

# Investigating the athlete-environment relationship in a form of life: An ethnographic study

ROTHWELL, Martyn <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-3545-0066>, STONE, Joseph <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9861-4443> and DAVIDS, Keith <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1398-6123>

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Title: Investigating the athlete-environment relationship in a form of life: An ethnographic study

Martyn Rothwell<sup>1</sup> (0000-0002-3545-0066), Joseph Stone<sup>1</sup> (0000-0002-9861-4443), Keith Davids<sup>1</sup> (0000-0003-1398-6123)

<sup>1</sup>Sport and Human Performance Research Group, Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield, UK

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Corresponding author: Martyn Rothwell Email: M.Rothwell@shu.ac.uk Phone: 0114 225 3989

#### 1 Abstract

From the theoretical perspective of ecological dynamics, skilful behaviour in performance 2 contexts like sport and education is predicted on the establishment of a functional relationship 3 between an individual and the environment. The strength of this functional relationship is 4 5 shaped over time by everyday behaviours, values, and customs (sociocultural practices) 6 within a specific sport organisation. A growing body of research seeks to identify these 7 influential sociocultural practices that emerge and exist in sport cultures and organisations. 8 However, little is known from an ecological realism perspective how these practices affect an 9 athlete's engagement with opportunities offered by the environment (e.g., affordances). In this study, we draw on ethnographic data and theoretical tenets of James Gibson's ecological 10 psychology to identify how the sociocultural practices of a British rugby league football 11 academy might shape an athlete's engagement with affordances. Findings revealed that 12 13 masculinity and disciplined behaviours were the dominant sociocultural practices, instrumental in developing beliefs, values, and customs of athlete development practices. An 14 15 ecological realism analysis of the data suggested that cultural pressures meant that key actors 16 ignored the potential for development and learning of athletes' self-organisation tendencies, and inhibited individuals' capacities to respond to opportunities for action offered in many 17 traditional practice designs. We conclude by discussing implications for sport practitioners 18 19 that promote 'affordance-regulated' practice designs to enhance athlete-environment 20 interactions.

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Keywords: ecological realism, athlete-environment relationship, affordances, a form of life,
 sociocultural practices, ethnography, rugby league.

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#### 26 Introduction

Uehara et al. (2018) provided evidence illuminating how organizational and societal 27 sociocultural practices shape the development of functional athlete-environment relationships 28 in sport performance and practice. Sociocultural practices are deeply embedded in the 29 inherent values, beliefs, traditions, customs, and behaviors of specific communities, societies 30 and sport organisations, and they can shape the learning and development opportunities of 31 32 athletes seeking to interact with a performance environment (Rothwell et al., 2019). Broader sociocultural factors influencing sport can lead to the normalisation of athlete development 33 34 practices that have, at their core, an acceptance of disciplinary power, reductionist views of performance, and hegemonic masculine attitudes. 35

Athlete development practices of this nature can silence or marginalise individuals 36 who demonstrate other resources, such as dexterity, skill, and creativity that may not fit with 37 cultural norms like adhering to rigid team structures and patterns of play, following orders 38 and 'playing tough'. Denison et al. (2017) illustrated these ideas with their Foucauldian 39 analysis of 'disciplinary legacy and the challenge of coaching differently'. They argued that 40 discipline forces, emanating from social and political ideals, align with coaching practices 41 that they considered to render athletes as compliant 'docile bodies' (Denison & Avner, 2011). 42 Similarly, Stewart et al.'s (2019) investigation of a Scottish secondary physical education 43 context identified that male pupils embodied a particular form of masculinity, aligned to an 44 45 influential rugby culture, through the importance placed on 'trying hard' and 'physical ability' to maintain participants' social standing in the educational institution. 46

A growing body of research has continued to identify the normative practices
apparent in sport cultures and organisations (e.g., Adams, 2020; Blackett et al., 2019; Purdy
et al., 2009). To advance these findings for the benefit of athletes and coaches, Anver et al.
(2020, p. 14) have argued for a "deeper understanding of the docility-producing effects" that

are a consequence of attitudes toward coaching, learning and knowledge, deeply rooted in 51 historical sociocultural factors. Aligned with Anver et al.'s (2020) sentiments, our intention in 52 this paper is to explore an alternative perspective on docility-producing effects, by drawing 53 on theoretical tenets of James Gibson's (1979) ecological psychology. Here, we seek to 54 develop our understanding of how particular sociocultural practices can continually shape an 55 athlete's intentional engagement with opportunities for behavioural interactions provided by 56 the task constraints of practice and competition (e.g., affordances; see Reed, 1993). Adopting 57 an ecological realism perspective can offer new insights for understanding why and how 58 59 athletes behave as they do in different sporting contexts and why individuals are intentionally and selectively responsive to one opportunity for action rather than another (Araújo et al., 60 2019a). 61

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#### 63 An ecological dynamics conceptualisation of sport performance

Implementing an underlying conceptual framework in athlete development and performance 64 65 preparation programmes can protect sport organisations, coaches, performance managers, and athletes against effects of 'path dependency' (inherent biases) by mitigating against values, 66 beliefs, traditions, customs, and behaviors that are detrimental to supporting the long-term 67 development and functionality of athletes (Ross et al., 2018; Woods et al., in press). 68 Rasmussen et al. (2019) exemplified this point to counter deterministic views of athlete 69 70 performance by proposing an interdisciplinary, theoretical framework to stimulate creative actions in sport, and to challenge traditional customs within coaching. 71

