

# Effectiveness and efficiency of virtual reality designs to enhance athlete development: An ecological dynamics perspective

STONE, Joseph <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9861-4443>, STRAFFORD, Ben <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4506-9370>, NORTH, Jamie Stephen, TONER, Ciaran and DAVIDS, Keith <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1398-6123>

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4	J.A. Stone <sup>1</sup> , B.W. Strafford <sup>2</sup> , J.S. North <sup>3</sup> , C. Toner <sup>4</sup> & K. Davids <sup>2</sup>
5 6 7	
8	<sup>1</sup> Academy of Sport and Physical Activity, Sheffield Hallam University
9	<sup>2</sup> Centre for Sport Engineering Research, Sheffield Hallam University
10 11	<sup>3</sup> Expert Performance and Skill Acquisition Research Group, St Mary's University, Twickenham
12	<sup>4</sup> D.A.C.Systems Limited.
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15	Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Joseph Stone, Academy of
16	Sport and Physical Acitivy, Sheffield Hallam University, A213, Collegiate Hall, Collegiate
17	Crescent, Sheffield, S10 2BP. Tel: +44 0114 225 5413; E-mail: joseph.stone@shu.ac.uk.
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#### 28 Abstract

29 A rapidly developing area of research is focused on the use of Virtual Reality (VR) systems to enhance athlete performance in sport. The assumption is that implementation of such 30 31 technologies will enhance skill acquisition and expedite athlete development. However, 32 application of such technologies for enriching athlete development and performance 33 preparation needs to be efficiently and effectively used by coaches and athletes to save time, 34 energy and other resources in practice and training. Here, we argue that implementation of 35 VR systems needs to be grounded in theory, with learning designs informed by a clear scientific rationale. We discuss how the full potential of VR systems can be utilised through 36 37 implementing a theoretical framework, like ecological dynamics, to shape their application. 38 We outline how an ecological dynamics framework can underpin research and applications of 39 VR in athlete development through: (i) individualised training and assessment programmes, 40 (ii) supporting exploration of variable and creative practice environments, and (iii), ensuring context-dependent perception and decision making, and actions, where technology permits. 41 42 An ecological dynamics rationale proposes how VR systems, when carefully implemented, 43 can enrich and enhance learning designs, but can never replace coaching support for learning 44 during physical practice. 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 Key Words: Ecological dynamics, Virtual Reality, sport performance, perception-action

52 coupling, interactive learning designs, practice enrichment

#### 53 Abstrait

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54 Un domaine de récherche en développement rapide est axé sur l'utilisation des systèmes de réalité virtuelle (RV) pour améliorer les performances des athlètes dans le sport. L'hypothèse 55 56 est que la mise en œuvre de telles technologies améliorera l'acquisition de compétences et 57 accélérera le développement des athlètes. Cependant, l'application de ces technologies pour 58 enrichir le développement de l'athlète et la préparation à la performance doit être utilisée efficacement par les entraîneurs et les athlètes. Ceci qu'afin de la nécessité d''économiser du 59 temps, de l'énergie et d'autres ressources pour la pratique et l'entraînement. Nous soutenons 60 ici que la mise en œuvre de systèmes de réalité virtuelle doit être ancrée dans la théorie, avec 61 62 des conceptions d'apprentissage reposant sur une justification scientifique claire. Nous 63 discutons de la manière dont tout le potentiel des systèmes de réalité virtuelle peut être utilisé 64 en mettant en œuvre un cadre théorique, tel que la théorie de "dynamiques écologiques", pour façonner leur application. Nous décrivons comment un cadre de "dynamiques écologiques" 65 peut sous-tendre la récherche et les applications de la réalité virtuelle au développement des 66 67 athlètes à travers: (i) des programmes d'entraînement et d'évaluation individualisés, (ii) en soutenant l'exploration d'environnements de pratique variés et créatifs, et (iii), en garantissant 68 une perception dépendante du contexte, ainsi que la prise de décision et les actions, où la 69 70 technologie le permet. Une logique de "dynamiques écologiques" suggère comment les 71 systèmes de RV, lorsqu'ils sont soigneusement mis en œuvre, peuvent enrichir et améliorer 72 les conceptions d'apprentissage. Mais, elles ne peuvent jamais remplacer le soutien de 73 l'entraîneur pour l'apprentissage pendant la pratique physique.

