

**Task Ambiguity in Combat Shooting Environments:
Training Implications of an Ecological Dynamics
Perspective**

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TASK AMBIGUITY IN COMBAT SHOOTING ENVIRONMENTS

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2 **Ecological Dynamics Perspective.**

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21

Abstract

22 Traditional military combat shooting training is typically static, highly structured, and
23 planned. It often uses single-target engagements, lacking the requirement for friend and foe
24 discrimination and fails to include the ambiguity and uncertainty of tasks found in real-world
25 combat environments. This means that training may not successfully simulate combat
26 challenges to survival and navigation of military environments. Here, we discuss an
27 ecological dynamics approach to provide an alternative view of traditional military combat
28 shooting training doctrine. We outline why this alternative view is advantageous for
29 rethinking combat shooting training to prepare combatants for the uncertainties of the
30 military environment. The paper introduces the concept of ‘task ambiguity’ and its constituent
31 components: fields of affordances, action uncertainty, and changing informational constraints.
32 We provide examples throughout from military and sporting contexts of how task ambiguity
33 shapes perception, action, and cognition of performers. Last, we discuss practical
34 implications for the training of combat shooters to create enskilled, adaptable combatants
35 who can successfully navigate uncertain and ambiguous surroundings.

36

37 *Keywords:* Ecological Dynamics, Coaching, Skill Acquisition, Combat Shooting,
38 Military Environments

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Highlights

- Task ambiguity refers to an individual's attunement to dynamic performance contexts. Greater attunement to task and environmental constraints, leads to less uncertainty in finding one's way to achieve an intended task goal.
- Within the ecological dynamics framework, task ambiguity increases as the information increases in a performance context.
- Task ambiguity can shape the representative design of training, simulating combat environments.
- Task ambiguity is necessary to improve skill transfer, facilitating adaptive performance behaviours.

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65 **Introduction to Combat Shooting**

66

67 Combative military environments are dangerous, full of ambiguous information and
68 life-threatening features, generating considerable uncertainty for combatants. Modern
69 military conflicts have ill-defined battle zones, especially within urban areas full of civilians
70 (Clemente-Suárez & Robles-Pérez, 2013). Increasing a combat shooter's survivability is
71 paramount, considering the high threat to life. Busa et al. (2015) highlighted three sub-
72 components of survivability using the lens of ecological psychology: situational awareness,
73 mobility and lethality. Situational awareness is essential to perceive, identify, and distinguish
74 information on threats (e.g., number of targets, friend or foe, locations). Mobility is a combat
75 shooter's capability to identify targets and protective cover efficiently (Busa et al., 2015; Villa
76 et al., 2019). Lethality is a combat shooter's ability to neutralise a threat (i.e., shooting
77 proficiently; (Lawson et al., 2016).

78 Combat shooting is enacted at various distances and can involve attacking and
79 defensive interactions between opposing groups. Combat shooters perform under distinct task
80 constraints. These include dynamic conditions (with both combat shooter and target in
81 motion), limited time to act, unplanned engagement (at undefined target locations), multi-
82 target engagements, possibly requiring friend-or-foe discrimination (Bale et al., 2024). These
83 features of combat environments are rarely actualised in training and testing design (Bale et
84 al., 2024). For example, typical shooting proficiency tests are highly structured and
85 documented, following pre-defined rigid requirements in isolated tasks (Biggs et al., 2023).
86 This is a challenge because combative military environments can be unstructured, dynamic
87 and require attention to multiple simultaneous tasks (Bale et al., 2024; Clemente-Suárez &
88 Robles-Pérez, 2013; Jensen et al., 2023).

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89 The survivability of combat shooters is of utmost importance, and increasing it is
90 vital. There is a need to understand how to enhance the representative design (realistic
91 simulation; (Brunswik, 1956; Pinder et al., 2011) of combat shooting training to improve
92 situational awareness, mobility and lethality. To improve the representative design of
93 methodologies, there is a need to implement requirements for decision-making, perceptual
94 search activities and problem-solving to improve combatant survivability. The inclusion of
95 problem-solving requires more variable and unstructured environments, with trainees facing
96 multiple tasks simultaneously.

97 **The Ecological Dynamics perspective on perception and action**

98

99 Representative practice design aids trainers and instructors in understanding how
100 performers interact with key information sources in their environment (Pinder et al., 2011). It
101 advocates the integration of perception and action at the performer-environment scale to
102 facilitate functional performance behaviours (Araújo et al., 2006). A central concept in
103 ecological dynamics is *affordances* (opportunities for action) that shape how performers
104 interact with information within their environments (Gibson, 1979).

