

1 **A practice theory approach to primary school physical activity:**
2 **opportunities and challenges for intervention**

3 A significant body of critical scholarship exists problematizing the dominant behavioural-
4 individualist approaches to public health policy and intervention, and practice theories have
5 been noted for their potential in providing an alternative. Children’s physical activity in
6 primary school settings continues to be a major area of attention in public health, yet no
7 critical examination of a practice theory approach exists in this context. This paper
8 addresses this gap by applying the prevalent three-elements model of practices to the case
9 of children’s school-based physical activity. Drawing on focus group, interview and
10 observation data from pupils, staff and parents at one primary school setting in England,
11 our analysis highlights; first, how the configurations of (a) physical resources (e.g.
12 playground space and equipment), (b) practical know-how (e.g. a skilled understanding of
13 performing the activity), and (c) the socio-cultural significance of practices (e.g. the values
14 and meanings of the activity) impact how, and whether children’s physical activity
15 happens, and is sustained or interrupted; and second, by showing how physically active
16 practices are contingent on being simultaneously in harmony or conflict with other
17 routinized practices of the school day. We conclude that the three-elements model offers a
18 helpful framework for understanding school physical activity which de-centres the
19 individual, but that there are challenges in using this analysis to support primary schools as
20 they attempt to enable physically active practices more effectively. Further research is
21 required to develop and evaluate a practice theory approach to promoting children’s
22 physical activity.

23

24 *Keywords: physical activity; school; children; social practices; public health.*

25

26 **Introduction**

27 Epidemiological research and public health policies increasingly position physical
28 activity as being important for population health globally (Das & Horton, 2016; World
29 Health Organization, 2018) and the lack of parity in physical activity levels between
30 social groups is significantly related to the persistence of health inequalities (Elhakeem,
31 Cooper, Bann, Kuh & Hardy, 2017). Within this context, ambitions to realise long-term
32 public health goals have led to a focus on children’s physical activity. There exists a large
33 body of research delivering interventionist programmes in schools (Love, Adams and van
34 Sluijs, 2019) and numerous government-funded programmes have been implemented
35 internationally (see for example *Designed To Move* in the United States, *Change4Life* in
36 the United Kingdom, *Get set 4 life* in Australia, and *Eat Move Live* in New Zealand).

37 Notwithstanding some examples of modest improvements in young people’s
38 physical activity as a result of these strategies (Lai, Costigan, Morgan, Lubans, Stodden,
39 Salmon & Barnett, 2014), a significant body of critical social science scholarship exists
40 problematizing the intervention approaches that are predominantly adopted for physical
41 activity ‘behaviour change’, often focusing on target groups to encourage their
42 participation in physical activity through the implementation of discrete interventions
43 (Barnfield, 2016; Baum & Fisher, 2014). These approaches can be characterised by their
44 alignment with the dominant ‘ABC’ (attitude, behaviour, choice) paradigm in behaviour
45 change policy, which predominantly focuses on targeting the “individuals whose
46 behavioural choices will make the difference” (Shove, 2010, p.1274), supported by
47 targeted communications, social marketing and rewards.

48 These approaches have been criticized for their inability to account for the way
49 collective activities – such as physical activity – might emerge, or fail to emerge, from
50 the social processes of everyday life (Cohn, 2014), including how healthy or unhealthy

51 activities are synchronised, assembled and combined in particular configurations (Blue,
52 2017). Rather, the responsibility for change is ontologically situated with individuals and
53 their choices (Keane et al., 2017) which logically leads to physical activity interventions
54 such as those which provide children with heart-rate feedback (McManus et al., 2008)
55 and utilise personalised goals and rewards (Miller et al., 2018). Often this means parents
56 or teachers are responsabilised to manage children’s health (Burrows and Wright, 2007),
57 but there is also a vision of children who are “agentive as consumers of health-oriented
58 messages and products” (p.88). With specific reference to the potentially harmful impact
59 of intervention on children, there is related critique about the tendency to reframe socio-
60 structural issues as individual problems and ‘moral’ responsibilities (Burrows and
61 Wright, 2007) which can magnify stigma and shame (LeBesco, 2011; Scambler, 2009)
62 and ultimately contribute to inequalities (Williams, 2017).

63 ‘Behavioural-individualist’ intervention approaches conceal the “vital distinction
64 between mechanisms of aetiology and mechanisms of prevention” (Kelly and Russo,
65 2018, p.82). Arguably, sustainable ‘prevention’ of inactivity will only be possible once
66 physical activity is reimagined as emerging from the way social life is organised, rather
67 than as an outcome of the application of a ‘dose’ of intervention. As such, there is a
68 growing understanding that effective interventions need to account for the complex social
69 processes within which behaviour manifests (Blue, Shove, Carmona & Kelly, 2016).
70 There is a need to reimagine physical activity as emergent in different ways from different
71 practices, and to intervene in collective conventions towards physical activity rather than
72 simply providing opportunities for participation (Vihalemm et al., 2015).

