

1 **Title:** Enhancing performance proficiency at the expert level: considering the role of
2 'somaesthetic awareness'

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Abstract

Objectives: Traditional theories of motor learning (e.g., Fitts & Posner, 1967), along with certain contemporary psychological perspectives (e.g., Weiss & Reber, 2012; Wulf, 2013), postulate that expert performers must relinquish paying conscious attention to, and/or attempting to exert control over, their bodily movements in order to achieve optimal performance. Challenging such largely unquestioned conceptual approaches, however, is an emerging body of evidence (e.g., see Montero, 2010; Shusterman, 2011) which indicates that ‘somatic reflection’ (i.e., a conscious focus on bodily movement) is an important mediator of continuous improvement (i.e., the fact that certain performers continue to improve their skills even after becoming experts) at the elite level of sport. The present position paper seeks to elucidate and resolve this apparent paradox concerning the role of bodily awareness in expertise. *Method:* To achieve this latter aim, we draw on empirical evidence (e.g., from research on somatic attention) and theory (e.g., Shusterman’s, 2008, theory of body consciousness) to elucidate the role of bodily awareness in facilitating continuous improvement at the elite level of sport. *Results and conclusion:* In doing so, we sketch some theoretical and practical implications of Shusterman’s (2008, 2011, 2012) theory of ‘somaesthetics’ for contemporary research on expertise in sport.

Keywords: Expertise, somaesthetics, conscious processing

48 **Enhancing performance proficiency at the expert level: considering the role of**
49 **‘somaesthetic awareness’**

50 One of the traditionally unquestioned hallmarks of expert performance in any domain
51 is its automaticity – the fact that it appears to occur rapidly, efficiently, and without the need
52 for conscious control or monitoring (Moors, 2013). To illustrate the last of these
53 characteristics, consider the research literature on peak performance in sport. According to
54 Martin and Jackson (2008), such performance typically involves “action-awareness merging
55 (doing things spontaneously and automatically without having to think)” (p. 146) with little
56 or no conscious processing of technical movements. A good example of this state of mind
57 comes from golfer Paul McGinley who revealed that after holing a six-foot putt to win the
58 Ryder cup for Europe against the USA “at no time did I even consider the mechanics of the
59 stroke” (cited in Kremer & Moran, 2013, p. 72). Such peak performance experiences bolster
60 the assumption in sport psychology that conscious processing tends to impair skill execution
61 in experts. This view is also apparent in conventional explanations for the “paralysis-by-
62 analysis” phenomenon in sport whereby skilled performance tends to deteriorate whenever
63 athletes try to exert conscious control over movements that had previously been under
64 automatic control. Thus Masters (2012) suggested that paying conscious attention to the step-
65 by-step processes involved in skill execution will disrupt ‘habitual’ movement and
66 performance. Similarly, Weiss and Reber (2012) argue that problems are likely to arise ‘when
67 an athlete stops using the smooth and practiced techniques and begins to use excessive
68 thinking and “reinvests” effort back to motor functions and one’s physical problems’ (p.
69 176). Instead, performers are encouraged to direct their attention away from their bodily
70 movement and to adopt an external focus of attention (i.e., focusing on the effects of their
71 movements; see Wulf, 2013, for review) in order to facilitate smooth and fluent skill
72 execution (we return to this body of literature later).

73 However, challenges to these latter perspectives are increasingly apparent. In particular,
74 two key strands of evidence from psychology and inter-disciplinary studies converge on the
75 conclusion that sometimes (e.g., when skills break down due to injury), somatic awareness
76 (i.e., paying attention to one's bodily movements) can actually *enhance* athletes' skill-
77 learning and performance. This convergence may be summarised briefly as follows. Firstly,
78 at the theoretical level, an emerging inter-disciplinary movement known as "somaesthetics"
79 (Shusterman, 2008; 2009; 2011) has begun to investigate the role of consciousness in body
80 awareness and skill learning. Influenced by advances in phenomenology (e.g., see the idea of
81 "applying intelligence to the reflexes"; Sutton, McIlwain, Christensen, & Geeves, 2011) and
82 the embodied cognition paradigm in psychology which postulates that many of the brain
83 circuits responsible for abstract thinking are grounded in those that process sensory
84 experience (see more detailed accounts in Glenberg, Witt, & Metcalfe, 2013; Laakso, 2011),
85 Shusterman's (2011) theory of "somaesthetic awareness" is concerned with exploring "the
86 differences between those occasions when heightened somatic consciousness is helpful and
87 when it is detrimental" (p. 319) to skill-learning and performance. According to Shusterman
88 (2008), somatic attention is helpful when "we need to correct, relearn, and adjust our habits
89 of spontaneous performance" (p. 138). Clearly, theorists from several disciplines propose that
90 bodily awareness is not always deleterious to performance and indeed, may be *necessary* in
91 order to facilitate 'continuous improvement' at the elite level of sport.