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#### 78 Introduction

79 Since the introduction of virtual reality (VR), rapid growth and emergence of new technologies has enabled individuals to behave and interact in more immersive environments 80 with relative ease and at relatively low cost (e.g., Occulus Rift and HTC Vive) (Düking, 81 82 Holmberg, & Sperlich, 2018). In sport, increased accessibility and mobility of VR systems 83 has led to a growing interest in their application to develop athlete performance (Cotterill, 2018). However, despite the number of sports organisations investing in VR systems, there is 84 currently limited scientific evidence to inform and underpin its application (Neumann et al., 85 86 2018; Düking et al., 2018). Most importantly, it is unclear whether VR systems develop skills 87 and expertise beyond the specific practice context in which it is implemented, and how the 88 effectiveness of VR compares to other methods of learning and training. While there may be 89 some benefits for athletes, a judgement needs to be made as to whether VR systems are worth 90 the time, money and effort involved in their implementation. It is important to understand 91 whether such time, money and effort may be better invested in developing enhanced learning 92 designs for athletes during traditional practice designs.

93 In this position statement, we argue that to enable the full potential of VR systems in 94 enhancing athlete performance and development in sport, a theoretical framework is 95 necessary to rationalise applications of such systems to ensure effective and efficient designs 96 of VR environments for athlete development and learning. To achieve this aim, we build on the ideas of Craig (2013), who applied concepts from *ecological psychology* to inform the 97 98 design of experimental research on perception-action coupling using virtual reality systems. 99 We further these discussions using the relevance of key concepts in *ecological dynamics* (i.e. an integration of concepts from ecological psychology, dynamic systems theory, complexity 100 101 sciences, constraints-led practice, representative learning design) to inform the design and the 102 application of VR technologies to enrich the training programmes of elite and developing

- athletes. Finally, we propose future empirical research which is required to support evidence-based implementation of VR in athlete training.
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# An ecological dynamics approach to guide implementation of Virtual Reality systems in athlete training programmes

108 Craig (2013) suggested how the application of virtual reality could be guided by key 109 concepts from ecological psychology which proposes a "direct" solution to perception and 110 action to help athletes become attuned to specifying information in the environment which is 111 coupled with action possibilities. In this theoretical rationale, perception and action are 112 considered to have a direct and cyclical relationship to support performance (Kugler & 113 Turvey, 1987; Handford, Davids, Bennett, & Button, 1997), the strengthening of which VR 114 training systems can potentially enhance. In this respect, the role of VR technology in learning could be to help learners become attuned to specifying information in a simulated 115 116 performance environment. This central theoretical principle informs the design of learning 117 environments to facilitate athlete exploration of lawful relationships between perception and 118 action emerging during interactions with a performance environment. An extensive body of 119 research has provided support for the reciprocal relationship between perception and action in 120 sport performance (e.g., Dicks, Button, & Davids, 2010a, 2010b; Pinder, Renshaw, & Davids, 121 2009; Stone, Panchuk, Davids, North, & Maynard, 2015). For this purpose, investigators have worked on the development and integration of novel methods, for example in *in-situ* 122 123 representative designs (e.g., Dicks et al., 2010a, 2010b), virtual environments (Craig, 2013) 124 and integrated video-ball projection systems (e.g., Stone et al., 2014). These research programmes have all demonstrated the importance of continuous coupling of informational 125 126 constraints and actions during experimental research programmes and sports practice. Key 127 research findings have shown how athletes can continually integrate perception and action

during performance, driven by theoretical advances in skill performance and learning, to
inform sports practitioners about the design of practice environments (Davids, Araújo, Vilar,
Renshaw, & Pinder, 2013).

131 With regards to the implementation of VR systems in athlete training programmes, a recent systematic review by Neumann and colleagues (2018) indicated that current evidence 132 133 for their value was less than compelling. While they argued that: "The research findings to 134 date indicate that VR can be a promising adjunct to existing real-world training and 135 participation in sport", they did also note that "Future research would benefit from a theoretical framework of VR application to sport...." (Neumann et al., 2018, p.196). A key 136 137 problem with existing research on implementation of VR systems in sport, identified by the 138 systematic review of Neumann et al. (2018), was the provision of opportunities for athletes to 139 *interact* with key variables in the designed digital performance environments.

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#### 141 How VR systems can support interactions of athletes with task and environmental

#### 142 constraints in preparation for performance

143 Here, we propose how implementation of VR systems in sports training programmes 144 could be enhanced by a theoretical conceptualisation from ecological dynamics, emphasising 145 how athletes can interact with task and environmental constraints of a specific performance 146 environment. This theoretical rationale builds on Craig's (2013) ideas for guiding VR research underpinned from ecological psychology. We integrate key concepts and ideas from 147 148 ecological psychology with those from scientific sub-disciplines of complexity sciences and 149 dynamical systems theory to conceptualise athletes and sports teams as complex, highly integrated, adaptive systems composed of many degrees of freedom (Chow, Davids, 150 151 Hristovski, Araújo, & Passos, 2011). An ecological dynamics rationale proposes that 152 cognition, perception and action are deeply intertwined in regulating athlete performance in

