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*Decision-making training in sporting officials: Past, present and future*

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1 **Abstract**

2 Objective: Decision-making has commonly been cited as the most important skill for successful  
3 performance in sports officials, however insight into how this critical skill is improved through off-  
4 field training has lagged. The overall aim of this paper is to provide a narrative review concerning the  
5 evolution of off-field decision-making training approaches in interactor sporting officials (i.e., those  
6 with high movement and perceptual demands). This paper will reconcile these past forms of training  
7 with theories and concepts discussed in the officiating and sporting literature, with subsequent  
8 recommendations for future investigations.

9 Design: Narrative review.

10 Method: 10 peer-reviewed studies on the development of decision-making in interactor sporting  
11 officials were comprehensively scrutinized.

12 Results: Decision-making training studies were found to use diverse methodological approaches and  
13 theoretical perspectives. There are several limitations in the decision-making training literature for  
14 officials, such as limited representativeness in training, leading to a more decontextualized approach.

15 Conclusions: Future studies should consider stronger representativeness by including more  
16 competition constraints into training decision-making, such as contextual factors. Reflective training  
17 and individualized approaches may be an appropriate training methodology to train officials for  
18 adequacy, rather than accuracy.

19

20 Keywords: sport officials; umpires; referees; decision-making; representative design; training

21

## 22 **Introduction**

23 Sports officials are key stakeholders within the sporting environment along with players,  
24 coaches and spectators. The main role of an official is to decide whether any infringements of the  
25 rules have occurred and to ensure the game is played in a fair and safe manner. There is increased  
26 scrutiny of officials' decisions as they have the potential to influence a game's outcome which may  
27 impact team/club performance and revenue (Larkin et al., 2011). Due to the high expectation for  
28 accuracy in officials' decisions from players, coaches, sporting organizations, and spectators,  
29 decision-making is commonly cited as the most important skill for sports officials (Kittel et al.,  
30 2019b; Morris & O'Connor, 2016). Anecdotally, officials develop decision-making in several ways,  
31 including competitive match experience, officiating their peers in simulated drills, reviewing and  
32 reflecting upon game footage, and completing structured video-based training. Most recently, as could  
33 be seen in UEFA TV series, *Man in the Middle* (UEFA, 2019), soccer referees also started to perform  
34 on-field decision-making training, under physical strain, to simulate on-field review with the video  
35 assistant referee system. Different approaches such as these are not always grounded in theory, can be  
36 spontaneously introduced and more empirical understanding is required for these innovations. Given  
37 the importance of this skill to officiating performance, there is a need for evidence-based and  
38 efficacious methods to train decision-making in this population (MacMahon et al., 2007b). Examples  
39 of deliberate practice programs show elite football referees use on-field simulation training up to 10%  
40 of their training hours (Samuel, 2017). While officiating decision-making has received increased  
41 research attention over the past three decades (Aragão e Pina et al., 2018; Hancock et al., 2020), the  
42 design and testing of theoretically-grounded, decision-making training tools for officials has only  
43 recently emerged in the past 15 years.

44 To inform training approach, numerous conceptual frameworks have been proposed to  
45 describe sport officials' decision-making. A social cognition perspective focuses on how social  
46 information (i.e., during a judgement situation) is perceived, encoded, transferred to and recalled from  
47 memory (Bless, 2004; Plessner & Harr, 2006). Another cognitivist approach, 'take-the-first' heuristic  
48 theory proposes probabilistic judgements in officials' use of perceptual information to make decisions  
49 (Johnson & Raab, 2003), including subjective thresholds officials may apply to their rule application

50 (Rabb et al., 2019, 2020). To account for time pressures in officials' decision making, naturalistic and  
51 recognition-primed paradigms suggests officials don't often generate and compare different options,  
52 but rather use prior experience and intuitive processes to rapidly categorise decision situations (Klein,  
53 2008; Mascarenhas et al., 2005). Finally, ecological dynamics advances a non-representational  
54 approach suggesting perception and cognition are embedded and an embodied part of officials'  
55 decision-making in their practice environment (Araujo et al., 2007; Russell et al 2019). Together,  
56 these different theoretical assumptions provide foundations for interpreting how sport officials'  
57 decisions occur through myriads of perceptual-cognitive process and influences of external constraints  
58 on decision-making. As such, a conceptual debate has developed in the literature comparing more  
59 cognitivist, representational interpretations of sport officials' decisions (e.g., bias, underlying  
60 cognitive mechanisms) to more non-representational perspectives that emphasise deliberate game  
61 management aspects of decisions and accounting for broader affordances and ecological constraints  
62 acting on sport officials' rule application.

63         The complexity of decision-making demands for sporting officials can differ depending on  
64 the sport officiated. The unique decision-making constraints of particular sports may require different  
65 decision-making training approaches (and intersection of approaches) for different sporting officials.  
66 To help explain the differences in sporting officials' performance demands, MacMahon et al. (2014)  
67 classified officials by their respective movement, perceptual and competition interaction demands.  
68 This resulted in three specific groups of sports officials including, *monitors* (e.g., gymnastics judge),  
69 *reactors* (e.g., tennis line judge), and *interactors* (e.g., soccer referee) (MacMahon et al., 2014).  
70 Interactor sport officials have greater movement and fitness requirements (and changing physical  
71 workloads) and are required to process multiple decision cues and interact with greater numbers of  
72 players (most often team sport settings). For example, interactor officials' decisions are often made  
73 spontaneously and under strict time and information constraints (Mascarenhas et al., 2005a), require  
74 deep prior knowledge and efficiency in appraising and processing perceptual information (Raab et al.,  
75 2020), and involve a high degree of mental and physical fatigue (Bloß et al., 2020; Samuel et al.,

76 2019). Such decision-making demands are evident in the central official's responsibilities in soccer,  
77 Australian football, hockey, and other team-based, interactive ball-game sports.

