

## Harnessing socio-cultural constraints on athlete development to create a form of life

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1 **Abstract**

2 The role of task constraints manipulation in pedagogical practice has received considerable attention in recent  
3 years, although there has been little focus on the role of socio-cultural constraints on an athlete's development to  
4 elite performance. Here, we aim to integrate ideas from a range of scientific sub disciplines to consider why  
5 certain behaviours and cultures (socio-cultural constraints) may exist in sport performance and coaching. Using  
6 recent conceptualisations of affordances in ecological dynamics, we explore how socio-cultural constraints may  
7 influence an athlete's development and relationship with a performance context. We also highlight how  
8 workplace practices emanating from the industrialisation of the nineteenth-century in countries like the UK may  
9 have influenced coaching practice and organisational behaviours from that time on. In particular, features such  
10 as strict work regimes and rigid role specification may have reduced personal autonomy, de-skilled performers  
11 and induced a 'body as machine' philosophy within sporting organisations. These traits could be considered  
12 counter to expert performance in sports where creativity and adaptive decision-making are important skills for  
13 athletes to possess. We propose that ecological dynamics is a theoretical framework that enhances the  
14 understanding of the influential nature of socio-cultural constraints on the development of athlete  
15 performance. Key ideas suggest that sport pedagogists and practitioners could develop methodologies which  
16 help design practice landscapes rich in information to encourage athlete autonomy to search for relevant  
17 affordances which invite functionally relevant actions for competitive performance with physical, psychological,  
18 emotional and social dimensions. Future research is needed to explore a range of sports to identify and clarify  
19 the relationship between socio-cultural constraints and expertise acquisition.

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22 **Key Words:** Ecological dynamics, affordance landscapes, socio-cultural constraints, learning design, expertise  
23 acquisition

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29 **1.0 Introduction**

30 Expertise in sport is multidimensional and emerges from the rich, continued interactions of an athlete  
31 with a range of task and environmental constraints in performance, simulated in practice (Davids, Button &  
32 Bennett, 2008). Ecological dynamics is a powerful theoretical framework to understand how sport practitioners  
33 can support athlete development, predicated on these complex and dynamic interactions, emanating from  
34 person-environment relationships (Davids, Handford & Williams, 1994). A key principle of ecological  
35 dynamics, relevant for the challenge of athlete development, is the interacting influence of task and  
36 environmental constraints on an athlete's ability to become attuned to the opportunities for action invited by  
37 objects, surfaces, features, terrains, and other people, in a performance setting, (known as affordances in  
38 ecological dynamics) (Davids, Güllich, Shuttleworth & Araújo, 2017). An increasingly functional relationship  
39 with a performance environment is the basis of expertise from an ecological dynamics rationale (Araújo &  
40 Davids, 2011). These ideas suggest that athletes who have been trained to select from a rich and diverse range of  
41 affordances available in a competitive performance environment, will be better prepared to perceive information,  
42 adapt their actions, make decisions and interact skillfully with ecological constraints of competition.

43 James Gibson (1979, p.119) argued that "the affordances of the environment are what it offers the  
44 animal". For example, in rugby league, a ball offers kicking by players when travelling on the ground or  
45 intercepting with their hands when moving through the air; a slow player invites a quicker player to run past  
46 him/her, or a hard pitch offers sidestepping on. Recently, Gibson's initial conceptualisation of affordances has  
47 been revisited to emphasise the invitational characteristic of affordances to individuals with the relevant  
48 experiences, skills and capacities (Withagen, de Poel, Araújo & Pepping, 2012; Rietveld & Kiverstein, 2014;  
49 Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014; Withagen, Araújo & de Poel, 2017). Here, we elucidate what these refinements  
50 imply for making sense of the variety of socio-cultural practices that are embedded in what the philosopher  
51 Ludwig Wittgenstein termed forms of life (Wittgenstein, 1953), which consist of behaviours, skills, capacities,  
52 attitudes, values, beliefs, practices and customs that shape the communities we live in. The features of a form of  
53 life subsequently shape how we live (Rietveld & Kiverstein, 2014; Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014).