73 These critiques have been powerful, but we agree with Mykhalovskiy et al. (2018)
74 that an interdisciplinary conversation is needed that moves beyond the antagonistic and
75 oppositional tendency of critical social science scholarship and towards a productive

76 dialogue *between* critical social science and public health. In light of this perspective, it
77 is important to recognise that little progress has been made in the development of
78 alternative strategies capable of eschewing the problems associated with the individualist-
79 behavioural paradigm yet meeting the challenge of improving children’s physical activity
80 levels for which there is a strong epidemiological mandate (Abarca-Gomez, Abdeen,
81 Hamid et al., 2017).

82 Intervention approaches that move beyond individualist framings do, of course,
83 already exist and are being more widely accepted (e.g. the ‘systems approach’ to physical
84 activity highlighted in the WHO’s (2018) recent action plan). The socio-ecological model
85 (McLeroy, Bibeau, Steckler & Glanz, 1988) has been drawn on to shape curriculum-
86 based physical activity interventions such as *CHANGE!* (Mackintosh, Knowles, Ridgers
87 & Fairclough, 2011), and the ‘whole school approach’ embedded in the UK’s *National*
88 *Healthy Schools Programme* (Department of Health, 2008) was intended to focus on the
89 organisation of school processes for encouraging healthy behaviours. Yet, despite the
90 intentions to deal with wider social processes, schools have found it difficult to manage
91 interventions tackling the established routine ways that physical activity emerges
92 (Adamowitsch, Gugglberger and Dur, 2014) and there is a tendency for ‘lifestyle drift’
93 whereby dominant health discourses responsabilising ‘behaviours’ undermine and shift
94 policy actions away from their original commitments (Powell, Thurston & Bloyce, 2017).

95 To support the intentions of public health policy to address broader social
96 processes which shape health, it is crucial for the critical public health community to
97 develop coherent alternatives with utility in research and practice. While school-based
98 intervention strategies are not likely to solve physical inactivity on their own (Love et al.,
99 2019), schools provide a significant socio-material context for children’s everyday lives
100 and are already seen as powerful means to institutionalise healthy patterns of behaviour

101 (Lytle, Seifert, Greenstein and McGovern, 2000). In this context, we seek to explore the
102 value of practice theories as a framework to support physical activity intervention, using
103 the case of children’s physical activity in schools as a case study. We seek to contribute
104 to understanding how a practice theory approach can be operationalised to better support
105 schools as they attempt to transition towards enabling physically active practices more
106 effectively.

107

108 **Theoretical framing**

109 Our approach draws inspiration from repeated calls for a new paradigm of
110 thinking about health behaviour change in which ‘health behaviour’ is replaced with the
111 term ‘health practice’ (Nettleton and Green, 2014, p.239), because reifying ‘behaviour’
112 “fails to provide any critical insight into what people actually do and why” (Cohn, 2014,
113 p.160). Such calls have led to a flourishing body of work engaging with and extending
114 practice theories, often drawing on foundational concepts such as Bourdieu’s (1977;
115 1984) habitus, field and capital and Giddens’ (1984) structuration, action and nexus,
116 among others (see Guell et al., 2012; Nettleton and Green, 2014; Blue et al., 2016).
117 Although a number of varieties of practice theories have emerged, Hui, Schatzki and
118 Shove (2016, p.1) note that they generally share familiar assumptions; “that practices
119 consist in organised sets of actions, that practices link to form wider complexes and
120 constellations – a nexus – and that this nexus forms the basic domain of study of the social
121 sciences.” One fundamental benefit of drawing on practice theories, as we see it, is that
122 people’s physical activity is immediately set in, and constitutive of, a social and material
123 context that involves broad and deeply held meanings that exist largely in circumstances
124 not of any individual person’s making.

125 Various typologies of practice theory exist (e.g. Reckwitz, 2002; Schatzki, 2001;
126 Warde, 2005) and although there is certainly a lack of consensus among health
127 researchers, we are inclined to agree with Maller (2015) that the version with the most
128 salience for the field in recent years has been Shove et al.'s three-elements model (see
129 Blue et al., 2016; Keane et al., 2017; Meier et al., 2017; Supski et al., 2017). The three-
130 elements model purports that practices 'hang together' (Reckwitz, 2002) when sufficient
131 materials, meanings and competences are both available and coherently intertwined.
132 Materiality refers to the physical resources that often directly implicate the conduct of
133 daily life (Shove & Pantzar, 2005); meanings refer to the shared ways the world is
134 understood amongst practitioners (Shove et al., 2012) often embedded as an unreflexive
135 sense of the 'right' way to do things (Rettie, Burchell, & Riley, 2012); and competences
136 are the understandings, knowledge or skills required for a practitioner to successfully
137 perform the practice.