Ecological dynamics (the integration of ecological psychology and dynamical systems theory) is one such theoretical framework that can support sport practitioners in recognising social and cultural biases to coaching and talent development practices (Rothwell et al., Ecological dynamics rejects a traditional assumption that an individual's interactions

with a performance environment are mediated through internally stored mental 76 77 representations of the world. Instead, ecological dynamics emphasises the development and 78 enrichment of a reciprocal and functional relationship between an individual and environment 79 to form a complex, interconnected system (Araújo & Davids, 2011). This perspective is inspired by the direct realism of ecological psychology (Lobo et al., 2018), where the starting 80 point for understanding human behaviour is the engagement between the active organism 81 82 (individual), and the constraints of the surrounding environment, predicated on the continuous use of information to regulate actions (Richardson et al., 2008). From the inherent 83 84 complexity of the athlete-environment system, functional, goal-directed behaviours emerge as an athlete learns to satisfy multiple interacting constraints, deeply integrated and related to 85 personal (e.g., genetic composition and physical and emotional attributes), task (e.g., the 86 87 relationship between fundamental rule changes, equipment (re)design and performance demands) and environmental (e.g., social, cultural, economic, historical and political) factors 88 (Phillips et al., 2010; Newell, 1986). 89

90 Embedding an athlete's practice experiences in environmental contexts that consist of value (opportunities for action) and meaning (information) can strengthen functionality 91 92 within a performance environment (Araújo et al., 2019b). Opportunities for action, continuously offered by properties of playing surfaces and markings, positioning of 93 94 teammates and competitors, equipment, technology and features of competition exemplify 95 affordances in ecological dynamics (Davids et al., 2017; Gibson, 1979). In the most simplistic form, affordances are 'possibilities for action' that an environment offers an 96 organism (Gibson, 1979). Rietveld and Kiverstein (2014) have proposed a broader conceptual 97 98 framework of affordances, suggesting that possibilities for action provided by an environment are dependent on the specific abilities possessed by an individual to integrate mind and body 99 to perceive and act on the rich information sources available in the environment (Woods et 100

al., 2020). To advance conceptual understanding, Rietveld and Kiverstein (2014) highlighted,
that, in human behaviour, effectivities (abilities, capacities and tendencies) and affordances
can only be understood in the context of an ecological niche and the relationship with a *form of life* (Wittgenstein, 1953). Rietveld and Kiverstein (2014, p. 330) elaborated:

Affordances are possibilities for action the environment offers to a form of life, and an ecological niche is a network of interrelated affordances available in a particular form of life on the basis of the abilities manifested in its practices—its stable ways of doing things.

109 In human behavioural contexts, a form of life describes standard sociocultural practices that are "manifest in the normative behaviors and customs of our communities" 110 (Rietveld & Kiverstein, 2014, pp. 328, 329). It is this intertwined relationship between a form 111 112 of life captured in an ecological niche, which serves as a significant reference point for understanding the functionality of human behaviours in specific performance contexts 113 (Ramstead et al., 2016). An ecological niche reflects how a species or group of individuals, 114 actively construct and modify their own and each other's evolutionary niches (Odling-Smee 115 et al., 2013). Several examples have illustrated how, in a sport performance context, an 116 ecological niche may be formed by a support team of practitioners, sport scientists, 117 performance analysts, and athletes (classed as a performance and development preparation 118 team) within a high-performance programme (McCosker et al., 2019). Exemplified by a 119 120 Department of Methodology, such integrated teams can modify, reproduce and implement a shared methodological approach that influences each performer's ability to interact with 121 affordances in the microstructure of practice or competition (Rothwell et al., 2020). 122 123 Therefore, an athlete's ability to respond to solicitations (multiple promoted affordances that have great relevance to an individual in a specific performance context) is highly dependent 124

on how the form of life influences the practices of athlete development teams that exist in aparticular ecological niche (Araújo et al., 2019a).

127 These ideas are exemplified by consecutive NBA champions, the Detroit Pistons, who infamously employed a tough, highly structured, machine-like, defensive style renowned for 128 the 'Jordan Rules' (illegal tactics used when playing the Chicago Bulls to minimise the 129 dominating influence of Michael Jordan's attacking game). Additionally, Detroit's famous 130 131 Kronk boxing gym has nurtured many World Champions who adopted a similar confrontational and gritty front foot, power punching, fighting style (Lee, 2019). From an 132 133 evolutionary perspective it is perfectly logical that these sport performance characteristics were a resonant legacy of the socio-cultural and historical characteristics of Detroit city's 134 mechanized, mass-production, automotive industry. These performance characteristics seem 135 136 to have formed deeply engrained ideologies shared between coaches, athletes and consumers that fostered tough, reductionist and mechanistic attitudes towards sport performance 137 (Zehntner et al., 2019). 138

To date, research adopting a perspective of ecological realism to investigate the effect 139 of sociocultural practices on the individual-environment relationship is limited (for some 140 exceptions see Rothwell et al., 2019; Rynne, 2016; Sanderud et al., 2019). An ecological 141 realism perspective may provide unique insights into how the everyday practices of a sport 142 organisation influence an athlete's engagement with affordances. One way to increase 143 144 understanding and generate knowledge about the relationship between sociocultural practices and underlying structures that influence human behaviour, is to adopt an ethnographic 145 approach (Atkinson, 2017). Through taking an ethnographic approach, and adhering to an 146 147 ecological realist framework, we sought to consider the following question: What are the sociocultural practices that influence a form of life, and how do they affect the athlete-148 environment relationship? Additionally, in considering the research question we intended to 149

address the following aims: 1) identify and observe first-hand the sociocultural practices of a
sport organisation, and characterise the relationship with the existent form of life, and 2),
conceptualise, from an ecological realist perspective, how a form of life influences the
athlete-environment relationship.