54 Extrapolating these ideas, we contend that there are current examples of 'forms of life' identifiable in  
55 sport (e.g. related to ski-ing in Northern Europe, soccer in Brazil, cricket in South Asia, and rugby union in New  
56 Zealand). These forms of life in specific sports demonstrate how influential specific socio-cultural and historical  
57 constraints have been in developing sporting excellence. They can explain why certain performance styles are

58 developed in certain regions and why they are valued and exploited to establish dominance in elite sport.  
59 Athletic sprinting in Jamaica, for example, is ingrained in the sporting culture and has a history and tradition of  
60 excellence, strongly influenced by the G. C. Foster College for Physical Education and Sports where the  
61 country's athletic coaches are educated in a Jamaican 'way of sprinting' (Moore, 2015). In these sporting cultures  
62 a form of life can be highly influential in how sport practitioners construct and design the micro structure of  
63 practice, that could have positive or negative effects on athlete performance. However, the notion of different  
64 countries or regions being associated with a particular 'style' or 'way' of practicing and performing in a sport is  
65 rather simplistic, lacks theoretical substance and requires conceptual clarification in order to help us understand  
66 the basis for performance development. For example, to enhance athlete development, is it feasible for one  
67 country to simply imitate a way of practicing or performing associated with another (highly successful) nation in  
68 a sport (Harris, 2017)? Simply imitating the traditional practices of another nation may present performance  
69 challenges without first exploring, understanding, and embracing the form of life that influences the factors that  
70 lead to another nation's success in competitive sport.

71         Here we contend that differences in quality of performance and playing styles are substantively based  
72 on a specific 'form of life', often developed under specific historical, socio-cultural constraints in particular  
73 geographical locations in the world. Forms of life are predicated on highly specific customary, habitual, highly  
74 developed, yet responsive, modes of performing, competing, training and practising which result in the  
75 preference to design specific types of affordance landscapes in athlete development programmes. Exploiting the  
76 invitational nature of affordances when designing affordance landscapes in practice task designs (Withagen et  
77 al., 2012; Withagen et al., 2017), should aim to make effective skilled action more likely to emerge. In these  
78 affordance landscapes, specific practice task designs guide developing athletes in their search for functional  
79 relationships with performance environments founded on skill, expertise and talent (Davids et al., 2017).  
80 Although recent clarifications of Gibson's conceptualization have made valuable contributions to the literature  
81 on affordances, little is known in sport domains about how a form of life can help sport practitioners to harness  
82 local socio-cultural practices to influence affordance utilisation and the acquisition of sporting expertise.  
83 Understanding more about this issue can help sport pedagogists to identify and exploit key socio-cultural  
84 constraints to enhance the quality of athlete development in specific sports (Uehara, Button, Falcous & Davids,  
85 2016; Araújo et al., 2010). First, we provide a brief historical case into why 'forms of life' and associated  
86 behaviours and customs may exist and influence sport expertise.

87 **2.0 Historical Influences on Sport Performance and Coaching: The case of UK Rugby Football League**

88 As with any social phenomenon, the extent to which history influences socio-cultural practices cannot  
89 be ignored. In the case of sport coaching in the United Kingdom, for example, industrialisation during the  
90 nineteenth-century influenced social structures and trends, which in turn influenced workplace practice and  
91 behaviours from that time onwards, shaping training methods in later years (Lyle, 2002). Increasing  
92 industrialisation during the 1800s was successful, in part, to the production line ethos, which was later strongly  
93 influenced by the American mechanical engineer Fredrick Winslow Taylor's systematised approach to industrial  
94 efficiency. During a lecture on industrial efficiency in 1907, Taylor (2008, p. 215) provided insights into the  
95 work place practices that contributed to his systematic management methods. His advice was straightforward:

96 Managers should not allow employees to think for themselves but make sure they simply carry out  
97 tasks as instructed, our scheme does not ask any initiative in a man. We do not care for this initiative.  
98 All we want of them is to obey the orders we give them, do what we say, and do it quick. That scheme  
99 of giving minute instructions to every man, that is assigning him a task, having that task all planned for  
100 everyone [Emphasis added].