105 Information is everywhere within performance environments. To wayfind through
106 uncertain environments, humans have evolved to perceive surrounding information through
107 different perceptual systems to regulate their actions (Gibson, 1966; Turvey, 1986).
108 Wayfinding is “a narrative way of moving through a landscape” (Woods et al., 2021, p. 7).
109 Wayfinding is not directly concerned with navigating from position A to position B, but is
110 concerned with the journey itself, especially with an individual’s transactional¹ relations with

¹ ‘Transactional’ - referring to how goal-directed behaviour emerges from the dynamically differing relationship imposed between the constraints of the task environment and the capacities of a performer.

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111 the surrounding environment. Gibson (1979) postulated that energy sources, like light and
112 sound waves, are reflected from features of the environment, revealing its informational
113 structure. Available energy forms an ambient array (distribution/structure), rich with spatial-
114 temporal information that allows a performer to perceive environmental properties, structured
115 layout, and events directly and unambiguously. The unambiguity of information allows it to
116 directly *specify* meaning to a performer (Gibson, 1979). Further, information within the
117 environment is continuous, structured, invariant, and highly complex, requiring no mental
118 processing for further embellishment (Williams et al., 1999). Instead, humans directly
119 perceive invariant properties of the environment, available as *affordances* (opportunities or
120 possibilities to act)(Gibson, 1979).

121 Gibson (1979, p. 127) proposed that "the affordances of the environment are what it
122 offers the animal, what it provides or furnishes, either for *good or ill*." Gibson's words
123 exemplify the task ambiguity in combat environments where many features, objects and
124 others within the affordance landscape may threaten survivability or provide support. The
125 same affordances can provide support for one individual but may harm another occupying the
126 performance environment. In a combat context, a wall could afford protective cover for a
127 shooter or hide an enemy, a target could afford shooting or need protecting, and a hand-held
128 object may be a weapon or a gift.

129 Affordances are simultaneously objective (i.e., phenomenal) and subjective (i.e., they
130 invite a particular action from a specific performer) (Fitch & Turvey, 1978; Warren, 1984).
131 An affordance is subjective due to the effectivities (capacities, dispositions, tendencies) and
132 intentionality (i.e., to maintain survival whilst searching a house or military zone) of each
133 individual within the affordance landscape (Turvey, 1992). The objective nature of
134 affordances is their unwavering availability within the environment, whether realised by
135 every performer, depending on each individual's effectivities and specific attention (Turvey,

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136 1992; Withagen et al., 2017). A wall that is only waist high would not afford sufficient cover
137 if standing; rather, combat shooters would have to adapt their movements (kneel, squat,
138 crouch or lie flat) in their transactions with that affordance. Therefore, an affordance is a
139 direct link between a performer and their environment, specifying how one must interact with
140 these environmental properties to meet intended task goals. These prominent ideas in James
141 Gibson's (1979) theory of direct perception advocate analysis of the performer-environment
142 relationship when evaluating human performance behaviours involving perception, action
143 and cognition (Araújo et al., 2006).

144 Information constrains actions, and vice versa, and the affordances we utilise (Passos
145 et al., 2008), enabling the emergence of coordinated actions (Davids et al., 2008). In
146 ecological dynamics constraints are categorised into task, individual, and environment
147 features (Newell, 1986). Task constraints are specific to performance demands, including
148 locations, technologies, spaces, equipment, rules and boundaries (Handford et al., 1997).
149 Individual constraints are those specific to every performer, like differing intentions, hand-
150 eye coordination, mass, height, strength, emotional states, fatigue or previous experiences
151 with a task (Renshaw & Chow, 2019). Environmental constraints include the physical
152 properties of our surroundings (e.g., combat context, weather, temperature, ambient light,
153 altitude) or the social context in which a performer operates (e.g., beliefs, cultural norms,
154 history).

155 Constraints can shape what a performer perceives as an affordance if they are attuned
156 to surrounding information. For example, if fatigued, combat shooters can adapt actions to
157 stop pursuing a target and instead engage targets at greater distances, aiming at targets for
158 longer periods. Thus, a change in individual constraints may change affordances to shoot at a
159 target and performance behaviours (Nibbeling et al., 2013).

