

Changes in Self-Location During the Practice of Mindfulness Meditation in Novices

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Michael Dambrun, Léa Martinon, Catherine Juneau, Sylvie Droit-Volet, Maya Corman, et al.. Changes in Self-Location During the Practice of Mindfulness Meditation in Novices. Mindfulness, 2022, 14 (1), pp.174-191. 10.1007/s12671-022-02042-y . hal-04312843

HAL Id: hal-04312843 https://hal.science/hal-04312843

Submitted on 28 Nov 2023

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33

Abstract

| 34 <i>O</i> | <i>Dijectives</i> : We investigated the effect of mindfulness meditation on self-location in novices. |
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| | |
| 35 W | Ve mainly hypothesized that meditation exercises tend to redirect where individuals locate |
| 36 th | nemselves toward the body area of attention during practice. |
| 37 M | <i>Methods</i> : Participants were randomly assigned to either a body scan meditation, a breathing |
| 38 m | neditation, or an active control condition and completed a brief practice (Study 1: $n = 87$; |
| 39 St | tudy 2: $n = 92$; Study 3: $n = 127$). Participants in Study 1 also received a 1-week training |
| 40 be | efore the practice. All measures were assessed by means of self-report measures using visual |
| 41 ar | nalog scales. |
| 42 R | Results: Brief meditation practice significantly changed self-location. Body scan practice was |
| 43 as | ssociated with an increase in self-location to the upper-torso, the abdomen and body limbs. |
| 44 TI | he practice of breathing meditation increased self-location to the upper-torso and the |
| 45 ab | bdomen. This change in self-location was associated with an increase in happiness only in |
| 46 th | ne body scan meditation (Study 1). A decrease in ongoing thoughts during body scan |
| 47 m | neditation (i.e. narrative self) mediated the effect of practice on the reduction of self-location |
| 48 in | the head (Study 2). Study 3 found that attention directed to targeted body areas during |
| 49 m | nindfulness meditation practice significantly mediated the effect of the practice on self- |
| 50 lo | ocation in those same body areas. |
| 51 C | Conclusions: These results support the hypothesis that a brief meditation practice modifies |
| 52 bo | oth narrative and minimal self in novices, and that self-location is related to the object of |
| 53 at | ttention during the practice of meditation. |
| 54 Tr | Trial Registration: This study is not preregistered. |
| 55 | |
| 56 K | <i>Ceywords</i> : mindfulness meditation, self-consciousness, minimal self, narrative self, self- |

57 location, directed attention.

58 **Changes in Self-Location During the Practice of Mindfulness Meditation in Novices** 59 Research examining the effects of mindfulness meditation on self-consciousness is in its 60 infancy (Desbordes, 2019). Some studies suggest that meditation practice changes self-related 61 processes at both the bodily and conceptual levels (e.g. Britton et al., 2021; Dambrun et al., 62 2019). Research on self-consciousness distinguishes the minimal self from the narrative self. 63 The latter refers to explicit autobiographical memory, implying the construction of an identity 64 which extends over time and offers a coherent image of the self with a past, present and future 65 (Gallagher, 2000). It involves self-related future and past cognitions (i.e. extended consciousness; Berkovich-Ohana & Glicksohn, 2014). It is a self that involves a conceptual 66 67 mental activity. On the other hand, the minimal self refers to the self as "I", the subjective 68 knower, the pre-reflective experience of the self (i.e. core consciousness). It is a self as an 69 immediate experience without extension in time. It involves self-referential sensorimotor 70 experiences, such as a specific spatial perspective rooted in the body, a sense of agency, and a 71 sense of ownership (Blanke, 2012). The minimal self is phenomenologically linked to the 72 body; it is embodied.

73 Mindfulness meditation is an attentional training where focus is directed toward what is 74 manifested in the present-moment. Mindfulness is "the awareness that emerges through 75 paying attention on purpose, in the present moment, and non-judgmentally to the unfolding of 76 experience moment by moment." (Kabat-Zinn, 2003, p. 145). Research indicates that 77 meditation practice tends to attenuate components of the narrative self, such as repetitive 78 thoughts. For example, a brief meditation training significantly decreases mind wandering 79 (Mrazek et al., 2012), particularly the frequency of mental activities referring to the past and 80 the future (Dambrun et al., 2019). A meta-analysis on 8-week Mindfulness Based 81 Interventions (MBI) shows a significant decrease in negative repetitive thoughts (Gu et al., 2015; see also Perestelo-Perez et al., 2017). More than just an attenuation of the narrative self 82

83 and self-related mental activities, the Consciousness State Space model (Berkovich-Ohana & 84 Glicksohn, 2014) proposes that mindfulness practice would lead to a transition from the 85 narrative self to the minimal self, the latter being more available to access awareness. 86 A qualitative study conducted by Droit-Volet and Dambrun (2018) with expert meditators 87 reveals a change in both the narrative and minimal self. During a deep meditative state, expert 88 meditators report changes in self-concept, mind-wandering, sense of body ownership, sense of 89 agency, but also self-location. More specifically, they report (i) a reduction or extinction of 90 their personal identity, (ii) a reduction or extinction of thoughts, (iii) they perceive their body 91 as autonomous and functioning independently of their will, (iv) a decrease in identification 92 with their body, and (v) difficulty to locate themselves. While self-location usually regroups 93 head and upper torso (Alsmith & Longo, 2014), in deep meditative state no specific body part 94 is mentioned. This relates to the loss of a sense of authorship and an absence of self-location 95 as reported in previous literature (Ataria et al., 2015). In expert meditators, such alterations 96 are associated with neurophysiological changes. Deep meditative states tend to decrease 97 activity in brain regions related to the narrative self (i.e. DMN; e.g. MPFC), or the minimal 98 self (e.g. Inferior parietal lobule; Dor-Ziderman et al., 2013; Farb et al., 2007). 99 In novices, some evidence also suggests that self-related phenomena are modified during 100 meditation practice. For example, they report less salient body boundaries (Dambrun, 2016), 101 which favors a perception of self-extension (Hanley et al., 2020). Other research with novices 102 also suggests significant changes in body sensations, sometimes with sensations of 103 disappearance of certain body parts during body scan meditation (Dambrun et al., 2019). 104 However, to our knowledge, few studies directly addressed quantitatively the effect of 105 meditation practice on this type of phenomenon in novices. 106 Self-location, the experience of being a body with a given location in the environment 107 (Serino et al., 2013), is a key aspect of the minimal self, along with self-identification and

108 first-person perspective (Blanke, 2012; Blanke & Metzinger, 2009). The location of the self is 109 typically experienced within the physical confines of the body (Alsmith & Longo, 2014), but 110 it can be modified under a variety of conditions. Out-of-body experiences refer to the 111 sensations of being located outside the physical body (i.e. disembodied self-location; e.g. 112 Blake et al., 2004). Using virtual reality or robotic technology, a shift in the perceived self-113 location toward the location of the virtual body has been documented (e.g. Ionta et al, 2011; 114 Nakul et al., 2022). Thus, self-location appears to be relatively flexible and we propose that it 115 can change substantially during meditation practice.

116 It has been found that self-location judgements are mainly distributed on two body regions: 117 the upper face and the upper torso (Alsmith & Longo, 2014). One can expect mind-wandering 118 like experiences to be associated to self-location in the head. Such experiences are 119 antagonistic with the "extrinsic" system involving sensory-motor networks (e.g. Fox et al., 120 2005; Tian et al., 2007). Thus, the bodily self is less available to access awareness when 121 inward-oriented networks (i.e. "intrinsic" or DMN) are activated. On the other hand, during 122 the practice of meditations such as body scan or breathing meditation, attention is deliberately 123 directed to parts of the body. For example, breath meditation involves directing attention to 124 the upper torso, the abdomen, the nose, the mouth, where the breath is felt. In body scan 125 meditation, attention is guided toward different parts of the body (e.g. legs, feet, etc.) and then 126 the whole body. This type of meditation has already been shown to increase body awareness 127 (Farb et al., 2015; Hölzel et al., 2011).

