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A Systematic Review of Perception of Affordances for the Person-Plus-Object System

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Abstract

Background Human behavior often involves the use of an object held by or attached to the body, which modifies the individual's action capabilities. Moreover, most everyday behaviors consist of sets of behaviors that are nested over multiple spatial and temporal scales, which require perceiving and acting on nested affordances for the person-plus-object system. This systematic review investigates how individuals attune to information about affordances involving the person-plus-object system and how they (re)calibrate their actions to relevant information.

Methods We analyzed 71 articles—34 on attunement and 37 on (re)calibration with healthy participants—that experimentally investigated the processes involved in the perception of affordances for the person-plus-object system (including attunement, calibration, and recalibration).

Results With respect to attunement, objects attached to the body create a multiplicity of affordances for the person-plus-object system, and individuals learned (1) to detect information about affordances of (and for) the person-plus-object system in a task and (2) to choose whether, when, and how to exploit those affordances to perform that task. Concerning (re)calibration, individuals were able (1) to quickly scale their actions in relation to the (changed) action capabilities of the person-plus-object system and (2) to perceive multiple functionally equivalent ways to exploit the affordances of that system, and these abilities improved with practice.

Conclusions Perceiving affordances for the person-plus-object system involves learning to detect the information about such affordances (attunement) and the scaling of behaviors to such information (calibration). These processes imply a general ability to incorporate an object attached to the body into an integrated person-plus-object system.

Keywords: ecological psychology, perception-action, attunement, calibration

Introduction

A fundamental concept of Gibson's ecological approach to perception-action is that of affordance (J. J. Gibson, 1979). Affordances are opportunities for action as higher order, emergent relations in the animal-environment system (Stoffregen, 2003a). That is, affordances emerge from the multifaceted relationship or fit between animal and environment. In any given situation, there are a multitude of affordances (i.e., a field of affordances; see Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014). Which of the multitude of affordances are perceived as well as whether, when, and how any of these affordances are actualized depend on the intentions of the animal (Shaw & Kinsella-Shaw, 1988)—specifically the overarching goal(s) to be achieved and the behavior(s) required to do so.

However, behaviors are not performed in isolation. Achieving a given overarching goal typically requires that a particular set of behaviors be performed in a particular way given a particular set of circumstances. That is, behaviors are both nested within other behaviors (over multiple spatial and temporal scales) and within the goals for which and circumstances under which those behaviors occur. Consequently, affordances for a given behavior are nested within other affordances (over multiple spatial and temporal scales, Stoffregen, 2003b) and within the goals for which and the context within in which those affordances are perceived (Bingham & Muchisky, 1995).

Depending on the overarching goal to be achieved, the set of behaviors required to achieve that outcome can be performed sequentially, simultaneously or in parallel (i.e., simultaneously but independently of one another). Consequently, depending on the particular goal-directed behavior to be performed, the set of affordances for behaviors that yield the intended outcome can likewise be perceived sequentially, simultaneously or in parallel (Mark et al., 2015). Moreover, perceiving, or actualizing a given affordance can influence what affordances are subsequently perceived or actualized (Ye et al., 2009). This implies that a given affordance can be superordinate to (of higher-order than) or subordinate to (of lower-order than) another (Wagman et al., 2016a). That is, higher-order affordances may emerge from the relationship between lower-order affordances (Peker, Böge, Bailey, Wagman & Stoffregen, in press).

1 One way to conceptualize the relationship between higher- and lower-order affordances is
2 as a means-ends hierarchy (Vicente & Rasmussen, 1990; Wagman et al., 2016a, but see
3 discussion of a possible alternative heterarchical organization in the Discussion section). According
4 to Vicente & Rasmussen (1990), each level of the hierarchy includes a set of affordances that
5 relate to the *why*, *what* and *how* of performing a behavior. At any level of the hierarchy,
6 affordances are simultaneously and mutually constrained by the other levels, rather than in a strict
7 top-down fashion. In this conceptualization, the behavior itself (e.g., using a ladder) is performed at
8 the (intermediate) '*what*' level. This level represents the specific behaviors to be performed but
9 does not represent either the goals for which they are being performed or the means by which they
10 could be performed. The superordinate (*why*) level relates to the goals of the behavior— why one
11 engages in this behavior (e.g., retrieving an object)—but does not prescribe the specific behaviors
12 necessary to achieve that goal. The subordinate (*how*) level, on the other hand, relates to means
13 by which the behavior can be carried out (e.g., stepping). In addition, in this conceptualization,
14 perceiving affordances for a given behavior does not correspond to perceiving affordances for a
15 specific sequence of behaviors but rather to a field of possibilities that generalizes beyond any
16 particular sequence (Wagman et al., 2019). That is, perceiving affordances for a given behavior
17 simultaneously reflects affordances nested at both lower and higher levels of the hierarchy.

18 In many (if not all) cases, affordances emerge from a multifaceted fit between the animal's
19 action capabilities and the substances, surfaces, places, objects, and events that comprise the
20 animal's niche (see Richardson et al., 2008). Consequently, the same substances, surfaces,
21 places, objects, and events may or may not afford the same behavior for two different animals
22 (even of the same species) depending on the specific action capabilities of each animal (Fajen,
23 2008).

24 Action capabilities (and hence, perception of affordances) are determined, in part, by an
25 animal's anthropometric properties. For example, Warren (1984), found that (perception of) the
26 boundary between stairs that afford climbing and those that do not could be expressed as a body-
27 scaled ratio of 0.88 between leg length and step height. However, action capabilities are also
28 determined by more dynamic properties such as strength, coordination, and balance. Accordingly,

1 experimental findings have shown that flexibility and leg strength also contribute to (perception of)
2 affordances for stair climbing (Konczak et al., 1992). Consequently, perception of affordances is
3 likely best captured through action-scaled (rather than body-scaled) metrics because (maximum)
4 action capabilities and skills influence not only the ability to perform a given goal-directed behavior
5 but also both attunement (i.e., pick-up of information) and calibration (i.e., scaling of action) of
6 perception of affordances for that behavior (Fajen, 2005). In other words, body-scaled affordances
7 are a special case of action-scaled affordances (Comalli et al., 2013; Day et al., 2015; Franchak &
8 Adolph, 2014).

9 Attunement, or the education of attention (E. J. Gibson, 1969; J. J. Gibson, 1966), has been
10 defined as the process of progressively detecting patterns in lawfully structured energy arrays that
11 provide increasingly useful information about a given affordance. In other words, performing a
12 given behavior for a given overarching goal under a particular set of circumstances requires that an
13 animal detect information about a very particular multifaceted fit between animal and environment
14 (Jacobs & Michaels, 2007). The more complex the goals for which a given behavior is being
15 performed and the more complex the circumstances under which that behavior is being performed,
16 the more specific the information about that fit becomes. Additionally, given that any given goal can
17 be achieved by a variety of different behaviors, and any given behavior can be performed in a
18 variety of different ways, a given goal-directed behavior can be performed in multiple ways and by
19 multiple means. This means that performing a goal-directed behavior requires flexibly and
20 temporarily recruiting potentially independent anatomical components into a smart—task-specific—
21 device capable of achieving the goal-directed goal (Bingham, 1988; Runeson, 1977).

22 Consequently, successfully performing a given goal directed behavior requires that animals
23 precisely scale choices about whether, when, and how to perform a given behavior to their action
24 capabilities (Fajen, 2007). The process that establishes and maintains the scaling between action
25 (and perception) and information about a given affordance to make such choices is known as
26 calibration (Withagen & Michaels, 2005). Of course, perceiving and acting capabilities change over
27 both the short term and long term. In many cases, such changes require recalibration—learning a
28 new scaling relationship between information about affordances for a given behavior and whether,

1 when, and how to perform that behavior (Brand & de Oliveira, 2017; Franchak & Adolph, 2014;
2 Franchak, 2017).

3 In general, studies indicate that perception of affordances for a given behavior increasingly
4 reflect an animal's action capabilities as they become attuned to (as they learn to detect) the
5 information about a given affordance (Fajen & Devaney, 2006). Moreover, as animals learn to
6 detect more useful information about a given affordance, they can learn (become calibrated to)
7 how to use that information to more precisely scale choices about whether, when, and how to
8 perform that behavior and they can relearn (recalibrate) how to do so when circumstances change
9 (Fajen, 2005). For instance, experience in a given perception-action task typically leads a
10 perceiver toward detecting and exploiting increasingly useful informational variables that enable
11 increasingly fine-tuned perceiving and behaving (Jacobs et al., 2000, 2001; Jacobs & Michaels,
12 2002, 2007).