78         The number of decisions made during gameplay for soccer referees is found to be extensive,  
79 with studies reporting the number of penalties/free kicks an official makes can range between 15  
80 (Emmonds et al., 2015) to 44 per game (Elsworthy et al., 2014; Helsen & Bultynck, 2004). While the  
81 above numbers represent the number of penalties/free kicks awarded, officials may face upwards of  
82 887 decision 'moments' per game (Neville et al., 2016). These moments include repeated instances  
83 throughout the match where an official does not say anything or make an observable decision; the  
84 official has consciously considered the play must continue uninterrupted. Notably, interactor officials  
85 are generally the main focus of sporting officials decision-making training research (MacMahon et al.,  
86 2014). While we acknowledge the different decision-making challenges associated with officiating  
87 any sport, this paper solely focuses on interactor officials who have high physical, perceptual,  
88 interaction and in-game decision-making demands. The inherent differences of officiating different  
89 interactor sports present certain constraints that should be addressed in decision-making training  
90 approach. For instance, there are three or four Australian football umpires officiating per game,  
91 whereas soccer and rugby involves one central referee with some decision-making assistance from the  
92 two assistant referees (Samuel et al., 2020).

93         There is conjecture in the literature whether interactor officials' decisions should be made in  
94 isolation, or with consideration given to previous judgements and contextual factors such as score,  
95 time and position on the playing area (Corrigan et al., 2018; Kittel et al., 2019d; Morris & O'Connor,  
96 2016). Research has suggested there are a number of 'unwritten rules' interactor officials consider  
97 when making decisions, implying contextual judgements and conscious, game management strategies  
98 are often at the forefront of their decision-making process (Mascarenhas et al., 2002; Samuel et al.,  
99 2020). Interactor officials may consider the behaviour of players over a longer match periods, such as  
100 aggressive behaviours (Jones et al., 2002) and verbal interactions (Cunningham et al., 2018;  
101 Cunningham et al., 2015). Due to the unique constraints on officiating decisions in interactor sports,  
102 officials may deviate from isolated rule application. Russell et al. (2019) describe decision-making for  
103 officials as an 'emergent process' that requires an ongoing balance of certain game imperatives in

104 their decision-making, such as fairness, game control, and entertainment. Through this, the official's  
105 decision-making allows them to maintain control and preserve integrity of the match.

106 It has been acknowledged that direct participation in sport, whether playing or officiating, is  
107 the ideal mode of developing sport-specific decision-making skill (MacMahon et al., 2007a). For  
108 athletes and officials alike, there are only a finite amount of competitive games available to participate  
109 in, with each game causing high physical loads (Weston et al., 2012). Therefore, there is a need to  
110 develop off-field methods to develop decision-making skill. Outside of competition, small-sided  
111 games are a common training modality incorporating decision-making, tactical, technical and physical  
112 elements present in a competitive game (O'Connor et al., 2017). Although beneficial for athletes,  
113 officials cannot commonly use this as a training modality due to logistical and pragmatic issues of  
114 bringing in players to role-play and create realistic decision-making scenarios. Due to these  
115 limitations, officials are generally not privy to the same deliberate practice hours as athletes. One  
116 method to potentially overcome this limitation is video-based decision-making training methods.  
117 These programs have the potential to accelerate deliberate practice hours in keeping with Ericsson et  
118 al. (1993)'s seminal concept of 10,000 hours or 10 years of deliberate practice to attaining expertise.  
119 Under the 10,000 hour rule, officials would need to officiate an unattainable number of 5,000 games  
120 to become experts (Larkin et al., 2017). As most studies aiming to develop decision-making in  
121 officials investigate non-elite participants (Kittel et al., 2020b; Larkin et al., 2017; Schweizer et al.,  
122 2011), this is to accelerate expertise in these cohorts to that of elite decision-makers.

123 Anecdotally, current teaching methods in both domestic and international federations include  
124 the implementation of on field teaching scenarios that utilize players whom replicate in-game  
125 scenarios. Sessions are designed to incorporate a physical demand such as a sprinting action and  
126 subsequently a decision will end each repetition. These types of scenarios are controlled in nature as  
127 they are focused on a specific topic. The environment presents limitations as there are no fans, the  
128 players typically do not replicate a high speed of play, and the singular topic reflects a fabricated  
129 scenario where a decision is required. Classroom training, on the other hand, is often a review of  
130 recent games and situations where decision, positioning, player management errors are highlighted  
131 with the intention for the individual or group to learn from. To provide a training stimulus for

132 decision-making skill similar to classroom training described above, video-based training has  
133 emerged as a means to enhance decision-making skill for both athletes and officials (Larkin et al.,  
134 2015). A key theoretical rationale of video-based training is to develop representative tasks with  
135 similar constraints to competition (Pinder et al., 2011). Therefore, the key aim of a video-based  
136 training program, is to present video of a representative game situations promoting a perceptual-  
137 cognitive response in relation to the decision event (Larkin et al., 2015; Mascarenhas et al., 2005b).  
138 Representative learning design has been used in the sport literature to design tasks which are more  
139 similar to competition by including constraints that are experienced in games (Hadlow et al., 2018;  
140 Pinder et al., 2015). Mascarenhas et al. (2002) highlighted this by suggesting training programs can be  
141 more representative by emphasizing the extreme time pressures experienced by official's in-game  
142 within the training environment. Similar to high representativeness, it is imperative for video-based  
143 training approaches to be ecologically valid by having similar perceptual cues to that of competition  
144 (Araujo et al., 2007). As discussed by O'Brien and Rynne (2020), existing video-based training have  
145 limited representativeness by isolating decision-making, rather than incorporating constraints of  
146 competition.

147 Crucially, O'Brien and Rynne (2020) argue that training tools aimed to improve officials'  
148 performance can tend to be too narrow and passive pedagogies and often neglecting to account for  
149 officials' prior knowledge and sociocultural context. Incorporating more holistic and constructivist  
150 perspectives of officiating performance development (recognising environmental influences and  
151 individual constraints) is recommended to create contextually appropriate training stimulus. Socio-  
152 cultural constructivist views would consider how sport officials' decision-making training is situated  
153 and constructed within the specific performance environment. Learning designs within these  
154 perspectives would promote collaborative, personal and contextualised approaches in which training  
155 avoid prescribing decision problems that reflect a more deficit-based approach (O'Brien & Rynne,  
156 2020). Another limitation of video-based training is the view that there is one putative correct  
157 decision for every scenario (O'Brien & Rynne, 2020). When the putative decision is subjective in  
158 nature, it can be difficult to definitively determine whether the reference decision is correct or lead to  
159 conjecture on the 'correct decision' for different scenarios. Sometimes, these decisions need to be

160 adequate rather than accurate, taking into account certain contextual factors (Helsen et al., 2019;  
161 Schweizer & Plessner, 2016). Bordner (2019) recommends accuracy is often unattainable, and simpler  
162 with more refined criteria (e.g., adjudicating the ‘forward pass’ in Rugby) should be established in  
163 officials’ training and assessment to overcome these challenges. This translates to aspects of  
164 officiating practice that contribute to how accuracy is observed, such as training officials’ to how they  
165 craft rule application and incorporate values in their decisions (fairness, game flow). Further, to  
166 account for broader social and cultural values that underpin perceptions of what is ‘accurate’, working  
167 to find alignment between stakeholder’s perspectives (players, coaches, and officials) should be  
168 sought as a source for training design. This notion of adequacy in decision-making contradicts every  
169 scenario having a correct decision, which may enable officials to maintain control and preserve  
170 integrity of the match (Russell et al., 2019). For a practical example, Raab et al. (2020) explain how  
171 when a referee approaches a subjective middle ground between foul/no foul, they adjust their decision  
172 in how they believe it would more appropriately manage the game.