In this research, we propose three studies that experimentally test the effect of different meditation practices on self-location. We suggested that during the practice of body scan or breathing meditation, the part most available to access awareness would be the one where attention is directed. Thus, we predicted that the location of the self would follow the object of attention. We tested this main prediction in three studies. In a first study we tested the

133 prediction that meditation should lead to a location of the self not only to the head, but also to 134 other parts of the body that are mobilized during practice; the main breath zones (i.e. upper 135 torso, abdomen) in breathing meditation and any part of the body in body scan meditation. 136 Study 1 also considered the relationships between change in self-location during meditation 137 and change in happiness, as alteration of the self during meditation has been found associated 138 with increased happiness (Dambrun, 2016; Dambrun & al., 2019). In a second study, we 139 considered a potential underlying process of change in self-location. If self-location reflects, 140 at least partly, what is available to access awareness, then a reduction in thoughts (i.e. 141 narrative self) during meditation should be associated with a reduction in self-location to the 142 head (and an increase in self-location toward the object of attention during practice). Finally, 143 Study 3 investigated more directly the role of directed attention to the body during 144 mindfulness practice and tested its mediating role in the effect of mindfulness practice on self-145 location.

146

Study 1

147 **Method**

148 Participants

Eighty-seven participants composed the sample (81 women and 6 men; $M_{age} = 19.4$, SD =1.04). All participants were undergraduate psychology students at the University of Clermont Auvergne (UCA, France) and received course credit for their participation. Among participants, 10 had already practiced meditation at least once. Since this variable did not influence the results, it was not included in the statistical analyses. Participants signed a formal agreement before taking part in this experiment approved by a French ethical committee (RCB: 2019-A03312-55).

156 *Procedure*

157 Participants started with a week of training and then came to the lab for a 30-minute 158 practice session. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three experimental conditions: 159 body scan meditation, breathing meditation, and active control (i.e. listening to poems). Those 160 in the body scan condition trained for one week to do this practice and then came to the lab to 161 perform a 30-minute body scan session. In the breathing meditation condition, the procedure 162 was identical, the only variation being that the practice was focused on breathing meditation. 163 In the active control condition, participants practiced listening to poems for a week and then 164 came to the lab to listen poems for a session of 30 minutes. Thus, all participants performed a 165 1-week training (i.e. meditation or listening to poems). Once this training was completed, they 166 were invited to come and do a 30-minute practice session in the laboratory (i.e. meditation or 167 listening to poems).

168 Before starting the training week, the participants were received by an experimenter at the 169 lab to complete the first questionnaire (T1) after a 5-min rest period, lying on a mat with their 170 eyes closed. Then they received the instructions and the material. Specifically, participants 171 received on a USB stick a recorded 11-min guided exercise (i.e. body scan exercise, breathing 172 exercise, or listening to poems) to perform each day at home. In both meditation conditions, 173 participants were asked to focus their attention on the different parts of the body (i.e., body 174 scan) or on the breath (breathing meditation). Those in the active control condition were 175 asked to listen to poems by Jacques Prévert (Droit-Volet et al., 2018, 2019; S1 in 176 Supplementary Materials). Participants had to perform the training at home, lying on their 177 backs with their eyes closed, once a day, every day, for a full week. After each daily training, 178 participants fill-in a short follow-up notebook. Out of seven, participants completed an 179 average of 5.89 (SD = 0.99) training exercises in the active control condition, 6.28 (SD =180 (0.84) in the body scan condition, and (6.23) (SD = (0.82)) in the breathing condition. There was 181 no significant difference between conditions (F = 1.60, p < .21).

One week later, at the end of the training week, the participants returned to the laboratory 182 183 for a 30-min practice session. Again, this session began with a 5-min rest period, lying on a 184 mat with their eyes closed. Participants then completed the second questionnaire (T2) before 185 returning to the mat for a 30-min practice (i.e., body scan, breathing, or poems). At the end of 186 this practice, participants completed the questionnaire a third time (T3). Finally, participants 187 were invited to take part in another and distinct study using a cognitive task on a computer. 188 All participants completed self-report scales (questionnaire) at three different times, and each 189 after a period of quiet lying on a floor mat, i.e. under comparable situations (Dambrun et al., 190 2019).

191 Measures

Participants were asked to complete self-report scales at three different times: before the
training session (T1), after the 1-week training session (i.e., just before the laboratory session;
T2), and after the 30-min practice session (T3). These self-report scales targeted both (i) selflocation while lying on the mat and (ii) current level of happiness. The order of presentation
was counterbalanced. Participants also completed additional scales that are reported
elsewhere (Juneau et al., 2021).

(i) Self-Location. Participants were asked to indicate where they were located during the
time they were lying down at rest. They were asked to evaluate several proposals using a
visual analog scale from 0 (no, not at all) to 14 (yes, totally) centimeters. The proposals were
as follows: head, upper-torso/chest, abdomen, arms/hands, and legs/feet. Higher scores
indicated greater self-location in the concerned body area.

(ii) Happiness. Happiness was assessed using the Subjective Authentic-Durable Happiness
Scale (SA-HDS; Dambrun et al., 2012). Participants had to indicate their current feeling of
happiness by responding to 13 items (e.g. happiness, inner-peace) using a visual analog scale.
A single composite score was computed by averaging responses to the 13 items. Composite

scores can range from 0 (very low) to 14 (very high) centimeters. Higher scores indicated

208 higher levels of subjective state happiness. The reliability of the scale was satisfactory (T1: α

209 = 0.96 and ω = 0.97; T2: α = 0.97 and ω = 0.98; T3: α = 0.98 and ω = 0.98).

210 Data Analyses

First, a power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1 (i.e. "F-tests"; "Repeated

212 measures, within-between interaction", "corr. Among rep measure = 0.50). We specified three

213 groups, three measurements, and an alpha of 0.05. Second, a series of mixed-design ANOVA

214 (with Greenhous-Geisser correction) and correlation analysis was performed using Jamovi

software (2.3.3). Specifically, an initial 3 (experimental conditions: body scan meditation vs.

216 breathing meditation vs. active control) x 5 (body areas: head, upper-torso, abdomen,

217 arms/hands, legs/feet) mixed-design was performed on the self-location scores for the

218 participants' baseline, i.e., at T1. In a second step, we performed a 3 (experimental

conditions) x 5 (body areas) x 3 (time: T1, T2, T3) mixed-design ANOVA. In a third, step, we

220 conducted a 3 (experimental condition: body scan meditation vs. breathing meditation vs.

active control) x 3 (time: T1, T2, vs. T3) mixed-design ANOVA on the mean scores of

222 happiness was performed. Each time, we decomposed significant interaction effects. In each

223 case, we decomposed the significant effects by applying a Holm correction (Holm, 1979).

Finally, mediation analyses were performed using PROCESS 4.0 for SPSS (Hayes, 2017)

with the following specifications: model number 4, 5000 bootstrap samples and 95%

226 confidence intervals. We provided the standardized beta (β) of the relationships between the

227 variables and the unstandardized beta (b) for the direct and indirect effects.

228 **Results**

229 Power analysis

Based on the meta-analysis of the psychological effects of meditation (SedImeier et al.,

231 2012), which found a medium average effect on various dimensions, including self-concept, a

power analysis was conducted using a medium effect size ($\eta_p^2 = 0.06$; f = 0.25). The results

showed a total sample of 51 participants was required to achieve a power of 0.95.

234 Base-line Self-Location

This analysis only revealed a significant effect of body area (F (3.24, 271.96) = 76.86, $p < 10^{-10}$

236 0.001, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.48$). Decomposition with a Holm correction (Holm, 1979) revealed that

participants located themselves significantly more to their head (M = 11.31) than to the upper-

238 torso (M = 4.57; $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$), abdomen (M = 5.17; $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$), arms/hands (M = 4.62;

239 $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$), and legs/feet (M = 3.82; $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$). They also located themselves

significantly more in their abdomen than in their legs/feet ($p_{\text{holm}} < 0.037$). See Figure 1a and

241 1b (Table S1 in Supplementary Materials).

242 Effect of meditation on self-location

Figure 1a and 1b showed changes in self-location (see also Table S1 in Supplementary

244 Materials). As expected, the mixed-design ANOVA found a significant interaction between

245 experimental condition, time and body area (*F* (12.29, 491.58) = 2.85, p < 0.001, $\eta_p^2 = 0.07$).

246 To decompose this significant interaction, we conducted an ANOVA on the mean self-

location score for each body part with the experimental conditions and the questionnaire timesas factors.

