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*“You Look at an Ocean; I See the Rips, Hear the Waves, and Feel the Currents”: Dwelling and the Growth of Enskiled Inhabitant Knowledge*

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1    *“You look at an ocean; I see the rips, hear the waves, and feel the currents”*: Dwelling and the growth  
2    of enskiled inhabitant knowledge

3

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12 **Abstract**

13 This inquiry explores a theoretical question, of applied practical relevance in fields like sport science,  
14 relating to how people come to know the performance landscapes they inhabit, and the dynamic  
15 opportunities for action they present. Here, we propose that how people come to know their performance  
16 landscapes, and how they learn to interact with available affordances in them, is through dwelling. More  
17 specifically, through dwelling, people learn to resonate with the rhythms of information and affordances  
18 of a performance landscape, entangling with them to successfully find their way through the tasks,  
19 problems and challenges taken up with. To theoretically support our analysis, we draw on James  
20 Gibson's different conceptualisations of knowledge, and Tim Ingold's perspectives of enskilment –  
21 bringing practical applicability to our discussion by weaving in various ethnographic accounts of the  
22 growth of *enskiled inhabitant knowledge*. Through these transdisciplinary insights, we show that it is  
23 by asking questions, sharing stories, and following up lines of inquiry that people grow into their  
24 enskiled knowledge of places they inhabit.

25 **Key words:** Social anthropology; Learning to learn; Knowledge of/about; Enskilment; Wayfinding;  
26 Storytelling

27

28 **Introduction**

29 In chapter 26 of his book, *The Life of Lines*, Tim Ingold (2015) poses a series of rather profound  
30 questions:

31 “Does knowledge actually lead to wisdom? Does it open our eyes and ears to the truth of what is  
32 there? Or does it rather hold us captive within a compendium of our own making, like a hall of  
33 mirrors that blinds us to its beyond? Might we see more, experience more, and understand more, by  
34 *knowing* less? [...] Which of them is wiser, the ornithologist or the poet – the one who *knows* the  
35 name of every kind of bird but has them ready sorted in his head; the other who *knows* no names  
36 but looks with wonder, astonishment and perplexity on everything he sees?” (p. 134, our emphasis)

37 To us, the profundity of these questions sits within their evocation of different conceptualisations of  
38 knowledge, capturing what it actually means *to know* in a performance environment. For example,  
39 perhaps to an ornithologist, botanist or an academic, knowledge may be considered as procedural,  
40 abstract, symbolically coded and documentational; viewed as data and information which is important  
41 for cataloguing and recording, relative to other things so they can be *known about*. While perhaps to a  
42 poet, hiking guide or developing elite athlete, knowledge may not be something to be ‘known about’  
43 but something to be primarily *experienced* (Reed, 1996b); something transformational that leads to  
44 further personal growth and self-guided discovery (Ingold, 2013).

45 Both types of knowledge are important in supporting humans doing the things they do (Gibson, 1979;  
46 Reed, 1996b; Araújo et al., 2009), and *knowledge experienced* of the environment captures how people  
47 come to intimately know the places (e.g. communities, organisations, surrounds, and performance  
48 contexts) they inhabit. Simply, there is a need to differentiate between knowing a landscape by reading  
49 information *about* it, presented in a guidebook or by following prescribed routes *across* it informed by  
50 the instructions of a companion, and knowing a landscape by directly and continuously experiencing  
51 its sights, sounds, tastes, smells and feelings – learning to attend to things as they are, where they  
52 emerge. The former points toward static non-changing surroundings – viewing the landscape in a more  
53 conventional connotation of ‘scopic’ – land-looked-at. The latter, by contrast, views the *landscape*  
54 through an etymology of *landshaft* (Olwig, 1996) – land-being-shaped – suggesting dynamic, ever-

55 changing surroundings with which one needs to engage through interactions. This distinction is crucial  
56 for our position in understanding how individuals become skilled in negotiating complex, dynamic  
57 environments, as the latter captures the temporality of the landscape (Ingold, 1993, 2000), emphasising  
58 its continued becoming with the activities of inhabitants. This implies that the process of ‘knowing’, for  
59 masterful botanists, poets or athletes, requires ongoing, direct, and primarily active first-hand  
60 experiences rooted in deep engagement and involvement in practical, everyday tasks and activities.

61 To elaborate on these ideas, we explore the concept of inhabitant knowledge, which we discuss by  
62 aligning with James Gibson’s (1966, 1979) conceptualisations of knowledge within his theory of direct  
63 perception. In considering these ecological insights on knowledge, we lean on the social anthropological  
64 work of Tim Ingold (2000, 2013, 2015), threading through the notion of *enskilment* – a concept which  
65 proposes that learning is inseparable from doing in place. The novelty of this article is in binding a  
66 theme pertinent to skill acquisition through these discussions on the integration of various ethnographic  
67 accounts of human behaviour. Specifically, through these accounts, we consider how the growth of  
68 *enskiled inhabitant knowledge* emerges as people  *dwell* in their environments, guided by experienced  
69 others (i.e., sports trainers, teachers and coaches) who shape how they learn to perceptually learn  
70 (Ingold, 2013; Reed 1996b). The conceptualisation of human behaviours explored here are, thus,  
71 transdisciplinary in nature, demonstrating the scope of the ecological approach in accounting for skilful  
72 coping, experiencing, and knowing of a ‘rich landscape of affordances’ (Rietveld & Kiverstein, 2014).  
73 Further, our position statement advocates the value of adopting an ecological perspective, seeking to  
74 encourage fellow behavioural sport scientists to venture beyond their disciplinary walls (such as  
75 exercise physiology, biomechanics, performance analytics), past the fringes, growing knowledge of the  
76 various landscapes they dwell in through this process of exploration.