138 Beyond the consideration of elements *within* each practice, practice theories also
139 attend to the relationships *between* practices. In line with the three-elements model, they
140 can be in harmony, that is, co-constituting (Shove, Pantzar & Watson, 2012) and mutually
141 reinforcing (Blue, 2017). In contrast, they can conflict (Schatzki, 2002) in that they can
142 compete for resources such as time and energy. This relational interpretation in terms of
143 how practices emerge, persist, decline and combine (Blue, 2017) offers an opportunity to
144 pose questions as to why some practices succeed in recruiting practitioners while others
145 fail (Keane, Weier, Fraser & Gartner, 2017), and how some practices become ingrained
146 in the form of deeply held embodied dispositions which are largely beyond reflexive
147 understanding and others do not (Bourdieu, 1985).

148 A practice theory approach can be seen in a burgeoning stream of health-related
149 research exploring smoking (Blue et al., 2016), vaping (Keane et al., 2017), eating

150 (Maller, 2015; Twine, 2015), drinking alcohol (Ally, Lovatt, Meier, Brennan & Holmes,
151 2016; Meier, Warde & Holmes, 2017; Supski, Lindsay & Tanner, 2017) and food
152 preparation (Meah & Jackson, 2018). As a result, some authors offer a manifesto for
153 practice theory-oriented intervention, exalting it as an ‘exciting’ – if challenging – new
154 territory for public health (Ally et al., 2016; Kelly and Barker, 2016). Commentary has
155 emphasised that interventions should target all three practice elements (and specifically
156 not just ‘meanings’) (Supski et al., 2017); should attend to how practices intersect (Blue
157 et al., 2016; Blue, 2017; Maller, 2015); should seek to spread and encourage new practices
158 (Maller, 2015); should pay attention to how practices might appeal and recruit new
159 practitioners (Supski et al., 2017); should consider temporal sequencing and spatiality
160 (Twine, 2015); and should consider the characteristics of practice configurations and their
161 amenability to change (Meier et al., 2017).

162 Despite these advances, few health-related studies offer an empirical basis for
163 thinking through practice theory-oriented intervention (Ally et al., 2016; Blue, 2017;
164 Keane et al., 2017; Supski et al., 2017). Furthermore, there is room for more critical
165 reflection about the possibilities, limitations and practicalities of an approach which ‘pays
166 attention’ to the nature of practices (Blue et al., 2016, p.43). Furthermore, although there
167 are some examples of social practice theories being applied to physical activity (Blue,
168 2017; Guell, Panter, Jones and Ogilvie, 2012; Wiltshire, Fullagar & Stevinson, 2017) this
169 paper is the first attempt at applying the three-elements model of practice theory to
170 children’s physical activity in schools.

171 **Research aim and methodology**

172 Our overarching aim was to investigate what practice theories, and specifically the three-
173 elements model, reveal about how children’s physical activity emerges over a typical
174 school day. Within this aim, our study had three research questions; (1) which practices

175 are available to children during a typical school day that require physical activity? (2)
176 how does the configuration of materials, competences and meanings serve to enable or
177 constrain potentially physically active practices, and (3) how are practices enabled or
178 constrained by their inter-relationship to other everyday practices? Through these
179 questions, we sought to understand the dynamics of the practices that demand physical
180 activity in order to set the scene for future intervention activities which would seek not to
181 target children to achieve ‘behaviour change’ but to target practice configurations
182 themselves.

183 Once institutional ethical approval had been agreed, one state primary school in a
184 rural English town was recruited to participate in the study. In line with comparable
185 studies (e.g. Twine, 2015) the school was viewed as a site through which to examine the
186 interplay of practices; a case study for learning about physical activity from a practice
187 theory perspective. While we acknowledge that conducting our study in a single school
188 imposed limitations on the generalisations that can be made and potential to explore
189 points of difference between contexts, the approach was considered suitable for our
190 research aims and questions, particularly given the range of methods used. The school
191 was recruited based on an existing research relationship and a willingness to engage with
192 innovative projects related to physical activity. Due to the exploratory nature of the
193 research objectives, no other inclusion/exclusion criteria were considered. The school
194 was below average sized (183 pupils) and was deemed ‘Good’ in the latest Ofsted
195 inspection report (thereby in line with national averages). Almost all pupils identified as
196 White-British and the proportion of pupils for whom the school received the pupil
197 premium (a UK state allowance for pupils from low-income families) was below average.