92 Secondly, at the empirical level, research on the topic of 'skill recovery' shows that
93 athletes who are trying to regain prior levels of high-level performance often deliberately use
94 conscious processing strategies to refine or restore elite level habitual movements in sports
95 such as javelin throwing, sprinting and swimming (Collins, Morriss, & Trower, 1999; Hanin,
96 Korjus, & Jouste, 2002; Hanin, Malvela, & Hanina, 2004). In studies of this topic,
97 researchers have helped athletes to regain or to refine habitual movement patterns by

98 encouraging them to become *more* consciously aware of technical and kinaesthetic
99 differences between current (problematic) and desired actions. In this regard, Carson, Collins,
100 and Jones (submitted) recently investigated the issue of consciously-elicited technical
101 refinement in an Olympic weightlifter. This athlete had acquired an injury through the use of
102 inefficient technique in the two hand snatch. Carson et al. sought to heighten the athlete's
103 *kinaesthetic awareness* of the difference between the new, more effective technique and the
104 position (replacing the bar with a broomstick) that had caused the initial injury. Here the
105 athlete's limb positioning was manipulated towards a more effective and less injury prone
106 technique, thereby facilitating kinaesthetic awareness of the different feelings and positions.
107 Clearly, these studies show that bodily awareness can help athletes to generate distinctions
108 between kinaesthetic sensations in order to "realise the required changes" (Carson & Collins,
109 2011, p. 152). More generally, such refined conscious awareness may have adaptive
110 significance. Thus, on the basis of evidence highlighting the role of the cerebellum in the
111 conscious control of motor behaviour, Rossano (2003) concluded that "evolution has
112 fashioned the human brain with specific systems that bring consciousness and motor control
113 into a close relationship" (p. 209). In summary, despite recent arguments that expert
114 performers must *relinquish* conscious attention of their bodily movements in order to achieve
115 optimal performance (e.g., see Masters & Maxwell, 2008; Wulf, 2013), alternative evidence
116 has emerged to suggest that deliberately paying conscious attention to specific components of
117 movement (e.g., limb positioning) may improve and/or restore their efficiency (e.g., Gray,
118 2004; Shusterman, 2008). So, how can we reconcile these opposing viewpoints about the role
119 of bodily awareness in skill-learning and skilled performance?

120 In an effort to resolve this confusion, this *opinion* paper draws on evidence (e.g.,
121 concerning somatic attention) and theory (e.g., see Shusterman's, 2008, theory of
122 somaesthetics) to elucidate the circumstances in which it is beneficial to replace an external

123 focus of attention with enhanced conscious awareness of problematic movements. The paper
124 is organised as follows. We begin by analyzing briefly the philosophical and psychological
125 roots of the assumption that expert performance involves the execution of bodily movements
126 that are not consciously monitored – what Gallagher (2011) calls “performative
127 forgetfulness of the body” (p. 305). Next, we point to the problematic nature of this
128 assumption by drawing on evidence which indicates that skilled performers use bodily
129 awareness when seeking to identify and refine ‘attenuated’ movements during practice. After
130 that, we argue that Shusterman’s theory of body consciousness may address some of the
131 shortcomings associated with a number of influential motor control theories (e.g.,
132 Information processing approaches; Ideomotor approaches) by identifying the mechanisms
133 that enable performers to alternate between different modes of bodily awareness or foci of
134 attention. Finally, we sketch some practical and methodological implications of Shusterman’s
135 (2008, 2011, 2012) somaesthetics for contemporary research on expertise in sport.

136 What are the modern philosophical roots of sport psychology’s antagonism to bodily
137 awareness in expert performance? According to Shusterman (2008), William James
138 cautioned against somatic awareness when one is performing well-learned or habitual
139 movements. Specifically, he proclaimed that “heightened consciousness of the bodily means
140 of action leads to failure in achieving our desired ends” (cited in Shusterman, 2008, p. xi).
141 Also, according to James (1983), “habit diminishes the conscious attention with which our
142 acts are performed” (p. 31). For James (1911), any conscious attentional focus on habitual
143 movement and its accompanying somatic feelings is likely to disrupt skilled action: - “Trust
144 your spontaneity and fling away all further care” was his aphorism for successful motor
145 performance (p. 72). More recently, Merleau-Ponty (1964) postulated that spontaneity will
146 always facilitate optimal functioning while any form of body awareness or somatic reflection
147 will compromise smooth and efficient performance. More specifically, he insisted that

148 spontaneous bodily intentionality is a pre-requisite for successful performance as our
149 movement is governed by a “spontaneity which will not tolerate any commands, not even
150 those which I would like to give myself” (p. 75).