13 In this respect, it could be argued that over the course of long-term practice, experts in a
14 given perception-action task (1) have learned to detect more useful information about task-specific
15 affordances than novices (Araújo et al., 2005), (2) have become more precisely calibrated to how
16 use such information to perform such tasks. It could also be argued that given more finely
17 developed abilities to detect information about task-specific affordances coupled with more finely
18 developed abilities to exploit such information about task-specific affordances, experts in a given
19 perception-action task also have (3) more finely developed abilities to perceive task-specific action
20 boundaries than do novices.

21 Given that experts have highly developed abilities to detect and exploit information about
22 task-specific affordances, they are better able to use (1) many different coordination patterns to
23 perform a given task-specific behavior over the short term and (2) many different behavioral
24 patterns (i.e., many different nestings of coordination patterns) to achieve a given task-specific
25 overarching goal over the long term. In other words, experts can re-organize multiple degrees of
26 freedoms at multiple levels and over multiple time scales to achieve consistent performance
27 outcomes (Seifert et al., 2016). In the biological systems literature, the ability of structurally
28 different elements to yield same outcome is known as degeneracy (Edelman & Gally, 2001).

1 Degeneracy seems to be a fundamental property of biological systems at many different levels of
2 organization and scale (Mason, 2015).

3 Recently, researchers have used the concept of degeneracy to better understand the stable
4 yet flexible performance of skilled athletes. As an example, Seifert et al. (2021) found that expert
5 climbers exhibited variable behavioral patterns both within and between bouts of climbing. In a
6 climbing task involving nested affordances, participants were asked to touch or grasp a rock-
7 climbing hold in a number of different ways: (1) by either moving their hand or the foot first; (2) by
8 using either a face-on or side-on body position to the wall; and (3) by using multiple the support
9 points. The results showed that the complexity of the nesting of affordances modified both the
10 number of degrees of freedom available to the climber (i.e., number of joints or limbs involved in
11 the coordination) and the likelihood of combining actions in a temporal sequence. These findings
12 suggest that the nesting of affordances allows climbers to exploit degeneracy and open up new
13 possibilities for climbing. One way to investigate the nesting of affordances is through the person-
14 plus-object-system.

15 **Tool-use**

16 In everyday life, the objects used in the course of performing many goal-directed activities
17 change the action capabilities of the animal and thereby alter the fit between animal and
18 environment. An object attached to or held by an animal creates an integrated person-plus-object
19 system with a unique sets of action capabilities and control dynamics. Such objects simultaneously
20 increase action capabilities for some tasks (e.g., the ability to reach distant objects) and decrease
21 them for other tasks (e.g., the ability to fit through narrow spaces). Therefore, animals must be able
22 to perceive how an attached or held object changes the task-specific affordances for performing a
23 given goal-directed behavior over the short term and for achieving multiple overarching goals over
24 the long term. That is, perceiving affordances of and for the person-plus-object system should
25 require the same processes of attunement, calibration and recalibration as are required for
26 perceiving affordances for the person without such an object. To this end, it is important to
27 consider person-plus-object system as a spontaneously assembled smart instrument (see Carello,
28 Fitzpatrick, Domaniewicz, et al., 1992; Runeson, 1977). Doing so means that (1) a given person-

1 plus-object system is temporarily assembled specifically for a given task, (2) the same person-plus-
2 object system can be assembled over many different anatomical structures, and (3) many different
3 person-plus-object systems can be assembled over the same anatomical structures.

4 A large body of research has explored the presumption that the information that supports
5 perceptual capabilities with respect to the person-plus-object system is defined over the invariant
6 patterns of deformation of the body's muscular and connective tissues that occur when
7 manipulating the attached or held object. Therefore, perceiving affordances of and for the person-
8 plus-object system should require the same processes of attunement and calibration to information
9 in making choices about whether, when, and how to perform a given behavior with or with respect
10 to the person-plus-object system.

11 **Overall aims**

12 Despite sustained interest in the topic of affordances and the ubiquity with which objects
13 are held by or attached to an animal in the course of performing everyday behavior, an
14 understanding of perception of affordances of and for the person-plus object system is still
15 emerging (see Mangalam et al., 2022). Moreover, no systematic review of this topic was available
16 at the time of our search. Based on this body of literature, this systematic review aims to establish
17 the state of science regarding the perception of affordances of and for the person-plus-object
18 system. The central research questions in this systematic review are related to how humans
19 become attuned to the information about affordances of and for the person-plus-object system and
20 calibrate their actions to such information. To answer this question, we discuss the scientific
21 literature in two main categories. The first set of studies that we reviewed were those examining
22 attunement: these studies investigated the detection of informational variables that support
23 perception of affordances for the person-plus-object system, in particular, how such detection
24 changes with practice. The second set of studies we reviewed were those examining calibration
25 and recalibration: these studies focus on the degree to which perceived action boundaries on a
26 given behavior reflect the actual action boundaries on that behavior, and in particular, how this
27 relation changes with practice. Then we make suggestions for future research and how those
28 processes could be understood as being organized heterarchically (as opposed to hierarchically).

1 **Methods**

2 **Eligibility**

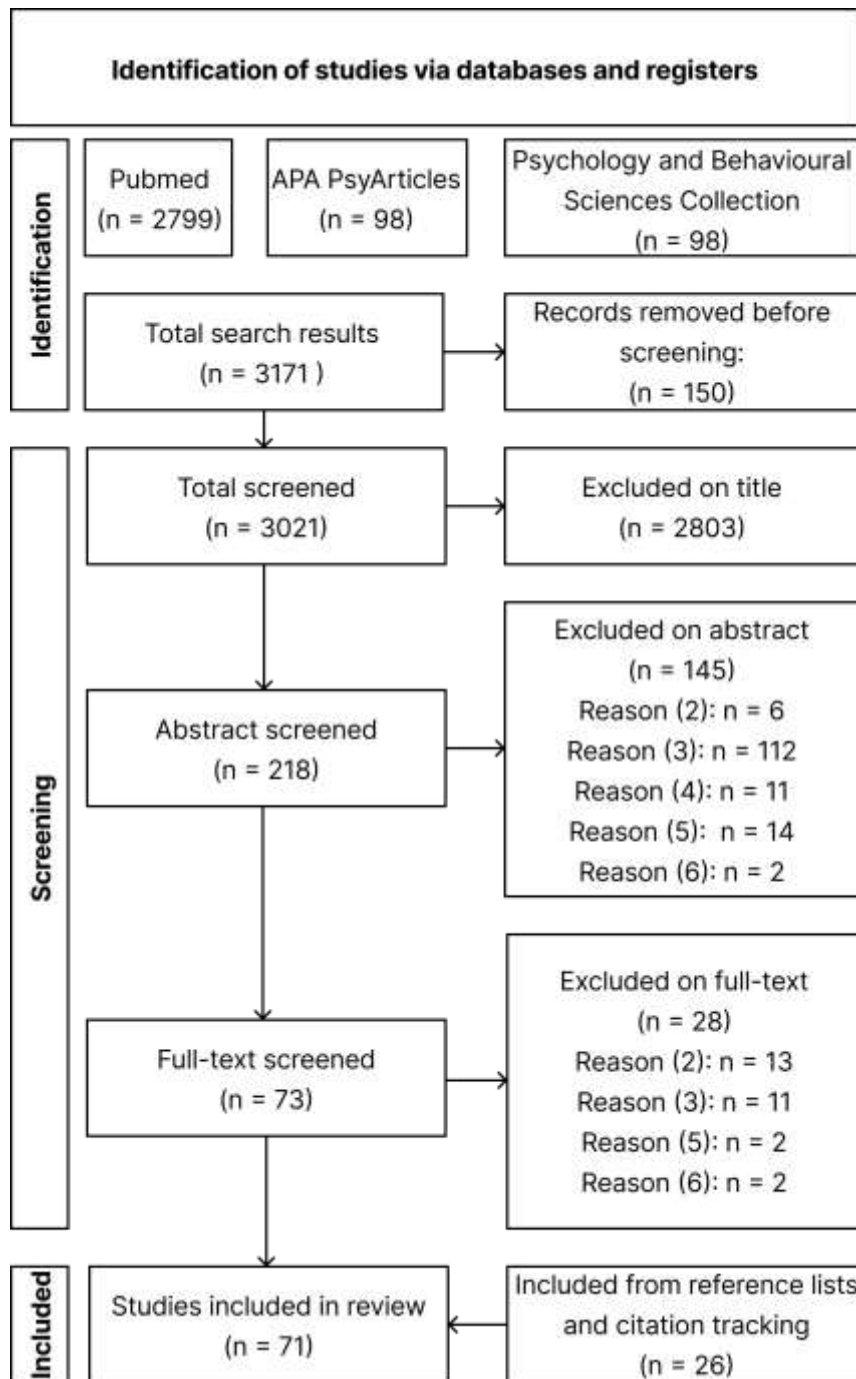
3 Studies were included in the systematic review if (1) they included healthy human
4 participants; (2) they investigated perception of affordances (implicitly or explicitly) of or for the
5 person-plus-object system; (3) they used physical objects (rather than a virtual object or an image
6 of an object); (4) they were experimental studies (if there was manipulation of an independent
7 variable); (5) the study referred to attunement, calibration or recalibration; (6) were published in an
8 English-language peer-reviewed journal as an original full-length paper (i.e., not a review or
9 conference paper).

