre-service teachers required a greater amount of time during lessons to prepare due to the limited information on practical TGfU instruction. Also noted in the study was that the barriers, lack of time for planning, and lack of time in lessons, were reduced in a 2-hour CPD and 6-week practice. Therefore, if more time is allocated to helping teachers develop their lesson plans and schemes of work this barrier could be reduced further or overcome entirely.

Having a facilitating expert on-hand to oversee the delivery of TGfU lessons was seen by the researcher and teachers as a way of overcoming the barriers of lack of understanding in how to apply the TGfU model in practice and as an extension of the lack of knowledge and training of how to apply TGfU. The teachers noted that the 2-hour CPD was important to provide them with the knowledge and existence of the approach, but future follow ups were key. The teachers suggested

two main ways that would help them with their teaching practice including, watching an expert teach the pupils and having the expert watch them teaching and provide guidance. The primary rationale for requiring an expert in their lessons was for continued support- 'I think we were alright to run it and then if we come across a stumbling block... Maybe some reassurance' Eliza, School 2 (Line 532). The participants commented that having the expert there would allow them to increase their understanding of how to implement TGfU in their lessons. The teachers believed that observing the expert teach and having the expert's guidance and support, would increase their confidence in teaching the approach. Research suggests follow-ups are important to assist teachers in learning the new content and having a chance to apply it in their practice (Armour and Yelling, 2004b; Corcoran, 1995). The inclusion of an outside facilitator is of some debate as there is a lack of research around the topic; however, initial findings suggest the use of a facilitator can be helpful (LeFevre and Richardson, 2000). This finding highlights the need for professional development programmes to continue supporting teachers with their practice after the initial CPD workshop.

Teachers' recommendations

In addition to the recommendations made by the researcher and supported by the teachers, there were some unique suggestions provided by the participants. These included an endorsement of the approach and provision of resources.

One of the primary recommendations for overcoming the barriers to implementing TGfU in schools was endorsement of the approach. The teachers noted that if the SLT, observers and in some cases the parents were not 'on board' with TGfU then this would cause a major barrier. In the questionnaire and focus group they stated 'observers don't want to see games' (Luke, School 1- pre-test questionnaire). This viewpoint is supported in the game-based literature (see Kirk, 2010; Metzler, 2011; Stolz and Pill, 2014). For example, Windschitl (2002) argues that innovative pedagogies (for example, TGfU) have an underlying disadvantage in that they can be viewed as an alternative to the current established practice. PE teachers have had a long history of fighting for legitimacy and advocacy for their subject in comparison to other disciplines (see for example Curtner-Smith, 2001; Kirk, 2010; O'Sullivan, 1989; Richards *et al.*, 2018). The participants suggested 'subject leaders' promotion' and 'advertisement' of TGfU, to give the whole school a 'wider appreciation and understanding', would help to overcome the issues. Several of the teachers expanded stating that if there were a demonstration of the approach in practice and a rationale for

TGfU over existing practice, this would persuade the potentially opposing parties to understand and accept its inclusion in the curriculum. Richardson (2003) suggested successful professional development included support from the administration and developed 'buy-in' (p.401). Brooker *et al.* (2000) found that many of the institutionalised practices in PE prevent innovation particularly in terms of sustainability. The support from colleagues and school administration are necessary for the successful and continued implementation of a GBA (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Richards and Hemphill, 2017). As a result, teachers need to advocate for using TGfU in their schools with endorsement by SLT members.

A major recommendation for overcoming the barriers to implementing TGfU was the provision of GBA teaching resources. All the participants referred to needing additional resources beyond what they had experienced in the 2-hour CPD. Many of the teachers wanted to have a variety of materials including videos, worksheets, apps etc. and from across a range of sports, for different ability groups and be 'pupil led'. With a proposed increase in the number and types of resources to be available the accessibility of the resources and by extension the cost of resources needs to be taken into consideration. The teachers suggested that for TGfU to have an increased prominence in education and in practice there needed to be a central location of information which teachers can regularly access and have knowledge of- for example, the Times Educational Supplement (TES) website. In addition, due to limited budgets, access to 'free' or 'reasonably priced' resources were of great importance to each of the schools. The accessibility and provision of resources were considered necessary to the teachers in assisting them with teaching TGfU after the 6-week CPD. There is limited research focusing specifically on the lack of resources available in TGfU, but it has been noted in some studies for example Harvey and Pill (2016). Their survey and Twitter chat analysis showed academics and teachers both recognised the need for resources to be made available to support teachers (Harvey and Pill, 2016). This was substantiated in general professional development literature stating a need for teachers to have the funding for purchasing resources, pay for speakers etc. (Richardson, 2003). Therefore, to help overcome the barriers to implementation there needs to be an increase in the type and number of resources, but it is important that these resources are in easily accessible locations and are low in cost.

4.6 Summary and Conclusions

The aim of this study was to evaluate the impact of a teacher training session by comparing teachers' perception to implementing TGfU before and after a 6-week CPD. Three objectives were set which structured the focus of the study by training in-service PE teachers to deliver a TGfU approach over a 6-week period. This was followed by an evaluation of the success of the PE teachers in delivering TGfU as part of a scheme of work. Informed recommendations were made throughout based on how to overcome the barriers to implementing TGfU as identified by the teachers.

The questionnaire results demonstrate that the 6-week CPD reduced five out of 11 sub-barriers within three of the five main barriers to implementing TGfU that were outlined in Study 1. The teachers felt more competent after the 6-week CPD in terms of their lack of time (planning TGfU lessons and within lessons to teach TGfU), lack of understanding (needing to teach skills first before teaching TGfU and unsure how to apply TGfU in practice) and their lack of knowledge (lack of training in how to apply TGfU). There were no significant differences in the remaining barriers after the 6-week CPD. Study 2 showed that teachers require further training to overcome their preconceived ideas on their teaching practice (e.g., lack of understanding) however, some of the barriers are unable to be resolved through 6-week CPD training and research but rather through targeting political agendas and institutional practices (e.g., lack of time).

Although the teachers had positive attitudes to TGfU with many discussing how they would like to continue using it in their current practice, confidence, and fear of loss of control in the lessons were major concerns for the teachers. Through the focus groups a number of comments were made of feelings of uncertainty or hesitancy, of needing reassurance, times where the teachers lacked confidence or spoke of a growing confidence or even an over-confidence. Sometimes this was expressed in association with a fear of loss of control over their pupils. Their ability to teach sports and activities through a TGfU approach when they were unfamiliar with the tactical problems within the game caused many teachers to have feelings of uncertainty and to lack confidence. The adoption of a new pedagogical approach led to many of the teachers struggling with the loss of control of the lesson due to departing from a teacher-centred to a student-centred focus. Their current developmental stage of the new approach led to the teachers requiring reassurances that they were teaching the model correctly. Additional training and follow ups could support the teachers in

continuing to deliver the approach. This was categorised under the lack of understanding barrier but could suggest a greater issue for the teachers or a new barrier to the implementation of TGfU.

Five main recommendations for reducing the remaining barriers to implementation were suggested: initial CPD training as a trial prior to implementing throughout the school, additional time being allocated in the CPD and at an institutional level, school-wide endorsement of the approach, easily accessible and cost-effective resources, and a facilitating expert to support their practice. Study 3 will investigate pre-service teachers' Occupational Socialisation influences and their barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU. The original plan for Study 3 was to continue investigations with in-service teachers however this had to be altered due to the COVID-19 pandemic; this change will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: STUDY 3: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and barriers to implementing the TGfU approach

5.1 Overview

Study 2 demonstrated success in utilising the five main barriers (11 sub-barriers) outlined in Study 1 within a 2-hour CPD event and teaching practice to overcome the difficulties in implementing TGfU. Five out of 11 sub-barriers were reduced with teachers feeling more competent in their lack of time (planning TGfU lessons and within lessons to teach TGfU), lack of understanding (needing to teach skills first before teaching TGfU and addressing the unsurety of how to apply TGfU in practice) and their lack of knowledge (lack of training in how to apply TGfU). There were no significant differences to the remaining barriers after the CPD. Despite a significant measured reduction in the barriers faced, many of the teachers still believed they had not been fully overcome. The focus groups discussed, in depth, four of the five main barriers, with the barrier lack of support being only briefly discussed. Of major concern to the teachers was a lack of confidence in utilising the TGfU approach - prevalent with unfamiliar sports and tactical problems - which was exacerbated by the sense of loss of control arising from the unfamiliar student-led philosophy. By the end of the study the teachers could envisage the benefits of TGfU in overcoming their initial reluctance to change.

5.1.1 COVID-19 Impact on thesis

In March 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic resulted in the closure of schools across the UK. Over the following 18 months, repeated lockdown measures and school closures meant that Study 3 had to take a different direction than first anticipated. Initial intentions for Study 3 were to investigate and support School 2 from Study 2 through the adaptation of their Year 8 curriculum to using GBAs. For School 2, this new curriculum structure was planned as the school's pilot study and with successful implementation they would have altered their PE curriculum throughout every year group. An alternative proposal was to support all schools from Study 2 in their continued adoption of the TGfU approach through a case study encompassing a full academic year.

During the pandemic, major considerations were required for the development of Study 3

particularly the accessibility to in-service PE teachers and their ability to teach using a TGfU approach. Importantly the accessibility of in-service teachers for the researcher was reduced as the UK pandemic lockdowns had resulted in the instigation of hygiene and social distancing measures. These measures included; minimal number of visitors allowed on to school grounds, schools closed for the majority of pupils (only children of key workers were present) and teachers having limited time due to their increased work demands, such as converting lessons to suit the online environment. The ability to teach using a TGfU approach was also an important consideration as the move to online teaching limited practical-based teaching. These restrictions heavily impacted participant recruitment, therefore it was necessary to ascertain if and how teachers could participate. A consequence of the school closures, excess work demands and curriculum changes, meant it was no longer possible for the participants in Study 2 to continue implementing the TGfU approach. Contact with the schools resulted in all the teachers ruling themselves out of participating in Study 3 and therefore the decision was made to take a new path of inquiry.

Whilst research focusing on the implementation of TGfU with pre-service teachers has been extensive (Butler, 2005; Li and Cruz, 2008; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016; Wang and Ha, 2009, 2012, 2013), there are limited current TGfU studies which are underpinned by Occupational Socialisation Theory that have been conducted in the UK. The UK educational framework has undergone numerous changes, and it is credible to consider that this myriad of variabilities could impact teacher socialisation in differing ways. UK pre-service teachers have been exposed to significant educational changes both within their own schooling and on their teacher education courses. This may be exemplified by the 2013 NCPE and its iterations, and particularly the different methods of obtaining QTS consisting of university- based undergraduate courses and workplace-based SCITT or Schools Direct programmes. It is important to perform continuing educational research to investigate these ongoing changes in the field and moreover to explore how socialisation impacts pre-service teachers' interpretation and implementation of instructional models (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Changes within the educational system will impact the influences on a teacher's life including the development of their subjective warrant which in turn will affect their use of innovative teaching approaches such as TGfU. This study hopes to address the paucity of research in this field and shed light upon the impact on the barriers to innovative pedagogies arising from these educational changes. A further factor for consideration is the relatively recent COVID-19 pandemic which was on-going during their teacher education training, and which impacted both their university course and school placements. Therefore, Study 3 attempts to address the gap in the

literature for the changes experienced by ITT recruits during this period by exploring their socialisation influences and beliefs about PE formed during their lives, and the barriers to the implementation of TGfU.

5.1.2 Pre-Service Teachers' Occupational Socialisation

Since its introduction, Occupational Socialisation Theory has been an accepted framework for understanding the nature and experiences of pre-service PE teachers and PETE practices (Richards, Templin and Gaudreault, 2013; Templin and Schempp, 1989; Wrench, 2017). During the first phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory (acculturation), pre-service teachers undergo an 'apprenticeship of observation', whereby they develop their understanding and experiences of what the role of a teacher is through their interactions with PE professionals and significant individuals within institutions (e.g., schools) (Lortie, 1975). The perceptions formed during acculturation have a powerful influence on the individual's future beliefs and practices (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008). These beliefs often remain dominant with all future experiences being compared to them (Capel, 2007; Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989).

The second phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory, professional socialisation, is the period of time where individuals are enrolled on a teacher education programme at a university. During this phase individuals learn the values, knowledge, and skills of being a PE teacher (Lawson, 1983a), referred to as a 'shared technical culture' by Lortie (1975). Research suggests innovative pedagogies such as TGfU are introduced within PETE programmes (Curtner-Smith, 2012; Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Li and Cruz, 2008; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009), with both university and field-based experiences (Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017). There is extensive literature on this phase of Occupational Socialisation (Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019), with research indicating that universities can impact pre-service teachers' pedagogical practices (Curtner-Smith, 2007; Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004). Conversely, it has also been suggested that PETE often has limited effect on pre-service teachers' conceptions of PE especially for those who enter the field holding strong coaching orientations (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards and Templin, 2012; Sofo and Curtner-Smith, 2010; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009). The socialising influences of PETE are regarded as the weakest of the three phases giving rise to no apparent changes to students' behaviours and values, and sometimes effect to strengthen faulty beliefs and perceptions (Curtner-Smith, 1999;

Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017).

The third phase of Occupational Socialisation (organisational socialisation) accounts for the influences arising from when an individual is placed in the role of a teacher in a school setting (Lawson, 1983a). For pre-service teachers the phases of professional and organisational socialisation may not be distinct, instead there can exist an overlap of socialising effects resulting from undergoing university-based learning alongside workplace experiences whilst they are on placement. Due to this overlap the pre-service teachers may experience competing philosophies and requirements from their university lecturers and school mentors which could impact upon their practice. The literature has shown that pre-service teachers compare their values and beliefs formed during acculturation with their experiences from their professional and organisational socialisation phases (Capel, 2007). Research has suggested that the professional socialisation phase is the weakest whilst acculturation is the strongest (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009) and that by experiencing both environments (university and school-based placement) concurrently, differences between them may compare more starkly with the subjective warrants developed during the pre-service teachers' acculturation.

This overlap has been exaggerated by the implementation of the new Schools Direct and SCITT programmes (DfE, 2017) which provide pre-service teachers with extended school-based experiences. Similarly, there has been an increase in non-traditional students who are entering Higher Education with previous work-experience as teachers and coaches giving rise to a greater variability in their subjective warrants (Lawson, 1983b; Zeichner and Gore, 1990). This can create further overlap between the three phases of Occupational Socialisation Theory with the potential to impact upon the barriers to the implementation of TGfU. These examples above are provided to act as an insight into the ways that particular socialisation factors from the three phases of Occupational Socialisation might vary from person to person and are offered as a reinforcement to the recommendation that continuing research in this field is still required.

For the purpose of this study, acculturation will consider all influences up to an individual's

enrolment on a teacher education course including any prior work experiences or volunteering activities. Professional socialisation will include the time spent on a teacher training course including university classroom experiences, the university-school relationship, and pre-service teachers' perceptions about their placements. Organisational socialisation will explore the influences and interpersonal relationships within the (placement) school context and any additional work experiences or teaching and coaching job roles conducted after enrolment on the teacher education course. Examination of pre-service PE teachers' perspectives and influences can allow a greater understanding of the socialisation of PE teachers which may be used to address the development of teaching practice and its place in overcoming the barriers to TGfU.

5.1.3 Pre-Service Teachers' Barriers and Facilitators to Implementing TGfU

Pre-service teachers were noted to have a willingness to adopt GBAs in the future (Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004; Li and Cruz, 2008), have an increased student confidence in implementing TGfU (Li and Cruz, 2008; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016; Wang and Ha, 2009) and have increased pupil engagement and learning during taught TGfU sessions (Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004; Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Light and Tan, 2006; Wang and Ha, 2013). There are several methods defined in the literature for how pre-service teachers are taught and employ the TGfU model within their practice. For example, reading about and discussing TGfU (McNeill *et al.*, 2004), mentoring (Wang and Ha, 2012) and pre-service teachers designing and planning TGfU units with access to lesson plan templates (McNeill *et al.*, 2004). Sinelnikov and Hastie (2017) suggested that increasing models-based introductions and strategies within PETE courses and early field experiences will increase the engagement of TGfU delivery with pre-service teachers. Despite the reported improvement in confidence of teachers from using TGfU, research suggests pre-service teachers struggle to master the model (Li and Cruz, 2008; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016; Wang and Ha, 2009). As such, an examination into the barriers and facilitators in implementing the approach is required to discover how TGfU impacts pre-service teachers' practice.

Barriers to pre-service PE teachers implementing TGfU have been proposed as: cultural, pedagogical, conceptual and political dilemmas (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). Some of the barriers include the differences between PETE courses and the school environment (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015) and a lack of pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge and pedagogical content

knowledge (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). Pre-service teachers have also discussed a lack of time, facility space and equipment as difficulties in teaching with the model (McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016; Wang and Ha, 2009; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). The barriers presented in the literature are from pre-service teachers globally and as a result this study provides further investigation of the barriers to ascertain if they are relevant to the current educational climate in a UK-specific context.

Harvey, Cushion and Sammon (2015) suggested that cultural dilemmas were the most significant barriers with the differences between PETE programmes and PE lessons in schools being contributing factors. The culture of PE lessons driven by teacher-led instruction and traditional teaching is believed to hinder the pre-service teachers' abilities to implement innovative pedagogical practices (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004). The custodial approaches within schools can conflict with the pedagogical content from PETE courses, resulting in the diminishment of innovative pedagogies (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). This is often due to the pre-service teacher adapting their practice to fit in with the school mentor and PE department (Capel, 2007). Furthermore, if the pre-service teachers' own schooling and PETE has been directed towards a traditional teaching approach, then it is considered difficult for them to learn approaches such as TGfU (Casey, 2014; Light and Tan, 2006; McNeill *et al.*, 2004) as it competes with their existing knowledge and beliefs about teaching (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). Research has suggested pre-service teachers require support and collaboration between PETE delivery and school-based experience to prevent 'wash out' (Lawson, 1989) and to successfully implement GBAs (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). Herold and Waring (2018) in England found that the support of school mentors and the appropriate curricular timetabling, facilitated in the implementation of TGfU with pre-service teachers on placement.

According to research, a key barrier for pre-service teachers is a lack of pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004). Howarth (2005) posited that teachers need high levels of content knowledge about games. However, McNeill *et al.* (2004) found that pre-service teachers had limited content knowledge which resulted in them teaching a wide breadth of game concepts as opposed to having the proficiency to develop depth in their pupils' understanding. Harvey, Cushion and Sammon (2015) proposed that a lack of content knowledge coupled with a lack of conceptual knowledge can lead

student teachers to focus on skill development instead of teaching games. Similarly, a number of researchers have suggested that pre-service teachers often have an unfamiliarity and uncertainty when implementing GBAs, which could result in the teacher struggling to adapt their lessons or being unable to fully adopt the model (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). This has been supported in previous research which has argued that teachers moving from a technique-based approach to a GBA is dependent upon their knowledge and competencies (Almond, 1986a; Kirk, 2011). Metzler (2011) recommended that for the successful integration of models, teachers require content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge to be able to identify tactical problems and adapt their modified games. To help overcome the barriers, McNeill *et al.* (2004) suggest the creation of a buddy system for pre-service teachers to discuss their teaching strengths and weaknesses. This was echoed by Wang and Ha (2009) who advised peer teaching and building a collaborative work culture can help pre-service teachers understand where they need to improve and successfully implement TGfU. In addition, PETE needs to create learning opportunities within the university and field experiences for student teachers to develop their knowledge of PE and TGfU (Butler, 2005; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009).

A lack of time has been found to be a significant barrier for pre-service teachers' adoption of TGfU (Howarth, 2005; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Peters and Shuck, 2009; Wang and Ha, 2009). Teachers new to using TGfU have found that, due to their lack of familiarity, longer preparation time is required to create suitable lesson plans and modified games (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Wang and Ha, 2009). Similarly, research has argued that there is a lack of time within lessons to accommodate for the unfamiliar structure of the lesson and the pupils' capabilities (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wang and Ha, 2009). Amongst pre-service teachers in Singapore, Wright, McNeill and Fry (2009) and McNeill *et al.* (2004) discussed other barriers including limited space and equipment. Often PE lessons are scheduled for multiple classes to be in the same area at the same time. This can result in congestion and smaller playing spaces, in addition to insufficient equipment to be able to promote tactical decision-making within games (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Li and Cruz, 2008; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). Therefore, situational constraints need to be considered particularly in field-based experiences. The identification of pre-service PE teachers' influences and views, can aid in understanding whether they support or impede their engagement with TGfU. Despite several studies focusing on pre-service teachers globally, this study will set out to provide a current list of barriers to TGfU for pre-service teachers in England that may impact upon their GBA knowledge and practice.

5.2 Purpose

The aim of this study was to examine pre-service teachers' influences and beliefs about the implementation of TGfU in PE. Occupational Socialisation Theory (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b) was used as a framework for understanding, structuring and analysing the factors identified. This process involves exploring pre-service teachers' experiences in childhood, teacher training and any on-the-job work in schools, to identify the socialisation process and the barriers to implementing TGfU. The study will help to understand and identify key areas that can be targeted to promote TGfU uptake with future PE teachers. To achieve the aim of this study two objectives are set:

- To identify the influences that underpin pre-service teachers' acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation.
- To ascertain pre-service teachers' barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU.

5.3 Method

5.3.1 Design

This study utilised semi-structured interviews to examine pre-service teachers' experiences of PE in relation to Occupational Socialisation and the barriers to implementing the TGfU model. A semi-structured interview with open-ended questions (Appendix 5) was used to guide participants to provide detailed information. The questioning was ordered to facilitate the use of the Occupational Socialisation Theory framework so that an in-depth chronological understanding of the pre-service teachers' acculturation, professional socialisation and organisational socialisation was gained prior to exploring their understanding and barriers to implementing TGfU.

5.3.2 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Sunderland Ethics Committee. Each of the participants was provided with an information sheet (Appendix 2) prior to giving their written informed consent (Appendix 1). All the pre-service teachers were fully informed as to the purpose of

the study and nature of data collection. Participation in the study was voluntary and the participants were given the right to withdraw from the study at any stage without reason. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured with no names or contact details mentioned within the study. All the participants were provided with a personal identification code to assure privacy (e.g., 'PTM1' refers to male pre-service teacher number 1). The semi-structured interviews were audio recorded to aid with transcription of the data. The data were transcribed by a Randstad Student Support worker as consented to by the participants (see Appendix 3 for Randstad Transcription Policy). All the data were stored on a password-protected personal computer with restricted access for up to two years after the conclusion of the study before the data will be destroyed.

5.3.3 Sampling Procedure and Participants

Sampling Procedure

The sampling frame for the study was pre-service teachers in England who have experience teaching PE in primary and/or secondary schools. Further the study was open to all pre-service teachers regardless of their knowledge and use of the TGfU model. This was considered important as varying levels of knowledge and understanding of TGfU provides greater scope for the pre-service teachers' perceived barriers underpinning its implementation in core PE lessons. This study employed purposive sampling based upon the above parameters and was concerned with the availability of participants due to the restrictions and work commitments of pre-service teachers during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Participant Recruitment

Recruitment occurred through Twitter on the researcher's personal account and the TGfU SIG (@TGfUInfo) account with a reach of approximately 4,300 individuals globally. Academics at universities in England known for teaching GBAs and following these Twitter accounts were tagged into tweets for sharing across their networks. This was considered an important approach in targeting institutions in England and participants as they were best placed to meet the study's inclusion criteria. Furthermore, PETE course tutors in England known to the researcher were personally emailed to share the research invitation with their cohorts and the students were informed to contact the researcher directly if willing to participate. All pre-service teachers in

England who contacted the researcher were included within the study until data saturation was reached.

Participants

10 pre-service teachers (four male and six female) participated in this study, with ages ranging from 21 to 36 years old. Each participant provided demographic information prior to interview, which included details of their current teaching experiences and level of TGfU knowledge (Appendix 4). All the participants who agreed to take part in the study were taught on teacher education courses in Higher Education Institutions situated in the North-East of England. The participants were studying on a variety of different teacher education courses and routes to obtaining QTS including an undergraduate PETE course, postgraduate primary teacher education course with additional PE enrichment activities, SCITT primary course with PE specialism and SCITT secondary PE course. The details of these various routes to QTS and which of the participants had gained these qualifications are provided below.

The undergraduate PETE course is a three-year full-time degree programme with three placement opportunities (totalling approx. 250 hours) in a primary school, secondary school and the student's choice of school. The course provides students with content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge of PE and amateur sports coaching. In their second and third years, students are introduced to a wide range of innovative pedagogies including TGfU and have a combination of coursework and practical teaching experience in these areas. Upon graduating their degree programme, they enter a postgraduate university-based degree course, Schools Direct or SCITT programme to obtain QTS. Participants PTM3, PTM4 and PTF6 were enrolled on the undergraduate PETE course and had no prior Higher Education qualifications.

The postgraduate primary teacher education course with additional PE enrichment activities is a two-year part-time degree programme with two placement opportunities (totalling approx. 120 hours) in primary schools. The course includes one module out of four, dedicated to learning and teaching the foundation subjects of the National Curriculum including PE. Throughout the course, they have two days, 10 pre-recorded lectures, two football CPDs and six hours of additional

enrichment activities focusing on PE. The primary aims of these sessions are to provide the teachers with the content and pedagogical content knowledge of different sports and an understanding of the PE landscape such as the NCPE and the PE and Sport Premium. Upon graduating their degree programme, the students are qualified to teach in state primary schools in England and Wales. Participant PTF5 was enrolled on this course. Participant PTF5 is the only participant with a non-PE undergraduate degree in Early Childhood Studies (approx. 600 hours on placement in primary schools working with Key Stage 1) and a further academic qualification achieving a master's degree in educational psychology, obtained prior to enrolment on the teacher education course.

The SCITT primary course with PE specialism and SCITT secondary PE course are 10-month full-time teacher training courses. Prior to enrolment on these courses, the six participants (PTM1, PTM2, PTF1, PTF2, PTF3, PTF4) from this study had obtained an undergraduate degree in PE which had previous placements opportunities (approx. 200-250 hours) in primary and secondary schools. The SCITT courses include core and subject-specific training including knowledge and experience of innovative pedagogies such as GBAs, with two (approx. 600 hours) main teaching placements in local schools. The SCITT primary course focuses on developing students to teach across all core and foundation subjects of the National Curriculum with the option of specialising in a specific subject such as PE. Upon graduating their degree programme, the students are awarded QTS status and are qualified to teach in primary schools in England and Wales. Participant PTF4 was enrolled on this course. The SCITT secondary PE course focuses on developing students to teach Key Stage 3 and 4 of the NCPE and with post-16 enhancement opportunities. Upon graduating their degree programme, the students obtain QTS and are qualified to teach in secondary schools in England and Wales. Participants PTM1, PTM2, PTF1, PTF2 and PTF3 were enrolled on this course.

All the participants had experience teaching primary PE in schools in the North of England. Eight of the 10 participants also had at least one placement experience teaching secondary PE in the North of England. However, three of the participants with placements in secondary schools, had limited on-the-job experience due to the COVID-19 school closures and subsequent move to online learning. The number of hours per week they taught varied with participants on primary school placements stating 2-4 hours for teaching Key Stage 1 and 2-5 hours for teaching Key Stage 2. Participants on secondary school placements noted teaching 8-15 hours for Key Stage 3 and 6-20 hours for teaching Key Stage 4. The participants on the SCITT secondary PE course were on their main placement during

the interview timeframe, which is the reason for the higher number of hours for the teaching of Key Stage 3 and 4. The remaining participants were either concluding one of their placements or were being affected due to the repercussions of COVID-19 measures in schools. Nine of the participants had taught independently unsupervised, 10 participants had taught independently supervised, six had team-taught with another pre-service teacher or an in-service teacher and seven had experienced shadowing an in-service teacher.

Nine of the 10 participants had prior knowledge of the TGfU approach, with Participants PTM3, PTM4 and PTF6 introduced to the model on their undergraduate PETE course. The pre-service teachers currently studying on the SCITT programmes had previous theoretical and practical training of TGfU on their undergraduate courses and the learning was consolidated on their postgraduate degrees. On questioning, all nine participants were able to recall a rudimentary understanding of the TGfU approach outlining the model and the requirement of teaching through the game. However, when detailing examples of a TGfU game, all the pre-service teachers had misconceptions of how to apply the approach with lower ability pupils and inaccuracies in their understanding of the components of modification (for example teaching a full game, teaching a mini game devoid of tactical understanding, focusing on drills etc.). This was expanded upon in section 5.4.3 Occupational Socialisation- Organisational Socialisation. Participant PTF5 had heard of TGfU but had no theoretical or practical knowledge of the approach before the start of the study.

5.3.4 Measures and Procedure

Measures

Semi-structured interviews were conducted using open-ended questioning with four primary questions linking to each phase of Occupational Socialisation and then to TGfU (Appendix 5). The questions were organised chronologically focusing on the progression of the participants' socialisation throughout their lives starting with acculturation through to organisational socialisation, finishing with discussions specifically focused on TGfU. Through this method, the participants were able to provide detail on their backgrounds without being influenced by how and where TGfU was introduced. The final question reflected on the teachers' perceptions and barriers of TGfU, and the discussion was led by each participant to provide context and details of where TGfU

intersected within their socialisation. Throughout the interviews, probing questions were incorporated to encourage and elaborate on points or emerging themes.