151 These philosophical perspectives appear to be in line with a number of influential
152 theories of motor skill learning (e.g., *Information processing* – IP) which emphasise the
153 effortless and automatic nature of skilful action. For example, the IP approach has sought to
154 explain motor skill learning with a model that portrays the performer as progressing from a
155 *controlled*, conscious and declarative mode of information processing (i.e., at the novice
156 stage) to a more *automatic* and proceduralised mode of processing (i.e., at the expert stage).
157 Based on a digital computer metaphor, the mind is seen as an information processor that
158 begins to deal with available information from the environment (input), processes this
159 information using various operations, and eventually produces an action (output) (Schmidt &
160 Wrisberg, 2008). Accordingly, we perceive sensory information from the external world
161 which, in turn, is translated into a syntactic code of meaningful symbols, and processed
162 according to a systematic set of rules (Maes, Leman, Palmer, & Wanderley, 2014). The IP
163 approach argues that coordinated movement sequences are governed by ‘motor programs’
164 which are made up of mental representations which develop into plans of actions,
165 instructions, or rules that guide the production of a skill (Bailey & Pickard, 2010). These
166 motor programs are believed to guide skilful action in the absence of direct conscious control
167 and are seen to represent the expression of habitual or automatic responses in a given sporting
168 context. Although the ubiquity of IP models bears testament to their utility as a means of
169 helping us understand skill learning, they have been heavily criticised for presenting a
170 peculiarly disembodied account of motor skill learning (see Bailey & Pickard, 2010; Sutton et
171 al. 2011). That is, IP models consider body movements to represent mere outcomes of these
172 symbol manipulations and, as a result, ignore the mutual influence that perception and action

173 exert on each other (Maes et al. 2014).

174 To address this latter issue, *embodied cognition* theories have sought to explain how the
175 human body (with its perceptual and motor systems) interacts with the outside world. Within
176 this framework of embodied cognition, the *ideomotor approach* (see Greenwald, 1970) has
177 presented an influential explanation of the cognitive mechanisms underlying voluntary action
178 selection (Koch, Keller, & Prinz, 2004). This theory postulates that actions are cognitively
179 represented in terms of their anticipated sensory consequences (response effects) and that the
180 anticipation of these latter effects may serve as a mental cue to activate the corresponding
181 movement. This ideo-motor principle has been expressed in a number of theoretical works
182 including Prinz's (1997) *common-coding approach* and Hommel, Müsseler, Aschersleben, &
183 Prinz's (2001) *theory of event coding*. A considerable volume of empirical evidence
184 supporting the ideomotor principle has emerged in studies which have examined participants'
185 selection, planning, and initiation of simple discrete actions (e.g., speeded effector
186 coordination in dual-task situations or choice-reaction tasks). For example, Elsner and
187 Hommel (2001) required participants to perform key presses (which produced auditory
188 effects) in an initial training phase. In the test phase, these effects served as imperative
189 stimuli in a choice-reaction task. Subsequently, a response was selected more promptly when
190 primed by its former effect tone than when triggered by the effect tone associated with an
191 alternative response.

192 Do the response effects for the learning of simple discrete actions transfer to the
193 production of relatively complex action sequences that characterize most sporting activities?
194 Based on ideomotor principles, Wulf's *constrained action hypothesis* (see Wulf, McNevin, &
195 Shea, 2001; Wulf, Shea, & Park, 2001) predicts that complex movements (in any sporting
196 performance) will be more effective when planned in terms of their intended outcome or

197 effect (i.e., with an external focus), rather than in terms of the specific movement patterns
198 (i.e., with an internal focus). In seeking to explain this effect, Wulf (2013) postulated that an
199 internal focus of attention “induces a conscious type of control, *causing individuals to*
200 *constrain their motor system by interfering with automatic control processes*” (p. 91, our
201 italics). Accordingly, Wulf and her colleagues recommended that athletes should adopt an
202 *external* focus which requires attending to the effects of one’s movement on the environment
203 (e.g., the trajectory of a tennis ball as it leaves one’s racket). This latter focus of attention is
204 believed to facilitate a more automatic mode of control and has also been found to improve
205 both movement effectiveness (e.g., accuracy in hitting a target) and movement efficiency
206 (i.e., outlay of energy, or of time and energy) amongst novice and skilled performers in a
207 wide variety of skills and tasks (e.g., Bell & Hardy, 2009; Lohse, Sherwood, & Healy, 2010;
208 Lohse, Wulf, & Lewthwaite, 2012; Schücker, Hagemann, & Strauss, 2013).

209 It should be noted, however, that some researchers have contradicted Wulf’s claim
210 that an internal focus of attention will inevitably disrupt skilled performance and learning.
211 For example, Oudejans, Koedijker, and Beek (2007) argued that an *internal focus* of attention
212 may “be indispensable when an athlete seeks to replace a suboptimal technique by a more
213 optimal one in order to reach a higher level of performance” (p. 41). Unfortunately, most
214 ideomotor accounts have focused solely on manipulating exteroceptive (feedback delivered
215 by visual, auditory, tactile, and olfactory pathways) or remote effects in their experiments.
216 Accordingly, Wulf’s constrained action hypothesis (and ideomotor theories more generally)
217 have yet to adequately explain how performers appear capable of maintaining performance
218 proficiency by using ‘interoceptive feedback’ (which is delivered by proprioception including
219 kinaesthetic feeling of the movement) to alter and control bodily movements during training.
220 For example, Nyberg (in press) found that elite freeskiers learn how to discern (i.e., through
221 ‘focal awareness’) their rotational velocity to such an extent that they “know whether they

