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Movement variability during skill transitions

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6	Intra-Individual Movement Variability during Skill Transitions: A Useful Marker?
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26 Abstract

27 Applied research suggests athletes and coaches need to be challenged in knowing when and how 28 much a movement should be consciously attended to. This is exacerbated when the skill is in 29 transition between two more stable states, such as when an already well learnt skill is being refined. Using existing theory and research, this paper highlights the potential application of movement 30 31 variability as a tool to inform a coach's decision-making process when implementing a systematic 32 approach to technical refinement. Of particular interest is the structure of co-variability between mechanical degrees-of-freedom (e.g., joints) within the movement system's entirety when undergoing 33 a skill transition. Exemplar data from golf are presented, demonstrating the link between movement 34 35 variability and mental effort as an important feature of automaticity, and thus intervention design 36 throughout the different stages of refinement. Movement variability was shown to reduce when 37 mental effort directed towards an individual aspect of the skill was high (target variable). The opposite pattern was apparent for variables unrelated to the technical refinement. Therefore, two 38 39 related indicators, movement variability and mental effort, are offered as a basis through which the 40 evaluation of automaticity during technical refinements may be made.

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42 Keywords: Technical change, skill modification, skill refinement, conscious control, the Five-A
43 Model, focus of attention

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53 Applied coaching: what the field needs

For high-level performers of discrete skills, a crucial and unavoidable requirement is the 54 ability to execute effective technique under high pressure conditions. As such, two important 55 factors that must be considered when preparing a performer to compete, are the effectiveness 56 of current technique, and its level of automaticity which, in turn, leads to resistance against 57 the negative effects of pressure (Singer, 2002). While addressing the first of these factors 58 represents a typical practice behaviour amongst high-level coaches, often by means of 59 kinematic analyses to identify a particular weakness in technique (Bartlett, 2007) and 60 61 evaluating performance outcome to understand its effect (Carson, Collins, & MacNamara, in press), being able to assess movement automaticity presents a far greater challenge. 62 However, if available, such data would be useful for coaches when evaluating the progress of 63 64 interventions in the build-up to high pressure situations. This is particularly pertinent, as we stress throughout this paper, in cases where an already existing and well-established 65 technique is considered to be in need of *refinement* (cf. Carson & Collins, 2011). In this 66 67 regard, Carson and Collins define skill refinement as reflecting "the evolution of technique in a way that is new to the athlete" (p. 147), therefore indicating the necessity for transition 68 from one original technique to an unfamiliar new version. Although this definition may 69 initially sound rather drastic, it should be stressed that technical refinement is more often than 70 71 not a subtle change or *tweak* to a specific aspect or component of technique. It is not, in 72 contrast to skill acquisition, a process of *establishing* movement efficiency through coordination and control (cf. Newell, 1985); these variables having already been well learnt 73 to good effect. In addition, from a theoretical perspective, such a "tool" could augment our 74 75 ability to evaluate different learning and practice environments.

Reflecting this important task of refining technique, recent research has highlighted a
significant gap within the literature addressing how a transition from one automated state to

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78 another may be achieved most effectively with long-term permanency and resistance to competitive pressure (Carson & Collins, 2011). This is in stark contrast to either *learning* 79 new skills, where automaticity is gradually acquired (Hays, Kornell, & Bjork, 2010; Janelle, 80 81 Champenoy, Coombes, & Mousseau, 2003), or *performing* skills optimally through exploiting established automaticity (Beilock & Gonso, 2008; Bell & Hardy, 2009; Mesagno 82 & Mullane-Grant, 2010), where research is readily apparent. This gap has also been 83 evidenced empirically within elite coaching practice, revealing unsystematic and inconsistent 84 approaches employed by European Tour professional golfers and coaches when attempting to 85 refine technique (Carson et al., in press). Crucially, Carson et al. discovered that 86 interventions often lead to a lack of pressure resistance as well as regression back to the 87 original technique, represented by constant fluctuations between automated and de-automated 88 89 states, often over a period of several years. In practical terms, players and coaches appeared to be challenged in knowing when and how much the technique should be consciously 90 attended to. This challenge was exacerbated when the skill was in transition between two 91 92 more stable states, such as when an already well learnt and automated skill was being refined. Accordingly, golf presents a sound starting point from which to explore the promotion of 93 effective skill refinement. 94