153 satisfying key constraints (individual, environmental and task see Figure 1). This deeply 154 intertwined relationship is most prominent in skilled individuals such as expert athletes as it 155 supports their continuous interactions with task and environmental constraints (Orth, Davids 156 & Seifert, 2018). Gaining this intertwined relationship between sub-systems of action, cognition and perception, which support interactions with a performance environment, is the 157 158 fundamental basis for using technologies like VR systems to enrich athlete learning and performance. Interactions with key informational variables in a performance context act as 159 160 boundaries that shape emergent patterns of behaviour (Anson, Elliott, & Davids, 2005). 161 Interacting constraints designed into a representative simulation of a performance 162 environment provide a framework for the acquisition of functional, goal-directed behaviours 163 in learners. This conceptualisation from ecological dynamics provides a clear rationale for 164 understanding how task and environmental constraints, designed in VR environments could 165 guide each individual performer's interactions and learning possibilities. 166 In an ecological dynamics rationale, dynamical systems theory contributes a 167 functionalist framework proposing how coordination in neurobiological systems emerges 168 between components of multiple independent, but interacting, subsystems (Duarte, Araújo, Correia, & Davids, 2012). The concept of *degeneracy* outlines how system elements that are 169 170 structurally different can perform the same function or yield the same output (Edelman & 171 Gally, 2001). Hence, degeneracy in sport performance indicates that functionally equivalent 172 actions of athletes can be achieved by structurally different movement system components. 173 Neurobiological degeneracy has been revealed in tasks such as football kicking (Chow, 174 Davids, Button, & Koh, 2008) where participants adapted their use of limb segments to continue to successfully perform a task (e.g. height of a football chip) as constraints were 175 176 manipulated. Such research evidences how skilled performance is achieved via a dynamical 177 process, regulated by perceptual information available to performers in a performance

178	environment (e.g., for reviews see Vilar et al., 2012; Orth et al., 2012). Hence, practitioners
179	should not be looking for one optimal pattern of coordination towards which all developing
180	learners should aspire, but instead, training should be concerned with a process of individual-
181	constraints coupling (Seifert et al., 2013). Importantly here, this theoretical account proposes
182	how each individual may solve the same movement tasks in a unique way. Hence a standard
183	"one-size fits all" practice schedule could be avoided by using VR systems to individualise
184	task and environmental constraints away from the practice context before athletes engage in
185	physical training. Enhancing athlete self-regulation (of emotional, psychological, perceptual
186	and physical sub-systems) through exploiting adaptive variability is an important
187	performance area that use of VR systems has the potential to enrich in practice.
188	Dynamical system theory also proposes that, alongside individualised movement
189	patterns, variability of movement is functional for performance and should not be seen as
190	detrimental to performance. Movement system variability indicates the functional flexibility
191	needed to respond to dynamic performance constraints. Viewing learners as complex
192	adaptive systems promotes awareness in sport practitioners that an individual learner's
193	coordination solutions emerge from harnessing intrinsic self-organisation tendencies and that
194	periods of movement variability (or instability) should be viewed as an important part of the
195	learning process (Chow et al., 2007). Therefore, the use of VR systems could allow
196	practitioners to manipulate relevant task, environment and performer constraints to facilitate
197	the acquisition of functionally relevant coordination solutions via performer-environment
198	interactions. Next, we outline how such principles could shape the future of VR research and
199	learning design guided by these ecological dynamics principles.
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201	**Figure 1 about here**
202 203	Representative Learning Design for VR systems training

204 Implementation of VR systems needs to achieve learning designs that will support learners, over time, becoming attuned to information through practice in varying performance 205 206 environments, creating relationships between actions and specific sources of perceptual 207 information (i.e. perception-action couplings; see Gibson, 1979; Michaels & Carello, 1981). 208 'Representative learning design' is a term which theoretically outlines how practitioners 209 designing learning environments might use insights from ecological dynamics to ensure that 210 training task constraints are representative of a particular sport performance context toward 211 which practice conditions are intended to generalize (Davids, Araújo, Vilar, Renshaw & 212 Pinder, 2013). Designs underpinned by a representative learning framework enable the 213 utilisation of affordances (i.e. opportunities for action invited by objects, surfaces, features 214 and terrains) perceived by individuals (Gibson 1979) which are available in specific 215 performance environments. Affordances conceptualise the combining of perception and 216 action, since "perception is an invitation to act, and action is an essential component of 217 perception" (Gibson, 1979, p. 46). Hence, to enable the use of functional perception-action 218 couplings, individuals must identify specifying information variables (i.e. be perceptually 219 attuned to constraints of a performance environment), but also have the ability to scale 220 information to their own action capabilities (Fajen, 2007; Jacobs & Michaels, 2007). A 221 challenge for implementation of a functional framework for VR learning design in sports 222 training and practice (see Figure 1) is to ensure that principles of representative learning 223 design are met by careful consideration of the constraints which are present within such 224 environments (see Pinder et al., 2011b). 225 Pinder, Davids, Renshaw and Araújo (2011a) highlighted two critical features to ensure a representative design, functionality of perceptual information and action fidelity. 226