### 77 **You know about a game; I know of it**

78 The epigraph with which we opened our paper presents a series of questions rooted in historical  
79 discussions of what knowledge may be, and how different types may play a role at different times in  
80 supporting various human endeavours. Indeed, over 2000 years ago, Plato’s dialogue, *The Meno*, sought  
81 to explain ‘knowledge acquisition’ in human learning with reference to the internalization of universals

82 and templates. In such traditional Western epistemology, many would argue in favour of the  
83 ornithologist, botanist and academic as being the knowledgeable ones. After all, they have a structured  
84 body of data and information enabling them to identify and label things as universals, and can tell people  
85 about them, categorise, and situate them, relative to other things they may know. This rhetoric, however,  
86 would be to conflate knowledge as a commodity to be symbolically coded, acquired and memorised,  
87 stored and catalogued, available to be bought and sold; ultimately being recited by an individual (or  
88 device) when the situation is ‘right’ (Reed, 1996b). From this viewpoint, knowledge would be instilled  
89 or transmitted into the minds of individuals who almost detach or remove themselves from what is being  
90 ‘known’ in order to ‘know’ it<sup>1</sup> (Ingold, 2018; Reed, 1996b). Comparatively, the poet, guide or elite  
91 athlete may simply see things directly as they are, not necessarily to know about them, but to know *of*  
92 them – learning to carefully attend to things in a performance context or an environment that they too  
93 inhabit. These distinctions were surmised by Ingold (2013) who viewed knowledge about the  
94 environment as documentary – manifest through the collection of information, curated and underwritten  
95 by an intent to learn *about* something – established by looking back. In performance contexts like sport  
96 science, for example, this type of inquiry is common (for a critique, see Vaughan et al., 2019), with  
97 typically quantitative disciplinary paradigms conflating the hypothetico-deductive theory of scientific  
98 method as ‘the’ way of gaining knowledge *about* a topic (Woods et al., 2020a). This approach sees the  
99 sport science researcher often try to remove themselves from what they are studying (in the quest to  
100 maintain objectivity), to retrospectively fit and explain observations (which typically manifest through  
101 abstracted data) relative to a disciplinary framework.

102 Knowledge *of* the environment, by contrast, is understood as transformational – growing into what one  
103 knows, and letting it grow into them, through continued exposure and reflection in practice – established  
104 by moving forward along a path of self-discovery (Ingold, 2010, 2013). This ecological perspective  
105 would see the sport performance researcher situated deep in the inquiry, studying *with* and learning  
106 *from* coaches, athletes and other stakeholders. The differences between these knowledge types are

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<sup>1</sup> As an aside, we nudge interested readers toward the comics of Nick Sousanis (2015) in his book, *Unflattening*, which offer wonderful insight to this sentiment – particularly the comics in chapter one, *Flatness*.

107 exemplified in sport practice by performance analysts collecting and coding data about the number of  
108 hours a golfer spends practicing, related to the speed and distance a ball is struck with a club, to be  
109 retrospectively correlated with the level of mastery attained (perhaps to establish criteria that others  
110 should follow to purportedly reach ‘this’ level of mastery). Performance failures and development can  
111 then be explained with reference to ‘evidence’ gained from observing, analysing and studying the  
112 experts themselves. This approach is contrasted to the process of actively feeling one’s way forward  
113 while performing, developing and learning from, and with, other inhabitants – listening to, carefully  
114 observing, moving with, and co-adapting to the various experiences that golfers have on their  
115 developmental trajectory. To support this differentiation, we now explore ecological conceptualisations  
116 of knowledge by Gibson (1966, 1979) in his theory of direct perception<sup>2</sup>. Through these  
117 conceptualisations, we progress toward understanding the distinction between *knowing in* practice, as  
118 opposed to *knowing out of* it.

119 *Ecological conceptualisations of knowledge (about / of)*

120 A key idea of ecological psychology for behavioural scientists interested in performance, learning and  
121 development is that, through movement, individuals become more acutely aware of their surrounding  
122 environment, continually adjusting their perceptual systems to detect information in the structure of  
123 ambient energy arrays (Gibson, 1979). It is well known that surrounding information specifies  
124 *affordances* (Gibson, 1979), a theory which couples things of the world (e.g. surfaces, objects, other  
125 organisms, events) to an animal’s behaviour (Turvey, 1992). For Gibson (1979), affordances are neither  
126 objective or subjective, but both – being a property of the animal-environment system that do not cause  
127 behaviour, but constrain it. Affordances can be understood, then, as animal-relative properties of the  
128 environment (Chemero, 2003; Gibson, 1979), with their perception being implicated by an animal’s  
129 action capabilities<sup>3</sup> (e.g. Warren, 1984, 2006).

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<sup>2</sup> As stated by Heft (2013), it is important to acknowledge the roots of an ecological approach to psychology from William James (1890). Indeed, E.B. Holt, James Gibson’s mentor, was a student of William James (Heft, 2001). As with many other advances in philosophy and science, innovators need to ‘stand on the shoulders of giants’.

<sup>3</sup> While beyond the scope of this position statement, it is important to acknowledge the debate in the literature regarding the selectionist (e.g. Reed, 1996a) or dispositional (e.g. Turvey, 1992) account of affordances. Further, there is disagreement on their animal-relevant properties – viewed as effectivities (an animal’s ability to actualise

130 Clarifying the nature of cognition and perception, Gibson (1966) distinguished between perception (of  
131 affordances) specified by informational structure in ambient energy arrays, and perception based on  
132 words, language, pictures and symbols – abstract information experienced at second-hand:

133 “[...] a distinction will be made between perceptual cognition, or knowledge of the environment,  
134 and symbolic cognition, or knowledge *about* the environment. The former is a direct response to  
135 things based on stimulus information; the latter is an indirect response to things based on stimulus  
136 sources produced by another human individual. The information in the latter is *coded*; in the former  
137 case it cannot properly be called that.” (p. 91, emphasis in original)

138 This distinction is of note, because Gibson (Gibson, J.J. & Gibson, E.J., 1955, p. 32) posed an important  
139 question for behavioural scientists interested in learning from an ecological perspective: “Does all  
140 knowledge (information is the contemporary term) come through the sense organs or is some knowledge  
141 ‘contributed’ by the mind itself?”. Gibson (1966) used the term ‘associative learning’ to refer to people  
142 learning symbols for interpreting the meaning of things. He argued, well before us, that this type of  
143 referential meaning is not the only kind available for learners and associative learning is not the only  
144 kind available for skill performance, development and learning. Yet despite Gibson’s (1966) insight,  
145 associative learning remains the dominant approach in most formalized education and training  
146 programmes in contemporary Western organizations and societies – manifest through the  
147 commodification of second-hand, documented information (Reed, 1996).