Procedure

The interviews were conducted via an online platform between May and August 2021, and each lasted around 30-45 minutes. At the start of the interview, all participants were presented with a paragraph defining and detailing the TGfU approach (Appendix 6) and were given the opportunity to ask questions to affirm their understanding of the model. The semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to ask open and probing questions encouraging participants to provide depth to their answers. At the completion of the interviews, the participants were offered the opportunity to add any further information or questions.

5.3.5 Methods of Data Analysis

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data using inductive reasoning to allow for more detailed accounts to be produced. Inductive reasoning is a logical process that uses patterns found in existing knowledge to create generalisations that can be applied to form explanations or predictions when investigating new situations (Hayes and Heit, 2017). Audio recordings of the interviews were transcribed using Microsoft Office Word (see Appendix 7 for an example extract). Important data were coded and arranged into first and second order themes and general dimensions for each phase of Occupational Socialisation and for the barriers and facilitators implementing TGfU (see Appendix 8 for an example of thematic analysis). The coding included all the participants' quotes.

5.4 Results and Discussion

The key themes to arise within each phase of Occupational Socialisation will be discussed. Questions regarding the barriers and facilitators to TGfU were posed only after the initial discussions of the pre-service teachers' socialisation influences had been recounted. However, the barriers have been included within the discussions of the pertinent phase to identify the implications of their influence

on the implementation of TGfU.

- Acculturation
 - Family Influences
 - Experience as a Pupil
 - Early Work Experiences
- Professional Socialisation
 - University Education
 - University Placements
- Organisational Socialisation
 - Impact of COVID-19
 - Interpersonal Relationships within the schools
- Pre-service Teachers' Recommendations of Facilitators to Implementing TGfU

5.4.1 Occupational Socialisation- Acculturation

Acculturation is the time from birth until enrolling in a teacher education programme (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). Within this section, there were three key themes which emerged; family influences, experience as a pupil and early work experiences.

Family Influences

Family members were an early influence and major contributor to childhood involvement in sport. This involved transporting and supporting the participants in practices and matches, buying sports kit and equipment, and in many cases a shared enjoyment of the sport. Nine out of the 10 participants discussed which family members were pivotal in their uptake and continuation of sport. Although parents were the primary influence, siblings played a key role through using sport as a bonding interest or the participants being encouraged by their parents to participate in the same sport as their sibling(s). Several of the participants also mentioned grandparents who acted as the primary influence, providing encouragement, and sharing their love for sports by taking them to games and activities.

'...he [brother] was always interested in it, maybe that's what first sparked me off... I did have the early interest, but maybe it's because the older brother was there, and he sort of pursued a career in that.' Participant PTF1 (Line 93)

'...it was always my dad in the early days who would take me. He loved going to football, like to football matches with me, and watching me play then. As I got a little bit older and kind of, I became like a stand out player, and I was getting recognised by academies and things like that, my grandad kind of took an interest...and he [grandad] came to watch me play...'
Participant PTM2 (Line 46)

This finding helps to demonstrate the considerable early influences of how children are involved and engaged in sport. These influences appear vital in the formation of subjective warrants in which children develop perceptions of PE and the role of a PE teacher (Graber, 2001; Lortie, 1975; Templin and Richards, 2014). Research suggests that during the 'apprenticeship of observation' when children interact and experience sport with the significant others in their lives, they are influenced to pursue a career in PE and sport (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Therefore, an understanding of who is a significant contributor within a child's life to engage them in sporting activities, is an important element to consider in determining how they are influenced to join the PE profession.

Experience as a Pupil

The participants' schooling experiences were another key influence on their recruitment into the teaching profession. During primary and secondary school, children observe and interact with their teachers, forming beliefs about the role of a PE teacher (Lortie, 1975; Templin and Richards, 2014). All the pre-service teachers discussed their primary and secondary school experiences as positive, with the secondary experiences featuring more notably. The pre-service teachers could recollect details of some of their primary school experiences, and listed the sports and physical activities they were involved in, including a wide range of games, dance, gymnastics, swimming, and athletics. The experiences they recalled were regularly described as 'fun', 'good' and 'enjoyed', however, several participants claimed the sports and physical activities in core PE lessons were rudimentary with limited development and progression. Five of the participants highlighted the pedagogical approach and teaching styles they were exposed to whilst at primary school, namely, teacher-centred delivery with repetitive practices being frequently cited. The lack of early exposure to TGfU in practice during early childhood PE lessons that could have provided knowledge of the approach may indicate the

presence of a potential barrier to TGfU for the pre-service teachers (McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016).

‘In primary it was a lot of like, this is what you need to do, step by step, then you are going to do it, then we are going to review it, then you are going to do it again.’ Participant PTF4 (Line 59)

‘the way the curriculum shaped up in primary school it’s obviously very limited to what they kind of, teaching you like, it’s very much pick a ball up, throw a ball there, pick a ball up again, it’s not too in-depth.’ Participant PTM3 (Line 74)

The participants were positive towards their secondary school experiences, with minimal discussions on any negative aspects. Any negativity noted was either a dislike of certain sports or a frustration with other, less competent children in the class who were slowing the pace of the lesson/activity or not joining in. During secondary school, the participants noted they were positively engaged in a wide variety of sports within core PE lessons and extra-curricular activities. They described their positivity was through an enjoyment of the sports, their high ability performance and the large number of competitive activities (within lessons and in extra-curricular) that they took part in. Six participants also discussed their positive experiences stemming from their affection and relationship with their PE teacher.

‘I absolutely loved my PE teacher in secondary school... Well the thing was, she made me want to become a PE teacher... she really influenced my PE, because I think if you have got a good teacher then you enjoy it a bit more than if you have got a pants [poor/weak] teacher...’ Participant PTF6 (Line 25)

‘...my PE teacher at secondary school was, is a major standout, just because of the way he approached you.... I would class him as a role model, because he’s like the teacher that I want to go and be.’ Participant PTM3 (Line 348)

All six participants who mentioned their PE teacher, claimed the teacher was the inspiration for them pursuing a career in PE. Their PE teachers made lessons fun and provided positive reinforcement and feedback. Furthermore, their PE teachers exhibited characteristics or attitudes that the participants found favourable such as being ‘laid back’, humorous and/or approachable, with most of the participants highlighting the amiable interpersonal relationship between

themselves and their PE teacher. For some participants this bond has been maintained with contact continuing beyond the period of their compulsory education. This study's finding is in accordance with the literature suggesting that the desire and choice to become a PE teacher is influenced by the prospective teachers' own PE teachers during their time at school (Templin and Richards, 2014). Similarly, the prospective teacher views the characteristics and attributes of their own PE teachers as the inspirational determinants, possibly due to the limited and often distorted impressions of the job role and responsibilities (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1989). This finding also supports the assertion that teachers are a strong influencing factor for pupils enrolling on a PETE course (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards *et al.*, 2021; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014), and should therefore be a consideration when examining the socialisation of PE teachers.

Early Work Experiences

Prior to enrolment on their teacher education courses, all the participants had work experiences in teaching and coaching contexts which categorises them as what Zeichner and Gore (1990) referred to as 'non-traditional students'. The pre-service teachers spoke positively about their work experiences which they started during their childhood (acculturation) and, in most cases, continued to the present day whilst enrolled on their PETE course (professional socialisation).

'I don't think I would have been as confident in myself at uni, as what I would have been [without completing a 2-year work experience], and I was going to do a completely different [degree] course...but I'm really glad I took the two years out because I ended up on this course' Participant PTF6 (Line 741)

This theme highlights a significant development since Zeichner and Gore (1990), of a higher proportion of non-traditional students entering PETE courses. They described how previously the traditional typical early working experiences of ITT candidates were limited in scope to such as babysitting (Zeichner and Gore, 1990). Whilst, in recent times, pupils have been encouraged to conduct work experience at school and in their free time to increase their employability and strengthen their university applications for Higher Education courses (Prospects, 2018; UCAS, 2022a; Valentine and Keating, 2020). For example, to apply for a teaching degree programme, universities frequently request a minimum of 10 days previous work experience in a school (UCAS, 2022a). Therefore, a lack of work experience could be a potential barrier to entry onto an ITT course,

whereas for those with work experience this may facilitate their entry into the teaching profession. A consequence of these differing experiences for pupils can be a greater variability in their subjective warrants (Lawson, 1983b; Zeichner and Gore, 1990) and enhanced subject content knowledge.

There is limited research exploring early work experiences during the acculturation phase, focusing primarily on discussions of ways in-service PE teachers could facilitate the recruitment process (Bert and Richards, 2018; Richards *et al.*, 2021; Woods, Richards and Ayers, 2016) or of the research targeting the field-based experiences acquired during professional socialisation (Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016). Despite the engagement in early teaching experiences through placements being relatively brief by comparison to the 13,000 hours within the 'apprenticeship of observation' as school pupils (Lortie, 1975), they would provide opportunities to observe and experience the role of the PE teacher from an alternative perspective (Bert and Richards, 2018). If the teaching style they observe aligns with the traditional approach they experienced as a pupil, this may reinforce the custodial influences which could act as a barrier to GBAs. In turn the strongly integrated frame of reference that formed would compete with their introduction to alternative, innovative views from their PETE course potentially making them more resistant to change and consolidate the acculturation phase (Capel, 2007; Richards *et al.*, 2021). Alternatively, if the early teaching experiences were to provide exposure to GBAs such as TGfU, this might raise their awareness of the possibility of other teaching approaches and facilitate their adoption.

To support their early work experiences, some of the pre-service teachers had gained coaching qualifications from National Governing Bodies (NGBs). For example, Participant PTF5 qualified as an outdoor pursuits instructor in a variety of sports including archery, fencing, skiing and canoeing, Participants PTF4 and PTF3 held coaching qualifications in gymnastics and Participants PTM2 and PTF6 had gained football coaching qualifications. The completion of additional qualifications is looked upon favourably in PE/sport by ITT providers and placement schools, as helping to demonstrate the skills, knowledge, and abilities of the prospective teacher (UCAS, 2022b). Some of the participants gave examples of situations on placement where the schools acknowledged these skills and experiences of the trainee teacher, and the PE department encouraged the participants to utilise them in lessons. Others commented on how the training experiences had influenced their choice of university course and had boosted their self-confidence to teach. As a number of sporting

bodies such as the Football Association (FA) employ game-based pedagogies on their coaching award courses (Anderson *et al.*, 2022; Gambles *et al.*, 2022), this would afford an additional route for an early exposure to such methodologies for the course attendees and to propagate the TGfU approach.

Summary: Acculturation

This research has confirmed previous findings of the acculturation of PE teachers through their early role models particularly by family members and teachers. The continued support and encouragement of their parents, siblings or grandparents is a critical component in cultivating a lifelong love of sport for the children and which may ultimately influence them in becoming a PE teacher. PE teachers and positive school experiences were highly influential for the participants deciding upon a career in PE. This is indicated by the enduring relationships formed with their PE teachers and the participants' association with modelling themselves upon their personal attributes. The participants' recounts of their PE lessons included comments of the teacher-centred approaches they were exposed to and an absence of awareness of TGfU or GBAs. A key barrier to the implementation of GBAs such as TGfU suggested by McNeill *et al.* (2004) was a paucity of pupils' knowledge gained from personal experience, a consequence of which is a strengthening of traditional teaching approaches. Whilst the influences of both family members and teachers/coaches are strong facilitators on a child becoming a PE teacher, it is the latter that has a dominant impact (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Researchers suggest that the beliefs and values of teaching formed during the potent acculturation phase will be perpetuated in their future teaching practice unless they are deconstructed during their teacher education course or working experiences (Curtner-Smith, 2017; Lortie, 1975, Schempp, 1989). Therefore, this suggests that the participants will be more likely to adopt and implement the traditional teaching approach they experienced as pupils into their own teaching practice.

Whilst working experiences inform the third phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory, organisational socialisation, it is recognised that there is a limited degree of overlap from the school placement experiences that form part of PETE courses and similarly so with the acculturation phase (Zeichner and Gore, 1990). The traditional students as described by Zeichner and Gore (1990) may have had some restricted prior experiences as a camp counsellor or babysitter, with non-traditional

students having a broader range of pre-training influences from parenting, work experience or previous teaching experiences. As a consequence of the allocation of places for university courses favouring candidates whose life experiences, skills and vocational qualifications align with their intended field of study this increases the number of non-traditional students entering ITT. The acculturation phase and associated subjective warrants are the source of powerful beliefs that have been shown to influence the prospective PE teacher (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). Thus, these early working experiences could result in a greater potential diversity in their subjective warrants and make a significant contribution to the socialising effects of the acculturation phase. Further, there is a dearth in the literature for accounts of teachers with early work experiences. However, as all the study participants could be categorised as non-traditional students for teacher education courses on account of their pre-training early work experiences this research may be identified as extending knowledge in this area.

It is recommended that research on future teaching practice incorporates childhood influencers with particular regard to PE teachers, their attitudes and the way that they teach due to the significant role they play in inspiring children to follow the same profession. Based on the significance of early work experiences on the socialisation of teachers it is suggested that these details are captured for comparison of themes in any future research which is underpinned by Occupation Socialisation Theory.

5.4.2 Occupational Socialisation- Professional Socialisation

At this stage in the pre-service teachers' careers there is an overlap between professional socialisation and organisational socialisation, as they are encountering teacher education influences within the university and on-the-job influences during their placements. As a result, this section focuses on the time spent on a teacher training course directly referencing the university. Within professional socialisation, two primary themes emerged: university education and university placements. All aspects pertaining specifically to the (placement) school environment will be fully explored in Section 5.4.3 Occupational Socialisation- Organisational Socialisation.

University Education

Prior to entering a teacher education course, individuals develop subjective warrants, or perceptual frames of what they believe is the role of a PE teacher formed from their experiences and relationships with significant people during their childhood (Lortie, 1975). These beliefs rarely align with the actual challenges and knowledge of the PE profession (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1989). The pre-service teachers interviewed in this study noted that they had formed 'core beliefs' during their childhood which remained largely stable during their teacher education course, however these were expanded to include a greater understanding of the job role. A key change within their beliefs was developed through learning about the diverse range of pupil abilities in their theoretical and practical lectures and whilst on placement. The participants, who had high sporting ability, performance, and enjoyment in PE, experienced a 'shock to the system' (Participant PTF4, Line 139) when confronted with pupils with lower ability or who held opposing views of PE.

'I never even realised that because I was always the kid who kind of was quite good, whereas even when you just take a step back and now you are in charge and you see like, a diverse bunch of kids you are like, oh no wonder like, those kids [lower ability pupils] at school never wanted to take part' Participant PTF3 (Line 229)

The viewpoints of lower ability and/or non-sporting pupils that had seemed incomprehensible or alien to the participants as children, became apparent through their adult gaze. This in turn resulted in modifications to their beliefs to acknowledge PE should be through the encouragement of participation and adaptation of lessons to meet the needs of *all* [emphasis added] pupils in preference to just the higher ability pupils and/or those who enjoy PE. Lawson (1983a, 1983b) suggested that pre-service teachers can experience 'reality shocks' between their previous experiences formed during acculturation and the perceptions gained within professional socialisation. This demonstrates that although professional socialisation is considered the weakest phase of socialisation (Curtner-Smith, 1999; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017) it still has an impact upon teachers' current practice.

Whilst inquiring about their university experiences, the pre-service teachers recalled their theory and practical based lectures. Although they spoke positively on both aspects, the participants had limited recollection of their theoretical sessions but could provide far more detail of their practical

sessions. This was particularly emphasised by the majority of participants who stated preferences for learning actively rather than classroom-based- 'I'm not as enthusiastic personally about theory, because for me, sitting like, listening doesn't really work' (Participant PTF6, Line 292). They described being exposed to a broad curriculum of modules but could provide only scanty details, with the Spectrum of Teaching Styles, GBAs and holistic development being specifically mentioned. These references were also often made during discussions of their practical experiences, indicating the reinforcement of theory by applied exposure and reflection.

'He [lecturer] would tell us how, how it's delivered, or how should we action it, then we do a practical that linked the theory into the practical. erm he would show us how to deliver different types of lessons, you know, different ways.' Participant PTF2 (Line 254)

Research suggests there is an epistemological gap between GBA theory and practice (Butler, 2005; Memmert *et al.*, 2015). The finding's implication for TGfU is that the majority of pre-service teachers have training in and knowledge of the approach and subsequently were demonstrating active introduction of GBAs within teacher education courses. Furthermore, through their course curricular and timetables the pre-service teachers have theory and practical lessons consolidating each other which can facilitate bridging this epistemological gap. This was reinforced in their practical lessons with the exposure to a wide range of NCPPE physical activities and sports that were taught through GBAs and other innovative approaches. Participants acknowledged that this aided them in understanding the basis of 'how to teach' each sport and could be applicable for their future profession. Within university education, pre-service teachers adopt a dual role of 'Student as Teacher and Learner', where they begin to make connections between theory and practice, question established practices and understand teaching and its impact on their own learning and within schools (Taylor, 2008). In this regard, university lecturers must create a learning environment and approach that will enable students to actively explore 'as both learner experts and expert learners' (Taylor, 2008, p. 79). Therefore, if GBAs are to be embedded in pre-service teachers' practice they would need to be included in the teacher education course materials or else evidence points to a lack of uptake in future practice.

Although their overall opinion of their course was positive, the pre-service teachers expressed dissatisfaction due to the mixed messages they received from one or two tutors. They indicated an understanding of the purpose of their teacher education courses to provide them with exposure to

different disciplines, outlooks, and teaching contexts. However, on occasion this broad philosophy was not supported by all lecturers as the students had been criticised for not following that lecturer's particular approach.

'I think at university, to be very honest, it depended which lecturer you had. So if you had some lecturers who are very like, I am never changing my approach, no matter what anyone, or anything says.' Participant PTF3 (Line 182)

Eight of the participants explained how they would get positive feedback from one lecturer for a particular teaching approach but were equally criticised by another. This resulted in conflict as they were being told to explore and implement a wide variety of approaches but were then being penalised for choosing one which did not meet the lecturer's approval and beliefs. This has been echoed within the literature showing that PETE lecturers can often provide contradictory and inconsistent messages about PE teaching (Lortie, 1975; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008). As such, the participants adopted 'studentship' behaviours (Graber, 2001) tailoring their work and teaching to favourably meet the lecturer's expectations, so that they can pass their degree course. The implication for TGfU is a possible rejection of the approach if unsupported by lecturers within teacher education courses. Continued conflict between the approaches desired by lecturers may result in the students resisting the knowledge from university and reverting to their experiences formed during acculturation, thus, reinforcing traditional and custodial approaches (Capel, 2007).

University Placements

Placements are a key feature of teacher education courses which allow students to explore the application of university theory and practice in real-world contexts, such as schools (Hushman, 2013; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Zeichner and Gore, 1990). All the pre-service teachers perceived their placements as predominantly positive, outlining two key areas of discussion, the number, and types of placements. The pre-service teachers have varied experiences in a number of placement schools which total between 2 and 9 (arithmetic mean- 3.7) with all completing at least one placement within a primary school setting. The majority also attended at least one placement within a secondary school and a small number gained experience within Special Educational Needs and Disabilities (SEND) schools.

'...every year you have to do a placement, and it's about 200 hours I think, roughly, each

year we do. So, you start at primary in our first year... I started to go, special education needs...Second year, you go to [key] stage three, erm again, I went to a community school, so quite a deprived area...Then third year, we had to do again 200 hours, erm and we could have done the key stage two and key stage four, I struggled with key stage three, and I went back to my old school...' Participant PTF2 (Line 223)

The participants spoke of what they believed to be the hugely beneficial effects they derived from the diverse practical learning experiences across a broad spectrum of teaching contexts.

"I mean it [placement] was only one module of my degree, but it was like a massive part for me, which just like, actually gets to you to realise what it's like in school as well as sitting in a lecture theatre and being told what it's like, you can actually get in there" Participant PTF3 (Line 109)

The only negative placement experiences mentioned by the participants were as a consequence of the impact of COVID-19 in the school environment. A detailed discussion of the impact of COVID-19 and how it affected the participants within the school environment is provided in section 5.4.3 Occupational Socialisation- Organisational Socialisation below. Research suggests that field-based experiences impact the perspectives of pre-service teachers as they begin learning about the realistic school environment and the skills, values, and practices within the profession (Capel, 2007; Hushman, 2013; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). In congruence with the literature, the participants' experiences gained from exposure to disparate influences and teaching contexts allowed them to form a deeper understanding of the role of the PE teacher. The implication for TGfU in this varying UK PE landscape is that the pedagogical approach must be adaptable in its implementation and be seen to be successful in all types of placement settings.

Summary: Professional Socialisation

Professional socialisation is regarded as having a weaker effect on teachers than the acculturation phase (Curtner-Smith, 1999; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017). Although the strong core beliefs of childhood that arise from relationships with significant others are retained and may even strengthen, the participants noted they expand to integrate adult perspectives of the workplace.

Whilst the participants had positive recounts of their university lectures, they had greater recall of their practical sessions. Often it was during discussion of these practical sessions that they commented on theoretical aspects which indicates that the practical applications had served to consolidate their learning, despite them having little recall of the theory lessons. The majority of the participants had received training in GBAs via a mixture of theoretical and practical sessions, so could be said to have both knowledge and understanding of the pedagogical approach and their application in games and physical activities. These experiences of GBAs as both learners and teachers provided opportunities to reduce the epistemological gap between GBA theory and practice (Butler, 2005; Memmert *et al.*, 2015).

Innovative teaching pedagogies and teaching contexts are presented on teacher education courses with recruits encouraged to experiment with implementing them. The literature describes contradictory or mixed messages from tutors on PETE courses (Lortie, 1975; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008) resulting in students adopting 'studentship' behaviours (Graber, 2001) which were similarly described by the participants. An implication for the implementation of GBAs is that continued pedagogical conflict could lead to a 'wash out' of TGfU with students rejecting innovative practices in favour of their traditional custodial approaches (Capel, 2007).

School placements during the teacher education courses were mostly perceived as positive and were highly valued by the participants as they yielded sustained periods of time to experience several different teaching environments and expand their understanding about the job role. However, the COVID-19 pandemic triggered restrictions in schools and society-wide that impacted negatively on the number and types of placements for the participants during this period. Although the pandemic may be regarded as an atypical event, this illustrates that a fundamental requisite of the TGfU model is universal adaptability to differing teaching contexts.

5.4.3 Occupational Socialisation- Organisational Socialisation

The organisational socialisation phase occurs when individuals acquire the knowledge and skills of the PE profession within the school environment (Lawson, 1983a; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). This phase can often overlap with professional socialisation. Therefore, this section explores

the participants' influences specifically within the (placement) schools' context. There were two main themes to emerge from analysis of this phase: the impact of COVID-19 and the pre-service teachers' interpersonal relationships within the schools.

Impact of COVID-19

The COVID-19 pandemic had a significant impact upon the school placements and teaching practices for all the pre-service teachers. Whilst their school placements prior to COVID-19 were usually described positively, the pandemic had a negative impact on the participants as the restrictions gave rise to several changes. These changes included online teaching for all except the children of key workers and increased hygiene practices such as social distancing and cleaning of facilities. Some placements still provided face to face teaching in schools, but others produced pre-recorded online content for the children which limited the participants' teaching experiences. The pre-service teachers recounted issues such as being unable to help demonstrate a point as this involved approaching the children too closely, difficulties with maintaining engagement for children from more deprived areas being outside without coats or jumpers, limited activities as children could not touch a ball that had been handled by another person, and reduced lesson time as a consequence of needing to clean changing rooms and equipment.

'... you were either going to have this 20 minutes to practice skills or 20 minutes to do a game. So it was leaving staff with only one or two options and I think staff probably more so tended to go with the skills.... They are ticking off more things on the curriculum about learning skills and you know they think that's the better way for a student to learn and show them get the levels they need to get for their target grade...' Participant PTM1 (Line 375)

The implication of this finding for TGfU suggests that teachers had a lack of time during the pandemic and therefore resorted to teaching through a technique-based approach to ensure they could demonstrate pupil progression. This could also infer a lack of knowledge or understanding of ways to assess using a GBA and its integration within the school grading system. In addition, as social distancing and hygiene guidelines were in effect, many of the pre-service teachers were unfamiliar with ways they could adapt their lessons to create modified activities for the pupils to teach through a game, and therefore reverted to teaching the traditional approach. This suggests that their repertoire of game modifications was insufficient to teach in such a way that complied with the requirements of the pandemic changes. Alternatively, they may have lacked either knowledge or

understanding of the game categories of the games classification system (Almond, 1986b) which would have allowed them to teach from an alternative game category (for example, target instead of invasion) to avoid breaching the health guidelines. When faced with challenges to implementing GBAs, research indicates that teachers can often revert to their previous teaching practices (Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009), or may modify their approach to fit with their current beliefs (Barrett and Turner, 2000; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lund, Gurvitch and Metzler, 2008). Therefore, pre-service teachers need the knowledge, understanding and time to be able to successfully implement TGfU within their practices, thus minimising the likelihood of defaulting to the traditional teaching approach.

With the lifting of COVID-19 lockdowns, some of the participants described how shocked they were at the decreased fitness levels in the children who had been schooled at home. An outcome of this was that they tailored subsequent PE lessons towards raising general agility and fitness in place of resuming the attainments of the skill and game requirements of the curriculum.

‘..because of the pandemic we are seeing children were incredibly unfit, incredibly uncoordinated, so we did a lot of, you could call it athletics, but it wasn’t, it was movements, basic movements, and trying to build up their fitness before they even got anywhere near it, to the point where now, towards the end we could start doing games.’ Participant PTM4 (Line 194)

The pre-service teachers avoiding the use of a TGfU approach for meeting the developmentally appropriate needs of the children, is symbolic of a lack of understanding in how to modify games and the belief of needing to teach basic movements or skills prior to TGfU. This belief of prioritising the teaching of techniques has been a common barrier for the past 40 years (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Pill, 2011; Wang and Ha, 2009) and appears to have been amplified as a result of the pandemic. Another impact on PE was its de-prioritisation as attempts were made to overcome the backwards steps taken by children in subjects such as literacy and maths which has also been noted in the literature (AfPE, 2021). This resulted in many children being removed from their PE classes to catch up in the core National Curriculum subjects, exacerbating the challenges the pre-service teachers were trying to overcome within PE lessons.

‘...taken out of the arts, the PEs, the, you are taken out of those subjects, which is sending the message that those subjects are not as important...’ Participant PTF5 (Line 508)

A potential outcome of these on-going and potentially long-term challenges from the pandemic could be that the teachers fully internalise the custodial orientations (Lawson, 1983a), preserving the use of the technique-based approach in schools. In addition, those pupils preparing for GCSE and A Level qualifications were considered to be the most negatively affected by the COVID-19 pandemic (Howard, Khan and Lockyer, 2021). These experiences from their acculturation may be considered in terms of potential diversification to their subjective warrants and their subsequent recruitment into university. As acculturation can be powerful in shaping future teachers (Lortie, 1975), the aftermath of COVID-19 events may exert a lingering influence upon their later experiences and teaching approaches during their professional and organisational socialisation phases. The incidence of a recent event such as the COVID-19 pandemic is atypical in the UK and hence the literature on its short and long-term effects will be limited. An Ofqual report on learning experiences and losses during the pandemic stated a need for the expansion of knowledge on the impact of the pandemic to focus on specific subjects, qualifications, and teaching contexts- with particular attention to vocational subjects (Howard, Khan and Lockyer, 2021). Therefore, it is recommended that future research considers the consequences on Occupational Socialisation, schools, teachers, pupils, and innovative teaching practices.

Interpersonal Relationships within the schools

Within the (placement) school environments, the pre-service teachers formed relationships with three primary groups of people: their mentors, their colleagues, and the pupils. The teachers discussed the impact each group had on their teaching practice.

Mentors

The participants were generally positive regarding their interactions and relationships with their mentors, feeling comfortable with voicing any concerns they may have encountered and feeling they were supported whilst on placement. However, several of the participants noted there was conflict with their mentors specifically in terms of their teaching approach and being graded.

‘I’ve got to try and live in their [mentor] footsteps, well I didn’t do it that way, I didn’t do it this way, and it’s like, argh. So, my only issue with my mentor now is kind of, okay, okay, okay, I will do it, just to keep her happy.’ Participant PTF2 (Line 406)

The pre-service teachers described how they were trying to adopt GBAs into their practice but were often discouraged by their mentors and received poorer feedback in their teaching observations when implementing the approach. This finding implies there was a lack of support from their mentors towards using TGfU which resulted in the pre-service teachers fostering the dominant teaching practice in the school- the technique-based approach. Research suggests that new teachers can conform or resist the practices within an institution, selecting from three possible socialisation strategies: strategic compliance, internalised adjustment, and strategic redefinition (Lacey, 1977). In this case, the pre-service teachers adopted strategic compliance as they adjusted their behaviours to meet the demands of the school but maintained private hesitations (Lacey, 1977). This middle ground outcome allows the pre-service teacher to accept the socialisation on a short-term basis, and to later determine whether the beliefs will be internalised and become permanent (Etheridge, 1989; Lawson, 1983a). This could result in a lack of adoption of innovative practices (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Stroot and Ko, 2006). The earlier findings from this thesis (Study 1) were that some in-service teachers held strong beliefs in their teaching practice based on the longevity of having taught that way, seeing their colleagues using the same approach, and having received positive feedback on their practice from colleagues and Ofsted. By virtue of these affirmations, it had been found that they were reluctant to consider changing their teaching methodology to a GBA. Similarly, it is plausible that some of the mentors of the pre-service teachers shared this perspective, and which could have provided one potential explanation for the lack of support towards the pre-service teachers implementing using GBAs. It is recommended that mentors be provided with training to educate them in the benefits of GBAs for pupils and the teaching contexts of considering different styles of teaching approaches, which may in turn support the pre-service teachers' implementation of TGfU.

