

Training programme designs in professional team sport: An ecological dynamics exemplar

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1	Training programme designs in professional team sport: An ecological dynamics exemplar
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15 Abstract

16 Ecological dynamics is a contemporary theory of skill acquisition, advocating the mutuality of the performer-environment system, with clear implications for the design of innovative training 17 18 environments in elite sport. It contends that performance behaviours emerge, and are adapted, by 19 athletes satisfying a confluence of constraints impacting on their structural and functional capacities, 20 the physics of a performance environment and the intended task goals. This framework implicates contemporary models of coaching, training design and sport science support, to stimulate 21 22 continuous interactions between an individual and performance environment, predicated on 23 representative learning designs (RLD). While theoretical principles of RLD in ecological dynamics are 24 tangible, their practical application in elite and high level (team) sports need verification. Here, we 25 exemplify how data sampled from a high-performance team sport setting could underpin innovative 26 methodologies to support practitioners in designing representative training activities. We highlight 27 how the use of principles grounded within ecological dynamics, along with data from performance 28 analytics, could suggest contemporary models of coaching and preparation for performance in elite 29 sport.

30 Key points

Ecological dynamics is a contemporary theory of skill acquisition that encourages
 practitioners to design performer-environment interactions in training, through the
 conceptualisation of athletes and sports teams as *complex adaptive systems*.

- Utilising this framework has the potential to change the role of practitioners from one of
 prescribing movement solutions, to one of a learning activity designer that encourages self organisation and co-adaptation between athletes in local interactions.
- Interdisciplinary collaborations between performance analysts, skill acquisition specialists
 and sport practitioners could ensure that the design of learning activities are representative
 of the demands of competitive performance, with implications for efficient and effective use
 of practice and training time.

- 41
- 42 Key words: Ecological dynamics Constraints-led approach; skill acquisition; representative learning
- 43 design; performance analysis; interdisciplinarity; localised interactions

45 Section 1

46 1.1 A Theoretical Background to Ecological Dynamics

Ecological dynamics is a theoretical framework advocating the mutuality of the performerenvironment system, whereby the critical information required for regulation of performance behaviours emerges from continuous interactions that individuals share with a performance environment (Davids, Button & Bennett, 2008). It blends complexity science and ecological psychology (Kauffman, 1993; Warren, 2006), emphasising the relevance of constraints on behaviours, which have recently been posited as underlying a grand unifying theory of sports performance (Glazier, 2017).

54 From this perspective, the emergence of movement is predicated on a range of constraints that 55 orient an individual's functional and structural capacities, such as emotional states (Headrick, 56 Renshaw, Davids & Pinder, 2015), the physics of the environment and the intended requirements of the task goal (Davids, Araújo, Vilar, Renshaw & Pinder, 2013). In performance contexts, such as elite 57 58 sports, 'skilled intentionality' (Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014) in an athlete emerges to satisfy key 59 interacting constraints in order to functionally achieve a pre-determined task goal (Chow, Davids, Button & Koh, 2008). An important question concerns how, utilising the conceptualisation of 60 ecological dynamics, practitioners in elite sport can help athletes to develop a deeply integrated 61 62 relationship between their intentions (goal directed behaviours), perceptions and actions which can 63 support successful performance (Davids, Araújo, Seifert & Orth, 2015).

Through the lens of ecological dynamics, an athlete or team are viewed as *complex adaptive* systems, where the continuously dynamic and non-linear performer-environment interactions *afford* (provides opportunities for) multiple performance solutions to emerge in achieving the same or similar task goal (Kelso, 2012). The nuanced relationship between multiple performance solutions and the achievement of the same task goal has been conceptualised through the notion of system *degeneracy*, which captures how a system output can be achieved from the use of structurally

70 different elements (Edelman & Gally, 2001). In sport, an exemplar of this concept emerges when a 71 basketballer (re)organises shot type (task goal) based upon his/her current functional and structural capacities (e.g. limb length or upper body power), interacting with key task/environmental 72 73 constraints (e.g. distance and angle from the hoop, position of a nearest defender and/or the 74 current match score) (Gorman & Maloney, 2016). Skill acquisition has been re-conceptualised as skill adaptation in ecological dynamics, defined as a process by which an individual progressively 75 76 becomes attuned to the relevant affordances (opportunities for action, Gibson (1979)) within a 77 performance environment. This attunement process, with experience and learning, helps athletes to 78 adapt movements to exploit key constraints to functionally achieve a task goal (Araújo, Davids, 79 Chow, Passos, & Raab 2009).