148 Gibson’s conceptualisation emphasises that it is learning to perceive affordances, and acting upon them,  
149 that captures the relevance of knowledge *of* the environment (Gibson, 1966). It is a type of knowledge  
150 that is not abstracted and accumulated, but attuned, meaning that animals come to perceive an  
151 environment’s affordances – its opportunities for action – by directly experiencing them (Reed, 1996b);  
152 progressively establishing a fit between their action capabilities and the places they inhabit (Heft, 2013).

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an affordance – e.g. Shaw, Turvey, & Mace, 1982) or body-scale (e.g. Heft, 1989; Warren, 1984). For further critique and a unique perspective, see Chemero (2003).



153 Thus, it is through continuous, (inter)active exchanges with a performance environment that an  
154 individual's knowledge grows:

155       “Knowledge *of* the environment, surely, develops as perception develops, extends as the observers  
156 travel, gets finer as they learn to scrutinize, gets longer as they apprehend more events, gets fuller  
157 as they see more objects, and gets richer as they notice more affordances. Knowledge of this sort  
158 does not “come from” anywhere; it is got by looking, along with listening, feeling, smelling, and  
159 tasting.” (Gibson, 1979, p. 242, our emphasis)

160 To support the emergence of this type of knowledge growth, scientists and practitioners in service  
161 industries including education, healthcare, industry, management and administration, architecture, and  
162 sport can design tasks to develop and enskill the next generation. Such tasks should be replete with  
163 contextual information specifying affordances, closely matched to the action capabilities of inhabitants  
164 to solicit relevant, functional, intentional behaviours (Araújo & Davids, 2011; Rietveld & Kiverstein,  
165 2014; Withagen et al., 2012). In sport, for example, this could manifest in a coach scaling properties of  
166 a developing performer's environment relative to their action capabilities to preserve key information-  
167 movement couplings (e.g. (i) modifying the practice space or lowering the net height for a tennis player  
168 in childhood, altering the compression or size of a tennis ball to facilitate stroke play; (ii) changing  
169 properties of a golf ball, club head, and putting hole for a developing golfer, (iii) decreasing the run-up  
170 distance of a long jumper's approach to the take-off board; and (iv), using balls that have surface  
171 properties to support an accentuated grip with the hands in junior rugby league – for other empirical  
172 support here, see Buszard et al. (2016) and Button et al. (2020)).

### 173 *On the growth of inhabitant knowledge*

174 The last sentence in his quote above emphasises that knowledge, to Gibson (1979), is not necessarily  
175 something to be acquired and stored as a universal or template, but is to be experienced through direct,  
176 unmediated engagement with an environment replete with affordances available for animals to use. It  
177 is exemplified by a hunter *knowing* that the branches of ‘this’ tree *afford* favourable pliability when  
178 making a spear; a hiker knowing that ‘this’ region does not afford hike-ability during heavy snowfall;  
179 a footballer knowing that ‘this’ gap between defenders affords pass-ability during a game; a farmer

180 knowing that ‘this’ fruit affords pick-ability when it omits ‘this’ smell; a yachtsman knowing that ‘this’  
181 wind does not afford tacking in ‘that’ direction. These various examples reflect a particular type of  
182 implicit, deep and embedded local understanding that facilitates direct interactions with events, objects,  
183 surfaces and others. It is based on an inhabitant knowledge that grows with individuals as they *dwell*  
184 within their landscape; undertaking practical, everyday tasks that shape both them and their surrounds  
185 (Ingold, 2000, 2013, 2017). This is knowledge that, according to Reed (1996b), Western philosophers  
186 and scientists rarely consider, but without which, people would be unable to function.

187 Comparatively, knowledge *about* the environment is what Gibson (1979, p. 42) refers to as a “special  
188 kind of knowledge”, one which is *abstract, mediated* and *indirect*, manifest in “images, pictures, and  
189 written-on surfaces”. This type of knowledge about one’s environment provides information at second-  
190 hand, which allows it to be shared between people to help them know about certain states of affair  
191 (Gibson, 1966, 1979; Reed, 1996b). The value of this type of mediated information resides within what  
192 it *represents* – its ‘referential meaning’ (Reed, 1991) – as it is not the ‘thing’ itself (Araújo et al., 2009).  
193 The symbolic meaning of such mediated information, then, depends on the cultural, traditional and  
194 conventional aspects of the community in which it is located, experienced, and perceived during  
195 learning and development (Gibson, 1966). The fundamental issue faced in the challenge of training the  
196 next generation of service industry professionals was captured by the Gibson’s (Gibson, J.J. & Gibson,  
197 E.J., 1955, p. 32) in noting that: “the role of learning in perception has to do with perception and the  
198 effect of past experience or practice on it.” In contrast, “[t]he problem of the role of perception in  
199 learning has to do with behavior and the question of whether we can learn to do something by  
200 perceiving, or whether we can only learn by doing it”.

201 Exemplified in sport science support for athlete performance, instructions provided by a basketball  
202 coach – manifest via a game model or playbook – can provide insight to a player about an opponent’s  
203 common offensive ball movement strategy. Indeed, this second-hand information documented by the  
204 coach – typically gained by analysing performance data about an opponent’s offensive strategies and  
205 tactical variations – is important for the player. It is particularly relevant for those unfamiliar with the  
206 opposition, as it can narrow the field of performance during practice preparation, limiting the scope of

207 behavioural possibilities while defending. These instructions, though, are still only representations of  
208 what *could* happen, second-hand information produced by another individual, a sport science  
209 practitioner for example. Its limitation, then, is that it selects information *for* the performer, risking an  
210 externally-imposed limit to what a performer can detect for themselves during their interactions in  
211 practice and competition. Captured eloquently by Reed (199b, p. 94):

212           “When one is examining the world for oneself there is no limit to the scrutiny – one can look as  
213           carefully as one wishes, and one can always discover new information. But this is emphatically not  
214           the case with secondhand information.”