249 **Head.** The ANOVA on the self-location scores in the head showed neither effect of time

250 (*F* (1.93, 158.07) = 1.48, p = 0.23, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.02$), nor interaction between time and condition (*F* 251 (3.86, 158.07) = 1.10, p = 0.35, $\eta^2 = 0.03$).

Upper-torso. The same analysis for locating the self in the upper-torso revealed a significant effect of time (*F* (1.82, 149.29) = 12.23, *p* < 0.001, η_p^2 = .13), and a significant time x condition interaction (*F* (3.64, 149.29) = 5.35, *p* < 0.001, η_p^2 = 0.12). Therefore, we tested the effect of the initial 1-week training (T1 to T2) and the direct effect of the 30-min practice exercise (T2 to T3), by using a difference score between T2 and T1, and T3 and T2, respectively. The effect of experimental condition was not statistically significant for the T2-T1 score ($F(2, 84) = 2.57, p = 0.083, \eta^2_p = 0.06$). On the contrary, the effect of experimental condition was significant for the T3-T2 score ($F(2, 82) = 6.08, p = 0.003, \eta^2_p = 0.129$). The increase in upper-torso's self-location was significantly greater in the body scan condition (M= +3.15) compared to the active control condition ($M = -0.10; t(82) = -3.48, p_{holm} = 0.002,$ Cohen's d = 0.93). Other comparisons were not significant.

Abdomen. For the self-location in the abdomen, there were both a significant effect of 263 time (F (1.73, 141.68) = 8.96, p < 0.001, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.10$), and a significant time x condition 264 interaction (F (3.46, 141.68) = 3.06, p = 0.018, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.07$). For the T2-T1 difference score, 265 there was no significant result (F < 1). However, for the T3-T2 score, there was a significant 266 effect of experimental condition (F (2, 82) = 4.97, p = 0.009, $\eta^2_p = 0.11$). The increase in 267 abdomen's self-location was greater in both body scan (M = +2.76) and breathing (M = +2.22) 268 269 conditions compared to the active control condition (M = +0.05; respectively, t (82) = -2.99, $p_{\text{holm}} = 0.011$, Cohen's d = 0.80 and t (82) = -2.40, $p_{\text{holm}} = 0.037$, Cohen's d = 0.64). The body 270 271 scan and the breathing conditions did not differ significantly. 272 Arms and hands. There was also a significant effect of time (F(1.81, 150.21) = 6.31, p = 6.31)0.002, $\eta^2_p = 0.07$), and a significant time x condition interaction (F (3.62, 150.21) = 3.33, p = 273 0.012, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.07$) for the self-location in the arms and hands. As previously observed, no 274 275 effect was found for the T2-T1 (F < 1), and a significant effect emerged for the T3-T2 difference score (F (2, 83) = 4.45, p = 0.015, $\eta_p^2 = 0.10$). The increase in self-location in both 276 277 arms and hands was greater in the body scan meditation condition (M = +2.93) compared to the breathing meditation condition (M = +0.13; t (83) = 2.90, $p_{\text{holm}} = 0.014$, Cohen's d = 0.76) 278 and the active control condition (M = +0.93; t (83) = -2.05, $p_{holm} = 0.087$, Cohen's d = 0.54). 279 280 Legs and feet. For locating the self in the legs and feet, we found the same results with a

281 significant time effect (*F* (1.94, 160.80) = 6.91, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_p = 0.08$), and a significant time x

condition interaction (*F* (3.87, 160.80) = 3.13, p = 0.016, $\eta_p^2 = 0.07$), and an effect that was significant for the practice exercise (T3-T2) (*F* (2, 83) = 4.30, p = 0.017, $\eta_p^2 = 0.094$) but not the training (T2-T1) (*F* < 1). The increase in self-location in both legs and feet was greater in the body scan meditation condition (*M* = +2.75) compared to the breathing meditation condition (*M* = -0.33; *t* (83) = 2.90, $p_{\text{holm}} = 0.014$, Cohen's *d* = 0.76). There was no significant difference in the active control condition (*M* = +1.61).

288 Happiness

This analysis revealed a significant effect of time (*F* (1.94, 160.62) = 8.67, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_{p} =$ 289 0.10), and a non-significant time x condition interaction (F(3.87, 160.62) = 2.22, p = 0.071, 290 $\eta^2_{\rm p} = 0.05$). The results on the difference scores revealed no significant effect of both the 1-291 week training (F (2, 83) = 1.33, p < 0.27, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.03$) and of the 30-min exercise (F (2, 83) = 292 1.70, p < 0.189, $\eta^2_p = 0.04$). Insofar as the effect of meditation practice on happiness has been 293 294 replicated several times in the literature, we checked that the lack of significant effect on this 295 variable was not due to the presence of extreme outliers, which can promote Type I and Type 296 II errors. It has been documented that their elimination can have a significant beneficial effect 297 (see Osborne & Overbay, 2004). To identify extreme outliers, an explore analysis by 298 experimental conditions was conducted. Extreme outliers were any score more than 3*IQR 299 (InterQuartile Range) from the rest of the scores. Specifically, regarding the change between 300 T1 and T2, participants number 1 (extremely high) and 24 (extremely low) were excluded 301 from the active control condition. Concerning the change between T2 and T3, participants 302 number 21 (extremely low) and 4 (extremely high) were excluded from the active control 303 condition, and participant number 30 (extremely low) was excluded from the body scan 304 condition. Once these four extreme outliers were excluded, the results on the difference scores showed no effect of the 1-week training (F (2, 81) = 1.56, p = 0.216, $\eta_p^2 = 0.04$), and a 305 significant effect of the 30-min exercise (F (2, 80) = 5.35, p = 0.007, $\eta^2_p = 0.12$). The increase 306

in happiness was greater in the body scan condition (M = +1.43) than in the active control condition (M = +0.10; t (80) = -3.27, $p_{holm} = 0.005$, Cohen's d = 0.90). Other differences were not significant.

Relationships between Change in Self-Location and Change in Happiness during the 30min Practice

312 We computed Pearson correlation between the change scores in self-location and the 313 change scores in happiness during the 30-min practice (Figure S1 in Supplementary 314 Materials). The increase in happiness was positively and significantly related to an increase in 315 upper-torso's self-location (r = 0.238, p < 0.032), self-location in the arms/hands (r = 0.264, p 316 < 0.017) and legs/feet (r = 0.278, p < 0.012). In addition, increase in abdomen's self-location 317 was positively and significantly related to increase in upper-torso's (r = 0.576, p < 0.001), 318 arms/hands' (r = 0.442, p < 0.001), and legs/feet' self-location (r = 0.374, p < 0.001). The 319 increase in upper-torso self-location also was significantly related to the increase in 320 arms/hands' self-location (r = 0.388, p < 0.001). Finally, the increase in arms/hands' self-321 location was positively related to the increase in legs/feet' self-location (r = 0.655, p < 0.001). 322 Mediation analyses 323 We tested the mediation model (i.e. body scan meditation -> increase in self-location in the 324 part of the body below the head -> increase in happiness) by following the procedure

325 advocated by Preacher and Hayes (2004).

We computed a composite score of change in self-location by averaging the scores of selflocation in torso, abdomen, arms/hands, and legs/feet. The head was not considered because (i) the location in this area did not vary with condition, (ii) location in the head was not significantly related to happiness, and (iii) it loaded on a distinct factor. A principal component factor analysis with direct oblimin rotation on the difference scores between T2 and T3 with the five body areas was performed. This analysis disclosed two factors with 332 Eigenvalues greater than 1. The first factor accounted for 45.25% of the explained variance 333 and regrouped the following four body areas: upper-torso, abdomen, arms-hands, and legs-334 feet (Eigenvalue = 2.29). The second factor accounted for 21.67% of the explained variance 335 and was composed of the head (Eigenvalue = 1.08). Because the increase in happiness during 336 the breathing meditation did not differ from the control condition, we based our mediation 337 model on a contrast comparing the body scan condition with the other two conditions (i.e. 338 body scan condition = +2; breathing meditation condition = -1; active control condition = -1). 339 Consistent with previous results, the increase in the composite score of self-location ($\beta = 0.36$, 340 p < .001) and in happiness ($\beta = 0.30$, p < .006) was significantly greater in the body scan 341 condition than in the two other conditions. As expected, the global change in self-location was 342 significantly and positively related to the increase in happiness (r = 0.34, p < .002). As 343 predicted, when change in self-location was statistically controlled for, the effect of body scan 344 meditation on change in happiness was no longer significant (direct effect: b = 0.23, se = 345 0.12, p = 0.06; CI: -0.01; 0.47). This mediation was small but significant (indirect effect: b =346 0.10, se = 0.06; CI: 0.01; 0.26). The change in self-location significantly mediated the effect 347 of the body scan meditation on happiness. In addition, we found mixed support for the 348 reversed model in which happiness mediates the effect of the body scan on self-location. The 349 indirect effect was significant (indirect effect: b = 0.16, se = 0.10; CI: 0.02; 0.42). However, 350 when change in happiness was statistically controlled for, the effect of body scan meditation 351 on change in self-location still remained significant (direct effect: b = 0.55, se = 0.22, p < 0.22352 0.02; CI: 0.12; 0.99).