One potential line of enquiry in identifying the progress of refinement comes from the 95 study of movement variability, accounting for "the normal variations that occur in motor 96 performance across multiple repetitions of a task" (Stergiou & Decker, 2011, p. 869). 97 Previously, movement variability has been considered as the result of measurement "noise" 98 (e.g., kinematic, kinetic). Notably, however, advances from a nonlinear dynamics 99 perspective suggest that "it may be that the variance of movement dynamics is as revealing 100 as, or more revealing than, the invariance in terms of unpacking the nature of the system 101 organization" (Newell & Slifkin, 1998, p. 157). Consequently, the need for evaluation and 102

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103	critical consideration of movement variability against the factor of automaticity is clear.
104	Indeed, and relevant to the current paper's focus on golf, recent reviews have focused on such
105	study as an important route to an enhanced understanding of learning and performance
106	(Glazier, 2011; Langdown, Bridge, & Li, 2012).
107	Accordingly, in this paper we firstly examine areas of research that have explored the
108	meaning behind movement and outcome variability as an indicator of skill level. Secondly,
109	we draw upon the existing applied literature to propose how movement variability may be
110	indicative of optimal or suboptimal performance states in high-level performers. This will be

examined through a link with attentional focus, thus providing a reasoned prediction and

112 measure for what could be expected when tracking the skill refinement process. Finally,

exemplar data from golf are provided to show how, as a tool, this may be used to inform the

114 process of refinement.

115 Work in other areas: what is on offer?

116 Variability as a marker of skill learning

117 From a process point of view, learning can be characterised as a progression towards

118 outcome invariance associated with increasing performance-related attainment.

119 Concurrently, movement variability can also be employed as an indicator of learning or

120 expertise as movement execution becomes more proficient (Gentile, 1972). However, unlike

the recognised trend towards outcome invariance, the directional change (increased or

decreased) in movement variability has formed the subject of much debate (e.g., Glazier,

123 2011; Newell & Vaillancourt, 2001). For instance, Bradshaw et al. (2009) found higher

skilled golfers to produce lower variability in key features of the golf swing (e.g., stance and

timing) when compared to lower skilled golfers. In contrast, however, this trend of decreased

126 movement variability associated with an increase in skill level, appears to be inconsistent

127 across experimental findings and tasks. For example, Button, MacLeod, Sanders, and

128 Coleman (2003) reported increased movement variability between the elbow and wrist joints during a basketball free throwing task when comparing experts' to novices' techniques prior 129 to ball release. Clearly movement variability is a complex phenomenon when analysing the 130 131 learning of skills, something that recent theory has attempted to explain. Resolving the problem of directional change: the uncontrolled manifold (UCM) hypothesis 132 To better understand this complexity around the significance or meaning of directional 133 change in movement variability, researchers have focused on one of Bernstein's (1967) most 134 fundamental questions: that is, how does the motor system organise itself to solve a given 135 136 task when a seemingly infinite number of combinations are available to it? Initially, Bernstein suggested that the central nervous system plans movement by constraining the 137 many degrees-of-freedom (DoFs) into groups, or synergies, which are pertinent to achieving 138 139 the task goal, whilst freezing or eliminating those that are not so essential. Glazier and Davids (2009) explain the formation of these synergies, as a reflection of lower skilled 140 performers actively searching for stable (i.e., enduring and difficult to reform) and functional 141 coordinative states. Therefore, from this perspective, motor planning requires eventually 142 attending to a small(er) number of functional control variables, providing a simpler 143 mechanism for movement organisation (Bernstein, 1967). However, in addition to the 144 contradictory evidence from Button et al. (2003), some authors (e.g., Latash & Anson, 2006) 145 have argued against this notion, emphasising that freezing out DoFs requires perhaps 146 147 enhanced control over certain joints, representing a far from trivial task. This point is a very important one and something that we shall return to in the next section. 148 Accordingly, if movement planning does not occur through the organisation of 149 synergies and elimination of the remaining DoFs, what *is* actually happening? Recently, 150 research has suggested that the answer can be found by considering two different, but equally 151