10 **Search strategy**

11 Literature search and selection were carried out according to the *Preferred Reporting Items*
12 *for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses* (PRISMA) (Moher et al., 2009). The initial search was
13 conducted in November 2021, with additional searched carried out in January 2023. A three-step
14 procedure was used to identify relevant studies. First, we selected Pubmed, APA PsychArticle and
15 Psychology and Behavioural Sciences Collection as relevant databases to identify studies that met
16 the inclusion criteria summarized above. Each search was structured to include two sets of terms;
17 the first set relating to the person-plus-object system: object, wear, tool-use, handheld, altered
18 body, locomotion, dynamic touch; and the second set relating to ecological psychology: affordance,
19 perception-action coupling, ecological approach, ecological psychology, body-scaled, action-
20 scaled, attunement, calibration, recalibration. The terms included within each of these collections
21 were separated with the operator 'OR', while the two collections of terms were linked with the
22 operator 'AND'. All possible variants of words like 'change' and 'decrease' were entered in
23 databases. We included the title, abstract, keywords, and topic as search areas. To further identify
24 relevant studies, we reviewed the reference lists and citation of all studies identified in step one.
25 The titles and abstracts of all papers retrieved via the systematic search strategy were exclusively
26 screened by the first author (PV) based on the outlined inclusion criteria. Next, the remaining full-
27 text studies were screened using the same inclusion criteria.

28 **Quality assessment**

1 **Figure 1.** Flowchart summarizing the process of article selection. *Note:* Reasons for exclusion are
 2 listed in the subsection: Eligibility.



3
 4 **Descriptive statistics**

5 Characteristics and results of the 71 studies included in this systematic review are
 6 summarized in Online Resource (**Supplementary Materials, Table 2**). Studies are published in 20
 7 different journals; most were published in Ecological Psychology (22%), followed by Attention,
 8 Perception & Psychophysics (14%) and Experimental Brain Research (11%). Thirty-three articles

1 (46%) reported multi-experimental articles with two or more experiments, leading to a total of 136
2 experiments conducted.

3 Of all the studies, 48% (n = 34) investigated attunement. More specifically 13 investigated
4 attunement to constraints related to the task itself, 10 investigated attunement to constraints
5 related to the object itself, and 11 investigated attunement to constraints related to the individuals
6 themselves. 52% (n = 37) investigated calibration or recalibration. More specifically, 16
7 investigated calibration to constraints related to the task constraints, 14 investigated calibration to
8 constraints related to the object, and 7 investigated calibration to constraints related to the
9 individuals themselves.

10 **Attunement**

11 **Task**

12 Perceiving affordances or other properties of the person-plus-objects system requires
13 detecting the mechanical parameters that are invariant over transformation (e.g., as the object is
14 being manipulated). This means that detecting such parameters is a process of actively
15 differentiating those mechanical parameters that vary over such transformations and those that do
16 not. This process is part of what leads to attunement to such invariant mechanical parameters with
17 practice in a given perceptual task (especially when feedback is provided).

18 Michaels et al. (2007) asked a group of participants to rate how well eight different objects
19 afforded performing twelve different tasks. They found that the patterns of ratings that emerged in
20 participants who simultaneously looked at and wielded the objects were not different from the
21 patterns that emerged when they only looked at *but did not* wield the objects. However, it is
22 important to consider that participants who wielded the objects did not have the opportunity to
23 explore its use, an experience that may have been sufficient to bring about a change in their
24 ratings. Studies of perceptual learning have demonstrated that participants can shift from a less
25 informative variable to a more informative variable after feedback. Wagman et al. (2001) asked
26 participants to perceive the height or width of wielded objects before and after different kinds of
27 practice. Results showed that participants became attuned to a more informative variable occurred
28 only when feedback was included as part of practice. Similarly, Withagen and Michaels (2005)

1 provided participants with visual feedback about rod length in their first experiment and with
2 feedback about verbal feedback about whether two rods were of the same length or of different
3 lengths in their second experiment. Such feedback induced a switch from a non-specifying variable
4 in pre-test to a specifying variable in post-test for most of the participants. To further explore the
5 role of information gathered by feedback on attunement, Menger and Withagen (2009) asked
6 whether attunement can transfer between a wielding context and a holding context. Experiment 1
7 consisted of a testing phase in which participants estimated the length of a held (but not wielded)
8 rod and a feedback phase in which participants reported the length of a wielded rod and were
9 provided feedback about actual length of the rod. In Experiment 2, the mechanical contexts
10 (holding or wielding) were reversed. Results suggest improvement in the holding context
11 transferred to the wielding context, but not vice versa.

12 De Vries et al. (2015) investigated the transfer of attunement between anatomical
13 components. Specifically, participants had to estimate the length of a rod with both hands and both
14 feet, before and after receiving feedback about judgements made with one of the effectors. Training
15 the hand resulted in increased attunement for both hands but not with the feet. Conversely, training
16 one of the feet led to smaller improvement for all the anatomical parts. The authors suggest that
17 the ability to control and explore an object with an effector could be an important factor to become
18 increasingly attuned to a specifying variable.

19 Arzamarski et al. (2010) expanded these studies on perceptual learning to investigate how
20 a change of intention might affect attunement. First, their results replicated previous studies by
21 showing that when participants perceive either the height or the width of wielded objects and
22 received feedback, they gradually shift toward detecting the specifying variable for that particular
23 property. Second, they found that when participants change intention—from perceiving length to
24 perceiving width, or vice versa—they show dramatic changes in which specifying variable they
25 detect. Similar results were obtained by Wagman and Carello (2001, exp. 1) and Wagman et al.
26 (2016a) showing that affordances for using an object in a hammering task and in a poking task
27 were specified by different variables. The same is true for categorizing objects as being more
28 appropriate for performing a hooking or sliding task on a target object (Wagman et al., 2016b).

1 Thomas and Riley (2015, exp. 1) confirmed that intention influenced which informational
2 variables participants detected and used in both perceiving and remembering a given property of a
3 wielded object. They asked participants to perform two tasks— (1) judge affordances for reaching
4 with a pair of wielded rods, and then —after the rods were no longer present— (2) judge the
5 (remembered) heaviness of each rod. Participants judged that the two rods were differently heavy
6 only when they expected to perform both tasks (likely because they were able to attend to
7 information about both properties during the first task). Conversely, participants judged that the two
8 rods were equally heavy when they only expected to perform the first task (likely because they only
9 attended to information about affordances for reaching with the rod and not the heaviness of that
10 rod). In addition, Ye et al. (2009) presented objects that had multiple affordances to participants.
11 Participants were asked to identify all objects that afforded a particular behavior, and then identify
12 all objects that afforded a different behavior. The authors observed that perceiving a given object to
13 afford a given behavior decreased the likelihood of perceiving the same object to afford other
14 behaviors, presumably because of what informational variables were detected initially.