173         The overall aim of this paper is to provide a narrative review concerning the evolution of off-  
174 field decision-making training approaches in interactor sporting officials (i.e., with high movement  
175 and perceptual demands). This paper will reconcile these past forms of training with theories and  
176 concepts discussed in the officiating and sporting literature, with subsequent recommendations for  
177 future investigations. These recommendations are grounded in key theoretical concepts such as  
178 representative learning design and ecological dynamics. While more scoping systematic reviews of  
179 sport official research are available (Aragão e Pina et al., 2018; Hancock et al., 2020), our goal here is  
180 to focus on a small subset of these studies (i.e., decision-making training interventions) that were  
181 identified based on these reviews and other data resources. An outline of past approaches and their  
182 theoretical explanations for improving interactor officials’ in-game decision-making is provided in  
183 this paper (as a way to compare and transfer learnings between interactor sports), with a particular  
184 emphasis on how new technological tools may help supplement more general officiating education  
185 and development of decision-making skills. As a result, this review of the decision-making training in  
186 sport officiating research provides a summary and synthesis of approaches for strengthening future



187 decision-making training structures and practices, particularly as sports officials adopt training  
188 protocols from other sporting codes.

## 189 **Method**

190 A narrative review was the preferred approach for two reasons: (i) collectively, the authors  
191 have published several studies on decision-making and training in sport officials to support a sound  
192 understanding of this literature base, and b) considering the narrow representation of decision-making  
193 training studies in sport official research as documented in recent systematic reviews (Aragão e Pina  
194 et al., 2018; Hancock et al., 2020) and primary readings in sport official science (Livingston et al.,  
195 2020; MacMahon et al., 2014), we drew on referencing records informed by these research  
196 compilations initially.

197 As defined in the introduction, those categorised as ‘interactor’ officials were included in this  
198 review (MacMahon et al., 2014). This included studies that involved decision-making where there  
199 was a direct infringement between two players of opposing teams. This has also been labeled as ‘one  
200 on one’ decision-making in several studies, to distinguish between offside decision-making which has  
201 commonly been examined (Aragão e Pina et al., 2018; Boyer et al., 2020). As such, studies including  
202 offside decision-making were not included.

203 Based on the relevance of study titles, we collated an original list from these primary sources  
204 and then conducted a secondary manual search of several databases (Web of Science, SportDiscus,  
205 and PsycInfo). Using key terms for interactor sport officials (‘referee’, ‘umpire’, ‘sport official’) AND  
206 ‘training’, ‘decisions’, and ‘decision-making’, combinations resulted in one additional study for  
207 inclusion.

208 Full articles (n = 10) were shared among the authors to adjudge if they meet our narrative  
209 inclusion: studies where interactor sport officials were the primary participants and a training  
210 intervention has been employed that assessed changes overtime in a decision-making performance  
211 variables. MacMahon et al. (2007b) was included because of study design and training implications.  
212 This formal process helped reduce researchers’ bias for the current narrative review by: a) relying on  
213 other more larger scoping reviews as a basis for article selection and expert conclusions about

214 decision-making training intervention in interactor sport officials; and b) allowing the researchers' to  
215 establish inter-group consensus concerning article inclusion.

## 216 **Results**

217 Studies are noted in-text if they are not explicitly a training intervention (identified with an  
218 asterisk \*). Figure 1 provides a brief illustration of past approaches for decision-making training and  
219 its evolution over time, and how these approaches have begun to be more representative over time.

220 \*\*\* **Insert figure 1 (timeline) around here\*\*\***

221 *First video-based training.* One of the first pioneering investigations in this area examined  
222 the effectiveness of video-based training on rugby union referees decision-making performance  
223 (Mascarenhas et al., 2005b). This intervention utilised 25 video clips from a first-person perspective  
224 (recorded by mobile sideline camera, level to play) with the aim of developing referees' decision-  
225 making accuracy and shared consistency. Viewing perspective from a first-, rather than third-person  
226 perspective (similar to research conducted in athletes (Farrow, 2007)) theoretically affords stronger  
227 representative design (Petit & Ripoll, 2008). Referee decision-making accuracy was assessed before  
228 and after an intervention involving a set of training clips accompanied by a senior, high-performing  
229 referee's interpretation of the decision situations. This interpretation included the decision, rule-based  
230 reasoning, and explanation of underlying cues used to reach the decision. Referees were asked to  
231 make an immediate decision in order to attempt to better represent the naturalistic conditions of how  
232 actual match decision-making for the referee. Results suggested the training intervention was effective  
233 for lower ranked officials, but not higher ranked officials, implying experience level is an important  
234 factor to consider when developing decision-making training programs. This training process is said  
235 to help orientate officials' attentional focus, reduce mental workload, and improve decision accuracy  
236 (Mascarenhas et al., 2005b).

237 *Information priming strategies\**. Directing officials to essential decision information prior to  
238 making decisions is another approach, described as information priming. MacMahon et al. (2007b)  
239 developed a video-based infraction detection task for basketball referees. Prior to testing referees'  
240 accuracy to detect fouls and basketball violations, referees were engaged in different priming

241 strategies (i.e., either knowledge-priming by completing a rules test, or infraction-priming by  
242 watching a video of defensive fouls) to improve decision cue recognition. The results suggested  
243 priming strategies as a mode of training didn't demonstrate clear improvements in referees' infraction  
244 detection, however the researchers discovered that infraction detection did improve based on aspects  
245 of video clip difficulty and format of sequencing. The authors suggest decision-making training tools  
246 for referees should focus on increasing perceptual difficulty from on-ball to off-ball infractions.