353 **Discussion**

354

355 Study 1 revealed no significant effect of the one-week training on self-location when the 356 questionnaire was given one-week after the daily training. In contrast, there was an effect on 357 the self-location of a 30-min meditation exercise during the lab session. This suggests that the 358 change in the self-location with the meditation practice was the result of an immediate bodily 359 experience rather that "long-term" changes in the cognitive representation of self. 360 As regard to changes in the self-location, the practice of breath meditation leads to an 361 increase in self-location in the main areas involved in breathing (i.e. torso, abdomen), thus to 362 which attention is voluntarily directed during practice. Similar changes in self-location toward 363 torso and abdomen was observed following the practice of body scan meditation, but the 364 meditation effect extended to the limbs (e.g. legs, feet), i.e. at the periphery of the body. This 365 study reveals that self-location is very flexible and that meditation practice modifies it in a 366 substantial way. Therefore, it is not associated with a fixed body region. 367 Our study also showed that changes in self-location during meditation were associated 368 with changes in happiness. Indeed, when self-location was more important in different parts 369 of the body – excluding the head – happiness was increased. In addition, we found that, in the 370 body scan condition, the increase in happiness was mediated, in part, by an increase in self-371 location in the abdomen, torso, and peripheral limbs, and we only found mixed support for the 372 reversed model. This seems consistent with research showing that practices, such as 373 mindfulness, which direct attention to the present moment via body awareness, promote 374 positive emotions and a state of well-being (e.g. Dambrun, 2016; 2019; van Geest et al.,

375 2021).

The aim of the next study was to replicate these effects observed in Study 1 while removing the week of training. Indeed, the self-location changes were observed immediately after a meditation exercise and not within our training session. However, the training session might have affected performance on the testing session. In addition, we investigated one of the potential explanatory processes: the reduction of the narrative self (i.e. self-related thoughts) in favor of the bodily self. We predicted that the decrease in narrative self during meditation practice should mediate the change in self-location.

383

Study 2

384 Method

385 Participants

The sample was composed of ninety-two undergraduate psychology students from University Clermont Auvergne (82 women and 10 men; $M_{age} = 19.6$, SD = 1.58), with 6 who had already practiced meditation at least once. Because this variable did not influence the results, it was not included in the statistical analyses. They all received course credit and signed a consent form to participate in this experiment approved by a French ethical

391 committee (IRB 00011540-2020-10).

392 *Procedure*

393 The procedure was similar to that used in Study 1 except for the 1-week training before the 394 testing session that was not present in that study and the duration of the practice session which 395 was shorter. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three experimental conditions with 396 a 21-min exercise in the laboratory: body scan meditation, breathing meditation, or active 397 control (i.e. listening to a tale; S1 in Supplementary Materials). The session began with a 5-398 min rest period, lying on a mat with eyes closed, followed by the completion of the 399 questionnaire (T1), and the 21-min exercise on the mat. At the end of this exercise, they 400 completed the questionnaire for the second time (T2). As in Study 1, all the participants 401 always completed the questionnaire after a similar period of lying on a floor mat, i.e. in 402 comparable situations.

403 Measures

The questionnaire was composed of the (i) self-location scale while lying on the mat, but also of new scales assessing the (ii) frequency of thoughts, and (iii) the transition of selflocation from the head to the whole body. We also assessed the sense of body ownership and agency, but they will be present elsewhere. The order of presentation was not

408 counterbalanced. The order was: frequency of thoughts, transition of self-location, perception409 of body ownership and agency, and the same self-location scale as in Study 1.

(i) Self-Location. As in Study 1, participants were asked to indicate where they would say
they were located during the time they were lying down at rest. They were asked to evaluate 5
proposals (head, upper-torso/chest, abdomen, arms/hands, and legs/feet) by using a visual
analog scale ranging from 0 (no, not at all) to 93 (yes, totally) millimeters. Higher scores
indicated greater self-location in the concerned body area.

(ii) Number of thoughts. We developed a new measure to assess how busy participants
were with thoughts (Figure S2 in Supplementary Materials). The participants responded on a
continuous 150-millimeter line associated with 7 faces with a bubble containing more or less
thoughts. Scores ranged from 0 (very few thoughts) to 150 (a lot of thoughts).

(iii) Self-location transition from the head to the rest of the body. In this new scale
assessing the transition of self-location from the head to rest of the body, both the localization
in the head and the body were evoked in the same item (Figure S3 in Supplementary
Materials). Obviously, the head is a part of the body, but it symbolizes the seat of thought in
phenomenological terms. The participants rated their self-location transition from 0 "totally in
my body, not at all in my head" to 150 "totally in my head, not at all in my body" millimeters,
with "as much in my body as in my head" in the center.

426 Data Analyses

We followed the same statistical procedure as in Study 1 except that the power analysis
and the mixed-designed ANOVA (testing the effect of meditation of self-location) were
specified with two measurements (T1 and T2) instead of three.

430 **Results**

431 *Power analysis*

Based on the effect size of the 30-min practice exercise on self-location observed in Study 1 (i.e. η^2_p = around 0.10; *f* = 0.33), a power analysis revealed that a total sample of 39

434 participants was required to achieve a power of 0.95.

435 Baseline self-location

As in Study 1, the mixed-design ANOVA revealed a significant effect of body area on the self-location score at T1 (*F* (3.87, 344.42) = 72.04, p < 0.001, $\eta_p^2 = 0.45$). Participants located themselves significantly more in the head (*M* = 78.3) than in the upper-torso (M = 36.0; p_{holm} < 0.001), abdomen (*M* = 37.9; $p_{holm} < 0.001$), arms/hands (*M* = 33.7; $p_{holm} < 0.001$), and legs/feet (*M* = 28.0; $p_{holm} < 0.001$). The self-location was also higher in their abdomen than in their legs/feet ($p_{holm} < 0.013$). See Figure 2a and 2b (see also Table S2 in Supplementary

442 Materials).

443 Effect of meditation on Self-Location

444 The mixed-design ANOVA with the experimental condition, the body area and the time 445 (T1 vs. T2) found a significant interaction between experimental condition, time and body area (F (7.39, 324.99) = 12.32, p < 0.001, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.22$). Therefore, we analyzed the results for 446 447 each body part with a 3 (experimental condition) x 2 (time) ANOVA. Changes in self-448 location are presented in Figure 2a and 2b (see also Table S2 in Supplementary Materials). **Head.** The effect of time (*F* (1.0, 89.0) = 23.33, p < 0.01, $\eta_{p}^{2} < 0.21$) and time x condition 449 were significant (*F* (2.0, 89.0) = 6.19, p = 0.003, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.122$). The analyses on the T2-T1 450 451 difference score indicated that self-location in the head decreased significantly more in the 452 body scan condition (M = -23.26) than in the active control condition (M = -1.65; t (89) = -3.51, $p_{\text{holm}} = 0.002$, Cohen's d = 0.90). The decrease in the breath meditation condition (M = -453 454 11.40) did not differ from the two other conditions (p > 0.10). 455 **Upper-torso.** For locating the self in the upper-torso, there were also a time effect (*F* (1.0,

456 89.0) = 10.22, p = 0.002, $\eta^2_p < .10$), and a time x condition interaction (*F* (2.0, 89.0) = 6.12, *p*

457 = 0.003, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.12$). As indicated by the T2-T1 difference score, the increase in upper-torso's 458 self-location was significantly greater in both the body scan condition (M = +19.40) and the 459 breathing meditation condition (M = +18.71) than in the active control condition (M = -5.95; 460 respectively, t (89) = 3.08, $p_{holm} < 0.008$, Cohen's d = 0.79; and, t (89) = 2.99, $p_{holm} < 0.008$, 461 Cohen's d = 0.77).