152 important aspects of movement, *stability* and *flexibility*. A synergy is redefined as a

structural unit (stability) that is also capable of error correction and adaptation (flexibility). 153 In comparison to previous thought, the uncontrolled manifold (UCM) hypothesis (Scholz & 154 Schöner, 1999) seeks to identify motor synergies on the basis that no DoFs are ever frozen or 155 eliminated but rather, that they are organised in such a way as to provide *both* stability and 156 flexibility towards achieving specific task goals (Gelfand & Latash, 1998). This is achieved 157 by constraining (reducing the variability) the DoFs that are important to achieving the task 158 goal, termed *performance variables*, into a structural unit, while at the same time releasing 159 (thus increasing the variability) the DoFs that are not as important, termed *elemental* 160 161 variables. As a result of this, the error-correction mechanism, or flexibility, to implement a synergy (movement pattern) within a variety of environmental contexts is now enabled. 162 Accordingly, it is not the directional change of each individual DoF that is important but 163 164 rather, the structure of co-variability between DoFs within the movement system's entirety (Langdown et al., 2012; Latash, Scholz, & Schöner, 2002). 165

166 Variability as a marker of transitions

Similar to the nonlinear trends described when learning motor skills, recent evidence has 167 demonstrated the potential for variability in performance results to be a useful indicator when 168 experiencing a perturbation to an already well-established skill. Following the examination 169 of successful olfactory and visual search refinement in dogs (i.e., the skill is already learnt, it 170 simply requires a slight tweak), Helton (2011) concluded that, in order to facilitate long-term 171 172 change in the dogs' ability to detect new stimuli, the existing (already well-established) detection strategy employed must be "overlaid" with an alternative one, directing attention 173 towards the to-be-learnt stimuli. Following this, a shift towards consistent detection of the 174 new stimuli manifested itself as a gradual fading out of the original strategy, representing a 175 skill phase transition (a sudden and spontaneous shift in system components to form a new 176 stable behaviour; Kelso, 1984). Data showed performance variability to steadily decrease 177

and stabilise during the acquisition of the original behaviour. This was followed later by
increases during the transitory stage and finally, by reduction back to original levels when restabilisation of the refinement had occurred. On the basis of these results, it seems that such
patterns of change in performance (e.g., the number of fairways hit from tee shots in golf)
could also be employed as a marker by coaches when tracking technical refinement in
athletes.

184 *A summary of available perspectives*

The growth of interest in movement variability clearly reflects its potential to significantly 185 186 contribute within research of applied coaching practice. However, its interpretation within the learning context appears to be, at present, very complex and strongly predicted by the 187 interacting constraints described by Newell (i.e., organismic, task, and environmental; 1986), 188 189 thus supporting a trend in favour of intra- as opposed to inter-individual analyses (e.g., Ball & Best, 2012). Crucially however, in the case of either performance or elemental variables as 190 described by the UCM, the amount of movement variability demonstrated by performers with 191 192 a high level of automaticity should be relatively consistent (intra-individually) and, therefore, interpreted as entirely functional towards achieving a desired movement goal. Consequently, 193 one may perhaps characterise the learning process more accurately as a move from 194 dysfunctional to functional movement variability levels. 195

196 Linking theory to practice: variability as a marker for refining already learnt skills

197 Contrary to the volume of research on learning skills, there has been scarce consideration 198 towards the expected intra-individual patterns of movement variability when undergoing 199 transitory stages associated with a consciously initiated perturbation; for example when 200 attempting a long-term permanent technical refinement once a high-level of skill and 201 functional movement variability has already been established. However, several recent 202 studies offer an insight into what can be expected.