198 Data collection was undertaken in May 2017 by a team of four researchers through
199 a multi-method qualitative approach. Over two days, researchers recorded observations

200 of PE lessons, break and lunchtime activities, afterschool sports clubs and The Daily
201 Mile¹, to capture a wide range of physically active practices as they occurred in everyday
202 situations. Focus group discussions were carried out with 19 pupils in order to better
203 understand how the children experienced physically active practices. These were
204 conducted during class time in school communal spaces, using engaging and enabling
205 techniques (such as story completion games) to probe the details of children's physical
206 activity. Six additional pupils took part in three separate paired interviews to discuss The
207 Daily Mile. These interviews took place in situ on the playground just after The Daily
208 Mile had finished in order to capture immediate reflections. Three teachers, selected for
209 their availability, participated in interviews and two parents participated in 'walking
210 interviews' whereby one researcher accompanied the parent and child during their walk
211 home from school and asked questions in real-time. Focus groups and interviews lasted
212 between 15 and 30 minutes and were often conducted simultaneously by different
213 members of the research team in order to fit with the compact school schedule. This
214 limited the number of teacher and parent interviews that were possible.

215 We were able to combine and reconcile the diverse methods of data collection by
216 thinking as a 'bricoleur' (Kincheloe, 2005; Wiltshire et al., 2017) and taking methods to
217 be 'tools' to be best used for particular reasons. In this way, observations were helpful in
218 contextualising practices, interviews with adults were particularly helpful in revealing the
219 practice nexus, and focus groups were helpful in learning about the meanings of
220 physically active practices for children.

¹ The Daily Mile is a non-government-initiated programme originating in Scotland which involves pupils running, jogging or walking 15 minutes during the school day. Over 3000 schools take part in the UK. Information about the programme is available at thedailymile.co.uk

221 Ethnographic notes were digitized and audio-recordings were transcribed before
222 being imported into NVivo 11 for coding and analysis. Data analysis was carried out by
223 three members of the research team with significant experience in qualitative analysis
224 (FS, GW, SS). After initial exploratory reading of the data, the research team decided to
225 adopt a framework-driven approach to structure the data coding process. This coding was
226 carried out independently by the three researchers before being combined through a
227 consensus meeting and later refined iteratively by email. Initially, researchers identified
228 distinguishable opportunities for physical activity during the school day. These were;
229 walking to/from school, The Daily Mile, classroom lessons, PE lessons, break/lunchtime
230 play, extra-curricular activities and school sport. Each of these opportunities involves a
231 number of practices (e.g. teaching PE/participating in PE).

232 Data coding was then carried out in two phases. First, data were coded using
233 guiding questions based on the three-elements model in order to illuminate how practices
234 are constituted (e.g. What *materials* enable this practice?). Second, data were then coded
235 using the practice theoretical concepts attending to how practices are inter-related (e.g.
236 Which other *competing* practices is this practice *in conflict* with?). A summary of the
237 practice theory framework analysis is provided as supplementary material as Table 1.

238 **Findings**

239 ***Materials, competences, meanings and their configuration***

240 The material elements of physically active practices were evident across the seven
241 identified opportunities throughout the school day. For parents and children walking to
242 school, for example, the journey relied upon the materiality of the road and pavement
243 layout being conducive to walking (made more challenging if the parent also had a pram),
244 and the distance between school and home. One parent noted that the journey was “safe”
245 but also that the walk *to* school was more difficult than the walk *from* school because it

246 involved much more uphill walking. During the walking interview, children were
247 observed climbing on low walls alongside the pedestrian path, and running and skipping
248 during parts of the journey without road traffic. Noticing the various points of ease and
249 difficulty during the walk home highlighted the importance of physical geography,
250 accessibility and urban planning to the maintenance of this practice; issues that are not
251 evenly distributed across geographical areas and social groups (Meier et al., 2017). Where
252 the material and spatial context provided opportunity for play for children, often with
253 friends or siblings, this also shaped their emotional relationship with their active
254 commute.

255 The physical objects in the playground were significant during playtime activities,
256 including climbing apparatus, sports equipment, concrete and grass sections of the
257 playground surface, and painted lines on the concrete surface for games – all of which
258 can be considered as resources that are likely to be differentially provided for across
259 diverse school contexts. Different playground areas became meaningful for the children
260 as they created games during their breaks and as lunchtime supervisors enforced rules
261 about the suitability of those games. Also, material elements of the playground were
262 meaningful in different ways to school leaders. For example, recently purchased matting,
263 laid over a small section of grass, connected two concrete courtyards and created a full
264 circuit for The Daily Mile. This overcame teacher associations with poor safety.
265 Previously, wet grass prevented the activity from happening at all, indicating the privilege
266 of health and safety policies within the physical activity domain. This additional matting
267 served to enable The Daily Mile, suggesting that schools may reflect on how non-human
268 arrangements relate to, encourage or disrupt the enactment of physical activity.