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#### 155 Methodology

#### 156 Background and context

A British rugby league football academy provided a research base due to the sport's rich and 157 158 unique socio-cultural-historical backdrop. Formally organised in 1895, with its origins embedded in the Victorian era (1837–1901) and its industrialisation of manufacturing and 159 labour, rugby league football has developed its influential structures, culture and traditions 160 161 (synonymous with the social and political ideals of the time and hegemonic masculinities discussed earlier) that remain today (Collins, 2006). A season-long (September to June) 162 ethnographic study at a professional club's England Talent Pathway (ETP) programme was 163 conducted to gain meaningful insights into these systems and processes. The ETP is a talent 164 development initiative developed by the Rugby Football League (RFL) and aims to increase 165 the number of talented 12 to14-year-old rugby league players (Rugby Football League 2015). 166 Every British Super League professional club runs the ETP provision and, unlike traditional 167 talent pathways, the ETP removes selection and de-selection through an inclusive approach 168 169 where any registered school or club player has the autonomy to attend any ETP provision in the country. 170

Situated within a Super League club in the north of England, the ETP was considered
to be an integral part of the clubs player development pathway, insofar that all the 2017/18
scholarship players were recruited from the club's ETP. The club ran multiple coaching
sessions during the week and on weekends, and all sessions took place at a local school's

floodlit artificial pitch. All sessions were field-based and aimed to improve players' 175 understanding of the game, mental attributes, movement, and coachability (Rugby Football 176 177 League, 2015). The first author gained access to the ETP through personal contact at the Super League club, and throughout the study was immersed as a full participant (Patton, 178 2002). To achieve this position, the first author volunteered as an ETP coach on the 179 programme, but fully disclosed his position and aim of the research to fellow coaches during 180 181 the first coach development meeting. Although disclosure was initially met with some scepticism from some of the coaches who viewed the lead author as an outsider, an insider 182 183 position was adopted due to the lead author's previous coaching experiences and coaching qualifications. 184

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#### 186 Research design and procedures

To develop a sophisticated understanding of the culture of groups or organisations from the 187 perspective of the members, ethnographic studies are considered a legitimate means for 188 generating insights into the sociocultural mechanisms that influence human forms of life 189 (e.g., Sparkes et al., 2020). This ethnographic study built on previously-collected interview 190 data to adopt a *critical realist* ethnography (Atkinson, 2017), positioning the underlying 191 socio-cultural-historical contexts to generate a deeper understanding of the factors that 192 influence traditions, customs, and practices in the specific ecological niche (see Rothwell et 193 194 al., 2018). In doing so, we take the position that the talent development setting alone cannot account for the behaviour of its inhabitants. Instead, their behaviour is a product of, not only, 195 the ETP, but the wider sociocultural practices of the communities they live in (Hammersley, 196 2006). 197

The ten-month period provided multiple data collection opportunities. Initially, coachmeetings and coach development sessions generated observation data, followed by weekly

observations of activities before, during, and after practice sessions. An observational funnel 200 approach was adopted (Alder & Alder, 1994), to gain a general understanding of the broader 201 sociocultural context (Tjora, 2006). Field notes were used throughout the observations to 202 203 capture and describe routines, behaviours, interactions, and specific incidents relevant to the research aim (Walford, 2009). Writing field notes during coaching sessions was not practical, 204 therefore, in line with the advice of Thorpe and Olive (2017), detailed field notes were 205 206 written away from the training facility immediately after practice had finished. Interview data were also collected in the form of casual conversations and organised individual unstructured 207 208 interviews to generate a more sophisticated understanding of the form of life present in the talent programme (Smith, 2013). Discussions between the researcher and participants also 209 provided opportunities to further explore experiences and to attach meaning to specific 210 211 situations that were explicitly related to the research aims (Smith & Sparkes, 2016).

The host university ethics board granted institutional ethical approval, and all the coaches (pseudonyms for the study are Barrie, head coach; Simon, Terry and Phil assistant coaches) in the study provided informed consent. Additionally, throughout the research process, a relational ethics position was adopted (Lahman et al., 2011). This approach was motivated by the research team's desire to develop "respectful connections" with the participants to fully appreciate how embedded sociocultural practices are in the talent development programme (Palmer, 2016, p. 319).