203 Movement variability in applied settings

Addressing the impact of movement variability from the applied literature, MacPherson, 204 Collins, and Morriss (2008) suggest that when skilled performers exert a heightened level of 205 206 conscious control, that is an internal focus (cf. McNevin, Shea, & Wulf, 2003), to a single aspect of their technique, this results in decreased variability for that aspect, coupled with an 207 increase in variability associated with other, less related movement constituents. This 208 dysfunctional movement variability often leads to suboptimal levels of performance. To 209 contextualise this finding against the UCM paradigm, the aspect subjected to increased 210 211 conscious control decreases in variability because perhaps, temporarily at least, it is considered as more important than other aspects. Indeed, this would support the earlier 212 contention of Latash and Anson (2006); dismissing the view that eliminating (reduced 213 214 movement variability) a DoF represented an easier method of control. In fact, the results from MacPherson et al. (2008) would suggest the opposite! 215

It is worth addressing at this point somewhat of a contradiction within other attentional focus literature. In a recent review, Wulf (2013) suggested that an internal focus of attention served to constrain the motor system (reduce the variability), whereas an external focus releases the DoFs, therefore promoting functional movement variability that is much higher. While we support the notion that a specific internal focus would reduce the variability of that particular component, attention to the co-variability within the movement system as recommended by the UCM hypothesis appears to be lacking.

Accordingly, when applying these concepts relating to the optimum performance of movement skills to current models of refinement, we suggest that, once a movement has been learnt, movement variability "settles down" to a reasonably consistent, stable level. However, when the performer decides to work on a particular aspect of that movement by exerting increased conscious control, that particular part becomes more consistent (with even lower variability) whilst the variability of other non-associated parts increases. Once the
change is fully re-automated and conscious control has been largely removed, variability
levels return to a consistent and stable level across the different components of the skill (see
Figure 1 for an idealised representation).

232 Ensuring an adequate attentional focus

When attempting to investigate the attentional focus-movement variability 233 relationship, one important factor to consider is the performer's ability to apply a sufficient 234 focus under both automated and de-automated conditions. Previous research into bimanual 235 236 coordination suggests that movement of the upper-limbs are tightly coupled, with the brain deploying signals to the same muscle structures across both limbs as a default (Kelso, 237 Southard, & Goodman, 1979). Accordingly, symmetrical coordination of the limbs, known 238 239 as in-phase, requires identical firing of muscle groups and reliably produces the most stable, automatic mode of coordination (Kelso, 1984; Zanone & Kelso, 1992). In contrast, 240 movements following an anti-phase pattern, alternated activation of the same muscle groups 241 of each limb, are slightly less stable and require an increased attentional focus in order to 242 stabilise (Temprado, Zanone, Monno, & Laurent, 1999). The implications of these findings 243 within the context of sports coaching is that changing, or disrupting, an already stabilised 244 coordination pattern (consider this to represent an in-phase pattern) will be most effective if 245 there is an attempt to de-couple the existing relationship between the left and right upper-246 247 limbs, should that be the desired modification. In other words, it is possible to apply a greater intensity of internal focus on one of the limbs in isolation rather than attending to both limbs 248 simultaneously. As a result, this will likely serve to de-automate/destabilise the coordinative 249 structure across the limbs via interference to the existing neural pathway. Therefore, this 250 provides a theoretical and empirical basis on which to investigate the attentional focus-251 movement variability relationship. 252

To exemplify how tracking trends in such a process may be utilised within the applied 253 setting, we now provide a brief account of some pilot work in high-level golf examining the 254 effect of attentional focus on movement co-variability. Based on the arguments presented 255 above, we hypothesised that, when compared to the variability patterns observed in a well-256 known and automated skill, increased (conscious) attention to a particular part of the skill 257 would result in a decrease in variability. By contrast, and as another feature of this attention, 258 the variability of non-crucial (i.e., not attended to) components would result in increased 259 variability. 260

261 What we might expect: exemplar cases of acute technical refinement in golf

262 *Methods*

263 *Participants.* Three right handed male golfers between the ages of 25 and 30 years (M =

264 26.7, SD = 2.9) were recruited for this study. All were members of the Professional Golfers'

Association (PGA) of Great Britain and Ireland. Preceding data collection, participants were

required to read an information sheet and provide signed formal consent. Ethical approval

267 was gained from the University's Ethics Committee prior to data collection.