269 Practices demanding physical activity required competences on the part of the
270 performers (children and adults) in order to take place. These ranged from basic

271 competences such as an understanding of road safety from parents and children during
272 the walk to/from school, to more complex skills required in PE and school sport activities.
273 During a girls' lunch-time cricket club, for example, participation was observed as
274 frequently disrupted and compromised by children's limited understanding of the game
275 and ability to coordinate their bodies, the ball and bat in line with the conventions of the
276 game. The result was a somewhat chaotic experience, disrupting the practice for all
277 participants. This suggests that obvious targets for future intervention are either raising
278 competence levels of pupils or adapting the game so that less competence is required to
279 meet the demands of the practice.

280 Classroom-based teaching practices illustrate how competences imbued with
281 particular sets of associations and meanings were required for 'active learning' during
282 classroom lessons to take place. Some teachers considered the controlling of children's
283 movement in lessons to be a crucial teaching skill, reflecting understandings about teacher
284 responsibilities towards academic attainment. Asking pupils to 'sit still' and avoid
285 'fidgeting' were observed in teachers' repertoires, deployed particularly in year groups
286 engaging with state-required tests. Nonetheless, a staffroom interview with a teacher
287 revealed that active learning is possible but requires a different approach to teaching and
288 behaviour management, with new repertoires that encourage movement without allowing
289 it to be disruptive. This highlights the difficulties in overcoming 'sticking points' of
290 practices which are established and embedded in the collective conventions of a social
291 context (Hargreaves, 2011) and which relate to understandings about the role of the
292 school.

293 The social significance of physically active practices is important for how
294 practices come to be meaningful (Blue et al., 2014), and different associations had
295 constraining and enabling effects across the school. Perhaps unsurprisingly, enjoyment

296 and fun were common ways that children described the physically active practices that
297 they took part in. One pupil simply said that The Daily Mile was “more fun than reading”.
298 This enjoyment, however, was often accomplished through the activities being contingent
299 on other meaningful understandings such as friendship and achievement. For example, a
300 pupil explained that The Daily Mile was a good chance to “meet up with your friends”,
301 and the achievement of rewards and stickers enabled positive associations and bolstered
302 the appeal of The Daily Mile. Furthermore, some children described how they had been
303 fearful of tripping during The Daily Mile before the new matting was installed, showing
304 how simple ‘material’ interventions might shape meanings (reduce feelings of fear) which
305 helps sustain a practice.

306 Examining practices in this way revealed the significance of individual elements,
307 but also – importantly – how the configuration of elements had emergent properties as
308 ‘wholes’ which were not possessed by their individual component parts. Hence, the three-
309 elements of materials, competences and meanings appeared to work in combination,
310 sustaining the practice through their coherence. These practice interrelationships will
311 have local significance. In our case study school, the practice of playing football (soccer)
312 at lunchtime was constrained for some of the girls. During a focus group, one girl said
313 that “the boys won’t pass you the ball if you’re playing football... girls can be just as good
314 as boys.” Despite the necessary physical resources (balls, goal posts and playground
315 space) being materially available, those materials were meaningfully understood as being
316 ‘not for girls’ – an understanding linked closely to their competence (actual or perceived)
317 in performing the practice. As a result, the practice of breaktime football was a gendered
318 activity which happened in a collectively, if informally, agreed zone in the playground
319 and which generally excluded girls. Understanding practices in this way illuminates
320 where cues about social significance or meaning are embedded in the local material

321 environment (Meier et al., 2017) and might be open to change, or where there are
322 relationships between elements that might be particularly persistent (Nettleton and Green,
323 2014).

324

325 *Practices in harmony and conflict*

326 For the children who walked to school, this practice was largely enabled by being in
327 harmony with the routines and goals of their parent/guardian. One parent, Jodie, explains
328 how she could carry out parenting practices with her daughters (age eight and ten) while
329 interacting with them on the walk home; “I like to ask them [children] about their day and
330 they don’t have loads of distractions. It’s just us.” She explained that her daughter had
331 experienced some teasing in school recently and that these walking conversations were
332 important parental support opportunities. Walking from school was therefore enabled by
333 her positive associations of it as an opportunity for practicing parenting (or, perhaps,
334 mothering) in a socio-material space free from “distractions”. In this instance, the
335 interrelationships between travelling and parenting practices are co-constitutive, tightly
336 connected, occur simultaneously and hold each other in place (Meier et al., 2017) in a
337 way that enables physical activity. Adding to this, walking home was further locked into
338 place for Jodie because it synchronised with necessary domestic shopping routines.