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# 220 Data Analysis

A relativist ontology and subjective epistemology guided the study, exposing researchers to
their own "value system", which can lead to the misinterpretation and distortion of data (Baur & Ernst, 2011, p. 120). Evident here, because of the first author's research position and
sociocultural biases acquired during previous experiences of managing a rugby league

football talent development programme. However, Elias (1956) argued that analysis of social 225 life must move between the researcher's subjective experiences of the world under study and 226 227 a level of distancing gained through an analytically detached perspective, allowing theory and reflection to provide a more objective view of the social environment under study. The first 228 author engaged in involvement-detachment theory by grounding continuous reflections and 229 the thematic analysis in the theoretical positions informing the research (Braun et al., 2016). 230 231 The first author did struggle to become entirely detached from the experiences of the ETP, althoug a conscious effort was made to remain detached throughout the data analysis process. 232 233 Indeed, Elias himself maintained that the involvement-detachment dynamic was a balance and that a fully detached position was impossible (Sinclair, 2016). Exemplified in this study 234 by the first author becoming empathetic towards the participants' (coaches') views towards 235 236 the highly disciplined and coach-led nature of practice. However, this fluid relationship between the involvement and detachment dynamic served to focus future observations, field 237 notes, and topics of conversation with the coaches. To further encourage reflexivity on how 238 the first author's presuppositions may have impacted on the construction of knowledge, the 239 second and third authors acted as "critical friends". Specifically, they provided opportunities 240 to engage in the process of critical dialogue to challenge interpretations made and to provide 241 a sounding board for reflection and exploration of multiple and alternative explanations for 242 the data (Smith & McGannon, 2018). 243

## 244 **Results**

Data analysis resulted in three main dimensions about the study aims and started to highlight
responses to the complex and dynamic relationships between people, context and the
sociocultural practices. The three dimensions are categorised as: (a) sociocultural practices
(masculinity and disciplined behaviour), (b) a socially- and culturally-constructed ecological
niche, and (c), the athlete-environment relationship.

#### 250 Sociocultural practices

Sociocultural practices refer to the specific details of how the dominant individuals within the 251 talent development setting influenced attitudes towards the development and performance of 252 the young players. Masculinity and disciplined behaviour were socially and culturally 253 constructed and reproduced by the actions, attitudes, and practices of key agents. These 254 attitudes were exemplified by one of the first author's encounters with the coaches during a 255 planning meeting, where a more established cohort of coaches was discussing a recent Super 256 257 League game. The discussion focused on the reasons why the losing team had not performed well, where the consensus was that the losing team were not 'tough enough' and 'lacked 258 259 discipline' (field notes). The weekly practice activities that the academy players participated in reflected these masculine and disciplined attitudes. In one practice session, observations 260 revealed that performance expectations followed a path of over-valuing and over-261 262 emphasising physical size and toughness, rather than emphasising skill performance, innovation, and dexterity. Apparent when two coaches were discussing a player who 263 264 demonstrated skilful play but was considered to lack 'heart': Simon: I really like him, he plays some nice stuff. 265 Phil: The problem with him he's a soft cunt, he doesn't like the contact. 266 Simon: Yea but look at him he's tiny. He'll grow over time. 267 Phil: I watched him last week at xxxxxxx (club), he went missing when it got tough. 268 Simon: Won't he develop (physically) over time? He's only 15. 269 Phil: He ain't got the heart for it. (Field notes) 270 This apparent toughness value was explored further through interviews, where masculine 271 identity was attirbuted to the sociocultural backdrop of the sport and the working class nature 272 273 of the rugby league community. Terry elaborates: Your city clubs, i.e., your xxxxx clubs, you know you're gonna get some rougher 274 lads who are open to a good fight and all that and even at an early (age), I mean, I 275 know for a fact. 276

277	The sociocultural context also embedded disciplined behaviour in the player
278	development practices, reflected in attitudes towards how the players should behave during
279	practice. These behavioural expectations were set and reinforced by the coaches' instructions
280	and actions, where, the norms of the environment restricted players from deviating away
281	from these expectations (i.e., running, passing, jumping and landing in a prescribed way and
282	demonstrating compliance with the 'right' attitude to learn). These expectations were (mostly)
283	reproduced by the players' willingness to conform to these normative behaviours, to comply
284	with instructions and avoid the critical, watchful eye of the coaches who were ultimately
285	responsible for their destiny. In one instance, during a warm-up task, a group of players were
286	considered to be 'messing around' by one of the more senior coaches because of their lack of
287	adherence to a task (the players had broken out into an impromptu tag game after completing
288	the warm-up task). The coach became frustrated by this, and his reaction revealed a
289	dissonance regarding players' expectations and the learning culture held by the coaches',
290	discussed here:

291 292 293 294 295 296	Phil: I would have bollocked them if I wasn't here, but at the club. Lead author: Why not here? Phil: The problem is kids come here to play games, not to learn. Lead author: Ok. Phil: They can't think, they need telling what to do and when to do it. (Field notes)
297	The conversation demonstrates the reciprocal and influential nature of individual and
298	environment interactions. On the one hand, the coach suppresses his initial instincts to have
299	"bollocked" (castigated) the players for not conforming with instructions, due to the
300	environmental expectations set by the professional club. Whereas, the players' expectation to
301	"play" games during practice ultimately influences (some) parts of practice. These conflicting
302	positions demonstrate how specific attitudes towards behaviour and practice are part of a

303 complex social and cultural dimension that can ultimately influence player and coach304 intentions.