215 Moreover, the player can only make use of this second-hand information through their perceptual skills,  
216 orienting themselves to both immediate and distant features of the game by using the optic flow such  
217 that the patterns of progressive (diss)occlusion specify the game in its unfolding. In other words,  
218 documented instructions given by a coach housed in a game model or playbook, cannot tell of the *haptic*  
219 *information* a player may detect while defending an opponent in close proximity, the sights a player  
220 may *see* while dribbling in open court, or the sounds a player may *hear* or the vibrations they may *feel*  
221 from an approaching opponent on a congested court. Such knowledge grows in and with players through  
222 direct exposure and continued experience to the rhythms of the game, supported by others (i.e., coaches,  
223 applied sport scientists and other teammates) who guide them toward the perception and actualisation  
224 of shared affordances (Silva et al., 2016). Our main point here is not to query the relevance of knowledge  
225 about the environment when occasion demands, like for a sports coach or game analyst, but to highlight  
226 that knowing *of* is a fundamentally relevant and different source of information – the former is limited  
227 and documentary; the latter, unlimited and transformational (Ingold, 2013; Reed, 1996b).

228 So, in returning to questions posed by Ingold at the start of this paper, it is clear that the ornithologist  
229 (botanist or academic) seems to know *about* the environment – documenting and recording the presence  
230 of birds to label and catalogue the species observed. The poet (musician or athlete), by contrast, seems  
231 to know *of* the environment – engaging deeply with it – seeing, hearing and feeling the many things  
232 within the performance environment, growing their knowledge in a transformational way by learning

233 from and with primary experiences as they move forward. These propositions, however, raise an  
234 interesting inquiry that we now follow up – how does knowledge *of* one’s environment grow? More  
235 directly, how is it that when an experienced ice climber looks upon an icefall, they *see* a way to climb  
236 up it (that is, they perceive its affordances for climbing relative to their action capabilities); whereas  
237 when I, an inexperienced ice climber, look upon it, I merely see a beautiful icefall (its colour, shades,  
238 glacial structure)? To seek a better understanding of this issue, we thread Ingold’s (2000) perspectives  
239 of enskilment; showing the inseparability of knowing *in* doing through the integration of various  
240 ethnographies that seek to understand how people come to know of the tasks they take up in the places  
241 they inhabit. Doing so should concurrently emphasise the value of first-hand experience for Westernised  
242 educational systems.

### 243 **Enskilment into the environment**

#### 244 *Gaining one’s sea legs*

245 In his wonderful ethnography of Icelandic fisherman, Gisli Pálsson (1994) highlights that learning to  
246 fish is akin to recovering from seasickness – it is to ‘get one’s sea legs’ (p. 905). For Icelanders,  
247 seasickness – that is nausea caused by the unexpected rocking of a boat – can be associated with a lack  
248 of inhabitant knowledge (Pálsson, 1994), emphasising an individual’s *in*exposure to the constraints of  
249 working on a vessel at sea. Simply, seasick individuals may not yet have learned to resonate with the  
250 dynamic oceanic rhythms as they interact with the surfaces of the boat. To learn to fish then (i.e., to get  
251 one’s sea legs), is a deeply embedded process that can only occur *at* sea by doing and through prolonged  
252 exposure (Pálsson, 1994), coupled with support and guidance from an experienced crew and skipper:

253 “For skippers, however, enskilment in fishing is not a matter of formal schooling and the  
254 internalization of a stock of knowledge; rather, it is achieved through active engagement *with* the  
255 environment, in the broadest sense of the term [...] ‘Real’ schooling is supposed to take place in  
256 *actual* fishing.” (p. 916, our emphasis)

257 This description of what it means to become a skilful Icelandic fisherman is very much captured within  
258 Ingold’s (2000) conceptualisations of enskilment – a notion framed through Lave’s (1990) referral of  
259 understanding in practice. Enskilment reflects a type of local and implicit ‘know how’ or ‘knack’

260 (Ingold, 2000; Lave, 1990; Myers & Davids, 1993), grown through prolonged exposure and practical  
261 engagement with one's environment, inclusive of its other inhabitants (e.g. Harris, 2005; Hsu & Han  
262 Lim, 2016; Lave, 1990; Tyrrell, 2006). The 'know how' that is grown as one enskils into their  
263 environment, though, should not be viewed procedurally through the symbolic storage of universal  
264 knowledge that attempts to automate an individual's movements. Rather, an enskilment approach views  
265 knowledge:

266 "not in the propositions *about* the world but in the skills of perception and capacities of judgement  
267 that develop in the course of direct, practical and sensuous engagements with the beings and things  
268 who, and with which, we share our lives." (Ingold, 2015, p. 157, our emphasis)

269 In other words, enskiled knowledge is understood as a progressive attunement of one's entire perceptual  
270 system – what they see, hear, touch, feel, taste and smell – to the affordances of an environment that  
271 they dwell in with others (Davids & Myers, 1990). To enskil into one's environment, then, is to learn  
272 to carefully attend to things as they are, where they exist – a progressive *education of attention* (Gibson,  
273 1979) toward the most relevant sources of regulatory information. These ideas clearly align to Gibson's  
274 conceptualisations of knowledge *of* one's environment, along with those of the behavioural framework  
275 of ecological dynamics (e.g. Button et al., 2021); a framework common to sport science which views  
276 movement as functionally-adaptable body-environment interactions through which individuals learn to  
277 self-regulate by perceiving opportunities for action toward the achievement of intended task goals.

