

1 ***Reconceptualizing the therapeutic alliance in osteopathic practice: integrating***
2 ***insights from phenomenology, psychology and enactive inference.***

3

4 **Keywords:** Active Inference, Enactivism, Embodiment, Therapeutic Alliance, Interoception, Touch,
5 Narrative

6 **Abstract** (197 words)

7 This review presents key concepts from neurophysiology, phenomenology, psychology, and
8 narrative medicine which underpin a developing enactive-ecological framework for osteopathic
9 practice. This framework aims to provides a coherent theoretical basis for understanding healthcare
10 processes and outcomes, based on the neuroscience principles of active inference and enactivism. It
11 offers insights into factors that influence patients' pain perception and behaviour and foster or
12 inhibit the development of effective therapeutic relationships. Although this approach offers
13 promising opportunities to increase the scope of care by harnessing potential in the unique
14 embodied ecological niches created between patients and osteopaths, it raises challenges to
15 traditional treatment agendas. Healthcare which frames the patient-as-a person, and acknowledges
16 the multidimensional nature of the self, requires practitioners to be collaborative and self-aware,
17 and be able to elicit patients' lived experiences and body stories. Phenomenological and
18 psychological studies into enactivism emphasise the complex, dynamic nature of therapeutic
19 relationships and the need to understand each person's unique lifeworld context. The new
20 framework represents an important step forward, but further research is now needed to explore
21 ways of integrating active and enactive inference into practice, of developing psychological or
22 mindful self- and body-awareness, and narrative communication skills for shared sense-making.

23 **Introduction**

24 This review presents some of the concepts from neurophysiology, phenomenology, psychology, and
25 narrative medicine which underpin a new 'enactive-ecological' framework developed by Esteves et
26 al (2022). Their framework aims to provide a sound theoretical basis for osteopathic interventions
27 using the principles of Active Inference (AI) to illustrate how human behaviour is based on
28 inferences about interoceptive, exteroceptive and proprioceptive inputs, cognitive beliefs and prior
29 experiences of engagement with the lived world. AI is a key neuroscience concept in models of
30 predictive coding and Bayesian brain processing, and also in the broader approaches of predictive
31 engagement and embodied perspectives of the mind (Gallagher and Allen 2018; Kirchhoff 2017).
32 These concepts are currently influencing philosophy, neuroscience, psychology, mental health
33 (Nielsen and Ward 2018; De Haan, 2020) and osteopathy (Bohlen et al 2021), where advances in
34 understanding the role of AI include collaborative communication and shared meaning-making (Kim
35 et al 2022).

36 The new enactive-ecological framework enhances our understanding about patients' beliefs and
37 pain-related behaviour, but it also has implications for clinical practice. This review does not aim to
38 provide answers about the 'proper' scope of osteopathy but to outline aspects of AI that pose
39 challenges to current approaches to practice. In the past, osteopathic education placed limited
40 emphasis on the psychological, sociocultural and environmental factors considered central to
41 person-centred healthcare. The new enactive-ecological framework suggests the benefits of
42 collaborative therapeutic relationships which focus on the patient-as-a-person and awareness of the
43 wide range of factors that affect pain perception and behaviour. For clarity, complex inter-related
44 concepts describing the multidimensional nature of the 'self' are presented in separate sections
45 exploring phenomenology, psychology, neuroscience, narrative medicine and clinical practice.

46 **Active inference and Enactivism**

47 Active inference provides a framework for understanding human behaviour in a wide range of
48 contexts, but research is divided between studies that focus on brain processes or the brain-body-
49 environment (Kirchhoff 2017). The philosophical assumptions of neurocomputational coding
50 processes in the brain can be considered conflicting or complementary to enactive, embodied
51 theories of mind, where engagement is key to conscious lived experience. Earlier neurophysiological
52 research into AI is now complemented by theories of enactive inference, social cognition and
53 phenomenological approaches to understanding lived experience. Gallagher and Allen (2018)

54 outlined three models of AI as a means of understanding sentient behaviour involving different
55 philosophical assumptions and research methods: predictive coding, processing or engagement.

56 Humans navigate complex environments by making judgments about observations and interoceptive
57 information, but our capacity to 'know' the outside world is limited by biological capacity. Parts of
58 the world are hidden from our limited senses, so brains must make predictions. Predictive models
59 are used to infer what is happening in and around us and assess what action to take: enactivism,
60 which arose from embodied cognition (Varela et al., 1993; Damasio, 2000; Foglia and Wilson, 2013;
61 De Haan, 2020). Stilwell and Harman (2019) proposed inseparable, interconnected states between
62 the mind, body and environment (Stilwell and Harman, 2019:656), and paraphrased an enactive
63 understanding of pain from Thompson (2014; 2020):

64 “Saying that pain is in the brain is like saying flight is in a bird’s wings. A brain is
65 needed to have pain and wings are needed to fly – but to understand pain or
66 flight, one needs to consider the whole picture and the relational nature between
67 things like a person (with a body/brain) and their social/environmental context; or
68 the bird and the atmosphere. It follows that the experience of pain will not be
69 found in the blood, brain, or other bodily tissues. The tissues in the body or the
70 networks in the brain are not the key to pain – instead they are pieces of a larger
71 system that is adapting and striving to sustain into the future. This always
72 involves the environment that we shape and that shapes us.”