222 will be able to perform the trick the way it was intended without adjustments, or whether they
223 will need to make adjustments during the flight phase” (p. 7). Also, in a naturalistic
224 investigation of the attentional foci adopted by elite golfers during training and competition,
225 Bernier, Codron, Thienot and Fournier (2011) found that elite golfers adjusted their
226 attentional focus (i.e., moving back-and-forth between focusing on bodily movements and the
227 effects of their actions) across training and competitive situations. Clearly, a reliance on an
228 external focus of attention is not enough to maintain performance effectiveness at the elite
229 level of sport. Instead, elite performers would appear to avoid excessive ‘proceduralisation’
230 because they must be able on demand to deliberately access and “strategically re-route any
231 semi-automated routines” (Sutton, 2007, p. 769).

232 Similarly, performers have little choice but to reinvest conscious attention owing to the
233 ‘sudden volatile transformations’ (Bissell, 2013, p. 122) that appear to afflict our habitual
234 movements. In fact, anecdotal reports abound of elite performers having to change habitual
235 behaviours in order to maintain performance proficiency. For example, Bernhard Langer, the
236 two-time Golf major champion, changed his putting stroke on a number of occasions in an
237 attempt to combat the ‘yips’, a movement disorder which represents perhaps the most volatile
238 form of habit disruption. Despite anecdotal evidence pointing to the volatility of habitual
239 behavior (e.g., Bissell, 2013; Eden, 2013), and empirical evidence that elite athletes may
240 employ conscious attentional strategies to successfully refine their ‘attenuated habits’ (e.g.,
241 Hanin et al. 2004), the received wisdom in sport psychology is that consciously attending to
242 habitual movement *impairs* skilled performance (Poolton & Masters, 2010; Wulf, 2012). To
243 illustrate, Wulf (2012) warns against the reliance on ‘traditional’ instructional methods –
244 namely, those that involve declarative feedback on body movements as well as those that
245 make ‘intuitive sense’ to coaches. As previously discussed, Wulf (2012, 2013) claims that
246 instructions or feedback relating to body movements will always prove deleterious to motor

247 learning and performance. Likewise, others have taken a critical stance when evaluating the
248 role of ‘traditional’ methods of instruction which may encourage body awareness. For
249 example, Poolton and Masters (2010) argued that “sensations of imbalance, tension or loss of
250 rhythm detected by a player can easily become signposts that direct the player towards swing
251 adjustments that are consciously controlled” (p. 121). Instead of focusing internally, these
252 latter researchers encourage performers to divert attention away from their limb movement
253 and, instead, focus on the environmental effects on their actions (e.g., in baseball we may
254 focus on the trajectory of a ball once it has left our bat).

255 If a coach subscribes to certain lines of thought (e.g., see Wulf’s 2012, 2013,
256 argument above) that emphasize the debilitating nature of bodily awareness then how does he
257 or she go about solving an elite athlete’s problematic or ‘attenuated’ habit? It seems highly
258 improbable that encouraging the athlete either to ‘trust’ their spontaneity or to adopt an
259 external focus of attention will help the expert performer who, for example, may be
260 experiencing disruption to performance proficiency because of an unintended change in their
261 technique (e.g., see Carson et al.). If a continued reliance on focusing on the effects of one’s
262 actions (i.e., thereby avoiding any focus on bodily movement) proves to be ineffective then
263 how should the expert performer seek to address problematic movement patterns? According
264 to Shusterman (2008) ‘we cannot simply trust our habits to correct themselves through
265 unconscious trial and error or through eventual evolutionary adjustments’ (p. 13). In fact, to
266 act spontaneously or to remain focused on the effects of our actions will ‘simply reinforce
267 these bad habits and the damage they cause’ (Shusterman, 2008, p. 169). For example, an
268 elite golfer who wishes to increase the distance she hits the ball is unlikely to do so merely by
269 focusing on some distal action effect (as proposed by proponents of ideomotor approaches)
270 like the trajectory of a ball. Instead, she would be required to alter and improve her bodily
271 movements (e.g., increase shoulder turn) in order to generate greater club-head speed and

272 thereby produce the desired effect (i.e., increased distance). Unfortunately, continuing to
273 focus on the effects of one's actions may represent a form of 'end-gaining' which contributes
274 to distorted 'sensory appreciation' and diverts our attention from the needed 'means-
275 whereby' the action could be performed properly.

276 On such occasions, it seems reasonable to speculate that the inefficient or affected
277 habit must be brought under the control of consciousness so that the coach can help the
278 athlete regain the 'old' desirable technique or refine and acquire a new optimal movement
279 pattern (Carson & Collins, 2011). As Shusterman puts it, "the unreflective action or habit
280 must be brought into conscious critical reflection (though only for a limited time) so that it
281 can be grasped and worked on more precisely" (2009, p.135). It is these arguments which
282 have raised our concern that traditional motor learning theories, and some contemporary
283 psychological perspectives, have failed to fully consider the potentially functional role that
284 conscious bodily awareness may play in maintaining performance proficiency/facilitating
285 skill advancement at the expert/elite level.