278 A key contention of enskilment is that knowing cannot occur separate to context or experience, as it  
279 emerges in the dynamic messiness of the landscape – to re-iterate, "[r]eal schooling is supposed to take  
280 place in actual fishing" (Pálsson, 1994, p. 916). This dynamicity and messiness, however, makes it  
281 difficult for individuals to plan out in advance specific routes to intended destinations or to prescribe  
282 movement solutions to yet-to-be-encountered problems. This is the very reason why in many sports,  
283 game models documented prior to game-play can be overly constraining on player behaviours, seeking  
284 to organise team components from a 'global-to-local' direction (see Ribeiro et al., 2019). Enskiled  
285 individuals, then, must be perceptually attuned, and adaptively responsive to the emergent rhythms of

286 their open world; submitting to its unpredictability and uncertainty to progressively know as they go  
287 (Ingold, 2010, 2013, 2015; Woods et al., 2020a).

288 What people perceive is the utility of the “furniture of the world” (Reed, 1993, p. 48): events, surfaces,  
289 places, objects, features, and other inhabitants. This utility is perceived as primary objects of perception  
290 as affordances. Indeed, perceiving and actualising some affordances then opens up opportunities to use  
291 other affordances because of their nested relations. It is of note, though, that an open, inhabited world  
292 is not ready-furnished, littered with affordances simply waiting to be picked up by a perceiver who may  
293 seek to actualise them (Ingold, 2010, 2013). It is, rather, an emerging world stretched somewhere  
294 between ‘the happened’ and ‘the not yet’; a world continually in-becoming around the perceiver, just  
295 as the perceiver continually comes into being in the world (Ingold, 2010, 2015). Stated differently, the  
296 world not only waits for the perceiver, but the perceiver waits upon the world:

297           “Thus the walker, a *master* of the terrain, must *wait* for signs that reveal the path ahead, with no  
298           surety of where it will lead; the hunter, a *master* of the chase, must *wait* for the animal to appear,  
299           only to put himself at risk in its pursuit; the mariner, a *master* of his ship, must *wait* for a fair wind,  
300           only to submit to the elements.” (Ingold, 2015, p. 138, our emphasis)

301 These Ingoldian perspectives of an open, risky and inhabited world are at slight odds to those of Gibson  
302 (1979). To exemplify, Gibson (1979) argued that the ground offers the *basis* of the environment; “the  
303 reference for all other surfaces” (p. 33) that is seemingly intrinsic to its constituents. In contrast, Ingold  
304 (2010) argues that the ground, along with its inhabitants, continually *becomes*; that is, it is “*infinitely*  
305 *variegated*”, “*composite*” and undergoing “*continuous generation*” (p. S125, emphasis in original). This  
306 differentiation is important, as it implicates how we may understand enskiled inhabitant knowledge.  
307 For example, an enskiled inhabitant would indeed know *of* a place’s most subtle rhythms, manifest in  
308 their perceptual mastery or acuity grown through primary experience and exposure. However, given  
309 that to Ingold the world is continually becoming with an infinitely variegated and re-generating ground  
310 surface, inhabitants (who are also in-becoming) are compelled to *wait on* the world for emergent  
311 opportunities to progress forward (Masschelein, 2010). This is why to Ingold (e.g. 2000, 2010, 2015),  
312 and to behavioural sport scientists (e.g. Woods et al., 2020a), enskiled inhabitants grow their knowledge

313 of the landscape *as they go*. In sport, this idea exemplifies a tennis player attuning to an opponent's  
314 stance, ball toss, and racquet head position before and during the serving action, waiting on information  
315 about the type of serve to *know* what shot may be needed to play in its return, or a cyclist in a peloton  
316 acutely attuned to the positioning and movements of other cyclists, waiting on information about a gap  
317 to *know* when to exploit it and challenge for the lead. This continually developing relationship between  
318 certainty and uncertainty during learning is akin to the dynamic stability that emerges in *metastable*  
319 *regions* of a landscape of dynamical patterns of behaviour (attractors) (e.g. Kelso, 1995; Pinder et al.,  
320 2012).

321 Practically, this is manifest in the differences between a surfer who looks at the waves but is unable to  
322 (en)skilfully read the swell, and a surfer who masterfully attunes to the rips, sets, winds and lulls,  
323 waiting on them to catch the right wave relative to their action capabilities and the specific design  
324 features of their surfboard. Enskilment, then, would not be gained by looking upon or commentating  
325 about the swell from afar, but would be grown by spending time with the swell – dwelling with and  
326 learning from it, along with other, more experienced inhabitants (other local surfers) in “an ongoing  
327 process of coordination with the world” (van Dijk, 2021, p. 4). There is an important point to briefly  
328 raise here, which relates to the entanglement of mastery (certainty) and submission (uncertainty). To  
329 Ingold (2018), as indeed to us (Woods et al., 2020a), in a world becoming, an enskiled inhabitant does  
330 not necessarily exert mastery onto its surface, but rather adaptively moves *with* its opportunities to carry  
331 on, regulated by a masterful perceptual attunement. Mastery, in this sense, *follows on* from submission  
332 (Ingold, 2015). This conceptualisation of enskiled knowledge leads us to understand how one could  
333 support a less experienced companion in growing such inhabitant knowledge – a path that requires us  
334 to re-conceptualise what it means to ‘educate’.

### 335 **Guidance without specification**

#### 336 *Leading out*

337 To this point in our position statement, readers could be excused in thinking that the growth of enskiled  
338 inhabitant knowledge comes about from situating people in place to let them simply ‘find their own  
339 way’ through a task they take up with. This, however, would be a misinterpretation that disregards the

340 important role that experienced inhabitants have in helping their less experienced companions  
341 progressively come to know of a landscape. Indeed, part of coming to know of a landscape is to dwell  
342 in it. The other part is to be supported in one's active perceptual attunement to an unfamiliar  
343 environment by an experienced companion who guides on where to look, but does not instruct on what  
344 to see, feel and hear (Woods et al., 2020b). This distinction is important, as it emphasises that part of  
345 coming to know one's landscape is in guided self-discovery of its affordances for action – to learn of  
346 and to resonate with its rhythms – *knowing for oneself* (Ingold, 2000, 2013). This extensive process of  
347 enrichment results in perceptual differentiation and guided refinement of skills to progressively know  
348 the taste of 'this' fruit; to know the feeling of 'this' water current or wind draft; to know the sound of  
349 'this' animal; to see the potential climbing route up 'this' icefall. The role of the experienced other,  
350 then, requires patience, inspiration, support, and guidance, coupled with a deep appreciation of their  
351 inexperienced companion's action capabilities to keep them placed in safe, but still uncertain  
352 environments. It is through this zone of safe uncertainty where individuals can be encouraged to learn  
353 to attend to things as they directly are, but in a way that does not negatively implicate their wellbeing  
354 (Renshaw et al., 2019).