339 In contrast, some pupils were driven to school because this practice was routinely
340 enacted in combination with parents’ travelling to work. As Emily (age nine) simply put
341 it, “my mum’s got work every morning, so we’ve got to go in the car to get there on time.”
342 This inter-practice relationship exemplifies what Meier et al. (2017, p.210) refer to as the
343 “temporal connectedness of sequences of actions”. In the morning routine, the bundle of
344 practices is performed in a necessary order, and the practice of ‘driving to school’ out-
345 competes the practice of ‘walking to school’ because driving is better harmonised with

346 the routines associated with parents' fixed employment schedules. As such, far from
347 being a health-related 'decision', these examples echo Blue's (2017) finding that physical
348 activity depends on the way a range of practices are synchronised; those that directly
349 support physically active practices and practices that more broadly make up everyday
350 life. Indeed, this example troubles the way in which parents can be responsabilised for not
351 enabling their child's health by not walking them to school. Furthermore, the temporal
352 organisation of practices related to fixed employment schedules or domestic labour (often
353 carried out by mothers) are likely to impose greater constraints on parents in lower
354 socioeconomic groups as well as those in more challenging geographical circumstances.
355 As such, changing 'travelling to school' practices may involve the difficult task of
356 tackling the way that children's routines are shaped by the organisation of practice
357 routines outside the school's jurisdiction (Southerton, 2013).

358 Other examples of the outcomes of practice interrelatedness were evident in the
359 enactment of The Daily Mile. The Daily Mile was generally in harmony with friendship
360 practices, and Dan's (age nine) description during the interview was fairly typical;

361 Usually, I'll just run when I'm waiting for some of my friends. And then when
362 my friends get here, I usually catch up to them and then we just run and just chat
363 along the way. It's pretty fun.

364

365 However, practices are "not uniform planes upon which agents participate in identical
366 ways" (Warde, 2005, p.138), and a few children talked about the constraining role that
367 the enactment of friendship could have on the enactment of the running practice. Some
368 children prioritized talking over running, which meant that these children, "don't really
369 run. They start to talk and they don't really have a go or anything". We view this as an
370 example of children performing a kind of friendship which is not in harmony with the
371 physical movement ideally required for The Daily Mile, so they adapt their practice and
372 walk rather than run. Interestingly, there was some evidence that the performance of

373 different kinds of friendship is related to gender, something that warrants further
374 investigation given the continued gender gap in physical activity levels. Furthermore,
375 performing different kinds of friendships was relevant because, as another participant
376 explained, The Daily Mile is less enjoyable when,

377 there's people in front of you with big back packs that are just walking and
378 chatting. So like, you can't get through so you have to ask. But then half the time
379 they won't hear you and they'll just carry on chatting. So you have to go around
380 and get your shoes a bit mucky.

381 In this instance, friendship enacted as “chatting” has a disruptive effect on the collective
382 practice. As such, the organizing teleoaffective structure of practices (Schatzki, 1996),
383 that is their purpose and emotional associations, must be considered when attempting to
384 understand how a practice is enacted in different contexts.

385 Other opportunities for physical activity during the school day included walking
386 to the local art gallery, taking class trips to the nearby park and conducting lessons in the
387 neighbouring woodland area. Observations and discussions with teachers suggested that
388 these opportunities were contingent on teachers who saw themselves as taking a
389 ‘progressive’ or ‘innovative’ approach to teaching and learning. Teachers emphasised
390 though that physically active learning opportunities were constrained by pressures
391 relating to UK educational policies. As a teaching assistant explained,

392 Physical activity, I think, gets a back foot because of OFSTED valuing maths and
393 literacy. And I think the teachers get a lot of pressure. I know they could teach in
394 a physical way. But I think there's a lot of pressure on timetable time to fit it in.

395 The participant explains how the ‘pressure’ of academic attainment leads to physical
396 activity through school trips and outings becoming de-prioritized. We see these
397 educational policies as the context in which certain practices are positioned as being
398 ‘progressive’, against the embedded routines of normal practice, and potentially
399 unsustainable. Policymaking practices can be seen as co-existing in “enormous networks
400 of action chains” (Schatzki, 1996, p.103) with powerful associations cutting across the

401 nexus to inform how teaching practices become meaningful in different ways. Indeed, the
402 very idea of ‘innovative’ and ‘progressive’ physically active teaching, as identified by
403 some of our teacher participants, suggests that they were pushing against collective
404 conventions relating to quiet, sedentary classes.

405 Teachers participating in our study saw their innovative work as being enabled by
406 supportive and encouraging school leadership, an example of teaching practices being in
407 harmony with localised (school-level) leadership practices. This supports the assertion
408 that in the right practice conditions, practitioners can shape their engagement with
409 practice routines. As the crossing points of multiple practices (Reckwitz, 2002), teachers
410 acting within harmonious practice configurations can facilitate localised change to enable
411 the emergence of physical activity, just as parents can integrate a walk to school with
412 shopping, parenting or a trip to the park. However, this is only possible if the practices
413 they are enacting collaborate appropriately.