247 **Multiple-cue learning.** Interactor officials must attend to numerous decision cues in their  
248 decision-making which has been the focus of some training studies. Plessner et al. (2009) draw on  
249 Brunswik (1955)'s multiple-cue learning framework (or, probabilistic functionalism) that suggests  
250 how learning occurs through repeated exposure to probabilistic information. It proposed that soccer  
251 officials' decision-making is mainly intuitive or automatic compared to deliberate (i.e., integrating  
252 rule-based knowledge in a serial manner (Schweizer et al., 2011)), and requires multiple cues rather  
253 than a single decision cue. Therefore, the quality of officials' decisions may be improved through  
254 training that helps officials acquire links between multiple cues and the decision criteria through  
255 automatic learning process and immediate feedback. Schweizer et al. (2011) developed a web-based,  
256 decision-making training tool (SET; Schiedsrichter-Entscheidungs-Training) aiming to improve  
257 soccer officials' intuitive decision-making processes. A database of video sequences of foul situations  
258 (i.e., physical contact between opposing players) was developed (144 clips in total) and matched with  
259 the correct decision provided by soccer league senior refereeing administrators (i.e., expert modelled  
260 feedback). The authors emphasize such decision-making training tools should be predicated on single  
261 and immediate feedback in order to reinforce relationships between decision cues and criteria for  
262 isolated decision situations. This is seen as vital in categorization tasks for enhancing intuitive  
263 processing as opposed to more deliberate processing of decision situations.

264 **Implicit learning approach.** Feedback to support learning is a common feature of video-  
265 based training programs in sports officials (Kittel et al., 2019a; Schweizer et al., 2011). An alternative  
266 approach is an implicit one where officials receive no instruction or feedback while undertaking the  
267 video-based training. Receiving less instruction and feedback during training has been reported to  
268 lead to performance improvements in stressful environments (i.e., competitive games) (Raab, 2003).

269 When deliberating over a more explicit (i.e., feedback and/or instruction) or implicit approach, there  
270 is a trade-off that must be considered for the duration of the training program. Explicit instruction can  
271 lead to more rapid performance gains, yet lower retention of knowledge and decreased competitive  
272 performance (Raab, 2003; Smeeton et al., 2005). For video-based training, this means existing explicit  
273 approaches use short video-based training programs with less clips. Larkin et al. (2017) investigated  
274 an implicit approach using a significantly greater amount of decision-making scenarios from a match  
275 broadcast perspective in training Australian football umpires (1,040 total clips over 12 weeks). While  
276 the results demonstrated there were improvements for participants within the training group, there  
277 were greater improvements for the less experienced participants. The results indicated the significant  
278 differences between the less experienced and experienced group prior to the intervention, but over  
279 time the two groups converged, with the less experienced umpires performing to a similar level on the  
280 video-based test as the experienced umpires following the training program. Therefore, the authors  
281 suggested observation of match play decision-making situations may hasten skill development in less  
282 experienced umpires; however, experienced umpires are less susceptible to change with this mode of  
283 training. Therefore, it may be experienced umpires may require more representative training programs  
284 for skill development.

285 ***Visual search strategies\****. Visual attention is sometimes regarded as a component skill to  
286 judgement and decision-making in sport, with researchers suggesting a better understanding of referee  
287 gaze behaviour can improve training and education of visual search patterns, and in-turn decision-  
288 making (Abernethy & Russell, 1987; Hancock & Ste-Marie, 2013). A challenge is most studies that  
289 compare elite and non-elite referees use eye movement recorders with pre-recorded video clip  
290 compromising the representativeness (Spitz et al., 2016), and sometimes showing no differences  
291 between experienced and less experienced officials (Hancock & Ste-Marie, 2013). Also, using visual  
292 search patterns alone as a proxy for novice-expert decision-making differences can neglect to account  
293 for underlying meaning attributed to such visual cues in decision-making. No studies to date have  
294 attempted to design training to enhance referee gaze and visual search strategies, but some newer  
295 approaches that record officials' gaze behaviour during their performance using mobile eye tracking  
296 devices might be a first step.

297            **Blurred video training.** Research has suggested incorrect decisions are often made by sports  
298 officials when there is missing information leading to a breakdown of the decision-making process  
299 (MacMahon & Mildenhall, 2012). van Biemen et al. (2018) removed key perceptual information by  
300 contrasting blurred and normal video footage in a video-based training intervention, with 70 clips per  
301 condition. Results demonstrated the blurred video training group experienced greater training  
302 adaptations than the normal group, which the authors attributed to being more effective identifying  
303 key kinematic information that relates to a foul, rather than focusing on superficial information.  
304 Approaches such as blurred training may assist officials with removing irrelevant information to the  
305 decision-making process, and focus on more relevant cues.

306            **Physical exertion simulations.** Given the high physical loads officials experience within  
307 games (Blair et al., 2018; Elsworth et al., 2014), researchers have investigated the influence of  
308 decision-making under high physical stress in off-field settings. Studies in Australian football suggest  
309 decision-making is not negatively impacted under physical exertion, whether that be during the  
310 quarter breaks of a game (Larkin et al., 2014) or after repeat maximal intensity 300m running efforts  
311 (Paradis et al., 2016). To further this area of knowledge, Kittel et al. (2019a) examined whether  
312 incorporating video-based training into high intensity interval training is a more beneficial approach  
313 for developing decision-making than at rest. The authors concluded this training method had no  
314 additional benefit to standard video-based training in the development of decision-making. Although  
315 physical exertion is a key constraint of in-game officiating, there may be more representative methods  
316 as this not appear to negatively impact decision-making.

317            Samuel et al. (2019) introduced one of the first representative approaches to off-field  
318 decision-making training through a simulator strategy. Officials were required to exert physical effort  
319 (i.e., running on a treadmill at varying paces) while making decisions on two condensed video  
320 recordings (each 30 minutes) of a full soccer match (90 minutes). Officials were required to make  
321 decisions in either a mixed order or the actual order they occurred in the match. Assessment of the  
322 soccer referees' decision accuracy differed depending on the observed decision event. In assessing  
323 officials' decision-making after the training, for less complex decisions (i.e., 'out of play') officials  
324 were 74% accurate, for 'careless fouls' 63% accurate, and for decisions deeming a yellow or red card

325 officials were 26% accurate. Accuracy of yellow or red card decisions were slightly less accurate  
326 when video situations were mixed (21%) compared to decision events in context (29%), and finally,  
327 decisions were less accurate during final stages of the match. While officials' felt the training was  
328 moderately representative of their actual performance, the authors suggest a simulator approach can  
329 be an innovative way to train sequential decision-making and manage influences of fatigue on  
330 decision-making.