Colleagues

The pre-service teachers' relationships and interactions with their colleagues were mixed. Some colleagues were supportive of the participants with their teaching practice and trying TGfU, whilst other participants felt that they had to conform to their colleagues' teaching practices.

'It definitely reflects on your own practice when you are in a good department or when you are in a department that isn't as good. Cos if their level is only at a certain level then it's hard for you to surpass that...' Participant PTM1 (Line 172)

Pre-service teachers can succumb to this peer pressure, spoken or unspoken, leading them to adopt the teaching practices of their colleagues, (Stroot and Ko, 2006; Tsangaridou, 2006) and potentially internalising them (Lawson 1983a). The colleagues' reluctance to change, as experienced by some of the participants, has been identified as a barrier to the implementation of TGfU (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wang and Ha, 2013). The wholehearted encouragement of colleagues is fundamental for the successful introduction of modern teaching practices in schools and for nurturing innovative orientations in pre-service teachers on placement.

'I think it's just all about support, I think some teachers are genuinely just scared to use it, because they haven't before. Some teachers are so set in their ways and they just think, this is how I teach, I have always taught this way. So I think kind of just, helping teachers to understand that like, there are different ways that kids learn like, not, each child is not a robot' Participant PTF3 (Line 557)

Furthermore, in their teaching placements nine of the pre-service teachers were also frequently given independent teaching opportunities by a few members of the PE department. The participants commented on their colleagues' recognition of the skills and experience that they brought to the school, leading to the awarding of extra responsibilities. Examples included, sharing teaching practices with a coach contracted to provide PE lessons, providing a CPD session on PE to primary staff, or utilising the student's extensive coaching experience to teach gymnastics classes. The students regarded these episodes as positive and challenging opportunities for providing a more realistic experience of teaching along with the inherent sense of sole responsibility for the outcomes of the lesson. Such experiences helped the pre-service teachers increase their confidence in their ability to teach.

'I think that [solo teaching] helped me like, kind of pushed me up to that next stage because you were given ownership over this class, and it's like, if something goes wrong it's your fault, it's not the teacher's fault, so kind of that pressure and the situation helped me to feel an even more realistic experience of teaching.' Participant PTF3 (Line 163)

How a pre-service teacher chooses to teach may both depend upon their knowledge of approaches and how they think an observing colleague might judge them. Research argues that switching from the technique-based approach to a GBA is dependent upon the teacher's knowledge and

competencies (Almond, 1986a; Kirk, 2011). If the pre-service teacher lacks the confidence or is less familiar with the approach, they are more likely to resort to the teaching practices they are familiar with and that they observed during their 'apprenticeship of observation' (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). This can result in the perpetuation of the traditional technique-based approach (Capel, 2007). However, if the pre-service teacher has a knowledge of TGfU and the support of colleagues then they may feel a greater freedom in their confidence to teach using a GBA, with enhanced benefits during periods of solo teaching. This was noted by some of the pre-service teachers who commented upon the importance they attached to the opinions of their colleagues and the confidence that it gave them to explore teaching using GBAs. Within teacher education, learning opportunities on field-based experiences need to be created and supported by colleagues, for pre-service teachers to develop their TGfU teaching practice (Butler, 2005; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009).

Pupils

Finally, the teachers spoke of their relationships with and perceptions of their pupils which influenced their teaching practice. The pre-service teachers described their relationship with the children as being very positive and the most influential factor for determining their teaching approach. All the participants agreed that delivering through a GBA had three main benefits over the technique-based approach: more fun, greater engagement within the lesson and that the pupils were increasingly active. Additional benefits the pre-service teachers included were increased decision-making and the development of skills such as character building, social skills and leadership which are advantageous for future employment.

'sport isn't for everybody, so by making those lessons more accessible and more engaging, you are going to have an easier lesson' Participant PTF5 (Line 446)

Some of these benefits have equally been recognised within the TGfU literature, particularly the concepts of enjoyment and fun (Light and Tan, 2006; Wang and Ha, 2009; Wright *et al.*, 2005). Despite the positivity, five of the pre-service teachers stated they had a fear of loss of control and lacked confidence in implementing TGfU which frequently led them to reverting to teaching through a technique-based approach. These fears centred on the perception that the pupils would not be displaying uniform behaviours and which they believed made the class uncontrollable.

‘You expect all these little intricate passing sequences, and they are like, oh but there’s no straight line, and no one is stood still and they are kind of, freeze, and it’s, it just goes to pot.’ Participant PTM2 (Line 412)

This point could be interpreted in terms of the pre-service teachers having a lack of understanding of the practical application of the model, particularly the expectations of what the game-based PE lesson would look like. These concerns were exacerbated by the pre-service teachers having fears about potential behavioural issues from implementing a game-based lesson, and the assumption that these fears would also extend to in-service teachers. In most cases, they stated a preference for using a technique-based approach as a means of maintaining structure and order within their classes.

‘...for example, they’re not very well behaved, if they are a group who struggle in that regard, then you know trying to implement something different is, it’s going to be too difficult and you know they will just hang you out to dry really. You have got to have control of the class at all times.’ Participant PTM1 (Line 212)

‘I think for teachers it can be quite, what’s the word, maybe even like a daunting approach because you are like, this is kind of scary like, I’m going to go into this lesson, and we are going to play a game and sometimes with kids who will take the mick’ Participant PTF3 (Line 490)

Prior literature on the implementation of TGfU (Butler, 1996; Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez, and Castejon, 2010; Gubacs-Collins, 2007; Mitchell, Oslin and Griffin, 2021) has suggested that teachers can often lack confidence and have feelings of uncertainty, especially in the early stages of teaching, though they found that these feelings can diminish with time and practice. These self-doubts may leave the teacher with a reluctance to move away from their current practice and to experiment with alternative approaches. Reluctance to change emerged as a key barrier to implementing a TGfU approach as the pre-service teachers discussed the influences of their pupils on the teaching approach they employed. The pre-service teachers’ choice was made based on their judgments of the pupils, and they anticipated how they felt the pupils would respond. The pre-service teachers stated their belief that their in-service colleagues would make similar evaluations and react accordingly. These results add to the growing body of evidence that hesitation with applying GBAs can lead to a diminishment in practice and the strengthening of the traditional approach in schools. Therefore, the participants require support, space, and time to develop their teaching practice to

successfully implement the model. The formation of a professional 'community of practice', can aid the delivery of TGfU and provide a supportive platform for pre-service teachers to discuss and understand how they can improve their practice (Wang and Ha, 2009) and ultimately raise their confidence in its delivery.

A key point raised in the pre-service teacher interviews was a discussion on the ability of their pupils as a deciding factor for the application of TGfU within PE lessons. For many of the participants this was a major barrier to their practice stating that they could only teach through a GBA with higher ability classes.

'They [lower ability pupils] have to literally practise that skill in isolation... If your students are quite switched on, and they can perform to a high level, and kind of good understanding of context of how you speak it, then you are fine, but lower ability, I'm like,... [describes key teaching points of an overarm throw technique]... Like, so basic, to get them to understand.'

Participant PTF2 (Line 640)

However, the fundamental reason for this barrier may be interpreted as due to the teacher's lack of understanding of the TGfU approach, rather than the pupils' abilities. This finding demonstrates the pre-service teachers' lack of understanding as they believe the pupils must have a minimum skill level for them to play a game and thus, they assumed that they must teach skills/techniques to lower ability pupils prior to introducing a modified TGfU game. To illustrate this further, nine of the participants recounted examples of their "TGfU" lessons which included a mixture of describing full game practices and mini games focusing on drills without any acknowledgement of the tactics. The pre-service teachers lacked the understanding of TGfU regarding its basic premise of the adaptation/modification of games to make them developmentally appropriate for the capabilities of the pupils so as to allow them to play and come to appreciate the underpinning tactics (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982; Thorpe, Bunker and Almond, 1986). The academic literature for the past 40 years has shown that these misconceptions associated with the structure and delivery of a TGfU lesson appear to be a common and fixed barrier for both in-service and pre-service teachers (see for example Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Pill, 2011; Thorpe and Bunker, 1983; Wang and Ha, 2009) and have also been noted in the findings of Study 1 and Study 2 of this thesis.

This barrier of skills/techniques before gameplay can be seen as the result of the strong socialisation

processes during acculturation which have formed and influenced teachers' perceptions, interpretations, and implementation of teaching approaches (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Lortie, 1975). Similarly, missing clarification and understanding within their learning of GBAs on their teacher education courses (Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016), could compound their beliefs about teaching different ability pupils. Bunker and Thorpe (1986a) have suggested that TGfU can be applicable to all ability pupils and at different stages within their knowledge of games. This is achievable through the modification of the game, such as timings and equipment, and ensuring that the teacher adapts the game to meet the developmental needs of the pupils (Bunker and Thorpe, 1986a). Therefore, for the successful implementation of TGfU it is recommended that the beliefs constructed during acculturation need to be deconstructed through teacher education courses during professional socialisation and through professional development training within organisational socialisation to provide teachers with the appropriate knowledge and understanding of the approach (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016; Wang and Ha, 2013).

Summary: Organisational Socialisation

The main barriers to TGfU identified by the pre-service teachers during this phase include the reluctance to change by their colleagues and their own teaching practice, a lack of knowledge and understanding of GBAs, including a lack of confidence and fear of loss of control. Further the participants believe there is a lack of time within lessons, especially noted during the pandemic, and a lack of support from their mentor and colleagues which can determine their use of the TGfU approach in practice.

The restrictions arising from the COVID-19 pandemic created atypical placement experiences for the students which had a significant negative impact on their organisational socialisation. Pupil engagement was difficult to maintain in the face of limited PE activities, online teaching, social distancing and COVID-19 hygiene requirements. Shorter effective lesson times and the decreased activity and fitness in the pupils made pupil progression challenging to demonstrate resulting in the pre-service teachers reverting to a technique-based approach, which was sustained after restrictions ended. The overwhelming belief of pupils needing to be taught techniques prior to being exposed to TGfU (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015) appears compounded by the pandemic. A

knowledgeable TGfU practitioner could have utilised suitably modified games for inclusion of players of all ability levels to benefit pupil engagement, activity and fitness levels and which could have combated the de-prioritisation of PE as schools sought to overcome the retrograde steps observed in basic numeracy and literacy.

Mentors were unsupportive of the pre-service teachers employing GBAs in their teaching and the subsequent detrimental effect on their teaching assessment led to strategic compliance behaviours (Lacey, 1977) by the pre-service teachers which may be unfavourable to the adoption of GBAs in the future teaching practices of the participants. Similarly, the support of colleagues for pre-service teachers on placement is critical in encouraging innovative teaching practices and to reduce the risk of internalising traditional teaching styles (Lawson 1983a). Colleagues and the wider school found value and benefitted from the skills, experience, and expertise that the pre-service teachers brought from their early working experiences. Pre-service teachers may bring experiences of activities in which their colleagues lack subject-specific knowledge and who choose to defer to their expertise. As multiple UK NGBs employ GBAs in their coaching award courses, pre-service teachers with these qualifications may choose to implement these approaches in their teaching and expose both pupils and colleagues to GBAs. A further mechanism for embedding GBAs into school may be where the school environment is supportive of this reciprocal teaching/learning relationship.

Pupils and their abilities were a prime determinant in the pre-service teachers' choice of teaching style. The pre-service teachers believed that TGfU was inappropriate for low ability pupils and were apprehensive of resultant behavioural issues. The participants attributed their colleagues with sharing their concerns, and stated that behaviour control, order and lesson structuring were best achieved in technique-based lessons for low ability pupils. This entrenched misconception along with misunderstandings of how to modify games demonstrates the participants' lack of understanding of TGfU and reluctance to change as barriers to the implementation of GBAs.

The pre-service teachers recommended that ITT courses focus on delivering a consistent message around GBAs and emphasise the wide applicability of TGfU for pupils of all abilities. Participants reverting to technique-based lessons due to a lack of confidence or fear of loss of control may be

attributable to a lack of understanding of applying GBAs within a practical context and could be overcome with experience, space, time, and support. Despite these misgivings, the participants opined the main benefits of GBAs as being more engaging and fun for the pupils with an increase in activity levels whilst also aiding the development of social skills, leadership, and character.

An overlap exists between professional socialisation and organisational socialisation phases, as the pre-service teachers experience the university and the school placement environments respectively. Within Occupational Socialisation it is difficult to view each phase in isolation without considering and acknowledging its interconnections, influences, and implications for the remaining phases. Targeting organisational socialisation appears to be a pivotal choice for TGfU interventions, however research must also investigate the socialisation influences within acculturation, which often form teachers' beliefs about PE, and professional socialisation where some teachers are first introduced to GBAs. Focusing on organisational socialisation will directly affect in-service teachers but would also cascade to pre-service teachers on placement and ultimately pupils who would be prospective PE teachers (Richards *et al.*, 2021). Further, the COVID-19 pandemic has illustrated the need for research in the short- and long-term to account for pedagogical approaches, pupils, schools, teachers, and teacher socialisation.

5.4.4 Pre-service Teachers' Recommendations to Facilitate a TGfU Approach

Whilst the experiences of the pre-service teachers were positive to GBAs and they had taken some opportunities to incorporate TGfU into lessons, they had been aware of some barriers to implementation. The pre-service teachers gave recommendations on ways of overcoming the barriers to the implementation of TGfU highlighted for each of the phases of Occupational Socialisation Theory. For the acculturation phase the participants recommended that children be exposed to GBAs within their PE lessons from an early age. Half of the pre-service teachers noted this initial introduction could be during primary school as it is the earliest schooling experience and a time when PE is frequently structured through play. Conversely others argued that as secondary schools are more likely to teach through a technique-based approach, and as this schooling age is often the most memorable and influential on the pupils aspiring to be teachers, then there would be a greater benefit by introducing GBAs at this older stage. The key aspect that can be drawn from these recommendations to facilitate the implementation of TGfU in schools is the significance of

children having prior experiences of the approach from teachers regularly applying it in practice. These recommendations are in agreement with Occupational Socialisation Theory which describes the powerful subjective warrants that children form during their 'apprenticeship of observation', and which inform future experiences (Lortie, 1975; Richards *et al.*, 2021). In accordance with Occupational Socialisation Theory, early exposure to GBAs during acculturation will incorporate familiarity of them into subjective warrants which could lead to an increased openness to applying TGfU in schools when the individual becomes a teacher. Therefore, for children to have exposure to GBAs the pre-service teachers made recommendations of the facilitators in the professional socialisation and organisational socialisation phases, which would in turn support the acculturation phases of future prospective PE teachers.

In the professional socialisation phase, the pre-service teachers recommended an increase in the amount of PE in primary ITT and for the teaching and reinforcement of pedagogical approaches such as GBAs. Some of the participants noted that PE is often limited in teacher education specifically on primary education courses. For example, after attending an open day at a Primary ITT provider Participant PTM3 stated 'I don't think there's very much at all [PE training], if I recall it's less than a week' (Line 581). Research has suggested that Primary ITT is insufficient in adequately preparing primary school pre-service teachers to teach PE (see for example Kirk, 2012) and as a result has been a key action point of the recent AfPE (2021, p.25) report advocating for 'a radical increase in the amount of PE provision.... through extended and far more comprehensive ITT'. The participants suggested that a greater PE provision would allow more time and opportunities to include TGfU into the ITT curriculum. Where ITT courses deliver innovative pedagogies, a greater PE provision could provide the necessary early exposure of GBAs in schools both during pre-service teacher placement and after the teachers have qualified.

During teacher education courses, the participants recommended an introduction with consistent reiteration of GBAs by lecturers throughout their entire degree programme. Nine of the pre-service teachers noted that, although they were taught about TGfU, they felt that this was limited to a few sessions or within one semester of their degrees which could be easily forgotten during their professional socialisation phase if it were not reinforced. Similarly, as some of the participants noted that their lecturers disagreed with employing a GBA in practical lessons, this resulted in the pre-

service teachers adopting 'studentship' behaviours (Graber, 2001) and disregarding GBAs to meet the demands of those lecturers. Therefore, it is suggested that a number of criteria would be required to be met for the successful adoption of TGfU. To support the students, it is recommended that the university lecturers have a consistent positive attitude towards, and provide coherent messages about, TGfU. Moreover, to facilitate the internalisation of GBAs, lecturers need to consolidate student knowledge and understanding by continually demonstrating GBA application and learning throughout the pre-service teacher's degree programme. This might also be demonstrated by lecturers encouraging placement mentors towards having an openness and acceptance of GBAs being used by pre-service teachers in schools.

In the organisational socialisation phase, the pre-service teachers made three primary recommendations: provision of CPD courses, the support of colleagues/mentors with the delivery of TGfU, and an increase in the number of PE specialists in primary schools. All the participants highlighted a need for introductory and on-going refresher training in TGfU for in-service teachers to promote the 'wash out' of traditional teaching approaches and replacement with an embedded internalisation of GBAs. This will overcome some of the main barriers to TGfU, as identified in each study of this thesis, through improvements in the knowledge and understanding of GBAs for teachers. The shared philosophy would provide a supportive 'community of practice' among colleagues and school mentors which would also extend to pre-service teachers and accordingly serve to underpin and echo the pedagogical messages from their university lecturers. Another outcome would be the exposure to TGfU for children in supporting their acculturation phase and subsequent subjective warrants.

An additional recommendation made by the interviewees for the organisational socialisation phase was an increase in the number of PE specialists in primary schools who could teach games through a TGfU approach. Within the UK, there is a normative practice of outsourcing PE delivery in primary schools to external providers such as sports coaches, due to the concerns of the teachers lacking the knowledge, skills and competencies as a result of their limited teacher education training (Griggs, 2010; Huddleston, 2019; McEvilly, 2022). The participants opined that if the external providers had the experience and knowledge of GBAs this would facilitate the exposure of the approach within schools. Although the pre-service teachers preferred that the external provider be a PE specialist favouring a teaching orientation, they did not discount sports coaches as some coaching

qualifications recommend teaching through a GBA.

A final recommendation made by the participants was to ensure the availability of low cost TGfU teaching resources for both pre-service and in-service teachers. This would allow individuals access to high quality lessons plans, activities, webinars etc. which would provide them with a greater understanding of the approach and minimise the amount of time they would spend on researching and lesson planning. The participants strongly suggested that these resources be of a reasonable/low cost due to limited PE department budgets and to make them accessible to university students.

5.5 Summary and Conclusions

The aim of this study was to examine pre-service teachers' influences and beliefs about the implementation of TGfU in PE. Two objectives were set which structured the focus of the study on the pre-service teachers' key influences and beliefs underpinned by the three phases of Occupational Socialisation Theory (acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation). Based upon the participants' viewpoints, this included an identification of the barriers for pre-service teachers that inhibit the implementation of the TGfU approach and informed recommendations for their application.

This study confirmed that sustained relationships with PE role models, positive PE experiences and supportive family members are important influencers for potential PE teachers (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Limited childhood exposure to GBAs may affect uptake during the later professional and organisational socialisation phases. Greater numbers are likely of non-traditional recruits (Zeichner and Gore, 1990) having vocational qualifications and early working experiences prompted by schools and teacher education providers encouraging and valuing their attainment. It is recommended that GBA researchers employing Occupational Socialisation Theory capture participant biographies detailing early working experiences, childhood role models and influencers.

This study confirms that inconsistencies between university lecturers' attitudes towards GBAs may discourage innovative orientations in students thus hampering the implementation of TGfU (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lortie, 1975). Possibilities for reducing the epistemological gap between GBA theory and practice (Butler, 2005; Memmert *et al.*, 2015) were indicated by the practical reinforcement of students' theoretical instruction. The participants' related positively on their placements, with the notable exception of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic restrictions.

Pre-service teachers reported benefits of TGfU as having high pupil engagement and as contributing to the development of pupils' social and leadership skills, but had misconceptions around games modification and classification, in addition to their concerns over losing pupil control and a lack of colleague support for teaching the approach. The majority of participants reverted to the technique-based approach during and after COVID-19 restrictions. The lack of early exposure to GBAs in childhood, the inconsistencies they observed in their tutors' attitudes to GBAs and the lack of mentor/colleague support for the participants may have been factors in this outcome. Future research encompassing the effects of the pandemic aftermath on PE provision and the status of GBAs in schools is required.

The pre-service teachers identified three main barriers to TGfU implementation; lack of knowledge of GBAs, a lack of understanding, lack of time within lessons especially during the pandemic and a lack of support from their mentor and colleagues. The pre-service teachers displayed a reluctance to change their practice and remarked on a fear of loss of control and lack of confidence with GBAs (lack of understanding: unsure how to apply TGfU in practice). The participants' recommendations for overcoming barriers to implementing TGfU included regular consistent exposure to teaching through games by influential role models during primary and secondary school. In the professional socialisation phase, the pre-service teachers recommended consistent positive support for innovative teaching pedagogies within the university environment and in conjunction with placement schools. The pre-service teachers highlighted the need for a significant increase in PE provision in Primary ITT to embed GBAs into the curriculum to provide exposure for pre-service teachers and thus facilitate introduction into schools. The pre-service teachers' recommendations for the organisational socialisation phase were provision of CPD courses, the support of colleagues/mentors for the delivery of TGfU, an increase in the number of PE specialists in primary

schools and time-saving resources for teachers and university students.

Examining the Occupational Socialisation of teachers and the barriers to TGfU provides an understanding of the on-going socialisation influences within the educational system and the lives of individuals, identifying areas that researchers might target for the introduction of innovative pedagogy interventions. The COVID-19 pandemic with its potentially far-reaching effects on schools, teachers, pupils and the wider society has brought renewed emphasis to the need for a constant re-evaluation of the influences on teacher socialisation. Therefore, the following chapter will provide a discussion and compare the Occupational Socialisation and barriers and facilitators to TGfU of the in-service and pre-service teachers from the primary studies of this thesis. This will provide a greater understanding of the key influences on teachers' lives and the challenges inhibiting the implementation of TGfU within the dynamic educational landscape of England.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION: Dialogic Perspective of pre-service and in-service teachers' Occupational Socialisation and the barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU

6.1 Overview

Study 1 and Study 3 explored the socialisation of PE teachers as influenced by their childhood, university, and on-the-job experiences through the lens of Occupational Socialisation Theory. This chapter will compare the Occupational Socialisation factors in the lives of the pre-service and in-service teachers. Due to the lack of Occupational Socialisation Theory data, a discussion of Study 2 could not be included within this sub-section. In addition, the barriers, and facilitators to implementing TGfU in schools identified in Study 1, Study 2 and Study 3 will be discussed. Whilst it is important to understand the socialisation of teachers as a whole, it is also necessary to probe for different influences, to examine their impact on teaching practice and the implementation of innovative pedagogies such as TGfU. Previous research has generally focused on either one or the other group of teachers in isolation, but there is minimal research that has applied Occupational Socialisation Theory to compare the socialisation factors in the lives of both pre-service and in-service teachers within the context of TGfU and the UK. Therefore, this chapter aims to help to fill this gap with teachers in England.

6.2 Occupational Socialisation- Acculturation

Acculturation is noted as the period between birth and enrolling on a teacher education course (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). For this section, there were three main themes which emerged within the acculturation phase; family influences, teacher's experience as a pupil and early work experiences.

Family Influences

The participants of both Study 1 and Study 3 made references to the family members who had inspired and supported their love for sports and who had acted as an influence on them to later pursue a career as a PE teacher (Curtner-Smith, 2017; Lawson, 1983a; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). Similarities could be drawn between the accounts from the pre-service and in-service

teachers who commented on incidents such as their parents taking them to matches, sharing an involvement in sports, purchasing sports equipment etc. However, the Study 3 pre-service teachers expanded upon this to also include wider family members. Several of the pre-service teachers who noted alternative family members beyond their parents, explained this was largely due to the parents being busy and unable to provide regular transportation and support at training/matches.

This finding is in keeping with the existing literature which suggests that family play an important role in the socialisation of children and their uptake of sport (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Spittle, Jackson and Casey, 2009). These significant individuals form part of a child's early sporting interactions during the 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975) building the foundations for key values and beliefs which inform their future practices (Lawson, 1983a). Although the findings for the acculturation stage appear to show a difference in that some of the participants of Study 3 described the support from a wider family network such as a grandfather, it is plausible that this may be related to memory recall or the individuals in question and may not necessarily be indicative of a genuine underlying difference between the two groups of teachers. Further research with a greater number of participants could explore whether this was a coincidental difference or if there is a wider societal change and influence at play between the two groups of teachers.

Teacher's Experience as a Pupil

A key theme to arise for both groups is their experiences as a pupil in primary and secondary schools. The two groups of participants both felt they had few memories of primary PE, with the in-service teachers describing it as negative and less important. Some of the pre-service teachers described their primary PE as fun with a range of activities, however others shared the experiences of the in-service teachers who provided limited accounts of it being gymnastics and basic in nature. A notable point raised was that five of the pre-service participants were able to define their primary PE as consisting of teacher-centred repetitive skills practices. During the 'apprenticeship of observation', children observe and interact with their teachers and form beliefs about the role of a PE teacher (Lortie, 1975) which can inform their future teaching practices. Therefore, consideration of which approaches and sports are introduced and the shaping of children's perceptions during primary school are factors which contribute to their future understanding of PE and teachers.

The accounts of secondary school PE were more extensive than those provided of their primary school experiences, with positive memories described by the participants of both studies. The in-service teachers recalled being taught by a technique-based approach with a game at the end of the lesson although this was not mentioned by the pre-service teachers. An additional discussion topic introduced was that some of the pre-service teachers commented about enjoying a wide range of sports in secondary school PE. As children, their higher abilities sometimes led to a lack of awareness of how less able children viewed PE and feelings of frustration when less capable children slowed the game down. In contrast, this point was not raised by the in-service teachers, possibly due to the extensive number of potential discussion topics.

Of particular note was that the majority of participants of both studies provided anecdotes and detailed comments describing strong relationships with their secondary school PE teacher. The teacher acted as a positive role model to whom they attributed a range of personal qualities - approachable, having a relaxed attitude and a sense of humour. A number of the pre-service teachers had maintained this relationship into adulthood, with some participants of both studies directly attributing their choice of career to the PE teacher and describing a desire to emulate them. This finding confirms the body of research that has portrayed the impact of these early experiences in instigating a subjective warrant that encompasses the perceived qualities and role of a PE teacher (Capel, 2007; Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004; Lortie, 1975; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1989). The subjective warrant is a limited/distorted impression, or perceptual framework that does not fully incorporate a complete awareness or understanding of the role (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1989) as they are pupil experiences, but may have a bearing on the beliefs and practices from later in PE teachers' lives (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008).

In most cases the PE teachers were a positive influence on both the in-service and pre-service teachers however, a few of the in-service teachers noted that the reverse was also important as a negative role model PE teacher could also influence them into the profession due to a desire to provide a better PE experience to others. Templin and Richards (2014) suggested that prospective PE teachers may be influenced into their chosen career path as a result of positive experiences of school sport and significant relationships with their own PE teachers who inspired them follow in

their footsteps. Similarly, research has found that a negative experience of PE or with a PE teacher may have the same outcome but stemming from a wish to provide other children with more positive experiences of PE and foster change (Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009; Wright, 2001). Therefore, the experiences of PE and particularly the influence of secondary PE teachers are strong socialising factors and influences on joining the profession.

Early Work Experiences

The third theme to emerge from the comparison of the Study 1 and Study 3 acculturation phase was the early work experiences that occurred prior to their PETE courses. There was a noticeable difference between the in-service teachers and the pre-service teachers as the in-service teachers did not discuss any work experiences which started within their acculturation phase. However, this was a significant theme for the pre-service teachers who evidenced a wide range of early work experiences that included; sports coaching as volunteers or employees, youth workers, working in schools, swimming teaching, working up through the ranks of the Army Cadets Force or other examples of activities with young people. This illustrated a potential categorisation between the two groups as 'traditional' (Study 1) and 'non-traditional recruits' (Study 3) (Zeichner and Gore, 1990) which may be a consequence of changing prerequisites for university courses.