101 Of interest is how these ideas filtered into cultural practices in institutional programmes in education  
102 and sport affecting the development of individuals. One sport with a relevant socio-cultural-historical backdrop  
103 to provide insights into how coaching behaviours and practice design shape how players acquire performance  
104 skills, is British rugby football league. Historically, rugby football league's roots originated in the north of  
105 England, where playing regions had been built on the key industries of the Victorian era (1837 to 1901). The  
106 writings of sport historian Tony Collins (2006, p. 149) provide insights into how these strong social-cultural-  
107 historical roots may have influenced the values of rugby league players, suggesting that 'the attitudes of rugby  
108 league players were, therefore, shaped and defined by the world of industrial labour, which was intensely  
109 physical, often aggressively oppositional to management and, above all, almost absolutely masculine'.

110 It is understandable that the reductionist nature of Taylor's methods and the attitudes and behaviours  
111 associated with industrial labour were manifested in other parts of society at that time, including the sport  
112 domain (Kiely, 2012). This process of perfidious filtration had strong connections to coaches and trainers  
113 applying 'production line principles' to design systematic training programmes aimed to enhance athlete  
114 performance (Smith & Davids, 1992). A stronger focus on enhanced athlete performance was perhaps down to

115 the increasing professionalisation of sport performance through structuring practice and training requirements  
116 during the early 1900s (Day & Carpenter, 2015). The sporting forms of life that adopted ideas from Taylorism  
117 and the industrial workplace in the commodification of athletes, were applied to the design of sports  
118 performance programmes, where strict work regimes and rigid role specification reduced personal autonomy  
119 and induced a 'body as machine' philosophy (Smith & Davids, 1992). Taylor's legacy is still evident in the sport  
120 domain today, where 'reproductive style' coaching approaches that favor the decomposition of movement into  
121 anatomical units to 'reproduce' skilled actions are still common (Davids, Güllich, Shuttleworth, & Araújo, 2017).  
122 In rugby league, for example, when learning the "6 O'clock pass" performers are required to: (i) point the ball to  
123 6 O'clock, and (ii), pass over the front foot (Rugby Football League Level 2 Coaching Manual, 2014). These  
124 traits were valued in the socio-cultural contexts of the Victorian era in the UK but run counter to attributes  
125 considered conducive to team sport performance, in contemporary society, where, autonomy within  
126 collaborative efforts, creativity and adaptive decision-making are viewed as important skills for athletes to  
127 possess (Mermert, Baker & Bertsch, 2010; Araújo & Davids, 2015). As discussed next, socio-cultural  
128 constraints shape the way that an athlete develops a relationship with the available affordances to invite  
129 functional actions and behaviours during competition.

### 130 **3.0 Sporting Forms of Life, Affordances and Athlete Performance**

131 A key tenet of Gibson's (1979) theory of affordances is the relational nature between affordances and  
132 an ecological niche. Within an athlete performance context, this is especially related to an individual's current  
133 available experience, abilities and capacities, captured in their intrinsic dynamics (dispositional tendencies) in a  
134 constraints-based framework (Schöner, 1994; Vallacher, van Geert & Nowak, 2015). Gibson (1979), and more  
135 recently, Rietveld and Kiverstein (2014, p. 326) suggested that affordances are not simply action opportunities  
136 offered by the environment, but are dependent on the 'abilities available in a particular ecological niche';  
137 important to this point is how an ecological niche can be 'shaped and sculpted by the rich variety of social  
138 practices humans engage in'. Rietveld and Kiverstein's (2014) conceptualisation of affordances connotes the  
139 mutuality of the athlete-environment relationship which is embedded in forms of life. The theory of affordances  
140 embedded in forms of life provides a powerful rationale for the application of this key idea by sport practitioners  
141 to consider the (socio-cultural and historical constraints in) environments which shape expectations and beliefs  
142 on how athletes should behave, perform in competition, develop and learn (for example, Taylorism and  
143 systematic workplace practices may have influenced the same employee's view of performing, developing and