80 These insights are founded on fundamental propositions from Nikolai Bernstein (1967), supporting 81 contemporary conceptualisations of how the skilled adaptation of individuals to task demands 82 requires an emphasis on developing dexterity. This influential idea for sport practitioners was 83 captured in Bernstein's (1967, p228) definition of dexterity as "the ability to find a motor solution for 84 any external situation, that is, to adequately solve any emerging motor problem correctly (i.e., adequately and accurately), quickly (with respect to both decision making and achieving a correct 85 86 result), rationally (i.e., expediently and economically), and resourcefully (i.e., quick-wittedly and 87 initiatively)" (italics in the original). Although not conceptualised with sport performance in mind, 88 Bernstein's (1967) notion of dexterity is highly relevant for the preparation of team sport athletes for 89 interacting with the constraints of the competitive environment.

An implication of this conceptualisation in sport is that learning environments should be (re)designed to offer athletes opportunities to explore and adapt movement solutions under constraints which closely simulate those of competitive performance. When aligned with traditional notions of 'training specificity', this ideology raises significant questions over the design of training practices in elite sport. Traditionally, training specificity refers to the extent to which a practice

95 environment or training activity reflects the demands experienced by an athlete or team during actual competition (Henry, 1968). The 'training specificity hypothesis' contends that the closer a 96 97 practice task design is to the requirements of competition, the greater the likelihood of a positive 98 learning transfer (Tremblay, 2010). An ecological dynamics approach emphasises the mutuality of 99 the performer-environment system, advocating that training specificity is dependent on the 100 information sources used by athletes to regulate behaviours in competition. An important challenge 101 in sport science is to sample these critical information sources and carefully design them into 102 practice task so that they are *representative* of the competitive performance environment (Headrick 103 et al., 2015). Successful sampling of performance data would ensure that the representative design 104 of training activities maintain the coupling between perception and action required within 105 competition, to facilitate athletes in attuning to relevant affordances available within performance 106 environments.

107 **1.2** - Representative Learning Design and the need for contemporary models of coaching in sports 108 Sport practitioners have been urged to re-consider the way that they prepare athletes for 109 competitive performance, with ecological dynamics proposed as a useful rationale for underpinning 110 this re-consideration process (Ross, Gupta & Sanders, 2018). However, this type of knowledge 111 transfer would be enhanced by 'real-life' practical examples from elite sport that illustrate how 112 training programmes can be re-designed based on this conceptualisation. In ecological dynamics, an 113 important adjunct to traditional perspectives of training specificity is that of *representative learning* 114 design (RLD) (Pinder et al., 2011; Brunswick, 1956). The contention is that practice and training task 115 constraints should be representative of those experienced within a competitive performance 116 environment (Chow, Davids, Hristovski, Araújo & Passos, 2011). Through RLD, learners will be 117 exposed to relevant affordances within practice, supporting the coupling of their actions to key 118 information sources available in competition (Maloney et al., 2018; Pinder et al., 2011). In turn, the 119 requisite coupling of information and action in practice implies that representative design of training

activities needs to be predicated on task simplification, rather than task decomposition (Davids,Button & Bennett, 2008).