Zeichner and Gore (1990) referred to PETE recruits with such additional experiences as 'non-traditional students', who are likely to have become increasingly prevalent with many UK universities now advocating for such skills and experiences as support for their university applications (Prospects, 2018; UCAS, 2022a; Valentine and Keating, 2020). A key aspect of this finding demonstrates an expectational change of requirements for PE recruits between the in-service and pre-service participants. This is likely due to the ages of participants and the increasing trajectory of prerequisites for UK university applications. A consequence of these expectations is the resulting overlap between the phases of acculturation and organisational socialisation in comparison to the more linear approach described for traditional students with no significant early working experiences. The continuation of these early work experiences could lead to a greater variability in PE teacher recruits' subjective warrants (Lawson, 1983b; Zeichner and Gore, 1990) and by extension future changes in the socialisation of teachers. This sub-theme was significant due to the limited body of literature that explores work experiences within the acculturation phase, and further

research is needed to understand the implications within the UK educational system for the socialisation of teachers.

6.3 Occupational Socialisation- Professional Socialisation

Professional Socialisation is the second phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory and is often regarded as the weakest phase (Curtner-Smith, 1999; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017) on account of it consisting of the relatively short period of time that a person is completing a teacher education course. Often this is the first time that prospective teachers are exposed to innovative pedagogies such as GBAs to challenge the subjective warrants created during their acculturation phase (Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016). For this section, there were two main themes which emerged for this phase; university education and university placements.

University education

Children are exposed to socialising effects during childhood, the acculturation phase, leading to the creation of their beliefs about teaching, the job role, attributes, and responsibilities of a PE teacher, termed their subjective warrants (Lortie, 1975). The beliefs held within the subjective warrant are restricted and unable to encompass a complete vision and understanding of the PE profession (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1989). PETE courses aim to deconstruct the traditional custodial orientations formed in childhood and replace them with innovative and creative approaches. With regard to the university education of the participants, the findings from Study 1 and Study 3 had similarities with both groups describing them positively and stating that their core beliefs from childhood were unchanged and expanded only as a result of their teacher education course.

These findings are similar to the literature which also indicates the limited effects of PETE courses on prospective teachers (Darling-Hammond and Richardson, 2009; Zeichner and Gore, 1990). A slight difference between the groups noted whilst discussing beliefs was that some of the pre-service

teachers gained an insight into their own school PE experiences, as they described a shock to the system upon becoming aware of the viewpoints and possible underlying reasons for some pupils' dislike of PE. Reflecting upon these alternative perspectives resulted in an adjustment to their beliefs that PE should be appropriate for *all* [emphasis added] and not just the more able or for those who enjoy sports. 'Reality shocks' have been previously described by Lawson (1983a, 1983b), which he suggested arose from a divergence between the experiences of acculturation and the enlightenment gained during professional socialisation.

Another common theme in both Study 1 and Study 3 was a much stronger recall of practical sessions, with participants being able to provide greater detail of them compared to their theoretical lessons. Often the Study 3 pre-service teachers demonstrated some theoretical knowledge when recounting practical experiences which suggests that the practical sessions had served to reinforce the learning. However, by comparison, the in-service teachers provided extremely limited and vague suggestions of possible topics from their PE course. Whilst the majority of the in-service teachers could not recall receiving instruction on GBAs at university, nine of the 10 pre-service teachers had both theoretical and practical lessons supported by opportunities to teach using the TGfU approach. Butler (2005) and Memmert *et al.* (2015) suggested an epistemological gap exists between GBA theory and practice, which may have been reduced for the pre-service teachers with their continuing exposure to GBAs during their professional socialisation. It is credible that the differences in recall may have some relation to the elapsed time since their university course, with the in-service teachers being older and possibly less likely to recall the same level of detail than the younger pre-service teachers who are still enrolled on a teacher education course.

In accordance with the literature, (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lawson, 1983b; Lortie, 1975) members of both groups of participants provided accounts of receiving mixed messages from some of their university lecturers, and adopted studentship behaviours as a result (Graber, 2001). The pre-service teachers' dissatisfaction arose from criticisms from a lecturer for not following their preferred approach despite receiving positive feedback from another tutor when they employed it. They understood a philosophy of the course was to introduce them to diverse teaching pedagogies and provide opportunities for them to implement them, however the tutor's behaviour was incongruent with this ethos. Studies have shown that teacher educators may provide conflicting and disparate messages about PE teaching (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lortie, 1975). If the

mixed messages are concerned with teaching practices, this can lead to a strengthening of the subjective warrant of acculturation that favours the traditional teaching approach and the elimination of innovative pedagogies (Capel, 2007). As both groups experienced this issue, this demonstrates a need for PETE lecturers to provide consistent messages for their students which will facilitate the learning and application of GBAs.

University Placements

University placements provide students with multiple opportunities to gain experiences and training in schools, to expose them to real environments in which to practise the teaching skills learned in university and to learn about the role of a PE teacher. A rationale was formed for the resultant overlap between the professional and organisational socialisation phases of Study 1 and for Study 3. This theme from the pre-service teacher placements has been examined in greater detail in the organisational socialisation sections 5.4.3 and 6.4.3, on account of it being the primary opportunities for them to learn on-the-job about being a PE teacher and their limited discussion of the link with the university environment. However, for the in-service teachers their placements were discussed as part of their professional socialisation on the strength of them having a greater number of school-based opportunities after graduating with their teaching qualifications. The main points discussed in this section will be the mixed messages between the university and placement provider, and the number and types of placements.

The placement teaching experiences of the groups from Study 1 and Study 3 were easily recalled, despite the ensuing longer time interval for the in-service teachers. The in-service teachers' descriptions were largely negative whereas the pre-service teachers had largely positive recounts. A distinct difference between the two groups was the pedagogical inconsistencies between their university lecturers and school mentors being reported only by the in-service teachers. This was described as most apparent with feedback from teaching observations when a particular teaching approach earned the approval of one yet the disapproval of the other. The majority of the in-service teachers considered this a key determinant on their practice whilst on placement as they would adopt the teaching approach of the individual who was marking them.

The in-service teachers adopted the lecturer's approach on the few occasions per year when they were observed by them. On other occasions they implemented the mentor's approach, adopting what Maynard (2001) described as a survival strategy to pass their placement and gain the mentor's approval. This resulted in more time spent employing the mentor's teaching approach of using a technique drill followed by a short game at the end of the lesson. The implication of this finding suggests that student teachers experience competing educational philosophies whilst on placement and they are, as Lawson (1983b, p.4) claimed, 'caught between two worlds'. This will be a more significant effect for those teachers whose mentor's teaching style is consistent with their subjective warrant formed in acculturation (Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). Conflict between a student teacher and their mentor could result in them referring back to their strong beliefs from acculturation, which most probably would be the traditional approach (Curtner-Smith and Sofo, 2004; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lortie, 1975; Stran and Curtner-Smith, 2009). As such, this strengthens the acculturation phase and the perpetuation of traditional pedagogies. By comparison, the pre-service teachers made no mention of lecturers marking them whilst on placement and so did not report this inconsistency between their lecturer(s) and the placement mentors. Alternatively, several pre-service teachers described a personal conflict concerning their teaching approach that occurred with their mentor during feedback of their performance (as discussed in detail in Section 6.4.3). On the basis of this finding, it may be argued that the professional socialisation phase of the pre-service teachers changed their beliefs towards different teaching pedagogies, making them more receptive to implementing the lecturers' teaching approach whilst on placement. However, this approach was not favoured by some mentors and resulted in a personal conflict of opinions when the student teacher was criticised for using it. This could signify that although professional socialisation can be used to deconstruct the beliefs formed in acculturation it would require reinforcement of the innovative approaches during school placements.

The pre-service teachers detailed the numbers and types of placements that they had, which included both primary and secondary school experiences for the majority and a few having experience of SEND schools. The pre-service teachers spoke at length on their experiences, regarding them as significant and invaluable. The source of their negative placement experiences was associated with the impact of COVID-19 pandemic restrictions on the number of placements and the atypical experiences or enhanced pressures it put them under (this COVID-19 theme will be discussed in detail in section 6.4.3). Conversely, the number of placements was not a significant theme for the in-service teachers, with the majority omitting to comment on this detail. A possible

reason for the disparity between the two groups is the current career stage the participants are in. As this was a retrospective account for the in-service teachers it therefore may not have been a notable point to raise when they have had years of experience within schools. However, at the point of interview the pre-service teachers were in the process of undergoing these placements and their accounts may be more significantly impacted by this experience.

6.4 Occupational Socialisation- Organisational Socialisation

Organisational socialisation is the third phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory, when teachers learn on-the-job in a school and gain a fuller understanding of the role and responsibilities of being a teacher (Lawson, 1983a). A key discussion point with both groups of participants centred on school mentors, which had been previously categorised in Study 1 as a feature of the professional socialisation phase for the in-service teachers. For the purposes of this chapter, discussions on organisational socialisation will cover both the in-service teachers' post-qualification experiences within the school environment and include accounts of their placement mentors. However, in concordance with Study 3 this chapter will discuss the placement experiences and influences of the pre-service teachers as part of their organisational socialisation phase, as this was when they had begun to learn about the fuller teacher role. For this section, there were three main themes which emerged for this phase; interpersonal relationships, departmental ethos and the impact of COVID-19.

Interpersonal Relationships

The Study 1 participants had described their school placements as largely negative with the most cited reason being inconsistencies between their lecturer(s) and mentors' teaching philosophies, this was especially apparent during lesson observations as they resulted in inconsistencies in performance feedback. The majority of the in-service teachers had no knowledge of GBAs, though they had success using technique-based teaching on placement which was encouraged by their mentors. By comparison the placements were described as mostly positive by the Study 3 pre-service teachers with the majority reporting positive mentor relationships and describing feelings of openness and being supported. Unlike the in-service teachers, the pre-service teachers did have

knowledge of GBAs, however some had stated that their mentors dissuaded them from using the approach and they were downgraded in lesson observations where they had applied GBAs.

With both university and school having supervisory responsibilities for the student, this can result in the student feeling caught in the middle (Lawson, 1983b). The students can adopt a strategic compliance (Lacey, 1977) with the mentor's teaching approach as a survival strategy to pass their placements (Maynard, 2001), as evidenced with both groups of participants. Similarly, they might adopt studentship behaviours with their lecturers to pass their course, as particularly noticeable for the in-service teachers who detailed being graded by the lecturers whilst on placement but was not noted as a factor for the pre-service teachers during these situations. Student teachers may feel less able to question or challenge the practices of their school mentor and colleagues (Richards, Templin, and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1987) resulting in them adopting the custodial orientation of the institution. The teaching practices they observed in childhood are a primary comparator for future experiences, and if they align with those of the mentor this will serve to strengthen them further and innovative practices may be weakened (Curtner-Smith, 1999, 2001; Sofo and Curtner-Smith, 2010).

Another key discussion point for both groups of participants was their relationship with their colleagues and the impact this had on their teaching practice. The Study 1 in-service teachers described their current process of starting PE lessons with a warm-up followed by skill practices and a short game at the end as being similar to their colleagues, indicating a commonality in approach across their departments. The teachers made mixed comments on their own teaching practice, with some wanting to change but others satisfied as they felt their style aligned with their old-fashioned, long-serving colleagues, which they considered a successful approach. This suggests the technique-based approach is adhered to by the majority of the teachers and their colleagues, and thus have a limited openness to consider change. The pre-service teachers also reported mixed interactions with their colleagues, with some feeling a pressure to conform to their colleagues' teaching styles. However, in contrast, a number of the pre-service teachers described being supported by their colleagues in teaching using different styles. They also described how their colleagues valued the skills and experience the pre-service teachers brought from their early working experiences by asking them to teach specific PE lessons or to provide instruction for the teaching staff. Thus, a reciprocal learning and teaching environment was created and nurtured.

The experiences of both groups highlight the strong socialising effects of the school environment as a source of continuous institutionalised conformity based on established practices (Stroot and Ko, 2006; Tsangaridou, 2006). Previous studies have shown that the outcome of conflicts between a recruit and their lecturer, mentor or colleague is that the recruit concedes and complies with the custodial orientations to gain approval (see for example Maynard, 2001; Stroot and Ko, 2006; Tsangaridou, 2006). Research suggests that these custodial orientations can become internalised by the new teacher (Lawson, 1983a) and can result in the perpetuation of the technique-based approach (Capel, 2007). Furthermore, this finding corresponds to the literature on innovative pedagogies which indicates that colleagues' reluctance to change can be a barrier for their implementation in schools (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wang and Ha, 2013). However, of note, the experiences of the pre-service teachers illustrate a greater flexibility in their colleagues' influences compared to those described by the Study 1 participants. This may indicate a degree of willingness on the part of their colleagues to change their teaching practice. In addition, the willingness of their colleagues to consider alternative practices creates a supportive environment of openness with greater opportunities for the student teacher to utilise innovative approaches. Therefore, for the successful introduction of new pedagogical practices in schools, the support and encouragement of colleagues is a key factor (Brooker *et al.*, 2000; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Richards and Hemphill, 2017; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Wang and Ha, 2013).

A similarity across both groups of participants was the impact of pupils who were a major socialising factor and determinant on how the teachers adapted and taught their lessons. A significant difference between the two groups was that only the pre-service teachers commented on behavioural issues influencing their teaching. This difference may be a result of the pre-service teachers having fewer teaching experiences in a school setting. As the pre-service teachers are on placement, they will have less familiarity with the pupils in those schools and may feel a strong need for pupil management. A fear of loss of control of the class, a lack of confidence or an anticipation of behavioural issues were cited by the pre-service teachers as reasons for not using GBAs and reverting to a technique-based approach to ensure structure and order in the class. The pre-service teachers also assumed that their colleagues would share their concerns although this issue had not been raised as a significant theme by the Study 1 participants. On the other hand, a key similarity for

both the in-service and pre-service teachers was the theme of pupil ability and differentiating within PE lessons which were also determining factors on the application of alternative teaching approaches. The teachers often favoured using a technique-based approach over a GBA with less able pupils who were suggested to have a limited technical/practical prowess. This finding is explored in greater depth in section 6.4.4 Barriers to Implementing TGfU discussing teachers' lack of knowledge when implementing GBAs with differing ability pupils.

Both groups of participants described how perceptions of pupil ability defined lesson content, delivery, and assessment - a process which Curtner-Smith (1997) and Lawson (1986, 1988) suggested was aligned with pupil expectations. A significant theme for the pre-service teachers was that they voiced concerns with regard to pupil management as a reason for not teaching with GBAs, but behavioural issues were not discussed by the in-service teachers. Novice teachers can lack confidence in their teaching, but prioritising the management and control of pupil behaviours may prevent them from focusing on pupil learning (Randall, 2008; Templin, 1981) and deter them from teaching with GBAs. Larson (1986) suggested that as teachers gain in experience and maturity the influence of their pupils increases. The teacher's perceptions of their pupils act as a strong socialising factor (Lawson, 1988) on the teacher and influence them to consider, design, deliver and adopt PE teaching that is in line with the pupils' expectations (Curtner-Smith, 1997; Lawson, 1986, 1988). In addition, teachers may encounter pupil resistance to their teaching as the pupils have conditioned expectations of PE (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Harvey, 2016; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Pill, 2011; Pill, Swabey and Penney, 2017) which can lead to the wash out of teacher education (Lawson, 1989). The strong socialising effects of pupils on teachers may derive as a function of the teachers' personal motivation to engage pupils in PE, the extended periods of pupil contact and the geographical distance from their colleagues (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019; Stroot and Ko, 2006). Ultimately, the key components of the concerns arising from behavioural issues, pupils' abilities, and the teachers' abilities to differentiate them, led to the teachers selecting a particular teaching approach. As such, when introducing different teaching approaches into the curriculum, the potent effect of pupils must be considered.

Departmental Ethos

Whilst a UK school ethos might be regarded as being born from a Latin phrase on the school crest or

the governors' vision statement, it is a multi-faceted philosophy and culture for the institution. In the context of this study, the departmental ethos has a narrower definition to focus on the impact of external political and social pressures on the school and how teachers respond to them. This examines how the teachers view and interact with the NCPE to form the curriculum, and the place of PE within the school. The majority of the in-service teachers declared they had not looked at the NCPE in years and held negative opinions of it with regard to its brevity, stating it had little effect on how they taught. Despite five of the participant schools being Academies and therefore not required to teach the NCPE, this stance was also prevalent across the participants from schools mandated to teach the NCPE. This demonstrates a disregard for a key political policy and could indicate that a government directive of teaching through a specific approach would be met with resistance or inattention. Although the majority of the in-service teachers stated a primary aim of engaging pupils to participate in and enjoy physical activity, often this would be in conflict with the pressures upon the school to demonstrate progression and attain high pass levels in external examinations. In order to support the school goals, the teachers reported cutting back on school sport to focus on examination groups or cherry-picking more able students for GCSE PE.

The in-service teachers also utilised core PE time to offer a limited range of sports that were suitable for the GCSE practical assessment, with the intention of giving pupils more time to develop their skills and so attain better grades. Another outcome was that the majority of lesson time was technique-focused, with pupils being streamed into ability groups. As the in-service teachers had undergone positive Ofsted inspections, they saw no need to change their approach. One of the issues that emerges from these findings is that conflicting pressures within the school environment can result in role stress prioritising the school demands over personal philosophies and as a consequence may lead to future teacher burnout (Richards, 2015; Tsouloupas and Carson, 2017). Similarly, the resultant pressures may favour the custodial orientation of the institution, with teachers conforming or being reluctant to challenge these demands, reinforcing traditional pedagogies (Capel, 2007). The place of PE within the school and the support or opposition of policies and practices from SLT or the Head of PE are fundamental influences on these elements (Richards and Hemphill, 2017; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). These findings may help to understand that the school's political influence over the department is a significant socialisation factor contributing to the development and delivery of the PE curriculum and timetable.

By contrast, the pre-service teachers of Study 3 did not comment upon the NCPE or the balancing of demands for high GCSE grades against those of PE. This finding may be associated with the relatively short period of time that the pre-service teachers were in the school and the overwhelming impact of the COVID-19 pandemic giving less relevance to these aspects. Alternatively, the pre-service teachers may have been simply responding to the school practices as passed on to them by their colleagues, focusing primarily on the planning and delivering of lessons without needing to consider the wider issues and political agendas for education. This finding agrees with research involving pre-service teachers in England, where they suggested the lack of awareness and paucity of comments on the NCPE or educational policies was as a consequence of the participants preoccupation with daily aspects of teaching (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). Therefore, this points to pre-service teachers being relatively unaware of the political issues within the school environment, and this may only become an influential factor on their teaching practice once they are fully immersed within the school culture.

Impact of COVID-19

For this theme of the impact of COVID-19, there could be no direct comparison between the in-service and pre-service teachers as the Study 1 interviews had taken place prior to COVID-19 restrictions, and hence themes on COVID-19 could not form part of their narratives. The Study 2 in-service teachers had cited school closures and a higher workload resulting from the pandemic for being unable to participate further in this research. However, it could be suggested that some of these issues and pressures faced by the pre-service teachers might also be applicable to in-service teachers.

Although the pre-service teachers were very positive about their placements, the impact of COVID-19 restrictions on placements was a significant theme with reports of a number of negative aspects associated with the home-schooling/online learning system and the rigorous hygiene practices. These aspects determined their choice of teaching approaches during the restrictions and continued after they were lifted when they were required to prioritise fitness and agility over the NCPE curriculum, and the time allocated to gameplay. Disparities during lockdown of access to playmates/siblings, equipment or outdoor spaces coupled with limited online video PE provision resulted in stark differences in fitness levels, stamina and in subject knowledge and skills (AfPE,

2021; Youth Sport Trust, 2023) between the home-schooled and keyworker pupils.

During lockdown the pre-service teachers had reverted to the technique-based approach in preference to using TGfU, but the lifting of restrictions brought fewer opportunities to use and embed GBAs in their teaching practice. This reversion to custodial/traditional orientations may have become internalised (Lawson, 1983a), consolidating its dominant position in the pre-service teachers' beliefs. This could contribute towards strengthening a barrier to the future implementation of GBAs by reducing the pre-service teachers' openness to innovative pedagogies (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). Despite the difficulties encountered, a few of the pre-service teachers found some advantage from having a placement during COVID-19, as the situation had forced them to work flexibly and gave them more confidence in their teaching practice.

The body of literature investigating the effects of COVID-19 in schools has produced research in some areas; however, there are certain teaching contexts that have been under-researched for in-service and pre-service teachers, particularly in specific subjects and vocational qualifications (Howard, Khan and Lockyer, 2021). For example, pupils (acculturation phase) had diverse personal and schooling pandemic experiences including the relaxation of exam grading for PE qualifications (UCAS, 2020). For the cohort of pupils who subsequently entered the teaching profession, consideration would be needed to understand the broader impact of the pandemic on their socialisation (Howard, Khan and Lockyer, 2021) as lockdowns had also reduced access to sports clubs and thus coaching experience opportunities for them prior to attending university. Similarly, the university education and placements (professional socialisation phase) of current and future pre-service teachers may be affected in terms of provision and delivery. Finally, modifications to in-service teachers' teaching practices (organisational socialisation phase) as they sought to overcome the lingering effects of reduced activity, mental health concerns and capabilities in their pupils. Although the pandemic restrictions have concluded, the long-term recovery of the educational system is unclear (Howard, Khan and Lockyer, 2021) and may remain a barrier to the implementation of GBAs, with subsequent impact across all phases of Occupational Socialisation. Therefore, to provide a more detailed comparative analysis, future researchers will need to examine the impact of COVID-19 on teachers and the socialisation of future teachers.

6.5 Barriers to Implementing TGfU

The interviews from Study 1 with in-service teachers gave rise to five main barriers (11 sub-barriers) to the implementation of TGfU in schools, and were used to inform Study 2. These barriers were also found in the Study 3 analysis and formed the basis for a comparison with the interviews with the in-service teachers of Study 1 and 2. From the Study 2 focus groups and the Study 3 interviews further barriers were proposed, all of which could be categorised under the existing five barriers with two potentially being interpreted as new barriers due to the high emphasis placed on them by the teachers. The five main barriers that will be discussed below include: lack of knowledge, lack of understanding, lack of support, lack of time and reluctance to change before leading onto a discussion of the potential new barriers that were identified.

Lack of knowledge

During their acculturation phase the participants' memories of being taught using a technique-based approach differed, with the Study 1 in-service teachers recounting this being at secondary school whilst some of the pre-service participants stated this approach was used in their primary schools. Neither group commented on any other teaching approaches they were taught through, however, as they could not recall them during the interviews it could be interpreted as a strong lack of evidence for exposure to GBAs during childhood. Research has suggested that the subjective warrants of children are very powerful (Capel, 2007; Lortie, 1975; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014), so it might not seem unreasonable to infer from the lack of evidence in their accounts that any unrecalled exposure to GBAs in childhood was not influential. The testimonies of the in-service participants suggests that gymnastics and basic movements formed the majority of their primary curricula with games playing a minor role, and by extension indicates a lower requirement for teaching through GBAs. Although the GBA literature has been developing for wider activities and sports (for example Almond, 1986b; Launder, 2001; Launder and Piltz, 2013; Mauldon and Redfern, 1969; O'Connor, Alfrey and Penney, 2022) it is unlikely that their primary school teachers were aware of this. Memmert *et al.* (2015) stated that teachers had a limited accessibility to academic literature, which is supported by the in-service teachers of Study 2. The participants typically had access only to the UK TES website via their school and had commented upon the importance of cost and ease of accessibility for resources to inform teaching with GBAs.

Within the professional socialisation phase, there was a notable difference between the in-service and pre-service teachers in terms of their knowledge and training. Nine of the 10 pre-service teachers were able to recall theoretical lectures and practical sessions on GBAs. However, 13 of the 15 in-service teachers did not recall learning about GBAs from their PETE courses. This finding demonstrates that the majority of in-service teachers had a lack of training and subsequent knowledge in GBAs, whereas this was not a barrier for most of the pre-service teachers. Research has noted that teachers who are unfamiliar with GBAs can often struggle with its implementation (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Pill, 2011; Wang and Ha, 2009; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009) and this lack of knowledge could contribute to further barriers to TGfU. Innovative pedagogies, such as TGfU, are often introduced during PETE courses (Butler, 2005; Vollmer and Curtner-Smith, 2016; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). This finding could indicate an increasing shift over time towards teaching these approaches and could provide an explanation for why the pre-service teachers are knowledgeable in the approach.

Pupil ability was a perceived barrier for GBA implementation as both Study 1 and Study 3 participants lacked the knowledge of modifying games for differing abilities, instead reverting to a technique-based approach for differentiation. As most of the pre-service teachers had prior training of TGfU, this could also be a lack of understanding in the practical application of TGfU, or of a belief for skills as a prerequisite to games. Research within GBAs acknowledges this as a potential barrier for in-service and pre-service teachers who believe that the approach is more suited for higher ability or older pupils (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Pill, 2011). The authors of the TGfU model have previously contradicted these assertions by stating that the approach is applicable to all pupil abilities and stages as their developmental needs can be met through appropriate modification and adaptation of the game (Bunker and Thorpe, 1986a). In Study 2, the 6-week CPD brought significant improvement to the lack of knowledge barrier associated with the lack of training in how to apply TGfU post- versus pre-test. The lack of knowledge barrier regarding pupils of differing abilities did not significantly improve, as some of the teachers utilised a technique-based approach with pupils they felt lacked the physical and cognitive skills to cope with TGfU. However, many of the in-service teachers had observed that teaching through the game helped cater for differentiated pupil learning. Harvey and Jarrett (2014) had suggested that sustained improvements in applying a GBA were possible when support and training was continued

beyond initial introduction. Accordingly, to promote TGfU it is recommended that there is educational provision for pre-service and in-service teachers alongside demonstrations of the adaptability of GBAs with differing abilities and ages of pupils.

An additional two topics had arisen from the Study 2 focal group discussions namely, pupil assessment and application of the model across sports. The Study 3 pre-service teachers had commented on the difficulties of performing pupil assessment during the COVID-19 pandemic and elected to revert to the technique-based approach. As a consequence of the training, revised documentation and tools for pupil assessment provided in the Study 2 CPD event, this barrier was shown to have been reduced for the in-service teachers. This indicates that pre-service teachers may also benefit from the availability of assessment documentation and demonstrations of its applicability within different teaching contexts, to counter the lack of knowledge barrier. The Study 2 teachers had also discussed improvements in their knowledge during the 6-week CPD arising from applying the TGfU model to sports they were familiar with, yet they struggled to transfer their tactical knowledge across other sports. This finding highlights the importance of supporting teachers in their understanding for applying the games classification system (Almond, 1986b) to transfer learning from familiar sports, and how to grasp and transfer tactical concepts in other game categories.

Lack of understanding

A lack of understanding of GBAs was symbolic of most in-service teachers of Study 1, with their only introduction to the approach being through the brief written description of the model and underlying principles provided, which they were unable to fully comprehend how to extrapolate this theoretical information into practical application. Despite most of the Study 3 teachers having prior knowledge and practical experience of GBAs from their teacher education courses some still lacked an understanding of its practical application, believing they needed to teach the full version game or mini games which were devoid of focus on the decision-making and tactics. However, in Study 2 it was shown by the inferential statistics pre and post-test that the barrier, lack of understanding, decreased significantly over the 6-week CPD event, suggesting that these participants felt that with training and practice they could increase their proficiency at applying TGfU theory. Some of the Study 2 teachers had described the realisation of an initial overconfidence in rating their abilities

when they encountered difficulties at the beginning of course but observing success in their lessons improved their confidence. A lack of conceptual understanding is a barrier noted within the academic literature (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wright, McNeill and Fry, 2009). In some cases, the research has noted that teachers misunderstand the differences between the traditional behaviourist teaching approach and the game-based constructivist approach (Rossi *et al.*, 2007) which can result in teachers either reverting to a familiar approach, namely technique-based, or adapting the GBA to suit their understanding and beliefs (Barrett and Turner, 2000; Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Lund, Gurvitch and Metzler, 2008). To overcome this barrier, teachers require education of the differences between the approaches with support and time dedicated to aid in the model's application in schools.

A similarity seen in all three groups of participants was their shared lack of understanding of needing to teach the techniques/skills before teaching using a game. This barrier is an extension of the lack of knowledge teaching higher and lower ability pupils as the problem originates in determining which teaching approach to use with their pupils, but the reasoning why they favour one over the other is based on their degree of understanding of GBAs. Many teachers believe that pupils require competency in a range of skills to enable them to play a (full version) game (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Pill, 2011; Thorpe and Bunker, 1983; Wang and Ha, 2009) although some pupils may never acquire such competency (Bunker and Thorpe, 1986b). The teachers fail to grasp the concept of devising a modified game with similar primary rules that accommodates the competencies of the pupils so that the children can develop their technical skill set and transferable tactical awareness within a game-context. Despite their training in TGfU at the CPD event and subsequent practice time, the Study 2 teachers had favoured using modified games with older year groups as they retained the belief that the physical and mental capabilities of younger pupils precluded them from this approach. This finding confirms the work of a number of researchers (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Pill, 2011; Thorpe and Bunker, 1983; Wang and Ha, 2009) and, based upon the Study 3 participants' discussion, appears to have been amplified as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic situation.