#### 305 A socially- and culturally- constructed ecological niche

A goal of the talent development programme was to support player development through a 306 game sense approach. The rationale behind the professional club moving towards a game 307 sense approach was to support players to become more 'aware' and to improve their 'decision 308 309 making' behaviour. This aim was evident from the experiences of the coach development sessions, where coaches designed a range of games to support the development of 'decision 310 making' skills. The ETP coach resource also guided how to structure coaching sessions (e.g., 311 312 warm-up, game, movement, game, cool down, and summary (Rugby Football League, 2015), where a 'game sense' element features twice during a session. Barrie also reinforced this 313 position during the practice sessions, where he reminded the coaches about the approach to 314 practice. 315

The coaches are waiting to start practice. Players are starting to arrive, as they do most start kicking a ball to each other. Some play a small-sided game of touch rugby. Coaches are setting up the practices, discussing their session plans, and confirming who is doing which bit of the session. Barrie calls the coaches over to him and reminds them about his expectations. "Let the players enjoy and express themselves and don't be too worried about them making a mistake, let them learn without actually realising it through the game." (Field notes)

Although the professional club and national governing body promoted a game sense approach, deeper probing and observation revealed there was a clear disparity between the recommended method of practice and the coaches' customs and habits. Although a game sense method was used (because the coaches were instructed to), most of the coaches often reverted to traditional coaching methods (i.e., high levels of instruction and critical feedback). 328 Simon explained that the problem was that some of the coaches' just didn't 'get' a game sense329 approach; he elaborated:

Probably because it's ingrained (traditional practice methods) and they've been around 330 it for that long, and that's what they see as normal, that's what the current coaching 331 education programmes have kind of rammed down their throat. Scared to do anything 332 different and they don't quite understand, but at the same time there's probably a 333 small number of coaches that really do get it and are open and get the concepts so it's 334 probably down to the individual and how open they are or how maybe intelligent they 335 are, but also what a lot of clubs have got going against them is the norms what they've 336 337 seen for the last ten-twenty years maybe.

The 'norms' that Simon discussed indicated strong historical traditions of practice ingrained over time and aligned to a deterministic view of human behaviour. Simon discussed how previous playing experiences (creating a path dependency) might play a part in supporting these strongly-held coaching assumptions and traditions, leading to a status quo bias for a very specific coaching approach. Simon elaborates:

They've played with a successful amateur team, and they've obviously got a vision of how it was done back then, and if it doesn't look like what they were doing back, then they don't understand the way that things have changed.

Thus, the coaches tended to coach the way that they themselves were coached, exemplifying the 'path dependence' that haunts many sports organisations with strong cultural and

348 historical biases towards traditional ways of working. These customs, habits and traditions of

349 practice reinforced the provision of explicit knowledge and mental representations,

350 exemplified by the coaches' disproportionate use of instruction, demonstrations, and feedback

based on a putative, internalised, 'technical' model of player behaviour.

The intricacies of a rugby league 'technical' model (e.g., technical components such as pass, catch, tackle, kick) dominated conversations before and after practice sessions. Barrie explained that ensuring players mastered these optimal technical movement patterns, considered essential to play rugby league successfully, was a common goal across the sport. The result was an over-emphasis on repetitive, coach-driven practice designs that focused on all players acquiring basic technical competence, he elaborated:

On a typical training night where there's six squads training, and it all looks very the same and it's people queuing, it's people not listening being shouted at just the old traditional kind of they very much drill, stop listen to me. Just not a general understanding of how players develop and how different people learn and the need to put variety to sessions and players will develop at different rates, they all expect it to be a real linear process.

During the interviews the commonly held reductionist view of learning was explored. Coaches valued an ideology that the complex multi-dimensional actions during competition needed to be 'broken down' for players to learn them and to adequately play the game. This propensity for 'task decomposition' was exemplified by Terry, who explained about the importance of being 'more skilful' to compete, he explains:

The detail we put into players now and they've got more to think about in that detailed way of where to pass, kids nowadays know. Especially into this environment in a Super League club, they know that there's not gonna be weak players in front of them, so they've got to do everything more skilful and more detailed to try and break it down.

374 Terry's comments demonstrate the commonly-held view of determinate human behaviours,
375 where coaches' associated being 'skilful' with acquiring technical skills in highly specific

ways that closely replicated the sequentially-listed coaching points highlighted in rugby 376 league coaching manuals. For example, when coaching the sidestep, players must perform 377 these action components in sequence: 1. push off either foot when 1-2 metres away from the 378 defender, 2. drive selected foot hard against the ground and step away from a defender into 379 space, 3. land on opposite foot with a slight lean forward, 4. accelerate into space to reach top 380 speed (Rugby Football League, 2014). This reductionist and deterministic ideology to 381 measure players' performance improvement, reinforced the view of the human body as a 382 machine. This belief held by the coaches' resulted in them seeking mechanistic principles to 383 384 quantify performance improvement by providing explicit knowledge and mental representations to hone technical outputs. This approach was exemplified by Terry, who 385 explained how he supported one player at the club who had a chance of 'making it', by 386 387 providing him with information about these complex actions:

I'm putting a lot of input into him, I'm putting a lot of information into him because I know he can make it. It tell him don't practice poor, every time you practice make sure that everything is just more quality than quantity, just do it and just practice it really good and it'll come naturally to you then.

The dissonance between (most of) the coaches' socially and culturally constructed beliefs towards coaching practice and the approach promoted through the talent development programme of this professional sport organisation was evident throughout the programme. Interestingly, the cohort of coaches who held these strong beliefs never consciously challenged alternative methods and would agree that players needed better decision-making skills. However, ultimately the strong sociocultural influences ensured the status quo was maintained.

# 399 The athlete-environment relationship

Players' experiences of practice tasks and the coaches' behaviour during the field-based
sessions were considered influential in shaping players' thoughts and actions during
performance. Barrie felt that certain reductionist practice methods were supporting 'robotic'
player behaviours, meaning players could only react mechanistically to external features of
the environment, a limitation in the dynamic performance context of team sports. He
elaborates:

406

I think it (traditional practice methods) makes them (players) very coach dependent so
not necessarily very aware of themselves, what they need to improve on, not great at
making decisions, very robotic at times, unable to work things out for themselves so
the game's very, very structured now and as a result, people can't make great
decisions, yeah very robotic more than anything.

