

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

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

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1 **Abstract**

2 From the theoretical perspective of ecological dynamics, skilful behaviour in performance  
3 contexts like sport and education is predicted on the establishment of a functional relationship  
4 between an individual and the environment. The strength of this functional relationship is  
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  
10 study, we draw on ethnographic data and theoretical tenets of James Gibson's ecological  
11 psychology to identify how the sociocultural practices of a British rugby league football  
12 academy might shape an athlete's engagement with affordances. Findings revealed that  
13 masculinity and disciplined behaviours were the dominant sociocultural practices,  
14 instrumental in developing beliefs, values, and customs of athlete development practices. An  
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,  
17 and inhibited individuals' capacities to respond to opportunities for action offered in many  
18 traditional practice designs. We conclude by discussing implications for sport practitioners  
19 that promote 'affordance-regulated' practice designs to enhance athlete-environment  
20 interactions.

21

22

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

25

## 26 **Introduction**

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

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

47 A growing body of research has continued to identify the normative practices  
48 apparent in sport cultures and organisations (e.g., Adams, 2020; Blackett et al., 2019; Purdy  
49 et al., 2009). To advance these findings for the benefit of athletes and coaches, Anver et al.  
50 (2020, p. 14) have argued for a "deeper understanding of the docility-producing effects" that

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

62

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

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

72 Ecological dynamics (the integration of ecological psychology and dynamical systems  
73 theory) is one such theoretical framework that can support sport practitioners in recognising  
74 social and cultural biases to coaching and talent development practices (Rothwell et al.,  
75 2020). Ecological dynamics rejects a traditional assumption that an individual's interactions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



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

154

## 155 **Methodology**

### 156 *Background and context*

157 A British rugby league football academy provided a research base due to the sport's rich and  
158 unique socio-cultural-historical backdrop. Formally organised in 1895, with its origins  
159 embedded in the Victorian era (1837–1901) and its industrialisation of manufacturing and  
160 labour, rugby league football has developed its influential structures, culture and traditions  
161 (synonymous with the social and political ideals of the time and hegemonic masculinities  
162 discussed earlier) that remain today (Collins, 2006). A season-long (September to June)  
163 ethnographic study at a professional club's England Talent Pathway (ETP) programme was  
164 conducted to gain meaningful insights into these systems and processes. The ETP is a talent  
165 development initiative developed by the Rugby Football League (RFL) and aims to increase  
166 the number of talented 12 to 14-year-old rugby league players (Rugby Football League 2015).  
167 Every British Super League professional club runs the ETP provision and, unlike traditional  
168 talent pathways, the ETP removes selection and de-selection through an inclusive approach  
169 where any registered school or club player has the autonomy to attend any ETP provision in  
170 the country.

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

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

185

### 186 *Research design and procedures*

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

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

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

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

219

## 220 *Data Analysis*

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

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

## 244 **Results**

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

250 *Sociocultural practices*

251 Sociocultural practices refer to the specific details of how the dominant individuals within the  
252 talent development setting influenced attitudes towards the development and performance of  
253 the young players. Masculinity and disciplined behaviour were socially and culturally  
254 constructed and reproduced by the actions, attitudes, and practices of key agents. These  
255 attitudes were exemplified by one of the first author's encounters with the coaches during a  
256 planning meeting, where a more established cohort of coaches was discussing a recent Super  
257 League game. The discussion focused on the reasons why the losing team had not performed  
258 well, where the consensus was that the losing team were not 'tough enough' and 'lacked  
259 discipline' (field notes). The weekly practice activities that the academy players participated  
260 in reflected these masculine and disciplined attitudes. In one practice session, observations  
261 revealed that performance expectations followed a path of over-valuing and over-  
262 emphasising physical size and toughness, rather than emphasising skill performance,  
263 innovation, and dexterity. Apparent when two coaches were discussing a player who  
264 demonstrated skilful play but was considered to lack 'heart':

265 Simon: I really like him, he plays some nice stuff.

266 Phil: The problem with him he's a soft cunt, he doesn't like the contact.

267 Simon: Yea but look at him he's tiny. He'll grow over time.

268 Phil: I watched him last week at xxxxxxxx (club), he went missing when it got tough.

269 Simon: Won't he develop (physically) over time? He's only 15.

270 Phil: He ain't got the heart for it. (Field notes)

271 This apparent toughness value was explored further through interviews, where masculine  
272 identity was attributed to the sociocultural backdrop of the sport and the working class nature  
273 of the rugby league community. Terry elaborates:

274 Your city clubs, i.e., your xxxxxx clubs, you know you're gonna get some rougher

275 lads who are open to a good fight and all that and even at an early (age), I mean, I

276 know for a fact.