122

123 The relationship between an athlete and the competitive performance environment is dynamic and 124 non-linear. Emergent performance solutions are continuously shaped by a confluence of an 125 individual's changing action capabilities (i.e., as they become more experienced, skilful, fitter, faster 126 or stronger), the task goal (which is tailored to the specific demands of a competitive level of 127 performance, based on an athlete's age, experience or 'skill' level) and the competitive environment 128 in which the action is being performed (i.e., familiar or unfamiliar venue; national or international 129 level; culture or geographical location of performance). However, traditionally linear or static 130 methodologies for designing practice activities typically constrain athlete learning behaviours in a 131 very narrow field of the affordance landscape (Rietveld & Kiverstein, 2014; Davids, Güllich, Araújo & 132 Shuttleworth, 2017). This is because traditional coaching models tend to emphasise the continuous 133 repetition or rehearsal of an ideological (i.e., gold standard) movement pattern within a (somewhat) 134 closed, controlled or predictable practice environment. In contrast, principles of RLD advocate that 135 learning designs should promote opportunities for athletes to engage in the continuous coupling of 136 perception and action and re-organisation of system degrees of freedom, through the stochastic (yet 137 representative) perturbation of behaviours in a variety of practice contexts (Davids et al., 2013; Davids et al., 2017). This conceptualisation of practice designs fundamentally captures Bernstein's 138 (1967) notion of practice as 'repetition without repetition' (p134). 139

There is growing empirical work advocating the utility and effectiveness of these contemporary models of preparation for performance grounded in ecological dynamics (Lee, Chow, Komar, Tan & Button, 2014). Through careful task and instructional constraint manipulation, Lee et al. (2014) demonstrated that exploiting system degeneracy (capacity for re-organisation of system degrees of freedom) was an effective strategy for acquiring sport skills in contrast to methods advocated in traditional linear models. Specifically, through the encouragement of functional movement variability, and appreciation of multi-stability (one cause resulting in multiple possible behavioural effects), learners demonstrated greater exploratory tendencies and movement repertoire to achieve a task goal, relative to a traditional linear model of skill acquisition informed by an ideological and prescriptive movement pattern (Lee et al., 2014).

150 The findings of work such as by Lee et al. (2014) signals the need for athlete preparation models 151 which promote representativeness within learning designs and effective use of task simplification 152 strategies, advocating that practitioners sample information from a competitive performance 153 environment to ensure a functional coupling between perception-action (Maloney et al., 2018; 154 Pinder et al., 2011). A key challenge in these innovative performance preparation models is for 155 sports practitioners to access patterns of data from competitive performance to sustain high levels of evidence-based functionality within training programmes. This deep integration of theory and 156 157 data would support a performer in achieving intended task goals through the adaptability of their 158 behaviours, guided by the same (or highly similar) information sources encountered within 159 competition (Araújo, Davids & Passos, 2007; Pinder et al., 2011). To achieve this challenge, training activities need to be high in action fidelity, so that an emerging performance solution is reflective of 160 161 a solution that is evidently functional in competition (Davids et al., 2013). A key implication of this 162 model of preparation for performance in competition is that training activities with a narrow range 163 of affordances, which may be low in functionality and action fidelity, will likely hinder an athlete's 164 capability to attune to relevant affordances within competition, possibly limiting learning transfer (Araújo, Davids, & Passos, 2007). 165

While, theoretically, principles of RLD are compelling and readily understandable, a challenge for sports practitioners is to consider how training activities can be designed to be representative of competitive performance environments. Practically, *how can relevant information sources be sampled from competitive performance environments, and how can this information be designed*

170 into practice activities to allow a coach to monitor and progress representativeness in learning? The 171 nature and qualitative characteristics of specialised training are fundamentally important applied 172 issues of theoretical relevance to sports practitioners at all levels of performance. These issues are 173 aligned with insights of contemporary models of sports training, such as the Athletic Skills Model 174 (ASM) (Wormhoudt, Savelsbergh, Teunissen & Davids, 2018). The ASM proposes that specialised 175 athlete training should be highly focused on development of adaptive skills by providing 176 opportunities for the self-regulation of athletes in challenging practice designs that simulate 177 competitive performance environments (termed 'sport adaptive training').