414 **Conclusion**

415 In an attempt to advance an understanding of how practice theories might inform public
416 health research and intervention, this study has made a distinctive contribution by
417 applying the three-elements model to the context of children’s physical activity during a
418 school day. First, it illuminates how a practice theory approach to physical activity can
419 be applied as a theoretical lens to reveal the complex ways that school-based physically
420 active practices are enabled and constrained. The three-elements analysis reveals the
421 contingent nature of a primary schools’ physically active practices. Analysis has shifted
422 focus away from individuals to the different ways that physical activity emerges from
423 practices for which it is a requirement, such as travel to school, or part of its purpose,
424 such as PE. The ways that physical activity emerges depends on the configurations of
425 practice elements which are drawn on in the enactment of practices, and also on practice

426 interrelationships across the nexus. Our analysis has illustrated how physically active
427 practices can be supported when there is harmony with related practices, and constrained
428 when there is conflict (Shove et al., 2012). Further research may include consideration of
429 the way persistent sedentary practices compete with physical activity. A practice theory
430 understanding of physical activity would frame the goals of intervention in terms of
431 shaping a nexus which supports routine, habitual physical activity.

432 Second, our analysis begins to illuminate the focus of interventions required to
433 create habitual physical activity. For example, the practices implicating children's
434 physical activity might be in conflict or harmony with routines, practices and policies that
435 may have been otherwise invisible, but which create important connections. We found
436 connections between attainment and calmness in classrooms, between gender and sports,
437 and between parenting *and* working and active travel to school. There are important
438 human and non-human coordinators of practice, such as teachers and parents, policies,
439 timetables and material structures. A three-elements analysis provides one way of
440 understanding this complexity, by illuminating contingent eco-systems or processes,
441 rather than influences or causes (Shove et al., 2012). As such, it illuminates the need for
442 intervention which has multiple strands and purposes, engages multiple actors, partners
443 and stakeholders and is able to emerge and change over time (Lang and Rayner, 2007).

444 Despite these conceptual advances, future research is required to interrogate how
445 practice-based intervention might be implemented within such a complex school system,
446 especially given the disappointing outcomes of other 'whole school' physical activity
447 interventions (Adamowitsch et al., 2014). Furthermore, there are questions about how
448 changes to the practice nexus might be evaluated when the ways that the dynamic
449 configuration of practices might evolve cannot be predicted (Keane et al., 2017).

450 As a final point of reflection, we also seek to highlight a significant limitation of
451 the three-elements model as a framework for analysis, which is important given the
452 growing prevalence of its use in practice-oriented critical public health. We are
453 sympathetic to Watson’s (2017) comment that although the three-elements “has provided
454 the basis for attempts to reconceptualise possible targets for intervention... it has little to
455 say about the means through which power operates” (p.172). Power relations across the
456 nexus are important for the way practices interrelate, are made possible and change. For
457 example, power is implicated in the way that health and safety and attainment policies
458 can be privileged when competing with physical activity. Power is also central in the
459 supportive leadership which enabled our teacher participants to enact ‘progressive’,
460 physically active teaching practices. Power is, of course, also present in the notion of
461 intervention, in terms of who has the legitimacy to impose a programme of change. The
462 three-elements model emphasises practice co-existence and obscures how and why “some
463 practices and practitioners are able deliberately to affect the conduct of practices and
464 practitioners elsewhere” (p.173). For example, the unequal capacity for practitioners to
465 overcome employer obligations and walk their children to school is not easily accounted
466 for. The danger is that power and politics become ‘bracketed off’ (Cohn, 2014), when
467 they are central to the social processes involved in social change.

468 We conclude that despite important limitations, the three-elements model offers a
469 helpful framework for understanding school physical activity which de-centres the
470 individual and focuses on the social processes from which habitual physical activity does,
471 or could, emerge. However, its capacity to effectively support interventions which
472 challenge and shape routinized patterns of action is yet to be demonstrated (Hargreaves,
473 2011). Future research can pursue the research agenda that this paper opens up, and
474 explore the implications of practice-oriented intervention across the practice nexus

475 (Houlihan and Browne, 2019) for the purposes of shaping children's routinized physically
476 active practices during a school day.

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- 602
- 603 Acknowledgements. Some of the first author’s contribution was carried out at the University of
604 the West of England.

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Appendices

606 **1. Moderator's guide for Daily Mile interviews**

607 **2. Moderator's Guide for Pupil Focus Groups**

608 **3. Moderator's Guide for Staff Interviews**

609 **4. Observation Guide**

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1. Moderator's guide for Daily Mile interviews

Section	Questions
<i>Introductory questions</i>	How long has this school been doing the Daily Mile? Does everyone enjoy doing the Daily Mile?
<i>Meanings</i>	- Why do you enjoy / not enjoy the Daily Mile? - Not every school does the Daily Mile, why do you think this school does it? - How does it make you feel before/during/after? - What's the first thing you think of when you think of the Daily Mile?
<i>Materials</i>	- What can you see when you run around? - What does the ground feel like when you are running? - What can you hear and smell when you are running? - Are there other places at home or near your house where you could also do the Daily Mile? - Does it matter what you are wearing when you run?
<i>Competences</i>	- Do you find the Daily Mile hard, easy or somewhere in between? - When you start, do you feel confident that you will finish? - Are you good at running and walking? Why? - Do you ever compare yourself of other people in your class? - Do you feel like you are fit? - Do you feel like you are healthy?