227 Functionality of perceptual information enables performers to regulate actions with

228 information sources that are representative of their performance environment, with action

229 fidelity being achieved when participants' movement responses remain the same between the 230 simulated (e.g., experimental or training) environment and the performance environment 231 (Pinder, Davids, Renhsaw & Araújo 2011a). These concepts emphasise that applications of 232 VR for skill learning need to implement technology and devices to display information (functionality) and support continuous interactions (fidelity) of a learner in a simulated 233 234 performance environment. These interactions should be underpinned by integrated cognitive, 235 perceptual and action sub-system involvement within specific task constraints designed in a 236 digital simulation of a performance setting. That is, learners in VR training environments should have intentions to achieve specific task goals, informational variables to perceive and 237 238 affordances to utilise and actions to regulate during practice. A lack of representativeness in 239 VR learning designs may lead to less faithful simulations of performance environments, inhibit acquisition of skills, and weaken transfer to performance in competitive environments 240 241 similar to those observed in previous practice designs tasks (e.g. Barris, Davids & Farrow, 2013). Clearly, less representative learning designs in VR practice contexts will lead to less 242 243 efficient and effective use of training time for athletes and coaches. 244 Functionality of task constraints enables performers to regulate interactions with available information sources that are representative of those sources found in a performance 245 246 environment. For example, learning environments should include perceptual variables that 247 sample informational constraints which performers use to regulate their interactions within a performance environment. Functional sampling of representative perceptual information in 248 249 sport training environments is a considerable challenge for coaches and researchers. For 250 example, in cricket, a bowler's kinematic information during the run-up, which is critical for anticipation (Müller, Abernethy, & Farrow, 2006), is often removed because of ubiquitous 251 252 use of ball projection machines and concerns related to overuse injuries in bowlers (see Pinder, Davids, Renshaw & Araújo, 2011b). Use of VR systems has the potential to 253

254 overcome such issues, through regulation of the perceptual information presented, while 255 enhancing representativeness by presenting visual information of the run-up from a performer's viewpoint. For example, VR technology could be used to avoid the limitations of 256 a fixed allocentric viewpoint of participants (see Williams, Davids, Burwitz, & Williams, 257 1994; Helsen & Pauwels, 1993). Researchers have previously demonstrated that participants 258 259 make faster and more accurate decisions when they are presented with a viewpoint from a performer's perspective (egocentric viewpoint) compared to viewing a live broadcast 260 261 (allocentric viewpoint) (Petit & Ripoll, 2008).

262 Realistic behavioural responses in virtual environments are suggested to occur when 263 the system induces a sense of presence and the perception that the events are actually 264 occurring (Slater, 2009). A functional VR display solution for enhancing quality of 265 perception-action couplings involves use of a computer automatic virtual environment 266 (CAVE) or head-mounted displays (HMD) (Neumann et al., 2018). Typically, CAVEs are large cubes created with display screens, which the user physically enters and is enveloped by 267 268 a virtual environment simulating the surrounding informational constraints of performance 269 environments. However, such systems can be expensive and require large amounts of 270 physical space, so HMD, which are smaller, portable and more cost-efficient, but still share 271 similar immersive environments, could be more beneficial (Slater, 2009). Nevertheless, 272 HMD require large amounts of space for athletes to move around in or require the use of 273 equipment such as treadmills to enable movement within a smaller space which can be 274 hazardous because vision of a moving treadmill belt is not available (Neumann et al., 2018). 275 In addition, head movements and perspiration of the athlete during actions can make the HMD uncomfortable to wear, which can itself impact the level of action fidelity and 276 277 presence. Therefore, while HMD are normally cheaper than CAVE systems, the constraints 278 placed on the athlete using such systems may limit the effectiveness of such learning designs