73

74 Pain is an important factor in human survival mechanisms and has been conceptualised in the ‘5E’
75 model as Embodied, Embedded, Enacted, Emotive and Extended (Stilwell and Harman 2019).

76 Embodied – phenomenologically “It is through my body that I understand other people” (Merleau-
77 Ponty 1962:186). Our bodies simultaneously enable and limit our understanding and capacity to act.

78 Embedded – we make sense of our world using sensory information and past experiences,
79 influenced by cultural, social and environmental factors and cognitive processes.

80 Enacted – we create understanding by interacting with people, the environment and cognitive sense-
81 making, and then enact what is significant or meaningful in the world we perceive.

82 Emotive – cognition and emotion are intrinsically integrated at “biological, psychological and
83 phenomenological levels” (Thompson & Stapleton, 2009:26). Emotions enable people to make
84 meaning, so they are “constructions of the world, not reactions to it” (Barrett, 2017:16).

85 Extended – this challenges the notion of internal representations of the world. “A person does not
86 “have” a model of the world, instead ... it is the model” (Gallagher, 2018; p.441).

87 Enactive approaches emphasise relationships between people and their environments, where pain is
88 a “relational and emergent process of sense-making through a lived-body” (Stilwell and Harman,
89 2019:637). This contradicts theories that pain is located in body tissues and raises challenges to the
90 artificial boundaries between the domains in the biopsychosocial model.

91 The free energy principle (FEP) and predictive coding theories explain how organisms use
92 perception, action and learning to optimise their environment (Friston, 2010). FEP is a “unifying
93 theory of brain and bio-behaviour” (Ramstead et al., 2018:1), which explains how organisms aim to
94 minimise variations in free energy by reducing differences between predicted and actual state (e.g.,
95 Friston, 2013). Predictive coding is based on Bayesian Brain theory (Friston et al., 2017; Ongaro and
96 Kaptchuk, 2018; Ramstead et al., 2020), which assumes that brains make predictions using
97 interoceptive, exteroceptive and proprioceptive information and past experiences. Differences
98 between expectations and lived experience create ‘prediction errors’, which require updates to
99 avoid being surprised by unexpected situations where the need to initiate sudden action would use
100 valuable resources (Kuperman et al 2020).

101 For example, if patients expect to feel pain when bending, they may misinterpret normal sensations
102 to minimise the gap between prediction and feelings by aligning sensory inputs with prior
103 expectations. Internal states can be altered to reduce prediction error (changing perception), or
104 action can be taken to confirm 'top-down' predictions (changing the body). Combining perception
105 and action typically provides better outcomes (Ramstead et al., 2018; Parr & Friston, 2019b) and
106 enactive inference links embodiment, enactment and adaptive agency (Ramstead et al., 2020), which
107 aligns with osteopathic concepts of function and person-centred care (Tyreman 2020). Prediction
108 errors can be used to challenge and update prior predictions. In osteopathic practice, for example,
109 being ‘surprised’ when a feared movement is pain-free helps patients become aware of automatic
110 reactions and conscious reflection on prior predictions can change expectations about their physical
111 capacities.

112 **Sense making and Affordance**

113 Theories of enactivism propose that organisms have to make sense of their environment for short
114 and long-term survival needs (Thompson & Stapleton, 2009; Arandia & Di Paolo, 2021). Sense-
115 making involves interactive, relational processes dependent on the environment and the organism's
116 capacity for understanding. In allostasis, the body predicts and regulates energy needs before they
117 occur (Barrett et al., 2016; Hutchinson and Barrett, 2019) and FEP minimises energy expenditure by
118 making accurate environmental predictions. Enactivism focuses on how agents act on their
119 surroundings, in contrast to ecological approaches which "select the opposite starting point,
120 describing how the structure of the world shapes the subject's possibility to act" (Coninx and
121 Stilwell 2021:4). In ecological psychology, possibilities for action are described as 'affordances'
122 (Gibson, 1977; Rietveld, 2014). People perceive different affordances, determined by the
123 environment and their capacity to use objects in the environment (Coninx and Stilwell, 2021)
124 Enactive healthcare involves engaging with the patient's story and clinical outcomes are dependent
125 on participatory sense-making between two autonomous people (De Jaegher and Di Paolo, 2007;
126 Fuchs and De Jaegher, 2009; De Jaegher, 2018). Patient-practitioner dyads create 'ecological niches'
127 (Vasil et al 2020), where affordances can be increased by practitioners' influence on patients, and
128 vice versa. These concepts provide a framework for understanding complexity and dynamic
129 intersubjectivity in therapeutic alliances (Shaw, 2003, 2004; Connolly, 2022).