178 **1.3 - A Constraints-Led Approach to preparation for performance in team sport**

179 1.2.1 - Synergy formation

180 In ecological dynamics, synergy formation is a fundamental property of a complex adaptive system. 181 Dynamical interactions between team sports players can be shaped bi-directionally: global to local 182 and local to global Ribeiro et al., 2017) Traditional models of preparation for performance 183 emphasise global to local interactions, exemplified by an external agent such as a coach, prescribing 184 in advance tactical and strategical patterns of behaviours to team players in attack and defence. In contrast, in nature, there are many examples of rich patterns of behaviour emerging in complex 185 186 adaptive systems in a local to global direction. Rich, global patterns of system behaviour, exemplified 187 by murmurations in flocking birds (https://vimeo.com/31158841), schooling in fish and nest-building behaviours of colonies of insects, emerge from self-organised, localised interactions between 188 189 individual organisms. These bi-directional constraints on synergy formation in athletes and sports 190 teams subsequently shape coordinative patterns at both intra (within an athlete) and inter (between 191 athletes) individual levels by providing the 'boundaries' in which movement solutions emerge 192 (Passos et al., 2008; Newell, 1986).

193 Effective implementation of representative learning environments to harness local interaction 194 tendencies in team games players can be guided by sampled constraints that shape the behaviours

within competition (Renshaw et al., 2010). Knowledge of the key interacting constraints associated with successful performance in a sport will help practitioners to representatively manipulate them within a practice task. This challenge leads to the second component needed to answer the overarching practical question posed in this paper: Using their experiential knowledge, how can practitioners sample key task constraints from a competitive performance environment?

200 1.2.2 - Sampling constraints

201 In a contemporary model of athlete preparation, there is a need to sample constraints on 202 performance of individual performers, using an interdisciplinary approach. It is common for sports 203 performance analysts to quantify specific actions that occur within competition in an attempt to 204 identify desirable (and undesirable) actions that relate to the achievement of a predetermined 205 outcome via notational analysis (for examples, refer to Robertson, Back & Bartlett, 2015; Woods, 206 Sinclair & Robertson, 2017). However, a common criticism of this work is that is does not provide a 207 coach with the contexts in which identified actions occur (Glazier & Robins, 2013). For example, 208 Woods et al. (2017) identified the performance indicators (and subsequent frequency counts) that 209 were important for successful team performance in elite rugby league, but an analysis of the 210 surrounding constraints that shaped the emergence of these actions was not provided. Provision of 211 contextual information to underpin analysis of action specificity and frequency would enhance 212 training designs, emphasising an individualised approach. Without it, practitioners may over-rely on 213 average values in performance measures and be challenged to effectively manipulate constraints in 214 training to enhance RLD, incorporate functional variability within individualised training activities and attune athletes to relevant affordances. 215

To achieve this critical aim in elite sport, groups of practitioners, including performance analysts, coaches, psychologists, sport scientists and skill acquisition specialists, could collaborate on designing individualised practice task constraints based on competitive performance data. This collaborative, interdisciplinary approach would help identify performance behaviours (considered at

220 different levels of analysis) evidenced as important for successful team outcomes (product), as well 221 as the task, individual and environmental constraints that shape their emergence (process). This 222 concept was recently discussed by Farrow and Robertson (2017) in their description of how to 223 periodise the acquisition of skills within high performance sport. They provided a hypothetical 224 example of how a coach may ascertain a 'training specificity' value by contrasting the constraints of 225 competition against those of a training activity. Practitioners could, therefore, utilise this 'specificity' 226 value to determine how representative a training activity is, as well as using it as a basis for 227 implementing the principles of overload (e.g. making the task goal more (or less) challenging for the 228 athlete based on its 'specificity' relative to competitive performance) (Farrow & Robertson, 2017).

