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Abstract

Optimally focused attention has been shown to be a key psychological characteristic for peak 15 performance in golf; a feature commonly achieved with a pre-shot routine. However, 16 17 research to date has yet to address how a golfer's attention should best shift across the broader period of a whole game, or even including pre-event preparations, to support the pre-18 shot process and, ultimately, performance. Reflecting this knowledge gap, the present review 19 aims to clarify current conceptual understanding and best practice against this wider 20 perspective on attentional control, as well as highlight areas which must be considered for 21 22 advances to be made. Specifically, research is required on the cognitive, behavioral, and temporal elements of routines used between shots and holes. Furthermore, to manage the 23 24 attentional demands of the entire golf performance experience, such investigation also needs 25 to explore the critical role of the support team and pre-tournament planning. *Keywords:* preparation, pre-pre-shot routine, post-shot routine, support team 26

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So What Do We Do With the Rest of the Day? Going Beyond the Pre-shot Routine in Professional Golf Support

The use of psychological skills has long been recognized as a significant differentiator 29 between elite and non-elite sport performers (Durand-Bush, Salmela, & Green-Demers, 2001; 30 Salmon, Hall, & Haslam, 1994; Stevenson, 1999; Weinberg, Burton, Yukelson, & Weigand, 31 1993). In the case of golf, McCaffrey and Orlick (1989) outlined a number of mechanistic 32 factors associated with performance excellence, including: commitment, quality practice, 33 goal setting, imagery, practice planning, pre-tournament planning, tournament focus 34 planning, distraction control, and tournament evaluation. More recently, a body of work has 35 also investigated and supported the efficacy of pre-shot routines (for a comprehensive review 36 see Cotterill, 2010). To date, however, little research has addressed the attributes required to 37 38 successfully "fill the gap" between psychological skills applied in pre-tournament planning and those applied in shorter-term, pre-shot routines. In other words, there exists a significant 39 knowledge gap on the optimal use of time between shots and holes which, chronometrically 40 at least, represents the majority of "play" in any round. For the purposes of this paper, we 41 focus on the professional game, where the significance of this omission is likely to be greater. 42 Of course, given its essential role in performance, the focus and nature of performers' 43

attention has a substantial history in sport literature (Garfield & Bennett, 1984; Loehr, 1984; 44 Privette, 1981, 1982; Ravizza, 1977). Defined as "engagement in the perceptual, cognitive, 45 and motor activities associated with performing skills" (Magill, 2003, p.141), attention has, 46 however, developed into a highly fragmented construct. Specifically, several categories are 47 commonly applied in relation to attentional focus, including: internal and external (Nideffer 48 & Sagal, 1998; Wulf & Prinz, 2001); broad and narrow (Nideffer & Sagal, 1998); proximal 49 and distal (Bell & Hardy, 2009, McNevin, Shea, & Wulf, 2003); associative and dissociative 50 (Morgan & Pollack, 1977; Schomer, 1986); endogenous (voluntary) and exogenous (non-51

voluntary) (Jonides, 1981; Posner, 1980); and content and characteristics (Bernier, Codron,
Thienot, & Fournier, 2011). Based on these studies, it can be inferred that high-level golfers
should utilize information from visual, kinesthetic, and auditory sources to attend to different
attentional foci depending on the situation they face.

Perhaps due to the predominant micro (i.e., pre-shot) focus of the literature, work to 56 date has largely failed to address exactly what skilled golfers focus on before and after their 57 swing, and during the considerable gap time which exists in between shots and holes. 58 Moreover, by primarily considering performers' attention immediately preceding or during 59 60 shot execution, this field of study has also overlooked how the intensity of a golfer's focus may change during an entire round (Hellstrom, 2009). Indeed, important tasks engaged 61 beyond pre-shot and shot levels all require changes in the breadth and direction of attention. 62 63 These include meso-level information processing before entering a pre-shot routine (e.g. course set-up, ball lie, pin position, wind speed/direction, technical changes made since last 64 facing a similar shot or situation) and the return to meso-processing after shots (i.e., post-shot 65 routine) (Hellstrom, 2009; Thomas, 2001). Taking this requirement against the lack of 66 scholarly knowledge, work is needed which explores what attention should be focused on and 67 how its intensity may change in the time preceding and proceeding shot execution. 68 Anecdotal evidence (cf. Carter, 2013; Scott, 2014; Townsend, 2014) suggests that 69