15 Wagman et al. (2016a) observed that when participants assemble tools for use in different
16 tool use tasks, they create tools with larger principal moment of inertia values when those tools are
17 to be used in a striking task than when they are to be used in a poking task. These results parallel
18 Hove et al.'s (2006) findings that participants rate the suitability of differently weighted hockey
19 sticks based on the behavior to be performed with that stick (generate the most force on a puck or
20 accurately maneuver a puck). Follow up experiments found that, after performing each of these
21 tasks, participants adjusted their ratings to reflect how well the objects could be used in each task.

22 ***Environment***

23 A detached object is part of the surrounding environment and is external to the individual.
24 However, when held or attached to the body, the object is no longer merely a part of the
25 environment. It is a part of the person-plus-object system, and the individual must perceive the shift
26 in the boundary between him or her and the environment such that the object is included as a part
27 of this system (J. J. Gibson, 1979).

1 To this end, researchers have shown that affordances for the person-plus-object system
2 are perceived as such and not as a combination of (properties or) affordances for the person and
3 (properties or) affordances of the object. Both Thomas & Riley (2014) and Wagman & Stoffregen
4 (2020) found that perception of affordances for reaching with a tool was not reducible to an additive
5 combination of perception of affordances for reaching (without the tool) plus perceived tool length.
6 Similarly, Thomas & Riley (2014) also found that perception of affordances for passing through an
7 aperture while holding an object was not reducible to an additive combination of perception of
8 affordances for passing through the aperture (without the object) and perceived object width.
9 Thomas et al. (2017) went further by examining the effect of practice on this perception. They
10 found that while perception of affordances for reaching with a tool improves over trials, perception
11 of tool length does not. Moreover, in a follow up study, they found that only perception of
12 affordances for reaching with a tool (and not perception of tool length) improved with practice and
13 such improvements did not transfer to perception of tool length.

14 Individuals have to learn what objects are manipulable and how they can be manipulated.
15 Steenbergen et al. (1997) found that young children alter their grip on different spoons so as to
16 maintain a functional relationship between the spoon and rice that was being scooped and
17 transferred to a bowl. Later research by Wagman and Carello (2003) showed that participants
18 modulate their grasp position for hammering so as to create a person-plus-object system with
19 inertial properties appropriate for the specific task. Thus, participants chose a grasp position on a
20 tool that maximized the volume of the inertial ellipsoid (V) in order to hammer with power; and that
21 preserved V and the symmetry of the inertial ellipsoid (S) while minimizing the eigenvectors (e_k ;
22 i.e., the symmetry axes of the hand-object system) in order to hammer with precision. In the same
23 way, participants choose a striking location on given both the grasp location on that object and the
24 specific striking task (Wagman & Taylor, 2004). Mangalam et al. (2019) showed that the discovery
25 of tooling affordances can be facilitated by emphasizing a change in inertial properties. Indeed,
26 participants made fewer configuration changes and took fewer trials to render a heavier object
27 (consisting of a blade and a shaft) a functional hoe than they did with a lighter object.

1 Along similar lines, individuals need to learn how to manipulate the person-plus-object
2 system when performing behaviors such as passing through an aperture. Higuchi et al. (2009)
3 found that under such circumstances, the gaze patterns used to detect information about
4 affordances for crossing depended on the extent to which the object changed the behavior of the
5 participant. These results suggest that when perceiving affordances for crossing an aperture for
6 the person-plus-object system, the exploratory behaviors used to detect information differ only
7 when the object fundamentally changes the action capabilities (and subsequent behavior) of the
8 participant. Fixation patterns remained unchanged while walking, while walking while holding a
9 horizontal bar without shoulder rotation, and walking while holding a horizontal bar with shoulder
10 rotations. However, fixation patterns moved toward door edge throughout locomotion more
11 frequently when crossing the aperture in a wheelchair.

12 By changing the location of the attachment of an object to the body, Malek & Wagman
13 (2008) and Regia-Corte & Wagman (2008) showed that perception of affordances for standing on
14 an inclined surface varied depending on whether and how a weighted backpack was worn.
15 Specifically, perception of affordances was influenced by whether the backpack was worn on the
16 front, the back, or not at all (Malek & Wagman, 2008) as well as the height at which the backpack
17 was worn on the back (Regia-Corte & Wagman, 2008).

18 ***Individual***

19 Individual characteristics (e.g., aging, expertise, body composition) have an important role
20 in the perception of affordances in general and thus may also influence attunement in the person-
21 plus-object system. The studies included in this review have investigated how attunement occurs
22 over development, but also how it differs between different members of a given population.

23 Several studies have investigated how such abilities develop by asking children to perceive
24 and use objects attached to or held by the body in various tasks. van Leeuwen et al. (1994) asked
25 children to retrieve a target object using a hooked stick that was placed in different configurations,
26 creating different spatial and temporal complexity in the behavior. The first experiment identified
27 three distinct groups of participants. The first group comprised the oldest children who showed a
28 high success rate for the three simplest configurations but a slightly lower success rate for the two

1 hardest configurations. A second group comprised the youngest children who were mostly
2 unsuccessful for all configurations. A third group was composed of children of different ages whose
3 success rate decreased as task complexity increased. In the second experiment, the participants
4 performed the task in order of decreasing complexity—from hardest to easiest. The results showed
5 that once a child performed the task successfully, they subsequently performed the task
6 successfully on all remaining trials. Finally, in the third experiment van Leeuwen et al (1994)
7 included the possibility of performing the task with the straight portion of the hooked stick. Two
8 groups emerged, one group that successfully used the hooked stick using both sections of the stick
9 (curved and straight sections) and another group that only used only one section of the stick (either
10 curved or straight sections). Interestingly, the group that could use the hook in both ways (curved
11 and straight sections) showed a higher rate of success.

12 Keen et al. (2014) also observed better coordination of the person-plus-spoon system in
13 older children (8-years-olds) compared to younger children (4-year-olds) in feeding task. The
14 researchers asked children to use a spoon to feed themselves, a puppet on their lap, or a puppet
15 facing away from them. The 4-year-olds showed high inter- and intra-individual variability in how
16 they performed this task, including using less effective grips. In comparison, the group of 8-year-
17 olds mostly used more effective grips that varied according to task. Fragaszy et al. (2016)
18 investigated how 1- to 2-year-old children explored and used hammers depending on the presence
19 or absence of a handle and the hardness of the surface to be struck with the hammer. They
20 observed that children's ability to use the hammer improved from 1- to 2-year-old, both in terms of
21 precision and kinematic force employed. Fitzpatrick et al. (2012, 2018) directly compared the
22 performance of preschool aged children (3-5) years old to adults in a task that required
23 hammerings pegs into a pegboard. Both the preschool aged children and the adults were able to
24 discriminate and modulate some aspect of the hammering task in response to variation in the
25 inertial properties of the hammers. However, the performance of the preschool children was still
26 not as good as that of the adults in this respect. Specifically, children were less consistent in their
27 grasping, hammered fewer pegs and produced smaller amplitude movements than the adults.

1 Aging is related to a variety of changes in the perception-action systems, and we might
2 expect that age would bring about changes in the ability to perceive affordances. Carello et al.
3 (2000) found both young (approximately 19 years of age) and older adults (starting from 62 years
4 of age) could perceive affordances for reaching with and the location of the sweet spot of a tennis
5 racket. However, the older adults perceived the sweet spot as being closer to the hand, especially
6 for long rackets. Those results were replicated by Chang et al. (2008), who also found that
7 experience in playing a racket sport—rather than age alone—was a stronger factor in explaining
8 the difference observed.

9 To further examine whether attunement deteriorates with aging, Withagen and Caljouw
10 (2011) trained young and elderly to perceive affordances for reaching with a rod (i.e., participants
11 received visual information about the length after they made the report). They found that young
12 adults successfully learned to detect a specifying variable, while the elderly continued to rely on
13 non-specifying variable. They concluded that the ability to attune to specifying variables declines
14 with aging.

15 In addition, studies have explored whether there are individual differences in perception of
16 affordances across members of a given population. Both Withagen and van Wermeskerken (2009)
17 and Rop and Withagen (2014) have found differences in the way individuals respond to feedback
18 about perception of affordances for reaching with a rod. Withagen and van Wermeskerken (2009)
19 found that individuals varied in whether, when and how they respond to feedback over the course
20 of seven test blocks and six feedback blocks. Three learning profiles stood out: (1) those who
21 detected the specifying information in at least one test phase; (2) those who relied on non-
22 specifying variables during all phases and appeared not to benefit from feedback; and (3) those
23 who were affected by the feedback but still relied on non-specifying variables. Rop and Withagen
24 (2014) explored whether such individual differences are due to variability in the ability to detect
25 non-specifying variables, which may lead to continued reliance on such variables. One group
26 received feedback on perceived length for a set of rods in which there was a low correlation
27 between actual length and non-specifying variables (such as static moment); the other group
28 received feedback for a set of rods in which there was a stronger correlation between actual length

1 and non-specifying variables. Participants were less likely to benefit from feedback and exhibited
2 more variability when there was a stronger correlation between non-specifying variables and actual
3 length. This suggests that individuals vary in their ability to use feedback to shift from detecting
4 non-specifying to detecting specifying variables.