130 In osteopathy, sense-making processes link enactivism and agency (Tyreman, 2013, 2018b). People
131 who view the world as dangerous generate predictions to minimise free energy, so the world does
132 not change but they limit activities which reduces agency in their lifeworld. The Skilled Intentionality
133 Framework (SIF) is an ecological-enactive position where clinicians are sensitive to patients' sense-
134 making and aware of a wide range of affordances (Rietveld et al 2018). Skilled intentionality and
135 participatory sense-making, including touch and non-verbal communication (McParlin et al 2022) can
136 enable practitioners to expand patients' beliefs about physical activity (Coninx and Stilwell 2021)
137 and re-engage with a wider field of affordances (Morrison et al, 2009; Morrison, et al 2011).

138 In participatory sense-making, synchronisation occurs through collaborative communication
139 (McParlin et al., 2022), and in strong therapeutic alliances, attuning to patients' needs enables
140 practitioners to challenge patients' beliefs. "The precision of one's prior beliefs relative to another
141 agent with whom one is coupled, has important implications for the degree and the direction of
142 attunement with and across couplings" (Vasil et al., 2020:12). Participatory sense-making requires
143 active collaboration and engagement with patients' beliefs and values, which contrasts with
144 therapeutic relationships involving 'expert' practitioners. It also challenges biomechanical theories

145 and reductionist biopsychosocial models (Stilwell and Harman, 2019), which are inadequate for
146 understanding complexity (Mescouto et al. 2020). The next section explores the implications of
147 participatory sense-making and affordances from a phenomenological perspective.

148 **2 Phenomenology**

149 Phenomenology focuses on lived experience and key concepts include embodiment and ‘the lived-
150 body’. Embodied experiences are important foundations for therapeutic relationships and, in
151 osteopathy, generate co-constructed narratives which enable deeper understanding of treatment
152 interactions and management strategies (Shaw, 2004).

153 **Embodiment**

154 Embodiment is a phenomenological concept which rejects mind-body dualism and suggests the
155 sense of ‘self’ arises through perception and engagement with the world (Merleau-Ponty 1962,
156 1968; Varela and Shear, 1999; Heinämaa, 2018). Bodies are imprinted with biographical and cultural
157 meaning in learning processes that start before language (Teie, 2016). Embodiment aligns with
158 enactivism as we learn how to ‘be’ in the world through bodies which help us navigate the
159 unknown. Perceptions of the lifeworld are both constructed and limited by physical capacities and
160 biographical factors construct the narratives that define relationships with people and the
161 environment (Shaw, 2003, 2004). Healthcare practices are embedded in cultural stories about
162 healing and metaphorical language (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999; Verghese, 2011; Benedetti, 2011) and
163 individual bodily interpretations and inferences “bring forth our own world” (Bruineberg, 2017:15).

164 In osteopathy, opportunities to explore patients’ embodied experiences occur in dyadic ‘ecological
165 niches’ (Vasil et al 2020), supported by practitioners’ embodied reactions which offer clues to the
166 nature of the therapeutic relationship (Shaw, 2004; Kleinbub et al., 2020). Active inference provides
167 a framework for understanding how individual psychophysiological states become synchronous in
168 shared environments (Gallagher and Allen 2018). Sociocultural dynamics influence individual beliefs
169 and behaviour, but cooperative communication (i.e., talk, touch and body language) functions to
170 create shared narratives which contain niche-specific knowledge and meanings (Vasil et al 2020;
171 Tison and Poirier 2021). Practitioners’ beliefs and behaviour can positively influence patients’
172 psychophysiological states (McParlin et al 2022) and practitioner awareness can be developed
173 through psychological training, mindfulness, mentoring and peer discussions.

174 **The Lived-body**

175 The concept of the lived-body (Luciani and Cadoz 2007; Merleau-Ponty 1968) describes how
176 meaning is created through embodied interactions and exercising agency, which depends on physical
177 capabilities (Leder, 1990; Engelsrud, 2005; Dahlberg, 2019). Perception and action are based on
178 predictions that influence how patients present symptoms and how they are perceived by
179 practitioners. Encouraging patients to engage with active intention can have powerful psychological
180 benefits, for example, when people in chronic pain re-engage with activities previously thought
181 impossible. Change is most successful when activities align with patients' values and goals but
182 capacity for change should be carefully assessed (Tyreman, 2018a;2018b), an approach which
183 requires time to explore lived body experiences and narratives (Norlyk et al., 2013).