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160 Though information itself is unambiguous (Gibson, 1979), when the information
161 sources in a combat environment are *nested* together, the dynamic nature of a *field of*
162 *affordances* can shape *task ambiguity* (e.g., increased number of targets at varying location,
163 friend-or-foe discrimination; Bale et al., 2024). Nesting refers to the embedded nature of
164 informational properties of a performance environment, where smaller features are nested
165 within larger units (Gibson, 1979). Enemy combatants and civilians can be nested within a
166 building, which is nested within a larger urban environment, nested within a larger cultural
167 environment. These nested units interact with each other under contextual constraints,
168 creating order in features of the environment (Chow et al., 2011; Juarrero, 2023). Nested
169 units form a complex system, scaling many degrees of freedom within the performer-
170 environment system. Therefore, task ambiguity emerges from a lack of attunement to the
171 information available in one's dynamic performance environment, leading to uncertainty
172 about how to navigate the surroundings to achieve intended task goals.

173 As task expertise increases with learning and experience, a strong coupling is formed
174 between a performer and features (information) of the environment they inhabit. With
175 practice, a performer can gain the ability to adapt (skilfully) to new environmental contexts,
176 facilitated by a subtle blend of movement stability and flexibility (Araújo & Davids, 2011;
177 Bennett & Fransen, 2023; Seifert et al., 2013). Task ambiguity is, therefore, less prominent in
178 expert performance, supported by a loose, less rigid coupling between a performer and their
179 environment. The lack of attunement to surrounding information leads to task ambiguity,
180 where an agent (e.g., shooter) does not have adequate 'knowledge of' environmental features
181 needed to navigate contexts to achieve their intended goals.

182 Next, we discuss how task ambiguity relates to the uncertainty of how a military
183 operator could intentionally interact with different, available affordances, to inhibit how they
184 may find their way through a combat landscape (Woods et al., 2020). Task ambiguity has

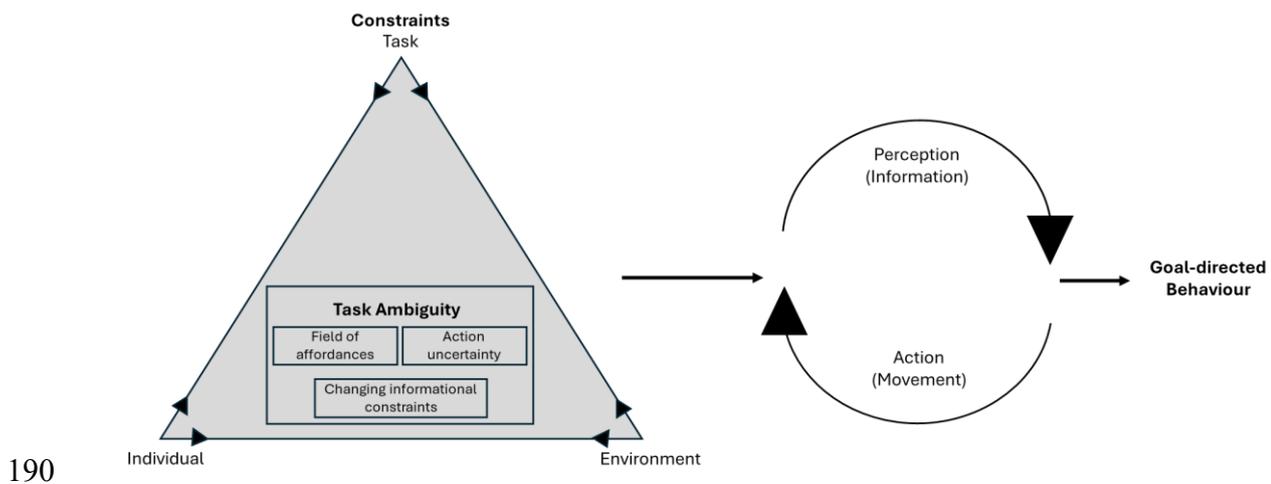
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185 three interactive components (*Figure 1*): a field of affordances, action uncertainty, and
 186 changing informational constraints.

187

188 **Figure 1.**

189 *Ecological Dynamics model envisaged with task ambiguity*



191 *Note.* Task ambiguity arises as a function of the interacting constraints within a specific
 192 performance environment. If a combatant is not well attuned to the informational constraints
 193 in a performance environment, task ambiguity increases, shaping goal-directed behaviour and
 194 task success. Adapted from Davids et al. (2003).