355 Espoused through the framework of ecological dynamics, we have argued that these ideas require a  
356 reconceptualization of the process of 'education' (e.g. Rudd et al., 2021; Woods et al., 2021).  
357 Specifically, helping one enskill into their environment requires the word education to be understood  
358 through an etymology of *e-ducere*, which roughly means 'to lead out' or 'to reach out' (Ingold, 2015,  
359 2018; Masschelein, 2010). It is through *leading* inexperienced individuals *out* into their landscapes that  
360 experienced others can progressively guide their companion's attention toward the perception of its  
361 affordances for action – attending<sup>4</sup> to rhythms which may have otherwise remained hidden to them  
362 (Ingold, 2000, 2018). This guidance can help individuals to actively self-regulate, discover and explore  
363 things, which progressively become meaningful to them (Reed, 1996b). The sound of a ball hitting an  
364 opponent's racquet or bat, for example, may not mean anything to me, an inexperienced observer, but

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<sup>4</sup> In an open, inhabited and risky world, 'attend' can be understood through an etymology of *ad-tendere*; roughly meaning 'to stretch toward', and a French interpretation of *attendre*; roughly meaning 'to wait' (see Ingold, 2018; Masschelein, 2010).



365 to a progressively enskiled player being supported by an experienced other (i.e., a coach or teammate),  
366 it is a sound to *wait on* and *stretch toward*, as it could inform them about the type of spin or slice an  
367 opponent has created on the ball, inviting an opportunity for exploitation in its return. To support an  
368 individual in perceiving this sound, an experienced other (i.e., coach) must then expose them to it, an  
369 approach which demands a softer<sup>5</sup> (i.e., less prescriptive and instruction-based) pedagogy that  
370 encourages individuals to discover and attune to information about events, objects or surfaces. In  
371 contrast to the dominant forms of associative learning that exist, from an ecological dynamics  
372 perspective, performance preparation and development could be advanced through the design of  
373 practice environments that accentuate or amplify key affordances – aligning deeply to the Brunswikian  
374 notion of *representative design* (Brunswik, 1956). The emphasis in an ecological perspective on  
375 practice task design is to guide an individual’s attention toward the perception and actualisation of key  
376 affordances, used to support them in wayfinding through dynamic sporting environments (Woods et al.,  
377 2020b).

378 In sum, ‘educating’, from an enskilment perspective, is not concerned with instilling declarative and  
379 explicit instructions that specify *for* an inexperienced companion *about* how something should be done.  
380 Rather, it is more concerned with nudging or guiding inexperienced individuals toward the self-  
381 discovery of key affordances within their performance environment. It is through a progressive  
382 education of attention (Gibson, 1979) where previously looked upon landscapes can become replete  
383 with opportunities for interaction, as individuals progress from being un-inhabitants to inhabitants<sup>6</sup>. As  
384 discussed next, the growth of enskilment can be supported by the sharing of stories, asking of questions  
385 and following up of inquiries.

### 386 *Inhabitant storytelling*

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<sup>5</sup> For a deeper insight into what a softer pedagogy may be, interested readers could consult the work of Rudd et al. (2021) and Woods et al. (2021).

<sup>6</sup> In her book, *Wayfinding: The science and mystery of how humans navigate the world*, M.R. O’Connor offers a brilliant account of this. While with Indigenous people of Northern Australia, she recalls looking upon a landscape, and seeing “trees, grass, and dirt bleached by heat and sun”. Conversely, the indigenous elder she was with at the time saw the same landscape “teeming with history, food, medicine, shelter, tools, and stories.” (p. 192). Note the concurrent subtle interpretation of ‘landscape’ – the former, land-looked-at; the latter, land-being-shaped.

387 Before elaborating on the important role storytelling plays in the growth of enskiled inhabitant  
388 knowledge, we wish to briefly anchor our perspectives of it from our ecological worldview. In an  
389 ecological approach, storytelling is not a means of instilling representations into the minds of  
390 inexperienced individuals, but is a way of drawing or leading them out into a world; that is, to help  
391 guide their attention toward its important features to support exploration. In this vein, we follow  
392 Ingold's (2000, p. 56) perspectives of storytelling and the role it plays in the growth of enskiled  
393 inhabitant knowledge:

394 "Telling a story is not like weaving a tapestry to *cover up* the world or, as in an over worn  
395 anthropological metaphor, to 'clothe it with meaning'. [...] Far from dressing up a plain reality with  
396 layers of metaphor, or representing it, map like, in the imagination, songs, stories and designs serve  
397 to conduct the attention of performers *into* the world, deeper and deeper, as one proceeds from  
398 outward appearances to an ever more intense poetic involvement." (emphasis in original)

399 What this means is that stories can invite others into a landscape that they may be unfamiliar with  
400 (Raffan, 1992), educating their attention toward information about its critical features to support and  
401 regulate behaviour. From this perspective, stories act as a way of deepening one's knowledge *of* their  
402 landscape and its many emergent and decaying opportunities for action. For example:

- 403 • While walking *with* an inexperienced companion, an experienced hiker of 'this' region may  
404 elaborate on the time they slipped down 'this' hillside, as they did not notice the moss growing  
405 on the rock at 'this' time of the year – using subtle gestures to nudge or guide their companion's  
406 attention toward the perception of such affordances during the story; or
- 407 • While heading out to bat *with* an inexperienced teammate, an experienced international  
408 cricketer may elaborate on the time they were 'run out' at 'this' ground, since its surrounds  
409 amplified the background crowd noise, making it difficult for them to verbally communicate  
410 with their non-striker at the time – encouraging their inexperienced teammate to attend to bodily  
411 gestures when seeking to run between wickets.

