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### Reconceptualising professional learning through knowing-in-practice:

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- 1 Reconceptualising Professional Learning through Knowing-in-Practice: A
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# 9 Reconceptualising Professional Learning through Knowing-in-Practice: A 10 Case study of a coaches high performance centre

In response to existing coach development literature that is negative regarding the 11 12 formal education experiences coaches' encounter, there has been a conceptual and practical shift towards recognising the coaching workplace as a legitimate site for the 13 14 development of professional knowledge. Building upon contemporary studies of 15 learning 'in situ', this paper draws upon the theory of practice architectures to provide an innovative language by which to capture the complexity of learning within this 16 context. In doing so, the cultural-discursive, material-economic, and socio-political 17 18 arrangements of practice are shown to either enable or constrain particular learning 19 activities via the interplay of semantic, social, and physical conditions. Drawing on data from a 10-month ethnographic study of a high-performance training centre 20 21 (following 6 coaches and 3 support staff), findings highlighted the significant role the 22 macro-structural features of sport played in determining the learning valued within this sports organisation. Through engagement with the inherent 'learning culture', coaches 23 24 were seen to negotiate their perceptions and engagement with learning affordances. The 25 implications of this study are to draw attention towards the challenges a transient 26 coaching workforce within a dynamic professional environment, present to those (i.e. 27 future education designers, researchers) attempting to foster effective workplace 28 learning environments.

Keywords: sports coaching; practice architecture; CPD; professional development;
 workplace learning; knowing-in-practice

#### 31 Introduction

The last two decades has seen an increasing focus on the social conditions and characteristics 32 33 of professional development (PD) that facilitate change in practitioner's practices (Stewart, 2014). Moving beyond passive and intermittent notions of learning, evidence suggests that 34 35 quality PD involves active learning (Desimone, 2009), consistent learning opportunities 36 (Little, 2012), linked to practice (Kunter, Kleickmann, Klusmann, & Richter, 2013) and 37 supported through learning communities (Cherkowski, 2012). This in turn has led to a greater focus on the workplace as a legitimate site for professional learning (Cairns & Malloch, 38 39 2011), and specifically, the processes of knowledge construction and change as they occur in the day-to-day activities of organisational work (Gherardi, 2009; Fenwick, 2008). 40 Contemporary approaches to PD therefore recognise learning-as-practice, bound in an 41

embodied and contextual process (Fenwick, Nerland and Jensen, 2012). However, what is not
known is the manner in which these processes are interrelated, or indeed the mechanisms that
underpin these interactions (Rynne, Mallett, & Tinning, 2010). It therefore remains unclear
how such collaborative and social learning processes can best occur (Billett and Choy, 2013),
and by what means such understanding can be used to inform future educational pathways.
This has led to a situation where there is little secure evidence about 'what works' in CPD to
change learners' behaviours and improve practice.

49 Sport coaching is a case in point, where research has tended to focus on the agency between the individual and specific CPD activities (Armour, 2014; Nelson et al., 2013), with less 50 51 consideration of the impact of organisational structures (e.g. funding, organisation cultures, 52 rebranding, leadership, government policy) on professional development (Jones, Edwards, & Viotto Filho, 2016; Griffiths, Armour, & Cushion, 2016). The exception has been the recent 53 work of Rynne et al., (2010) and Mallett et al (2016) who have examined high performance 54 55 centres in identifying those features that constitute effective learning in situ. Within this research, it has been identified that coach learning is best understood in terms that recognise 56 the interests and subjectivities of individuals, within a context shaped by the physical, social 57 and educational provisions of an organization. However, in the coaching literature questions 58 remain about in situ learning, including how coaches' dispositions towards learning 59 engagement develop over time (Griffiths & Armour. 2013), how cultural context influences 60 61 learning (Barker-Ruchti Barker, Rynne, & Lee, 2016), or how learning affordances might be shaped over the lifecycle of the organisation? 62

63 In this paper, we argue that there is a need for a greater understanding of the wider structural 64 factors that mediate sustained learning impact, and it is here that the paper contributes to existing knowledge on coaching CPD. Drawing on the concept of Practice Architecture 65 66 (Kemmis, Wilkinson, Edwards-Groves, Hardy, Grootenboer, & Bristol, 2014) as an exploratory framework, this research reveals how the situated actions, dialogues, structures 67 68 and relationships in a high performance training centre collectively constituted a 'Practice Architecture' through which workplace inquiry/learning was mediated. The value in utilising 69 PA is that it addresses criticisms of existing situated learning theories (i.e. Communities of 70 Practice, Activity Theory, Relational Interdependence), by not simply assuming the social 71 72 world writes itself onto individual persons (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008) or that people are active agents writing themselves into practices (Goodyear et al., 2016). It is hoped that the 73 74 insights suggested here will inform the understandings of coaches' professional development within the workplace, and offer learning providers a language by which to capture thecomplexity of workplace learning environments.