Procedures. Prior to testing, participants were asked about their "natural" golf swing 268 technique. It was established that two participants preferred to shape the golf ball in a left-to-269 right direction (fade) and the remaining participant a right-to-left direction (draw) during 270 play. All confirmed that to execute their natural technique would require a low level of 271 conscious control; in other words, they could perform that particular type of shot with a high 272 level of automaticity. After a warm-up phase of approximately five minutes, participants 273 completed 10 full golf swings adopting their natural technique. To help promote 274 automaticity, shots were executed with a commonly used golf club, a 7 iron, which was 275 reported as easy to perform successfully, towards a distant target in a straight line. Prompts 276 were provided after Trials 3, 6, and 9, to focus on hitting the target. Following these trials, 277

278 participants discussed the changes in technique required to execute the non-preferred type of shot (i.e., fade when a draw was preferred, or vice versa); kinaesthetic cues were developed 279 by each participant to help them detect the difference between the two techniques. Emphasis 280 281 was placed on developing one key unilateral thought to focus on (a target variable) in order to bring about the desired change (cf. Kelso et al., 1979). As a result, all reported a focus 282 towards the right arm movement during the backswing. Ten shots were then executed as per 283 the previous condition, only this time participants were asked, and reminded after Trials 3, 6, 284 and 9, to remain focused on their developed cue. Immediately following each of the two 285 conditions, participants were asked to rate their overall level of mental effort (representative 286 of conscious control) exerted during shot executions using the Rating Scale for Mental Effort 287 (Zijlstra, 1993). The scale ranged from 0 (not at all effortful), to 75 (moderately effortful), 288 and 150 (very effortful). For the second condition, this reflected the level of awareness 289 directed towards the kinaesthetic cue aimed at changing the target variable. All kinematic 290 data were collected using an inertial-sensor motion capture suit (MVN Biomech Suit, Xsens® 291 292 Technologies B.V., Enschede, The Netherlands) at a sampling rate of 120 Hz. Data processing and analysis. Raw data from the MVN Studio Software (Xsens[®] 293 Technologies B.V, Enschede, the Netherlands) were exported into c3d file format and 294 analysed using six degrees of freedom modelling with Visual3D[™] v4.89.0 software (C-295 Motion[®] Inc, Germantown, MD, USA). Two swing events were identified to define the 296 backswing, with the time between each event normalised to 101 points. The first event 297 (onset) was defined as the frame when the left hand's centre of gravity linear speed crossed a 298 threshold value of 0.2 m/s in the local medial/lateral axis relative to pelvis. The second event 299 (top of swing) was defined as the frame when the distal end position of the right hand reached 300 its maximum value in the global vertical axis. All data were exported to Microsoft Excel[®] 301 2010 for graphical analysis of variables related to the right and *left* upper-limbs. 302

303 Of particular interest was the variance/covariance interaction between body segments 304 that were related (i.e., the right upper-limb; target variable) and unrelated (i.e., the left upper-305 limb; a non-target variable) to the technical refinement.

306 *Results*

Mental effort ratings increased for all participants between the initial target focus (low mental 307 effort) and second unilateral internal focus (high mental effort) conditions; results are 308 presented in Figure 2. Movement variability showed a *decrease* in the right elbow for all 309 participants during the high mental effort condition, where there was an explicit focus on the 310 kinaesthesia of the right arm (see Figure 3 left column). In association with directing 311 attention to this unilateral movement constituent, and as predicted, movement variability 312 increased for left upper-limb joints (see Figure 3 right column). Changes in kinematic joint 313 314 angles are presented in Figure 4, evidencing that changes intended in the second condition were actually achieved. One distinct feature of these graphs is the inter-individual nature of 315 change for both variability and kinematic measures. As such, statistical treatment of data was 316 seen as inappropriate. 317

318 Discussion

These exemplar cases aimed to examine the implementation of intra-individual movement 319 variability when addressing technical refinement against a factor of conscious control within 320 a single session. In doing so, kinematic analyses provide insightful data to support the 321 suggested patterns of movement variability during this transitory process, especially when 322 considered against the theoretical suggestions of the UCM hypothesis (cf. Scholz & Schöner, 323 1999). What is important to highlight at this early stage of experimentation, is our intention 324 not to provide a test of the UCM hypothesis, but rather to use its insights into movement 325 planning and organisation to help interpret our data and guide applied practice. In addition, 326 the data support previous findings that show a decrease in movement variability when an 327

internal focus is applied (cf. Wulf, 2013). Furthermore, they reveal that the structure of
variability across related and unrelated variables is highly complex, supporting the need for
intra-individual analyses, but which can indeed inform about the nature of the motor system's
organisation (Newell & Slifkin, 1998).

