

**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

2

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15 **Abstract**

16 Ecological dynamics is a contemporary theory of skill acquisition, advocating the mutuality of the
17 performer-environment system, with clear implications for the design of innovative training
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
21 contemporary models of coaching, training design and sport science support, to stimulate
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**

- 31 • Ecological dynamics is a contemporary theory of skill acquisition that encourages
32 practitioners to design performer-environment interactions in training, through the
33 conceptualisation of athletes and sports teams as *complex adaptive systems*.
- 34 • Utilising this framework has the potential to change the role of practitioners from one of
35 prescribing movement solutions, to one of a learning activity designer that encourages self-
36 organisation and co-adaptation between athletes in local interactions.
- 37 • Interdisciplinary collaborations between performance analysts, skill acquisition specialists
38 and sport practitioners could ensure that the design of learning activities are representative
39 of the demands of competitive performance, with implications for efficient and effective use
40 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

44

45 **Section 1**

46 **1.1 A Theoretical Background to Ecological Dynamics**

47 Ecological dynamics is a theoretical framework advocating the mutuality of the performer-
48 environment system, whereby the critical information required for regulation of performance
49 behaviours emerges from continuous interactions that individuals share with a performance
50 environment (Davids, Button & Bennett, 2008). It blends complexity science and ecological
51 psychology (Kauffman, 1993; Warren, 2006), emphasising the relevance of constraints on
52 behaviours, which have recently been posited as underlying a grand unifying theory of sports
53 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
57 the task goal (Davids, Araújo, Vilar, Renshaw & Pinder, 2013). In performance contexts, such as elite
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,
60 Button & Koh, 2008). An important question concerns how, utilising the conceptualisation of
61 ecological dynamics, practitioners in elite sport can help athletes to develop a deeply integrated
62 relationship between their intentions (goal directed behaviours), perceptions and actions which can
63 support successful performance (Davids, Araújo, Seifert & Orth, 2015).

64 Through the lens of ecological dynamics, an athlete or team are viewed as *complex adaptive*
65 *systems*, where the continuously dynamic and non-linear performer-environment interactions *afford*
66 (provides opportunities for) multiple performance solutions to emerge in achieving the same or
67 similar task goal (Kelso, 2012). The nuanced relationship between multiple performance solutions
68 and the achievement of the same task goal has been conceptualised through the notion of system
69 *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
72 capacities (e.g. limb length or upper body power), interacting with key task/environmental
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
75 adaptation in ecological dynamics, defined as a process by which an individual progressively
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.,*
85 *adequately and accurately), quickly (with respect to both decision making and achieving a correct*
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.

90 An implication of this conceptualisation in sport is that learning environments should be
91 (re)designed to offer athletes opportunities to explore and adapt movement solutions under
92 constraints which closely simulate those of competitive performance. When aligned with traditional
93 notions of 'training specificity', this ideology raises significant questions over the design of training
94 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
96 actual competition (Henry, 1968). The 'training specificity hypothesis' contends that the closer a
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

120 activities needs to be predicated on task simplification, rather than task decomposition (Davids,
121 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;
138 Davids et al., 2017). This conceptualisation of practice designs fundamentally captures Bernstein's
139 (1967) notion of practice as 'repetition without repetition' (p134).

140 There is growing empirical work advocating the utility and effectiveness of these contemporary
141 models of preparation for performance grounded in ecological dynamics (Lee, Chow, Komar, Tan &
142 Button, 2014). Through careful task and instructional constraint manipulation, Lee et al. (2014)
143 demonstrated that exploiting system degeneracy (capacity for re-organisation of system degrees of
144 freedom) was an effective strategy for acquiring sport skills in contrast to methods advocated in

145 traditional linear models. Specifically, through the encouragement of functional movement
146 variability, and appreciation of multi-stability (one cause resulting in multiple possible behavioural
147 effects), learners demonstrated greater exploratory tendencies and movement repertoire to achieve
148 a task goal, relative to a traditional linear model of skill acquisition informed by an ideological and
149 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
156 of evidence-based functionality within training programmes. This deep integration of theory and
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
160 activities need to be high in action fidelity, so that an emerging performance solution is reflective of
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
165 (Araújo, Davids, & Passos, 2007).

166 While, theoretically, principles of RLD are compelling and readily understandable, a challenge for
167 sports practitioners is to consider how training activities can be designed to be representative of
168 competitive performance environments. Practically, *how can relevant information sources be*
169 *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
185 contrast, in nature, there are many examples of rich patterns of behaviour emerging in complex
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
188 behaviours of colonies of insects, emerge from self-organised, localised interactions between
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

195 within competition (Renshaw et al., 2010). Knowledge of the key interacting constraints associated
196 with successful performance in a sport will help practitioners to representatively manipulate them
197 within a practice task. This challenge leads to the second component needed to answer the
198 overarching practical question posed in this paper: *Using their experiential knowledge, how can*
199 *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 it 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
215 and attune athletes to relevant affordances.

216 To achieve this critical aim in elite sport, groups of practitioners, including performance analysts,
217 coaches, psychologists, sport scientists and skill acquisition specialists, could collaborate on
218 designing individualised practice task constraints based on competitive performance data. This
219 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**

240 Within AF, there are two primary modes of ball disposal underpinning interactions between
241 teammates – a kick and a handball. Successful performance of both actions (defined by the ball
242 being passed to a teammate without impedance from an opponent) is critical to team success within
243 the Australian Football League (AFL; elite AF competition) (Robertson et al., 2016). Here, the
244 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
247 *complex adaptive systems*, it was appreciated that the organisation of these actions was predicated
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
256 problems (referred to as a learning activity designer), predicated on challenges imposed primarily by
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
260 were resultants of the activity design, rather than from an external agent (i.e., coach).** Practice
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
286 these ten AFL matches were then averaged to provide a basis for the influence of each constraint.
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**

292 In the following sections, we provide three univariate ways in which a coach may consider
293 visualising, analysing and measuring the results when determining the representativeness of a
294 training activity. **Each of these techniques are founded upon recommendations proposed within the**

295 existing literature, and have been chosen and adapted to suit their utility within a high-performance
296 sport setting.

297 *Example 1 – Data Visualisation*

298 The data were plotted using a scatterplot overlaid with a violin plot to show the data distribution.
299 These plots show the density distributions of the data and provide a simple visualisation of the data
300 with respect to skewness and modality. Interpretation of these plots requires little analytical
301 expertise, thus making them useful for most practitioners, who need quick, effective and efficient
302 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
304 an AFL match and a training activity. Each dot represents a training or match observation, which
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
313 within the percent of kicks performed <1 s in general play, the dynamic and stationary categories,
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
322 relatively simple and require little analytical expertise, they are primarily based upon subjective
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 summing these values for each constraint category, dividing by half
337 and then subtracting from 100% (they denoted 100% as hypothetical ‘complete
338 representativeness’), the practitioner obtained an objective measure of how ‘representative’ that
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
341 was the *performer* (representative value of 90%) and the least was *environment* (representative
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’

345 representative value is subjective, based on a preconceived activity plan initially composed by sport
346 practitioners.

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
352 emergent, adaptive behaviour (Renshaw et al., 2010). Increasing (or decreasing) the
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
358 isolation may limit the representativeness of an activity, which may limit performance transfer.
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
379 experiential expertise into key constraints shaping a behaviour, and an analyst sampling and
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 and
395 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