279 due to limitations on the affordances available for athletes to utilise. However, with the 280 continual development of technology, including wireless high-quality headsets (e.g., HTC Vive Pro) and haptic suits (e.g., Teslasuit), opportunities will emerge to develop more 281 282 perceptually faithful VR simulations of sport performance environments that meet the first component of effectiveness (functionality of perceptual information) of representative design. 283 284 Despite advances in visual displays, a fundamental weakness in current 285 implementations is that researchers still typically neglect the importance of action components in analyses. The importance of action in functional behaviour is underlined by 286 Gibson's (1979) statement that: "We must perceive in order to move but we must also move 287 288 in order to perceive" (p. 223). Here, Gibson (1979) highlighted that, not only is perception of 289 information critical for effective movement, the ability to move is critical to change the 290 perceptual information available to performers. That is why it is critical that VR designers 291 focus on the perceptual information presented in these environments, and the cognitions that 292 athletes use to frame their performance intentions while they are moving within these 293 environments. This recognition of the ongoing, intertwined relations between an athlete's 294 cognitions, perception and action implies how the design of VR performance environments 295 can be adapted according to the task and environmental constraints of a specific sport 296 context. Pinder et al. (2011a) recognised the importance of actions in creating representative 297 environments with the concept of *action fidelity*, which requires the performer being able to 298 re-organise motor system degrees of freedom in practice in the same way as would be 299 required in competitive performance. This key idea questions the use of VR responses like 300 finger movements on digital controlling systems, use of wands in hands or verbal responses 301 to simulate actions (Pinder et al., 2011a). Evidence for the importance of capturing actions 302 was highlighted by Oudejans, Michaels, and Bakker (1997) who examined performance of 303 expert and novice baseball outfielders during two catching tasks. In the first, participants

304 attempted to catch a ball, and in the second participants were merely required to point to 305 where a projected ball would land. Skill differences between participants were only observed when they could act on ball flight information, rather than merely pointing to a landing 306 307 location. It is critical, therefore, that designs and application of VR systems allow 308 opportunities for regulation of faithful, full body actions/responses. Whilst the extent of some actions may be somewhat limited by current VR technologies, an important future challenge 309 310 for engineers and technologists is to continue to design and develop systems which can 311 support more representative actions of athletes under different task and environmental 312 constraints.

313 Despite action fidelity (i.e. faithful actions/responses) being a critical component of 314 VR design, importantly, it is not only the ability of VR systems to enable representative 315 movement responses, but also the ability of participants to directly interact with and shape 316 these environments through their movements. Learning is founded on continuous interactions of a learner with a performance environment in successful sport practice 317 318 programmes. Current VR designs, which limit interactive movements of learners can be 319 circumvented by using immersive technology that affords the capacity for individuals to 320 navigate through an ever-changing environment (Sherman & Craig, 2002) and (re)organise 321 actions relative to information available in the virtual environment. These interactions can 322 enhance athlete self-regulation under different task and environmental constraints in sport by forcing adaptations of emotional, cognitive, perceptual and action sub-systems in individual 323 324 learners, depending on their needs. It is vital that VR systems provide an interactive environment that invites the perception of presence by ensuring that elements within the VR 325 environment can move or change in response to the ongoing actions of a learner (Baños et al., 326 327 2000; Sherman & Craig, 2002). For action fidelity to be maintained in practice, technology

needs to be non-obtrusive and light-weight as this allows athletes to interact with

329 environments without behaviour modifications due to such restrictions.

For this reason, a key requirement for VR systems is to ensure informational
constraints of performance are faithful in the representativeness of athlete-environment
interactions over time. In this way, VR systems could be used to constrain the acquisition of
appropriate perception-action couplings for an individual athlete, accounting for uniqueness
and variability of his/her interactions with sport performance contexts (see Correia, Araújo,
Cummins, & Craig, 2012; Craig, Bastin, & Montagne, 2011; Watson et al., 2011).

336

#### 337 Future research areas of VR for skill development

338 With the continued rapid development of VR systems (Neumann et al., 2018), we 339 envisage that task functionality and action fidelity will continue to improve, enabling more 340 effective and efficient learning designs, predicated on a clear theoretical rationale which 341 supports a close coupling of perception and action sub-systems in athletes. The use of VR 342 enables sport practitioners to control and manipulate both the environmental and task 343 constraints in specific and reproducible ways (Hoffman, Filippeschi, Ruffaldi, & Bardy, 344 2014). These advances will enable athletes to interact with varying affordance landscapes 345 within the learning environment (Davids, Güllich, Araújo & Shuttleworth, 2017). In the next 346 sections of the paper we outline the potential advantages of VR to supplement and enrich 347 current training programs, by careful manipulation of constraints, to enable: (1) 348 individualised training and assessment, (2) development of variability and creativity in 349 interacting with an affordance landscape, and (3), enhance context dependent decision 350 making in representative performance conditions. 351