184 In clinical practice, two body narratives meet. Osteopaths who are aware of their own body stories
185 can gain rich information if they experience striking, repeated physical reactions to certain patients
186 (e.g., headaches, back pain, nausea; Shaw, 2004). Active inference provides a framework for
187 understanding attachment processes and attunement in therapeutic relationships (Gallagher and
188 Allen 2018) and explains how osteopaths can utilise verbal and non-verbal cues to infer, explore and
189 influence patients' internal states (Kim et al 2022). Understanding attachment processes may help
190 create effective alliances, based on attunement to a patient's unique lifeworld.

191 **3 Psychological Concepts**

192 National Institute for Clinical Excellence guidelines recommend psychological input for chronic pain
193 (NICE 2021), but osteopaths do not need to become psychotherapists. Developing awareness of
194 concepts such as therapeutic alliances and attachment theory can also help to strengthen practice.

195 **Therapeutic alliances**

196 Patients may view clinical settings as unknown or alarming, so it helps to develop safe, trusting
197 therapeutic alliances. Psychological 'alliances' relate to boundaries in therapeutic contracts and
198 'relationships' relate to practitioners' qualities (Castonguay, 1993; Weinberger, 1993; Russell, 1995;
199 Glass et al., 1998; Drisko, 2004; Schenck and Churchill, 2012). "Many elements of the therapeutic
200 context can play a role in enhancing predictions of well-being, especially in chronic situations"
201 (Ongaro and Kaptchuk 2018:3). Positive alliances predict beneficial patient outcomes (Ferreira et al.,
202 2013) and strong contextual predictors for improvement include effective alliances and clear
203 communication about expectations (Bishop et al., 2021). Communication builds alliances through
204 the social 'ritual of the therapeutic act' (Benedetti, 2011). "Placebo and nocebo effects are
205 embodied psycho-neurobiological responses capable of modulating pain and producing changes at

206 different neurobiological, body at perceptual and cognitive levels. These modifications are triggered
207 by different contextual factors presented in the therapeutic encounter between patient and
208 healthcare providers, such as healing rituals and signs” (Rossettini et al., 2018:1). Listening builds
209 alliances (Drisko, 2004; Schenck and Churchill, 2012), but requires time and space for stories to
210 unfold. Common factors in successful therapeutic relationships include helping patients create new
211 narratives (Prochaska and Norcross, 1994; Horvath, 2005; Wampold et al., 2010; Tschacher et al.
212 (2012)). In physical therapy, training in active listening and narrative medicine is still developing
213 (Bishop et al., 2021), as biomedical communication often predominates (Mescouto et al., 2020).

214 **Attachment**

215 Neuroscience demonstrates how early experiences affect adults (Schoore and Shore, 2008; Simpson
216 et al., 2014; Rass, 2018; Lahousen, Unterrainer and Kapfhammer, 2019). Attachment theory
217 describes childhood attachment patterns to caregivers and positive or negative effects on
218 subsequent relationships (Bowlby, 1988). Early attachment problems predict psychopathologies,
219 dissociation and anxiety disorders affecting adult relationships (MLSRA Institute of Child
220 Development, 2021). In contrast, secure attachment leads to better self-agency, emotional
221 regulation, self-esteem and ability to sustain relationships.

222 Early development is shaped by emotional experiences and attachment involves synchronising with
223 others (Rass, 2018). Predictions about the world include past relationship experiences and secure
224 attachment forms the basis of emotional regulation. Porges (2017) observed that practitioners can
225 modulate patients’ emotional responses through calmness and voice modulation, emphasising the
226 importance of attachment in therapeutic alliances. Trauma has profound effects on bodily systems
227 (Doidge, 2007, Ogden et al., 2015), but relationships can restore positive attachment patterns in
228 trauma psychotherapy (Van der Kolk, 2015; Dana, 2018). Secure attachment patterns help to
229 modulate ANS activity (Murphy et al., 2018), and talking therapies are described as 'down regulating'
230 and body work with sensorimotor inputs as 'up regulating' (Ogden et al 2015). Osteopaths who
231 represent trusted attachment figures promote reassurance (Duquette & Ainley, 2019), creating
232 alliances where patients feel safe to explore negative experiences and opportunities for change.

233 **4 Neurophysiological Concepts**

234 Neurophysiological research into interoception, touch and mindfulness are described below to
235 illustrate links between enactive inference and phenomenological lived body experience.