5 Finally, Muroi and Higuchi (2017) investigated perception of affordances for passing
6 through an aperture while holding an object horizontally under different vision conditions—a static
7 vision condition in which participants viewed the aperture at the start of the trial but had to pass
8 through it with vision occluded, a full vision condition in which vision was never occluded, and two
9 dynamic vision conditions in which participants were required to stop and start again after taking
10 two steps and then pass through the aperture with or without vision occluded. They found that
11 perception of affordances in this task depended on whether the task was performed continuously
12 (i.e., without stopping) and whether (and when) vision was occluded while performing the task. In
13 particular, in all conditions in which vision was occluded, participants failed to make appropriate
14 body rotations resulting in frequent collisions.

15 **Calibration**

16 ***Task***

17 An object attached or held to the body changes the person's action capabilities, but these
18 changes will have different consequences depending on the particular task to be performed or the
19 constraints of that task. Studies have investigated both calibration of perception to such changes in
20 a particular task and transfer of such calibration to a different task.

21 Withagen and Michaels (2007) examined whether recalibration in dynamic touch transfers
22 between functionally equivalent tasks. In their first experiment, they examined if calibration of
23 perception of affordances for reaching (i.e., length) transferred to perception of the location of the
24 sweet-spot, and in their second experiment, they examined whether calibration transferred in the
25 other direction. They found that calibration transferred from perception of affordances for reaching
26 (i.e., length) to perception of the location of the sweet-spot, but calibration transferred in the other
27 direction only in half of the participants. Along the same lines, Wagman & Van Norman (2011)
28 showed that when (visual) feedback was provided, calibration transferred (1) between different

1 grasps positions (i.e., middle and end) for a given task, (2) between different tasks (i.e., perceiving
2 whole and partial length) and (3) between different grasps positions and different tasks. Similarly,
3 Franchak (2020) examined whether calibration could transfer between perception of affordances
4 for squeezing and fitting through narrow doorways while wearing a backpack. He showed that
5 perception of affordances improved only in the practiced task and that no transfer was observed
6 between squeezing and fitting, or vice versa. Petrucci et al. (2016) compared perception of
7 affordances for passing over, under, or between obstacles by firefighters wearing protective
8 equipment. The results showed both underestimation and overestimation of action boundaries both
9 of which may create important safety concerns during a rescue. It was pointed out by Petrucci and
10 colleagues that variability among equipment across fire departments may be a contributing factor
11 to the results.

12 Abney et al. (2014) compared different types of feedback (experimenter feedback vs.
13 changing the grasp position on the object) to investigate the improvement of perception of
14 affordances for reaching with an object. Results showed that ratio between perceived and actual
15 reachable distance improved for both type of practices, approaching 1.0. Practice have also been
16 observed to improve perception of affordances for squeezing through a narrow space by
17 participants wearing a pregnancy pack (Franchak & Adolph, 2014, exp. 3), reducing the error
18 judgment from 10.5 cm to 2.4 cm.

19 Franchak (2017) asked five groups to report their ability to fit through doorways before and
20 after different practice experiences. In each practice experience, participants had different sources
21 of information available to them – optic flow, vision of backpack, haptic feedback. In addition, some
22 practiced by performing the action of fitting through the doorway and some did not. The results
23 showed that only the groups that practiced the action or received feedback about judgement
24 accuracy showed recalibration in the posttest. Ishak et al. (2019) obtained comparable results in
25 perception of affordances for crawling under a barrier while wearing a backpack. Participants were
26 asked to choose the largest backpack (ranging from 10 – 30 cm thick) that they could wear and
27 safely low crawl under a barrier. They performed the task before and after choosing the backpack
28 (Pre/Post experience), only after choosing the backpack (feedback experience) or without

1 choosing a backpack (no experience). The results showed that the Pre/Post experience group
2 exhibited lower failure rates, probably because they were more conservative in choosing a
3 backpack width compared to other groups. In a related task in which participants were asked to
4 squeeze through a narrow space with a backpack, Franchak & Somoano (2018) showed that
5 recalibration occurs quickly—rather than gradually—after participants receive outcome feedback,
6 resulting in errors being reduced by 2-3 cm. In a second experiment, they investigated how the
7 success/failure outcome feedback (practice or verbal) sequence (failure first, success first or
8 interleaved order) affects perceptual learning. Calibration occurred when all participants received
9 both successful and failed outcome feedback, regardless of sequence order or the type of
10 feedback.

11 However, in some cases, limited practice is not sufficient to recalibrate perception of
12 affordances for all tasks involving the person-object system. Yasuda et al. (2014) asked three
13 practice groups (high-resolution, low-resolution and control) to report their ability to pass through
14 apertures while holding an horizontal bar (exp. 1) or while using a wheelchair (exp. 2). They found
15 that perception of this affordance was improved for both practice groups (HR and LR) while holding
16 the bar but not when using a wheelchair. Likewise, in Higuchi et al. (2004) three groups of
17 participants reported perceived affordances for passing through an aperture in a wheelchair. The
18 authors found that even 8 days of practice was insufficient to completely calibrate perception of
19 affordances for this behavior, although some improvements did occur.

20 Many of the studies included in this review investigated whether certain kinds of exploratory
21 movements are necessary or sufficient for calibration or recalibration of perception of affordances
22 for the person-plus-object system. In some of these studies, participants reported whether or not
23 they would be able to pass under a barrier while in a wheelchair (Yu et al., 2010; Yu & Stoffregen,
24 2012). Participants were less calibrated to their ability to perform this task when head and torso
25 movements were restrained prior to and during the sessions. However, Yu & Stoffregen (2012)
26 found that accuracy of judgements was unaffected when the head was restrained if the participants
27 did not have active control over their locomotion during the practice session. Likewise, Higuchi et
28 al. (2006) found that when participants passed through an aperture while holding an object or while

1 using a wheelchair, constraints on shoulder rotation were critical to the rate of calibration. In
2 another study, participants were asked to report whether they could pass under a barrier while
3 using a wheelchair (Stoffregen et al., 2009). One group received 2 minutes of wheelchair
4 locomotion practice, another received 2 minutes of task practice, and the last group received no
5 practice. Perceived minimum barrier height better reflected actual minimum barrier height in the
6 practice groups; however, no group improved across trials. Participants who practiced using the
7 wheelchair— and especially those that practiced the specific task— showed lower variability in
8 head and torso velocity and path length. In two other studies, participants estimated the maximum
9 height at which they could sit when they were wearing 10 cm blocks on their feet (that increased
10 the maximum height of a surface on which they could sit) (Mark et al., 1990; Stoffregen et al.,
11 2005). In the study by Mark et al. (1990), participants were able to recalibrate to their changed
12 sitting ability only when their exploratory body sway movements were relatively unconstrained.
13 Stoffregen et al. (2005) confirmed that changes in exploratory body sway were related to
14 calibration of perception of affordances for sitting. Specifically, participants who recalibrated
15 exhibited a decrease in the variability of head and torso movement.

16 ***Environment***

17 As described earlier, an object attached to or held by the body changes a person's action
18 capabilities. Research has examined both the individual's ability to perceive the new maximal
19 action capabilities and their ability to act near this maximum for a given task.