286 We propose that researchers require a theoretical framework that can explain how
287 skilled athletes are capable of flexibly allocating their attentional resources in order to refine
288 problematic bodily movement. Accordingly, we believe it may be of value to consider
289 Shusterman's (2008, 2009) model of body consciousness which emphasises the
290 *interchanging phases* or *stages of learning*. Specifically, Shusterman's perspective may help
291 researchers understand better how performers can use conscious bodily awareness in a
292 manner which facilitates performance effectiveness. In line with traditional motor learning
293 theories (e.g., Fitts & Posner, 1967) and contemporary psychological skill acquisition
294 perspectives (e.g., Beilock, Carr, MacMahon & Starkes, 2002; Gray, 2004), Shusterman
295 (2008) acknowledges that reflective action (i.e., conscious awareness of bodily movement) is
296 generally the most effective way to learn and perform at the novice level. As previously

297 noted, this stage of learning appears to require conscious and critical bodily attention during
298 on-line performance of a motor task. However, traditional motor learning theories posit that
299 once we move beyond this learning stage there is no need to explicitly attend to what our
300 bodies are doing. It is on this matter that Shusterman's (2008) viewpoint appears to differ
301 significantly from those of traditional motor learning and some current sport psychology
302 researchers. To explain, Shusterman (2008) urges us to consider the role that critical self-
303 attention may play after the learner has reached an automatised or habitual state of
304 performance. For Shusterman, this is a critical issue to consider as "the learning process is
305 never entirely complete" (p. 138). Shusterman (2009) argues that reflective body
306 consciousness is necessary for correcting bad habits and achieving more efficient control of
307 our movement. Here he suggests that we must know what we are doing with our bodies in
308 order to understand how we can correct our problematic movements and more effectively do
309 what we wish to do with them. In clarifying this outlook, Shusterman (2008) confirms that he
310 is not advocating that we consciously attend to all of our actions – that would be both
311 impossible and detrimental to performance. But, when our habits prove defective (e.g., due to
312 injury) Shusterman (2009) suggests that careful attention to our bodily means (and attendant
313 feelings) of action is necessary to "either acquire new habits or refine or reconstruct our
314 habitual modes of action" (p. 138) and that this process necessitates the redirection of
315 conscious attention to our somatic behaviour.

316 Interestingly, there is evidence to suggest that motor learning theorists are beginning
317 to adopt similar perspectives concerning the potentially functional role bodily awareness may
318 play at the elite level of sport. For example, Beilock and Gray (2007) acknowledged that
319 "skill-focused attention may not always be detrimental to well-learned performances" (p.
320 432) and that conscious attention may be required to rectify problematic bodily
321 habits/movements. This may be necessary when the performer needs to alter performance

322 processes to achieve a different outcome rather than to maximise real-time performance
323 (Beilock & Gray, 2007, p. 432). The authors argue that on such occasions it is necessary to
324 slow down and ‘dechunk’ habitual movements. Here, the overall movement pattern may be
325 broken down into separate steps or ‘chunks’ with the intention to address the problematic
326 component of movement. This process will inevitably require the performer to ‘reinvest’
327 conscious attention in an effort to deliberately and consciously alter the ‘attenuated’
328 movement. For example, a coach may engage an athlete in a program of ‘associative training’
329 by using strategically placed mirrors to help develop awareness of the difference between the
330 old (undesirable) movement and the new (desirable) movement (Shusterman, 2008). Here,
331 the coach might manipulate the performer’s limb movement into the desired position and
332 encourage them to associate different visual ‘forms’ with different proprioceptive feelings.
333 Next, the performer is likely to use this proprioceptive feel for the new position (e.g., shorter
334 backswing in golf) as they seek to consciously alter the ‘attenuated’ movement and acquire
335 this new backswing position. Note, at this stage, there is only a focus on the movement itself
336 and no reference to any distal action effects.

337 Shusterman (2008, 2011) presents a compelling argument concerning the functional
338 role bodily awareness may play in improving our self-use and the efficiency with which we
339 perform habitual movements. However, such perspectives have yet to be incorporated within
340 a general theory of motor skill acquisition (Gray, 2004). As discussed earlier, an idea
341 consistent across a number of skill acquisition theories is that the acquisition process occurs
342 in a unidirectional manner (i.e., moving from the cognitive to the associative to the
343 procedural stage). In contrast to this latter perspective, however, Shusterman’s (2008) theory
344 of body consciousness is cyclical in the sense that the maintenance of effective movement
345 requires the individual to alternate between these various stages. That is, if the performer
346 acquires an ‘attenuated’ habit then he/she will be required to move from a procedural (i.e.,