229 In the remaining sections of this paper, we explore an example from a professional sports training 230 programme in which the principles of RLD and the constraints-led framework were considered in the 231 design of a training activity. Specifically, in this example we utilise data collected from an elite 232 Australian football (AF) performance landscape. Its intention is to illustrate how a scientific 233 conceptualisation of potential training designs could provide an applied rationale for practitioners to 234 consider how key principles of RLD could be used to enhance the links between practice and 235 performance. Our aim is to inspire sport practitioners to consider adapting current pedagogical 236 methodologies based on theory and data presented.

237 Section 2 - What would such a model of athlete support look like? Representative design of kicking

238 practice in Australian football

239 2.1 Introduction

Within AF, there are two primary modes of ball disposal underpinning interactions between teammates – a kick and a handball. Successful performance of both actions (defined by the ball being passed to a teammate without impedance from an opponent) is critical to team success within the Australian Football League (AFL; elite AF competition) (Robertson et al., 2016). Here, the performance goal of ball passing to a teammate via a kick was considered central to a 'skill 245 acquisition' programme at a professional AF club (for readers unfamiliar with a kick in AF, refer to 246 the link https://womensfooty.com/files/training/skills guide.pdf). Conceptualising players as complex adaptive systems, it was appreciated that the organisation of these actions was predicated 247 248 on a confluence of performer, environmental and task constraints. Accordingly, training such actions 249 was designed within a performance landscape that afforded high functionality and action fidelity. 250 These features of learning design encouraged players to functionally adapt their kicks or handball 251 actions, when interacting with a representative context that simulated the demands of competition 252 to which functional adaptations were regularly needed.

253 This approach to training design shifted the coach's role from the more traditional provider of 254 augmented, corrective verbal instructions on movements (typically biased towards a putative 255 'ideological' technique). Instead coaches evolved into architects of representative performance problems (referred to as a learning activity designer), predicated on challenges imposed primarily by 256 257 the specific patterns of play and performance tendencies of opposition during competitive 258 performance. Given this specific need, the synergy formation that was encouraged to emerge within 259 the practice activities was shaped from *local to global* tendencies, in which the patterns of behaviour were resultants of the activity design, rather than from an external agent (i.e., coach). Practice 260 261 activities therefore transitioned from static, narrowly afforded landscapes, to players being 262 challenged to self-organise performance behaviours to achieve task goals (capturing skilled 263 intentionality). To instantiate this contemporary model of athlete preparation for performance, we 264 set out to sample the key constraints that specifically shaped kicking within AF, and relate the 265 representativeness of these constraints to a training activity intended to stimulate kicking 266 performance.

267 2.2 Methodology

268 Using the constraints-led framework proposed by Newell (1986), three elite coaches (defined by 269 coaching within the AFL for more than five years), who were familiar with a constraints-led

270 approach, were asked to heuristically select key constraints split across each category (performer, 271 environment and task) that they considered as influential on kicking skill in AF performance. The 272 outcomes of this consensus are provided in Table 1. Following this, a performance analyst quantified 273 these constraints within a sample of ten AFL matches via notational analysis software (Sportscode 274 version 11.2.18, Sportstec Inc. Warriewood NSW). Briefly, possession time (task constraint) was 275 calculated as the time between the player first obtaining ball possession to the time of kick 276 execution. We then split this into two components – a kick in general play and a kick from a mark or 277 stoppage, in four temporal epochs. Environmental constraints were defined by the number of 278 opponents within a 3 m radius of the ball carrier at the point of kick (ball carrier density) and the 279 intended receiver of the kicked pass at the point of ball reception (receiver density). Performer 280 constraints were defined relative to the locomotive characteristics of the kicker at the point of kick -281 defined as stationary (standing still or walking) or dynamic (jogging or running). To capture the 282 characteristic of 'repetition without repetition', we transformed the counts of the kicks in each 283 constraint category to represent a percentage of the total kicks performed (e.g. if six kicks were 284 afforded within a processing time of 1-2 s from a total of 10, this value would equate to 60% of kicks 285 in this constraint category) (Farrow & Robertson, 2017). In this example, the data sampled from these ten AFL matches were then averaged to provide a basis for the influence of each constraint. 286 287 Following this process, we designed a training activity that had an intended focus on stimulating 288 kicking performance, and applied the same notational analysis and data transformation process 289 across ten occurrences of this activity.