462 **Abdomen.** The effect of time ($F(1.0, 89.0) = 13.6, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.13$), and the time x 463 condition interaction ($F(2.0, 89.0) = 18.5, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.29$) were also significant for 464 locating the self in the abdomen. Again, the increase in abdomen's self-location was greater in 465 both the body scan (M = +24.2) and the breathing (M = +35.4) conditions than in the active 466 control condition (M = -18.1; respectively, $t(89) = 4.58, p_{holm} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.17; and 467 $t(89) = 5.78, p_{holm} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.48).

Arms and hands. The results are similar for locating the self in the arms and hands: 468 significant time effect (*F* (1.0, 88.0) = 7.69, p = 0.007, $\eta_{p}^{2} < 0.08$), and time x condition 469 interaction (*F* (2.0, 88.0) = 18.93, p < 0.001, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.30$). The increase in self-location in both 470 471 arms and hands was greater in the body scan meditation condition (M = +41.24) compared to 472 the breathing meditation condition (M = -0.34; t (88) = 4.71, $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.20) 473 and the active control condition (M = -10.55; t (88) = 5.76, $p_{holm} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.49). Legs and feet. Similarly, the time effect (*F* (1.0, 89.0) = 19.2, p < 0.001, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.18$), and 474 the time x condition interaction (F (2.0, 89.0) = 15.6, p < 0.001, $\eta_p^2 = 0.26$) were significant. 475 476 The increase in self-location in both legs and feet was greater in the body scan meditation 477 condition (M = +41.23) than in the breathing meditation condition (M = +4.37; t (89) = 4.48, $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.14) and in the active control condition (M = -1.15; t (89) = 5.11, 478 479 $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.31).

480 Number of thoughts

The 3 x 2 mixed-design ANOVA on the scores of perceived number of thoughts revealed a significant time effect ($F(1.0, 86.0) = 73.47, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = 0.46$), and a significant time x condition interaction ($F(2.0, 86.0) = 4.05, p = 0.021, \eta^2_p = 0.09$). The decrease in the number of thoughts was greater in the body scan condition (M = -51.4) than in the breathing meditation condition ($M = -22.7; t(86) = -2.82, p_{holm} < 0.018$, Cohen's d = 0.73; Figure 3). No other differences were significant.

487 Self-location transition from the head to the rest of the body

488 The analysis on the scores assessing self-location transition from the head to the rest of the 489 body also indicated a significant effect of time (*F* (1.0, 89.0) = 11.7, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.12$), as

- 490 well as a significant time x condition interaction (*F* (2.0, 89.0) = 14.6, *p* < 0.001, $\eta_{p}^{2} = 0.25$).
- 491 The self-location transition from the head to the rest of the body was greater in both the body
- 492 scan (M = -33.7) and the breathing conditions (M = -24.1; t (89) = -5.11, $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$,
- 493 Cohen's d = 1.31) compared to the active control condition (M = +16.6; t (89) = -4.13, $p_{\text{holm}} <$
- 494 0.001, Cohen's *d* = 1.06; Figure 4).

495 Relationships between change in self-location, change in the number of thoughts, and self-

496 *location transition during the 21-min practice*

497 We computed Pearson correlation between the change in various scores during the 21-min

498 exercise (Figure S4 in Supplementary Materials). As expected, the increases in head's self-

- 499 location were negatively related to the increase in self-location in the upper-torso (r = -0.25),
- 500 the arms/hands (r = -0.34), the legs/feet (r = -0.31), the self-location transition to the body (r
- 501 = -0.53), and positively related to the increase in thoughts' frequency (r = 0.41). In addition,
- 502 increase in self-location transition from the head to the rest of the body was positively related
- to the increase in self-location in the upper-torso (r = 0.31), the abdomen (r = 0.34), the
- arms/hands (r = 0.42), and the legs/feet (r = 0.43). Decrease in thoughts' number was related
- 505 to an increase in self-location transition to the rest of the body (r = -0.30).

506 Mediation analyses

507 Because the number of thoughts during the breathing meditation did not differ from the 508 control condition, we based our mediation model on a contrast comparing the body scan 509 condition with the other two conditions (i.e. body scan meditation -> decrease in number of 510 thoughts -> change in self-location). We followed the same procedure as in Study 1. 511 We computed a mean score of change in self-location in the body (excluding the head) by 512 averaging the scores of self-location in torso, abdomen, arms/hands, and legs/feet. A contrast 513 was computed to test the effect of the body scan 21-min practice (i.e. body scan condition = 514 +2; breathing meditation condition = -1; active control condition = -1). Consistent with 515 previous results, the increase in torso, abdomen, arms/hands, and legs/feet self-location (β = 516 0.46, p < .001), the decrease in self-location in the head ($\beta = -0.31$, p < .002), and the decrease 517 in the number of thoughts ($\beta = -0.27$, p < .01) were significantly greater in the body scan 518 condition than in the two other conditions. As expected, the decrease in the number of 519 thoughts was negatively related to the global change in self-location (excluding the head; r =520 0.26, p < .015) and positively related to the decrease in self-location in the head (r = 0.41, p < 0.26, p < .015) 521 .001). As predicted, when change in number of thoughts was statistically controlled for, the 522 effect of the body scan meditation on change in self-location in the head was no longer 523 significant (direct effect: b = -3.46, se = 1.75, p = 0.051; CI: -6.93; 0.018). This mediation 524 was significant (indirect effect: b = -1.70, se = 0.72; CI: -3.26; -0.42). The reduction in 525 number of thoughts significantly mediated the effect of the body scan meditation on decrease 526 of self-location in the head. However, the number of thoughts did not mediate the effect of the 527 body scan meditation on the increase in self-location in the rest of the body. The direct effect 528 was significant (b = 9.17, se = 1.92, p < 0.001; CI: 5.35; 12.99), and the indirect effect was 529 not significant (b = 0.72, se = 0.54; CI: -0.16; 1.96).

530 Finally, we also tested the model according to which the decrease in the number of 531 thoughts would mediate the effect of the body scan meditation on the transition from the head 532 to the rest of the body. When change in number of thoughts was statistically controlled for, 533 the effect of the body scan meditation on change in transition from the head to the rest of the 534 body still remained significant (direct effect: b = 7.99, se = 3.16, p = 0.013; CI: 1.700; 14.28; 535 total effect: b = 9.87, se = 3.11, p = 0.002; CI: 3.69; 16.05). This mediation was significant 536 (indirect effect: b = 1.89, se = 1.14; CI: 0.02; 4.43). The reduction in number of thoughts 537 significantly mediated the effect of the body scan meditation on increase in transition from the 538 head to the rest of the body.

539 **Discussion**

540

541 Study 2 replicates the results of Study 1 with larger effect sizes. There was a change in 542 self-location in both meditation conditions similar to what we observed in Study 1. In 543 addition, there was a decrease in self-location in the head in both breathing and body scan 544 meditations, which was greater in the body scan condition. This effect was not seen in Study 545 1.

546 These results are consistent with those obtained using the scale assessing more directly 547 self-location transition from the head to the rest of the body. However, they did not indicate 548 that participants no longer localized themselves in the head, but simply less in the head in 549 favor of the other parts of the body. As expected, this change in self-location was correlated 550 with a decrease in the number of thoughts. In addition, a greater reduction of thoughts during meditation was linked to greater self-location transition from the head to the rest of the body. 551 552 However, the mediation analysis revealed that the decrease in thoughts mediated the 553 reduction of self-location in the head and the transition in the rest of the body, and not the 554 increase of self-location in the rest of the body, where another mechanism seems to be 555 involved.