195

196 **Fields of Affordances**

197

198 Affordances invite possible actions from performers (Gibson, 1979), existing in a
 199 landscape replete with features inviting possible interactions. An affordance landscape
 200 contains structured information flowing throughout the environment, offering, soliciting, and

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201 inviting actions from a performer (Gibson, 1979; Rietveld, 2008; Withagen et al., 2012;
202 Woods et al., 2020, 2021). Those affordances that are more soliciting of actions than others,
203 form a ‘field of affordances’ (Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014). Soliciting affordances are “the
204 affordances that stand out as relevant for a particular individual in a particular situation”
205 (Bruineberg & Rietveld, 2014, p. 2). They are, therefore, a subset of immediately available,
206 soliciting affordances that are most relevant to a performer's capabilities and intentions,
207 shaped by the task constraints within the performance environment (Bruineberg & Rietveld,
208 2014).

209 Instructors, trainers, and coaches can use task, individual, and environmental
210 constraints to shape the fields of affordances available in practice for an athlete. For example,
211 in team sports practice, coaches could employ various task constraints in small-sided games
212 to develop desirable behaviours by reducing the number of players involved (including
213 uneven teams) or changing pitch dimensions. Manipulating task constraints facilitates
214 specific interactions, such as attacking/defending opportunities or running into space (Caso &
215 van der Kamp, 2020; Fleay et al., 2018; Vilar et al., 2014). In combat shooting, a field of
216 affordances could be changed by varying the number of targets to be engaged, the static-
217 dynamic nature of these targets, and the need to discriminate between ‘friend or foe’ targets.
218 Other features within the combat environment can also increase task ambiguity like different
219 possibilities for seeking protective cover, ranging from open environments (fields, deserts) to
220 urban dwellings (consisting of walls, enclosed rooms, windows).

221 The representativeness of these constraints within the field of affordances could also
222 modify behaviours. For example, the use of cardboard targets that do not shoot back (with
223 simulation ammunition) may not include affordances for cover in the field of affordances.
224 The combatant does not require cover to navigate to their intended task goal successfully
225 when there is no threat of being struck by a projectile. Whereas, an enemy combatant firing

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226 simulation ammunition could extend the field of affordances to other features, like cover
227 opportunities, leading to greater possibilities for combatants to search for specifying
228 information associated with protective cover.

229 Changing the task constraints and information presented to combat shooters in
230 training can continually modify the dynamic fields of affordances. This approach may shape
231 the emergence of visual search behaviours (scanning or tracking a target) and coordinated
232 actions, such as bringing a weapon to the target location, aiming and firing at an affordance
233 (Davids et al., 2008; Williams et al., 2004). Therefore, trainers should seek to simulate and
234 include constraints experienced in combat to provide realistic fields of affordances,
235 facilitating the emergence of functional behaviours needed to dwell in a military environment
236 and enhance survivability successfully.

237 Fields of affordances can create task ambiguity when it is not clear which affordances
238 within the overarching affordance landscape a performer should attend to when exploring
239 their task goals. Task ambiguity will grow with more affordances available within the
240 performance landscape or when there is more instability in different nested features of the
241 environment (e.g., more enemy combatants or civilians in close proximity to enemies). A
242 performer will need time to perceive the information available in the performance landscape,
243 which specifies how to act. In training combatants will need to learn to distinguish between
244 specifying and non-specifying information in the environment. This perceptual skill will lead
245 combat shooters to grow their knowledge of the performance environment by being attentive
246 to information that solicits actions, to manage the ambiguity of modern military combative
247 environments.

248 In training, combat shooters need to become attuned to surrounding information,
249 which can specify available affordances as opportunities for support or harm. This means a

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250 combat shooter's field of affordances in practice should simulate military features that can
251 support or harm them, helping them learn their value and meaning. For example, a key
252 element of survivability is mobility, which could be compromised in boggy landscapes within
253 combat environments, compared to hard ground surfaces, which could afford faster
254 movement and a more stable shooting platform for firing a weapon. A combat shooter would
255 need to become attuned to what both terrains afford their actions. This would help them to
256 understand how to traverse these combat environments and preserve their survivability.