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 'messaging 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           Phil: I would have bollocked them if I wasn't here, but at the club.

292           Lead author: Why not here?

293           Phil: The problem is kids come here to play games, not to learn.

294           Lead author: Ok.

295           Phil: They can't think, they need telling what to do and when to do it. (Field notes)

296

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 coach  
304 intentions.

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

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

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

323 Although the professional club and national governing body promoted a game sense  
324 approach, deeper probing and observation revealed there was a clear disparity between the  
325 recommended method of practice and the coaches' customs and habits. Although a game  
326 sense method was used (because the coaches were instructed to), most of the coaches often  
327 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 sense  
329 approach; he elaborated:

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

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

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

346       Thus, the coaches tended to coach the way that they themselves were coached, exemplifying  
347       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  
351       based on a putative, internalised, 'technical' model of player behaviour.



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

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

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

369 The detail we put into players now and they've got more to think about in that  
370 detailed way of where to pass, kids nowadays know. Especially into this environment  
371 in a Super League club, they know that there's not gonna be weak players in front of  
372 them, so they've got to do everything more skilful and more detailed to try and break  
373 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

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

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

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

399 *The athlete-environment relationship*

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

406  
407 I think it (traditional practice methods) makes them (players) very coach dependent so  
408 not necessarily very aware of themselves, what they need to improve on, not great at  
409 making decisions, very robotic at times, unable to work things out for themselves so  
410 the game's very, very structured now and as a result, people can't make great  
411 decisions, yeah very robotic more than anything.

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

418 Mark out an area with 3 cones in a triangle shape with player 1 at the peak and 2 and  
419 3 on the other corners. Player 1 starts with ball. Once he sets off player 2 and 3 time  
420 their run so that P1 passes to P2 who in turn passes to P3. Every pass as to be  
421 backwards and timed so that the ball stays in the middle area of the triangle. (Session  
422 plan)

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

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

431         One coach will lead with it being game-based, and the other can pull players out  
432         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         Terry: Stop it, you need to stop it (the session), they're getting sloppy (at passing)

443         Lead author: Right, ok

444

445         Terry walks onto the pitch, stops the practice and speaks to the players.

446

447         Terry: Remember your passing, I don't want to see this any more (demonstrated an  
448         incorrect passing action), right crack on.

449

450         Terry returns to the pitchside.

451

452         Terry: You've got to keep on at them, or they get sloppy. Don't be afraid to stop it  
453         (the practice) and tell them. (Field notes)

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 Phil: What's the aim of this game? (10 seconds passes, and the players have not  
466 responded)

467 Phil: Attackers, what are you trying to do?

468  
469 One of the more confident players responds.

470

471 Player: Find space

472 Phil: So why are you only attacking the middle? (Another period of silence passes)

473 Phil: This time I want you to use the whole width of the pitch. What will that create?

474 Player: More space to attack.

475 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

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

## 487 **Discussion**

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

489 The study identified masculinity and disciplined behaviour as the dominant sociocultural  
490 practices that influenced the coaches' and players attitudes towards performance and  
491 development. Historically, masculinity and disciplined behaviour have been synonymous  
492 with rugby league since the sport's birth in 1895, a sport played and watched by members of  
493 the industrial working class. The industrial workhouses shaped men and women through  
494 arduous, masculine, and disciplined work conditions. This work organisation pattern was  
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  
498 a cog in the system and was submissive to institutional regimes. Consequently, on the rugby  
499 field, these individuals were governed by the same institutional regimes honed on the shop  
500 floor in the workhouses of the industrial north (Smith & Davids, 1992). These same  
501 synergistic interactions between sport and society were demonstrated and reproduced by the  
502 coaches (in the current study) perfunctory and inflexible attitudes towards player  
503 performance and were ultimately maintained by the complex power relations embedded  
504 within the rugby league academy (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007; Gearity & Mills, 2012).

505         The authoritarian coaching approach embraced by the coaches, synonymous with the  
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,

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

517         However, the dominant form of life identified here can be problematic in sport  
518 because socially and culturally constructed attitudes to coaching and performance can  
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,  
521 and to adopt a disciplined attitude. However, these prevailing traits could be a challenge to  
522 developing highly engaged and thinking athletes (e.g. Denison & Mills, 2014), to interact  
523 with specific task goals and environmental information to utilise affordances to act under  
524 changing performance conditions (Seifert et al., 2013).

### 525 ***The ecological niche and the athlete-environment relationship***

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

605

606 *Implications for understanding the practitioner role in sport*

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

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

632 that can enhance athlete-environment interactions to search for more functional movement  
633 solutions and enrich an athlete's relationship with the environment (Kiverstein & Rietveld,  
634 2015).

635

## 636 **Conclusion**

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

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

657 performance.

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