236 **Interoception**

237 Interoception is a key feature of lived-body experience in which neuroanatomical pathways and
238 neurophysiological processes transmit information from organs and tissues to the brain, and vice
239 versa, via the autonomic nervous system (ANS) (Oldroyd et al., 2019; Paulus et al., 2019; Cerritelli
240 et al., 2021). The system includes peripheral and central pathways, nuclei and cortical regions which
241 continuously sense neurochemical and anatomical changes (Carvalho and Damasio, 2021).
242 Conscious cortical processing of ANS activity is vital for homeostasis (Craig 2002, 2003) and
243 interoception is also the neurobiological ground of feelings, emotions, and cognitive processes. This
244 source of ‘how it feels being ourselves’ influences self-perception, decision-making and agency
245 (Varela et al., 1993; Damasio, 2000; Seth et al., 2012; Craig, 2015). Specific pathways and
246 mechanisms create internal bodily experiences, but we are unaware of isolated organs, neural
247 centres or a separate brain and body as the sense of self is a whole person phenomenon that pre-
248 dates language (Fotopoulou and Tsakiris, 2017; Owens et al., 2018). Biomedical explanations offer
249 limited understanding about the sense of self in complex, chronic conditions (Kirkengen and
250 Ulvestad, 2007; Stillwell and Harman, 2019). Inferential models propose that interoception and
251 predictive processing generate feelings, emotions, and selfhood (Paulus and Stein 2010; Seth and
252 Critchley, 2013; Barrett and Simmons 2015; Pezzulo et al., 2015; Van den Bergh et al., 2017), where
253 subjective feelings are shaped by predictions, interoceptive inferences and expectations (Seth et al.,
254 2012).

255 The interoceptive cortex (IC) has neuroanatomically distinct arms called the anterior insular cortex
256 (AIC) and anterior cingulate cortex (ACC). They issue predictions and encode prediction errors
257 based on viscerosensory information ascending to the posterior and mid-insula (Seth and Friston,
258 2016; Marshall et al., 2018). They co-actively form a “salience network” with the amygdala and
259 inferior frontal gyrus that selects which stimuli deserve attention (Craig 2009; Medford and
260 Critchley, 2010). The AIC is the primary neurofunctional hub between top-down cognitive
261 processes and bottom-up sensory experiences (Marshall et al., 2018; Paulus et al., 2019). Predictive
262 coding in the AIC assesses prediction errors and influences context-dependent behaviour by tracing
263 links between the feelings, affordances and actions that affect agency (Seth and Critchley, 2013).

264 The ACC is a visceromotor centre with autonomic modulation functions for bodily arousal to meet
265 behavioural demands (Holroyd and Yeung, 2012; Seth et al., 2012; Lavin et al., 2013). It connects to
266 subcortical areas involved in internal regulation (Barrett and Bar, 2009; Harrison et al., 2010), and
267 influences goal-oriented behaviour and decision-making about actions based on predicted effort and
268 reward (Craig 2002, 2003; Holroyd and Yeung, 2012; Lavin et al., 2013; Watson et al., 2018).

269 Dynamic interplay between body sensations, environment, motivation and behaviour highlights the
270 relevance of active inference and interoception for making sense of the world (Seth and Critchley,
271 2013; Bolis and Schilbach, 2020).

272 Perception is a process conducted by embodied agents with the capacity to make sense of
273 interoceptive, exteroceptive and proprioceptive information from embodied experiences (Petersen
274 et al., 2015; Zacharioudakis et al., 2020). Motivation to engage with the environment is guided by
275 perceptions about what is relevant and meaningful (De Haan 2020). Perceptive engagement links
276 active inference with enactivism as it is more than sensing and moving and includes sense-making
277 and judgements about potentially useful or dangerous situations. In osteopathy, action-perception
278 cycles may help to explain some treatment outcomes, as how links between sensing, perceiving,
279 sense-making and physical engagement with the environment encourage people to explore reactions
280 to pain and expand their field of affordances (Kim et al 2022).

281 Ecological healthcare emphasise how embodied interactions create unique interpretations of inner
282 sensations, shaped by biographical experience. Enactivism adds a richer understanding of complex
283 relationships between symptom perception and objective pathophysiological dysfunctions (Petersen
284 et al., 2015; Pezzulo et al., 2015; Zacharioudakis et al., 2020). Together, they make sense of multi-
285 faceted experiences which incorporate beliefs and body narratives co-created in ecological niches
286 (Van den Bergh et al., 2017). Overlapping neurophysiological processing pathways for interoception,
287 touch and mindfulness seen in fMRI studies highlight interactions between top-down cognition and
288 bottom-up sensorimotor experiences (Casals-Gutiérrez and Abbey, 2020). Osteopathic care that
289 combines touch and mindfulness appears to help patients with persistent pain (Abbey et al 2020),
290 but research is needed to understand the complex sense-making processes this approach involves.