352 Individualised training and assessment

353 Ecological dynamics emphasises that coaches need to individualise training designs 354 which can specify the parameters of functional interactions of an athlete with a simulated competitive performance environment. Equally, elite coaches have highlighted the 355 356 importance of individuality within training as individuals respond differently to the task and environmental constraints manipulated (Greenwood, Davids, & Renshaw, 2012). Although 357 358 individualisation is important, it is expensive in terms of human resources and time 359 (effectiveness and efficiency), and would take almost as many coaches as players. For this 360 reason, most sports organisations cannot fully exploit the full potential of an individualised training approach, relying instead on group-based sessions. If VR systems can be developed 361 362 to understand the performance solutions needed by individual athletes, then key constraints 363 can be identified and manipulated to facilitate skill development by encouraging exploration 364 of individual movement solutions. Hence, for VR systems to be effective they must be able to 365 consider the unique interaction of physical, physiological, cognitive and emotional characteristics of individual learners, which shape how an athlete solves performance 366 problems (Araújo, Davids & Hristovski, 2006). Because of variations in each athlete, 367 368 individual rates of skill development are likely to progress at different time scales (Liu, Mayer-Kress & Newell, 2006). Therefore, VR training systems need to take into account the 369 370 different rates of learning, growth and maturation processes experienced by individuals 371 during skill development. This could be achieved with feedback provided by continuous 372 learning algorithms to each athlete directly in real time (Kim, Prestopnik, & Biocca, 2013). 373 One area which could start to explore the effectiveness of such features are self-paced tasks 374 such as rowing and cycling where VR systems are more easily designed to ensure coupling of perception and action (for a review see Neumann et al., 2018). Therefore, research could 375 376 focus on how best to individualise training systems while ensuring a representative learning 377 design.

378 A particular focus in developing individualised training programs could involve use 379 of VR in injury rehabilitation. The use of VR systems may enrich rehabilitation programmes 380 so that athletes avoid the boredom of over-using repetitive muscle-exercising regimes which 381 dominate current methods. For example, overuse and repetitive strain injuries could be 382 reduced by athletes strengthening coupling of cognition, perception, and nuanced, subtle 383 movements, without the need for physical loading movements (e.g., repetition of problem 384 solving opportunities without excessive physical loading on the skeletomuscular system). In 385 professional sport, an injured player costs money but does not directly contribute to team 386 performance, which can lead to pressure to accelerate the rehabilitation work or rushing a 387 player back with danger of relapse (Akenhead & Nassis, 2016). Although rehabilitation 388 procedures may focus more extensively on physical exercises, psychological components 389 such as perceptual, cognitive or decision making skills have been shown as important factors 390 in injury rehabilitation (Heaney et al., 2015). With VR, functionality of skill (re)acquisition 391 may be enhanced by working on perceptual skills, developing decision making and cognition, 392 as well as self-regulation through simulation of competitive performance scenarios from a 393 first-person perspective (Craig, 2013). Use of VR can help each athlete to maintain 394 functionality of movement during rehabilitation, although with reduced loadings on specific 395 action sub-systems (Gokeler et al., 2016). In this case, reduced action fidelity may be 396 beneficial during the rehabilitation period by reducing (re)injury risk. Indeed, some learning 397 may be better than no learning at all during this highly specific phase of rehabilitation. In VR 398 performance simulations there is no possibility of physical contact with other performers and 399 athletes can use non-injured limbs and fewer degrees of freedom, significantly reducing risk of (re)injury. Use of VR could enhance effectiveness and efficiency of an individualised 400 401 training program for a rehabilitating athlete before returning to practice on field with other 402 players (often referred to in team sports as 'game conditioning'). However, further research is

required to demonstrate the value of such an implementation of VR to facilitate rehabilitation
specialists, athletes and coaches adopting the methodology to enrich their practice (Katz et
al., 2006; Akenhead & Nassis, 2016).

An essential element of the application of VR in sports training is transfer from VR 406 407 environments to competitive performance. Many perceptual training tools assume improved on-field performance, yet investigations of transfer are rare (for an exemplar transfer 408 409 investigation see Gabbett, Rubinoff, Thorburn & Farrow, 2007). Underpinning VR implementation with representative learning design should enhance transfer between practice 410 and performance. For example, Fitzpatrick, Davids and Stone (2018) demonstrated how 411 412 manipulations to constraints in training underpinned by a representative learning design could 413 afford the development of the backhand shot in children's tennis. However, transferability of 414 skills, tactical understanding, creative behaviours and diagnostic procedures from the virtual 415 environment to performance context is arguably the important challenge to be evidenced and aligned with existing data on transferability of skills (Tirp, Steingröver, Wattie, Baker, & 416 417 Schorer, 2015).