331 **3D virtual training environments.** More recent digital technology advancements use 3D  
332 virtual environments in officials' training to provide opportunities for increased experience to actual  
333 real-world officiating settings. It is suggested that immersion in computerized environments similar to  
334 the real stadium atmosphere can help soccer referees experience challenging decision situations to  
335 decrease decision error and become better accustomed to spectator presence they may encounter  
336 during actual performance (Gulec et al., 2019). Gulec et al. (2019) used this form of training  
337 proposing in their study it allows for the learner to experiment in a safe practice environment prior to  
338 the risks and difficulties that come from real-world decision situations. While enhancing decision  
339 accuracy was not an explicit purpose of the training and therefore not considered an intervention  
340 similar to other studies outlined, participating officials identify the utility of first-person training  
341 experience and game likeness. In the future, studies of the impact virtual environments have on the  
342 transfer of learning and decision-making skill needs to be evaluated further to prove benefits and  
343 utility of such modalities.

344 **360°VR training.** With technology developing, virtual reality has emerged as a tool to  
345 develop perceptual-cognitive skills for athletes (see Faure et al. (2020) for a review). VR has been  
346 acknowledged as an expensive tool (Düking et al., 2018), however, leading to technology such as  
347 360°VR which is a 'middle ground' between VR and the screen-based approaches described  
348 throughout (Fadde & Zaichkowsky, 2018). A training intervention examining 360°VR and the  
349 previously used match broadcast video as training groups, in addition to control (i.e., no training) was  
350 examined over five weeks in Australian football umpires (Kittel et al., 2020b). Although no  
351 significant results were evident immediately post training, the 360°VR scored significantly higher  
352 decision-making accuracy than the control five weeks following training in a retention test. No

353 differences were observed for match broadcast video between the control and 360°VR groups.  
354 Further, participants rated the 360°VR video to be more relevant and enjoyable than match broadcast  
355 video, with no differences observed for concentration and effort. Authors attributed the positive  
356 finding for 360°VR compared to control to the greater ecological validity (i.e., how similar to game  
357 decision-making) of this video mode (Kittel et al., 2020b). Further research may need to investigate  
358 this technology in sports officials.

359

360 \*\*\* Insert table 1 around here\*\*\*

361

## 362 Discussion

363 As evident in this review, video-based training has emerged for different interactor officials,  
364 with a particular focus on both soccer and Australian football officials. Most studies have isolated  
365 decision-making which may limit the representative of such training, and has been described as a  
366 more ‘decontextualised’ approach (O’Brien & Rynne, 2020). Further, the ecological validity has not  
367 been optimal in existing training which commonly uses match broadcast video to present video that  
368 may not have similar perceptual cues to competition. Most studies included in this review have  
369 examined decision-making interventions in non-elite officials, subsequently limiting the ability  
370 reliably assess in-game decision-making changes following the interventions. No studies in sports  
371 officials have examined whether reflective learning may be an appropriate intervention approach for  
372 sports officiating, as has been conducted using video-based training for decision-making accuracy.

373 Most of the studies in this review were not representative of in-game decision-making, as  
374 most trained in a decontextualized manner, without consideration of the constraints surrounding the  
375 official in-game (O’Brien & Rynne, 2020; Russell et al., 2019). This suggests research may need to  
376 shift from isolated decision-making approaches, to incorporating specific constraints of the  
377 environment (i.e., a more representative approach) (Pinder et al., 2015). Table 1 illustrates the number  
378 of studies in this area which have integrated game constraints (e.g. context, fatigue) for a more  
379 representative training tool. The non-shaded boxes represents where no studies have incorporated the  
380 constraints listed. Evidently, there is scope for future research to combine more constraints into

381 decision-making training using more ecologically valid technologies. Samuel et al. (2019) is an  
382 example of incorporating constraints such as physical exertion and contextual judgement into a  
383 decision-making training protocol. It is important to tailor the constraints to the specific needs of the  
384 unique officiating population. There are, however, several other factors which may influence  
385 decision-making in-game, and need to be managed by the official. These include position on the field  
386 (Corrigan et al., 2018); crowd noise (Balmer et al., 2007); physical exertion (Bloß et al., 2020);  
387 managing interactions with players (Cunningham et al., 2018); communicating with other match  
388 officials (e.g. assistant referees, VAR) (Spitz et al., 2020); contextual judgements (Burnett et al.,  
389 2017); and sources of stress (Anshel et al., 2013). Each of the above are examples of constraints  
390 officials must manage in competition to effectively apply the laws of the game (i.e., decision-making)  
391 and manage unfolding game activities. Including one, or multiple constraints would therefore lead to a  
392 more representative approach (Pinder et al., 2015). It is important to consider, how constraints  
393 introduced in training can have implications on the ecological validity and representativeness of  
394 training as dictated by development period. For example, it may not be beneficial to initially include  
395 all constraints or expose officials' to more complex context, dilemmas and constraints. Subsequently,  
396 a more representative approach that appeals to the development level would theoretically lead to  
397 stronger transfer to the field (Hadlow et al., 2018). Such methods would be less 'decontextualised'  
398 (O'Brien & Rynne, 2020; Russell et al., 2019), and overcome limitations of previous approaches.

399 As highlighted throughout this paper, match broadcast video has been a common method to  
400 present sport-specific decision-making training in officials. This is due to the ease of capture and  
401 minimal financial implications of using this viewpoint. Samuel et al. (2019) highlight virtual reality or  
402 first person videos can be costly and time-intensive to develop, leading to the common use of match  
403 broadcast. This technology lacks ecological validity due to the different perceptual information to  
404 what is received in-game (Kittel et al., 2019c). As such, 360°VR emerges as a more ecologically valid  
405 training tool for officials (Kittel et al., 2020b) and athletes (Pagé et al., 2019; Panchuk et al., 2018),  
406 researchers must consider whether the extra financial costs associated are worth creating a more  
407 representative training tool. This type of technology may also be a tool where new decision scenarios  
408 from recent games are included to present current sporting tendencies. Panchuk et al. (2018) and



409 Kittel et al. (2020a) discuss how 360°VR is commercially available at affordable prices, which may  
410 lead to this tool being more widely used. As discussed with a SWOT analysis by Kittel et al. (2020a),  
411 360°VR has greater ecological validity and behavioral correspondence through the head movements  
412 afforded. This allows opportunities to officials to scan and proactively search for possible  
413 infringements. A current limitation of this technology is that it has only been investigated using a  
414 stationary perspective, yet there is opportunity to develop moving 360°VR as technology develops  
415 (Kittel et al., 2020a).