there a number of potential distractions that professional golfers may face which will require effective meso-level attentional patterning. These distractions will vary in both number and scope, depending upon factors such as: tournament size and importance (e.g. Majors/the Ryder Cup versus a smaller tour event); standing within the tournament (e.g. holding the lead versus chasing the leader); and any tournament specific demands (e.g. the challenging rough at the US Open or the challenging greens at the Masters). The importance of effective attentional patterning at a meso-level was also demonstrated within research by Cohn (1991), who found that peak golf performance was associated with staying in the present, not
focusing on past or future events (such as shots that have been hit or a potential score), and
having a narrow focus of attention . Anecdotal evidence from players also suggests macroplanning can be used to cope with meso-level attentional demands such as moving on from
dropped shots. For example Ogilvy (2012) discussed that part of his preparation for the US
Open was using imagery to rehearse how he would react and cope with making more bogies
versus a regular tournament.

Given that knowing what to focus on and how is essential for peak performance in 84 elite golf (Hellstrom, 2009), especially given the number and scale of possible distractions, 85 the purpose of this paper is threefold. First, we outline current understanding of macro-level 86 (i.e., tournament preparation) and meso-level (i.e., shot preparation and response) planning in 87 88 golf. Additionally, we also consider how both macro and meso processes may be enhanced via the golfer's work with their support team. Second, and based on existing literature, we 89 discuss and outline current best practice for the patterning of golfers' focus in-between shots 90 91 and holes. Finally, these preceding considerations are integrated to provide directions on how knowledge gaps in this area may be effectively filled. 92

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Macro- and Meso-Level Planning in Golf: Current Understanding

94 Macro (Pre-tournament) Planning

Although McCaffrey and Orlick (1989) outlined the importance of a pre-tournament
plan, this key performance feature has remained relatively under-researched in golf. Given
that pre-tournament preparation includes a mental plan for course management and shot
making strategies, as well as a logistical plan for the management of event requirements and
responsibilities (McCaffrey & Orlick, 1989), the comparative dearth of work on this topic is
surprising, especially when heeding anecdotal evidence from players (Diaz, 2008; Ogilvy,
2012). Additionally, research in other sports has repeatedly highlighted the importance of a

102 structured integration of mental skills and preparative behaviors before competitive performance (Beauchamp, Bray, & Albinson, 2002; Judge, Bell, Bellar, & Wanless, 2011; 103 Malouff, McGee, Halford, & Rooke, 2008.). We now consider some of the most important 104 skills and behaviors which can (and should?) be applied in macro-level planning. 105 Pre-tournament imagery. Work from Paivio (1985) has shown that athletes can use 106 imagery to rehearse skills (cognitive-specific imagery) as well as strategies of play and 107 routines (cognitive-general imagery) prior to competition. Additionally, pre-tournament 108 imagery can also serve a specific and general motivational function (Paivio, 1985) where 109 athletes image the achievement of goals (motivational specific: Callow & Hardy, 2001) and 110 also physiological arousal and its effects (motivational general: Hall, Mack, Paivio, & 111 Hausenblas, 1998). Notably, general motivational imagery focused on performance arousal 112 and mastery has been linked to a range of positive outcomes such as self-regulation and self-113 efficacy (Callow, Hardy, & Hall, 2011; Feltz & Riessinger, 1990; Hecker & Kaczor, 1988; 114 Vadocz, Hall, & Moritz, 1997). Unfortunately, while cognitive and motivational imagery are 115 valuable psychological pre-competition techniques, only Beauchamp, Bray, and Albinson, 116 (2002) have integrated this perspective into golf. The consequent lack of understanding in 117 this area is surprising given the clear anecdotal evidence from elite golfers which supports the 118 use of pre-competition imagery (Ogilvy, 2012). Clearly, such "running through the 119 possibilities" resonates with literature in other sports (cf. Hemery, 1986) and would seem to 120 121 offer an important tool for pre-tournament preparation in golf.

Pre-tournament technical change/refinement. Evidence from coaches and players suggests that pre-tournament planning may also effectively include an element of technical change, or at least technical refinement. For instance, Diaz (2008) has previously described how David Leadbetter worked with Trevor Immelman prior to the 2008 Masters tournament to make specific technical changes which would permit better distance control on approach shots to greens; a specific challenge for that particular golf course. From this motoric
perspective, sports psychology literature (e.g. Cumming & Hall, 2002) suggests that the use
of cognitive-specific imagery could help a player to implement a technical change prior to a
tournament due to its functional equivalence with physical practice (Hall, 2001; Holmes &
Collins, 2001) and would therefore represent a core planning feature for particular events.