An example of the traditional practice methods that Barrie discussed aimed to enhance predictability and reduce uncertainty through rigid role specification and the reduction of personal autonomy. These traditional practice methods simply required players to 'go through the motions', to rehearse pre-planned actions, with very little emphasis on players to be responsive to the opportunities that may *emerge* in the practice environment. Exemplified here by a coach's session plan:

Mark out an area with 3 cones in a triangle shape with player 1 at the peak and 2 and
3 on the other corners. Player 1 starts with ball. Once he sets off player 2 and 3 time
their run so that P1 passes to P2 who in turn passes to P3. Every pass as to be
backwards and timed so that the ball stays in the middle area of the triangle. (Session
plan)

Reducing players' openness to information emerging within the environment was aconsistent feature of practice. Rather than letting the players interact with the practice

environment, coaches would use the experience to identify and correct poor 'technique' (i.e.,
not reproducing a movement as per the coaching manual). This situation was evident on
many occasions where coaches would pre-empt technical deficiencies before the session
starting, rather than enhancing opportunities to experience decision making actions. This
experience was exemplified here by pre-session email correspondence from a coach to the
lead researcher:

431 One coach will lead with it being game-based, and the other can pull players out432 while the game is running to make sure they are using correct techniques, 2nd game

433 we will switch roles, so both coaches are involved in both aspects of the session if

434 you're ok with that. (email communication)

435	This approach fostered an environment that valued players' 'reproduction of technique'
436	capacity as opposed to the programme aim of developing better decision-making behaviours,
437	where coach control, rather than player autonomy, was a constant feature of practice. The
438	result was that coaches adopted a 'coach-centred' approach by continually interrupting the
439	flow of practice to provide verbal instructions and corrective feedback if they felt that players
440	were not adhering to 'appropriate' technical competence, regardless of the outcome.
441	Demonstrated here by an exchange between Terry and the lead author:
442 443	Terry: Stop it, you need to stop it (the session), they're getting sloppy (at passing) Lead author: Right, ok
443 444 445	
443 444 445 446 447 448	Lead author: Right, ok
443 444 445 446 447	Lead author: Right, ok Terry walks onto the pitch, stops the practice and speaks to the players. Terry: Remember your passing, I don't want to see this any more (demonstrated an

454	The consequence of this technical bias was the influence on players' exploratory
455	behaviours during the chaos of gameplay. Demonstrated during a game designed to improve
456	players' ability to identify and attack space, a playing area was set up with increased width,
457	allowing more space for the attacking team to explore and exploit attacking opportunities.
458	During the 8 v 8 game players are using approximately 30 meters of the 60 meter
459	wide pitch. Both teams are crowding around the ball. The attacking team are not
460	making much ground, attacking players are happy to run into multiple defenders and
461	get tackled. Phil is getting frustrated. He starts shouting instructions to the attacking
462	team "space!" "where's space!", players don't respond, the coach gets more frustrated.
463	He stops the game and calls the players over to him and questions them about the
464	practice.
465 466 467	Phil: What's the aim of this game? (10 seconds passes, and the players have not responded) Phil: Attackers, what are you trying to do?
468 469	One of the more confident players responds.
470 471 472 473 474 475	Player: Find space Phil: So why are you only attacking the middle? (Another period of silence passes) Phil: This time I want you to use the whole width of the pitch. What will that create? Player: More space to attack. Phil: Ok, good, let's go.
476	The game resumes, and for a short, while the attacking team uses the full width, this
477	results in the performance behaviours the coach is expecting but also increased handling
478	errors and mistakes. Leading to the attacking team reverting to playing down the
479	"middle". (Field notes)
480	Although a minority of players were willing to respond to questions and explore the practice
481	landscape when encouraged to do so, the majority of players remained passive, unresponsive,

482 compliant and 'robotic' during practice (i.e., could only act when told to do so). This situation

illuminates the risks involved when a dichotomy of coaching approaches (identified
previously) contradict one another, creating dissonance and leaving players 'unsure' and
'apprehensive' about how they should interact with the coaches and the opportunities that
practice and competition provided for them.

#### 487 **Discussion**

#### 488 Sociocultural practices and the form of life

The study identified masculinity and disciplined behaviour as the dominant sociocultural 489 practices that influenced the coaches' and players attitudes towards performance and 490 491 development. Historically, masculinity and disciplined behaviour have been synonymous with rugby league since the sport's birth in 1895, a sport played and watched by members of 492 the industrial working class. The industrial workhouses shaped men and women through 493 arduous, masculine, and disciplined work conditions. This work organisation pattern was 494 495 influenced by Frederick Winslow Taylor's 'task system of management' (Taylor, 2008), 496 which aimed to remove manufacturing uncertainty by applying hierarchal systems of control 497 through rigid role specification and task repetition (Taylor, 1911). The workforce was merely a cog in the system and was submissive to institutional regimes. Consequently, on the rugby 498 field, these individuals were governed by the same institutional regimes honed on the shop 499 floor in the workhouses of the industrial north (Smith & Davids, 1992). These same 500 synergistic interactions between sport and society were demonstrated and reproduced by the 501 coaches (in the current study) perfunctory and inflexible attitudes towards player 502 503 performance and were ultimately maintained by the complex power relations embedded 504 within the rugby league academy (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007; Gearity & Mills, 2012). The authoritarian coaching approach embraced by the coaches, synonymous with the 505 506 traditional daily practices of the industrial workhouses, was based on normative models of 507 how players should adhere to performance solutions that emphasised aggression, toughness,