#### 77 Theoretical Background

78 The theory of 'practice architectures' (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008; Kemmis and Heikkinen, 2012, Kemmis et al., 2014) suggests that human behaviour, or practice, unfolds 79 80 amid the arrangements of time and space within a given 'situated' context (Hemmings Kemmis, & Reupert., 2013). Practice is not merely located within a particular setting, but 81 82 continually shaped by the historical and cultural conditions of that locality at any given 83 moment (Kemmis, 2012). Specifically, the theory suggests that practice is the result of three 84 interdependent arrangements: cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political. Examining the interplay of these features has the propensity to highlight how existing 85 86 practices are both enabled and constrained, and presents the opportunity to generate new 'knowing-in practice' questions, such as what kinds of social and material arrangements 87 facilitate knowing, learning, workplace and innovation (Brown & Duguid, 1991). 88

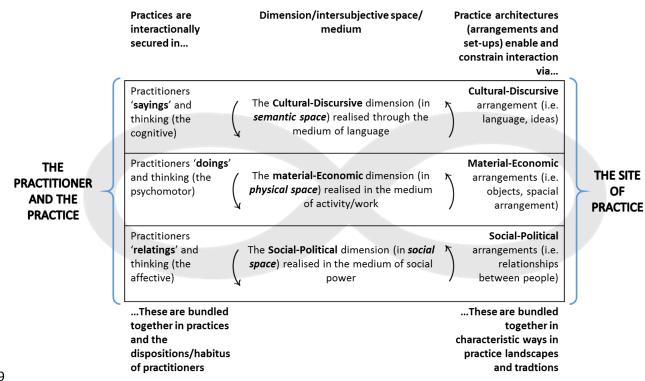
The cultural-discursive arrangements are the resources that constitute the language and 89 discourse of practice. These semantic arrangements are seen as those which capture the 90 'sayings' characteristic of a given practice, through the language that is used in 'describing, 91 interpreting and justifying' behaviour (Kemmis et al., 2014, p.32). For example, Rynne and 92 Mallett (2012) highlighted within Australian performance coaching that some individuals 93 maintained isolated learning practices from a fear of being seen to not have all the answers 94 95 (i.e. perceived as incompetent). As such, the culturally informed discourse of the coaching workplace has the capacity to restrict collaborative learning practices. 96

97 The material-economic arrangements of the physical space relate to those resources that condition the activity and work of practice. These arrangements are those that enable and 98 99 constrain the 'doings' of practice, as they define 'what can be done amid the physical set-ups' 100 of practice locations (Kemmis et al., 2014, p.32). For example, within Rynne et al., (2010) study of high performance coaches it was noted that coaches on different funding programs 101 had access to varying levels of resources (e.g. programs designated as 'developmental' had 102 limited access to sports science and strength and conditioning support staff). As such, the 103 104 nature of the workplace might predetermine the affordance of collaborative learning interactions, thus promoting or inhibiting opportunities for engaging in generative learning 105 106 experiences.

107 The social-political arrangements, located within the social space, mediate the social relationships between individuals through the medium of power and solidarity. These 108 arrangements guide the interpretation of roles, rules and organisational function through 109 shared understandings and practical agreements (Kemmis et al., 2014). For example, Culver 110 et al., (2009) demonstrated that within a Canadian youth ice hockey league, fostering 111 cooperative learning amongst coaches was fundamentally challenging given the innately 112 competitive nature of the sport and league. The implications for learning designers is that the 113 construction of coaches' roles, and the rules within a given context, might impede upon 114 115 attempts to employ new coaching/learning strategies.

116 The implications of PA for coach education designers is that the interplay between the semantic, physical, and social dimensions of the workplace enable and constrain practice 117 through practitioners participation, where participation is inevitably the outcome of personal 118 dispositions (Hodkinson et al., 2008) Participation therefore acts to shape and reshape the 119 particular 'site of practice', creating practice traditions that are intersubjectively and 120 interactionally secured with different participants over time (Kemmis et al., 2014). Thus 121 within any site, there exists a collective memory of the practice that pre-figures and pre-122 defines the practices created and maintained within and by organisations, their contexts, and 123 124 the individuals that populate them. The following figure (1) clarifies the nature of this interdependence, demonstrating how the dispositions of 'individuals' (left), interact with the 125 126 arrangements of the 'sites' (right), to create the various dimensions of intersubjective space (middle). 127

128





130 Figure 1: Illustration of practice architectures framework (Adapted from Hemmings et al., 2013)

The value of practice architectures is to emphasise that practice involve orchestration, of and between, people and objects, within settings that are spatially and temporally sensitive (Kemmis et al., 2012). In recognising this, it can be understood that practice architectures transform over time, creating (practice) traditions that encapsulate the histories of practice (Kemmis et al., 2014), that through comprehension may inform educational judgements about what pedagogical change is possible in a given scenario.

137 Coach learning when viewed *in situ* takes place amongst, and within, the particular facets of spatially and temporally sensitise practice arrangements. As such, in attempting to unravel the 138 139 learning milieu of the coaching workplace, the theory of practice architectures provides a lens by which to examine how the affordance of, and engagement with learning opportunities, 140 impacts upon the construction and emergence of new learning practices over time. In this 141 study PA was used to make sense of data that was generated inductively through constant 142 comparison and engagement with study data. In this way, practice architectures provides a 143 framework for thinking differently about the education of professional sports coaches, 144 moving beyond pedagogically narrow perspectives that favours either the individual or the 145 social (e.g. Communities of Practice, Activity Systems), to consider the cultural, social and 146 material aspects of learning behaviour, and in respect to the historical and contextual 147

locations of practice. The research question that guided this paper was: 'In what way does the
social, cultural and material arrangement of the workplace facilitate or inhibit learning *in situ*'?