Data support the underlying importance of tracking kinematic factors to determine a 332 stable level of execution or level of automaticity for complex movements (MacPherson et al., 333 2008), and could also be viewed as support towards the progression of events across the 334 attractor landscape over multiple time scales, as described by Newell, Liu, and Mayer-Kress 335 336 (2001). This is a crucial point within coaching practice since describing the motor system at a behavioural level (i.e., analysis of technique) will not provide any indication towards the 337 level of automaticity or stability within the system evolving over the course of such a 338 339 dynamic transitory process. Hence, as mentioned within the introduction, being able to assess both factors of execution remains essential when assessing the refinement of skills, 340 since one would demonstrate the actual execution of correct technique (location along the 341 attractor landscape) before it was able to be performed with high levels of automaticity (depth 342 of the attractor well). Indeed, analysis of performance (cf. Helton, 2011) may also prove to 343 reveal a longer-term timescale for refinement at an outcome level. In short, it is unrealistic to 344 expect long-term pressure resistant technical change to result from a single session of 345 practice. 346

From a practical point of view, by measuring movement variability against mental effort, two process markers are provided, enabling greater triangulation (along with conventional outcome data) of information which, in turn, can be used to better inform coaching decisions and, from a research perspective, track change under different practice conditions.

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352 One limitation of the data presented is the lack of detailed consideration towards the co-variation between several joints across a coordinative structure (e.g., multiple joints of the 353 same limb), nor between axes of rotation relating to each of the target and non-target 354 355 variables. An analysis of co-variability across proximal-to-distal joint couplings may prove additionally insightful, especially when adopting a focus that is either more proximal (e.g., 356 the left elbow) or distal (e.g., the left wrist) to the movement's centre. Indeed, this is 357 something that future research should investigate. However, in the case of highly asymmetric 358 movements such as the golf swing, assessing the co-variability between joints across both 359 360 limbs (i.e., flexion-extension, internal-external rotation, and add-abduction of the left and right elbows for instance) may not prove as useful since it may not be possible, or even the 361 desired technical refinement, to individually constrain the axes of rotation about a joint as a 362 direct function of attentional focus. Nor will the corresponding axes of rotation about 363 opposing joints (e.g., left and right elbows) necessarily be coupled when performing the golf 364 swing. However, this may be of interest when examining in-phase movements typical of 365 366 laboratory experiments (e.g., Zanone & Kelso, 1992). What these data do support is the potential use of movement variability directed towards the general area, but that is locked 367 into the performer's focus of attention. Therefore, from a coaching perspective, providing 368 each variable, target and non-target, remain on the course of variability pattern as depicted in 369 Figure 1; both would present appropriate markers for tracking the skill refinement process. 370 371 In viewing the significant and robust contribution that may be gained from employing

an analysis using the UCM method, this study is limited by not doing so; however, is
something that experimenters may wish to consider. Indeed, our own future work will aim to
include some elements of this testing in representative performance environments.
Principally, there were several reasons to explain its exclusion from the present study. We

were not able to conclusively identify success in achieving a predetermined position of the