257 The ecological concept of fields of affordances is congruent with the concept of a
258 *taskscape* (performance environment; (Ingold, 2021; Woods et al., 2021). A taskscape is the
259 “entire ensemble of tasks in their mutual interlocking” (Ingold, 2021, p. 195). Woods et al.
260 (2021) emphasise ‘mutual interlocking’, that tasks are never encountered in isolation, but
261 exist in an entanglement of people interacting with one another and with features of a
262 performance environment. By attentively dwelling within specific performance environments
263 during training, people can familiarise themselves with critical informational features, such as
264 objects, events or others within that context (Ingold, 2021). Dwelling involves residing within
265 an environment to gain knowledge of key informational properties and available affordances
266 to ‘know’ how to wayfind through the taskscape (Woods & Davids, 2021) A combatant,
267 therefore, cannot know how to act or what affordances to be responsive to, if not embedded
268 within a training environment directly perceiving similar features which they will experience
269 in combat (Pinder et al., 2011).

270 As Gibson (1979) noted, humans directly perceive information in their environment,
271 gaining a ‘knowledge of’ its features. This notion of direct perception differs to cognitive
272 psychology which advocates that perception is indirect. Indirect perception requires inference
273 and relies on representations formed in the mind from previous experience in a task to shape
274 action (Chamberlin & Magill, 1992; Gregory, 1974; Schmidt, 1988; Schmidt & Lee, 2011).

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275 Gibson (1979) acknowledges that indirect perception is founded on ‘knowledge about’
276 environmental features. Knowledge about the environment is typically a secondary source,
277 symbolic cognition modelling ‘perceived reality’ in the mind of shooters (Gibson, 1966,
278 1979). This sort of knowledge is more widely relied upon in traditional military training
279 environments (e.g., based on instructions and order, maps, floorplans, graphics and images).

280 Indirect perception does not require a shooter to dwell in representative environments,
281 as action is believed to be formed in the mind irrespective of environmental constraints (Raab
282 & Araújo, 2019). However, the shortfall of this viewpoint is that it promotes second-hand
283 (indirect) experience of the combat environment. It neglects the need for adapting skill and
284 performance behaviours to changing information, and the need to navigate to specifying
285 information and away from harmful affordances (Araújo et al., 2019; Gibson, 1979). For
286 these reasons, in ecological psychology, goal-directed behaviour is regulated by ‘knowledge
287 of’ the environment, information directly perceived and experienced.

288 In the combat context, combatants would benefit from dwelling in training
289 environments with opportunities to experience differing possibilities for protection, engaging
290 with varied target types and terrains, involved in events like property clearances. Dwelling in
291 environments with these distinct features experienced in combat zones would develop
292 knowledge of how one could interact with them (Warren, 1984, 2006; Woods et al., 2021).
293 Training in environments that are linear, static and lacking features of actual combat
294 environments could lead to combat shooters being unable to explore rich fields of affordances
295 for wayfinding through combat. Combat shooters must experience relevant fields of
296 affordances to develop knowledge of the combat environment, learning to find and utilise
297 available affordances for achieving task goals, a process referred to as ‘*Enskilment*’ (Ingold,
298 2021). Enskilment is an understanding in practice, where learning is inseparable from doing
299 (Ingold, 2021). A combat shooter becomes enskilled when they can self-regulate actions to

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323 exhibit degenerate properties by nesting two structurally different features (e.g., an enemy
324 target in uniform and an enemy dressed as a civilian), which could have the same output
325 (both threaten combatant survivability through engaging in return fire).

326 Due to degenerate properties of combative military environments, action uncertainty
327 increases with the close likeness of information that may specify fundamentally different
328 actions (e.g., shoot/do not shoot). This is more challenging if a target (foe) masks their
329 information, mimicking other information specifying different (e.g., non-threatening) actions
330 and properties (e.g., using disguise to dress as a ‘friendly’ individual or deception to conceal a
331 weapon). A common task in combat environments is the need to attune to information for
332 ‘friend-or-foe’ discrimination to perceive a target's identity and what threat they may pose to
333 a combatant. This will become a more significant requirement as conflicts become embroiled
334 in urban areas, exacerbated by the area of future cities (OECD & European Commission,
335 2020).