#### 151 Method

#### 152 Design of the study

153 This paper draws upon data from a larger research project that examined the role of organisational culture in shaping elite coaches professional learning. Six professional coaches 154 and three administrative staff were purposively sampled from a high-performance training 155 centre based within the UK, the OHPI (Olympic High-Performance Centre). This approach 156 157 was taken given the accessibility of the institution to the researchers, and the richness of the case. Utilising an ethnographic approach, data were generated through participant 158 observations and constructivist interviewing (Patton, 1990) conducted concurrently 159 throughout a ten-month period. The goal of this ethnographic approach was to embed the first 160 researcher within the routine and everyday activities of this particular workplace, so that an 161 understanding of participant's activities, and the meaning tied to such activities, might be 162 attained (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1994). Prolonged emersion within this context (4 out of 163 every 5 working days) assisted in delving beyond surface appearances to make apparent the 164 complex patterning of social practice (Geertz, 1973). 165

#### 166 Participants

The participants within this study were all employed at a multi-sport (n=5) high performance 167 centre within the UK (6 coaching staff and 3 administrative staff). Of the 9 participants, 7 168 were male and 2 were female (1 coach and the Centre Manager). The age range for all 169 participants was between 37 to 62 years of age (mean age for men: 48, mean age for women: 170 171 40). All coaches had some form of tertiary education (e.g. undergraduate qualifications) and held at least a level 3 coaching qualification within their respective disciplines. All coaching 172 staff (n=6) worked with between 5 to 10 international level athletes, and subject to the 173 funding status of those athletes, had access to varying levels of specialist support personnel 174 (i.e. strength and conditioning coaches, physiotherapists and nutritionists). Further to this, all 175 coaches were high achieving athletes themselves prior to their engagement with coaching 176 (five at international level and 1 at national level). Of the 6 coaches, the average experience 177 within the field was 14 years, with a range of 5-26 years. 178

179 The involvement of a range of administrative staff was also sought for this study (the Centre Manager, the Performance Director and the Head Coach). The administrative participants 180 were all involved in the coaches' everyday practice, guiding the structure of the coaching 181 workplace and defining the measures of success within this context. For these reasons, it was 182 felt that the administrative staff represented significant actors in learning experienced by 183 coaches within this specific workplace context, whose perspectives could not be overlooked. 184 In line with the University's approved ethics procedure, all participants gave informed 185 consent to participate in the interviews in line with the institution's research ethics policy. 186

#### 187 Data Collection

188 Within this study data was collected via interviews and participant observations conducted throughout the entirety of the 10-month investigation period. This approach provided detailed 189 190 insight into the evolving dynamic between coaches and the OHPI as a workplace. A total of eighteen interviews were conducted (two per participant), 9 within the first month of the 191 study (to attain an initial, broad understanding) and 9 during the final month of the study (exit 192 interviews to supplement/support observations), with a duration range between 26-58 193 minutes. Interviews were conducted at a private location off site, and guided by a semi-194 structured protocol derived from the observation data. The question format utilised was 195 'open-ended', characterising an interview process that was 'active' in capturing coaches 196 meaning making of their professional development/learning (Hoffmann, 2007). In achieving 197 a greater emersion within the lived realities of coaches learning, 'probes' supplemented the 198 initial questions in order to capture a greater sense of the whole (Bryman, 2015). Thus, in 199 200 focusing on the 'how', 'what' and 'why' of participants' experiences, a socially and textually negotiated narrative of workplace learning within this context was created. For example, 201 questions such as 'How does upskilling or professional learning fit into the ethos of the 202 organisation?' were followed up with probes including, 'How were these aims communicated 203 to you?' and; 'Who's responsibility is a coach's professional development?' Participant 204 observations were conducted over four days of a five-day working week, and generally lasted 205 between 3 to 7 hours depending on a coaches' schedule. Over the course of the study, 44 206 weeks of participant observation were conducted (176 days of observation). Throughout this 207 period, the researcher acted as part of the coaching staff, assisting in the delivery and running 208 209 of coaching sessions and attended organisational meetings (i.e. sport science support briefings). Data was recorded at the time of completion using field-notes (notebooks), and 210

expanded upon in the evenings to add greater context to routine descriptions of events (thisincluded early interpretations and discussion of the social processes observed).

#### 213 Data Analysis

214 Data analysis processes drew from a constructivist approach to the grounded theory methodology (CGTM). The utility of this method was that it provided a 'flexible' and 215 216 'adaptive' approach to generating and making use of data (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007), structuring the research process in a manner that "looks beyond the obvious and [provides] a 217 path to reach imaginative interpretations" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 181). Importantly, this 218 constructivist revision of traditional GTM recognises the researcher as an active participant in 219 220 the research process. As such, within this framework meaning is viewed as a co-constructed interpretation of events, mediated by the interrelationship of researcher and participant (Mills 221 222 et al., 2006). Hence CGTN acknowledges the researcher's active involvement in understanding phenomena, and offers an interpretive portrayal of the social world that cannot 223 be achieved via the purportedly objective and unbiased stance of traditional grounded theory 224 225 (Charmaz, 2008). It should also be noted that in this study the primary researcher was a former high level performer within the sport concerned. As such, the researcher held a degree 226 of social status that afforded the identity of 'affiliated member' (Corbin Dwyer and Buckle, 227 2009). Whilst arguments can be made that outsiders can more readily identify societies 228 unconscious grammars (i.e. insiders to overlook familiar or routine behaviours) (O'Rielly, 229 2012), we would argue that the shared identity in this instance afforded the researcher a 230 cultural perspective not readily accessible to other researchers (Douglas & Carless, 2012). 231