291 **Mindfulness**

292 Mindfulness is described as being non-judgmentally present to moment-to-moment experience,
293 including thoughts, emotions, sensations and perceptions (Kabat-Zinn, 2012). People with persistent
294 pain who struggle with bodily distress develop selective attention towards (hypervigilance) or away
295 from discomfort (sensory attenuation) (Esteves et al 2022). Secular mindfulness (Harris 2009) and
296 meditation enable people to focus at will on different sensorimotor experiences and improve
297 interoceptive precision by focusing on top-down predictions of sensorimotor information
298 (Laukkonen and Slagter, 2020). People can regulate their interoceptive states and predictions in
299 changing environments (Fotopoulou and Tsakiris 2017; Fonagy and Campbell, 2017; Bolis and

300 Schilbach, 2020), through precise observations including wider sources of information (Lutz et al.,
301 2019). Non-judgmental perception of inputs categorised as 'pain' reduces avoidant responses by
302 improving precision-weighting in the posterior insula (Pagnoni, 2019; Laukkonen and Slagter, 2020)
303 and down-regulation of pain affect suggests successful suppression of top-down narratives (Zorn et
304 al., 2020). Uncoupling affective experiences from pain also decreases catastrophising, nociceptive
305 threat-based predictions, and reduces emphasis on past predictions.

306 Mindfulness is typically an individual practice but combining mindfulness and touch in osteopathy
307 may strengthen interoceptive skills. Guided practices can reframe sensations perceived as harmful as
308 'normal' and influence pain responses (Abbey et al 2020). Effects are enhanced by cooperative
309 communication, combining touch and verbal guidance, and alignment in patients' and practitioners'
310 active inference systems (McParlin et al 2020) and may be strengthened through shared processing
311 pathways (Casals-Gutierrez and Abbey, 2020).

312 **Touch**

313 Touch is the earliest functional sense to develop (Duhn, 2010; Crucianelli and Filippetti, 2018), and
314 the primary modality for communication and interaction. In early life, it enables sense-making in the
315 environment by conveying a sense of the physical presence of the 'other' (Björnsdotter et al., 2014).
316 Interoceptive touch refers to emotional and motivational aspects of tactile experiences, separated
317 into discriminative and affective touch (McGlone et al., 2014; Pawling et al., 2017). Affective touch
318 is linked to the specialised C-tactile (CT) system, which sends information to the interoceptive
319 cortex via the posterior insula (PI). It contributes to embodiment via bottom-up regulatory ANS
320 pathways (Björnsdotter et al., 2009; D'Alessandro et al., 2016). CT fibres are triggered by gentle
321 stroking and are important in building secure attachment in infancy (Duhn, 2010; Denworth, 2015;
322 Murphy et al., 2018; Croy et al., 2019). Touch is important in the enactive inference framework as
323 physical contact helps people infer each other's mental states and influences prior beliefs and
324 sensory arousal (Esteves et al 2022). Alliances are strengthened by repeated dynamic touching,
325 similar to the neurophysiological effects of C-tactile afferents in social touch which promote
326 synchrony and attunement (McParlin et al 2022).

327 Three factors differentiate touch from other senses; it is mutually-dyadic, multi-sensory, and
328 generates homeostatic information (Crucianelli and Filippetti, 2018). Mutually-dyadic refers to the
329 bidirectional process of physical contact: we cannot touch someone without being touched
330 (Merleau-Ponty, 1968). Therapeutic touch has been conceptualised as intrinsically shared and

331 synchronous (Ciaunica and Fotopoulou, 2017). The multi-modal integration of interoceptive,
332 proprioceptive and exteroceptive information and spatial-contextual features shape the meaning and
333 psychophysiological impact of touch. Homeostatic-informative aspects describe how touch
334 contributes to neurophysiological regulation, including sensory cues from the body and outer
335 environment. Homeostatic-physiological impacts are influenced by type of tactile stimulation
336 (McParlin et al 2022) and cranial touch may modulate parasympathetic nervous system activity
337 (Edwards et al., 2018). Touch location, speed, pressure, expectation, predictability, temperature,
338 and cultural biases and beliefs all influence individual interpretations (Ellingsen et al., 2015).
339 Osteopaths create varied opportunities to 'touch' patients, with outcomes influenced by synchrony
340 between a practitioner's intentions and the patient's perception. Enactive inference is therefore
341 important for understanding an individual's awareness, agency and body narrative.

342 **5 Narrative Medicine**

343 There are important links between active inference, therapeutic relationships and narrative
344 medicine as lived experiences influence symptom perception and narratives about the body and self.
345 Interdisciplinary narrative medicine incorporates phenomenology, language, aesthetics and bioethics
346 and proposes that thoughts do not exist outside the person's lifeworld but are brought into being
347 by speaking. It incorporates literature and art as creative representations of body-stories, as well as
348 relational language and the social realities that underpin healthcare dialogues. Stories are central to
349 lived experience and clinical encounters, as people make sense of themselves and their world
350 through storytelling (Venema, 2000). Language conveys nuanced meanings, making it important to
351 understand communication from individual's socio-cultural context to enable participatory sense-
352 making. Speech is a cooperative embodied action through which individuals create shared meanings.