For this barrier, the primary question that needs to be addressed is identifying what teachers' expectations for games are. Bunker and Thorpe (1986a, 1983b) argued that games are about problem solving and should be based on the needs and abilities of the pupils (Thorpe, Bunker and

Almond, 1986), but the prevailing expectations of teachers is that pupils must be equipped with sophisticated techniques in order to play a game. The potential reasons leading to this belief may include the historical development of the PE curriculum through military drills and team sports (Sullivan, 2021), implications of the degree level status of teachers and the emergence of courses such as Skill Acquisition (Bunker and Thorpe, 1986b). A further reason for the focus on technique-based approaches is that teachers believe that skill practices are easier to measure and quantify than gameplay when assessing pupil progression (Bunker and Thorpe, 1986b). However, if teachers have the mindset that pupils cannot play 'sports' without the technical competencies of the complex full version sport, then those children who may never be able to demonstrate these aspects will continue to fail and be denied games (Bunker and Thorpe, 1986b). Regardless of where the lack of understanding derives from in the teachers' education, the systemic issue is the steadfast perception (because of a lack of understanding) of a prerequisite for advanced physical capabilities. Thus, teachers require education to improve their game-knowledge and to comprehend their collective stratagems to be able to use them in ways that are appropriate for their pupils' abilities within the context of their expectations of PE.

Lack of support

The participants of Study 1 and Study 3 reported experiencing mixed messages from some of their lecturers with a few of the in-service teachers describing how the multi-disciplinary content of their course created inconsistencies in module content. Whereas the pre-service teachers commented on receiving positive feedback from one lecturer and criticism from another due to differences between the teaching pedagogies of lecturers. In accordance with previous research, the teachers adopted studentship behaviours to comply with the lecturer to pass the module(s) (Graber, 1991; Graber, Killian and Woods, 2017). A lack of support from lecturers is largely neglected within the TGfU literature as a result of the increased teaching of GBAs within PETE courses, however this thesis suggests it could be indicative of a possible barrier within UK Higher Education. Whilst the course content of a PETE course may adopt a non-versus approach to exposing student teachers to a number of teaching pedagogies, inconsistencies in this ethos indicates a lack of support from some lecturers. When traditional approaches are given preference in this way it can lead to a washing out of innovative practices as student teachers reflect on their prior experiences and conform to what is familiar to them from their acculturation phase (Capel, 2007; Curtner-Smith, 2009, 2017; Lawson, 1983a, 1983b). Therefore, it is recommended that lecturers provide a coherent and consistent

attitude for the effective uptake of GBAs within professional socialisation.

A key difference between the participants of these two studies was associated with their mentor relationships and the degree of support they received for their teaching style(s). Whilst the majority of the pre-service teachers described good relationships with their mentors a few, along with a more significant number of the in-service teachers, were less supported and adopted compliance strategies to appease them, resulting in teaching using a technique-based approach. The pre-service teachers also reported discouragement from their mentors and receiving poorer feedback when they taught using a GBA. The implication of this finding is that mentors play an important role in the adoption of teaching approaches which can heavily influence the way that the student teacher teaches (Capel, 2007; Lawson, 1983b) and can effectuate a restricted pedagogy. An opposition of views between the approach of the mentor and that of the student teacher (Lawson, 1983a, 1983b, 1989), typically behaviourist and constructivist respectively, can result in the student acquiescing to the mentor's teaching (Cushion, 2013; Graber, 1998; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Wright, McNeill and Butler, 2004). Herold and Waring (2018) found that having a supportive mentor facilitated the use of the TGfU model in practice. The mentor exerts such a powerful socialising effect over the student teacher that it can be used to provide the necessary encouragement to permit teaching of GBAs or alternatively, to make them conform to their teaching practice. Thus, for the successful implementation of GBAs the mentor must provide support to the student teacher or already teach using these approaches.

Comments from members of both groups of teachers indicated a pressure or desire to conform to a standard way of teaching in the school(s). This was evidenced by the in-service teachers who stated that they and their colleagues used a shared teaching style of a skills practice followed by a short game, and by the pre-service teachers who indicated a need to fit into their placement PE departments. Notably, in contrast to the other participants in this thesis, some of the pre-service teachers had found their colleagues to be supportive of them practising TGfU, which suggests that some schools are more open to assisting with student teachers' implementation of GBAs. The in-service teachers felt that a critical factor for adopting changes in teaching practices was the joint support of the Head of Department and colleagues, as TGfU would need to be able to balance the departmental goals with those of the school for it to be successfully implemented in PE lessons.

Those incumbent in leadership roles often favour traditional teaching practices, and through the desire for continuity of practice this attitude may cascade down to affect pre-service and new teachers entering the school with the perpetuation of technique-driven approaches (Stroot and Ko, 2006; Tsangaridou, 2006). In Study 2, the stipulation of the participation of a minimum of two colleagues was to mitigate the barrier of a lack of support from PE colleagues and to create a supportive community of practice. However, this aim was exceeded as for each school participating in Study 2, their Head of PE supported the research by joining the CPD course and adding the authority of their role. The scores for this barrier were low both pre- and post-test, and the inferential statistics had shown that there had been little change in the ratings from pre- to post-test, which may indicate that this aim was achieved. The Study 2 participants however, had concerns around a lack of familiarity with PE teaching and TGfU from the wider school, which identified an additional barrier of being observed by SLT or non-PE specialists. These individuals might base their assessment of the PE lesson on their own acculturation experiences and be less accepting of innovative unfamiliar approaches (Curtner-Smith, 2001).

Research suggests the lack of support is a cultural barrier for TGfU and can be one of the most significant impacting pre-service teachers (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). This is likely arising from contrasts between the PETE course and the school environment (Stolz and Pill, 2014). The influence from colleagues as a potential barrier to the implementation of TGfU has been addressed in the literature, and suggests that tensions could arise if there are conflicting teaching practices. Conversely, with collegial support and a shared culture the effective implementation of GBAs can be achieved (Brooker *et al.*, 2000; Jarrett and Light, 2018; Wang and Ha, 2013). From the participants' narratives, it is evident that the school and PE department create a culture of institutional conformity which can perpetuate the teaching of traditional pedagogies. Consequently, the school environment can encourage the implementation of innovative pedagogies by supporting new teachers engaging with teaching approaches outside the institutional norm, and by establishing curricula change within PE departments.

Lack of time

The main barrier, lack of time, has 2 sub-barriers which will be addressed separately, namely; lack of

time within lessons to teach GBAs and meet assessment targets, and lack of time for planning lessons. The majority of the accounts in the literature for the barrier, lack of time, are concerned with pre-service teachers which highlight their lack of familiarity with the approach (for example Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015). Similarly, as the Study 1 in-service teachers shared this inexperience of GBAs, for the purposes of this thesis these groups could be described as being comparable to each other. The majority of in-service teachers of Study 2 were initially new to TGfU, in contrast to the pre-service teachers of Study 3 who did have experience of the approach.

In Study 3, COVID-19 hygiene requirements had increased the setting up time, effectively reducing the time for teaching the lesson. The pre-service teachers, who had experience of GBAs, perceived a lack of time to implement TGfU and elected to use technique-based practices. The pre-service teachers felt that it would take longer for all the pupils to demonstrate the skills in game play and that the additional hygiene restrictions would exacerbate this, whereas skill practices would guarantee opportunities to observe all the pupils meeting assessment targets. Although, the literature suggests pre-service teachers frequently quote a lack of time for the preparation of TGfU (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Howarth, 2005; Li and Cruz, 2008; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Wang and Ha, 2009), it is unknown whether this would be the same for the participants of Study 3 external to COVID-19 limitations. The in-service teachers were unfamiliar with the TGfU approach and perceived that a lack of time in lessons was a barrier for them to effectively utilise GBAs. This finding corresponds with the literature, as Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon (2010) found that in-service teachers required lengthier organisational time as a result of the altered lesson dynamics. In addition, a lack of time within lessons for questioning, clarifying the rules of the games and for completing the planned activities have all been reported within the literature for teachers new to GBAs (Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez and Castejon, 2010; Gréhaigne, Wallian, and Godbout, 2005; Griffin and Butler, 2005; Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Howarth, 2005; McNeill *et al.*, 2004; Peters and Shuck, 2009; Wang and Ha, 2009). Notably, a significant decrease was measured in the sub-barrier, lack of time in lessons, after the 6-week CPD event for the Study 2 in-service teachers. The participants had commented that initially setting up was slower than normal though improvements were made as they persevered and gained familiarity. This finding demonstrates that the lack of time in lessons barrier can be reduced, as teachers become increasingly familiar with the approach and embed their learning within its practical application.

The barrier of a lack of time for GBA lesson planning was found to impact in-service teachers, but not those in pre-service. A likely reason for this is that the previous knowledge and training of GBAs from their teacher education courses will have provided the pre-service teachers with ideas and lesson activities. The amount of time required for planning is dependent in part upon the knowledge of the teacher, as those unfamiliar with the approach need more time to research and plan lessons (Gurvitch *et al.*, 2008; Wang and Ha, 2009). A significant decrease was measured in this sub-barrier as an outcome of the GBA training and practice obtained from the 6-week CPD event for the Study 2 participants. However, despite this training and the purposeful provision of both teaching resources and time for the participants to modify their teaching documentation during the Study 2 CPD event, the subsequent focus group discussions highlighted that this had not fully met their needs. Moreover, the teachers expressed a need for research time to investigate approaches with different sports, which may be associated with their other comments classified under a lack of knowledge. Their lack of familiarity with some sports had hampered their ability to transfer their knowledge of applying a GBA and required further time for research. In common with the participants of Study 1 and 3, the Study 2 teachers had also made recommendations for affordable resources such as GBA-format lesson plans. Therefore, teachers require sufficient time for the (re)structuring of their lesson plans to teach using a GBA and the provision of easily accessible resources to reduce time spent researching.

In designing the CPD event a compromise was made on the length of training time in an attempt to mitigate the effect of the overall degree of commitment such an event would require from the participants. However, although both sub-barriers related to a lack of time were decreased significantly, the teachers still felt that the two hours allocated for face-to-face training was insufficient to fully overcome these barriers and provide for all their needs. It is recommended that future studies implement a longer training time period to find the optimum, and that future research focus on understanding how much time teachers might require to make further inroads against this barrier.

Reluctance to change

There were similarities between the Study 1 and Study 3 teachers in terms of their personal reluctance to change their teaching approach from a technique-basis to a GBA. Both groups were

heavily influenced by their interpersonal relationships within the school particularly those of their mentors, colleagues, and pupils. The mentors and colleagues were strong socialising agents on the in-service and pre-service teachers, which resulted in their conformity with the schools' pedagogical practices. Notwithstanding the fact that the pre-service teachers demonstrated a greater willingness to teach through a GBA because of having knowledge and experience of the approach, the overriding pressures from school relationships led to a disregard of utilising GBAs in favour of fitting in. Additionally, the pre-service teachers had reported a reluctance to change in their practice due to concerns of pupils' behaviour and a fear of loss of control. In accordance with the literature and on par with the lack of support barrier, collegial solidarity will aid in the implementation of GBAs (Brooker *et al.*, 2000; Jarrett and Light, 2018; Wang and Ha, 2013). Teachers need a willingness to try new approaches (Betchel and O'Sullivan, 2007) as if change is forced, GBAs will encounter additional resistance. The gains in understanding and experience of success through experimentation with the TGfU approach is required for their beliefs to change.

A commonality among the in-service and pre-service teachers was their beliefs about colleagues' reluctance to change. Each described the current teaching approaches of some of their colleagues with particular reference to the 'older' and more 'traditional' members of staff. The teachers viewed these individuals, who often occupied leadership roles, as having success with the technique-based approach and subjected the participants to conform to their teaching practices. In common with the barrier of a lack of support from colleagues, this perpetuation of custodial approaches in schools has bearing on the new teachers joining the department, leading to institutional continuity of practice (Stroot and Ko, 2006; Tsangaridou, 2006). Of note, the pre-service teachers expanded upon their comments stating that as the pupils had a major influence on their practice and teaching approaches, it is possible this may also provide a reason for their colleagues' hesitation in adopting TGfU. This thesis finding is congruent with the academic literature in identifying colleagues and systemic reluctance to change as a barrier to the implementation of innovative pedagogies (Curtner-Smith, Hastie and Kinchin, 2008; Stran, Sinelnikov and Woodruff, 2012; Wang and Ha, 2013).

Study 2 effectively showed that the teachers were receptive to change by their commitment to a 6-week long trial of changing their teaching practices, and thus it might be plausible that a significant reduction in this barrier would not be anticipated. The study demonstrated that the teachers' initial uncertainty in the approach had been largely overcome as post-test they had spoken very positively

of TGfU and of wanting to continue with the approach. This finding supports the literature which suggests that teachers can become more satisfied with the approach when they have had sufficient time to apply and experience it. Overall, this barrier demonstrates that established members in the school, particularly those in leadership positions such as Head of Department, need to endorse the adoption of innovative practices such as GBAs. Moreover, it indicates that school teaching practices would need to shift from traditional approaches to innovative pedagogies as new teachers entering the institution will conform to the established practices, thus reducing the potential wash out of GBAs.

Additional barriers

Beyond the initial barriers identified by Study 1, the Study 2 in-service and Study 3 pre-service teachers raised four areas of concern including; a lack of knowledge/understanding of assessing using a GBA, lack of knowledge/understanding of the games classification system and modifying games, lack of confidence and fear of loss of control. The first two of these can be categorised under one of the initial barriers, 'lack of knowledge' or 'lack of understanding', depending upon their experiences and training of TGfU. The latter two could also fall under the 'lack of understanding (unsure how to apply the TGfU model into practice)' barrier or they may be categorised to be new barriers. The absence of these barriers from Study 1 with the in-service teachers could be attributed to the majority of them lacking any prior exposure to TGfU, and thus lacking any knowledge of TGfU and its application in practice.

Although for the pre-service teachers the first two barriers associated with pupil assessment and game modification were not explicitly stated within their interviews, they had emerged within the context of discussing the impact of COVID-19 on their teaching practice. The extent of the pre-service teachers' prior knowledge and understanding of GBAs is relatively unknown, with the topics of the games classification system (Almond, 1986b), assessment methods and adapting their games being inferred from their conversations. As their difficulties in applying the model and belief that skills/techniques need to be taught prior to gameplay had been previously categorised within lack of understanding (ability to modify games), it may suggest that these new sub-barriers also sit within the main barrier of a lack of understanding, rather than be perceived as a lack of knowledge. A fundamental issue around the games classification system (Thorpe, Bunker and Almond, 1986) was

also observed in Study 2 as although there was a reduction observed in the barrier lack of knowledge after the 6-week CPD event, some participants had lingering difficulties associated with knowledge transfer of tactics across games within the same category. However, the sub-barrier of pupil assessment was shown to have been reduced by addressing it directly in the 2-hour CPD workshop with the introduction of tools and time to modify documentation. The implications of these findings are that teachers may require greater sports-specific knowledge and/or a deeper understanding of how to apply the games classification system to be able to use GBAs effectively. Also, that teachers will require guidance and support on using appropriate GBA assessment tools to ensure they feel confident in applying them in practice. It is recommended that to overcome and categorise these barriers, greater depth of the discussion topics would need to be conducted in future interviews and research, and for teachers to be provided with education and experience in a wide range of concepts within GBAs.

The topics of fear of loss of control and lack of confidence were also discussed by the Study 2 participants who had commented how some pupils had occasionally misbehaved, which they attributed to the pupils feeling they were not learning and so had lost interest. Other comments had centred on the teachers' unease with the change from teacher-centred to student-centred lessons feeling less structured. They cited a lack of confidence due to their uncertainties with applying the approach, and of learning when to allow the pupils to discover things for themselves versus actively providing advice or guidance. However, the teachers had found their confidence growing with increased familiarity and success with the approach. The Study 3 pre-service teachers had also identified a feeling of loss of control and lack of confidence when implementing the model in practice. Whilst these feelings of unsurety may also have some grounding in their overall lack of teaching experience, these barriers have similarly been echoed within the literature suggesting teachers new to using GBAs often experience uncertainty in application of the approach. However, these feelings can reduce with time and practice (Butler, 1996; Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez, and Castejon, 2010; Gubacs-Collins, 2007; Mitchell, Oslin and Griffin, 2021). Whilst these two barriers could be categorised as sub-barriers under lack of understanding, as the participants of both Study 2 and Study 3 had stressed their importance by making a number of references to them, there could be sufficient evidence to categorise them as new main barriers. The implications of this are that with training, support and opportunities for practical application, the barriers of fear of loss of control and lack of confidence may be mitigated.

6.6 Facilitators to Implementing TGfU

All three groups of participants had provided recommendations of facilitators to extenuate the barriers to implementing TGfU in schools, and in Study 2 the researcher supported these with additional recommendations. The recommendations provided were often aimed at multiple barriers and so were categorised for each phase of Occupational Socialisation and then compared. It must be noted that as there is an inherent overlap and interrelationship between the phases of Occupational Socialisation, the recommendations for affecting change in one particular phase may also affect (an)other phase(s).

Acculturation

A key difference observed between the groups of participants was of suggestions for the acculturation phase, with the Study 1 and Study 2 in-service teachers offering no ideas to directly target this phase. The pre-service teachers stated that a facilitator to overcome the barriers to TGfU would be of an early exposure to GBAs for children, arguing that this could occur in primary or secondary school, but did not provide a clear preference for either. In terms of the barriers identified to TGfU, an early exposure during acculturation would affect prospective PE teachers by targeting their lack of knowledge of GBAs. Acculturation is a strong socialisation phase, and the subjective warrants of children are created from their experiences during this time. Implicit in this recommendation is that to harness the power of this stage teachers would require GBA training to be able to provide their pupils with an early exposure to GBAs during their acculturation phase. If an intention is to affect the children in their 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975), then GBA research and practice must consider the significant people in their lives who deliver PE. The provision of training in GBAs for pre-service (professional organisation) and in-service teachers (organisational socialisation) would in turn impact the acculturation phase of an upcoming generation of pupils.

Professional Socialisation

Recommendations to target the professional socialisation phase were similar from both Study 1 and Study 3 teachers however, the pre-service teachers had generally elaborated further with specific

details on their application in practice which afforded the researcher a deeper insight into the rationales for their facilitators. In contrast, the Study 2 in-service teachers did not provide any facilitator recommendations for this phase. Both the Study 3 pre-service and Study 1 in-service teachers' proposals included coherent and consistent messages from all lecturers to overcome the barrier of lack of support when implementing GBAs. The pre-service teachers built on this suggestion that it be re-iterated across modules and reinforced in subsequent years of ITT courses. To further embed innovative pedagogies and to address the barriers of lack of knowledge and lack of understanding, the pre-service teachers believed it would be beneficial for theoretical learning to be consolidated with opportunities to observe practice and importantly, to implement it themselves. A recommendation solely from the Study 1 in-service teachers was for a stronger partnership between the university and placement schools with a shared philosophy of teaching through the game. They desired extended learning opportunities that included a greater emphasis on pedagogical models. Arguably, these proposals have arisen from the teachers' personal negative placement experiences of being between the conflicting teaching approaches of their mentors and tutors, with a desire for it to be resolved by collaboration. The facilitators suggested by the in-service teachers would contribute to the minimisation of the barriers lack of support, lack of knowledge and lack of understanding. By extension, a reduction in these three barriers may also alleviate the barrier of reluctance to change.

One domain that only the pre-service teachers discussed was that of how to target primary school teaching using the professional socialisation phase to provide training in GBAs and facilitate its implementation in schools. The difference between the two (Study 1 and Study 3) groups of participants perceiving that the issue was compounded in the primary sector, may be related to their current career phase with the in-service teachers having numerous years of experience working in a secondary school setting, and hence may lack a strong awareness for primary ITT contexts. By comparison, the pre-service teachers have limited experiences in schools but with a considerable proportion of their teaching hours in primary schools. Such recent exposure to the primary school environment may have provided them with an awareness that was lacking for the in-service teachers. The pre-service teachers commented that primary school teachers have only a limited input on PE during their teacher education course, with many lacking confidence in delivering PE lessons. With only a brief introduction to teaching PE, primary school pre-service teachers may face the barriers of a lack of knowledge and lack of understanding of TGfU directly, and indirectly the barrier of a reluctance to change. The pre-service teachers had suggested modifying primary ITT to

allocate more time for student teachers to learn how to teach PE, as they believed that this would help to introduce and reinforce learning of pedagogical models such as GBAs.

Organisational Socialisation

There were a greater number of recommendations from the participants that targeted the organisational socialisation phase. These recommendations were aimed at overcoming all the five main barriers to TGfU encompassing lack of knowledge, lack of understanding, lack of time, lack of support and a reluctance to change.

The pre-service teachers advocated for an increase in the number of primary PE specialist teachers believing this would bring benefits to teaching PE in primary schools. They believed pupils would engage with and enjoy PE more if it was taught by a person who had a passion for the subject coupled with a deeper content and pedagogical knowledge. Notably, this recommendation for primary PE specialists was suggested only by the pre-service teachers. As the pre-service teachers had recent experience of working in primary schools during their placements, they could be more aware of the potential benefits. In contrast, the groups of in-service teachers who worked in secondary schools might be less acquainted with the issues of the primary educational setting. For the successful implementation of TGfU, the training of PE specialists would need to centre on the knowledge and application of GBAs which may underpin the reduction of the main barriers directly or indirectly. An early exposure to GBAs via a primary PE specialist could provide some level of understanding and knowledge for prospective teachers.

Additionally, the Study 3 participants had suggested that student teachers using GBAs require guidance and encouragement from school mentors and colleagues to help overcome the barriers of lack of knowledge, lack of understanding, and lack of support. Study 2 had demonstrated that the lack of support from colleagues' barrier was low when the Head of Department and colleagues were also using GBAs as part of their teaching repertoire. To mitigate the TGfU barriers of lack of knowledge, lack of understanding and lack of time in the organisational socialisation phase, all groups of teachers had tendered the suggestion of CPD courses, lesson plans and affordable resources for in-service teachers at all educational levels. The teachers suggested that these resources be advertised on social media platforms and teacher-centred websites for ease of access for professionals. Potentially attributable to their current career position, the pre-service teachers

extended this proposal to also target the professional socialisation phase to include access to the resources etc. for student teachers.

Both groups of in-service teachers had made proposals for inputs from GBA experts. The Study 1 teachers specified for NGBs with expert instructors to provide coaching awards that utilised GBAs and that could be accessed by both in-service and pre-service teachers. Similarly, the researcher had made a number of recommendations that had been endorsed by the Study 2 in-service teachers. These recommendations included extending the timeframe of CPD events beyond 6-weeks with a facilitating expert providing guidance to follow-up with any issues. Whilst the CPD event had been devised to lower the barriers to TGfU either initially or as it progressed, a lengthier period of coaching was felt to be required to embed the approach theoretically and in practice. The provision of these courses could impact a reduction in all the five main barriers; lack of knowledge, a lack of understanding, a lack of time, a lack of support and a reluctance to change.

6.7 Summary and Conclusions

This chapter compared in-service and pre-service teachers' socialisation throughout their lives, and the barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU. The focus of the chapter was firstly through a comparison of the teachers' key influences during the three phases of Occupational Socialisation (acculturation, professional socialisation and organisational socialisation) for Study 1 and Study 3. Secondly, a comparison of the barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU as discussed in all three studies. Current research frequently examines one of the groups in isolation however, there is a dearth of literature exploring and comparing the socialising factors in the lives of both pre-service and in-service teachers within the context of TGfU and the UK.

Support from significant individuals in the immediate family was important for encouraging engagement in sport, but further research is required to determine the impact of support from the wider family network. A significant theme in the testimonies from Study 1 and Study 3 was of a profound admiration for a PE teacher who provided the blueprint for their self-concept and inspired their career in the teaching profession. However, Study 1 highlighted a seemingly paradoxical notion

of a PE teacher as a negative role model motivated from a desire to create better experiences of PE for pupils. Inherent within the subjective warrants of the teachers may be the compelling effect of the powerful role model demonstrating traditional PE practices devoid of GBA influences and which could be resistive to deconstruction. A further significant difference between the two groups was a shift between traditional (Study 1) and non-traditional (Study 3) recruits (Zeichner and Gore, 1990) which may provide a greater variability in PE recruits' subjective warrants (Lawson, 1983b). This fundamental difference between the pre-service and in-service teachers is a key gap in the literature and requires further investigation in UK and global educational institutions to understand the impact on the implementation of GBAs.

The participants stated that their practical sessions were more effective learning experiences than their theoretical lectures, and how they had served to reinforce theoretical learning. In the absence of GBAs during acculturation, this serves to emphasise the importance of reiterative exposure during professional socialisation with theoretical content underpinning practical learning and teaching experiences within the university. The success of professional socialisation with PE teacher recruits is dependent upon the power dynamics between the subjective warrant of the individual pre-service teacher and the socialising agents within the university and placement provider. Pedagogical consensus from the teaching faculty and placement schools would strengthen the socialising impact of the professional socialisation phase in transforming the resistive subjective warrants of the PE teacher recruits, and support the implementation of innovative teaching approaches. Positive GBA-focused experiential opportunities during university education and placement may serve to enhance theoretical understanding, reducing the epistemological gap and facilitating the uptake of TGfU.

Within the organisational socialisation phase, both the Study 1 and Study 3 participants encountered socialising effects from colleagues, pupils and the school context which underpin the concept of a culture of institutional conformity pervading the school setting that determines a standard approach for teaching practice. Continuity of the institutions' established practices (Stroot and Ko, 2006; Tsangaridou, 2006) frequently results in a 'wash out' of the innovative approaches such as GBAs (Capel, 2007; Curtner-Smith, 2001; Lawson, 1989; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). However, some of the pre-service teachers encountered colleagues who were supportive of new ideas. This implies that cultural resistance may be weaker in some schools and that with collegial support, GBAs

may become more widely adopted. Pupils are strong socialising agents as lesson content, delivery and assessment are selected on the basis of their capabilities and the teacher's assumptions of their expectations and behaviours (Curtner-Smith, 1997; Lawson, 1986, 1988). By consistent exposure to GBAs the benefits of fun and engagement may be levered to acclimatise pupils to innovative teaching methods, and with observable improvements in class behaviour teachers can gain in confidence.

The Study 1 and Study 3 participants admitted limited engagement with the NCPE for their teaching practice. When coupled with the Study 1 participants seeing no need to change their teaching practice and the surge in numbers of Academies who are free to set their own curriculum, this suggests that any political changes to incorporate GBAs into PE may not be heeded. As the pandemic situation impacted the entire educational system, staff, pupils and students, research is required to investigate the enduring effects upon teachers, teacher socialisation and PE to understand the outcome for the implementation of GBAs. The political agenda of schools to achieve high exam results, as described in Study 1, have been exacerbated by the ensuing issues arising from the impact of COVID-19 to the detriment of PE, yet recognition of the benefits of GBAs could facilitate a positive step change.

The implications of this chapter suggest that the five main barriers prevalent for in-service and pre-service teachers need to be overcome to support the implementation of TGfU in schools- lack of knowledge, lack of understanding, lack of support, lack of time and reluctance of change. Study 2 and Study 3 gave rise to a further two barriers: a lack of confidence and a fear of loss of control which may be classified under lack of understanding or, due to the high emphasis, may be new main barriers. In order to effectively investigate targeting their reduction, it is imperative to carefully identify and understand the core essence underpinning the barriers to TGfU.

Key recommendations to overcome the barriers to TGfU were provided in accordance with each of the phases of Occupational Socialisation. Targeting current teachers within the school would ensure an early exposure to GBAs within the acculturation of prospective teachers. The participants stated that innovative pedagogies be reinforced throughout the duration of ITT courses with consistent

cross-modular messages on GBAs from tutors and mentors, supported by practical opportunities both within the university and on placements. A further suggestion aimed at the professional socialisation stage was an increase in hours on primary ITT courses to focus on PE teaching and GBAs. The intention was two-fold; to bring improvements in primary PE and to encourage the development of PE specialists with knowledge of GBAs. Recommendations for the organisational socialisation phase centred on CPD courses to provide in-depth training, and teaching resources with access and lesson plans provided via teacher-centred websites. An additional suggestion was for NGBs to integrate GBAs into their coaching awards with delivery supported by expert instructors, who could provide teachers with guidance and necessary reassurance in their implementation.

Overall, the study identified a number of similarities and differences across each phase of Occupational Socialisation and for the barriers and facilitators of implementing TGfU for teachers. The comparison demonstrated that the organisational socialisation phase was the most dominant for affecting current teaching practice which is in conflict with previous research, such as Lortie (1975) who suggest acculturation is stronger. The influences within the organisational socialisation phase may cause the teachers to conform to the institutional practices as noted in the second assumption of Occupational Socialisation Theory (Lawson, 1983a). Key factors within this thesis are that the phases do not exist in discrete isolation but intersect with one another, and that the influences accrued at each phase can shape the individual's teaching practices. It is suggested that future researchers take this into consideration when they plan and structure their investigations. The pre-service teachers' narratives were complicated by the unshared factor of COVID-19 that cannot be fully disentangled to enable an analysis of the situational impact in isolation. These findings serve as emphasis to confirm that teachers need collegial support, time, training, and practice to reduce the barriers to teaching with TGfU. Future investigations need to adopt a judicious approach when interviewing teachers to facilitate a deeper understanding of the nuances within the barriers and sub-barriers to TGfU.