416 First-person video has been utilized in studies developing interventions for offside decision-  
417 making in assistant soccer referees (Catteeuw et al., 2010a; Catteeuw et al., 2010b; Put et al., 2013;  
418 Put et al., 2016; Put et al., 2015). This is appropriate for simulating tasks such as offside due to the  
419 minimal injury risks posed to the players being filmed. However, filming simulated tackles in soccer,  
420 rugby union or Australian football would either pose an injury risk to players or not be realistic.  
421 Therefore to achieve ecological validity in video-based tasks, researchers and practitioners must  
422 consider using first-person video filmed from small-sided games (Kittel et al., 2019c) or competitive  
423 games (Mascarenhas et al., 2005b). Given the call for less decontextualized approaches (O'Brien &  
424 Rynne, 2020), first-person game footage may be the optimal method.

425 Most commonly, training approaches are historically aimed to foster officials' ability to  
426 identify the correct decision outcome (Larkin et al., 2017; Schweizer et al., 2011; van Biemen et al.,  
427 2018). To determine the correct decision for a game, video test or training intervention researchers use  
428 several subject matter experts (i.e., elite referee/umpire coaches) engaging in a discussion (Corrigan et  
429 al., 2018). This highlights one difficulty of identifying the correct decision outcome for referees and  
430 umpires in training studies. This quantitative approach (i.e., identifying the correct decision) has  
431 drawn debate from the qualitative research field (O'Brien & Rynne, 2020), outlining how existing  
432 research 'misses the mark' with decontextualized training approaches by only quantifying the  
433 accuracy and number of decisions, rather than qualitatively understanding the context around  
434 decisions. For example, two decision scenarios are not the exact same (how the infringement  
435 occurred, the time of the game, previous decisions made etc.). Therefore, using one putative correct  
436 decision may not be appropriate as officials need to develop the skill of differentiating their decisions

437 relative to its context. Only one study in this review used assessed the effect of contextual decision-  
438 making (Samuel et al. 2019). Raab et al. (2020) recognise the increased use of qualitative methods to  
439 understand context and constraints in officiating decision-making that has implications for training  
440 strategy (Boyer et al., 2019; Russell et al., 2019). Future research should shift towards assessing and  
441 training decision-making with consideration of context, to enable officials to manage their  
442 environment adequately through their decisions (Russell et al., 2019).

443 Standards for expertise in officiating performance, outside decision accuracy, will inevitably  
444 need to develop sport-specific definitions and emphasise individualized learning approaches. For  
445 example, newer recommendations on expertise development in high performance sport officials  
446 suggest a need for understanding how officials plan and orientate their complex modes of learning  
447 (O'Brien & Rynne, 2020). When determining expertise in officials, there is a need to shift from  
448 weakness-based approaches to more strength-based pedagogical approaches. This considers the  
449 multitude of 'strategies, tactics, techniques, and subtext sport officials use to navigate their craft'  
450 (O'Brien & Rynne, 2020; p.6). Further, it may also benefit to gain insight into the implicit standards  
451 and norms of observers/assessors when assessing expertise in officials' actual performance (Boyer et  
452 al., 2014).

453 This follows to another question researchers and practitioners must consider is whether it is  
454 possible to assess changes in decision-making skill. Although research has used on-field transfer tests  
455 using live training scenarios (Put et al., 2013), this remains a decontextualized approach without all  
456 the additional factors experienced in competition (O'Brien & Rynne, 2020). Video-based tests have  
457 often been the measure of decision-making changes following interventions in sport (Larkin et al.,  
458 2015). While these methods demonstrate some level of validity and reliability in sports officials  
459 (Kittel et al., 2019d), there are limitations which must be considered. Firstly, these methods may not  
460 represent the complex environment and interactions officials encounter within competition (O'Brien  
461 & Rynne, 2020; Russell et al., 2019). Indeed, there are indications that perceptual-cognitive training  
462 can be an ideal approach to improve decision-making factors in an isolated decision-making task  
463 (Larkin et al., 2017; Schweizer et al., 2011), but the degree to which such improvements can be  
464 transferred to actual competitive performance needs to be further evidenced, similar to such strategies

465 used with athletes (Farrow, 2013; Renshaw et al., 2018). Kittel et al. (2020c) assessed the relationship  
466 between decision-making in two video-based tasks (360°VR and match broadcast) and in-game  
467 decision-making. There was no significant relationship between the two video-based tests to in-game  
468 decision-making, which the authors attributed to key constraints missing in the video-based tests,  
469 hence limiting representativeness achieved. Future research should consider reliably assessing in-  
470 game decision-making changes following decision-making interventions. As evident in Table 1, few  
471 studies have attempted to provide constraints of in-game competition such as contextual decision-  
472 making (Samuel et al., 2019), communication (no studies) or psychological/emotional factors (no  
473 studies). Future studies may include some, or a combination of these constraints, to be more  
474 representative of in-game decisions. Studies may look for a more qualitative approach where there is  
475 individualized feedback during and post training, accompanied by qualitative assessment of the  
476 trainee's experience.

477         When training any skill, the length of an intervention or time to see an improvement is a  
478 consideration for coaches. As mentioned above, implicit approaches may lead to stronger retention of  
479 knowledge (Larkin et al., 2017). A key limitation of this method is the longer time periods required  
480 for a more self-guided approach. Studies in the sports officials literature have often completed short  
481 (i.e., one to five session) interventions (Kittel et al., 2020b; van Biemen et al., 2018), which lead to  
482 immediate improvements in a video-based test. The literature suggests more longitudinal perceptual-  
483 cognitive interventions are required rather than existing approaches (Farrow et al., 2018). In addition  
484 to longer programs, implementation of a skill acquisition framework (Farrow & Robertson, 2016) for  
485 officials, similar to athletes, may assist with stronger decision-making interventions which translate to  
486 the field. In particular, it would be beneficial for officials' development to systematically assess the  
487 combination off-field video-based and on-field naturalistic training programs.