336 Amid action uncertainty, an agent can ‘attune’ to specifying information within the
337 field of affordances if exposed to it repeatedly in practice (Turvey, 1992). By spending time
338 in a performance environment, attuning to relevant information whilst acting in a goal-
339 directed way, the individual will develop an amplified attraction to soliciting affordances and
340 a dampening of behaviour to other less soliciting (non-specifying) environmental features.
341 Skill and expertise in combat shooters are predicated on the dampening of attraction to non-
342 specifying information in identifying the correct targets. For example, when friendly and
343 enemy targets wear the same clothes, combat shooters could learn to dampen their attunement
344 to the dress of targets and amplify it to other relevant features, like expressions, postural
345 stances, or hand-held implements (shape, textures and light-reflecting off an implement's
346 metallic surfaces). By attuning to specifying information and attentively dwelling in combat

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347 environments, action uncertainty will decrease as perception-action coupling of shooters
348 strengthens and become more stable.

349 As a combat shooter learns to perceive specifying information within their
350 environment, they gain a stronger understanding of the properties of the performance
351 environment they inhabit and how those properties can be utilised. This understanding grows
352 a combat shooter's knowledge of how an enemy combatant can manipulate key properties of
353 the environment (e.g., civilians, objects, cover, or camouflage) and the possible ways they
354 can utilise the environment to perturb and threaten opponent survivability.

355 Action uncertainty has been manipulated for years in combat by wearing camouflage
356 to blend in with or mimicking other surrounding informational structures, challenging a
357 shooter's perception of specifying information. Identifying the friend-or-foe nature of targets
358 wearing camouflage profoundly influences task completion times (Vera et al., 2022).
359 Deception like this is also seen in sports contexts like basketball, where a player looking to
360 shoot can perform deceptive movements such as head fakes, ball fakes and high-shot fakes to
361 deceive defenders and make a shot at the basket easier (Meyer et al., 2022). Meyer et al.
362 (2022) highlighted that more successful defending was associated with greater attunement to
363 specifying hip and leg kinematic information. Fixating on the ball or an opponent's head
364 movements may not lead to task success, as they are the main instigators of the deceptive
365 actions in basketball (non-specifying information). This is because movement-system
366 degeneracy can be used to gain an advantage in the competitive context, by conveying
367 deceptive information, increasing the uncertainty about the actions needed to defend the
368 basket.

369 When navigating the taskscape, a combat shooter may be required to make a friend-
370 of-foe decision. If not attuned to information, the shooter might perform the same action on

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371 friendly targets as foes, especially with the high threat to life in combat environments, where
372 a wrong decision could lead to reduced survivability. This risk is reduced with greater
373 attunement and exposure to environmental information whilst attentively dwelling in the
374 performance environment and experiencing its features to become an enskilled wayfinder
375 (Woods et al., 2021).

376

377 Changing Informational Constraints:

378

379 Informational constraints change as one traverses the dynamic field of affordances;
380 new affordances are realised, and old ones disappear (continually dissolving and emerging;
381 (Guerin & Kunkle, 2004; Ingold, 2017). As combatants' navigate the environment, they
382 perceive different information, which adapts their emergent interactions as constraints
383 continuously change (Correia et al., 2013).

384 Changing information constraints is not unique to combat shooting; in sports contexts,
385 a snooker player will have different affordances available on proceeding shots compared to
386 preceding shots. For example, the position of the cue ball may not afford to pot the black if
387 red balls are blocking a pocket, but previously it may have been a viable option.

388 Sailing regattas have rapidly varying emergent constraints at each event (changing
389 wind direction and speed, currents, and other boat positions). Sailors often must adapt their
390 behaviours planned before regatta events as constraints on the performers constantly change
391 their field of affordances, soliciting different actions, which might be functional in one
392 moment and dysfunctional in the following (Araújo et al., 2015).

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393 Similarly, in combat, a foe target that afforded shooting previously due to engaging in
394 a firefight, once out of ammunition and surrendering, no longer requires the same action (e.g.,
395 shoot) due to the constraints of the situation changing. In this way, changing informational
396 constraints constantly shape the combative military environment (Guerin & Kunkle, 2004). If
397 one is not attuned to these changes, an increased level of task ambiguity may be created.

398 Being attuned to changing informational constraints is harmonious with the ideas of
399 enskilment and the concept of wayfinding from Ingold (2021). An enskilled wayfinder is
400 responsive and attentive to subtle rhythms and patterns that emerge within their field of
401 affordances (Woods et al., 2021) Wayfinding is an idea with implications for combat training
402 designs. A recent scoping review (Bale et al., 2024) highlighted the infrequent use of
403 unplanned protocols when testing combat shooting performance. Combat shooters in
404 previous studies knew the location and dress of targets before starting tests (O'Donovan et
405 al., 2023; Pedrosa et al., 2023; Talarico et al., 2023) Knowing exact target locations before
406 starting a protocol is problematic as a combat shooter in a military zone rarely knows the
407 exact locations of affordances or how those affordances will be presented within dynamic
408 environments.