CHAPTER 7: Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Overview

The aim of this thesis was to provide evidence that can inform the future approaches of PE teachers when using a TGfU approach. Three studies were presented; Studies 1 and 2 focused on in-service teachers' interpretation and implementation of TGfU, Study 3 focused on pre-service teachers' influences and beliefs about the implementation of TGfU in PE.

In Study 1, a qualitative approach was used to examine in-service teachers' key influences and beliefs, underpinned by the three phases of the Occupational Socialisation Theory. In addition, Study 1 classified the in-service PE teachers' perceived barriers preventing the utilisation of TGfU, as well as providing recommendations to promote the model's employment. Study 2 utilised a mixed methods approach to train in-service teachers to implement TGfU in core PE lessons and evaluated the success of the training based upon the reduction of the barriers identified in Study 1. Study 3 employed a qualitative approach to identify the influences that impact pre-service teachers' socialisation and to ascertain the barriers preventing the teachers' use of TGfU, in addition to facilitators to overcome these barriers. The discussion chapter compared the results of these studies to existing literature and discussed their implications for theory and practice. This final chapter will provide a thesis summary, discuss the strengths and limitations of the thesis, and offer future avenues for research and practice.

7.2 Summary

Study 1 and Study 3 offered an understanding of the socialising influences for in-service and pre-service teachers respectively, and their perceived barriers and facilitators for the implementation of TGfU. Study 2 expanded upon the knowledge accrued from Study 1 to design a 6-week CPD for in-service teachers from five Academy schools to aid in the reduction of TGfU barriers. With the ongoing changes to the educational landscape in the UK, particularly from the increase in numbers

of Academy schools, the developments in ITT, the demand for an increase in status for PE in the National Curriculum and the repercussions of COVID-19, school-based research is pivotal to understanding the potential impact on teachers' socialisation and the use of TGfU. Within this thesis the first and fourth assumptions of Occupational Socialisation Theory, that teacher socialisation is a lifelong process time-orientated continuum described in three overlapping phases, were used as a framework to investigate the barriers to the implementation of TGfU in schools. The three phases of acculturation, professional socialisation and organisational socialisation are used in summarising these findings whilst also considering them with regard to the remaining three assumptions of this theory.

Evidence acquired throughout this thesis supports the notion that the phases of Occupational Socialisation Theory intertwine. While sometimes inferred as standalone, Lawson (1983a, 1986) opined that these phases can often be experienced simultaneously, and it is difficult to account for an individual's behaviour within a single phase. For example, throughout the 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975) of acculturation, children are exposed to a wide range of significant individuals- such as parents, family members, coaches, and teachers- who shape their beliefs about PE and sport. These beliefs are extended during the subsequent phases, as seen with the participants in Study 1 and Study 3, to form a picture of what a PE teacher is and does. The overlap of the phases was evidenced most notably with the Study 3 pre-service teachers who experienced both professional socialisation and organisational socialisation through their university-based learning and their field-based placements respectively. This finding has been supported by previous studies (see for example Lawson, 1983b; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014).

A key finding of this thesis was the increasing overlap observed between the phases of acculturation and organisational socialisation as a consequence of the early work experiences of the Study 3 pre-service teachers. With UK Higher Education striving for more experienced teacher recruits (UCAS, 2022a), this results in a greater intersection of the phases of Occupational Socialisation which will impact the variability of subjective warrants (Lawson, 1983b; Zeichner and Gore, 1990). This thesis highlighted this phenomenon as a significant factor within the educational system of England, yet there is a paucity of research in the body of literature. The incorporation of innovative pedagogies, such as GBAs, have reported outcomes of developing teachers to become more knowledgeable and adaptable in their teaching practice. When conducting research, researchers need to consider the

interplay between these influences and the Occupational Socialisation phases of acculturation and organisational socialisation, to understand how they will contribute to the formation of knowledge and teaching practices.

The findings of this thesis complement those of earlier studies which suggest that acculturation is a strong socialisation phase whilst professional socialisation is comparatively weaker (Curtner-Smith, 1999; Lortie, 1975; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014; Schempp, 1989; Sinelnikov and Hastie, 2017). This thesis found that organisational socialisation appears to be the dominant phase by virtue of its greater impact on current teaching practice. This is in contrast to Lortie (1975) for example, who noted acculturation was the most influential phase. Schools are social institutions and as such their members and the environment give rise to socialising pressures that act to shape the accepted roles, behaviours, and beliefs with the aim of perpetuating the culture of the institution. As evidenced throughout this thesis, the influences of colleagues, pupils and the school environment result in the participants conforming to the established pedagogies of the institution and perpetuating the technique-based approach. These findings demonstrate Lawson's (1983a) second assumption that practices are institutionalised, attempting social control and the reproduction of PE teaching approaches.

Further, Lawson's third assumption of Occupational Socialisation Theory states that the socialisation of teachers is problematic and not automatic (Lawson, 1986). The influence of mentors, particularly in Study 3, highlighted that the participants were faced with three potential socialisation strategies and adopted strategic compliance (Lacey, 1977). This allowed them to follow their mentors' teaching practices of using the technique-based approach, whilst retaining their private reservations of favouring GBAs. This 'middle of the fence' outcome allowed the participants to accept the socialisation on a short-term basis, to later determine whether the beliefs would become internalised (Etheridge, 1989; Lawson, 1983a). While this thesis demonstrated the third assumption, that teacher socialisation is problematic, the participants in Study 1, 2 and 3 commented on having deferred to the strength of the socialising factors of organisational socialisation, by responding to the culture of institutionalised conformity with the continuation of the traditional pedagogical approach. For the successful implementation of TGfU, there needs to be a focus on transforming these habitual practices by targeting the school context and by extension, the key influencers within this environment.

The fifth assumption of Occupational Socialisation Theory centres on the judgements of effective socialising practices being inextricably linked to the judge and the situation (Lawson, 1983a). The opinion of the person making the judgement will be affected by their accumulated historical perspectives and experiences. The situations and decisions made by the participants of this thesis can be considered through the lens of this fifth assumption. For example, this was demonstrated by the Study 2 in-service teachers' recognition that they can achieve similar or better lesson outcomes and pupil engagement when using a TGfU approach in comparison to the technique-based approach. Notably this fifth assumption was also indicated by the pre-service teachers during the COVID-19 pandemic when faced with challenges in maintaining hygiene practices and social distancing measures. Although the pre-service teachers had experience of both traditional teaching pedagogies and GBAs, they considered a technique-based approach to be more effective based upon these restrictions. Similar to the findings within Study 1 and 3 there needs to be consideration of what expectations PE teachers have for their pupils. For example, a teacher may decide that the purpose of PE is it to measure and see improvements in techniques, to play full version games, a requirement to teach techniques prior to game play, good exam results, full engagement etc. Knowledge of this will in turn allow for a greater understanding of what is deemed effective PE and provide an awareness of the teachers' choices of teaching approaches. However, by adopting a TGfU approach, this may supplement or else expand upon the available opportunities to the benefit of teachers and pupils alike.

Based upon the findings of this thesis, targeting the organisational socialisation phase of Occupational Socialisation Theory is necessary to enact change within the school environment and teaching practice. This is similarly supported by Richards and Hemphill (2017) who opined that for a paradigm shift to occur in schools, in-service teachers need to be leading the way. Targeting in-service teachers during the organisational socialisation phase will in turn impact the acculturation phase of prospective PE teachers and have bearing upon the field-based experiences of student teachers in their professional socialisation phase (Richards *et al.*, 2021). The cascading effect may be expected to create a cycle of influences which will aid in the deconstruction of the long-standing beliefs about traditional pedagogies, and provide an opening to introduce innovative practices such as GBAs and TGfU.

Evidence acquired throughout this thesis initially identified five primary barriers affecting the implementation of TGfU within schools, namely, lack of knowledge, lack of understanding, lack of time, lack of support and reluctance to change. Participants across all three studies of the thesis encountered these in some form during their lives and teaching experiences. Findings from Study 2 through a pre-post evaluation study demonstrated an ability to reduce some of these primary barriers with in-service teachers during a 2-hour CPD and 6-week teaching practice. Despite the alleviation of some of the barriers, the study found that further investigation and training is required to embed the changes into teaching practice. Another two potential primary barriers had arisen in the Study 2 focus groups post 6-week CPD and were correspondingly highlighted in Study 3, namely the lack of confidence and a fear of loss of control. Furthermore, the discussion chapter ascertained the similarities and differences between the in-service and pre-service teachers' barriers, which provided additional insight and explanation of the restrictions impacting the uptake and implementation of TGfU with teachers in England. Examination of the body of literature relating to barriers to the implementation of GBAs shows that researchers tend to focus on a single category, focusing on either in-service teachers or pre-service teachers, and rarely provide a comparison of the perceptions of both groups. Therefore, an identification of the primary barriers to implementing TGfU with both categories of teachers has contributed to filling a key gap in the literature for schools in England.

This thesis affirms the role of the PE teacher as a significant influence on the socialisation of prospective teachers, and thus on the implementation of TGfU in schools. To support the adoption of TGfU, PE teachers require early exposure and training of the model which can have bearing on the acculturation phase of prospective teachers, the education of student teachers during professional socialisation and on in-service teachers in the organisational socialisation phase. To achieve this, pre-service teachers require the knowledge and understanding of GBAs from their primary and secondary education ITT courses. Similarly, to avoid the wash out of innovative approaches within the school environment, it is recommended that TGfU professional development training courses for in-service teachers be devised to equip them with the necessary knowledge, skills and experience of the approach. The provision of education for in-service teachers within primary and secondary schools may in turn support the early exposure to TGfU for prospective PE teachers. Further, a PE specialist with GBA training would be preferred in primary schools, however this may not be achievable as many UK primary schools use external providers for PE lessons. Therefore, the incorporation of GBAs into NGB awards would provide an alternative means for educating

individuals who work in the teaching and coaching of children. These initiatives could form the basis of published peer-reviewed research studies and offer support to organisations such as the AfPE, to provide guidance for the successful implementation of TGfU and GBAs in schools.

7.3 Strengths

This thesis has a number of strengths namely; theoretical basis, models-based pedagogy, research methodology, validity and the generalisability of the findings.

Theoretical Basis

A key strength of this thesis is the theoretical underpinning of Occupational Socialisation Theory which was used to explore the teachers' influences and their resulting beliefs about GBAs. This theory was selected on the basis of its over 40 years provenance in the field of research (Capel, 2007; Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019). The body of literature for Occupational Socialisation Theory encompasses over 120 studies, with an emphasis on qualitative methodologies, which have explored the socialisation of PE teachers and investigated the implementation of pedagogical models (Richards and Gaudreault, 2017; Richards, Pennington and Sinelnikov, 2019; Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014). These aspects demonstrate the suitability of using Occupational Socialisation Theory as a framework for this research.

Models-Based Pedagogy

GBAs and TGfU have a long pedigree of international research and implementation in schools, universities, and coaching contexts where it has demonstrable benefits for pupils, students, and athletes. Over the last 40 years, the volume of models-based pedagogy reported in the literature has been increasing in rate (Gambles and Griffin, 2023; Ovens, Gutierrez and Butler, 2021) with academic research into GBAs conducted in numerous countries including Australia, Canada, Greece, Portugal, Singapore, Spain, the UK, and the USA. For example, the TGfU SIG has over 23 International Advisory Board (IAB) member countries showcasing their work and disseminating GBA activities

(Gambles *et al.*, 2022). Whilst GBAs have a strong research base, TGfU was particularly chosen for the studies in this thesis as the Curriculum Model spearheaded global interest and uptake of these pedagogies (Gambles and Griffin, 2023). This decision was based on the greater likelihood that the participants had some familiarity with TGfU as its origins are in the UK (Bunker and Thorpe, 1982).

Research Methodology

The two dominant paradigms of research methodology are quantitative and qualitative, with mixed methods being a combination of the methods and procedures of the two approaches. Quantitative research methods employ the systematic and objective collection of data in the form of measures of inferences or variables that can be mathematically analysed, whereas qualitative methodologies are used to discover trends or to make predictions about events or behaviours (Queirós, Faria and Almeida, 2017). This thesis employs the mixed methods basis of acquiring qualitative data to identify and comprehend barriers to the implementation of TGfU, and quantitative methodologies for measuring the teachers' opinions of the potency of each of the barriers.

In Study 1 and Study 3, the use of semi-structured interview questions allowed for a degree of flexibility or adaptability to uncover socialising influences from the three phases of Occupational Socialisation and identify barriers to GBAs. The discussions utilised thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006), a well-established method for analysing qualitative data to explore and examine complex areas of research. In Study 2, a series of questions structured around the barriers to implementing TGfU were used to devise a pre-post-test Likert scale questionnaire to provide subjective numerical estimations for statistical evaluation of significant changes arising from the 6-week CPD event. This numerical data was complemented with a rich insight into teachers' subjective actualities and meanings. The expressive teachers' accounts from the interviews and focus groups across the thesis, articulated the context and concepts of their environments and experiences to clarify complex issues and guide the direction of the research. The strength of using a mixed methodological approach in this thesis provided a more comprehensive assessment of the data (McNeill and Chapman, 2005) over employing a single (qualitative or quantitative) approach (Choy, 2014 cited in Queirós, Faria and Almeida, 2017).

Validity and Generalisability

Validity, in its various forms, is a term that can be applied to research instruments, research and subsequent findings (Andrade, 2018) and 'refers to the problem of whether the data collected is a true picture of what is being studied' (McNeill and Chapman, 2005, p.9). The two main types of validity - internal and external - can be further divided into a number of subtypes. Internal and external validity have been described as a 'zero-sum game', where one side gains by the loss of the other, although attempts in research have been made to have both high internal and high external validity in research design (Laursen, Card and Little, 2012, p.250). Internal validity refers to the design, performance, and conclusions of the study (Andrade, 2018) and thus the extent to which the behaviours and findings are resultant from the intervention of the experiment or by 'confounding factors' (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.280). The validity of a study may be defined in terms of how findings derived from the participants of a study may also be observed for comparable individuals outside the study and is expressed as its external validity (Braun and Clarke, 2006). External validity is based on judgement and refers to how generalisable the findings of a study are to a wider population or contexts (Andrade, 2018). External validity encompasses population validity and ecological validity, which are strengths of this thesis.

The extent of the similarity between the study participants, the population they were drawn from and the target population to which the results of the research study are to be generalised is termed the population validity (Garner, Kawulich and Wagner, 2012). Therefore, the more that a group shares attributes and backgrounds that are representative of the target population as a whole, the higher the confidence in the generalisability of the research study findings. Population validity is affected by the degrees of representativeness and heterogeneity or characteristics of the participants (Springer, 2009). Research into the socialisation of pre-service and in-service teachers has been recommended in the literature (Richards, Templin and Graber, 2014), with emphasis on a diversity in participants' contexts, training, experiences etc. (O'Leary, 2016). The majority of articles that have utilised Occupational Socialisation Theory to research the implementation of TGfU in the UK had fewer than five participants (see, for example, O'Leary, 2016; O'Leary, Longmore and Medcalf, 2014). However, the three studies in this thesis had 15, 17 and 10 participants, respectively. This has provided data on the socialising aspects and perspectives of a total of 42 teachers for exploration and analysis. In addition, the existing research has mainly focused on either

pre-service or in-service teachers whereas this thesis has examined and compared both categories of teachers, allowing for a greater awareness of potential differences, similarities, and perceptions. Of note is that this research has been used to capture the potentially new beliefs of non-traditional ITT students, which is pre-service teachers who have early working experiences accrued during their acculturation phase. These early experiences are becoming increasingly prevalent in recruits to the profession (UCAS, 2022a; Valentine and Keating, 2020) and an exploration of these influences is required to understand their socialising effects. The factors of larger participant group sizes with variations in ages, gender, routes to qualification, career stage, workplaces and working experiences etc. suggests that the study recruits in this thesis may have a wide range of backgrounds and experiences. This indicates that the thesis exhibits a greater degree of population validity than some of the earlier research in this area and adds to the strength of this thesis.

Ecological validity, another subtype of external validity, is an assessment of how generalisable the findings of a study are to real-life contexts (Andrade, 2018) as it is concerned with the extent of the interrelationship between the research context or setting and the resultant behaviour (Brewer, 2000 cited in Rovai, Baker and Ponton, 2013). The closer the test environment is to the realistic setting, and/or the less that it is manipulated, the greater the ecological validity of the study, and thus the findings of the study may be more generalisable to real-life contexts (Brooks and Baumeister, 1977 cited in Rovai, Baker and Ponton, 2013). In Study 2 of this thesis, the participants conducted their practice of TGfU with their own pupils as part of their core PE lessons and within their normal school environment. As this is their naturalistic context, in contrast to occurring under some atypical conditions, this may confer a higher degree of ecological validity to the study and indicate the possibility of a wider extrapolation to people outside the population in the studies.

7.4 Limitations

Sample, Participant Time and Commitment

Limitations common to the three studies are discussed below. Despite best efforts, it must be noted that across the thesis the sample diversity and characteristics were largely dictated to by the requirements for teachers' time and commitment constraints. Although as stated above, the

participant numbers for this thesis were higher than those observed in the body of literature, the extrapolation of findings should also be regarded in terms of the difficulties that had been encountered in recruiting, and the limited sourcing area which could have affected the diversity of the participant groups.

To recruit in-service teachers for Study 1, schools within the geographical area of Yorkshire were emailed directly requesting participants, with this being expanded to include Greater Manchester and North-East England for Study 2. This limited geographical area was targeted on the basis of accessibility from the researcher's home, taking into account travel distances, train lines etc. Although 133 schools were approached for Study 1 and 286 schools for Study 2, difficulties were experienced in obtaining recruits, with a high percentage of schools and participants failing to respond. The reasons for the failure to reply can only be speculated upon but may include those expressed by the respondent schools that had declined to participate. The reasons are likely to be a lack of time due to heavy workloads and/or a reluctance to change/engage with GBAs.

The requirement for pre-service teachers in Study 3 had dictated a different and multifarious strategy for participant recruitment to that employed within the earlier studies. Further, the timing of Study 3 was significant in that the COVID-19 pandemic had accelerated utilisation of online platforms for meetings and teaching which both negated the need to consider travelling distances to participants and meant that participants would be comfortable using Microsoft Teams or Zoom. The researcher utilised their personal Twitter social media contacts for known practitioners of TGfU in England including academics and lecturers with backgrounds in PE, sports, or teacher training. The TGfU SIG Twitter social media account was also employed in an all-encompassing sweep, calling for pre-service teachers in England to participate. Although this wide net covered over 4300 contacts or followers globally with the possibility for greater spread from any subsequent re-tweets, difficulties were again encountered in recruiting participants from beyond the North of England. Both the limited sourcing area and the number of respondents for all three studies will have some bearing on the diversity of the participants, and thus upon the extrapolation of findings to the wider UK teaching community.

The number of recruits for each of the three studies were affected by participants citing issues that

centred on time constraints. Study 1 recruitment was limited by some schools refusing to participate on the grounds of a lack of time for the semi-structured interviews. As the requirements for Study 2 were more demanding than for Study 1 and Study 3, a larger pool of schools had been contacted with requests for participants. However, towards the end of Study 2 the importance of availability of time was further evidenced when one of the participating schools had to withdraw after being unable to commit to the final 45-minute focus group. Whilst the majority of pre-service teachers in Study 3 had experienced placements in both primary and secondary schools, a few had been unable to gain experience at a secondary school due to school closures and heavy mentor/teacher workloads as an impact of on-going COVID-19 restrictions. This can be perceived as time constraints for secondary school placements during their ITT course which resulted in a limited number of responses being provided on their perception of barriers to TGfU in secondary PE settings.

Another sample limitation of this thesis is to recognise that although Study 1 and Study 2 consisted of in-service teachers, no individuals participated in both studies. The recruitment of Study 1 participants into Study 2 would have allowed the researcher to consider the data-rich contexts from the participants' socialisation processes, derived from semi-structured interviews, within the framework of the 6-week CPD. A more comprehensive history of the socialisation of the participants may have provided insights into potential aspects for mitigating the barriers to implementing TGfU. However, including preliminary Occupational Socialisation interviews with all the participants of Study 2 would have added to the heavy time burden already imposed which may have reduced the number of participants, and hence the diversity further. Responses from the Study 2 in-service teachers are likely to have differed based upon each individual's personal backgrounds and socialisation, which was a limitation of this study as they were not recorded beyond the demographic questionnaire.

Study 2 CPD Design

The literature advocates for CPD sessions to include a greater number of contact hours and preferably be designed as longitudinal studies to be effective in the prolonged use of GBAs (Guskey, 2002; Harvey and Jarrett, 2014; Parry, 2014). Similar to the comments of Armour and Yelling (2004b), securing time with in-service teachers can be difficult and therefore, Study 2 had to consider an achievable timetable based on the teachers' availability and context. The CPD

workshops were scheduled out of school hours, adding to the degree of commitment required and which may have impacted upon the selection of participants. These limitations resulted in a relatively short 2-hour CPD workshop followed by an average school half term teaching practice of six weeks. A further rigorous stipulation that may have limited uptake was for the joint participation of a minimum of two colleagues from each school.

Focus groups

All the focus groups consisted of the Head of Department jointly with between one and four of their colleagues, depending upon the numbers of participating staff members. The literature describes a number of potential weaknesses in the data derived from focus group research including the group dynamics, the effects of dominant individuals, and attitudes towards the researcher (Smithson, 2000). Both individual interviews and focus groups can give rise to normative responses that are socially acceptable or assumed to be in common with the researcher's viewpoint (Smithson, 2000). However, peer group disapproval may exacerbate the problem of controversial perspectives not being discussed in focus groups (Smithson, 2000). The context of the focus group being set within the workplace could have had an effect on the participants' willingness to have spoken openly and which may have had greater significance with speaking in front of colleagues and the Head of Department. The teachers may have chosen to self-censor or withhold their personal opinions to avoid conflict or challenging colleagues including their Head of Department who might hold a differing opinion. These aspects were potential limitations of this data collection method and of this thesis.

Impact of COVID-19

The emergence and impact of the COVID-19 pandemic during this thesis caused limitations to its direction. At the conclusion of Study 2 (the end of 2019), the intention was for Study 3 to focus on one school from Study 2 who would teach a single year group using a GBA curriculum. However, during the planning phase of Study 3 the COVID-19 pandemic occurred, which halted the continuation of the study whilst the impact on the thesis could be assessed, and a decision made on its direction. The COVID-19 pandemic resulted in school closures, increased workloads for staff, and changes to the curriculum with a major shift toward online teaching. This impacted the in-service teachers who were unable to participate in Study 3 and, through the new direction of the thesis,

affected several of the pre-service teachers who had restricted opportunities for teaching in secondary schools. An outcome of the pre-service teachers' limited teaching experiences may have been that their suggestions for the barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU were based upon issues in primary schools and an unfamiliarity of the wider educational situation. GBA research and practice will need to reflect on the short and long-term impact of COVID-19 on the teachers and the curriculum, with a particular focus on minimising this as a potential barrier to the implementation of TGfU and considering alternative practices to avoid major impacts arising from any future incidences. Whilst it is recognised that GBAs are limited in their uptake, a failure to account for the additional barrier(s) brought about by the aftermath of COVID-19 will only further impede their application in schools.

Teacher Autonomy and Measurement errors

Within Study 2, the teachers were requested to incorporate a TGfU lesson into their practice for a minimum of one-hour per week for six weeks. To encourage the teachers to utilise and experiment with the pedagogy, no further constraints were specified. During the focus groups, the majority of the teachers commented on teaching above the minimum requirement however, there was no specification on the total number of hours they had elected to teach using TGfU. Similarly, the teachers were given autonomy on which pupil groups and sports they could utilise TGfU with. This less restrictive approach was spoken of positively during the focus groups as it gave the teachers flexibility to experiment and is in accordance with the underlying philosophy of the NCPE (DfE, 2013). Factors that may have influenced the teachers' decisions on who, when and what to teach include their sport-specific content knowledge, available pupil groups, pupil abilities, the facilities available within the school, the curriculum and the teacher's confidence in applying TGfU. As teachers can gain in confidence with practice through a GBA (Butler, 1996; Diaz-Cueto, Hernandez-Alvarez, and Castejon, 2010; Gubacs-Collins, 2007; Mitchell, Oslin and Griffin, 2021), it is therefore unknown how these points have impacted their ability and perceptions of teaching TGfU and by extension a reduction in the barriers to implementation. Whilst the flexibility awarded was initially perceived by the teachers as positive because of the freedoms in making choices, the limiting factor for the study was that this led to an inconsistent approach to TGfU delivery with mixed experiences across all participants and schools.

During the Study 2 teacher focus groups, some staff proclaimed that when completing questionnaire 1 they may have been overconfident in their abilities and practices, initially assigning lower values to the TGfU barriers. With little to no prior knowledge of teaching using GBAs, the pre-test questions had required the teachers to speculate regarding the extent of the barriers to TGfU. These judgements may have been subject to a cognitive bias such as the Dunning-Kruger effect, where a person has a low self-awareness of their ignorance on a subject, unrealistic views, overestimates their level of skill and are unable to recognise that their over-confidence is misplaced (Kruger and Dunning, 1999). As such this may have some impact on the inferential statistics and the significant differences in the pre and post test scores by underestimating the effect of the CPD event, thus potentially introducing a limitation to the study. It was suggested that as a person gains experience with a subject, they become more aware of their lack of knowledge and their confidence lowers to a more realistic level (Dunning, 2011; Kruger and Dunning, 1999). With increasing experience and knowledge, their confidence may also increase. Similarly, as the teachers had described a lack of confidence at the beginning of the training which improved over the 6-week practices, it might be expected that they experience further improvements in confidence with continued practice.

7.5 Future Research

Further education required for in-service and pre-service teachers

The need for teacher education and professional development was a key discussion point for the participants throughout the thesis, with two specific areas being recommended to assist in the implementation of TGfU. The cyclical nature of Occupational Socialisation can be considered in terms of an individual traversing it's path, from their acculturation in childhood through their professional and organisational socialisation phases. Whilst another broader perspective is that of the simultaneous inter-relatedness of the phases within the school environment, where the school child (acculturation) is being taught by the teacher (organisational socialisation) alongside a pre-service teacher (professional socialisation). Hence the introduction of TGfU at an earlier phase of Occupational Socialisation such as acculturation, would lead to the later phases benefitting for that individual, but exposure to TGfU in this way would also affect the pre-service teacher (professional socialisation) and subsequently their organisational socialisation. The exposure of pre-service teachers to innovative approaches such as TGfU within their PETE programmes is important for

overcoming some of the barriers to their use. Education of the model during their professional socialisation phase would provide an in-depth knowledgebase of the latest research and practice and with a deeper augmented understanding of its implementation. A key component of this process is the collaborative support from school mentors and placement providers, to maximise the opportunities for the pre-service teachers to practise the approaches and nurture their mastery of its implementation. Future research may wish to consider how this could be best achieved.

Secondly as recommended by the participants, the education of in-service teachers through professional development courses is required to overcome the barriers to implementing TGfU. Study 2 demonstrated the need for teachers to have an initial CPD session from a facilitating expert who could provide the necessary information about the model and teaching support. Due to the interconnectivity of the Occupational Socialisation phases, the exposure and adoption of TGfU has to be achieved through organisational socialisation which would benefit the in-service teachers with the implementation of the model specific to their school context. Additionally, as a consequence of in-service teachers' education in GBAs, it is anticipated that this would facilitate pre-service teachers' engagement with the model whilst on placement. Engagement may be enhanced if the pre-service teachers had prior exposure to TGfU during their acculturation. It is suggested that future research initially evaluates professional development courses with pre- and /or in-service teachers for a longer duration than in Study 2 to establish an optimum time frame for their supported learning. Future research may wish to consider the scope, duration, and effectiveness of professional development courses on the implementation of TGfU with in-service teachers.

Undertake further research underpinned by Occupational Socialisation

This thesis was conducted with a wide range of individuals who were at different stages of their teaching careers including pre-service, early career, mid-career, and late career teachers. Further research needs to be conducted using Occupational Socialisation to consider two particular aspects, namely exploring the potency of different influences throughout teacher career stages and the optimal career stage(s) for the implementation of innovative pedagogies.

Firstly, the term 'in-service teachers' could be viewed as non-homogeneous and encompassing a

diverse group of people at different career stages acting under a range of pressures. Fessler (1992 cited in Woods, Gentry and Graber, 2017) suggested that in-service teachers progress from induction through multiple stages to career exit. During this transition they possess knowledge, behaviours, attitudes, and skills which are influenced by a range of organisational, environmental and personal factors (Fessler, 1992 cited in Woods, Gentry and Graber, 2017). Each stage can influence the direction of the teacher's career and may be experienced multiple times, or in some cases a stage may never be experienced (Fessler and Christensen, 1992 cited in Woods, Gentry and Graber, 2017). Equally, the relative strengths of these socialisation factors will vary during the stages of a teacher's working life. Whilst this thesis has identified the organisational socialisation phase as the optimum period to facilitate the implementation of TGfU into schools, these subgroups could require further scrutiny. Therefore, research underpinned by Occupational Socialisation is required to explore these career stages of teachers and to investigate the influences which shape their professional trajectory.