20 Mark (1987) found that when participants wore 10-cm blocks on the soles of their shoes,
21 perception of maximum sitting height improved over the course of twelve trials (that did not include
22 practice sitting), approaching the same ratio of perceived-to-maximum as when no blocks were
23 attached. However, perception of block height did not improve. Similarly, Hirose & Nishio (2001)
24 found improvement in perception of affordances for sitting and stepping while wearing geta shoes
25 (but only when surface heights were presented in an ascending order), a pattern that also occurred
26 when not wearing the shoes. A number of studies extended these results to other tasks. Wagman
27 & Taylor (2005) found that participants were able to perceive affordances for carrying an object
28 through a doorway regardless of whether they were able to see the rod. Wagman & Malek (2007)

1 showed that perception of this affordance is also influenced by the anticipated speed of locomotion
2 through the aperture while carrying an object. Although this perception is not related to the
3 individual's action capabilities, they showed that the perceptual boundaries (in relation to the object
4 width) decreases when the participant anticipates running rather than walking. Ramenzoni et al.
5 (2008) showed that participants could perceive affordances for reaching-while-jumping both for
6 themselves and for another person and could perceive how such affordances changed when they
7 or the other person were wearing ankle weights. Ishak (2008, exp. 3) asked participants to reach
8 through an aperture using their dominant hand with and without a prosthesis that increased hand
9 width. They found that participants adjusted their reaching behavior based on how the prosthesis
10 changed their hand size. Franchak & Adolph (2014, exp. 2) compared perception of affordances
11 for squeezing through a narrow doorway with and without wearing a pregnancy pack. Although the
12 group who wore pregnancy pack were less accurate than the group who did not, they still made
13 accurate judgments in relation to the change in their body dimensions. Comalli et al. (2017)
14 investigated whether wearing ankle weights affected whether participants choose to step over or
15 duck under a horizontal barrier. Results showed that participants exhibited the same transition
16 point between these two behaviors (stepping over and ducking) when ankle weights were worn
17 and when they were not.

18 In several studies included in this review, participants reported their maximum vertical
19 reaching height when they expected to reach by various means (such as while standing on the
20 floor, while standing on a stool and, with a hand-held tool). Wagman & Morgan (2010) found that
21 participants were sensitive to how each means of reaching would increase maximum reaching
22 height and when the two means would do so equivalently. Wagman et al. (2013) found that this
23 occurred both when the two objects were visible and after they were removed from view. That is,
24 perception of maximum reaching height was scaled to reaching ability equivalently for (1) both
25 means of reaching and (2) when the tool was visible or out of view.

26 Wagman et al. (2019) found that participants are better calibrated to perception of
27 affordances for reaching with the arm than with a hand-held object. The ratio of perceived to
28 maximum action capabilities was less than 1.0 in both cases but was closer to 1.0 for touching

1 than for grasping and for reaching with hand than with the tool. In other studies, using a pre-test,
2 practice, post-test design, participants were asked to report their maximum reaching height if they
3 were to reach while standing on their heels, on their toes, with or without a tool (Wagman, 2012,
4 exp. 2) or kneeling, standing and using a step (Wagman et al., 2014). One group practiced the task
5 by making the estimation and then performing the action. Another group only estimated their
6 maximum reach height, without performing the action. The results showed that perceived
7 maximum reaching height more closely reflected actual maximum reaching height for all means of
8 reaching (different positions, with and without an object) following practice but only when practice
9 included reaching attempts.

10 Withagen and Michaels (2004) and Stephen and Hajnal (2011) investigated transfer of
11 calibration between anatomical components. Specifically, participants reported the perceived
12 length of a rod wielded with the left hand and right hand (Withagen & Michaels, 2004) or with hand
13 and with the foot (Stephen & Hajnal, 2011) before and after receiving feedback about perceptual
14 reports in one of these conditions. Ratios between perceived length and actual length showed an
15 improvement in the post-test regardless of the effectors trained so long as the participant had
16 received feedback.

17 ***Individual***

18 Given perception of affordances scales to (differences in) action capabilities, studies have
19 investigated whether perception of affordances for the person-plus-object system similarly scales
20 to (differences in) action capabilities.

21 Pepping & Li (2000) asked women and men to report their maximal overhead reaching
22 ability with and without wearing 15-cm blocks on their feet. As expected, the perception of
23 affordance in each condition was scaled to action capabilities and was not dependent of the sex of
24 the person. Similarly, Wagman & Smith (2018) found that the maximum step-with-crutches
25 distance was scaled to the participant's leg length and reflected their actual ability to perform this
26 behavior.

27 Perception of affordances for the person-plus-object system has also been studied across
28 different age groups. Franchak (2019) compared the ability of young children, older children and

1 adults to recalibrate perception of affordances for squeezing through a narrow doorway while
2 wearing a backpack. He found that participants who generated feedback through (succeeding or
3 failing while) attempting the task made more accurate judgments than those who did not. Overall,
4 in this study, adults had lower absolute error than older children, who themselves had smaller
5 absolute error than young children. Finkel et al. (2019) investigated recalibration of perception of
6 affordances for reaching through an opening by both young and older adults who wore a splint on
7 their hand for 24-hours. They were tested before, immediately after, 24-hours after wearing the
8 splint and then directly after removing the splint. Young adults were able to recalibrate perception
9 of affordances, but they were more conservative when perceiving affordances for reaching with
10 than without the splint. Older adults exhibited a perceptual boundary at a smaller opening before
11 wearing the splint and while wearing the splint than young adults. After the 24-hours period of
12 wearing the splint, both groups tended to show recalibration of perception of affordances.

13 Another method to examine the effect of (longer-term) practice on perception of
14 affordances for the person-plus-object system is through expertise. Higuchi et al. (2011) compared
15 the ability of American football players, rugby players and control athletes to run or walk through an
16 aperture, with or without wearing shoulder pads. The main result showed that American football
17 players exhibited smaller magnitudes and later onset of shoulder rotation than rugby and control
18 athletes, but only in conditions specific to the sport (i.e., running through aperture with shoulder
19 pads). Moreover, every group tended to underestimate the absolute width of the shoulder pads.
20 Also, in Pfaff and Cinelli (2018) rugby players crossed an aperture composed of either two poles or
21 a pole and a person, while running or walking, with or without a ball. The result showed that
22 participants displayed more restricted movement paths (e.g., reduced mediolateral movement of
23 the center of mass) with the ball than without, and created more space between themselves and
24 the aperture boundary when the aperture boundary included a person.

25 Finally, as for attunement, Hackney et al. (2014) found that participants recalibrated at
26 different rates to changes in affordances for passing through an aperture while carrying a tray.
27 Some recalibrated quickly and maintained their initial critical point (i.e., the minimum aperture width

1 they could successfully cross) while others recalibrated gradually as the block of trials progressed
2 and decreased the critical point.

3 **Discussion**

4 **Main findings**

5 ***Attunement***

6 The results of this systematic review highlighted for attunement that: (1) individuals learn to
7 detect information about a particular affordance for the person-plus-object system; (2) objects that
8 are (or might be) attached to the body create a multiplicity of affordances for the person-plus-object
9 system, requiring that the person choose which affordances to exploit and how to exploit them and;
10 (3) perception of affordances for the person-plus-object system reflects how affordances are
11 nested within the context of a particular task.

12 **Information pick-up.** Recent work suggests that objects attached to or held by the body
13 become experienced as part of the body; therefore, the attunement should be with respect to
14 information about affordances for the person-plus-object system. The results of our review are in
15 line with this claim: studies showed that individuals perceive nested affordances for the person-
16 plus-object system by detecting, attuning to, and calibrating action to information about such
17 affordances.

18 Given that the information about a given affordance is invariant over transformation,
19 individuals are able to detect information about a given affordance in different energy arrays by
20 means of different perceptual systems. In addition, studies have shown that individuals exploit
21 information about performing task-specific behaviors. In short, the information about affordances
22 for the person-plus-object system seems to be dependent on a particular task but independent of a
23 particular energy array.

24 By definition, affordances of any kind are emergent (or higher-order) relations within the
25 animal-environment system (Stoffregen, 2003a). These higher order relations differ from the
26 animal or environment components that comprise them. The same ought to be true for affordances
27 for the person-plus-object system—that is, the higher order affordances for the person-plus-object
28 system ought to differ from those for the person or of the object. In general, the results of the

1 studies included this review suggest that this is the case. Accordingly, the studies included in this
2 review suggest that the individual does not perceive the isolated properties that make up the
3 system, such as the length of their arms or of the object itself, but rather he or she perceives the
4 affordances for the person-plus-object system as such. Along similar lines, studies have shown
5 that improvement in the perception of affordances for the person-plus-object-system is
6 independent from improvements in perception of the properties that compose it.