Tactical planning. Facilitating golfers' pre-tournament imagery and technical 132 change/refinement, as well as being a vital process in its own right, McCaffrey and Orlick 133 (1989) have also earlier suggested that touring professionals hold mental plans for course 134 management and shot-making strategies. As other work has identified that cognitive-general 135 imagery may be used to image these plans and strategies (Paivio, 1985), the implication for 136 golfers and their support teams is that mental models of an established tactical plan should be 137 138 developed. However, to date, there has been no research addressing how such pretournament planning interacts with meso-level in-game thinking, the attentional demands of a 139 round, and how any ad hoc changes in tactics may influence or be influenced by the player's 140 attentional focus. 141

142 The Meso Shot Cycle- Planning, Response and Clearing

As it takes less than 5 seconds to address the ball and swing the golf club, and usually 143 less than 45 seconds to plan and execute a shot, Bruce (1998) suggested that a golfer who 144 shoots level par (usually 72 strokes) will be planning shots for 25% of their time and playing 145 146 shots for 2% of their time on the course. This small percentage of time engaged in the planning and execution of shots clearly leaves large gaps of time in-between shots which 147 golfers can fill with a number of potentially effective strategies. Grounding these strategies in 148 established terminology, the most pertinent are pre-pre-shot preparation and a post-shot 149 150 routine.

Pre-Pre (**Pre**²) **shot preparation.** Given the role of cognitive and somatic states for 151 the execution of motor skills (Hardy, Jones, & Gould, 1996), there has been a surprising lack 152 of literature on how golfers prepare prior to playing shots. In one of the few exceptions, 153 Kirschenbaum, Owens, and O'Connor (1998) put forth their concept of Smart Golf which 154 involves players' use of the acronym PAR: Plan, Apply and React. Similar to the broad 155 external focus advocated by Nideffer and Sagal (2006), in which a golfer would assess the 156 hole or shot they are about to play, Kirschenbaum et al.'s approach implies that golfers must 157 plan certain elements of their shot *prior* to beginning their pre-shot routine. While the 158 applicability of Smart Golf to elite players can be challenged over its simplicity, these 159 authors' broader suggestion that players should engage in a certain amount of cognitive 160 preparation prior to starting their pre-shot routine is both face-valid and conceptually 161 162 justified. As noted above, however, we have little understanding of what this process best consists of and how it is best played out in professional golf performance. 163

Post-shot routine. It is widely accepted within both sport psychology and golf 164 literature that once a golfer has executed a shot, attention should shift towards evaluation, 165 commonly known as the post-shot routine (Finn, 2009). Specifically, research suggests that a 166 number of behavioral and cognitive characteristics are beneficial for inclusion in this process 167 (cf. Finn, 2009; Kirschenbaum, 1997; Loehr, 1994). In golf, Kirschenbaum (1997) has 168 proposed a "4-F" model to help golfers react positively to poor shots and efficiently transfer 169 focus onto their next effort; a process involving steps of: Fudge (an exclamation of 170 dissatisfaction after hitting the bad shot); Fix (redoing the swing using a practice swing to 171 correct the problem); Forget (forgetting about the problematic shot and remembering that 172 nobody plays perfect golf); and Focus (focusing attention on the next shot and in a positive 173 manner). Notably, this post-shot routine resonates with the model of attentional focus 174 proposed by Nideffer and Sagal (2006), which suggests that players should analyze their prior 175

shot before rehearsing the correct movement (if required), and then shift back to a broad
external focus ahead of the next shot. However, the idea of the 4-F model as an effective
post-shot routine would only seem to be applicable when a player has hit a bad shot;
suggestions of what elements should make up a post-shot routine after a good shot have not
been forthcoming in the literature.