and the execution of predetermined movement behaviours (e.g., Denison et al., 2017). The 508 coaches embraced these familiar structural models of human learning based on notions of 509 510 *linear causality* (Kelso, 2007), with the belief that the enrichment of components can achieve improved athlete performance (e.g., technical component skills in rugby league), through 511 limiting performance variability, the constant repetition of single tasks, and continuous 512 monitoring for, and detection of, system errors (Schöllhorn et al., 2009). These socially- and 513 514 culturally-constructed beliefs and dispositions, demonstrate how powerful a form of life can be in sustaining customs, habits, attitudes, and practices within a sporting ecological niche 515 516 (Button et al., 2020).

However, the dominant form of life identified here can be problematic in sport 517 because socially and culturally constructed attitudes to coaching and performance can 518 519 marginalise players who do not possess the required traits to fit in (Uehara et al., 2018). 520 Exemplified by the expectation of players to follow orders, be tough, demonstrate manliness, and to adopt a disciplined attitude. However, these prevailing traits could be a challenge to 521 developing highly engaged and thinking athletes (e.g. Denison & Mills, 2014), to interact 522 with specific task goals and environmental information to utilise affordances to act under 523 changing performance conditions (Seifert et al., 2013). 524

# 525 The ecological niche and the athlete-environment relationship

To advance our understanding of an individual's experience of soliciting and non-soliciting
affordances, based upon sociocultural constraints, it is important to reconsider that
affordances are not simply possibilities for action that exist in an environment to offer
opportunities to an individual, but affordances can also invite or repel behaviours (Withagen
et al., 2017). Therefore, the performance environment should not be viewed as a "collection
of causes, but as a manifold of action possibilities" that makes behaviour possible (Withagen
et al., 2012, p. 251). From this perspective, how active organisms modify their ecological

niche can influence selection pressures on certain action possibilities over others (Matthews 533 et al., 2014), as Levins and Lewontin (1985, p. 106) noted: "The organism influences its own 534 535 evolution, by being both the object of natural selection and the creator of the conditions of 536 that selection". Player evolution and the notion of niche construction were evident throughout the current study, where the ETP coaches played an instrumental part in controlling, 537 regulating, and modifying the ecological niche through perceptions of performance 538 539 embedded in reductionist and deterministic attitudes. In the same way, as earthworms or birds shape development opportunities for their offspring, the ETP coaches passed on values, 540 541 beliefs, traditions, customs, and behaviours to the players, that had a major effect on the athlete-environment relationship, through a process known as 'ecological inheritance' 542 (Odling-Smee et al., 2013). 543

544 This conceptualisation of affordances has the potential to provide a different perspective on practice designs (for an excellent example in the sport of Rugby Union, see 545 McKay & O'Connor, 2018), and presents an important research question regarding factors 546 that influence bodily responsiveness to action possibilities, since "solicitations are subject-547 dependent, whereas affordances are not" (Dings, 2018, p. 4). Although research exploring 548 factors that solicit actions is in its infancy, early work has suggested that key variables such 549 as action capabilities (Warren, 1984), evolutionary history (Withagen & Chemero, 2009), 550 sociocultural factors (Rietveld & Kiverstein, 2014), and cultural pressures (Heras-Escribano 551 552 & de Pinedo, 2016) can influence an individual's engagement with the environment. This perspective leads us to the interrelated nature of a form of life, cultural pressures, and the 553 influence of the athlete environment relationship in perceiving affordances that attract or 554 555 repel solicitations. The practice environments experienced by the players in the current study consisted of affordances and information that could lead to successful engagement in practice 556 and competition. However, the cultural pressures forced athletes to take advantage of certain 557

affordances over others (e.g., Ramstead et al., 2016). As Reed (1996, p. 69) suggested, "[It] is 558 not the animal's brain that organises its world, but the evolutionary ecology of the animal that 559 560 organises its brain". Evolutionary ecology in this sense relates to the evolution of individual players within the England Talent Pathway (ETP), and how cultural pressures (i.e., high 561 levels of direct instruction, masculinity, and disciplined behaviour) shape 'selective 562 sensitivity' to relevant affordances (Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2019). From an evolutionary 563 564 perspective of the ETP, affordances to satisfy sociocultural practices were deemed more important for survival and were more likely to invite behaviour (e.g., playing safe to avoid 565 566 mistakes, reproducing optimal movement patterns as instructed by a coach, and reacting only to pre-organised external features of the environment), as opposed to the skilful engagement 567 with the other opportunities provided by the rich practice environment. So, although 568 569 affordances to support skilled intentionality were available to players to help them thrive in 570 performance (Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014), the sociocultural practices embedded in the form of life meant that players only responded to certain affordances. This theoretical 571 conceptualisation of affordances offers a means of explaining how the selection of a course of 572 action is based on the engrained, traditional environmental constraints of the athlete-573 environment system, which determine to what extent an individual is solicited by available 574 affordances (Ramstead et al., 2016). 575