347 automatic) mode of performance to a cognitive mode so that conscious attention can be
348 devoted to the alteration or refinement of the problematic movement. Interestingly, this
349 perspective is in line with Sutton et al.'s (2011) recent account of the nature and role of
350 mindedness and thought in *embodied* action. To illustrate, Sutton et al.'s 'applying
351 intelligence to the reflexes approach' (AIR) seeks to explain how embodied skills can be
352 influenced by thinking and awareness and argues that "genuine expertise often requires the
353 rapid switching of modes and styles within the performance context" (p. 93). For these
354 researchers, skilful action relies on a *mindedness* that "facilitates the dynamic flexibility of
355 attention, allowing it to be allocated freely and in a way that best meets contingent contextual
356 demands" (Geeves et al. 2013, p. 3). Much like Shusterman's argument, Sutton et al. claim
357 that embodied action, on certain occasions, must be open to the influence of explicit
358 knowledge or specific memories. When confronted by context-specific challenges (e.g.,
359 inefficient movement) in the training context, the performer can not rely entirely on
360 spontaneous or non-cognitive responses but, instead, may use cue words or 'instructional
361 nudges' as "verbal components of multi-modal embodied routines to distribute intelligence,
362 coordinating or often re-setting and re-chunking patterns of movement" (p. 93).

363 Additional evidence has emerged to suggest that movement through different stages
364 of learning may not occur in the sequential and straightforward manner predicted by
365 traditional theories of skill acquisition. For example, Gray (2004) found that expert baseball
366 batters who experienced a slump in performance (i.e., an unexpected and prolonged period of
367 poor performance), increased the amount of skill-focused attention they dedicated to
368 performance in order to re-gain control of key actions. In attempting to explain this
369 phenomenon, Gray (2004) suggested that the batter attempts to break out of the performance
370 slump by cognitively modifying the component steps of skill acquisition. By contrast, when
371 performing proficiently, skill-focused attention is replaced by the proceduralised (i.e.,

372 automatic) execution of action. Interpreting these results, Gray argued that “expert
373 performers may continuously cycle back and forth between these stages depending on the
374 current level at which they are performing” (p.52). Furthermore, Gray suggested that
375 “perhaps it is as important for an athlete to learn strategies for moving quickly and effectively
376 from the cognitive to procedural stage (i.e., techniques for acquiring new procedural
377 knowledge) as it is to achieve that level in the first place” (p. 52). Similarly, Ericsson’s
378 *deliberate practice framework* proposes that expert performers seek to counteract
379 automaticity, and thereby avoid ‘arrested development’, by remaining within the ‘cognitive’
380 and ‘associative’ stages by “developing increasingly complex mental representations to attain
381 higher levels of control of their performance” (2006, p. 687). Both Gray and Ericsson’s
382 argument appear to be in line with Shusterman’s concept of *interchanging phases* or *stages of*
383 *learning*. Indeed, by drawing on the arguments of Gray (2004), Ericsson (2006) and
384 Shusterman (2008) we suggest that somatic consciousness may play a crucial role in helping
385 expert performers ‘cycle back and forth’ between these stages of learning – thereby helping
386 to promote movement proficiency and to maintain performance effectiveness. More
387 generally, Rossano (2003) has argued that “expertise requires deliberate practice. Deliberate
388 practice requires consciousness” (p. 230).

389 Central to Shusterman’s theory is the notion that the learning process does not
390 suddenly stop once we have learned to habituate movements. Instead, learning is a continual
391 process which is underpinned by a somaesthetic awareness of how we may improve our
392 movement proficiency. As previously noted, such bodily awareness is important not only for
393 learning new skills but also for “identifying, analyzing, and rectifying our problematic bodily
394 habits” (Shusterman, 2008, p. 13). In downplaying the practical value of bodily
395 consciousness, we are concerned that researchers have ignored the deliberate, and indeed
396 conscious, manner in which expert performers actively seek to improve their current

397 performance level (see Ericsson, 2006). Fortunately, a number of researchers have begun to
398 consider the various ways in which elite athletes use bodily consciousness in their sporting
399 actions. For example, Breivik (2007, 2013) has argued that a key feature of skill
400 improvement amongst expert performers concerns the athletes' desire to learn 'new and
401 better techniques' and that this approach is "deliberate, conscious, and planned, which also
402 characterises the activity itself" (p. 127). Furthermore Ravn and Christensen (2013) found
403 that an elite golfer sought to optimise her performance proficiency by consciously refining
404 her technique during training. The authors argue that continuous improvement requires the
405 athlete to 'experiment with and research their moving body' and that the "unexamined body
406 would simply not be worth moving" (Ravn & Christensen, 2013, p. 2). These emerging
407 findings indicate that by constantly seeking and constructing practice situations that challenge
408 their current level of performance, the expert athlete actively seeks to avoid the "arrested
409 development associated with automaticity" (Ericsson, 2003, S.73). To help facilitate this
410 process we argue that somaesthetic awareness may play an important role in helping us to
411 identify the precise features of our movement that require refinement or improvement.