409 Implementing planned protocols reduces the possibilities of informational constraints
410 changing within a combat shooter's field of affordances. Planned protocols could profoundly
411 influence a combat shooter's attunement to the specifying features of combat shooting
412 environments. For example, planned protocols could inhibit the development of visual
413 scanning behaviours (Williams et al., 2004), shaping how one presents themselves in
414 'addressing' the environment (Travassos et al., 2012) (i.e., regulating body orientation for
415 using cover while shooting), or how one can share affordances with others in a team (Silva et
416 al., 2013). Not including dynamic informational constraints in training removes opportunities
417 for enskilling a wayfinding combatant. (Travassos et al., 2012).

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442 could use an actual bowler in batting practice to maintain information functionality (Pinder et
443 al., 2011), but this bowler might bowl similar balls constantly in training, or the fielders could
444 occupy the same space throughout a practice session. In these cases, the information in the
445 environment has remained somewhat stable, lacking contextual variation. To address this
446 challenge, coaches could design instability into the training environment to foster task
447 ambiguity to a representative level observed in competition to improve action fidelity and
448 increase an athlete's adaptability.

449 In combat shooting methodologies, representative levels of task ambiguity in combat
450 shooting could be achieved by changing target dress codes and hand-held implements,
451 expanding the field of possible affordances (e.g., increasing the number of targets), and
452 changing the constraints of different training tasks to promote the idea of 'repetition without
453 repetition' (Bernstein, 1967).

454 Task ambiguity could help trainers to create high levels of uncertainty in training to
455 replicate the changing information constraints of performance contexts. By wayfinding in
456 representative affordance fields full of action uncertainty and changing information
457 constraints, a combat shooter can be guided to form functional adaptive behaviours, which
458 transfer directly from testing to military combative environments. This has been observed in
459 competitive sport performance contexts (e.g., (Andrews et al., 2024).

460 As highlighted in Biggs et al. (2023), the combative environment is constantly
461 changing, with opposing sides trying to outsmart each other's tactical decisions and exploit
462 weaknesses to gain competitive advantages. Biggs et al. (2023) discussed how combat
463 shooting testing is heavily documented, decoupled into simpler task components, and highly
464 regulated in large military organisations. This structured testing environment may not foster
465 the conditions required for developing adaptive actions out in the field. High structure

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466 mitigates changing information constraints, action uncertainty, providing stable, unchanging
467 fields of affordances, leading to minimal task ambiguity and overly stable training
468 environments. To develop knowledge of the environment and learn to wayfind through
469 combative military environments with high levels of task ambiguity, a re-think of how
470 combat shooters are trained and assessed is required.

471 Highly structured, decoupled training protocols which do not include representative
472 task ambiguity are inadequate for assessing a combat shooter's survivability in these
473 environments. When assessing combat shooting performance, practitioners should change the
474 informational constraints of combat situations to understand the level of attunement to the
475 combat environment dynamics.

Conclusion

478 In this position paper, we have suggested how an ecological dynamics theoretical
479 framework can be used to create highly representative training environments in combat
480 shooting. Training for shooters could exploit greater task ambiguity to address the lack of
481 attunement between a performer and the dynamic military contexts which they inhabit. These
482 ideas imply that practitioners should include a representative level of task ambiguity when
483 assessing combatant survivability. To increase task ambiguity, practitioners should
484 manipulate task constraints to create a challenging environment full of 'safe uncertainty',
485 facilitating awareness of the dynamic, combative military environments (Woods & Davids,
486 2021).

487 Re-imagining combat testing is necessary to develop representative environments in
488 training and assessment, an innovation in practice that could lead to better enskilment and
489 survivability of combat shooters. Through the ecological dynamics approach, it may be

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490 possible to understand the benefits of enhanced perception-action coupling. These theoretical
491 ideas could improve understanding of how to manipulate constraints to shape the
492 performance of combat shooters, helping them to manage the ambiguous, uncertain nature of
493 modern military environments. The concept of task ambiguity is relevant for all performance
494 contexts and not just combat shooting; it needs to be carefully implemented in skills training
495 programmes.

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