556 Regarding self-location in other parts of the body, insofar as breath meditation and body 557 scan lead practitioners to focus their attention on their internal experiences, sensory 558 experiences of breathing, or other bodily sensations, the role of body awareness (e.g. Holzel et 559 al., 2011) and interoceptive awareness (e.g. Bornemann et al., 2015) should be investigated. 560 With this in mind, Study 3 was designed to examine the role of attention to internal body 561 experience. We therefore added a scale to the protocol to measure the areas of the body where 562 attention is directed during the practice, with the prediction that attention directed to a specific 563 area of the body would lead to an increase in self-location in that same area. 564 In studies 1 and 2, participants were asked where they located themselves without explicit reference to the self (i.e., where do you locate yourself). In their study, Limanowski and 565 566 Hecht (2011) asked participants where "the self" (i.e., location of the "self"). However, the 567 self is an abstract object for individuals. We preferred not to mention the term "self" to avoid 568 participants activating a particular conception. However, it would be important to replicate our findings with a procedure that activates a conception. We chose to use the term "Me" in 569 570 Study 3, which is less abstract than "self" in French. 571 Study 3 572 Method 573 **Participants** 574 The sample was composed of one hundred and twenty-seven undergraduate psychology 575 students from University Clermont Auvergne (113 women and 13 men; $M_{age} = 18.9$, SD =576 1.8). They all received course credit and signed a consent form to participate in this 577 experiment approved by a French ethical committee (IRB00011540-2022-08).

578 Procedure

579 The procedure was similar to that of Study 2, with the exception that the audio tape

580 duration was shorter (11-minute instead of 21) and that they were no baseline questionnaire.

The experiment also was programmed remotely on Qualtrics with the same procedure. After reading the information note and the consent form, participants were asked to listen to an audio recording of the experimental induction for 11 minutes. At the end of the audio recording, the participant was asked to answer a questionnaire to assess various constructs including self-location and directed attention.

586 The participants were randomly assigned to a body scan meditation condition (n = 42), a 587 breathing meditation condition (n = 42), or a story condition (n = 43). During the practice, 588 participants were instructed to sit on a chair with their eyes closed and if possible with 589 headphones on. Unlike studies 1 and 2 where participants had to lie on the floor, in this study 590 the instructions for the audio tapes were adapted for listening/practicing in a sitting position. 591 In the body scan, participants were asked to focus their attention on the different parts of the 592 body sequentially. In the breathing meditation condition, the participants were asked to focus 593 their attention on their breathing (e.g. inhaling, exhaling). In the active listening control 594 condition, they listened to a 11-minute audio recording of a Hans Christian Andersen story 595 (i.e. "the snowman"). For further details, see S1 in Supplementary Materials.

596 *Measures*

597 The questionnaire was composed of the (i) self-location scale, and (ii) the directed
598 attention scale. The order of presentation of the self-location and attention measures was
599 automatically counterbalanced by Qualtrics, and the order of questions on each measure was
600 randomized.

(i) Self-Location. Participants were asked to indicate where they located their "Me" during
the time they were listening to the audio. They were asked to evaluate 5 proposals (head,
upper-torso/chest, abdomen, arms/hands, and legs/feet) by using a visual analog scale ranging
from 0 (no, not at all) to 10 (yes, totally). Higher scores indicated greater self-location in the
concerned body area.

(ii) Directed attention. We developed a new measure to assess how participants directed
their attention. Specifically, they were asked to indicate where their attention was directed
(i.e. where their mind was focused) while listening to the audio. They were asked to evaluate
5 proposals (head, upper-torso/chest, abdomen, arms/hands, and legs/feet) by using a visual
analog scale ranging from 0 (no, not at all) to 10 (yes, totally). Higher scores indicated greater
directed attention to the concerned body area.

612 Data Analyses

613 We followed the same statistical procedure as in Study 2.

- 614 **Results**
- 615 Power analysis

Based on the effect size of the 21-min practice exercise on self-location observed in Study (i.e. minimum $\eta_p^2 = 0.08$; Effect size f = 0.294), a power analysis was conducted. The results indicated that a total sample of 48 participants was required to achieve a power of 0.95.

620 Effect of meditation on self-location

621 Figure 5 shows self-location as a function of the experimental condition (Table S3 in Supplementary Materials). The effect of body areas was significant (F(3.43, 425.73) = 56.33, 622 p < 0.001, $\eta^2_p = 0.31$). Participants directed their attention preferentially to the head (M =623 624 7.25; all $p_{holm} < 0.001$), followed equally by the upper-torso (M = 5.40) and the abdomen (M= 5.03), and to a lesser extent (all $p_{holm} < 0.001$) to the Arms/hands (M = 3.48) and Legs/feet 625 (M = 3.11). The difference between these two areas was not significant $(p_{holm} > 0.10)$. As 626 627 expected, the 3 (experimental conditions) x 5 (body areas) mixed-design ANOVA (with Greenhouse-Geisser correction), found a significant interaction between experimental 628 condition and body area (*F* (6.87, 425.73) = 6.76, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.10$). To decompose this 629

630 significant interaction, we conducted an ANOVA on the mean self-location score for each

631 body part separately with the experimental conditions as a factor.

- 632 **Head.** The ANOVA on the self-location scores in the head showed a non-significant effect 633 of condition (*F* (2, 124) = 2.67, *p* = 0.073, $\eta^2 = 0.04$).
- **Upper-torso.** The same analysis for locating the self in the upper-torso revealed a significant effect of condition (F(2, 124) = 5.35, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.11$). Decomposition indicated that self-location in the upper-torso was greater in the body scan meditation condition (M = 6.14) and the breathing meditation condition (M = 6.00) compared to the active control condition (M = 4.07; respectively, t(124) = 3.56, $p_{holm} = 0.002$, Cohen's d =0.77; and t(124) = 3.32, $p_{holm} = 0.002$, Cohen's d = 0.72). The comparison between body-
- 640 scan and breathing conditions was not significant.
- 641 **Abdomen.** For the self-location in the abdomen, there also was a significant effect of
- 642 condition (*F* (2, 124) = 15.0, *p* < 0.001, η_{p}^{2} = 0.20). Self-location in the abdomen was greater
- 643 in the body scan meditation condition (M = 5.26) and the breathing meditation condition (M =
- 644 6.52) than in the active control condition (M = 3.30; respectively, t (124) = 3.31, $p_{\text{holm}} =$
- 645 0.002, Cohen's d = 0.72; and t (124) = 5.43, $p_{holm} = 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.18). In addition,
- 646 self-location in the abdomen was greater in the breathing meditation condition compared to

647 the body scan one (t (124) = 2.12, p_{holm} = 0.04, Cohen's d = 0.46).

648 Arms and hands. There was a non-significant effect of condition (*F* (2, 124) = 2.38, *p* = 649 0.096, $\eta_p^2 = 0.04$) for the self-location in the arms and hands.

650 Legs and feet. For locating the self in the legs and feet, we found a significant effect of

651 condition (*F* (2, 124) = 12.2, *p* < 0.001, η^2_{p} = 0.16). Self-location in this body area was greater

- 652 in the body scan meditation condition (M = 4.48) than in the breathing meditation condition
- 653 $(M = 2.83; t (124) = 3.23, p_{holm} = 0.003, Cohen's d = 0.71)$ and in the active control condition
- 654 $(M = 2.02; t (124) = 4.85, p_{holm} < 0.001, Cohen's d = 1.05)$. There was no significant

655 difference between the breathing meditation and the active control conditions (t (124) = 1.60, 656 $p_{\text{holm}} = 0.11$).

657 Effect of meditation on directed attention to the body

Figure 5 showed directed attention as function of the experimental condition (Table S3 in 658 659 Supplementary Materials). The effect of body areas was significant (F(3.24, 398.15) = 51.9, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_p = 0.30$). Participants directed their attention preferentially to the head (M =660 7.21; all $p_{holm} < 0.001$), followed equally by the upper-torso (M = 4.97) and the abdomen (M661 662 = 4.94), and to a lesser extent (all $p_{holm} < 0.001$) to the Arms/hands (M = 3.51) and Legs/feet (M = 3.00). The difference between these two areas was not significant $(p_{holm} < 0.053)$. As 663 expected, the 3 (experimental conditions) x 5 (body areas) mixed-design ANOVA, found a 664 significant interaction between experimental condition and body area (F(6.47, 398.15) =665 12.4, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_p = 0.17$). To decompose this significant interaction, we conducted an 666 667 ANOVA on the mean self-location score for each body part with the experimental conditions as a factor. 668

669 **Head.** The ANOVA on directed attention to the head revealed a non-significant effect of 670 condition (*F* (2, 124) = 1.95, *p* = 0.146, $\eta^2 = 0.03$).