7 **Multiplicity of affordances.** Generally, many different objects can be used to achieve the
8 same goal and the same object can be used to achieve many different goals. The multiplicity of
9 affordances gives rise to the questions of both intention (because perception of opportunities for
10 action is goal-directed and involves choices) and object design (because objects will always have
11 multiple affordances even if they are designed for a specific purpose). It has been shown that
12 intention guides the detection of relevant informational variables that support perception of
13 affordances. And, of course, the affordances of manufactured objects are constrained by the
14 design of those objects. Thus, objects always afford multiple behaviors, and the individual must
15 choose from among these to achieve the intended goal. On one hand, designing objects to afford a
16 limited set of particular behaviors would facilitate the detection and exploitation of information
17 about this particular set of affordances of that object, but doing so may make more difficult to
18 detect and exploit information about other affordances. On the other hand, designing objects that
19 afford many different behaviors would allow facilitate the detection and exploitation of information
20 about many different affordances but may make it more difficult to (quickly) detect and exploit
21 information about a particular affordance. Therefore, objects with a complex design could offer
22 multiple affordances which would entail that sets of behaviors nested over spatial and temporal
23 scales are specific to the goal-directed task. Future studies should take this property into account.

24 **Relation between affordances.** One fruitful framework for understanding relationships
25 among affordances in performing a goal-directed task under a particular set of circumstances, is
26 that of a means-ends hierarchy (Vicente & Rasmussen, 1990; see Wagman et al., 2016a). The
27 results of the studies included in this review are consistent with sensitivity to the nesting relations
28 among affordances in such a hierarchy (but should be considered subordinate to a broader

1 analysis in terms of heterarchies, see Future research directions). Individuals were able to modify
2 or create objects so as to perform a given behavior in the context of both the overarching goal and
3 the underlying circumstances. For example, assembling a tool for use in a given task required
4 participants to perceive affordances for the assembled tool both before and while it was being
5 assembled. That is, participants had to create higher-order affordances for the person-plus-object
6 system by exploiting lower order affordances (Wagman et al., 2016b). Consequently, performing
7 any goal-directed behavior entails perceiving (and thus detecting information about) affordances
8 for nested behaviors. However, attunement to information about a given (nested) affordance is
9 often insufficient for successful performance of a goal-directed behavior. In addition, individuals
10 must also calibrate their actions to that information.

11 **Calibration**

12 The results of this systematic review highlighted that: (1) exploration is associated with (and
13 often necessary for) improved calibration and or recalibration; (2) individuals quickly recalibrate to
14 changes brought on by an object attached to or held by the body; (3) calibration to a given
15 affordance for the person-plus-object system can bring about functionally equivalent changes in
16 perception of other affordances for the person-plus-object system.

17 **Exploration for calibration.** Exploration (i.e., moving so as to facilitate detection of
18 invariant patterns in ambient energy arrays) generates information about the animal-environment
19 system, including the person-plus-object system. According to the studies included in this review,
20 the degree of calibration is related to the ability of the individual to explore ambient energy arrays
21 via movements, even movements as subtle as postural sway. The more constraints on exploratory
22 movement, the less the individuals were able to calibrate to changed action capabilities. Although
23 generation and pick-up of information can occur during actions that are not explicitly exploratory
24 (see Hacques et al., 2021), exploration to achieve the goal facilitates calibration improvement
25 and/or recalibration.

26 **Action boundaries.** To perform a goal-directed behavior successfully and safely,
27 individuals must be sensitive to the boundaries of their action capabilities for performing that
28 behavior (Fajen, 2007). Objects attached to or held by the body modify the action capabilities and

1 require recalibration to the new action boundaries. Broadly, studies show that individuals are
2 sensitive to how an object attached to the body changes their action capabilities (and thus changes
3 affordances for) a particular task. However, this may depend on the specifics of both the object and
4 of the task (Higuchi et al., 2004; Yasuda et al., 2014) and future studies should expand this area of
5 research.

6 In terms of the relation between perceived action capabilities, individuals were able to
7 maintain the same ratio (between perceived:maximum and actual:maximum) for affordances for
8 the person-plus-object system as for the person (without the object), highlighting the ability to
9 quickly recalibrate after a period of practice. Results included in this review indicated recalibration
10 to new action capabilities was facilitated with task-relevant experience and developmental changes
11 in action capabilities, especially into early adulthood. However, recalibration to changed action
12 capabilities is sometimes less well facilitated, either because of more conservative choices or
13 because of declines in action capabilities. Overall, task-specific experience and expertise seems to
14 lead to a better calibration or recalibration, but it remains unclear whether this is due to a decrease
15 in the variability of behaviors that the individuals can perform, to a better awareness of action
16 boundaries, to greater maximal action capabilities, or to some combination of these.

17 **Functional equivalence.** As highlighted previously, an object can be used to achieve
18 several different goals, but a given goal can also be achieved by several different means or by
19 means of using several different objects (i.e., relating to functional equivalence). Experiments have
20 shown that two different (by functionally equivalent) means of reaching can bring about functional
21 equivalent changes in perception of affordances for reaching for the person-plus-object system. In
22 addition, in some circumstances, calibration of perception of affordances for performing a given
23 behavior by one particular means transfers to perception of affordances for performing that
24 behavior by a different means.

25 However, even though two objects may be used to achieve functionally equivalent ends,
26 this does not necessarily mean that using those objects requires equivalent degrees of effort or
27 ability. How individuals make decisions among those means is not well understood, particularly
28 when functional equivalence could be observed and reflect skilled behavior. Thus, skilled behavior

1 could result in a multiplicity of possible action modes through the ability to accurately select an
2 object to perform the behavior and the ability to incorporate the object to the animal-environment
3 coupling. However, there is a lack of research investigating how skilled performers better
4 incorporate the object into a person-plus-object system than less skilled performers, and then
5 better perceive the multiply nested affordances and exhibit functional equivalence.

6 **Future research directions**

7 By reviewing the research on attunement and (re)calibration processes with respect to the
8 person-plus-object system, our findings emphasized how the perception of affordances of an
9 object attached to or held by the body facilitates the performance of functional equivalent behaviors
10 in achieving the task goal. However, everyday behaviors are often considerably more complex (as
11 several degrees of freedom must be coordinated to act synergistically) than simple lab-based
12 activities, and it is unclear whether the results of such studies would be transferable to more
13 complex situations. Thus, there is a lack of research investigating complex richly nested behaviors,
14 particularly in relation to the unique control dynamics of the person-plus-object system and the
15 many degrees of freedom involved in performing complex tasks.

16 In addition, investigating how the particular design of an object would offer multiple (nested)
17 affordances depending on the skill of the individual would be of great interest to better design
18 objects (Pagano et al., 2021) and to develop skill acquisition programs. Obviously, the ability of an
19 individual to perform successful behaviors will vary depending on their action capabilities and how
20 the object changes these action capabilities. This is an important focus for future research,
21 especially for professions that require expertise such as athletes, firefighters, or military. It can be
22 hypothesized that as the object becomes more complex, it may offer a wider range of affordances
23 some of which may be less obvious to the individual. Furthermore, design complexity generally
24 allows functional equivalence in tool use and raises the question of the selection of relevant
25 affordance among the different possible action modes (Mangalam et al., 2019). For instance,
26 expert climbers could exhibit functional equivalence in the movement pattern used to anchor their
27 ice tool by using either swinging, kicking or hooking actions (Seifert et al., 2014). Although an
28 individual can master some of these modes of action, it is coordination of these modes in the

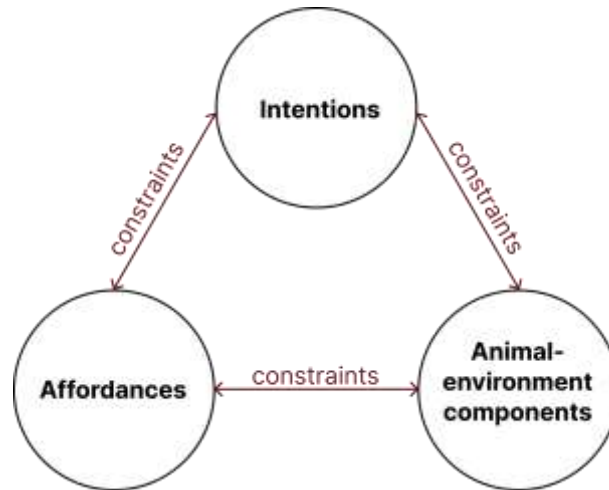
1 context of a given task that is the hallmark of expertise in that task—such as in skilled rock
2 climbing.