181 Enhancing Macro and Meso Routines: Working with the Support Team

182 Although it is the golfer who executes each shot, practice and evidence suggests that a golfer and their support team – which may include a coach, psychologist, conditioner but 183 184 most notably the caddie - work together over macro- and meso- level planning processes (cf. Mackenzie, 1997; Reinman, 1999). Drawing on work on Shared Mental Models 185 (Mascarenhas & Smith, 2011) (hereafter SMMs), the team decision making process will 186 187 logically (or optimally) involve gathering, processing, integrating, and communicating information to arrive at task-relevant decisions. This does not necessarily require that a 188 consensus be reached amongst team members, nor does it suggest that all team members are 189 involved in all aspects of the decision (Mathieu, Goodwin, Heffner, Salas, & Cannon-190 Bowers, 2000). It does, however, require that each team member processes and filters raw 191 data, applies expertise, communicates relevant information, and (appropriately) makes 192 recommendations to others (Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Converse, 1993). As well as 193 194 coordinating and synchronizing their actions with teammates, SMMs also help individuals to 195 predict their colleagues' behavior and needs (Kraiger & Wenzel, 1997; McIntyre & Salas, 1995). Recognizing that differences in mental models will result in greater process losses 196 (via the reduction in team coherence), the implication of these points is that members of the 197 198 golf team (i.e., player and support staff) must hold common and/or overlapping representations of task requirements, procedures, and responsibilities (Mathieu et al., 2000). 199

200 Of course, team members will not always agree on performance decisions. Indeed, some disagreement would seem essential if decision making is to be optimized (Bowman, 201 1998). Accordingly, Cannon-Bowers et al. (1993) suggested that complex tasks dictate that 202 203 multiple mental models are shared amongst team members. For elite golf, and to aid optimal decision making processes, the most relevant of these authors' frameworks would appear to 204 be the task, team interaction, and team member models. Task models describe and organize 205 knowledge about how the task is to be best accomplished (e.g., pre-tournament logistical 206 procedures, course management strategies, predicted problems and contingencies). Team 207 208 interaction models describe the roles and responsibilities of team members, interaction patterns, information flow, communication channels, role interdependencies, and information 209 sources. Finally, team member models contain information which is specific to teammates, 210 211 such as their knowledge, attitudes, preferences, strengths, weaknesses, and behavioral and emotional tendencies (Cannon-Bower et al., 1993; Mathieu et al., 2000). By addressing and 212 optimizing each of these frameworks, it seems both logical and likely that the focus, 213 functions, and interactions of the golfer and support team will therefore be enhanced. Indeed, 214 and irrespective of the way which such SMMs are linked (e.g., communication processes, 215 strategy, coordinated use of resources: Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994), it is imperative that a 216 golfer is supported by individuals who share his or her performance models and who are also 217 willing to positively disagree at crucial but appropriate moments. 218

Professional tournament golf poses a number of challenges including large periods of time which need to be filled between shots and holes (Bruce, 1998; Lavallee, Bruce & Gorley, 2004), distractions such as crowds and scoreboards, working with a support team before, during, and after performance (Lavallee et al., 2004), and controlling the breadth and direction of attentional focus over the whole performance (Hellstrom, 2009). To date, no studies have clearly addressed strategies used by players and their support team to deal with 225 distractions and fill the gaps before and between shots and holes. Furthermore, while studies have considered the importance of a caddie in professional golf (Lavallee, 1998; Lavallee et 226 al., 2004), no research has investigated how SMMs can effect team decision making and the 227 attentional demands of their player. Finally, although research has shown that a narrow 228 external focus of attention can be best for shot execution (Wulf & Prinz, 2001), no studies 229 have explored the pre-requisite shifts in attention at the pre-shot planning and post-shot 230 analysis levels, and how support team members, their SMMs', and the information they 231 supply (or indeed hold back) can influence these shifts. 232

Currently research from other sports and non-professional golf can partly fill gaps in knowledge around the attentional demands of the whole golf performance, effective mesolevel processes (pre and post shot), and the impact of team SMMs on performance. However, in order to fully fill these gaps and move the understanding of professional golf performance forward empirical research needs to be conducted in to these areas.

A Current Best Practice Structure for Focus Patterning: What It Offers and What We Need to Know

With multiple factors and multiple agencies involved from pre-tournament to pre-shot levels (the latter being when total control is held by the player: Lavallee et al., 2004), planning in professional golf is clearly a complex process. To facilitate the development of knowledge and practice in this critical yet unexplored area, and based on the models of Nideffer and Sagal (2006) and Kirschenbaum et al. (1998), Figure 1 shows the current "best evidence" structure for the patterning of focus before and after a golf shot.