144 training, who then went on to coach and play team sports). This conceptualization is important for considering  
145 how to maximise the design and resourcefulness of practice environments and the socio-cultural practices that  
146 athletes engage in around the globe in different societies, and communities with distinct social, physical and  
147 geographical locations. It can provide a lens for practitioners to understand the potential for transfer of  
148 (successful) practices and methods from one cultural context to another.

149         Forms of life are recognisable within coaching values, practice, and behaviours across sports, which are  
150 constructed by the relationship between wider social values and key individuals involved in specific sports (Day  
151 & Carpenter, 2015). An individual who transitions between social contexts (i.e. communities, workplaces and  
152 the coaching arena) is influenced by normalised social values which continuously influence the relational nature  
153 between affordances and the ecological niche (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Consider a form of life in British rugby  
154 league, where 'percentages, position and possession have been the prevailing mind set of late' (Woods, 2017, p.  
155 7). The players being considered almost as mere machinery in the greater strategic planning of the high  
156 performance sports organisation. The consequences of this form of life are exemplified by the perceptions of ex-  
157 Great Britain Rugby League International Phil Clarke (2016, p. 11), warning against the normalisation of  
158 'machine-like' behaviours in athletes:

159         I worry that we are stifling the talents of more players by getting them to play like robots [Emphasis  
160 added]. The obsession with completion rates discourages players from taking a risk. We need to  
161 radically alter that thinking and encourage players not to worry about being wrong and losing the ball,  
162 mistakes will happen.

163         This account is consistent with the occupational ideals of Taylorism, prevailing assumptions of  
164 managerialism and the socio-cultural-historical insights into rugby league provided earlier. This process-  
165 oriented approach that adopts a dualist stance (i.e., separating mind and body) can be embedded in the socio-  
166 cultural practices that are manifested through a sports or teams coaching practices and behaviours (Lombardo,  
167 1999), where coaches design practice tasks based on the decomposition of complex individual or team skills  
168 (Chow, Davids, Button & Renshaw, 2016). Although structure and organisation may have benefits during  
169 athlete learning, over exposure to practice landscapes that reduce opportunities for action and promotes  
170 systematic and predictable behaviours, can affect an athlete's responsiveness to relevant affordances. This  
171 perspective is exemplified by ex-Great Britain international Phil Clarke (2016, p. 7/10) who describes a  
172 common structured playing style:

173           The 'structured' play of who stands where, runs into which hole in their opponents' defensive line,  
174           passes behind which team-mate, it's a bit like watching a driverless car .... There is a bigger danger  
175           that the shift away from autonomous thinking in attack will become boring - if it hasn't already. Worse  
176           still, we are in danger of damaging young players by encouraging them to copy this style of play  
177           [Emphasis added].

178           Withagen et al. (2017) have argued against this mechanistic conception of human behaviour, instead  
179           favouring the role of agency (i.e. individuals can make their own way in the world) to better understand how  
180           affordances can be designed to invite or solicit functional behaviours. The notion of agency does not mean  
181           athletes should be 'programmed' to respond to certain affordances, but should 'unreflectively' interact with the  
182           affordances available in a performance environment that invite their actions (Rietveld, 2008). Importantly,  
183           advocating that athletes have agency and can, therefore, act autonomously in their performance environment,  
184           prioritises the person-environment relationship as the important scale of analysis in regards to developing  
185           human movement behaviours (Withagen et al., 2017). This idea implies that sport pedagogists, and the socio-  
186           cultural practices they influence, must support the autonomy needed by athletes during competitive performance.  
187           They can develop the autonomy of athletes by facilitating their active exploration of a landscape of available  
188           affordances during practice, which helps them to perceive and pick up action opportunities which exist in a  
189           performance environment (Araújo, Davids & Hristovski, 2006). This re-conceptualisation proposes a significant  
190           role for coaches as 'designers' of affordance landscapes, as part of a comprehensive 'form of life' in high  
191           performance and elite development programmes, which simulate critical aspects of competitive performance  
192           environments. Although this approach to expertise acquisition is theoretically coherent, within professional  
193           rugby league, experiential knowledge of experts has pointed to the existence of a form of life that is more  
194           consistent with mechanistic and reductionist approaches in line with traditional working practices.