353 Friston et al (2020) analysed linguistic exchanges to explore how question and answer dialogues
354 evolve. They demonstrated a communication hierarchy in which higher level beliefs, predictions and
355 inferences sequentially influenced word selection to clarify meanings. Questions were answered
356 quickly and precisely in linguistic exchanges where there were shared beliefs, but when beliefs were
357 imprecise, exchanges demonstrated uncertainty until convergence emerged through a process of
358 joint creative thinking. This indicates the value of narrative medicine for exploring patients' word
359 choices and understanding how dialogues illuminate beliefs and misunderstandings. Training in
360 narrative medicine can increase empathy, relationship-building, perspective-taking, reflection and
361 resilience and decrease burnout by developing narrative competence (Remein et al, 2019).

362 **Narrative competence**

363 *Narrative competence* is defined as the “ability to absorb, acknowledge, interpret and act on the
364 stories and plights of others” (Charon, 2001:1897). Clinicians access the meaning behind words,
365 silences and body language through listening, representation and affiliation. Close attendance to
366 spoken experience is supported by exploring poems and visual art as analogies for the lived-body.
367 Reading poetry has been described as akin to entering a complex system and may help clinicians to
368 negotiate clinical uncertainty and ambiguous language more effectively (Maretic and Abbey, 2021).
369 Uncertainty is part of clinical decision-making and the centre of a person's illness experience when
370 the familiar sense of agency changes. Tyreman (2015) argued that the role of practitioners is not
371 finding solutions to problems but enabling people to regain trust in their own bodies but sharing
372 patients’ journeys through uncertainty requires specific therapeutic attitudes and skills.
373 Phenomenology proposes that humans inhabit individual worlds that cannot be experienced by
374 others but can be ‘expressed’. Clinical encounters involve the ‘voice of medicine’ and the ‘voice of
375 the lifeworld’ (Mishler, 1984). Narrative medicine suggests that patients and osteopaths engage
376 through a shared focus on the body where meanings is created in the dyadic space. Co-constructed
377 narratives, however, depend on practitioners’ abilities to find points of entry into a patient’s world
378 and requires narrative competence in imaginative thinking and radical listening skills.

379 **Narrative humility**

380 Narrative medicine is underpinned by humility (DasGupta, 2008), where practitioners acknowledge
381 they cannot fully understand someone-else’s experience. Levinas’ philosophy of the ‘Other’
382 recognises that other people always lie outside our self-understanding (Irvine, 2005). We recognise
383 common experiences but also parts of their world experience that we do not, or cannot, share.
384 Recognition is about knowing and the limits of knowing (Felski, 2008), which has ethical implications
385 for balancing power in clinical relationships. Narrative humility enables practitioners to collaborate
386 and interact with patients’ stories without expecting to fully understand.

387 Sociology defines illness as a biographical disruption, with narratives that represent embodied chaos
388 and breakdown in adaptive agency. These can be hard to hear because of lack of narrative sequence
389 and painful loss of agency and require *narrative listening* (listening and thinking *with* and not *to* the
390 person's story; Frank, 1995), which focuses on plot, voice, space, temporality and meaning.
391 Practitioners who can hold a listening space enable people to explore new possibilities in familiar
392 stories and construct alternative meanings and sense of agency. People in pain are vulnerable and

393 often feel invalidated by healthcare communication (Carel and Kidd, 2014). Narrative training helps
394 practitioners become reflective, trust patients' stories, and bridge gaps between medical terms and
395 the language of lived experience. It explores intersubjectivity in therapeutic alliances and puts
396 patients' stories centre stage, enabling practitioners to work with complex pain experiences.
397 Narrative skills can therefore deepen understanding in clinical settings, but the process requires
398 humility, witnessing, and deep, dynamic recognition of self and other (Charon, 2001).

399 **6 Clinical applications and challenges**

400 Concepts presented above suggest that active and enactive inference are not simply theories or
401 tools to employ within traditional models of osteopathic practice. The enactive-ecological
402 framework proposed by Esteves et al. (2022) raises challenges to familiar therapeutic relationships
403 and modes of communication. Patients' beliefs and goals may not fit with osteopaths' agendas, so
404 strong, flexible therapeutic alliances are needed to work with prior predictions and shared sense-
405 making. The Osteopathy, Mindfulness and Acceptance Programme (OsteoMAP: Abbey et al 2020)
406 illustrates one example of integrated manual treatment and psychological self-management
407 interventions, with dual aims that are aligned with an ecological-enactivist approach.

408 'Patients' can be conceptualised as complex bio-medical or neurophysiological systems *and* bio-
409 psychosocially as 'people' within a unique lifeworld (Norlyk et al., 2013). 'Pain' can be interpreted as
410 physical dysfunction *and* as part of an embodied narrative. Osteopaths can help patients to manage
411 pain *and* encourage learning and dialogue to make sense of people's experiences. Dual agendas can
412 be conflicting *or* complementary, where both are used for different purposes using different skills.