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2. Moderator’s Guide for Pupil Focus Groups

Section	Activity and questions
Introduction and warm up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thanks for taking part. - Information and consent. <p>Icebreaker 1: Imagine you could go on holiday anywhere for a whole week. What would you choose to do?</p> <p>Icebreaker 2: Get up and move around – talk to each other and work out who lives the furthest away from school. Order yourselves across the room.</p>
Your school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tell me about your school. What do you like about it? - How would you describe your school to an alien? (Facilitator draw picture on the flipchart as children describe). - What would you change if you were in charge?
Your day	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tell me about your school day. <p>ACTIVITY: Draw before school, morning, lunch, afternoon and after school... something you do (one point in the day per child).</p> <p>What is your favourite way of spending time?</p>
Being physically active	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What does it mean to be physically active? - What activities do you do that get you breathing hard? Let’s act them out. - Where do you do them? - How does it feel to be physically active? What do you like about it? <p>Parents and teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do your parents do physical activity? What about your teachers? - Tell me what they do. - Do you think they like it?
Physically activity culture	<p>ACTIVITY DICE with a story stem on each side. Create a short story by rolling the dice. Sit in a circle. Facilitator writes story on flipchart. TALKING STICK, teddy etc.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tom was really good at running. He was fast and he liked playing football and was a brilliant swimmer. His best friend, Sam, didn’t like running about and Tom was sad about this. One day at lunch, Tom decided they would do something really exciting... 2. A group of friends from year ? got together one Saturday to play. They were sitting sipping some lemonade in a sunny garden, trying to decide what to do. Suddenly, Poppy came up with a great idea... 3. Jamie’s parents were surprised when Jamie asked to join the school cycling club. They thought that... 4. Georgie was a new girl at the school. It was her first day. Some of the other children in her class went up to her at break and said “you can play with us”. She was very glad to have some new friends. They all went together to... 5. Martha was so excited to get home from school and tell her parents what she had been asked to join in with the next day. She was going to be part of the... 6. It was a rainy, cold, wintery day and Josh and his friends were a bit bored. They were trying to decide what to do. In the end, they decided to...
Wrap up	<p>Would you like to do more things that are physically active? What would you like to do?</p> <p>Thank you! (Distribute stickers)</p>

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3. Moderator’s Guide for Staff Interviews

Section	Activity and questions
Introduction and warm up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thanks for taking part. - Information and consent. <p>Icebreaker – How long have you taught here? What are you doing over the summer?</p>
Your school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tell me about the school. What do you like about it? - How would you describe your school to an alien? - What is the one thing you would change about it if you could wave a magic wand?
Your leisure time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I know how hard teachers work... Tell me about your weekends. - Favourite way of relaxing. What’s your one luxury that you wouldn’t do without
Being physically active	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What does that mean? - How do you feel about doing ‘sport’ or ‘being physically active’? - What do you do that is active? - Where do you do them? - [Some people don’t like being physically active. Why do you think that is?] <p>How physically active do you think children at your school are? What would make them more active?</p> <p>What about out of school? How much physical activity do you think the children do when they’re not here?</p>
Physically activity culture	<p>ACTIVITY</p> <p>Let’s write a list of all the places and times that children are physically active in school. I’ll start:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some walk or cycle to school... <p>Let’s write a list of all the times they are sedentary:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Eating their lunch
Wrap up	<p>Would you like to do more things that are physically active? What would you like to do?</p>

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4. Observation Guide

Topics of interest for observation (non-exhaustive) for Drop-offs, Pick-Ups, Playground Activities, and PE Classes
SPACE - What is the physical layout of the space, what does the area look like, what is in the immediate proximity of the setting, what surrounds it etc.?
OBJECTS - What are the physical things/objects that are present? (e.g. cars, street signs, road infrastructure etc.)
EVENT – What is the main event that is taking place, what is the purpose of the event?
ACTOR(S) - Who are the range of people involved? (Estimation of numbers over the observations period, demographics and general characteristics; are there actor groups, are some actors more dominant than others?)
INDIVIDUAL ACTS – what are the single/discrete acts that are taking place? (Getting out of a car etc.)
ACTIVITIES – Are there groups of behaviour acts that seem to be related? (E.g. single actions such as: parking, getting out of the car, saying goodbye etc.)
TIME and SEQUENCING– What is the time of day, day of the week, time of the month, season etc. How long do activities take? Is there anything interesting about the sequencing of events?
GOAL(S) - What are the goals that people are trying to accomplish?
FEELINGS - What are the emotions that are being felt and expressed? How are these expressed etc.?

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