The interview transcripts and field-notes were reviewed and the social processes implicit 232 233 within the texts labelled or coded. The coding process was iterative in nature as the researchers engaged in a constant comparison of data and emergent themes across three 234 235 distinct levels of coding (open, focused and theoretical) (Charmaz, 2006). Firstly, a close 236 reading and interrogation of the data line-by-line was conducted, where gerunds (nouns 237 ending in 'ing') were used to capture meaning/action within the data via open codes. Where possible, in vivo codes' were chosen so that the emergent concepts were those that best "fit 238 239 the data" (Strauss 1987, p.28), and not guided by the preconceptions of the researchers. Examples of codes included; attaining ownership of space, being comfortable in personalised 240 sites, controlling locations and access, and being free from observation/judgement (Table 1). 241 Building upon the initial coding phase a more focused approach was adopted, reassembling 242

the initially deconstructed data into more substantive characterisations of events. This was 243 achieved by considering frequency of codes and those that made the most analytical sense in 244 capturing the meaning within the data. The final coding phase then sought to consider 245 possible relationships between these focused codes in order to weave the fractured story back 246 together. From here, thematic codes were produced in order to construct a coherent and 247 theoretically driven story of professional coaches' workplace learning experiences. This 248 process informed the final analytical phase of the study as the features of these thematic 249 codes were considered in relation to the cultural-discursive, social-political, and material-250 251 economic arrangements of the Institute's practice architecture.

#### 252 Context of the OHPI

253 The OHPI represents the central training facility for a large internationally active Olympic sports organisation in the UK. The organisation has large and varied coaching workforce 254 (working at performance, participation and voluntary levels), and is responsible for the 255 management and delivery of coach development for both its voluntary and professional 256 coaching staff. In doing so, they provide a considerable variety of CPD pathways including; 257 traditional level based qualifications, structured mentoring schemes, and supplementary 258 coaching awards (i.e. Disability sports coaching and Injury prevents awards). At the time of 259 data collection, the organisation was in a state of organisational change following the 260 commencement of a new Olympic funding cycle. With this, came a number of significant 261 structural changes including; the appointment of new organisational leads (i.e. Head coach, 262 Performance Director), a reduction in government funding, the enforced redundancy of over 263 half the employed coaching staff, and later the employment of two International consultant 264 coaches. Interesting, in concert with these changes, and stemming from an awareness of a 265 body of work that characterises effective learning as a communal/collaborative activity 266 (Fenwick et al., 2012; Cairns, 2011), the sporting organisation was acting to instil a new 267 organisational message. 268

"It's about us [the institute] ultimately collectively winning more medals. The
performance measurement here isn't whether you have coached an athlete to winning a
medal or improved a performance, or whether you have been the therapist or the
physiologist to the athlete who wins the medals, it's about the whole [the organisation].
It's about athletes getting better, and us effectively supporting athletes getting better
through our coaches getting better through collaboration and collective thought."
(Performance Director)

The marked difference to traditional methods was the proposition that coaching success was to be judged not solely on the results of athlete performances alone, but on the coaches' engagement with the ideals and aims of the institute (collaborative learning). As such, the
case represented a unique opportunity to assess the implications of organisational transitions,
new organisational structures, and funding cycles on the learning experiences of professional
coaches. In order to examine how the changing nature of these arrangements 'conditioned'
the learning experiences of the coaches within the Institute each one will now be considered
in more detail.

#### 284 Trustworthiness: Judging qualitative research

Whilst traditionally the quality of qualitative research has been judged on the measurement of 285 a works adherence to the criteriological measures of trustworthiness and validity (Lincoln and 286 Guba, 1985), this position has been challenged by the argument that interpretive research 287 288 stands alone from (post)positivistic investigations by the very nature of their ontological and epistemological assumptions (Smith et al., 2014). In recognising these critiques, we accept 289 290 Smith and Sparkes (2013) invitation to 'let go of validity', and engage in the generation of more research-specific criteria. As such, within this study we drew upon the characterising 291 292 traits of rich rigour, sincerity, credibility and transparency to inform our inquiry (Smith et al. 2014). In practical terms, this meant peer debriefing was adopted to not only compare 293 294 interpretations, but challenge biases and meanings derived from interpretation of data. This was achieved through conversations with key organisational leaders and embedded 295 conversations with significant stakeholders allowing for constructed ideas to be discussed. As 296 such, we would argue that the research presented is credible in that significant time has been 297 spent not to 'test' trustworthiness, but to critique, collaborate and reflect upon interpretations. 298 Finally, in providing transparency thick descriptions of findings are provided to capture an in-299 depth picture of the coaching workplace, and a code map included to demonstrate how data 300 were interpreted (Table 1). 301

Table 1: Example of constructed conceptual categories

Core Category	Negotiating personal engagement				
Focused Codes	Expectations and identification of role boundaries	Negotiating social engagement with colleagues	Assessing value	Constructed identity	Personal/historical dispositions
Open Codes	View of the coaching process, redefining expectations of organisations goals, the influencing culture of the sport, making it 'what they wanted', lacking guidance from leadership, working towards personal goals	Recognising personality conflicts/alignments, interpersonal skills, engaging in opportunities to interact with knowledgeable others, guiding behaviour, resisting forced and incompatible relationships, selective engagement, presenting of self to attain response from others,	Making value judgements, cost benefit exchange, considering career progression, considering job security, defining status as a coach, motivation to collaborate, perceiving organisational targets, defining practical knowledge, identifying relevancy, engaging in meaningful activity, viewing competition as a barrier to engagement, Justifying behaviour based on existing practice	Defining self through experience, personal biography and history, being a former an athlete, views on the role of the coach, defining career, considering impression of others, understanding role, defining quality practitioners, redefining title/identity, constructed belief systems	Aligning personal values, longevity in the role, time in a certain context, reciprocity to certain opportunities, intention to be 'collaborative', engaging in routine behaviour, maintaining traditions, 'doing it my way', identifying specific learner needs, considering career transitions, resisting forced and incompatible relationships

#### 303 Findings and Discussion

In the following section, data are reported within themes to demonstrate the processes through which coaches' workplace learning experiences were mediated. Participant quotes and field-note excerpts from each thematic database are provided and have been selected to offer clear illustrations of the key points.