As conveyed, arrowed lines 1, 2, and 3 show the patterning of focus for playing a golf shot put forward by Nideffer and Sagal (2006), a conception which resonates with other work discussed earlier in our paper (e.g., Hellstrom, 2009; Kirschenbaum, 1997; Kirschenbaum et al., 1998, Thomas, 2001). However, this previous research does not answer a number of key questions relating to the patterning of focus *during a full round* of golf. For example, while
Nideffer and Sagal (2006) propose that a player should start with a broad external focus for
assessing the required shot (including wind strength and direction, distance to the flag, and
the lie of the ball), what is not explained is *when* this information gathering begins, and *where*this information is gathered from. Notably, Lavallee et al. (2004) state that in some playercaddie relationships, the player merely asks the caddie for the distance to the flag whereas
other caddies are far more involved in information gathering and decision making processes.

After assessing the shot, and as depicted in Figure 1, the golfer then moves to analyze 257 the possibilities of how to play the shot. Nideffer and Sagal (2006) have stated that thoughts 258 at this stage may include reflections on prior experiences in a similar situation against any 259 changes in technique and equipment which the golfer has since made. Unfortunately, and 260 261 once again, however, it is not clear where and indeed at what point the player shifts their attention during this process to gather relevant information. Following on from the analysis 262 stage, the player's attention is then proposed to shift to a narrow and internal orientation 263 264 which supports rehearsal of the technique required to execute the shot effectively (Nideffer & Sagal, 2006). At this stage, responsibility shifts to the player and the caddie can (or should?) 265 no longer have any influence (Lavallee et al., 2004). Finally, and as attentional focus 266 literature suggests (Wulf & Prinz, 2001; Bernier et al., 2011), focus should then shift again to 267 a narrow and external orientation to enable the most efficient execution of the skill (e.g. focus 268 269 on a small, specific target).

Once a golfer has performed a shot, there appears to be a lack of consensus within the literature on exactly what they should then focus on and for how long. Interestingly, and suggesting that focusing for a whole round is not feasible given its lengthy duration, Tiger Woods (2001) has revealed that he allows himself 10 seconds to dwell on a previous poor shot (cf. the Fudge factor mentioned earlier) before focusing on the next shot. Indeed, 275 Hellstrom (2009) has recently discussed the need for skilled golfers to plan and train for the ability to focus and refocus rather than engage a constantly "switched on" state. More 276 realistic in this scenario therefore, and as suggested earlier in this paper, would be the golfer 277 undergoing a post-shot routine (Finn, 2009) to "put away" a shot (be it good, bad, or 278 indifferent), enter a period of relative relaxation, and then later switch back on for the next 279 shot. As discussed previously, however, there has been no consensus within golf and sport 280 psychology literature of what thoughts, behaviors, and timings should comprise an effective 281 post-shot routine. 282

283 Indeed, consider again Kirschenbaum's (1998) 4-F model which suggests the player's first course of action after hitting a bad shot is to swear (Fudge) before progressing to Fix the 284 swing. However, in order to effectively fix the swing, the golfer will need to perform some 285 286 level of assessment on the shot, including where the ball started in relation to the target, where it finished, its trajectory, and the quality of the strike (Jacobs, 1993). Only then can 287 the golfer work out if it was a swing fault that caused the poor shot or an error in decision 288 289 making (e.g., choosing the wrong club). In an elite context, this is a process which could often involve the caddie, making yet more demands on the SMMs of the immediate support 290 team. In this manner, a golfer's focus of attention should once again become broad-external 291 to assess the reasons why they achieved (or suffered!) the given outcome (regardless of how 292 good the shot was: Lyle, 2002) but then become narrow-internal to rehearse the correct action 293 and "fix" the identified fault before assessing the next shot (Kirschenbaum, 1998). 294

295

Directions for Future Research

As identified throughout this paper, there are a number of gaps which need to be filled in order to refine and validate any model for the patterning of attentional focus during a round of golf. Most significantly, researchers need to develop knowledge of: (a) whether effective macro-planning can remove or reduce a need to attend to certain cues while playing (and thus decrease the attentional demands of a round); (b) the make-up of effective pre-pre and postshot routines and how these meso-level processes affect shot planning and responses; and (c)
how SMMs between the player and support staff affect shot planning and responses.