418

# 419 Development of variability and creativity in practice: Designing specific affordance 420 landscapes

An area of potential for VR is facilitating innovative performance behaviours in individual athletes, helping them to explore and develop a wider movement repertoire (Santos, Memmert, Sampaio, & Leite, 2016). An ecological dynamics rationale emphasises the design of affordances for innovative behaviours (thinking, adapting actions and decisions and the pick-up of varied information sources) under carefully managed task constraints, before seeking transfer to practice and then performance in a playing area (Davids et al., 2017). The design of a landscape of affordances for learning, using VR systems, is based on 428 the potential to precisely manipulate specific virtual informational constraints, such as space, 429 time, number of other performers, and locations in a performance area, in an almost infinite number of ways to individualise learning opportunities for athletes. For example, Figure 2 430 provides a scenario which seems simplistic but offers footballers a wealth of opportunities to 431 432 explore intentionality, perception, action and decision making in utilising affordances in a 433 performance landscape. This scenario could be used to develop subtle preparatory 434 movements, such as (re)positioning, (re)orienting and adapting body angles to receive and pass the ball quickly according to the precise locations of defenders collectively trying to 435 deny opportunities for a penetrative pass. Designing practice tasks to enhance player 436 437 interactions can support the flow of movement, for example, helping players perceive 438 emergent affordances of the biggest (most inviting) gap left by mobile defenders working 439 together (Correia et al., 2012; Watson et al., 2011). The essential element for VR design here 440 is to ensure availability of a landscape of affordances which promote what Bernstein (1967) called 'repetition without repetition' to enhance dexterity, problem-solving and exploratory 441 442 behaviours of athletes as performers seek to solve problems and make decisions across subtly 443 different scenarios. From this theoretical rationale, it is argued that subtle variations in VR 444 practice environments will promote the necessary flexibility in performance through 445 continued exploration and self-organisation of action responses as the performer adapts to these changing constraints. Through this continued exploration of their environment, 446 447 performers will be encouraged to interact and discover different movement solutions to reach 448 the same outcome (system degeneracy). 449 \*\*Figure 2 about here\*\* 450 451 In terms of coaching practice through use of immersive virtual reality, the

452 convergence of (virtual) task, environment and organismic constraints contributes to the

453 regulation and dynamics of human behaviour and can be manipulated to produce exploration 454 of movement variability (Newell, 1986; Araújo et al., 2006). This process is founded through adaptive movement behaviours caused by the establishment, reestablishment and refinement 455 456 of information movement couplings inherent to the performer (Araújo et al., 2006). Manipulating informational constraints in VR systems could induce phase transitions in 457 458 individual performers by creating learning environments which drive individuals to a metastable region of the perceptual-motor landscape of practice where a strategy of co-adaptation 459 460 can underpin the emergence of creative behaviours. In this process, the athlete is guided to 461 search appropriate areas of the perceptual-motor landscape during practice, not instructed to 462 form a specific movement pattern considered to be optimal by a coach. If an extensive range 463 of affordances can be designed into learning environments, this could enable learners to 464 explore and develop the intertwined relationship between cognition, action and perception 465 without the physical demands of repetitive actions in a sport. Importantly, despite VR systems offering a range of potential learning environments and manipulations to those 466 467 environments which could enhance creativity, currently the limited availability of haptic 468 feedback or ability to interact with physical objects such as balls still limits the scope of such training environments. While, currently, vibrations can be designed into VR system 469 470 technology to simulate haptic information from interacting with objects, this is an area that 471 future researchers may target for enriching feedback in VR systems.

472

## 473 Context dependent decision making

474 Sport coaches currently attempt to simulate aspects of competitive performance
475 environments in practice so that athletes can attune to performing in specific situations
476 against particular opponents. Research has proposed the benefits of affective learning designs
477 to enhance the self-regulation of athletes (see Headricks, Renshaw, Davids, Pinder, & Araújo,

478 2015; Runswick, Roca, Williams, Bezodis, & North, 2018). To maximise the potential 479 benefits of VR, the systems could be used to simulate not only representative perceptual 480 information, but also challenging situations which require self-regulation, such as different 481 cultural and social contexts, crowd abuse and noise, varying weather conditions, emotional 482 pressure from specific opponents, and even performing in conditions that require increased 483 levels of self-motivation. For example, VR has been used to facilitate simulations of high 484 pressure environments, such as by inducing anxiety in a cohort of soccer players during a 485 penalty-kick shooting task (Stinson & Bowman, 2014). Introducing elements of competition or pressure in VR learning environments could facilitate individualised management of stress 486 487 and specified dimensions of competitive anxiety (Parsons & Rizzo, 2008). Through practice 488 in a VR environment, athletes can train for competitions under the specific conditions 489 predicted for an actual event in representative simulations. In this way VR could be a 490 prominent training tool for enhancing specific self-regulation skills in individual athletes, 491 which warrants further investigation.