412 Having drawn extensively on Shusterman's (2008, 2009, 2011) work we believe it is
413 important to consider the *applied consequences* of promoting an increase in bodily
414 consciousness amongst skilled performers. *First*, we argue that athletes' must be somatically
415 aware of their movement in order to identify that a problematic bodily habit has arisen. It is
416 important to note that such an approach would not involve constant conscious surveillance of
417 individual components of their overall movement pattern but rather a 'proprioceptive feel' of
418 what they are doing. This requires athletes to be generally aware of whether their movement
419 is causing discomfort *or* an outcome that is far removed from what they would normally
420 expect. Here we are advocating the use of bodily awareness by athletes in paying heed to
421 their movement and recognising when it is causing them pain, discomfort, or consistently

422 undesirable outcomes. This approach might actually help elite athletes to resist the kind of
423 automation which a number of theorists ascribe to the highest levels of expertise, and address
424 their concern that “trusting the body alone to take over will lead to arrested development”
425 (Sutton et al. 2011, p. 95). Indeed, in line with Shusterman, we argue that it is only through
426 such focused awareness can we learn to identify the bodily movements that are
427 compromising the efficient execution of our desired movements and determine how we may
428 “make the movement more successfully and with greater ease and grace” (2008, p. 166).
429 Unfortunately, as outlined earlier, a continued reliance on spontaneity (or an external focus of
430 attention) is unlikely to help us achieve this latter outcome.

431 *Second*, once the technical problem has been identified (either by the athlete or the
432 coach), correcting the ‘attenuated habit’ necessitates the reinvestment of on-line attentional
433 control in order to refine or alter the problematic bodily movement. To help us accomplish
434 such an aim, Shusterman (2008) suggested that we require a systematic method for the
435 reconstruction of habit through the guidance of what he refers to as ‘constructive conscious
436 control’ (p.193). We believe that Carson and Collins (2011) FIVE-A model of technical
437 refinement may provide expert performers with such a system. Indeed, as alluded to earlier, a
438 central feature of Carson and Collins’ model is the emphasis placed on the role conscious
439 bodily awareness plays in addressing and correcting problematic movements. For example,
440 once a coach has identified the specific aspect of technique which requires alteration the
441 authors recommend that the problematic movement is called into *consciousness* and
442 compared against the desired new technique. This approach aims to create ‘noise’ in the
443 motor system by requiring the athlete to make sudden changes in their movement.
444 Accordingly, the generation of a new movement pattern serves to make a clear distinction
445 between the *inefficient technique* and the *desired technique* thereby driving the change
446 process and preventing a return to the previous inefficient movement pattern. Once the new

447 movement has been successfully automated, a coach should assure his or her athlete that
448 there is no need for further modifications.

449 Of course, it would be remiss of us to ignore the possibility that consciously altering
450 these habitual movements may hamper performance effectiveness in the short-run (Beilock et
451 al. 2002). Indeed, Beilock and Gray (2007) suggest that reconstructing certain aspects of
452 technique may involve slowing down and dechunking previous execution procedures,
453 potentially resulting in a period of sub optimal performance. Supporting this latter idea,
454 anecdotal evidence suggests that technical change can be a complicated process and that it
455 may take some time before an expert performer can successfully alter what may have been a
456 long-established movement pattern. Tiger Wood's struggles in the wake of the technical
457 changes he made to his golf swing during the 2011 season provide a striking case in point
458 (see Eden, 2013). In considering this issue, Carson and Collins (2011) outlined a number of
459 psychosocial factors which may have an important influence on whether or not technical
460 change is successfully accomplished. For example, they argue that a coach must ensure that
461 the athlete is *committed* to and *trusts* the prescribed change so that they 'buy into' the entire
462 process. Furthermore one could argue that during the initial stages of the technical change
463 process, the expert performer may wish to confine his/her attempts at altering these
464 movements to the training or practice ground until the new and desirable movement has been
465 successfully automated (Nicholls, Holt, Polman, & James, 2005). Until such technical
466 changes have been incorporated within the overall movement pattern, the expert performer
467 may be required to deploy various psychological strategies to divert attention away from to
468 the yet-to-be proceduralised movement during on-line competitive performance.

469 One strategy for attentional redeployment is the adoption of a global/holistic cue word
470 (Gucciardi & Dimmock, 2008; Mullen & Hardy, 2010). This approach would involve two
471 steps. First, performers would consciously focus on the new, desired technique during

472 training or practice sessions. In addition, during competitive performance, they would divert
473 their focus of attention away from the yet-to-be automatised movement (i.e., which still
474 requires an internal focus) and instead, focus on the external effects (i.e., trajectory of a
475 struck ball in golf) of their actions. Of course, we recognise the difficulty performers may
476 face when switching back-and-forth between *reflective* and more *unreflective* modes of
477 consciousness. Unfortunately, until the new movement has become automatised and can be
478 guided by spontaneity, a period of sub-optimal performance seems a likely by-product of the
479 technical change process. A coach/sport psychologist may play a crucial role at this juncture
480 by emphasizing the need for the athlete to remain patient and to place trust in the technical
481 change process (Carson & Collins, 2011). Hopefully, with continued deliberate and
482 constructive practice, conscious attempts to refine and alter one's inefficient habitual
483 movements will lead to performance benefits as skill execution begins to 'more closely
484 mirror desired outcomes' (Beilock & Gray, 2007, p. 432).