413 The OsteoMAP study analysed outcomes from six-week courses for people with persistent pain
414 (Carnes et al 2017; Abbey et al 2020). Psychological interventions aimed to develop flexibility, the
415 core concept of Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT) and included mindfulness to increase
416 body and self-awareness (Hayes et al 2012). Quantitative outcomes showed improvements in
417 quality of life, active coping behaviour, acceptance and mindfulness. Qualitative data suggested
418 challenges for osteopaths in managing dual treatment aims included maintaining mindful awareness
419 throughout sessions and choosing when to focus on treatment or patient self-learning.

420 Behavioural interventions are effective when grounded in personal learning (Harris 2009) and
421 motivated by an individual's goals (Michie and Johnston 2012). This raises challenges for expert
422 practitioners, as facilitative communication is required for person-centred care (Thomson et al
423 2012; Thomson et al 2014; Tyreman 2020). Interventions to improve body awareness have physical

424 and psychological health benefits (Farb et al 2015; Mehling et al 2013) and self-awareness of habitual
425 reactions strengthens self-care. Enactivism offers insights into *how* changes occur, and predictive
426 processing explains the limits of pain education or cognitive reassurance for patients who do not
427 feel heard (Kube et al 2020). OsteoMAP results suggested better outcomes when osteopaths
428 created opportunities to notice differences between Patients' prior predictions and actual bodily
429 sensations using mindfulness and graded exposure (George and Zeppieri 2009).

430 Barriers to using OsteoMAP effectively included challenges in learning when and how to shift
431 between treatment and exploring present-moment experience (Carnes et al 2017). When
432 osteopaths felt uncertain, they reverted to 'expert' treatment agendas and people who were less
433 aware of their own experience or less able to create open communication struggled to create
434 learning opportunities. Some practitioners were effective in generating interoceptive 'surprise' when
435 experiences did not fit with expectations and exploring sensations in detail to increase interoceptive
436 precision. Non-verbal clues about anxiety (i.e., facial cues, tensing muscles, posture) were used to
437 explore habitual reactions to feared sensations and avoided movements. Osteopaths who remained
438 open and curious created flexible interventions grounded in patients' experiences that sometimes
439 led to transformational changes.

440 OsteoMAP was not, however, useful for all patients or osteopaths. Body awareness requires the
441 ability to describe sensations and willingness to share thoughts and feelings. Sessions using
442 enactivism or mindfulness differ from previous treatment and need careful communication and
443 consent to embody an effective model of person-centred care. This approach requires self-
444 awareness, developed through psychological skills training, mindfulness or narrative approaches.
445 OsteoMAP aligns with the new ecological-enactive framework for osteopathic practice (Esteves et
446 al., 2022), but both inevitably require the development of different attitudes, knowledge and skills.

447 **7 Discussion and Conclusion**

448 **– INSERT Figure I HERE –**

449 Figure I illustrates biomedical and psychosocial healthcare concepts with an 'enactive-ecological'
450 core that illustrates a multidimensional perspective of the patient-as-a-person. Concepts based on
451 different philosophical assumptions may conflict but are all relevant to varied models of practice.
452 The conclusions of this review are:

- 453 • Active inference and predictive engagement are important concepts that are best
454 understood within a person-centred perspective
- 455 • Therapeutic alliances and attachment theory are central to healthcare process and outcomes
- 456 • Patients' illness experiences of illness can be understood in a multi-dimensional context using
457 neurophysiological and phenomenological concepts
- 458 • It is necessary to prioritise lived experiences over treatment agendas to enable patients'
459 narratives to unfold
- 460 • Using enactive inference in practice requires shifts in therapeutic relationships and the
461 development of skills to facilitate patient learning

462 The enactive-ecological framework proposed by Esteves et al., (2022) is a promising means for
463 understanding mechanisms of effect and outcomes in osteopathic healthcare. New approaches,
464 however, require re-evaluation of traditional aims, working practices and education. Active
465 inference and predictive processing were initially analysed in biomedical and neurophysiological
466 research, but there are challenges in assuming that this identified tools that can be applied to
467 patients in the traditional practitioner-led modes of practice. More recent phenomenological and
468 psychological studies into enactivism emphasise the complex, dynamic nature of therapeutic
469 relationships and the need to understand patients in their unique sociocultural lifeworld context.

470 The new framework represents an important step towards evidence-based osteopathic practice but
471 would benefit from further research to assess:

- 472 • How to introduce concepts of active inference and enactivism in osteopathic education
- 473 • Effective methods of teaching psychological or mindful self- and body-awareness
- 474 • Narrative and communication skills training for participatory sense-making

475 Osteopaths have the potential to positively influence patients' health beliefs, body awareness, and
476 the prior predictions that influence avoidant behaviour. There is currently limited knowledge about
477 *how* positive changes occur or the barriers that limit changes for patients and practitioners. Further
478 research is recommended to explore how to create effectively integrated mind-body interventions
479 in the conceptual framework of enactive inference to increase the scope of osteopathic healthcare.

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481

482 **8 Conflicts of Interest**

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486 **12 References**

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