290

****INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE****

291 2.3 Applied Examples

In the following sections, we provide three univariate ways in which a coach may consider visualising, analysing and measuring the results when determining the representativeness of a training activity. Each of these techniques are founded upon recommendations proposed within the existing literature, and have been chosen and adapted to suit their utility within a high-performancesport setting.

297 Example 1 – Data Visualisation

The data were plotted using a scatterplot overlaid with a violin plot to show the data distribution. These plots show the density distributions of the data and provide a simple visualisation of the data with respect to skewness and modality. Interpretation of these plots requires little analytical expertise, thus making them useful for most practitioners, who need quick, effective and efficient methods for understanding how performance data may underpin practice designs.

303 Figure 1 contrasts the relative proportions of kicks performed in each constraint category between an AFL match and a training activity. Each dot represents a training or match observation, which 304 305 allows a practitioner to investigate representativeness at an individual training activity level, as 306 opposed to observing trends using a mean value. From their interpretation, practitioners can quickly 307 identify constraints and training sessions that generate a "training performance mismatch" 308 (contrasting with the specificity of training principle), which could subsequently form the basis of 309 practice re-design through informed constraint manipulation. A practitioner can subjectively denote 310 thresholds for a "training-performance mismatch value", which when transitioned away from, may 311 require activity re-design. For the premise of this example, we considered a training mismatch value 312 of 10%. Based on this value, a large proportion of training-performance mismatches can be observed within the percent of kicks performed <1 s in general play, the dynamic and stationary categories, 313 314 kicks performed without opponent pressure, with two and three opponents surrounding the ball 315 carrier, and performed to a receiver uncontested or who is outnumbered by immediate opponents 316 (Figure 1). These data were, therefore, used by practitioners to manipulate the task constraints of a 317 training activity to enhance its representativeness by decreasing the number and severity of 318 "training-performance mismatches".

319

****INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE****

320 Example 2 – Magnitude-based analysis

321 Although use of a "training-performance mismatch value" and accompanying visualisation are relatively simple and require little analytical expertise, they are primarily based upon subjective 322 323 interpretation. A magnitude-based statistical analysis, such as effect size calculations, could be 324 performed to ascertain the magnitude of observed differences. The effect size (d) of observed 325 differences could then be used to assist a practitioner with the use and interpretation of the 326 "training-performance mismatch value". Using effect size interpretations (Hopkins, 2010), we 327 applied this analysis to our dataset, as presented in Table 2. Results imply that medium and large 328 differences are present for at least 12 constraints comparisons. Such insight allowed coaches to 329 longitudinally determine the standardized magnitude of training-performance mismatch following 330 targeted constraint manipulation and activity re-design.

331

****INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE****

332 Example 3 – Quantifying training representativeness

333 Another means in which sport practitioners could measure, analyse and utilise these data could be 334 to use the technique described by Farrow and Robertson (2017). They proposed a "specificity 335 difference" by subtracting the relative value of a training activity from the match or a performance 336 competition value. By then summating these values for each constraint category, dividing by half 337 and then subtracting from 100% (they denoted 100% as hypothetical 'complete representativeness'), the practitioner obtained an objective measure of how 'representative' that 338 339 constraint category is, relative to competitive performance constraints. Table 3 shows an application 340 of this analysis to the present dataset. It is noteworthy that the most representative constraint class was the *performer* (representative value of 90%) and the least was *environment* (representative 341 342 value of 61%). In addition to assisting with training activity design and informed constraints 343 manipulation, these values could be used as a basis for training periodisation, specifically guiding the 344 principles of overload (Farrow & Robertson, 2017). Indeed, what is considered as an 'acceptable'

representative value is subjective, based on a preconceived activity plan initially composed by sportpractitioners.