#### 308 Negotiating personal engagement

Within this study, data highlighted the impact perceived roles and shared expectations (of 309 rules and organisational function) played in the mediation of coaches' behaviour. The 310 interplay of these socio-political features constituted practical agreements, negotiated by 311 coaches regarding the appropriateness of particular practices (Kemmis et al., 2014), thus 312 informing their 'Negotiated personal engagement' within the social space of the OHPI. From 313 an organisational standpoint, the perceived definition of coaching roles was clear, 314 characterised by language and employment contracts that articulated the 'support of athletes 315 by working together', and 'coaches developing through collaboration and collective thought'. 316 However, in following the working realities of coaches it became apparent that this message 317 was not consistent throughout the organisation, having been reinterpreted and translated in 318 relation to the discourse, identity, and cultural history of both individuals, and the sport itself. 319 320 To this end, coaches re-characterised their roles with a disregard for the collaborative ambitions of the sporting organisation, in favour of performative self-interest: 321

- "It's up to everyone employed in the institution to kind of find out and make it [their
  role] what they want it to be. In my head I know that [specific discipline] in this country
  is underperforming, so I'm here to apply strategic thinking and try and right it." (Stewart,
  Interview)
- "My role? My role is to be part of a collaborative, organic, and creative process. It [the
  institute] was going to be a place where people work together, between medical staff, and
  coaches and athletes, but it hasn't worked out quite like that... so really I'm just here to
  look after my myself and athletes." (Frank, Interview)

The data above, demonstrates the manner through which coaches' (re)interpreted the social relationships within the OHPI. Indeed, whilst early data suggested some coaches' understandings resonated with the organisations collaborative goals, as the study progressed most were found to adhere to the mantra of 'making it what they want it to be' (Stewart). Through discussions with administrative staff, it was evident that this sentiment was compounded by a lack of definitive leadership from administrative staff, reinforcing a

- reversion towards more traditional and habitual practices of the past (Partington & Cushion,
- 337 2013). As was observed:

There is certainly some confusion between the roles of Head Coach (Paul) and 338 339 Performance Director (Stephen) in terms of who is running the OHPI and who is supposed to be relaying the organisational message onto the coaches themselves. When 340 341 you ask either Stephen or Paul, they will cite it as being in the wheel house of the other, whilst freely agreeing that 'confusions between roles and his have led to inefficiencies in 342 the running of this place' (Stephen). To this end, coaches have cited that they were 343 operating within 'leadership vacuum, left to figure out the new philosophy on our own' 344 (Frank, interview). 345

Conversation with Stewart: 'Let's not forget what Stephen's job is here, and why the previous Performance Director is no longer around, medals...not achieving the goal that was set for him in the last [funding] cycle... What does that mean for us [the coaches']? Ultimately we have to perform too... we are going to be measured in the results of our athletes... the way we always have'. (Field-note, July)

Interestingly, these sentiments also highlighted the notion that coaches negotiated their learning engagement in light of their personal dispositions; inclinations to behave in a particular fashion rooted in a person's life and membership in communities both inside and outside of a particular social setting (i.e. the workplace) (Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2004). When discussing his preference for seeking learning opportunities away from the OHPI, Andrew illustrated,

357 358

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For me it's been good [the nature of institute], I've liked the freedom to be able to do my own thing and do the things that have come naturally... making use of support [learning] processes I've used since before we had a [OHPI]" (Interview).

360 Within this section, the data discussed captures how coaches re-constructed their understandings of 'roles' in respect to their personal dispositions (i.e. Stewart), the historical 361 legacies of the context (the particular sporting organisation), and engagement in wider/past 362 communities (i.e. International coaches in foreign sporting systems). This not only acted to 363 shape perceptions and intentionality towards collaborative learning opportunities, but sought 364 to inform the culture of practice within the institute, notably that of 'looking out for number 365 one' and 'being measured in medals'. In so much as culture shapes how we think, act, and 366 interact, this shared understanding informed the patterns of relationships between people, and 367 between people and objects (Kemmis & Heikkinen, 2012). As Richard stated: 368

369 "I know Stephen wants me and Stewart to be doing more together... but as far as I'm
370 concerned I already have what I need, to figure out the things I need to figure out... I've
371 worked with [external support network] for years, and really I'm just going to keep doing
372 that because it is what works for me... why change what works?" (Interview).

373 Impacting (Learning) Cultures

According to Kemmis and Heikkinen (2012) in order to comprehend the nature of practice, 374 we must consider how it exists in the semantic space of ideas that appear in and through the 375 discourses of activity. Within this theme, data illustrates how the language of coaches and 376 administrative staff informed the 'learning culture' present within the institute, a condition 377 that represented the interplay of multiple cultural messages entrenched within the workplace 378 context, coaches' histories, and the sport itself. This interplay of ideologies informed the 379 language utilised to define and justify behaviour, shaping individual's perceptions of, and 380 intentionality towards learning engagement. 381