195           A challenge for sport pedagogists is to develop evidence-based methodologies which help them move  
196           away from mechanistic and reductionist approaches that force athletes to seek putative 'common optimal  
197           movement templates' in training (Brisson & Alain, 1996). Rather, sport pedagogists and practitioners could  
198           work collaboratively guided by a universal principled theoretical framework with other practitioners (e.g.,  
199           strength and conditioning specialists, psychologists, trainers, coaches, performance analysts, skill acquisition  
200           specialists) in a 'Department of Methodology'. The aim of a Department of Methodology could be for group  
201           members to collaboratively design practice landscapes rich in information (i.e. visual, acoustic, and haptic)



202 based on a powerful and comprehensive theory of human behavior to guide implementation of methods,  
203 encouraging the exploration of affordances utilised to shape and guide performance behaviours with physical,  
204 psychological, emotional and social dimensions (Davids, Araújo, Hristovski, Passos & Chow, 2012).  
205 Collaborative work in a Department of Methodology, based on an ecological dynamics rationale, could lead to  
206 an agreed understanding of when, how, why and, by whom, particular fields of a landscape can be searched  
207 during practice. If sporting forms of life provide athletes with opportunities to explore practice landscapes  
208 varying in informational constraints, providing what Bernstein (1967, p. 204) called 'repetition without  
209 repetition' (i.e., athletes exploring and discovering multiple performance solutions to achieve the same goal  
210 directed task), they are more likely to develop the functionality required to continuously co-adapt their  
211 behaviors to a range of evolving environmental and task constraints (Seifert, Button & Davids, 2013; Pinder,  
212 Davids, Renshaw & Araújo, 2011). Individuals who improve their situation in a performance setting by  
213 unreflectively responding to relevant affordances (solicitations of the environment) are considered to have an  
214 optimal grip on the situation (e.g. simultaneous attunement to multiple relevant affordances) (Rietveld &  
215 Kiverstein, 2014; Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014), the basis of autonomous behaviors in sport performance  
216 contexts. The notion of skilled intentionality (an individual's tendency towards an optimal grip) can provide  
217 sport practitioners with a suitable conceptual framework to understand how to support athletes' to become  
218 attuned to a field of affordances, underpinning their agency in competitive sport. Skilled intentionality is  
219 founded on the intertwined relationship between emotion, cognition, perception and action of athletes who are  
220 challenged by sport practitioners to adapt to dynamic constraints of specific fields of an affordance landscape.  
221 The aim is to support each athlete in gaining an optimal grip on the relevant affordances in a landscape to  
222 develop a functional relationship with the performance environment (Araújo & Davids, 2011).

223         The phenomenological notions of skilled intentionality, optimal grip, and field of affordances applied  
224 to athletes, signify that they: (i) have developed high levels of functionality to adapt to varied challenges in  
225 performance settings, enhancing their decision making capacities and the autonomy needed to interact with  
226 teammates and opponents; (ii) have adapted to the relevant physical conditioning to function at high levels  
227 throughout competition, and (iii), have developed the resilience and emotional regulation strategies needed to  
228 flourish in competitive performance. Consequently, an athlete's concerns and abilities are constantly evolving,  
229 signifying that their functionality towards an optimal grip on a field of affordances is adaptable to varied  
230 situations (Rietveld & Kiverstein, 2014; Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014), through their ability to develop a  
231 functional relationship with dynamic performance environments (Araújo & Davids, 2011). This point is

232 demonstrated by the experiential knowledge of Castleford Tigers Head Coach, Daryl Powell (2017, p. 4) (At the  
233 time of writing Castleford Tigers were top of the British Super League table, having scored 149 more points  
234 than their closest rivals (BBC, 2017)).