485 It is also necessary to identify the methodological approaches that may be best suited
486 to addressing the questions raised by Shusterman's model of body consciousness.
487 Unfortunately, laboratory investigations which seek to identify reproducibly superior
488 performance under standardized conditions (see Ericsson & Ward, 2007) are unlikely to help
489 us identify the mechanisms which allow performers to alternate between different modes of
490 attentional processing over the course of a competitive season/career. In seeking to address
491 this latter issue, researchers may wish to use naturalistic investigations (involving
492 observations and interviews) or explore athletes' phenomenological insights through the use
493 of stimulated recall (SR) interviews. Bernier, Codron, Thienot and Fournier (2011) used a
494 combination of these approaches in a study which examined the attentional foci adopted by
495 elite golfers in training and performance contexts. Having filmed participants in a training
496 session and during a competitive event, self-confrontation interviews were used to stimulate

497 recall (whilst watching a video recording) of the thoughts the performer was processing.
498 Participants were shown sequences involving an action (e.g., a shot), a preparatory behaviour
499 (e.g., the pre-shot routine), and the step following an action (e.g., walking to the next shot)
500 and were urged to express their thoughts during each sequence. Rather than providing an
501 explanation of how they solved the task or a summary of the general strategy they adopted,
502 performers merely expressed their thoughts during each sequence. Findings revealed that
503 these elite golfers alternated between internal and external foci of attention across the
504 preparatory, execution and evaluative stages of training and competitive performance.
505 Naturalistic investigations appear to offer researchers a potentially fruitful means of
506 exploring the attentional switching mechanisms that seem to characterise ‘continuous
507 improvement’ in elite sport.

508 An important aim of the current paper was to outline and discuss recent anecdotal and
509 empirical evidence which suggests that our habitual movements are not immutable and that
510 they may, on occasion, require conscious alteration. We believe that such evidence calls into
511 question traditional (e.g., Fitts & Posner, 1967) and contemporary (e.g., Wulf, 2013) skill
512 learning perspectives that we should rely on ‘unthinking spontaneity’ or external foci of
513 attention in facilitating the smooth and efficient execution of skilled movement. However, in
514 line with a number of contemporary philosophers (e.g., Breivik, 2013; Montero, 2010;
515 Shusterman, 2008), sport psychologists have begun to consider the functional role
516 consciousness may play in facilitating movement proficiency at the elite level of sport. For
517 example, some authors have suggested that “*some* conscious processing is permitted
518 providing it does not ‘overwhelm’ attentional resources” (Carson & Collins, 2011, p. 149)
519 and that a performer may occasionally need to alter proceduralized knowledge that has been
520 “judged to be unproductive on the basis of *cognitive self-regulation* of his actions” (Gray,
521 2004, p.52). These converging perspectives represent a significant shift in thinking and open

522 up the possibility that consciousness may not represent the disruptive force traditionally
523 portrayed by many sport psychologists and motor learning theorists. However, despite these
524 new perspectives sport psychology has yet to devise a theory which recognises the value of
525 both *reflective somatic/bodily consciousness* and *spontaneous, unreflective bodily perception*
526 *and performance*. This paper has argued that Shusterman's (2008) theory of body
527 consciousness may be useful in helping researchers achieve this latter aim. Building on
528 Shusterman's (2008) work, future researchers may wish to construct a typology as a first step
529 in attempting to explain how the effects of specific types of conscious processing (e.g.,
530 conscious control, conscious monitoring, somaesthetic awareness) on movement and
531 performance proficiency are likely to be moderated by skill level, performance situations
532 (training or competition) and by the distinctive demands of sports (e.g., whether they are
533 object-related sports such as golf or non-object related sports such as running).

534 We wish to conclude by recognising the difficulty performers may face in switching
535 between reflective (e.g., internal foci) and more unreflective (e.g., external foci) modes of
536 bodily awareness. However, we have drawn on Shusterman's work to argue that such an
537 approach is necessary for two specific reasons. *First*, the learning process is never entirely
538 complete and elite performers appear to actively seek new ways of improving both their
539 movement and performance proficiency (see Ravn & Christensen, 2013). Somaesthetic
540 reflection may play an important role here by first allowing the performer to identify the
541 inefficient movement pattern and then helping him/her to consciously attend to its alteration
542 or refinement. *Second*, the apparent fragility of our habitual movements means that we have
543 little choice but to devise creative solutions in order to address these disruptions. A reliance
544 on an external focus of attention will not be enough to maintain our performance proficiency
545 if our habitual movements are dysfunctional in some way. Instead, we must seek effective
546 ways of using constructive conscious control to help us refine, alter and thus improve our

547 'attenuated' habits. Only then may athletes relinquish conscious control of their bodily
548 performance and allow somaesthetic awareness to guide their new movement and, hopefully,
549 help them to achieve new levels of excellence.

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