303 Considering macro-planning first, although the research of McCaffrey and Orlick (1989) outlined the macro-planning processes which elite golfers engage prior to competition, 304 research has not addressed how such preparation may (and should) affect in-game attentional 305 focus and meso-planning. For example, is it possible to remove the need to attend to certain 306 irrelevant and/or detrimental cues while playing with thorough macro-planning? Answering 307 308 this question through long-term mixed methods tracking studies which collect and triangulate data on pre-tournament planning, in-competition perception, and performance data could 309 positively assist golfers and their supporting practitioners in finding a way to focus on more 310 important, task-relevant cues while playing. Secondly, while post-shot routines have been 311 addressed in prior research (Finn, 2009; Kirschenbaum, 1997) no work has assessed their 312 cognitive, temporal, and behavioral elements in professional golf. Accordingly, exploratory 313 interviews which consider performers' perceptions on each of these factors, including their 314 links with shot outcome and execution of a following pre-shot routine, would prove 315 worthwhile. Additionally, it would also be useful to assess the potential variability in post-316 shot routines as different shots afford a golfer more time to perform a post-shot routine than 317 others. For example, a golfer who hits his/her tee-shot 250 yards into trees could have well 318 319 over 5 minutes to reflect on his/her previous shot whereas a player on the putting green may only get 1 minute between his/her ball coming to rest and having to play again. Similar to the 320 proposed merits of different pre-shot routines for different shots (cf. Cotterill et al., 2010), 321 this should also lead researchers to tackle the important question of whether golfers should 322 have different post-shot routines for different shots? For this purpose, action-research based 323 inquiry which builds on the findings from explorative interviews would provide valuable 324

insight into the optimal application of this skill in varying contexts. Furthermore, future
research should also outline how systematic and well-practiced shifts in attentional focus
within a post-shot routine can be used to aid planning for subsequent shots. To achieve this
goal, "think aloud" protocols could be deployed which record and analyze thought processes
as golfers move through their entire post-shot routine (Ericcson & Simon, 1993).

Finally, we have also outlined the potential importance of SMMs in player-caddie relationships and how this element could impact on shifts in attentional focus with respect to meso-level information gathering. Notably, as previous investigation has tended to focus on the basic structure of caddying and ways to enhance its utility (Lavallee et al., 2004; Mackenzie, 1997), only an unpublished study by Lavallee (1998) has focused on the role that caddies play in maintaining players' attention and collecting/providing pertinent shot information.

While players' collection of information may simply be a matter of personal 337 preference or experience, a survey of the comparative use of caddies and other strategies, as 338 339 well as the consequent outcomes which they support, would seem desirable. Furthermore, consideration of which information gathering style to adopt should logically be based on 340 more than personal preference alone. For example, assessing the use of "error taxonomies" 341 to detect the circumstances in which things may work better or worse would also seem 342 merited (e.g. Stanton & Salmon, 2009). This gap needs closing and could be initially 343 achieved though non-participant observation of players and caddies followed by interviews 344 using stimulated recall (Patton, 2002; Lyle, 2003). 345

346

Concluding Comments

The ability to effectively regulate attention over the full preparation and execution phases of golfing performance is a critical yet unexplored area. Significantly, as both macroand meso-level planning processes shape and support in-game cognition, this broadened

| 350 | perspective on the allocation and patterning of attentional control carries significant promise |
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| 351 | for advancing golf-specific theory and practice. Under this perspective, the investigation of |
| 352 | pre-event planning processes, the cognitive, behavioural, and temporal elements of routines |
| 353 | between shots and holes, and the interactions of a golfer's support team will provide a more |
| 354 | rounded and detailed picture of the demands and factors underpinning golfing success. Given |
| 355 | the impact which such work could deliver, we encourage researchers to carefully assess, |
| 356 | refine, and take up these recommendations as a matter of priority. |
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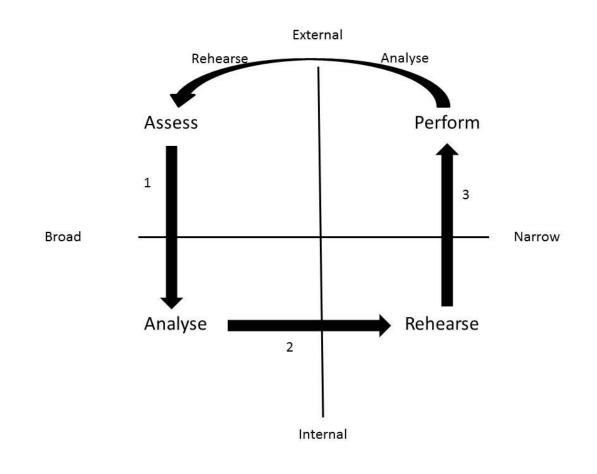
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