412 These performance examples highlight an important part of storytelling when used to grow one's  
413 enskiled inhabitant knowledge, which is that they are deeply embedded. For the indigenous Pintupi

414 people of Western Australia, for example, stories and songs are meaningless unless people have directly  
415 experienced the landscape (Ingold, 2000; Myers, 1986) – so much so, that they lead people unfamiliar  
416 with the landscape out into it *before* sharing stories with them (note the deep alignment with earlier  
417 descriptions of education). Further, in her ethnography of how Inuit people come to intimately know  
418 the sea, Tyrrell (2006) emphasised the importance of a story’s embeddedness in supporting the guidance  
419 of one’s attention, stating that the “stories children hear about the marine environment as they grow up  
420 only become truly meaningful when they venture to sea for themselves” (p. 234). Stories, then, function  
421 as a kind of guidance – not in an explicating sense about, but in a supported sense *of* – bringing features  
422 of the world out for others to then follow up with in a process of self-discovery.

423 To us, these embedded sentiments highlight that people grow into the stories they hear, progressively  
424 threading through their own narratives as they grow into their knowledge *of* the landscapes they come  
425 to inhabit. They also highlight the important role the recipient has in listening to the stories being shared.  
426 For example, Prins and Wattchow (2020) note that listening to stories of place with the intent of  
427 interrogating or seeking to extract meaningful facts about the landscape is to miss the point of  
428 storytelling all together. Rather, listeners need to be empathetic toward what is being said (Wattchow,  
429 2008), appreciating that a story’s usefulness in educating their attention toward key features of the  
430 landscape may continue to evolve as their knowledge *of* a landscape continues to change. Exemplified  
431 in a physical education setting, Woods and colleagues (2020b) discussed how stories could be used as  
432 a way to support a child’s exploration while learning to move through various landscapes. Specifically,  
433 they proposed that stories could act as a way of nudging or guiding a child’s attention toward key  
434 sources of regulatory information that could support ongoing movement (*ibid.*). In this sense, stories  
435 are never complete, but continually in-becoming given that perceivers and landscapes are also in-  
436 becoming – to re-iterate, stories Inuit children hear about the seascape change as they, and the sea,  
437 continue to become (Tyrrell, 2006). Stories, then, forever draw people further into an entanglement with  
438 their landscape as they come to progressively resonate with its rhythms (Ingold, 2000; Iseke, 2013).

439 *The questioning wayfinder*

440 Given that storytelling is a critical feature of enskiling people into the environment, it has an essential  
441 role in supporting individuals learning to wayfind (Ingold, 2000; Iseke, 2013; Prins & Wattchow, 2020).  
442 A brief distinction should be made here, however; in that wayfinding through one’s landscape is not the  
443 same as navigating across a landscape. Navigating across a landscape is akin to transport, where  
444 passengers are merely concerned with an intended outcome, such as reaching terminus destinations  
445 (Ingold, 2000, 2010). During this type of mediated transport, little attention is directed toward a  
446 landscape’s features – instead, passengers attend to the graphic presentation of coordinates provided by  
447 a global positioning satellite (GPS), or the routes imprinted onto a map (for a detailed description of  
448 this detached transport, see Leshed et al., (2008)). Comparatively, wayfinders have little interest in  
449 attending to a GPS or a map, as it is the journey which is of interest to them. From this perspective,  
450 wayfinding is far more than just navigation, extending to how people come to know of the things they  
451 do within the places they inhabit<sup>7</sup> (Aporta & Higgs, 2005).

452 How wayfinders learn to orient themselves within their landscapes is through a progressively deepened  
453 embodied attentiveness, captured in our earlier Gibsonian descriptions of knowledge *of* the environment  
454 (see Woods et al., 2020b). It is the sounds of other inhabitants going about events; the smells of various  
455 flora and fauna; the feelings of seasonal wind changes; the tastes of (un)ripe fruit; the sights of celestial  
456 bodies and of previously submerged objects at low tide, for example, that support a wayfinder in their  
457 journey – things incredibly difficult to directly experience while attending to knowledge *about* the  
458 locale represented in the coordinates of a GPS device<sup>8</sup>, a route inscribed on a map, or the instructions  
459 of a game model. This deep attunement to such an environment’s rhythms to support wayfinding is  
460 highlighted by Tyrrell (2006), who observed that Inuit “knowledge *of* the physical features of the  
461 seascape and of weather and sea or ice conditions” was critical to support “safe and successful way-  
462 finding” (p. 223, our emphasis). Thus, varied and dynamic environmental conditions are important in

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<sup>7</sup> For a detailed conceptualisation of wayfinding beyond navigational connotations, we nudge readers toward the work of Woods et al. (2020b).

<sup>8</sup> This sentiment was echoed by Aporta and Higgs (2005) in their exceptional ethnography of Inuit wayfinding: “This was evident in our observations of GPS use in the Igloolik region. Some inexperienced hunters and travellers who depended heavily on the technology suffered from the fallibility of all sophisticated technology in unforgiving environments [...] Knowledge *of* the land- and seascape remained a crucial survival skill.” (p. 745, our emphasis)

463 supporting wayfinding, as they offer inhabitants diverse opportunities to learn to carefully attend to key  
464 environmental features – wayfinding aids – to regulate their adaptive behaviours as they learn to move  
465 through their landscape.