3 We have considered the relationship between affordances of and for a person-plus-object
4 system. In particular, we have done so in the context of the means-ends hierarchy developed by
5 Vicente & Rasmussen (1990). However, hierarchies describe a choice that was made, not the
6 process of choosing between the coexistence of many behavioral potentials in the perception-
7 action system (see Profeta et al., 2020). To account for the multifaceted fit between individual and
8 object that yields multiple affordances for the person-plus-object system, and more broadly how
9 individuals organize their behavior effectively in their environment, we introduce the concept of
10 heterarchy, which may be more consistent with a thoroughgoing ecological approach of perceiving
11 and acting with the person-plus-object system (Shaw & Turvey, 1981). Unlike a hierarchy, a
12 heterarchy has no fixed levels of elements, no fixed roles for elements, and no fixed relationship
13 among elements. Instead, different sets of elements flexibly and dynamically emerge as particular
14 circumstances unfold. Therefore, any given element in the system can have any number of ways to
15 any number of other elements, depending on circumstance (Profeta et al., 2020).

16 In this view, intentions, affordances, and the animal-environment are components of an
17 organizational system that are unranked with respect to one another or have the potential to be
18 ranked in multiple ways with respect to one another (Figure 2). Consequently, the constraints are
19 multidirectional and distributed across the many interacting components of the organizational
20 system and subsystems. There are an unlimited number of intentions that an individual might have
21 in any given situation, but a subset of these can be acted on at any given moment. For behavior to
22 be successful, intentions must be related to the individual and the environment that surrounds him
23 or her. In the situation where the environment does not meet the intentions, it can motivate
24 exploration of the individual-environment system to achieve the intended goal (Stoffregen, 2003a).
25 Similarly, an unlimited number of affordances emerge from the relationship between the animal
26 and the environment, but only a subset of these actually stand out as relevant to the individual's
27 current goals (i.e., the field of affordances) (Wagman et al, 2016b; Wagman, et al., 2019). For
28 instance, the many affordances that comprise the heterarchy have the potential to be nested (over

1 temporal and spatial scales) in different ways. This logical continuity is conveyed by Reed (1982):
 2 *“What makes an action what it is, is not the hierarchical integration of responses into some*
 3 *movement pattern, but rather, it is the nesting of control processes that organize postures and*
 4 *movements to serve some function”.*

5 **Figure 2.** Goal-directed behavior heterarchy.



6

7 Inevitably, hierarchies emerge from heterarchies due to constraints of other systems and of
 8 the subsystems (Figure 3). Therefore, existing analyses of affordance nestings within means-ends
 9 hierarchies (Vicente & Rasmussen, 1990; Wagman et al., 2016) can be understood as being
 10 compatible with but subordinate to a broader analysis in terms of heterarchies (Profeta et al.,
 11 2020).

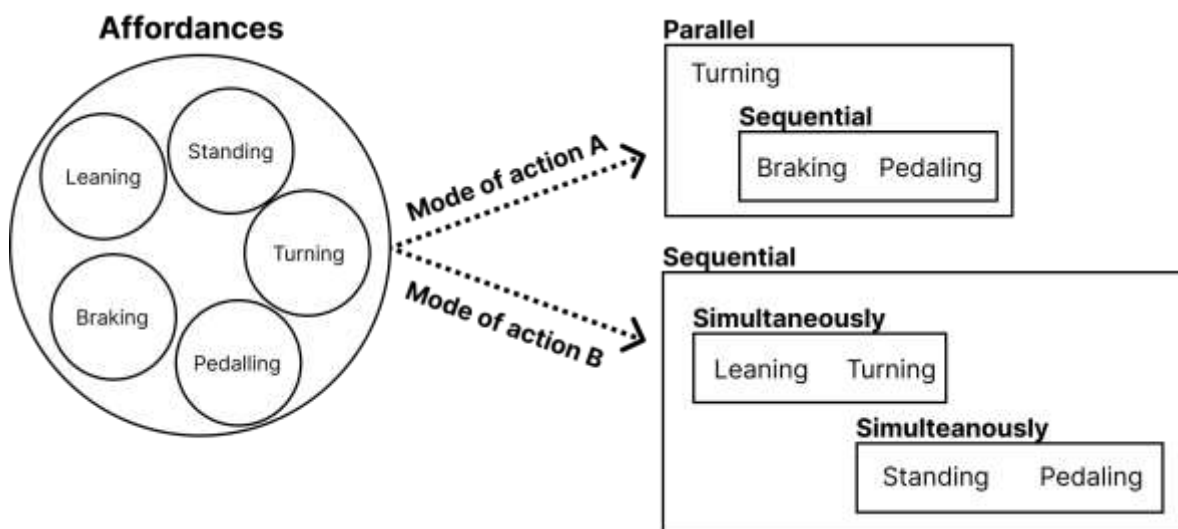
12 Following this view, the components of the animal and environment system are coordinated
 13 (i.e., functionally ordered in space and time)—resulting in synergies—to reduce the dimensionality
 14 of the system (i.e., complexity). Thus, in the case of a person-plus-object system, coordination
 15 patterns are assembled and disassembled by reordering the subsystems or components involved,
 16 as well as by recruiting or releasing them (Kelso et al., 1993).

17 The emergent skilled behavior is not merely a matter of appropriately switching from one
 18 action to another but also in appropriately coordinating the various means and various ends to
 19 generate and control multiple (and multiply nested) modes of action to perform the goal-directed
 20 behavior. For example, in the case of crossing an aperture while cycling, many actions are
 21 possible (leaning, standing, braking, etc.) and one of the possibilities to cross an aperture in cycling

1 would be to adapt the speed based on the distance from the aperture, then turn the handlebars
 2 and lean the bike to successfully cross the aperture. In another situation, the individual could
 3 express a different mode of action such as braking from a certain distance of the obstacle to
 4 reduce his/her speed so that he/she can rotate the handlebar more accurately. Thus, hierarchies
 5 can emerge as situation-specific actualization of potentials due to constraints imposed upon the
 6 heterarchical logic (Profeta et al., 2020).

7

8 **Figure 3.** In the case of aperture crossing in bike, many affordances are available (e.g., leaning,
 9 standing, turning ...) and the skilled behavior that will emerge is a coordination of the different
 10 elements to form a mode of action (in a means-ends hierarchy manner) in relation to the intentions
 11 and the individual-environment system.



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14 This reconceptualization builds on the pioneering work by Shaw and Turvey (1981), Reed
 15 (1982) and Vicente and Rasmussen (1990) highlighting the coexistence of many potentials for
 16 behaving in perception-action systems, including person-plus-object system. Moreover, this
 17 reconceptualization emphasizes the degeneracy property of expert perception-action system by
 18 showing (1) how several means could be coordinated to achieve a given outcome, (i.e., exhibiting
 19 degeneracy: MANY structures - to - ONE function relationship; Edelman & Gally, 2001), but also
 20 (2) how those means and modes of action could achieve many different outcomes, i.e., exhibiting

1 pluri-potentiality (Mason, 2010) or multi-functionality (Kelso, 2012) (ONE structure - to - MANY
2 functions relationship). In Figure 3, degeneracy is exploited when several modes of action (i.e.,
3 pedaling, braking, leaning, turning) are nested differently to achieve the same goal (i.e., crossing
4 the aperture). Likewise, pluri-potentiality is exploited when the same modes of action (i.e.,
5 pedaling, leaning, turning the handlebar) are coordinated to achieve different goals (i.e., crossing
6 the aperture and 'dancing on the pedals' to climb a slope).

7 **Conclusion**

8 Overall, we conclude that individuals can perceive affordances of an object attached to or
9 held by the body through the processes of attunement and calibration, implying a general ability to
10 form a person-plus-object system. This systematic review revealed that the literature investigating
11 perceiving and acting on affordances for the person-plus-object system is currently limited to
12 nested affordances of relatively limited complexity. In particular, future research should investigate
13 the use of objects with multiple degrees of freedom (objects with multiple affordances), how
14 individuals coordinate the degrees of freedom of the object with the degrees of freedom of their
15 body to achieve the overarching goal (if, when, how, they develop a synergy), and how individuals
16 perceive different affordances of a given object in relation to achieving an overarching goal.
17 Research lines worth pursuing when studying the affordance in the person-plus-object should
18 include the study of task and object complexity and skill expertise.

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