From interviews and observations, it was clear that upon entering the workplace coaches 382 383 brought with them an individualised culture bound within their dispositions, identities, and experiences within broader fields/communities of activity (Griffiths & Armour, 2012; 384 385 Hodkinson et al., 2004). For some, these engagements meant they were more naturally aligned to the organisations collaborative aspirations, using phraseology such as; 'shared 386 understandings', 'for the team', 'becoming a community of coaches', and 'working with 387 others', to define their role. Yet for others, the International coaches in particular, this feature 388 had the propensity to impinge upon their inclinations towards collaborative engagement. As 389 390 was observed:

391 Within the International (performance) system coaches are far more autonomous, dictating their coaching behaviours, relationships, and goals without the need for 392 accountability to a national governing body. As Terrance stated, "I think we [Richard and 393 himself] are more used to deciding what we do and do not do, within our programmes, 394 within our development... not having to justify decisions to people like Stephen 395 (Performance Director) or other coaches. It can be a bit grating... I feel like we just don't 396 speak the same language... it's been uncomfortable trying to fit into some else's way of 397 doing things. Hopefully once it settles down and we can get back to our own routines 398 399 (Field-note, April).

The result of this disparity, as the Head Coad referred to it, was a 'divided workforce, where British and International coaches clashed in the ways they expected to work' (Paul, Interview). Interestingly, findings indicated that this sentiment was compounded by a deep rooted sense of anti-Americanism embedded within the cultural history of the sporting organisation. Regarded as a 'hangover from previous regimes' (Paul Head, Coach), the administrative staff often discussed the historical challenge associated with the employment of coaches that weren't British. As one coach commented:

407The fear has been that the organisation does not value British coaches in the same way408they might a foreigner, they seem more exciting... so there can be hesitancy in working409with them... people can feel challenged and that doesn't bode well for this new idea410[collaborative institutional goals] ... (Julie, Interview).

In terms of workplace learning, this acted to limit the learning opportunities afforded staff
within the OHPI as some coaches were hesitant to engage collaboratively with colleagues.

413 For example:

In attempting to reconcile concerns regarding his coaching practice, Frank has repeatedly
attempted to seek Richards's [International Coach] advice on reviewing his season.
Despite being the most suitable candidate for this task given his background, Richard has
continually found other more 'important' tasks to occupy himself. As Frank explained:
'I've tried to embrace the sentiments of this new look institute, but Richard doesn't
care... why? because thinking like an International coach and he thinks I've got to look
after my team, my interests... I won't be trying that again' (Field-note, June).

421 To this end, some coaches were forced to look beyond the confines of the OHPI in order to

422 fulfil their learning needs given the lack of opportunities to engage with colleagues. Indeed,

- 423 when questioned on this very notion, two coaches reported:
- What I've had to do is find a peer group away from here to discuss my ideas and where I
  need to develop what I have done this year... if that's the way it has to be, fine. (Frank,
  Interview)
- This animosity between English and International has left a bad taste in people mouths...
  it has gotten to a point where most people are going back to looking elsewhere for help.
  (Julie, Interview)

430 A final dimension, through which culture served to mediate coach learning, was in regard to

the sporting culture itself. Indeed, despite early data illustrating a use of language that was in

432 line with the organisations desire to foster collaborative practice, such discourse was filtered

433 and reinterpreted through the cultural medium of the sport. As such, our experience gained

434 from emersion within the working realities of staff, was that the nature of this particular sport

435 subversively favoured behaviour that belied a culture of competitive isolation. To this extent,

- 436 staff and coaches acknowledged:
- 437 So we for example, thought that the performance coaches would all sit down together 438 and talk about their training plans and experiences and what is useful for them, but the 439 nature of the world is that the athletes are rivals, although all together we are one team, 440 so there is a troubling juxtaposition there between what we have tried to achieve. (Centre 441 Manager, Interview)
- 442 For me [this sport] isn't right for this type of thing, working together in this... they 443 [coaches] have very bespoke ways of doing things, they like to be competitive, which I 444 think is then hard to integrate. (Stewart, Interview)
- 445 Look I'm not paid to mollycoddle anyone. When it gets down to it, I'm not going to be 446 measured in terms of how well I work with Tom, Dick, or Harry... I'll get measured in 447 medals. (Richard, Interview).

448 Such a finding is consistent with a body of work that recognises the results-driven and 449 contested nature of professional sport as a deterrent in the development of learning relationships amongst coaches (Mallett et al., 2016; Occhino et al., 2013). Certainly, whilst there was the propensity for generative interactions between coaches within the institute, the dominant discourse was that of competitive and isolated learning practices. To this end, the semantic arrangements as informed by sayings' characteristic of practice, were significant in determining coaches' intentionality towards collaborative engagement within their workplace.

#### 456 *Changing organisational structures*

457 For Kemmis et al., (2014) the material-economic arrangements of a given practice architecture refer to the resources that make possible the practical 'doings' of activity. Within 458 459 this study, the theme of changing organisational structures captures this notion, where the interplay of territoriality, and government funding, contextualised the learning possible 460 within the OHPI. For coaches, these features were inextricably linked to the cultural-461 462 discursive and socio-political arrangements addressed above, in terms of how physical spaces were re-contextualised, appropriated, and made use of. While coaches could not change the 463 physical spaces (i.e. the construction a new sports hall, or the development of new 464 equipment) to facilitate their practice/learning, they were able to reconstruct how these 465 physical spaces were used. For example, indicative of the culture of competitive isolation, 466 coaches displayed (entrenched) territorial behaviour in how they made use of physical space 467 within the training centre. Through the territorial personalisation and marking of areas, they 468 created self-expressive micro-geographies, where `unusual norms', identities, and private 469 realities could be enacted (Parr, 2000). 470