488         Researchers must also consider the aim of a specific training program. As highlighted  
489 throughout, studies often have one putative decision for every scenario that the officials must learn  
490 (O'Brien & Rynne, 2020). When the putative decision is subjective in nature, it can be difficult to  
491 definitively determine whether the reference decision is correct or lead to conjecture on the 'correct  
492 decision' for different scenarios. For example, decision-making training for officials is often

493 measured on a criterion task such as a video-based test, where the correct decision is determined by a  
494 coach (Larkin et al., 2017; Schweizer et al., 2011). This is due to the desirable decision-making  
495 hierarchy from coaches to officials (Mascarenhas et al., 2005a) and because the accuracy of making  
496 decisions is commonly cited as the most important performance attribute for officials (Kittel et al.,  
497 2019b; Morris & O'Connor, 2016). The reflective learning approach described above on the other  
498 hand may be a suitable compliment to other training with central aims of decision accuracy.  
499 Reflective learning can be used to better understand the official's point of view during the match in  
500 order to help them make an acceptable decision. This may overcome limitations outlined by O'Brien  
501 and Rynne (2020) where decision-making training commonly focuses on the one correct decision.  
502 This method may create a more implicit or self-guided approach for stronger retention of learning in  
503 the absence of feedback or instruction (Masters, 1992; Raab, 2003).

504 Elite soccer referees identify self-reflection and being self-critical of decisions to be important  
505 to develop and maintain officiating excellence (Slack et al., 2013). Off-field, reflective practices such  
506 as self-analysis primarily aid interactor sport officials to supplement the conventional lack of  
507 deliberate practice hours afforded to officiating learning environments (Samuel, 2017; MacMahon et  
508 al., 2007a; Mascarenhas, et al., 2002). Stimulated recall (Lyle, 2003) can often be the main reflective  
509 approach used by referees to improve decision-making. This involves reflecting on a decision  
510 situation (whether a previous decision made by the referee or by another referee) and providing  
511 decision reasoning or interpretation of perceptual and player cues. A focus to learn one correct  
512 decision for any situation can be a limitation (O'Brien and Rynne (2020) where such isolated  
513 situations devoid of context neglect other constraints and affordances on sport officials' decisions  
514 (Russell et al., 2019; Samuel, 2017). Officials must also make decisions respective to unique  
515 situations in a just and fair manner (Russell et al., 2019).

516 Other reflective learning approaches encourage the learner to re-experience context and  
517 constraints underpinning their decision-making and activity. Based on phenomenological traditions  
518 (Theureau, 2003; Vermersch, 2012), an elicitation (or evocation) approach dictates a 'reflection-on-  
519 action' process with the objective to confront one's own or another's decision-making activity. This is  
520 shown to help performers develop explicit procedural and tacit knowledge contributing to decision-

521 making. It enables understanding of spontaneous cognitive processes (e.g. what is the most significant  
522 for the individual) during a critical event or face an emergent problem in a particular context (Hauw,  
523 2018). This allows the performer to access and make sense of their knowledge-in-action as a way to  
524 approach what is an ‘acceptable’ decision rather than what might be most ‘accurate’ such as the  
525 adequacy vs. accuracy debate (Helsen et al., 2019; Schweizer & Plessner, 2016). Applied within sport  
526 coaching (Mouchet & Maso, 2018) and athletic performance training (Mouchet, 2005), this approach  
527 has been recently trialed in sport officiating (Rix-Lièvre et al., 2015). Lessons from reflection is used  
528 to improve high-pressure decision-making in sport sometime focus on ‘slower’ and more ‘deliberate’  
529 forms of reflection. This considers a feed-forward, ‘reflection-for-action’ design where, for example,  
530 sport team players use slow deliberation through team meetings and video review reflect to improve  
531 more rapid response and adaptivity to a variety of contextual situations. In developing decision-  
532 making of sport officials, this area should continue to be supported by research on players. For  
533 example, Richards et al. (2017) developed a framework to foster decision-making in a more  
534 naturalistic context (i.e., less isolated), with particular focus on situational factors such as pressure and  
535 teammates. Such approaches for officials could improve the contextual factors experienced in  
536 training. These approaches could benefit interactor sport officials’ reflective practice to strengthen  
537 their anticipation for decision contexts and recognition for more novel decision events.

538           360°VR has been examined as a potential training tool with some positive results in  
539 Australian football umpires (Kittel et al., 2020b). The immersive qualities of 360°VR have proved  
540 effective in teacher training that allow pre-service teachers to reflect on their own teaching practices  
541 through the multiple viewpoints afforded by the 360° video (Walshe & Driver, 2019). Such reflective  
542 training approaches may be an appropriate method to facilitate decision-making development in  
543 sporting officials, without always referring to one putatively correct decision. With such technology  
544 developing, it may be possible for officials to wear a 360°VR camera in-game to allow for immersive  
545 reflective practice through an ecologically valid tool (Kittel et al., 2019c). First person video captured  
546 in-game (Nazarudin et al., 2015) would allow for initial reflective approaches.

547           Various types of high-tech equipment are being gradually introduced into some sports to  
548 assist sport officiating processes. The introduction of VAR has demonstrated a 6% increase in the

549 accuracy of on-field decisions (Spitz et al. 2020). With the advent of VAR, it occupies one visible  
550 constraint and support for interactor sport officials decision-making processes considering indications  
551 that VAR helps reduce the number of penilisations (Han et al., 2020), but the amount of game play  
552 time increases due to these officiating decision processes (Carlos et al., 2019). This shared decision-  
553 making between the on-field official and video observer contributes to increased communication  
554 demands (Cunningham et al., 2015). Training communication processes between the VAR and on-  
555 field official related to decision standards and contextual interpretation are becoming a hieghtened  
556 need for improving officating processes (Spitz et al., 2020). It must be noted, however, that VAR is  
557 only available to elite populations in soccer. Therefore, methods such as video-based training must be  
558 used to accelerate expertise in officials of non-elite officials where VAR is not available to assist with  
559 on-field decisions. Other sports such as Australian football do not use any off-field technology such as  
560 VAR to assist with on-field ‘one on one’ decision-making included in this review. As a very small  
561 percentage of officials use technology such as VAR to assist decision-making, notwithstanding sports  
562 which do not employ VAR, this highlights the need for training methods to be optimised and  
563 accelerate expertise in officiating.