671 Upper-torso. The same analysis for directed attention to the upper-torso revealed a significant effect of condition (F (2, 124) = 21.7, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_p = 0.26$). Decomposition 672 673 indicated that directed attention to the upper-torso was greater in the body scan meditation 674 condition (M = 6.69) and the breathing meditation condition (M = 5.43) than in the active 675 control condition (M = 2.79; respectively, t (124) = 6.45, $p_{holm} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.41; and t (124) = 4.37, $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 0.95). The comparison between body-scan and 676 677 breathing conditions also was significant (t (124) = 2.08, $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.039$; Cohen's d = 0.46). 678 Abdomen. For directed attention to the abdomen, there also was a significant effect of condition (F (2, 124) = 33.5, p < 0.001, $\eta_p^2 = 0.35$). Directed attention to the abdomen was 679

680 greater in the body scan meditation condition (M = 5.57) and the breathing meditation 681 condition (M = 6.88) than in the active control condition (M = 2.30; respectively, t (124) = 682 5.66, $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.23; and t (124) = 7.93, $p_{\text{holm}} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 1.72). In 683 addition, directed attention to this area was greater in the breathing meditation condition than 684 in the body scan one (t (124) = 2.26, $p_{\text{holm}} = 0.026$, Cohen's d = 0.49).

Arms and hands. There was a significant effect of condition (F(2, 123) = 7.85, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.11$) for the directed attention to the arms and hands. Directed attention to this area was greater in the body scan meditation condition (M = 4.81) than in the breathing meditation condition (M = 2.64) and the active control condition (M = 3.07; respectively, t(123) = 3.74, $p_{holm} < 0.001$, Cohen's d = 0.82; and $t(123) = 3.00, p_{holm} = 0.007$, Cohen's d = 0.65). There was no significant difference between the breathing meditation and the active control

691 conditions (t (123) < 1, $p_{\text{holm}} = 0.46$).

Legs and feet. For directed attention to the legs and feet, we found a significant effect of condition (*F* (2, 123) = 20.8, p < 0.001, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.25$). Directed attention to this body area was greater in the body scan meditation condition (*M* = 4.81) than in the breathing meditation condition (*M* = 2.24; *t* (123) = 5.26, $p_{holm} < 0.001$, Cohen's *d* = 1.15) and in the active control condition (*M* = 1.95; *t* (123) = 5.85, $p_{holm} < 0.001$, Cohen's *d* = 1.28). There was no significant difference between the breathing meditation and the active control conditions (*t* (123) < 1, $p_{holm} = 0.56$).

699 Relationships between self-location and directed attention

700 We computed Pearson correlations between self-location and directed attention for each

- body area. Both measures were strongly and positively correlated (i.e. head: r = 0.64, p < 0.64
- 702 0.001; upper-torso: r = 0.73, p < 0.001; abdomen: r = 0.77, p < 0.001; Arms/hands: r = 0.70, p
- 703 < 0.001; Legs/feet: r = 0.77, p < 0.001).
- 704 Mediation analyses

705 We tested our predicted mediation model in which directed attention would mediate the 706 effect of the mindfulness practice on self-location using two contrasts depending of the body 707 area. For the upper-torso and the abdomen, that were significantly impacted by both body 708 scan and breathing meditations, we used the following contrast 1: body scan condition = +1; 709 breathing meditation condition = +1; active control condition = -2. Because only the body 710 scan meditation condition significantly impacted the "legs/feet" area in terms of both self-711 location and directed attention, we used the following contrast 2: body scan condition = +2; 712 breathing meditation condition = -1; active control condition = -1.

713 As depicted in Table 1, whatever the body area, when directed attention was statistically 714 controlled for, the effect of the mindfulness meditation (i.e. contrast 1) or body scan 715 meditation (i.e. contrast 2) on self-location became non-significant (all direct effects became 716 non-significant while total effects were significant). In each case, the indirect effect was 717 significant providing evidence of a mediation. We also tested the reversed model in which 718 self-location would mediate the effect of mindfulness practice on directed attention. We also 719 found significant indirect effects, however, in each case, the direct effects still remained 720 strongly significant (see Table 1).

721 **Discussion**

Study 3 replicates the results of Study 1 and 2 with a new instruction regarding the selfreported scale of self-location. Whereas in the first two studies, the instruction did not explicitly refer to the concept of "self," in this study we chose to modify our instruction and asked participants to locate their "Me". In French, the term "Me" is more common and less abstract than the term "Self". The fact that the results are similar with this new instruction seems to indicate that the latter does not have a significant impact, and when participants are asked to locate themselves without explicit reference, they locate their "self/me".

729 The main contribution of Study 3 lies in the measurement of directed attention and the fact 730 that it covaries very strongly with self-location. As shown in Figure 5, the curves for self-731 location and directed attention (as a function of body area and experimental condition) are 732 very similar. Correlation analyses confirm these initial results and reveal correlations with a 733 large size effect. Finally, the mediation analyses indicate that the data support the model that 734 directed attention mediates the effect of mindfulness practice on self-location. Therefore, self-735 location seems to be closely related to the object of attention. As the latter is directly impacted 736 by certain meditation practices such as body scan or breathing meditation, self-location is then 737 directed towards these body regions.

738

Mini-meta-analysis

739 To help interpret the results as a whole, we performed a mini-meta-analysis of our three 740 studies on the effect of a practice of body scan meditation and breathing mediation on self-741 location in different body parts (Table S4 and S5 in Supplementary Materials). We used 742 Hedges as a model estimator (with standardized mean difference). The breathing meditation 743 increased the self-location in the parts of the body related to the breath, where the practitioner 744 was invited to direct his/her attention during the practice (i.e. upper-torso and abdomen). The 745 effect was large in the case of the abdomen (Hedge's g = 1.19), and medium in the case of the 746 upper torso (Hedge's g = 0.69). The Q-test for heterogeneity (in these two body areas) was 747 not significant. In the body-scan meditation, all parts of the body are involved, the practitioner 748 being invited to pay attention sequentially to different parts of the body. Consistently, we 749 observe large increase in self-location within different areas of the body (i.e. upper-torso: 750 Hedge's g = 0.81; abdomen: Hedge's g = 0.82; arms-hands: Hedge's g = 0.83, and legs-feet: 751 Hedge's g = 0.84). The Q-test for heterogeneity was significant in the case of arms-hands and 752 legs-feet. Concerning the arms-hands area, Study 2 had a value larger than the two other 753 studies. This seems consistent with the fact that this was the body scan sequence where

participants were most invited to scan this area. Concerning the legs-feet area, Study 1 had a value lower than the two other studies. It is difficult to explain this result insofar as the different body scan sequences that we used did not differ concerning the scanning instructions of this zone. Finally, regardless of the body scan exercise used, location in the head never increased, but rather tended to decrease (Studies 2 and 3). The effect was small in size but significant (Hedge's g = -0.47).

760

General Discussion

761 The main aim of this research was to examine the effect of mindfulness meditation on self-762 location in novices. Results were consistent across our three studies. First, as in the literature, 763 participants' baseline self-location (T1; see Studies 1 and 2) was merely located in the head 764 and not so much in other parts of the body (e.g. Depraz et al., 2003; Limanowski & Hecht, 765 2011). Alsmith and Longo (2014) found that the upper torso area was the second preferred 766 area for self-location, which was not the case in the current studies. However, these authors 767 used a rather different methodology with a pointer, which may likely explain this difference. 768 Nevertheless, regardless of the methodology used, the head still stands out as the preferred 769 area.

In addition, our studies showed that the practice of body scan and breathing meditations modified the location of the self. However, this seems a transitory and not a long-term effect. Indeed, a one-week training session did not generate a significant change in the self-location (Study 1), while a 30-minute (Study 1) and even 11-minute exercise (Study 3) immediately change the self-location. Futhermore, as confirmed by the mini-meta-analysis, the bodily selflocation varied with the type of meditation exercise.

Our results on the changes in the awareness of the location of the self in the body raise the question of what self-location really means and what is measured when an individual is asked to locate his or her self? Of course, further studies are needed to tackle this question.