377 target variable. Rather, this was related to the performer's ability to reproduce the selfgenerated kinaesthesia. When conducting an analysis using the Uncontrolled Manifold 378 method, Scholz, Schöner, and Latash (2000) state that mixing successful and unsuccessful 379 380 trials would not makes sense since they correspond to different manifolds. With the possibility for this mixture within our data, we considered such an analysis as potentially 381 flawed. The authors also later explain that to perform such an analysis would require 382 sufficiently more trials than we have collected, namely ~20 (Latash, Levin, Scholz, & 383 Schöner, 2010). Accordingly, and in contrast to the methods reported in this study, greater 384 385 efforts would need to be focused on predefining a task variable (e.g., golf club position or exact positioning of a target variable) to be able to compare between successful and 386 unsuccessful trials. This would therefore facilitate an analysis of different hypotheses to 387 388 determine which variables were considered to provide stability or flexibility to the technique. To obtain a detailed examination of this method in a comparable scenario, pistol shooting, we 389 encourage those interested to read the paper by Scholz et al. (2000) who compared the impact 390 of different variables on shooting success. What we hope to have achieved in this paper is to 391 establish a formal link between the structure of a movement synergy and the intensity and 392 direction of a performer's attentional focus (conscious control/automaticity). 393

394 Conclusion

By adopting the theoretical standpoint offered by the UCM hypothesis, it is clear that attention in measurement must be paid towards the structure of movement variability or, in other words, the co-variability across different components of a skill when addressing technical refinement. In using this approach, an examination into the effects of associated attentional foci on movement kinematics during the process of refinement has been made. Therefore, when movement variability and mental effort are measured in tandem, a coach, most probably through assistance from applied sport science support (cf. Carson et al., in

press), may be better informed about a performer's level of automaticity and readiness to 402 compete. What is now required to verify these contentions and initial findings is to 403 implement and assess the practical use of movement variability over an extended time period 404 within an applied coaching framework, and across a variety of changes and performers when 405 undergoing a planned technical refinement. In doing so, this may provide more robust 406 evidence towards the theoretical meaning and operational use of movement variability. In 407 sum, this paper highlights the need for an understanding of movement variability as an index 408 of attentional focus when implementing technical refinements in applied coaching practice. 409