Another challenge to the players actively engaging with the environment was the determinate, top-down, hierarchical model of human behaviour. Ribeiro et al. (2019) have referred to such external, top-down influences to the regulation of behaviour, as having a 'global-to-local' direction where external agents such as parents, teachers, and coaches oversee rehearsed set plays and pre-planned, coordinated collective actions, considered essential to regulate conscious thinking and action. These global-to-local tendencies were evident within the ecological niche, where wider sociocultural beliefs suggested that the

direction of interactions was dominated by a hierarchical, determinate, external influence to 583 globally orchestrate the dynamics of player coordination during practice and performance 584 (Araújo & Davids, 2016). Consequently, coaches designed learning tasks that enhanced 585 predictability and reduced uncertainty through rigid role specification and the reduction of 586 personal autonomy, with players becoming coach-dependent to satisfy global constraints. 587 However, this environmental determinism ignored the potential of players self-organisation 588 589 tendencies (athletes adapting and organising without external input in a 'local-to-global' direction), to capture the reciprocity between the athlete-environment relationship to form a 590 591 deeply entwined, complex, adaptive system (Davids & Araújo, 2010).

In contrast, a Gibsonian account of human behaviour suggests that individuals do not 592 need external input or the guidance of conscious thinking to find their way in the world; 593 594 rather they act unreflectively to harness a selective openness and responsiveness to the 595 relevant opportunities for action (affordances) (Gibson, 1979; Kiverstein & Rietveld, 2015). Interestingly, players demonstrated an openness and responsiveness to multiple affordances 596 during self-led activities (e.g., small-sided touch games before practice started), where 597 players demonstrated unique movements to skillfully engage with affordances, which in the 598 coach-led session, would be actively discouraged. In this sense, highly responsive and skilful 599 athlete behaviour is not the result of a form of life that promotes practice tasks requiring 600 athletes to rehearse, repeat and fluently perform isolated actions devoid of environmental 601 602 context. Rather, it is the degree to which individuals respond to relevant solicitations that leads to exceptional engagement whilst exploring a landscape of affordances (affordances 603 available in an ecological niche) (Kiverstein, van Dijk, & Rietveld, 2019). 604

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## 606 Implications for understanding the practitioner role in sport

Athletes who inhabit an ecological niche that encourages exploratory behaviours to 607 continuously search an affordance landscape (e.g., identifying and exploiting space, engaging 608 609 in interpersonal coordination to promote collaborative and creative behaviours between 610 teammates, and using variability of actions to de-stabilise attacker-defender dyads) to solicit actions, will more likely be in a state of action readiness to be selectively open to the specific 611 demands of a performance environment (Renshaw et al., 2019). Such ideas offer a means for 612 613 designing practice tasks that can harness an athlete's responsiveness to relevant affordances. Practitioners can harness these practice designs to appeal to an individual's motivation to seek 614 615 value (affordances) and meaning (information) in a performance environment (Reed, 1996). Task constraint manipulations can be employed to provide practice settings that allow 616 athletes to unreflectively search (using implicit learning to explore functional coordination 617 618 modes), discover (exploring task solutions), and exploit (exploiting inherent self-organisation tendencies in the perceptual-motor system) whilst satisfying goal-directed behaviour 619 (Renshaw et al., 2016). 620

In team sports performance, this aim can be achieved by implementing tactical 621 principles of play to constrain co-existing 'local-to-global' self-organisation tendencies to 622 help athletes utilise relevant affordances through their continuous interactions in practice 623 (Ribeiro et al., 2019). For example, game-based practices designed around tactical principles 624 of play (i.e., go forward, attack space, support the ball, apply pressure, and regain 625 626 possession), where athletes are constantly striving towards satisfying these specific intentions by searching and exploring the practice landscape (Fajen et al., 2008). Ribeiro et al., (2019) 627 argued that training in team sports needed to be re-designed to be more 'affordance regulated' 628 629 to capture a much more nuanced balance between pre-planned, structured actions (global-tolocal direction of control) and the unstructured interactions of players with events and plays 630 as they emerge on the field (local-to-global direction of control by players). It is this striving 631

that can enhance athlete-environment interactions to search for more functional movement
solutions and enrich an athlete's relationship with the environment (Kiverstein & Rietveld,
2015).

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#### 636 Conclusion

In this study, we have considered how a form of life in a sport organisation influences athletic 637 638 experiences and an athlete's engagement with available affordances of a competitive performance environment. Positioning the athlete-environment relationship as an important 639 640 unit of analysis for understanding behaviour can advance our understanding of how to strengthen an individual's functional relationship with practice and competition. In this 641 respect, our conceptualisation of affordances in a talent development programme as an 642 643 ecological niche can support groups of practitioners in designing high-quality learning and development experiences. The insights provided in this study of a rugby league club, aligned 644 to concepts in ecological dynamics, suggest that, more broadly, the aim of sport practitioners 645 and applied scientists should be to design learning environments embedded in an 646 environmental context that consists of value (affordances) and meaning (information) for the 647 learners. A limitation of this study was not drawing on the athlete's experience of the 648 ecological niche to determine factors that influence soliciting and non-soliciting affordances. 649 To further understand these theoretical insights in preparation for sport performance, it is 650 651 important to conduct similar field-based studies that combine quantitative athlete development measures (i.e., performance analysis, evaluation and assessments) with 652 phenomenological data to provide a more rich and insightful understanding of factors that 653 654 continually shape the athlete-environment relationship. Conducting research of a deeply integrated nature will also help applied scientists and practitioners determine how individuals 655

656	learn to satisfy a range of interacting constraints in the ecological context of sport
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