Secondly, and by extension of the first aspect, research also needs to explore if and which career stages are optimal for the uptake of innovative pedagogies such as TGfU. The barriers to TGfU noted in the existing literature and within this study may be due to prevailing forces at play within the teacher's current career stage that act as an impediment to the implementation for the model. In this regard, the main influences throughout a teacher's career could affect their receptivity to TGfU by changing how the teacher teaches depending upon which career stage they are experiencing, and which factors are predominant. For example, research may explore whether a primary socialising factor such as pupils could exert a greater or lesser powerful influence on the teacher depending upon their career stage. Similarly, encouraging the application of TGfU during the 'career frustration' stage (Fessler and Christensen, 1992 cited in Woods, Gentry and Graber, 2017) when teachers are experiencing burnout, may produce or exacerbate the lack of time barrier or the barrier reluctance to change. Therefore, research is required to examine teachers' receptivity to TGfU at different career stages, to ascertain the changes and impact of barriers to implementation. This research could aid the enactment of professional development programmes and TGfU interventions.

Undertake research with more schools

The findings from Study 2 should be expanded upon to account for more schools and particularly

with regard to the long-term implementation of TGfU. Although every attempt was made to include this longitudinal component in the thesis, the COVID-19 pandemic prevented the investigation from progressing in this manner. As such, future research could explore in-service teachers' engagement with the model across multiple school terms encompassing the teaching of a wider range of sports, abilities, and ages of pupils. Additionally, research could investigate the effectiveness of adapting school curriculums to include a GBA focus. Although the COVID-19 restrictions were a short-lived atypical episode for UK educational institutions, future research may need to consider the possibility of the enduring effects on pupils, teachers, and teaching. These recommendations would provide a greater understanding of the implementation of TGfU within different school environments and contexts.

Undertake longitudinal TGfU intervention studies and additional TGfU studies

The reduction of five sub-barriers in Study 2 demonstrates that there is capacity for TGfU barriers to be positively impacted during an evaluation study. Congruent with Harvey and Jarrett (2014), this thesis suggests there is a greater need for research, particularly longitudinal studies, exploring the effectiveness of TGfU interventions with in-service teachers. An understanding of how teachers learn and implement the model is vital for the creation of professional development programmes. Also, research could examine the continued use and adaptability through different UK school terms where teachers are frequently required to teach across a variety of sports and game classifications. In addition, longitudinal research could be undertaken to discover the success of TGfU with teachers/schools who apply the model, this would be useful to understand where support could be provided for those who do not or are unable to implement the model. Longer scale interventions may provide insight into additional barriers to implementing TGfU and/or discovering facilitators that can support the model's application in schools, thus potentially reducing the current barriers.

Further research could explore and target specific barriers that this thesis has found and particularly those that have been prevalent in the existing literature. For example, pupil ability has arisen as a barrier in terms of teachers lacking the knowledge to adapt their practices to meet different abilities and the teachers considering the TGfU approach to be more suited to those pupils of higher ability. This barrier has also been echoed in the literature from both pre-service and in-service teachers (Harvey, Cushion and Sammon, 2015; Pill, 2011) and therefore warrants specific attention to

understand how it could be reduced. Additional research could establish the success of implementing TGfU with pupils of lower and/or mixed ability and explore how to translate this knowledge and understanding to teachers who struggle to adapt their practices and to those who hold the beliefs that TGfU is preferable to higher ability or older pupils.

7.6 Conclusion

The body of literature that has explored the implementation of TGfU with pre-service teachers has pre-dominated this field of research and has included contributions from many countries. However, a search of the literature revealed few studies which utilised Occupational Socialisation Theory to underpin an investigation of UK pre-service teacher's implementation of TGfU, and which this thesis has augmented. Research on TGfU with in-service teachers has received even less attention, both internationally and in the UK, with a subsequently small proportion employing the lens of Occupational Socialisation Theory to examine this group. With the number of participants from the studies within this small subset typically numbering fewer than five, the findings from this thesis sought to address the gap in these areas of research. Indeed, research is particularly scant on the application of Occupational Socialisation Theory to compare UK pre-service teachers with in-service teachers in their implementation of TGfU. Whilst some research has been gathered on professional development interventions with in-service teachers there remains a substantive gap in the literature for the UK, which this thesis has aimed to fill.

Consideration of the findings of this thesis should be given in relation to the on-going policy developments within PE, including its potential increased status in the National Curriculum and the dynamic educational landscape of evolving types of schools and their curriculum provisions. Moreover, as this thesis has highlighted the importance of the impact of early work experiences and the variety of routes to obtaining QTS on the professional socialisation of pre-service teachers, consideration should also be given to differing recruitment requirements. Furthermore, due to the significant impact of COVID-19 on the education system and wider society, examination of the aftermath of the pandemic on teaching and pedagogical approaches within schools is required. As there are possible indications that the COVID-19 pandemic has served to negatively impact pre-

service teachers' adoption of TGfU, it is therefore recommended that future research explore this phenomenon further through the lens of Occupational Socialisation Theory.

A natural progression of this work to advance the successful implementation of TGfU would be to move beyond an evaluative study into school-based professional development interventions. Although this thesis has highlighted that targeting the organisational socialisation phase has the greatest impact on current teaching practice, it is strongly recommended that research explore all three phases of Occupational Socialisation (acculturation, professional socialisation, and organisational socialisation) due to the complex interconnectivity. As such, a positive cycle of change could be initiated to synergistically facilitate the implementation of TGfU. Thus, research needs to continuously explore Occupational Socialisation Theory and its impact on TGfU as a result of the inconstant educational landscape and major societal changes at play.

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APPENDIX 1
Consent Forms- (Study 1)



**University of
Sunderland**

14th June 2017

Ellen Gambles
Department of Sport and Exercise Science
Faculty of Applied Sciences
University of Sunderland
City Campus
Chester Road
SR1 3SD

**Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin
physical education teachers' utilisation of the TGfU approach**

Letter of Invitation to Participate

Dear teacher,

I am writing to invite you to participate in a research study which will help to identify teachers' childhood, teacher training and career experiences of PE and sport, in particular the Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) model. As one of the participants, you will be interviewed for approximately 45-60 minutes and audio recorded. After the interview, your responses will be analysed and interpreted to find common themes associated with the aims of the research.

This study will look at teachers' perspectives on their childhood, university study, job experiences and the TGfU model including the barriers and facilitators to implementing it in secondary schools. A possible outcome of this study is equipping teachers with the knowledge and skills to use TGfU as part of their professional development and future teaching, which I hope you may be interested in achieving.

Before you decide whether to take part in the study it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. The enclosed 'Information for Participants' explains the study in more detail. If you agree to participate in the study, please contact the researcher detailed on the information sheet who will provide you with more details.

I enclose further information about the study, and I hope that you may wish to take part. If you would like further information, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

With best wishes,

Ellen Gambles (Researcher)

Tel: 0191 515 3194 (Supervisor's telephone number Dr S Anderson)

Email: Ellen-alyssa.gambles@research.sunderland.ac.uk



**University of
Sunderland**

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Study Title: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin physical education teachers' utilisation of the TGfU approach

Name of investigator: Ellen Gambles (Supervisor- Dr Steven Anderson)

Please circle the appropriate response:

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated 14th June / No Yes

2017 for the above research project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I agree to be audio recorded and participate in an interview lasting 45-60 minutes. Yes / No

I agree to be asked questions enquiring about my career, education, history of sport, childhood experiences and opinions on the barriers and facilitators to teaching TGfU. Yes / No

I understand that a postgraduate student (under the supervision of academic staff) will assist in the undertaking of my interview and that they have been given appropriate training. Yes / No

I understand that all data collected throughout the study will be kept safely and securely. Yes / No

I agree for the data I provide to be transcribed by a professional transcription service	Yes/No
I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.	Yes / No
I understand that upon my request any personal data will be removed from the study database should I wish to withdraw my participation.	Yes / No
I consent that my personal data can be retained in a database by the study investigator for the purposes of research and statistical analysis for a maximum of 10 years after which it will be destroyed.	Yes / No
I understand that I may be contacted within the 6 year period of the thesis duration and invited for re-conducting of the above interview.	Yes / No
I understand that my data may be made available with my anonymity protected to research students for the purposes of fulfilling their postgraduate research projects.	Yes / No
I understand that the data collected from my participation in this programme can be published in academic/professional journals, and can also be presented at conferences.	Yes / No
I understand that my anonymity will be protected at all times and no individual names will be ascribed to any publication.	Yes / No

I agree that any personal information about myself will remain on a password-protected personal computer and will be destroyed after 10 years of the conclusion of the study. Yes / No

I agree to participate fully and understand all responsibilities and requirements that are necessary for the study. Yes / No

Name of Participant (print name) **Date** **Participant Signature**



**University of
Sunderland**

Participation Consent Form

Study title: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin physical education teachers' utilisation of the TGfU approach

Participant code: _____

- I am over the age of 18
- I have read and understood the attached study information and, by signing below, I consent to participate in this study
- I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time during the study itself.
- I understand that I also have the right to change my mind about participating in the study for a short period after the study has concluded, i.e., 2 weeks after attending the testing session.

Signed: _____

Print name: _____

(Your name, along with your participant code is important to help match your data from the interview transcript. It will not be used for any purpose other than this.)

Date: _____

Witnessed by: _____

Print name: _____

Date: _____

Consent Forms (Study 2)



**University of
Sunderland**

10th July 2018

Ellen Gambles
Department of Sport and Exercise Science
Faculty of Applied Sciences
University of Sunderland
City Campus
Chester Road
SR1 3SD

Teacher's Use of the Teaching Games for Understanding Approach

Letter of Invitation to Participate

Dear teacher,

I am writing to invite you to participate in a research study which will help to identify teachers' use of the Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) model. As one of the participants, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire at the beginning of the study and take part in a CPD session lasting approximately 2 hours on TGfU. You will then be asked to practise TGfU for 6 weeks as a part of a scheme of work. After that you will be given a questionnaire to complete. You will then be asked to take part in a focus group lasting 45-60 mins which will be audio recorded so further information can be obtained. After the focus group and questionnaires, your responses will be analysed and interpreted to find common themes associated with the aims of the research.

This study will look at teachers' use and success of the TGfU approach as part of a scheme of work. A possible outcome of this study is equipping teachers with the knowledge and skills to use TGfU as part of their professional development and future teaching, which I hope you may be interested in achieving.

Before you decide whether to take part in the study it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. The enclosed 'Information for Participants' explains the study in more detail. If you agree to participate in the study, please contact the researcher detailed on the information sheet who will provide you with more details.

I enclose further information about the study, and I hope that you may wish to take part. If you would like further information, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

With best wishes,
Ellen Gambles (Researcher)
Tel: 0191 515 3194 (Supervisor's telephone number Dr S Anderson)
Email: Ellen-alyssa.gambles@research.sunderland.ac.uk



**University of
Sunderland**

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Study Title: Teacher's Use of the Teaching Games for Understanding Approach

Name of investigator: Ellen Gambles (Supervisor Dr Steven Anderson)

Please circle the appropriate response:

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated 10th July 2018 Yes / No
for the above research project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I agree to take part in a CPD session lasting 2 hours Yes / No

I agree to complete 2 questionnaires as part of this research Yes / No

I agree to be audio recorded and participate in a focus group Yes / No

I agree to be asked questions enquiring about my use of the TGfU approach and Yes / No
opinions on the barriers and facilitators to teaching.

I understand that the postgraduate student (under the supervision of academic staff) Yes / No
will assist in the undertaking of my interview, questionnaires and CPD session and
that they have been given appropriate training.

I understand that all data collected throughout the study will be kept safely and Yes / No
securely.

I agree for the data I provide to be transcribed by a professional transcription service	Yes/No
I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.	Yes / No
I understand that upon my request any personal data will be removed from the study database should I wish to withdraw my participation.	Yes / No
I consent that my personal data can be retained in a database by the study investigators for the purposes of research and statistical analysis and will be destroyed after 10 years of the conclusion of the study	Yes / No
I understand that I may be contacted within the 6 year period of the thesis duration and invited for re-conducting of the above focus group.	Yes / No
I understand that my data may be made available with my anonymity protected to research students for the purposes of fulfilling their postgraduate research projects.	Yes / No
I understand that the data collected from my participation in this programme can be published in academic/professional journals, and can also be presented at conferences.	Yes / No
I understand that my anonymity will be protected at all times and no individual names will be ascribed to any publication.	Yes / No
I agree that any personal information about myself will remain locked on a password-protected personal computer and will be destroyed after 10 years	Yes / No

of the conclusion of the study.

I agree to participate fully and understand all responsibilities and requirements that are necessary for the study. Yes / No

Name of Participant (print name)

Date

Participant Signature



**University of
Sunderland**

Participation Consent Form

Study title: Teacher's Use of the Teaching Games for Understanding Approach

Participant code: _____

- I am over the age of 18
- I have read and understood the attached study information and, by signing below, I consent to participate in this study
- I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time during the study itself.
- I understand that I also have the right to change my mind about participating in the study for a short period after the study has concluded, i.e., 2 weeks after attending the testing session.

Signed: _____

Print name: _____

(Your name, along with your participant code is important to help match your data from two questionnaires. It will not be used for any purpose other than this.)

Date: _____

Witnessed by: _____

Print name: _____

Date: _____

Consent Forms (Study 3)



**University of
Sunderland**

5th March 2021

Ellen Gambles
Department of Sport and Exercise Science
Faculty of Health Sciences and Wellbeing
University of Sunderland
City Campus
Chester Road
SR1 3SD

Occupational Socialisation Theory: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and barriers to implementing the TGfU approach

Letter of Invitation to Participate

Dear teacher,

I am writing to invite you to participate in a research study which will help to identify pre-service teachers' PE and sport experiences and influences from childhood, teacher training and work experience. This will particularly focus on the Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) model. As one of the participants, you will be interviewed for approximately 30-45 minutes and audio recorded. After the interview, your responses will be analysed and interpreted to find common themes associated with the aims of the research.

This study will look at pre-service teachers' perspectives and influences during childhood, university study, job experiences and the TGfU model including the barriers and facilitators to implementing it. A possible outcome of this study is, understanding teachers' upbringings and knowledge and use of TGfU to help inform how and where innovative teaching methods can be introduced, which I hope you may be interested in achieving.

Before you decide whether to take part in the study it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. The enclosed 'Information for Participants' sheet explains the study in more detail. If you agree to participate in the study, please contact the researcher detailed on the information sheet who will provide you with more details.

I enclose further information about the study from the research team and I hope that you may wish to take part. If you would like further information, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

With best wishes,

Ellen Gambles (Researcher)

Tel: 0191 515 3194 (Supervisor's telephone number Dr S Anderson)

Email: Ellen-alyssa.gambles@research.sunderland.ac.uk



**University of
Sunderland**

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Study Title: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and barriers to implementing the TGfU approach

Name of investigator: Ellen Gambles (Supervisor- Dr Steven Anderson)

Please circle the appropriate response:

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated 5th March 2021 for the above research project and have had the opportunity to ask questions. Yes / No

I agree to be audio recorded and participate in a semi-structured interview lasting 30-45 minutes Yes / No

I agree to be asked questions enquiring about my childhood, university, job experiences and use of the TGfU approach including opinions on the barriers and facilitators to teaching. Yes / No

I understand that the postgraduate student (under the supervision of academic staff) will assist in the undertaking of my interview and that they have been given appropriate training. Yes / No

I understand that all data collected throughout the study will be kept safely and securely. Yes / No

I agree for the data I provide to be transcribed by a professional transcription service Yes/No

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason. Yes / No

I understand that upon my request any personal data will be removed from the study database should I wish to withdraw my participation. Yes / No

I consent that my personal data can be retained in a database by the study investigator for the purposes of research and statistical analysis for a maximum of 2 years after the study conclusion upon which it will be destroyed. Yes / No

I understand that I may be contacted within the 6-year period of the thesis duration and invited for re-conducting of the above interview. Yes / No

I understand that the data collected from my participation in this programme can be published in academic/professional journals, and can also be presented at conferences. Yes / No

I understand that my anonymity will be protected at all times and no individual names will be ascribed to any publication. Yes / No

I agree that any personal information about myself will remain locked on a password-protected computer and will be destroyed after 2 years of the conclusion of the study. Yes / No

I agree to participate fully and understand all responsibilities and requirements that are necessary for the study. Yes / No

Name of Participant (print name)

Date

Participant Signature



**University of
Sunderland**

Participation Consent Form

Study title: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and barriers to implementing the TGfU approach

Participant code: _____

- I am over the age of 18
- I have read and understood the attached study information and, by signing below, I consent to participate in this study
- I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time during the study itself.
- I understand that I also have the right to change my mind about participating in the study for a short period after the study has concluded, i.e., 2 weeks after attending the testing session.

Signed: _____

Print name: _____

(Your name, along with your participant code is important to help match your data from the interview transcript. It will not be used for any purpose other than this.)

Date: _____

Witnessed by: _____

Print name: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 2 Participant Information Sheet (Study 1)



**University of
Sunderland**

Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin physical education teachers' utilisation of the TGfU approach

Information for Participants

Introduction

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether you would like to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take some time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with friends, relatives and colleagues. Ask the researcher if there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like more information (a contact number and address are provided at the end of this information sheet). Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Summary of the study

An increasingly interesting issue for debate in physical education is the curriculum based teaching models teachers apply in their lessons. How teachers are socialised to teach the way they currently do is becoming more popular to help identify teachers' perceptions of the teaching models. Interviews and the subsequent analysis should provide many benefits for teachers and researchers. This research will focus on an interview with teachers to identify their childhood, teacher training and career experiences of PE and sport and the perceived facilitators and barriers to implementing teaching models, specifically Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU).

Following the interviews, the researcher will examine the information provided and find common themes. The aim is to determine how teachers are socialised and influenced in PE and sport (through childhood, university and job experiences) and the facilitators and barriers to implementing TGfU in secondary schools.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you whether or not to take part in this study. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form at your appointment, before any interviews take place. You will have the opportunity to ask any questions you may have.

What do I have to do?

Prior to beginning the study, you will be asked to agree to being interviewed and audio recorded. The researcher will have knowledge and experience with the topics being discussed and will be working under the guidance of Dr Steven Anderson at the University of Sunderland. You will be asked a series of questions with the intention to provide as much information as possible during the interview.

Before the interview starts, you will be given an opportunity to ask any questions and the process will be explained. The recording period will last approximately 45-60 minutes. If for any reason you feel uncomfortable during the process, you should let the researcher know.

What are the benefits of taking part in the study?

The information provided in the interview will aid future research into occupational socialisation of teachers, the facilitators and barriers of implementing TGfU and create an opportunity for teachers' to deliver a series of lessons using the TGfU approach. The benefits will help to explain why teachers teach the way they do and create opportunities for future developments in PE research to be applied in practice. It is hoped that the information provided may inform teacher educators and teachers to be used in professional development.

What are the possible risks of taking part?

You will be invited to be interviewed for approximately 45-60 minutes. This interview will take place at your school.

As such, there are no serious risks involved in this study. Any possible hazards can be found in the attached risk assessment. In all circumstances, you will be able to terminate the interview at any point should you feel uncomfortable. The interview will be performed under the health and safety guidelines and ethical guidelines of The University of Sunderland.

Will the information collected about me be kept confidential?

Yes, of course. All information collected about you during the course of the study will be treated in the strictest confidence. No personal information will be passed on to anyone beyond the researcher, and no individually identifiable information will be published. All individually identifiable data from the study will be destroyed up to 10 years following the study and publication of the study's findings. All data will be stored in compliance with the Data Protection Act. Throughout your involvement in the study, your anonymity will be guaranteed. The data you provide will be transcribed by a professional transcription service however no personal information will be sent.

What if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely event of you experiencing any problems caused by this study, you must tell the researcher

immediately and they will do their utmost to solve the problem.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The researcher is funding the study in its entirety.

Data protection and ownership

Your personal data will be coded at the start of the study by the researcher who will be the only people able to trace data back to you. The researcher's computer is situated in a locked room and is password protected. Any back-up copies of data on CDs or USB sticks will be locked away in a filing cabinet. The real names of individuals will not be used in reports.

What next?

Please would you complete and return the study consent form attached to the invitation letter, in order to let the researcher know whether you are interested in taking part in the study.

Contact for further information

If there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like any further information about the study, please contact:

Ellen Gambles (Researcher)
Department of Sport and Exercise Science
University of Sunderland
Faculty of Applied Sciences
City Campus
Sunderland SR1 3SD
Email: Ellen-alyssa.gambles@research.sunderland.ac.uk
Tel: 0191 515 3194 (Supervisor's telephone number Dr S Anderson)

Independent contact

For independent advice relating to the project please contact the University Ethics Committee. Email: ethics.review@sunderland.ac.uk

Thank you for reading this information sheet

Risk Assessment and Scheme of Work

Note: There is a legal requirement under the Management of Health & Safety at Work Regulations to undertake risk assessments. The absence of any risk assessment is a clear indication of legal non-compliance and inadequate safety management. In conjunction with the legal requirement, the University policy states that 'all managers and supervisors are required, so far as is reasonably practicable, to ensure that all workplace activities are subject to an adequate risk assessment and are planned and controlled so as to be safe and free from risks to the health or safety of persons, or harm to the environment, so far as is reasonably practicable', and 'that all persons are informed of any hazards to their health and safety, or to the environment, which may be inherent in the equipment, substances or work activities and are advised of the precautions to be taken'.

Name: Ellen Gambles	Tel Num: XXXX XXX XXXX	Date of Assessment: May 2017	Date for Review: N/A
Venue: Participants' School	Activity Title: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin physical education teachers' utilisation of the TGfU approach		Activity Overview: Semi-structured interviews with secondary school PE teachers

Assessors Name:	Assessor's Signature:	Date:	Contact Telephone Number:
Ellen Gambles	E. Gambles	May 2017	0191 515 3194 (Dr Steven Anderson Supervisor)

What are the hazards? <small>*Use the accompanying Prompt List as a guide for identifying some of the potential hazards and controls</small>	Who might be harmed, and how?	What controls are currently in place to prevent harm?	What additional controls do you need to manage this risk?	What is the overall level of risk? <small>*Use the accompanying risk matrix to identify the level of risk</small>
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Travel to the venue	Participants and Researcher	Normal travel precautions with respect to safe road usage	None	Low
Stress	Teachers being under the stress of audio recording and interview	Pre-event chat participants to ensure that they feel comfortable enough with the whole process	Reminding participants that anonymity and confidentiality will be ensured	Low
Site Control	Participants and researcher whilst on school premises	Pre-event checks with the school for information of emergency protocols	Reminding participants and researcher whilst on site of the possible emergency procedures and nearest exits	Low
Audio Equipment	Teacher and or researcher	Equipment checks prior to use	Equipment stored safely prior to and during its use	Medium

Additional Information (Refer to COSHH form where appropriate)

General control measures in place:

Personal safety of the researcher and participants is monitored at all times. Any external problem for example fire safety etc to be handled by the school.

Emergency Procedures (i.e., First aid requirements/fire safety/contamination)

First Aid provided by the on-site school staff. Fire safety and emergency evacuation procedures detailed to the researcher upon arrival at the school.

Special measures if required (i.e., chemical spill control/containment/handling/disposal):

N/A

Risk Assessment Scheme of Work

Note: The risk assessment scheme of work is required to provide accompanying information to ensure the planned activity and required resources match the risks assessed for. This will ensure participants of the activities understand where the risks stem from, and also to ensure that the session is set up in an applicable manner to ensure the resources are prepared with the activity description in mind.

Subject Area/Topic	Activity Description (e.g., Protocol, and this must be sufficiently detailed to allow for an informed decision to be made about the risks from the activity)	Resources Required
An Interview with PE teachers: Facilitators and barriers to implementing TGfU	45-60 minute semi-structured interview with teachers during a suitable time for them- pre-arranged through regular contact	Audio recorder Consent forms ID as on school premises DBS in case schools require

Signatories:

Note: All staff involved in the delivery or supervision of the practical work outlined above must read and sign the risk assessment as a record of awareness of the potential hazards inherent within the activities. This should include academic and support staff. Note: For high risk, and very high risk activities, multiple signatories are required.

Print Name/Job Title	Signature	Date	Print Name/Job Title	Signature	Date
Ellen Gambles	E.Gambles	May 2017	Sandra Leyland	S.Leyland	May 2017
Steven Anderson	S.Anderson	May 2017	Jonathan Ling	J.Ling	May 2017
Abbie Taylor	A.Taylor	May 2017			



Teacher's Use of the Teaching Games for Understanding Approach

Information for Participants

Introduction

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether you would like to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take some time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with friends, relatives and colleagues. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like more information (a contact number and address are provided at the end of this information sheet). Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Summary of the study

An increasingly interesting issue for debate in physical education is the curriculum based teaching models teachers apply in their lessons. From the findings of my previous study, secondary school teachers identified several barriers that prevent the implementation of the Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) model. This research will focus on a CPD session with teachers to explain TGfU and provide them with examples of the approach as part of a scheme of work. The teachers will be asked to practice what they have learnt over a period of 6 weeks. Teachers will be asked to complete a questionnaire at the beginning and end of the study and take part in a focus group to identify how successful they were at teaching TGfU.

Following the focus group and questionnaires, the researcher will examine the information provided and find common themes. The aim is to determine how teachers used the approach and to evaluate the success of being able to deliver it as part of a scheme of work.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you whether or not to take part in this study. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form at your appointment, before any data collection takes place. You will have the opportunity to ask any questions you may have.

What do I have to do?

Prior to beginning the study, you will be asked to agree to take part in a CPD session, questionnaires and be interviewed as part of a focus group and audio recorded. The researcher will have knowledge and experience with the topics being discussed and will be working under the guidance of Dr Steven Anderson at the University of Sunderland. You will be asked a series of questions with the intention to provide as much information as possible during the questionnaires and focus group.

Before the CPD session, questionnaires and focus group starts, you will be given an opportunity to ask any questions and the process will be explained. The CPD session will last 2 hours and the focus group 45-60 mins. If for any reason you feel uncomfortable during the process, you should let the researcher know.

What are the benefits of taking part in the study?

The information provided in the study will aid future research into occupational socialisation of teachers, the facilitators and barriers of implementing TGfU and create an opportunity for teachers' to deliver a series of lessons using the TGfU approach. The benefits will help to explain why teachers teach the way they do and create opportunities for future developments in PE research to be applied in practice. It is hoped that the information provided may inform teacher educators and teachers to be used in professional development.

What are the possible risks of taking part?

You will be invited to take part in a CPD session, questionnaires and focus group. These will all take place at your school.

As such, there are no serious risks involved in this study. Any possible hazards can be found in the attached risk assessment. In all circumstances, volunteers will be able to terminate the test at any point should you feel uncomfortable. The study will be performed under the health and safety guidelines and ethical guidelines of The University of Sunderland.

Will the information collected about me be kept confidential?

Yes, of course. All information collected about you during the course of the study will be treated in the strictest confidence. No personal information will be passed on to anyone beyond the researcher, and no individually identifiable information will be published. All individually identifiable data from the study will be destroyed up to 10 years following the study and publication of the study's findings. All data will be stored in compliance with the Data Protection Act. Throughout your involvement in the study, your anonymity will be guaranteed. The data you provide in the interview will be transcribed by a professional transcription service however no personal information will be sent.

What if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely event of you experiencing any problems caused by this study, you must tell the researcher immediately and they will do their utmost to solve the problem.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The researcher is funding the study in its entirety.

Data protection and ownership

Your personal data will be coded at the start of the study by the researcher who will be the only person able to trace data back to you. The researcher's computer is situated in a locked room and is password protected. Any back-up copies of data on CDs or USB sticks will be locked away in a filing cabinet. The real names of individuals will not be used in reports.

What next?

Please would you complete and return the study consent form attached to the invitation letter, in order to let the researcher know whether you are interested in taking part in the study.

Contact for further information

If there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like any further information about the study, please contact:

Ellen Gambles (Researcher)
Department of Sport and Exercise Science
University of Sunderland
Faculty of Applied Sciences
City Campus
Sunderland SR1 3SD
Email: Ellen-alyssa.gambles@research.sunderland.ac.uk
Tel: 0191 515 3194 (Supervisor's telephone number Dr S Anderson)

Independent contact

For independent advice relating to the project please contact the University Ethics Committee. Email: ethics.review@sunderland.ac.uk

Thank you for reading this information sheet

Risk Assessment and Scheme of Work

Note: There is a legal requirement under the Management of Health & Safety at Work Regulations to undertake risk assessments. The absence of any risk assessment is a clear indication of legal non-compliance and inadequate safety management. In conjunction with the legal requirement, the University policy states that ‘all managers and supervisors are required, so far as is reasonably practicable, to ensure that all workplace activities are subject to an adequate risk assessment and are planned and controlled so as to be safe and free from risks to the health or safety of persons, or harm to the environment, so far as is reasonably practicable’, and ‘that all persons are informed of any hazards to their health and safety, or to the environment, which may be inherent in the equipment, substances or work activities and are advised of the precautions to be taken’.