466 While stories play a critical role in the growth of enskiled inhabitant knowledge, questions asked by  
467 experienced others also contribute in guiding the attention of inexperienced companions toward the  
468 perception of affordances that support wayfinding (Ingold, 2000; Woods et al., 2020b). For example,  
469 in their ethnography of Inuit wayfinding, Aporta and Higgs (2005) highlighted that a key component in  
470 helping inexperienced hunters learn to detect important features of their landscape, such as the tracks  
471 of prey or the location of certain hunting regions, was for experienced hunters to regularly ask questions  
472 of them *while* hunting:

473 “Hunters learn from their *own experience* while travelling *with* knowledgeable elders and through  
474 conversations with experienced relatives and friends [...] A common training method consists of  
475 asking younger boys where such-and-such a place is located. These questions are asked during tea  
476 breaks while travelling with snowmobiles, in a pause after a hunt, during conversations at camping  
477 spots, or after pursuing a caribou or a walrus.” (p. 731-2, our emphasis)

478 Tyrrell (2006) experienced something similar in her ethnography, noting that experienced Inuit hunters  
479 would regularly ask her questions *while* at sea in an attempt to help orient herself by detecting wind  
480 directions, oceanic currents or distant landmasses. The point of such questions is not to explicitly tell  
481 less experienced companions what to see, but to act as a conduit that guides their attention toward the  
482 surrounding information sources of relevance. Stated differently, such questions are intended to support  
483 inexperienced individuals in self-discovering key affordances of their environment while under the  
484 careful guidance and support of an experienced other (Woods et al., 2020b). In sport, a coach may use  
485 questioning as a form of guidance for the performers’ exploratory activities *without direct specification*  
486 to support an individual in wayfinding through various problems and challenges encountered during  
487 performance. For example, a cricket coach could ask a developing young batter questions during a  
488 practice task, such as: “*Where are the fielders located? What shot(s) could you play to avoid them?*  
489 *Where might the ball be bowled based on the fielders current position?*”. Or, an athletics coach may

490 create various performance scenarios in a race or a jumping competition to simulate the uncertainty that  
491 may be faced in competitive events to guide performers to resolve tactical performance challenges and  
492 problems through wayfinding. As demonstrated in these questions, their purpose is not so much to  
493 specify *for* the developing athlete (i.e., telling them what to see, to feel, to hear – what shot to play or  
494 move to make in an event), but to act as a way of supporting them in where they may wish to search in  
495 order to run and jump successfully or score runs and avoid being caught or run out. Such situated  
496 questioning need not necessarily be answered through verbalised responses (prioritising documented  
497 knowledge *about* (Gibson, 1966, 1979)). Rather, they are intended to actively support the self-guided  
498 search for key affordances to support wayfinding – meaning, responses may be mediated through  
499 movements, gestures and active exploration, as opposed to verbalised descriptions. It is through this  
500 supported self-discovery – learning to perceptually learn – where people grow into their knowledge,  
501 while letting it grow into them (Ingold, 2013).

## 502 **Concluding remarks**

503 Guided by ecological conceptualisations of knowledge (Gibson, 1966, 1979) and social anthropological  
504 descriptions of enskilment (Ingold, 2000, 2013, 2015), this paper sought to discuss the concept of  
505 enskiled inhabitant knowledge. Its novelty sat within the weaving together of the main propositions of  
506 Gibson and Ingold to explore the practical utility of their intuitions, bringing them to life through various  
507 ethnographic accounts of human behaviour. These accounts demonstrated that the growth of enskiled  
508 inhabitant knowledge emerges from people dwelling in an environment, guided by others that shape  
509 how they learn to learn (Ingold, 2013). As such, this work demonstrates the scope of an ecological  
510 approach in explaining perception, learning, development, and performance to applied scientists and  
511 practitioners working in performance contexts. Moreover, it should be seen to encourage fellow  
512 behavioural scientists working in various performance contexts, like sport, to continue to explore  
513 beyond disciplinary boundaries to draw links between seemingly disparate areas to gain a richer  
514 appreciation of human behaviours.

## 515 **Prologue – *You look at a landscape; I see home***

516 In the spirit of this paper, we conclude by sharing a brief story that captures the essence of its messages.  
517 While the sharing of this story is intended to elaborate on a personal account of enskilled inhabitant  
518 knowledge growth, we do encourage readers to reflect on their own, perhaps similar youthful  
519 experiences while reading, demonstrating its entanglement in shaping who we are.

520 I (the first author) spent the first 20 years of my life living with my parents in their property in regional  
521 South Australia. There was a variegated property, surrounded by diverse and seasonally changing flora  
522 and fauna, of which my sibling and I spent many years exploring and progressively coming to know.  
523 Among the diverse trees, plants, grasses, and shrubs that grew on the property were several blackberry  
524 bushes, which on the surface, appeared the same; growing in similar areas and to similar seasonal  
525 variations. They were, however, not the same – certain bushes produced richer fruit than others, some  
526 grew larger thorns than others, and some offered better shelter from the weather than others – rhythms  
527 that my sibling and I learned to resonate with and entangle to through prolonged exposure and a  
528 continually deepening attunement and attentiveness. Our attentiveness, however, was not instilled into  
529 us from our parents telling us *about* which bushes would produce the best fruit or which were to be  
530 avoided, nor was it *documented* by us by studying about the bushes from afar. Rather, we grew into our  
531 knowledge along paths of self-discovery – that is, our engagements with the bushes transformed as we  
532 came to *know* them as things of food when hungry (season permitting), things of shelter when escaping  
533 inclement weather, and at times, things of discomfort when getting too close to the thorns! That is, their  
534 affordances were furnished for “good or ill” (Gibson, 1979, p. 127), which were forever in-becoming  
535 with us through our active and continued engagement with them.

536 Now, some years later as an inquisitive behavioural sport scientist, I have come to reflect and appreciate  
537 that it was by dwelling in this place that my sibling and I came to know of its many affordances for  
538 action, guided by each other’s practical engagements. That is, we learned from and with the landscape,  
539 of which we, and the bushes, were apart. Indeed, to an outsider – an *un-inhabitant* – while perhaps  
540 serene, my parent’s property presented a contemplative, yet meaningless landscape to be looked at. But  
541 to us – *inhabitants* – it was a place continuously shaped by opportunity, meaning, history, story and  
542 emotion – it was more than a landscape; it was home.

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