492 The use of perceptual and cognitive process training has been introduced in many 493 sporting and research environments (Harlow, Panchuk, Mann, Portus, & Abernethy, 2018). 494 For example, research has attempted to train attention towards specific features of a 495 performance environment by occluding or artificially highlighting key performance features, 496 such as postural cues of penalty takers when training anticipation skills in soccer goalkeepers (Murgia et al., 2014). However, much of the data generated from these measures have been 497 498 taken from a reductionist method which removes much of the context (e.g. score line, history 499 of playing against an opponent) from the decision making task. Use of VR environments 500 which introduce varying contextual factors while concurrently measuring gaze and 501 movement behaviours have potential to further understanding of expert perceptual processes 502 (e.g., scanning, attentional and anticipatory behaviours) in representative, context specific

503 performance environments.

#### 505 Conclusion

Use of VR systems in learning design could provide a suitable vehicle for specificity of practice to enrich athlete interactions with simulated performance environments, encompassing cognition, perception and actions in practice. An ecological dynamics framework can underpin the design of virtual environments to support effectiveness, efficiency and efficacy in developing a deep integration of cognitive, perceptual and movement skills during these simulated interactions. The use of VR systems can specify training for individuals by focusing their attention on specific fields within an affordance landscape (Davids et al., 2017). For example, investment in a VR system oriented for the acquisition of expertise in youth football could: (1)enrich athlete performance by individualising training programs which can be complemented with group-based, physical practice contexts, (2) reduce the time to achieve 'game conditioned' status when returning from an injury, and (3), help promote engaged (i.e., motivated and invested) players in their development over prolonged periods of practice. The use of virtual reality in training is not intended to replace the role of sport practitioners, such as a coach, but to assist them and complement on field training by enriching the learning of athletes.

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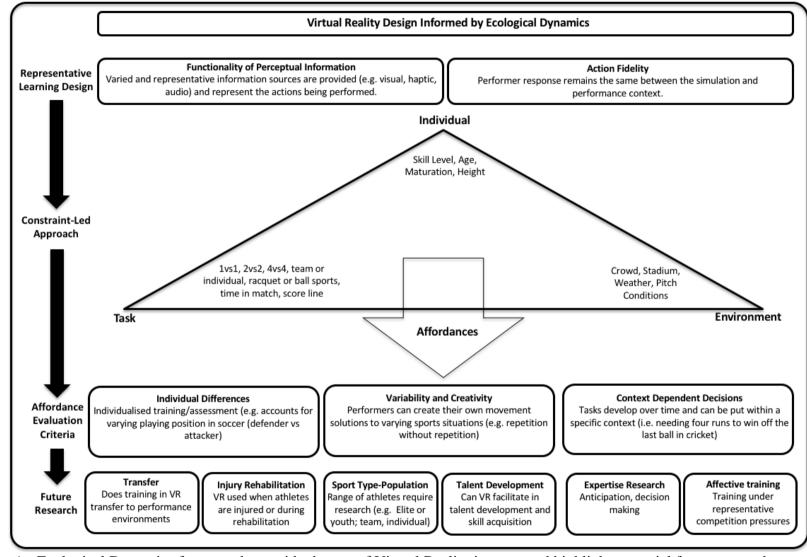
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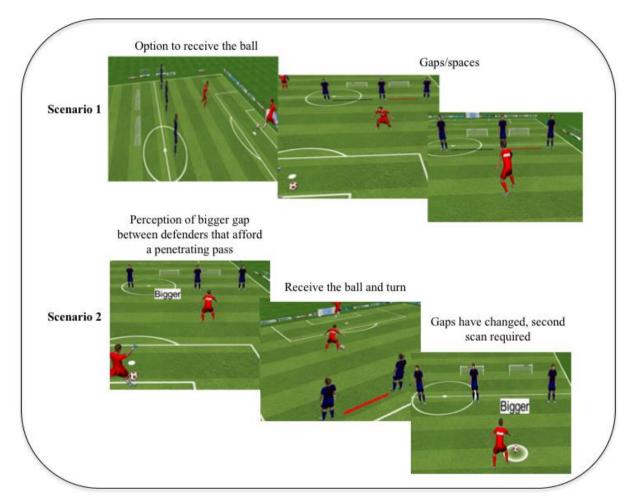
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**Figure 1.** An Ecological Dynamics framework to guide the use of Virtual Reality in sport and highlight potential future research



**Figure 2. Virtual Reality practice scenarios.** Scenario 1: The receiver in red must control the pass from a teammate and turn to play the ball into either small goal area. The task is to find the biggest affordance (gap/space) and play the penetrative pass. Here, the distance between the defender is fixed over time. Scenario 2: The distance between defenders changes over time with more advanced learners needing to perceive the biggest emerging gap.