- Frank utilised his area to store personal training equipment, Stewart leaves his massage
  bed in an area that makes it difficult for other groups to use that space, and Terrance
  makes a point to court with his athletes on the outside field, almost ensuring that
  different groups never cross paths. (Fieldnote, May).
- If we were a real co-operative he (Richard) would say don't worry Frank I'll do my
  session in the afternoon, or work in with me, or I'll just move the twenty meters... but he
  doesn't because he doesn't care and doesn't want put himself out by sharing his space
  (Frank, Interview).
- everyone has their spot... so like down by the matts is where Richard lives and I guess
  everyone knows that, so people don't go and use that area... for some people there will
  be unwritten rules about where you can and cannot base yourself because you will be on
  someone turf... (Julie, Interview).
- 483 Data indicated that these constructed boundaries had the propensity to impede knowledge 484 sharing activities amongst coaches as they were often utilised to seek isolation, and at times 485 regulate social relations between colleagues (Altman, 1975). For one coach in particular, the

486 safeguarding of a personalised space represented their perception of becoming an expert coach, thus defining their perceptions towards the learning opportunities offered by the 487 488 institute.

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Sometimes the most successful coaches are the ones that manage to isolate themselves from distractions... the institute can have distraction around it, having your own space is important to manage those... sometimes just having people around you, questioning you, challenging you, it can get in the way... (Stewart, Interview).

Beyond that, it was interesting to note that with the funding induced reshuffle of 493 organisational structures and staff, coaches were required to renegotiate existing territorial 494 boundaries as new staff entered the workplace. This created the potential for defensive 495 responses to boundaries violations (Brown et al., 2005) as discussed above, whilst making it 496 challenging for others to find a place within the institute. Indeed, when specifically 497 498 questioned on this transition into a workplace containing already established practitioners one 499 coach stated:

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It's tricky, you are aware that you don't necessarily have a base, and I don't mean the desk you have in office, it's more than that, it's the [training space]. You float around the centre, working in an around people until you can establish yourself... but that can take a while. (Julie, Interview)

Of particular interest, was the clear link between the macro-structural feature of 504 organisational funding and the structure of learning experiences afforded coaches (Griffiths et 505 506 al., 2016). Within this study, the instigation of staff redundancies following the reduction in governmental funding, acted to dismantle pre-existing resources that the remaining coaches 507 508 had come to rely on (i.e. social support networks). For two of the coaches, colleagues regarded as valuable informal learning resources were lost to the organisation, leaving them 509 to 'start again' (Andrew) and 'figure out a new way of doing things' (Frank). What is more, 510 the reduction in employed coaches further shrank the opportunities to engage with 511 colleagues, and the breadth of knowledge present within the institute. As Allison suggested, 512

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There is only six coaches, that is actually a really small number, especially compared to the fourteen we had. So there's not much to choose from and I suppose that if two people don't necessarily see eye-to-eye, then it blows the whole idea, and as we have seen, 515 makes it uncomfortable for the rest" (Centre Manager, Interview). 516

Interestingly data suggested that the workplace was far from a benign entity, as goals, beliefs, 517 518 and traditions had the potential to mediate the way in which coaches made use of physical space, a feature that within this study was seen to shape learning behaviour. As such, this 519 520 fluid environment provided a context that dependant on the nature of the social, cultural, and material arrangements, had the propensity enable and constrain the 'doings' of practice, 521

thereby shaping how certain learning opportunities were valued and engaged with by theparticipants.

#### 524 Discussion

525 The findings above outline the three themes constructed to capture coaches' workplace learning, in terms of their alignment with the arrangements of human behaviour proposed by 526 527 Kemmis and colleagues. However, though presented as discrete categories, it is important to recognise that the associated practices (the sayings, doings, and relatings) illustrated across 528 529 the three spatial domains, are in fact interconnected and interrelated in nature. For example, coaches were seen to construct and reconstruct shared understandings of the organisations 530 531 roles and rules (informed by the dispositions of the individuals and the history of the sport), thus informing how they made use of material and economic resources of the OHPI (i.e. the 532 533 creation and maintenance of personal territories). The interplay of these conditions then reinforced and facilitated a culture and language (the cultural-discursive arrangements) of 534 professional isolation, where 'looking out for number one' became the modus operandi 535 within the OHPI. 536

Significantly, the findings of this study illustrate how the macro-structural features of sport 537 (and the associated organisations) can influence the sayings, doings, and relatings of coaches, 538 539 in ways which can undermine attempts to shape learning cultures (Mallet et al., 2016). The practices described above, illustrate that PAs take form through the relational interactions of 540 coaches, their colleagues, organisations, and the facilities in which they are located. As such, 541 542 actions and interactions are often informed by the patterns, routines, and traditions enacted across the relational structures of sports, sporting organisations, and the institutions they 543 544 create. These relational conditions prefigure and predetermine the 'scope of action' (Groves et al., 2010, p. 51) available, in this instance restricting the capacity for coaches to engage in 545 546 collaborative workplace learning activities. Put another way, coaching practice can be seen to 547 take place within a 'web of connectedness' (Smith et al., 2010, p.7) where the here and now 548 takes place amongst (and is shaped by) the traditions of what has gone before.