Name: Ellen Gambles	Tel Number: XXXX XXX XXXX	Date of Assessment: July 2018	Date for Review: N/A
Venue: Participants’ School	Activity Title: Teacher’s Use of the Teaching Games for Understanding Approach	Activity Overview: Conduct a CPD session lasting approximately 2 hours with PE teachers at different schools, Allow them to go and practice TGfU and report back at a later date	

Assessors Name:	Assessor’s Signature:	Date:	Contact Telephone Number:
Ellen Gambles	E.Gambles	July 2018	0191 515 3194 (Dr Steven Anderson Supervisor)

What are the hazards? <small>*Use the accompanying Prompt List as a guide for identifying some of the potential hazards and controls</small>	Who might be harmed, and how?	What controls are currently in place to prevent harm?	What additional controls do you need to manage this risk?	What is the overall level of risk? <small>*Use the accompanying risk matrix to identify the level of risk</small>
Travel to the venue	Participants and Researcher	Normal travel precautions with respect to safe road usage	None	Low
Stress	Teachers being under the stress of audio recording and interview	Pre-event chat participants to ensure that they feel comfortable enough with the whole process	Reminding participants that anonymity and confidentiality will be ensured	Low
Site Control	Participants and researcher whilst on school premises	Pre-event checks with the school for information of emergency protocols	Reminding participants and researcher whilst on site of the possible emergency procedures and nearest exits	Low
Audio Equipment	Teacher and or researcher	Equipment checks prior to use	Equipment stored safely prior to and during its use	Medium

Additional Information (Refer to COSHH form where appropriate)

<p>General control measures in place:</p> <p>Personal safety of the researcher and participants is monitored at all times. Any external problem for example fire safety etc to be handled by the school.</p>

Emergency Procedures (i.e., First aid requirements/fire safety/contamination)

First Aid provided by the on-site school staff. Fire safety and emergency evacuation procedures detailed to the researcher upon arrival at the school.

Special measures if required (i.e., chemical spill control/containment/handling/disposal):

N/A

Risk Assessment Scheme of Work

Note: The risk assessment scheme of work is required to provide accompanying information to ensure the planned activity and required resources match the risks assessed for. This will ensure participants of the activities understand where the risks stem from, and also to ensure that the session is set up in an applicable manner to ensure the resources are prepared with the activity description in mind.

Subject Area/Topic	Activity Description (e.g. Protocol, and this must be sufficiently detailed to allow for an informed decision to be made about the risks from the activity)	Resources Required
PE	Conduct a CPD session lasting approximately 2 hours detailing what TGfU is and how it can be applied to teaching PE. The participants will then practise the approach. A questionnaire will be given pre and post the CPD session to provide the necessary aims of the study. Focus groups lasting 45-60mins will be conducted at the end of the study to obtain further information.	Consent forms ID as on school premises DBS in case schools require

Signatories:

Note: All staff involved in the delivery or supervision of the practical work outlined above must read and sign the risk assessment as a record of awareness of the potential hazards inherent within the activities. This should include academic and support staff. Note: For high risk, and very high risk activities, multiple signatories are required.

Print Name/Job Title	Signature	Date	Print Name/Job Title	Signature	Date
Ellen Gambles	E.Gambles	July 2018	Sandra Leyland	S.Leyland	July 2018
Steven Anderson	S.Anderson	July 2018	Jonathan Ling	J.Ling	July 2018
Abbie Taylor	A.Taylor	July 2018			

Participant Information Sheet (Study 3)



Occupational Socialisation Theory: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and barriers to implementing the TGfU approach

Information for Participants

Introduction

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether you would like to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take some time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with friends, relatives and colleagues. Ask the researcher if there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like more information (a contact number and address are provided at the end of this information sheet). Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Summary of the study

An increasingly interesting issue for debate in physical education is the curriculum-based teaching models teachers apply in their lessons. From the findings of my first study, secondary school teachers identified several barriers that prevent the implementation of the Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) model. This research will focus on an interview with pre-service teachers to identify their experiences of PE and sport from childhood, teacher training and any career opportunities and the perceived barriers and facilitators to implementing teaching models specifically TGfU.

Following the interviews, the researcher will examine the information provided and find common themes. The aim is to determine how teachers are socialised and influenced in PE and sport (through childhood, university and job experiences) and the barriers and facilitators to implementing TGfU.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you whether or not to take part in this study. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form at your appointment, before any data collection takes place. You will have the opportunity to ask any questions you may have.

What do I have to do?

Prior to beginning the study, you will be asked to agree to being interviewed and audio recorded via an online medium. The researcher will have knowledge and experience with the topics being discussed and will be working under the guidance of Dr Steven Anderson at the University of Sunderland. You will be asked a series of questions with the intention to provide as much information as possible during the interview.

Before the interview starts, you will be given an opportunity to ask any questions and the process will be explained. The recording period will last approximately 30 minutes. If for any reason you feel uncomfortable during the process, you should let the researcher know.

What are the benefits of taking part in the study?

The information provided in the study will aid future research into occupational socialisation of pre-service teachers and the barriers and facilitators of implementing TGfU. The benefits will help to explain why teachers teach the way they do and create opportunities for future developments in PE research to be applied in practice. It is hoped that the information provided may inform teacher educators and teachers to be used in professional development.

What are the possible risks of taking part?

You will be invited to take part in an interview. This will take place via an online medium.

As such, there are no serious risks involved in this study. Any possible hazards can be found in the attached risk assessment. In all circumstances, you will be able to terminate the interview at any point should you feel uncomfortable. The study will be performed under the health and safety guidelines and ethical guidelines of The University of Sunderland.

Will the information collected about me be kept confidential?

Yes, of course. All information collected about you during the course of the study will be treated in the strictest confidence. No personal information will be passed to anyone beyond the researcher, and no individually identifiable information will be published. All individually identifiable data from the study will be destroyed 2 years following the study and publication of the study's findings. All data will be stored in compliance with the Data Protection Act. Throughout your involvement in the study, your anonymity will be guaranteed. The data you provide in the interview will be transcribed by a professional transcription service however no personal information will be sent.

What if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely event of you experiencing any problems caused by this study, you must tell the researcher immediately and they will do their utmost to solve the problem.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The researcher is funding the study in its entirety.

Data protection and ownership

Your personal data will be coded at the start of the study by the researcher who will be the only person able to trace data back to you. The researcher's computer is situated in a locked room and is password protected. Any back-up copies of data on CDs or USB sticks will be locked away in a filing cabinet. The real names of individuals will not be used in reports.

What next?

Please would you complete and return the study consent form attached to the invitation letter, in order to let the researcher know whether you are interested in taking part in the study.

Contact for further information

If there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like any further information about the study, please contact:

Ellen Gambles
Exercise, Sport and Rehabilitation Therapies Team
University of Sunderland
Faculty of Health Sciences and Wellbeing
City Campus
Sunderland SR1 3SD
Email: Ellen-alyssa.gambles@research.sunderland.ac.uk
Tel: 0191 515 3194 (Supervisor's telephone number Dr S Anderson)

Independent contact

For independent advice relating to the project please contact Dr John Fulton, Chair of the University Ethics Committee.

john.fulton@sunderland.ac.uk
Tel: 0191-515-2529

Thank you for reading this information sheet

Risk Assessment and Scheme of Work

Note: There is a legal requirement under the Management of Health & Safety at Work Regulations to undertake risk assessments. The absence of any risk assessment is a clear indication of legal non-compliance and inadequate safety management. In conjunction with the legal requirement, the University policy states that 'all managers and supervisors are required, so far as is reasonably practicable, to ensure that all workplace activities are subject to an adequate risk assessment and are planned and controlled so as to be safe and free from risks to the health or safety of persons, or harm to the environment, so far as is reasonably practicable', and 'that all persons are informed of any hazards to their health and safety, or to the environment, which may be inherent in the equipment, substances or work activities and are advised of the precautions to be taken'.

Name: Ellen Gambles	Tel Number: XXXX XXX XXXX	Date of Assessment: March 2021	Date for Review: N/A
Venue: Online	Activity Title: Occupational Socialisation Theory: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and barriers to implementing the TGfU approach		Activity Overview: Conduct a semi-structured interview with pre-service teachers

Assessors Name:	Assessor's Signature:	Date:	Contact Telephone Number:
Ellen Gambles	E.Gambles	March 2021	0191 515 3194 (Dr Steven Anderson Supervisor)

What are the hazards? <small>*Use the accompanying Prompt List as a guide for identifying some of the potential hazards and controls</small>	Who might be harmed, and how?	What controls are currently in place to prevent harm?	What additional controls do you need to manage this risk?	What is the overall level of risk? <small>*Use the accompanying risk matrix to identify the level of risk</small>
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Online conferencing	Participants and Researcher- unable to access, incorrect use etc.	Equipment checks prior to use. Previous experience of using the software- determined upon initial contact.	None	Low
Stress	Pre-service teachers being under the stress of audio recording and interview	Pre-event chat with participants to ensure that they feel comfortable enough with the whole process	Reminding participants that anonymity and confidentiality will be ensured	Low
Audio Equipment	Pre-service teacher and or researcher	Equipment checks prior to use	Equipment stored safely prior to and during its use	Medium

Additional Information (Refer to COSHH form where appropriate)

<p>General control measures in place:</p> <p>Personal safety of the researcher and participants is monitored at all times.</p>

<p>Emergency Procedures (i.e., First aid requirements/fire safety/contamination)</p> <p>Individuals responsible for themselves in their location</p>

Special measures if required (i.e., chemical spill control/containment/handling/disposal):

N/A

Risk Assessment Scheme of Work

Note: The risk assessment scheme of work is required to provide accompanying information to ensure the planned activity and required resources match the risks assessed for. This will ensure participants of the activities understand where the risks stem from, and also to ensure that the session is set up in an applicable manner to ensure the resources are prepared with the activity description in mind.

Subject Area/Topic	Activity Description (e.g. Protocol, and this must be sufficiently detailed to allow for an informed decision to be made about the risks from the activity)	Resources Required
An Interview with pre-service PE teachers: Occupational Socialisation and barriers to implementing TGfU	30–45-minute semi-structured interview with the pre-service teachers during a suitable time for them- pre-arranged through regular contact	Consent forms Access to WIFI and a suitable device Audio Recorder

Signatories:

Note: All staff involved in the delivery or supervision of the practical work outlined above must read and sign the risk assessment as a record of awareness of the potential hazards inherent within the activities. This should include academic and support staff. Note: For high risk, and very high-risk activities, multiple signatories are required.

Print Name/Job Title	Signature	Date	Print Name/Job Title	Signature	Date
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Ellen Gambles	E.Gambles	April 2021	Sandra Leyland	S.Leyland	April 2021
Steven Anderson	S.Anderson	April 2021	Jonathan Ling	J.Ling	April 2021
Abbie Taylor	A.Taylor	April 2021			

Appendix 3 Randstad Transcription Policy



Specialist Transcription Policy

Assignment position:

Specialist Transcription

Assignment duties:

Transcribing visual or audio documents. To transcribe lecture notes, seminar notes, oral dictation or audio files into an alternative format accessible to the student.

Experience, training, qualifications and any authorisation necessary or required by law or a professional body:

In order to be suitable for this work the Support Worker must have successfully passed the Randstad Note Taking Assessment and hold a degree level qualification.

Worker responsibilities:

- Once the transcription has been completed and sent to the student, the file with the recording on should be deleted from the electronic device used, within a 24 hour period.
- The electronic device used for the transcription work should be password protected and be for the sole use of the worker.
- Once the worker has completed all work for the student, every document relating to the student should be deleted. The student's contact information is to be deleted alongside all recordings and transcriptions.
- At no point should any third party have access to the recordings or transcriptions. Should anybody else have access to the assignments, this needs to be reported to Randstad straight away.

Appendix 4

Demographic Questionnaire (Study 1)



Occupational Socialisation Theory: Identification of the barriers and facilitators that underpin physical education teachers' utilisation of the TGfU approach?

Demographics Questionnaire

Name:

Age:

Gender:

Highest degree qualification:

PGCE (with QTS) Masters PhD Other (please specify)

Undergraduate Degree University attended:

.....

Postgraduate Degree University attended:

.....

Method of obtaining Postgraduate qualification..... (e.g.

schools direct, teach first, combined with undergraduate degree etc.)

School:

School Type: (e.g. Academy, State etc.)

Current Job Role and Responsibilities:

.....
.....
.....

Sports taught at the school:

.....
.....
.....

Years of teaching experience:

School(s) taught at (including school types):

.....
.....
.....

Previous Job roles and Responsibilities:

.....
.....
.....
.....

Demographics Questionnaire (Study 2)



Teacher's Use of the Teaching Games for Understanding Approach

Demographics Questionnaire

Name:

Age:

Gender:

Highest degree qualification:

PGCE (with QTS) Masters PhD Other (please specify)

Undergraduate Degree University attended:

.....

Postgraduate Degree University attended:

.....

Method of obtaining Postgraduate qualification..... (e.g. schools direct, teach first, combined with undergraduate degree etc.)

School Name:

School Type: (e.g. Academy, State etc.)

Years of teaching experience:

Previous and Current Job Role and Responsibilities:

.....
.....
.....

School Demographic (e.g. children's backgrounds, catchment area etc.):

.....
.....
.....
.....

Number of hours PE taught at school: Key Stage 3.....

Key Stage 4.....

Sporting facilities available to the school:

.....
.....
.....
.....

What is your previous experience and knowledge of the Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) approach? (Please provide as much detail as possible)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Demographics Questionnaire (Study 3)



Occupational Socialisation Theory: Pre-service teachers' beliefs and barriers to implementing the TGfU approach

Demographics Questionnaire

Name:

Age:

Gender:

Highest degree qualification obtained (to date):

BA/BSc PGCE (with QTS) Masters PhD Other (please specify)

Undergraduate Degree University attended:

Postgraduate Degree University attended:

Method of obtaining Postgraduate qualification..... (e.g. schools direct, teach first, combined with undergraduate degree etc.)

Previous and Current Placement Schools:

.....
.....

Previous and Current Training on Placement:

Independent delivery unsupervised Yes / No

Independent delivery supervised Yes / No

Team Teaching Yes / No

Shadowing Yes / No

Other (please specify).....

Current number of hours you teach PE per week: Key Stage 1.....

Key Stage 2.....

Key Stage 3.....

Key Stage 4.....

What is your previous experience and knowledge of the Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) approach? (Please provide as much detail as possible)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 5

Interview Prompts (Study 1)

Acculturation

Can you please describe your PE and sporting experiences as a child.

- As a pupil taking part in school
- Extra-curricular participation
- Sports sessions
- Significant person(s) that inspired you to become a PE teacher

Professional Socialisation

Can you please describe your higher education/teacher training experiences.

- University training (PGCE/GTP/Schools Direct)
-Observations, hands-on etc.
- Teacher training programmes

Organisational Socialisation

Can you please describe how your current workplace influences your knowledge and skills set?

- Organisational role- day-to-day
- Expectations of colleagues
- The pupils
- Curriculum structure/design

TGfU

Can you please explain your understanding of games based approaches and TGfU?

- Current approaches/models
- Game definition and primary objectives of games teaching
- Barriers/facilitators to TGfU

Focus Group Questions (Study 2)

From everything you have learnt and experienced during the CPD what are your thoughts on the TGfU approach

After the CPD session please can you provide an example of when you used TGfU in a lesson (including age group, ability, details of what you did)-

Within your TGfU sessions can you describe what went well and what did not go as well-

Describe what advantages and disadvantages you perceive of TGfU within school-

In what ways did you develop your teaching of the TGfU approach

What have you learned from your TGfU CPD sessions?

After CPD session: The barriers provided in the questionnaire and those you thought of can you describe how much of a barrier are they now?

After the CPD session how well prepared do you feel to deliver TGfU lessons? Is there anything further that you would require to better prepare for TGfU lessons?

What were your thoughts on the effectiveness of the CPD session and subsequent practice?

The aim for the CPD was to help reduce some of the barriers on the questionnaire

- Did you think that they did?
- Did you believe any barriers increased from what you originally thought?
- Do you think there are certain areas/barriers we need to target?

What is required to help teachers overcome the barriers to implementing TGfU?

With your answer to the above question how can we access teachers with these methods e.g. social media, certain websites, experts, further CPDs etc.

Interview Prompts (Study 3)

Acculturation

Can you please describe your PE and sporting experiences as a child.

- As a pupil taking part in school
- Extra-curricular participation
- Sports sessions
- Significant person(s) that inspired you to become a PE teacher

Professional Socialisation

Can you please describe your higher education/teacher training experiences.

- University training (PGCE/GTP/Schools Direct)
 - Observations, hands-on etc.
- Teacher training programmes

Organisational Socialisation

Can you please describe any workplace influences on your knowledge and skills set?

- Organisational role- day-to-day
- Expectations of colleagues
- The pupils
- Curriculum structure/design
- Impact of COVID-19

TGfU

Can you please explain your understanding of games based approaches and TGfU?

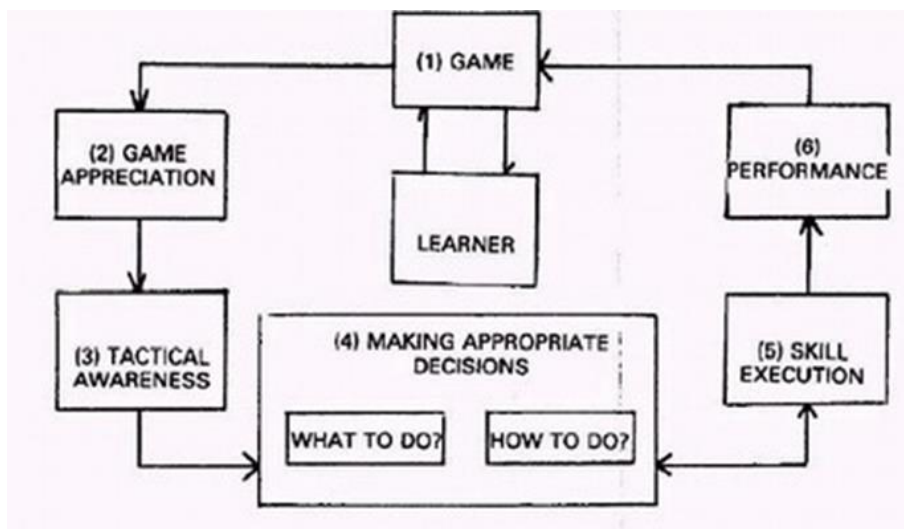
- Current approaches/models- knowledge and when learnt about
- Understanding and embedding of TGfU
- Barriers/facilitators to TGfU

Appendix 6 TGfU Summary Paragraph (Study 1 and 3)

Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU)

TGfU is a mechanism for the delivery of teaching games (invasion, net/wall, striking/fielding and target sports). It is based on six stages which combine to achieve the aim of learning tactics and decision making processes through modified games. TGfU is an alternative approach to that of traditional teacher delivery, placing the emphasis on problem solving over drill based activities. The model focuses on modifying complex sports into simple game forms without removing the primary objectives. It introduces the game to allow pupils to develop understanding and learn the basic skills necessary for play.

At Stage 1 the game is introduced as a modified version of the full adult game with a focus on the development level of each individual. Stage 2 then introduces pupils to the rules of the game after which Stage 3 aims to build awareness and understanding of the game through the introduction of tactics. Stage 4 focuses on problem-solving and involves asking the pupils 'what to do' (tactical awareness) and 'how to do it' (response selection). At Stage 5 the emphasis is on execution of specific skills within the context of the game. Finally at Stage 6 the focus is on the appropriateness of the response and efficiency of the skill, based on the goals of the game/lesson/unit.



Original TGfU model taken from Bunker and Thorpe (1982)

Appendix 7

Interview Transcript Example (PTF3)

8 **Can you please describe your PE and sporting experiences as a child?**

9

10 So as a child I actually started like my first sporting experience was in dance,
11 probably from like the age of four or something, I was at a dance school, which my
12 brother used to go to as well. So I kind of got in through him, and then through that I
13 started doing some cheerleading as well, that was kind of linked to the dance
14 school, so I started doing cheerleading after school, and then I kind of wanted to
15 improve actually in my cheer leading, so I joined a gymnastics club in order to
16 improve in my cheer leading, but then I actually found out, well I got like a trial at like
17 a kind of bigger gym, and then said like, if you want to like, kind of take this up
18 properly, you are going to have to like, finish cheerleading because you are not
19 going to have that time to do both. Coz a lot of the sessions classed, so in the end I
20 actually found out I preferred gymnastics more, so I left cheerleading, and I was
21 probably about ten years old when I joined this club, and yeah, I just basically
22 progressed up through in gymnastics in the club, kind of went into a bit of a higher
23 group and started to be a bit more competitive about things. Got a few injuries along
24 the way, so was kind of up and down, being a gymnast and just being clumsy to be
25 honest, I got a lot of injuries, and then also, so basically like, when I was about
26 sixteen I dislocated my shoulder and had to have an operation on that, so I had to
27 kind of, stop participating, but I had got into coaching a little bit earlier, and the age I
28 was at, honestly leaving school and things, I felt like kind of ready to move on to the
29 next thing. So I started doing some coaching qualifications, and even like to this day
30 I still work at the club like, part-time, so kind of just kept my involvement within the
31 club through coaching. And I guess in primary school, I was always, I always just
32 enjoyed PE, so like anything kind of extra that was going on like, we did like the
33 cycling course thing, we did like, after school football clubs, break time clubs and
34 things, so I guess just in school like, all of those opportunities were available to me
35 and I just tried them all out and I think being quite sporty, I think because I was quite
36 good at it, I enjoyed it more, so I also did like music on the side of sport, but again I
37 like, kind of just dropped everything to focus on sport because it was like, my
38 favourite thing, probably the thing I was best at. So, yeah, and like just in PE lessons
39 and stuff, I guess I liked to kind of, I was quite competitive like, to always win and
40 liked to kind of, liked that team environment, I liked always like, kind of, lead, lead
41 parts of sessions as well, even in primary school, like towards the end of like, year
42 five and six, and stuff, I kind of enjoyed having like, a bit of a leadership role in
43 lessons as well.

44

45 **Just, [cough] excuse me, just going back to your family, what were your**
46 **parents like, in terms of sporting experiences?**

47

48 My mum used to do gymnastics as a child, but she finished quite early as well due to

49 her coach not being a very nice person really, but that's why she finished, but I guess
50 like, at home and stuff, my mum would teach me things at home, which actually
51 didn't help because I went into do it six and they were like, you have got awful
52 technique, I was like, well blame my mum because she, she taught me this, but yeah
53 like, at home and stuff my mum would support me and like, I had just never been on
54 my feet to be honest, I had always just be flipping around, and I guess my mum had
55 a big impact on that because she did it herself, and I think obviously like, through
56 what she experienced, she could kind of see that I was quite good at it, so wanted to
57 push me in, and get me kind of involved a little bit more. Obviously if I enjoyed it, but
58 she was quite supportive along the way, in terms of if you ever want to stop, then
59 stop, but she was a big, like a big part of getting me involved in gymnastics, but my
60 dad wasn't really, but I don't think, he kind of did a bit of table tennis and stuff, table
61 tennis competitions, but I guess my mum was like the bigger influence in that part
62 rather than my dad, so.

63

64 **And you mentioned primary, what was your secondary school experience like?**

65

66 So again in secondary school, like I was always kind of, well I actually went up to
67 secondary school like without knowing anyone, apart from my brothers, because a
68 lot of people didn't go to my school, so I think like, joining the sports clubs and things
69 at school actually helped me to make a lot of friends that were similar to me. Coz
70 obviously I just went up and didn't know anyone, and then I was kind of going to like
71 the netball clubs, athletics clubs, and that kind of got me involved with the people
72 who I wanted to be like friends with, so that kind of helped quite a lot. But yeah, I
73 liked PE lessons, I really loved my PE teacher, and that's probably to do with why I
74 am a PE teacher. She was just absolutely incredible, always kind of, it helps, it helps
75 in sport when you kind of like, good at it, it makes you want to do it, because I know
76 it's like a confidence thing for a lot of people, but I was very confident in taking part,
77 and in PE lessons like, I had always kind of been pushed to do my best in PE
78 lessons, and my teacher could realise that I needed a little bit more of a, of a role
79 sometimes, coz like, some of the other kids in the class weren't so good, so
80 sometimes it would be a bit frustrating if you are playing a game and they were a bit,
81 kind of can't really play. So she'd always like, find ways around that, and then yeah, I
82 just kind of adopted a few like, different roles, so I was a sports captain for my house
83 in year eleven. So I kind of like organised fixtures and like, all the year sevens and

Appendix 8
Thematic Analysis Example
Main and Sub-barriers to TGfU

Quote	First Order Themes (Sub-barriers)	Second Order Themes (Main Barriers)	General Dimensions
‘there are some [ability/set] classes that I wouldn’t dare do it with because it would go over their heads...set ones [high ability], they have got it [games] straight away sort of thing and they really enjoy that because they get more playing time, but for some set twos [lower ability] it, you know, bearing in mind set twos tend to have the SEND students in, or the students who just don’t get PE, they, they do struggle with team games’	Unsure how pupils with different abilities will cope with TGfU	Lack of Knowledge	Barriers to TGfU
‘No, it [TGfU] was something that I had never experienced’	Lack of training in how to apply TGfU		
‘without those core skills at first you can’t then develop, develop your skills within a game.’	You need to teach skills first then can focus on TGfU	Lack of Understanding	
‘Understanding of what it [TGfU] is and the concepts behind it and the processes and the how, how, how you would do it in a day to day lessons’	Unsure how to apply the TGfU model into practice		
‘teachers haven’t got the time to research, and you know, put something totally new in’	Time for planning TGfU lessons	Lack of time	
‘... the actual time it takes to set, to set up an activity like that and, and maintain it for the duration of the sport, you know if you are doing that with every class you wouldn’t have time to do that.’	Time within lessons to teach TGfU		
‘They [university lecturers] don’t really get to know what is going on’	University lecturers’ support	Lack of Support	
‘When I tried it [TGfU], I completely messed up my lessons and I remember my mentor had never heard of it so she said it was rubbish and told me just to teach the skills.’	School mentors’ support during teacher training		
‘...[older members of staff]....wouldn’t dream of letting a student [teacher teach it] now’	Colleagues’ support in using TGfU		

<p>'When Ofsted came to inspect my teaching they gave me outstanding and I wasn't teaching TGfU, so what incentive is there to teach like that when I'm already classed as outstanding'</p>	<p>Personal reluctance to change</p>	<p>Reluctance to change</p>	
<p>'...staff maybe being a bit elitist and just wanting to teach the full games and things, and no we are playing rugby, the boys are playing rugby and actually, well no [GBAs], we are going to do this, we are going to do this approach.'</p>	<p>Colleagues reluctance to change</p>		

Appendix 9 Study 2 Questionnaire

The following is a list barriers that were identified by a sample of PE teachers from a previous study

To what extent do you perceive the following to be barriers impeding your use of Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU) in your teaching practice? (1=Not at all, 5=very much so)

Barriers	Not at all				Very much so
LACK OF TIME					
For planning TGfU lessons	1	2	3	4	5
Within lessons to teach TGfU	1	2	3	4	5
LACK OF UNDERSTANDING of TGfU					
You need to teach skills first then can focus on TGfU	1	2	3	4	5
Unsure how to apply the TGfU model into practice	1	2	3	4	5
LACK OF KNOWLEDGE					
Unsure how pupils with different abilities will cope with TGfU	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of training in how to apply TGfU	1	2	3	4	5
RELUCTANCE TO CHANGE					
You are reluctant to change the way you teach	1	2	3	4	5
Your colleagues are reluctant to change the way they teach	1	2	3	4	5
LACK OF SUPPORT					
From university lecturers	1	2	3	4	5
From school mentors during teacher training	1	2	3	4	5

From colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
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Are there any other barriers that you feel have or would impact on your ability to implement TGfU in your teaching? Please provide further detail below.

What do you think could be done to help overcome these barriers?

Appendix 10

Study 2 CPD Training Content

The structure of the 2-hour CPD involved a PowerPoint presentation designed and presented by the researcher interspersed with videos taken from the TGfU SIG website, structured participatory activities and short practical demonstrations (conducted in the classroom due to time and facility constraints). This was followed by a redesign of schemes of work guided by the researcher. The workshop followed the following framework:

- Overview of the study
 - Outline the structure of the 6-week CPD
- Game-based approach(es)
 - What it is and historical background
 - Rationale for using a GBA
 - Comparison between Technical and TGfU approaches
 - Key Elements of a GBA- e.g. understanding game elements, designing purposeful games, effective questioning
- Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU)
 - Historical Formation of the Model
 - Breakdown of each Step of the model
 - Video Clip of TGfU lesson example
 - Short practical demonstration using Target games as an example
 - The Four Pedagogical principles of TGfU (Thorpe and Bunker, 1989)
 - Teacher and Student Benchmarks
- Games Classification System
 - Example Sports and key objectives for each category
 - Video Clips of TGfU lesson example
 - Short practical demonstrations using Invasion and Net/Wall games
- Developing High Order Teacher Questioning - Activity using Game Categories
- Designing and Teaching Games Teacher Activity
- Pupil Assessment
 - Examples of Assessment including Games Performance Assessment Instrument (GPAI)
- Modifying Schemes of Work for TGfU lessons