347

****INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE****

348 **Future Directions**

349 These three examples provide a feasible means of quantifying training designs relative to the 350 demands of competitive performance environments. However, it is important to acknowledge that 351 constraints do not operate in isolation to one another; rather, they dynamically interact to shape the emergent, adaptive behaviour (Renshaw et al., 2010). Increasing (or decreasing) the 352 353 representativeness of one constraint class is likely to impact on another constraint class. For 354 example, a kick performed within a game from a mark >3 s in duration (task constraint) will likely be 355 accompanied by a reduction in physical pressure imposed by an opponent. Comparatively, a kick 356 performed in general play with an organisation time of <1 s will likely be accompanied by 357 considerable physical pressure imposed by an opponent. Thus, training each constraint class in isolation may limit the representativeness of an activity, which may limit performance transfer. 358 359 Accordingly, providing context to these constraint interactions will likely increase the 360 representativeness of activities intended to improve kicking performance.

361 Unfortunately, linear analytical approaches (as described earlier) are unable to discern such 362 contextual patterns amongst the constraints interactions. To counter this issue, machine learning is 363 progressively becoming commonplace in sport science (both academically and practically), providing 364 a capacity to resolve complex non-linear patterns within large, multivariate datasets (for examples, 365 refer to Robertson et al., 2016; Woods et al., 2017). As an exemplar of the aforementioned problem, 366 Robertson, Spencer, Back and Farrow (2018) recently applied rule induction to contextualise the 367 interaction of constraints that shape kicking within AF. Rule induction is a machine learning 368 technique capable of resolving complex patterns within large transactional datasets (Agrawal & 369 Srikant, 1994). In that study, a kick was viewed as a transactional event that occurred at a specific

370 point in time, which consisted of multiple items (or constraints) that shaped its emergence. This 371 approach was subsequently able to resolve the common constraint interactions shaping the 372 emergence of certain kicks. For example, a kick performed with an organisation time of <2 s was 373 typically executed while stationary, over a distance >40 m, and to a teammate with an adjacent 374 opponent (Robertson et al., 2018). Sports practitioners could use this information to further 375 enhance the representativeness of their training activities by supporting greater contextualisation of 376 the designs utilising constraints interactions. However, such a non-linear approach requires sound 377 analytical expertise, furthering our stance of RLD requiring interdisciplinary collaboration – a skill 378 acquisition specialist grounding practice in sound theoretical constructs, coaches providing experiential expertise into key constraints shaping a behaviour, and an analyst sampling and 379 380 modelling data in a meaningful and practical manner.

381 General Conclusion

382 We provided a theoretical basis for contemporary models of training design grounded in ecological 383 dynamics. Accompanying this interpretation, we presented an applied example that incorporated 384 'real-world' performance data to demonstrate how sport practitioners may consider applying the 385 principles of RLD within a high-performance setting. This integration of theory and practice could 386 provide sport practitioners with a sound theoretical and practical basis for which to design practice 387 activities that offer closer representations of affordances available to an athlete within a competitive 388 performance environment. While there are growing bodies of empirical work testing the principled 389 contentions of RLD (for examples, see Pinder et al., 2012; Maloney et al., 2018; Robertson et al., 390 2018), more applied work is needed if the sub-discipline of sports skill acquisition, along with related 391 areas of performance analysis, strength and conditioning, psychological support and coaching, is to 392 continue to innovate models for athlete preparations for high-performance sport.

393 Author contributions

394 CW, SR, IM and KD conceptualised the idea, CW analysed the data, CW, IM, SR, KD and RS wrote and395 drafted the manuscript.

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- 490 **Figure 1.** Violin plot showing the distributional differences in constraint values between matches and
- 491 the training activity.
- 492 Note, "TIP" denotes time in possession, "TIPM" denotes time in possession from a mark or stoppage
- 493 in play, "OPPO" denotes opposition, "UNCON" denotes uncontested