549 Therefore, in order to truly instigate change in the context of learning:

"Requires more than changing participants *knowledge* about practice; it also requires changing
the *conditions* that support their practices – the *practice architectures* that enable and constrain
their practices." (Kemmis et al., 2014, p.55, original emphasis)

In consideration of this, we argue that engagement with the theory of PA provides coach 553 education designers (coaches, coach educators, sporting organisation and policy makers) with 554 a framework of assessment and review that might better facilitate pedagogical change than 555 has previously been employed. To this end, both practitioners and organisational leaders alike 556 might look to review the dominant beliefs and discourses surrounding their current practices 557 (culturally-discursive arrangements), the rules, routines, and patterns of behaviour that exist 558 within these particular context(s) (socio-political arrangements), and the materials, spaces, 559 and resources utilised in enacting these practices (material-economic arrangements). Through 560 561 this, an individual coach looking to develop their professional knowledge, or an organisation looking to instigate substantive pedagogic change, could critically examine the nature of 562 current practices, identifying how and why certain forms of behaviour remain (practice 563 traditions). This would in turn provide a foundation upon which to evaluate the suitability or 564 sustainability of any change initiative embarked upon, illustrating where the reconstruction of 565 566 practice might be required to meet desired goals.

It is important to recognise that PAs are themselves a fluid concept, subject to transformation 567 and adjustment, as practices are preserved and reconstructed over time by practitioners, and 568 the institutions that diffuse knowledge of their use (Reid, 2011). Indeed, in suggesting that 569 570 PAs are the product of negotiations between cultural, social and material conditions (Kemmis et al., 2014), it is possible to argue that understandings of practice will logically differ 571 between different sites, communities, and contexts (Goodyear et al., 2016). The findings of 572 this study align with this thinking, as coaches' workplace learning was found not to take 573 place within closed communities (Evans et al., 2006), but in fact operate within a multi-574 dimensional environment, where individuals held multiple community memberships. As each 575 community was itself the product of socio-cultural conditions (Griffiths & Armour, 2012), 576 577 coaches' interpretations of the learning affordances of the OHPI were in part a legacy of their engagement in practices constructed (and understood) within broader sites of practice. As 578 such, coaches' engagement with the OHPIs new coach learning strategy varied between 579 groups and individuals, as was evident in the disparity of expected working behaviours held 580 by International and British coaches. It should also be noted, that whilst not explicitly 581 identified as a contributing factor within this case, the broad range of coaching experience 582 encountered (5-26 years) is likely to have played a role in informing community engagement. 583 The implication for education designers and sporting organisations is a need to be familiar 584

with the facets of multiple community participation and individuals associated dispositions,so that the congruencies required for learning engagement can be supported.

Within this paper, we have examined the practice architecture present within a UK based 587 588 Olympic training centre, and illustrated how the conditions of this ecological space acted to impede a sporting organisations attempts to instigate pedagogical innovation. The key 589 message to be taken from this work, and the contribution to existing knowledge of coaching 590 CPD, is that PA offers a new perspective from which education designers and sports 591 organisations can consider the provision and support of workplace learning initiatives. 592 Moreover, PA represents an innovative approach to the study of workplace learning, moving 593 beyond a dualistic focus of agency versus (learning) activity (Armour, 2014; Nelson et al., 594 2013), to account for the substantive role organisational structures (e.g. funding, organisation 595 cultures, rebranding, leadership, government policy) play in mediating the learning 596 597 experiences of professional sports coaches. To this end, the approach provides an avenue through which a greater understanding of 'what works' in CPD to change learners' 598 behaviours might be pursued. 599

#### 600 Final considerations

In this study, we have provided a unique opportunity to examine the instigation of a new 601 organisational culture, and through this uncover the features of collaborative practice that 602 facilitated or inhibited learning. Grounding the theoretical stance of this work within the 603 concept of 'knowing-in-practice' (Gherardi, 2014), we have attempted to broaden the 604 605 evaluative lens through which research examines the CPD of professional sports coaches, by drawing upon Kemmis et al's (2014) conception of practice architectures. In doing so, the 606 607 embodied array of activities held within shared understandings that represent workplace practices, have been located within the contexts of time and space, to recognise that people 608 609 are not sovereign individuals, but understand one another in terms acquired over a lifetime of participation in the social world. The strength of PA is that it addresses criticisms of existing 610 611 situated learning theories (i.e. Communities of Practice, Activity Theory, Relational Interdependence), by not simply assuming the social world writes itself onto individual 612 613 persons (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008) or that people are active agents writing themselves into practices (Goodyear et al., 2016). This approach has been valuable in characterising the 614 contextual, and conditioned nature of learning 'in situ', where practice is composed amongst 615 the structures, discourses, activities and relationships of everyday working. To this end, the 616

actions of coaches' captured within this study have been characterised as mutuallyintelligible (Schatski, 2002), as they employed characteristic and patterned ways of saying, doing and relating throughout. Coaches were therefore seen to be active agents, entering the OHPI and behaving in ways that were reflective of a legacy of engagements amongst wider communities and practice traditions (i.e. the international coaches reinterpreting their roles in light of past engagements). To this end, these features condition the intersubjective space within which coaches' practice, mediating the learning and CPD afforded coaches.

While the results of the present case study are not universally generalizable (Yin, 2009), they 624 do raise several considerations for the provision of coaching CPD. Crucially, this study 625 626 identifies the need to recognise the coaching workforce as transient in nature, where particularly within performance and professional settings, coaches' can be seen to transition 627 628 from organisation to organisation globally (where organisations are themselves also in cycles of transition). As such, there is a need for sporting organisations to consider the individual 629 630 subjectivities of coaches as they enter new environments, questioning how features such as biography, history, or experience might influence responses to new environments and 631 cultures. To conclude, this study raises fundamental questions that need to be addressed in 632 recognising coaches as professionals that negotiate contested and dynamic workplace 633 environments, particularly within a landscape where the workforce are becoming increasing 634 635 more transitory.

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