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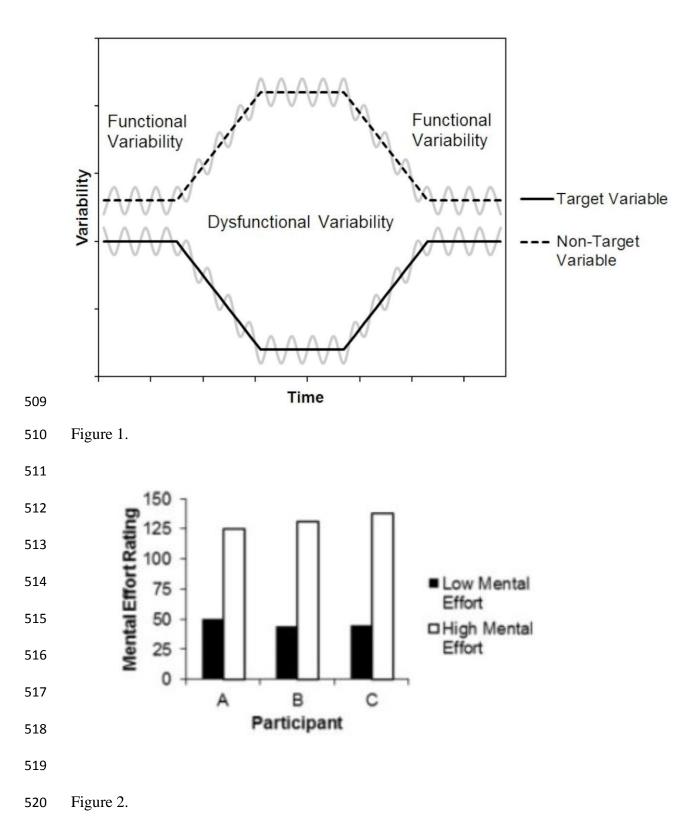
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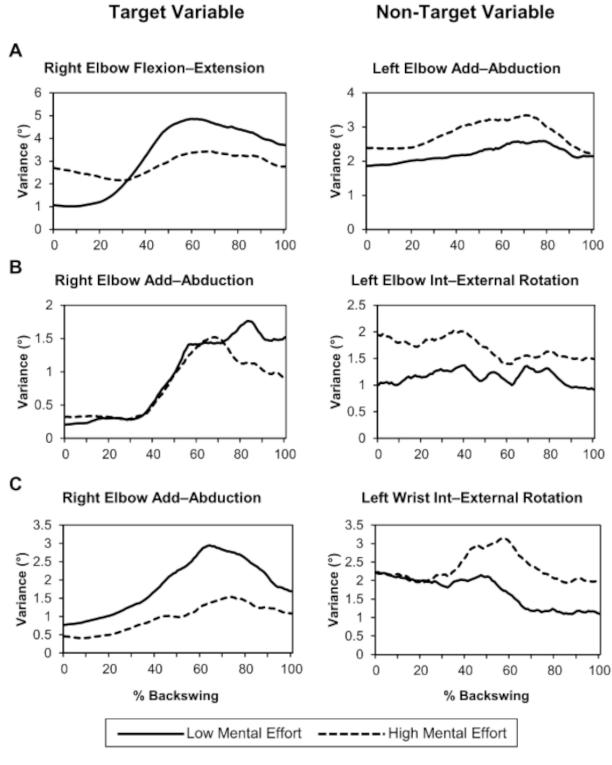
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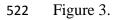
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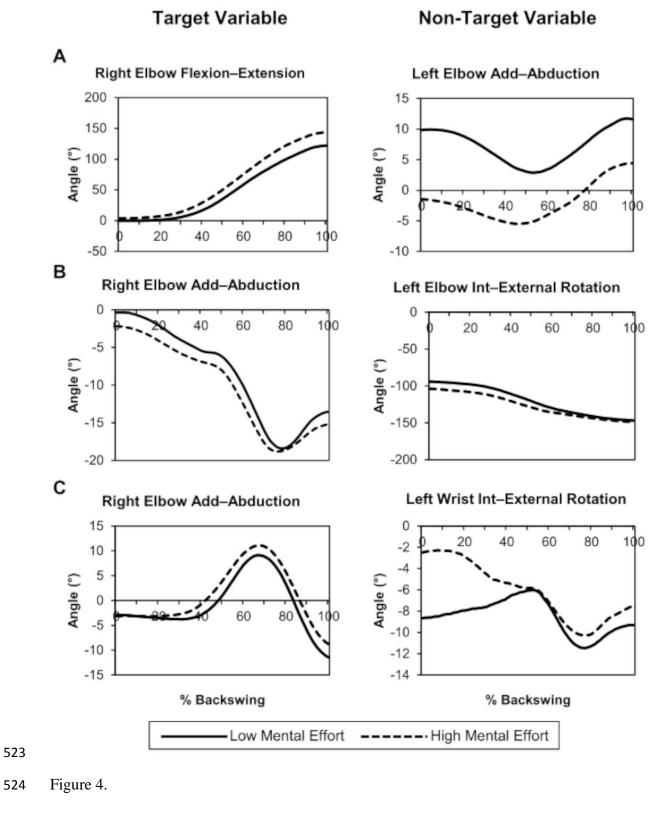






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Non-Target Variable



528 **Figure captions**

Figure 1. An idealised representation of co-variability through the refinement 529 530 process, depicting initially stable and consistent levels of variability for two components of a movement (functional variability). As one of those components is consciously attended to 531 (target variable), movement variability decreases for that component associated with an 532 533 increase in variability for the non-targeted component (dysfunctional variability). Due to the levels of dysfunctional movement variability being inherently unknown within each 534 individual, completion of this phase is characterised by a levelling out in variability, 535 536 signifying maximum de-automation. Gradual automation of the new technique is shown to occur through a stable return to largely subconscious thought and functional variability of 537 both movement components. Reflecting the inherent nonlinear nature of this process, the 538 faint lines depict a more representative data set with the straight lines representing trends. 539 Figure 2. Mental effort scores when performing under initially low and then high 540 levels of mental effort directed towards a target variable. 541 Figure 3. Movement co-variance for kinematics subjected to an increase in conscious 542 control relating to the right limb (target variable) and less associated variables relating to the 543

left limb (non-target variable), measured from the swing onset to the top of the backswing.

• Figure 4. Mean positional data for the target and non-target variables measured from the swing onset to the top of the backswing.

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