## 564 **Conclusion**

565 To summarise, this paper presents an outline of previous decision-making approaches in  
566 interactor sporting officials, with the aim to present recommendations for future research studies in  
567 this field. It is evident development approaches for sporting officials have grown (and accelerated)  
568 over the last two decades. Main features of different off-field decision-making training for interactor  
569 officials include watching a video stimulus of sport-specific decision-making scenarios. Identifying  
570 optimal methods to train this skill are imperative given its well-documented importance to overall  
571 performance. Different instructional approaches have been used included explicit and more implicit  
572 approaches, with a degree of variation in the length of stimulus. Similarly, there has been a range of  
573 technologies and different viewing angles used, where the most common approach in the literature has  
574 been match broadcast video. There are, however, several limitations of previous approaches such as a  
575 decontextualized approach and limited representativeness. This paper recommends the use of

576 theoretical frameworks such as representative learning, ecological validity to present more game-like  
577 decision-making protocols. Other suggestions for future studies include longer and more structured  
578 interventions, or further investigation into the efficacy of reflective learning approaches. Incorporating  
579 the concepts discussed throughout may theoretically lead to improvement of the most important skill  
580 used in sports officiating; decision-making accuracy.

581

## 582 **Practical recommendations**

583

584 1. The representativeness of officials' decision-making training should be increased by  
585 including constraints faced in competition such as match context, fatigue and the perspective used to  
586 make decisions.

587 2. When assessing the efficacy of decision-making training, coaches and researchers  
588 should consider the adequacy of decisions in relation to the wider context, rather than the accuracy of  
589 the decision without context.

590 3. Reflective learning approaches may be a suitable decision-making training technique  
591 that allows officials to reflect on their decisions with consideration to the wider context, rather than  
592 assessing the accuracy in comparison to one putative 'correct' decision.

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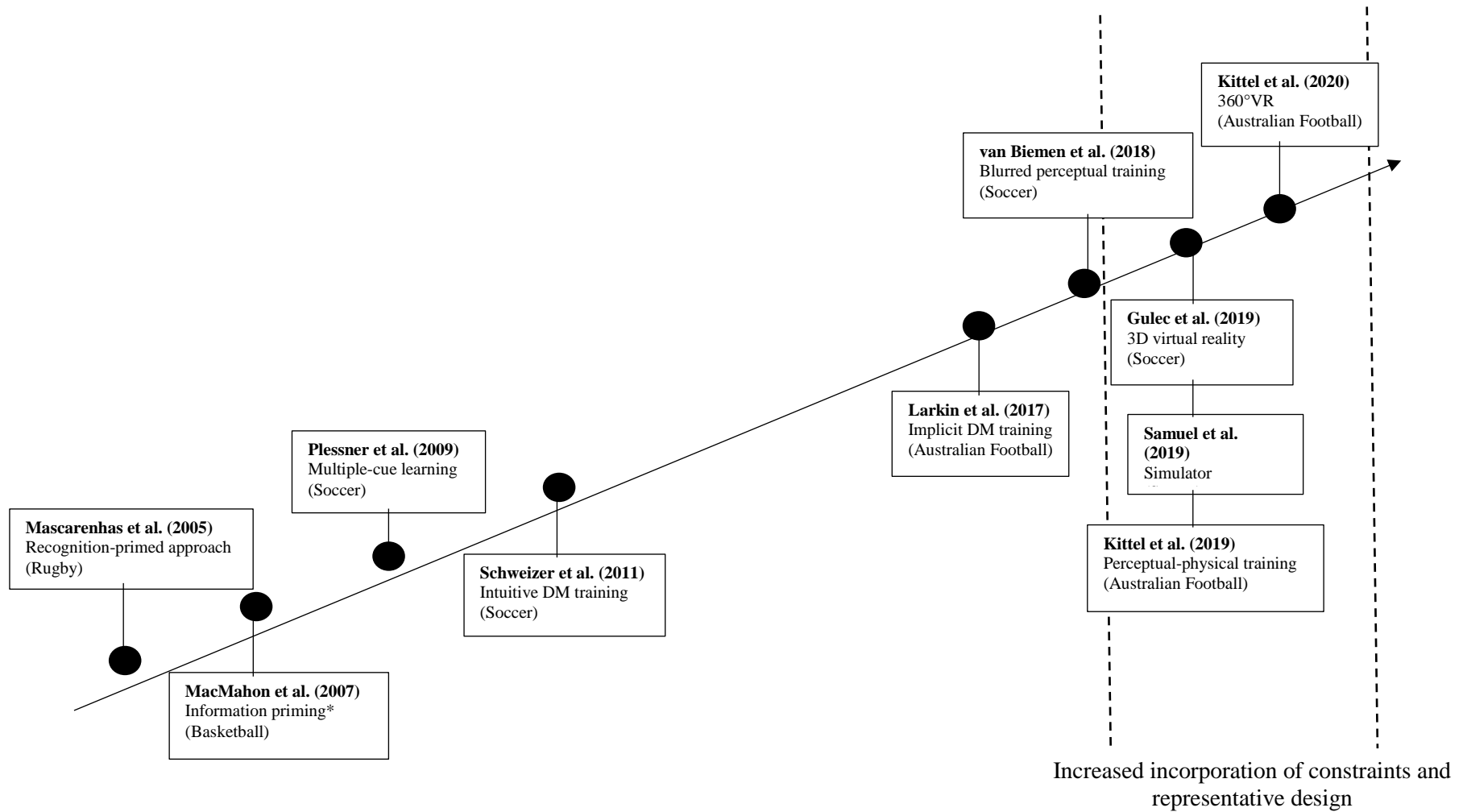


Figure 1: Progression of off-field decision-making approaches for interactor sports officials (only including central officials).



1 Table 1: Existing decision-making training studies in interactor officials

		<u>Modifications</u>							
		<i>Nil</i>	<i>Physical/ fatigue</i>	<i>Video speed changes</i>	<i>Blurred footage</i>	<i>Contextual/ DM sequencing</i>	<i>Communication/ interactions</i>	<i>Psychological/ emotion</i>	<i>Skill periodisation</i>
<u>Video perspective</u>	<i>Match broadcast</i>	Black		Grey					
	<i>1<sup>st</sup> person training</i>	Grey							
	<i>3D virtual environment</i>	Grey							
	<i>1<sup>st</sup> person 360VR</i>	Grey							
	<i>1<sup>st</sup> person game</i>								

**Stronger ecological validity / representativeness →**

- 2
- 3 Note: Black boxes indicate 2+ studies, grey indicates 1 study, no shading indicates 0 studies.

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