235

236 For me, you should have your own philosophy and culture as a coach – and at Castleford we believe  
237 *that we're different*. I like the way we play and I'm excited by it – I'm coaching them, so I should be.  
238 If you're not excited about what you're doing, you should be doing something else. We have a way of  
239 *playing, but we're always* tweaking it. If teams *expect something from us then we'll* throw something  
240 else at them. *We're hard to coach against and we won't change that*. As a coaching group we like to be  
241 inventive and I know the players enjoy playing the way we do [Emphasis added].

242 This extract suggests the existence of a form of life (philosophy and culture embedded in a  
243 methodological framework) that refuses to subscribe to conventional styles of play, discussed earlier by Phil  
244 Clark. Consequently, the team has a different way of playing that exploits evolving practice landscapes that  
245 require players to use information to continuously co-adapt their actions to the movements of opponents and  
246 teammates in achieving task goals (Chow et al., 2016). Being embedded in a form of life of this nature means  
247 that players become sensitive to and utilize (rapidly appearing and dissolving) affordances in dynamic  
248 performance contexts that are not effectively simulated under the narrow task constraints of traditional socio-  
249 cultural practices (i.e. styles of play). These ideas imply how transitioning of teams between performance states  
250 of stability and relative instability, can emerge to underpin successful performance in sports such as rugby  
251 league.

#### 252 **4.0 Conclusions and Future Research**

253 We argued that the social, cultural, and historical contexts in which athletes develop an increasingly  
254 functional relationship with a performance context are important constraints on expertise which are relevant to  
255 understand in sport. This category of constraints is currently lacking in substantive empirical research,  
256 especially with respect to their effects on expertise in sport (Uehara et al., 2016), although there are strong  
257 theoretical and philosophical ideas which implicate their importance in shaping behaviors. An important  
258 challenge for sport practitioners is to elucidate the role of socio-cultural constraints in the design of affordance  
259 landscapes to enhance the development of sport expertise. In tackling this challenge, high performance sport can  
260 use a powerful theoretical and methodological framework to guide sport practitioners in exploring socio-cultural

261 constraints to facilitate an athlete's utilization of the multitude of available affordances to support skilled action.  
262 The role of ecological dynamics in this task will focus attention on the person-environment relationship, leading  
263 to a better understanding of the relationship between socio-cultural constraints and the emergence of an athlete's  
264 skilled behaviours (Araújo, 2010).

265 To address these challenges Bronfenbrenner's proposed bioecological model of human development  
266 provides methodological guidance for identifying relevant socio-cultural constraints that affect the development  
267 of athletes (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), and looks beyond the athlete's immediate environment (although important)  
268 to explore the wider socio-cultural constraints that influence skilled behaviour (Gabbard & Krebs, 2012). The  
269 evolution of the bioecological model of human development (Rosa & Tudge, 2013) does not provide a universal  
270 explanatory theory of skilled behavior (Araújo et al., 2010). However, adopting the model can provide  
271 methodological guidance to analyse the relationships that evolve between an athlete's exposures to a multitude  
272 of constraints (e.g., person, process, context, time), the influence these constraints have on affordance utilization,  
273 and the socio-cultural practices that are embedded in sporting forms of life (Krebs, 2009). To explore these  
274 relationships a mixed methods research approach can be employed to detail a form of life in a specific sport,  
275 establish the relationships between a form of life and an athlete's capacity to utilize available affordances, and  
276 analyse the task-specific relations between athletes and dynamic practice and competition settings. An  
277 ecological dynamics examination of the person environment relationship will allow a functional analysis to  
278 identify how perception and action can be harnessed to pick up and utilize affordances by individuals (Warren,  
279 1988).

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