779 According to Limanowski and Hecht (2011), self-reported measures of self-location do not 780 measure true self-location, but rather individuals' subjective experience. Therefore, it is 781 important to question what underlies the subjective experience of self-location. In Study 2, the 782 frequency of thoughts correlated significantly with self-location. Specifically, the decrease in 783 ongoing thoughts during meditation practice was related to a decrease of self-location in the 784 head and an increase of self-location in the abdomen and the peripheral areas of the body at 785 least in the body scan meditation. In contrast, the participants were initially (T1) largely 786 engaged in thoughts and localized themselves in the head. Studies showed that individuals at 787 rest are often engaged in self-referential thoughts which is related to an increased neural 788 activity within the default mode network, and the medial prefrontal cortex, a brain area known 789 to support self-related experiences (e.g. autobiographical memory, imagination; Stawarczyk 790 & D'Argembeau, 2015; D'Argembeau, 2018). On the other hand, meditation practice has 791 been robustly linked both to activity in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, involved in the top-792 down control of attention (i.e. DPFC; Fox et al., 2016), and in the insula (Fox et al., 2014; 793 2016), a region associated with awareness of inner body states (see Fox & Cahn, 2018 for a 794 review). In imagery studies, Farb et al. (2013) showed that one main component of a 795 mindfulness exercise is the development of interoceptive attention, i.e. increased bodily 796 sensations, as indicated by the altered functional connectivity between the DPFC and the 797 insula. This is entirely consistent with our results. Therefore, we can assume that the 798 mindfulness meditation decreases ongoing thoughts and increases interoceptive sensations as 799 indicated by the transfer reported by the participants of the self-location from the head to 800 other parts of the body. However, the area of body in the focus of attention depends on type of 801 meditation exercise, being not fixed but flexible.

802 Study 3 clearly reveals that self-location is oriented to the part of the body where attention
803 is directed during the practice. When the practice involves areas of the body such as the

804 upper-torso and abdomen (i.e. body scan or breathing meditation), the individual locates 805 himself in these parts. When the meditation involves peripheral areas of the body such as the 806 legs or feet, as is the case in body scan meditation, the self-location also goes into these parts. 807 It seems to follow irrevocably the attention and the area of the body on which it is focused. 808 This result is intriguing and raises questions. The nature of the self is a matter of debate in 809 psychological science and philosophy (e.g., Dambrun & Ricard, 2011; Varela et al., 1991). 810 Some approaches suggest that the self is inherently interdependent and impermanent (e.g., 811 Varela et al., 1991). While it is generally accepted that a permanent, unified self is 812 unattainable (e.g., Bogen 1986; Sherrington, 1947), the existence of a transcendental self, 813 responsible for our sense of unity, may have been proposed (Kant, 1976). Our research 814 arguably indicates that participants do not find a permanent, unified self when asked to locate 815 themselves, and the fact that they locate themselves in an area of the body mobilized by their 816 attention (the head when thinking or listening, their abdomen when focusing on their 817 breathing) indicates that the experience of the self is underpinned, at least in part, by a 818 malleable location in the body, and by no means in a specific and unique seat.

819 Limitations and Future Directions

820 This research has several limitations. First, the participants were overwhelmingly of 821 French nationality, female, students, and novices in meditation, which limits the 822 generalizability of our results. Our studies should be replicated with more heterogeneous 823 samples. Second, the fact that several constructs were measured using multiple-item scales in 824 the same questionnaire may result in spurious effects due to the measurement instruments 825 rather than to the constructs being measured (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Third, our self-location 826 measure is relatively imprecise because it does not capture the exact body location. For 827 example, the torso is a fairly large area, which does not allow for any insight into whether or 828 not the heart was targeted by participants. However, this area has been judged relevant for

self-location (Alsmith & Longo, 2014; Limanowski & Hecht, 2011). Similarly, we did not
dissociate the arms from the hands, and the feet from the legs. This would require further
refinement. Replication with self-location on silhouettes, for example, would allow us to be
more precise and identify, for example, whether self-location overlaps with the path of the
breath during breath meditation practice.

834 In the two first studies, participants were asked where they located themselves without 835 explicit reference to the self. In their study, Limanowski and Hecht (2011) asked participants 836 where "the self" or "the phenomenal self" is located by explaining "the self" as the center of 837 phenomenal experience and found no effect on the location of self. However, the self is an 838 abstract object for individuals. Indeed, it is likely that the activation of a concept of the self 839 may lead more to the activation of beliefs (influenced by culture) than to immediate 840 experience. In Study 3, we changed our procedure by activating a conception (i.e., located 841 your "Me"), and observed very similar results. Although it would be necessary to compare 842 these two types of procedures more directly, these first data seem to indicate that they do not 843 generate different self-locations.

844 Of course, the changes in self-location that we observed in the body scan and breathing
845 meditation conditions do not allow us to infer that this can be generalized to other types of
846 meditation such as constructive or deconstructive meditation for example (Dahl et al., 2015).
847 Further research is needed.

Despite some limitations, our studies reveal that self-location is flexible and that the simple practice of meditation session is sufficient to substantially modify it. What underlies selflocation needs to be further investigated. However, our results suggest that the mindfulness meditation transfers the focus of self from head to other body parts, consistently to development of an interoception attention.

| 854 | Declarations |
|--|---|
| 855 | Conflict of interest: Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest. |
| 856 | Ethical approval: All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in |
| 857 | accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and with the 1964 Helsinki |
| 858 | declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. All studies were |
| 859 | approved by the ethics committee of the University Clermont Auvergne. |
| 860 | Informed consent: Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included |
| 861 | in the studies. |
| 862 | Author Contributions: Michaël Dambrun: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, |
| 863 | Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing, |
| 864 | Visualization, Supervision, Project administration. Léa Martinon: Conceptualization, Writing |
| 865 | – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing. Catherine Juneau: Investigation, Writing – |
| 866 | Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing. Sylvie Droit-Volet: Writing – Original Draft, |
| 867 | Writing – Review & Editing. Maya Corman: Conceptualization, Writing – Original Draft. |
| 868 | Pierre De Oliveira: Conceptualization, Validation, Formal analysis, Writing – Original Draft, |
| 869 | Writing – Review & Editing. Nicolas Pellerin: Conceptualization, Validation, Formal |
| 870 | analysis, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing. |
| 871 | Data Availability Statement: Dambrun, Michael (2021): Self-location and mindfulness |
| 872 | meditation1. figshare. Dataset. https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.16955407.v2 |
| 873 874 875 876 877 878 879 880 881 882 883 884 | |

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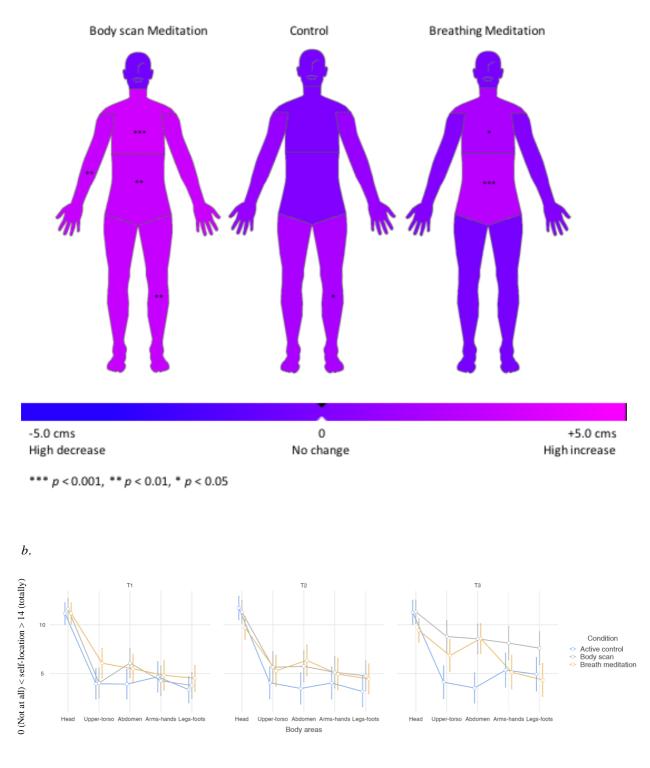
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Table 1. Indirect, direct, and total effects of Predicted and Alternative Mediation Models (Study 3)

| | Indirect effect | Direct effect | Total effect |
|---|------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| Predicted Model | | | |
| Model 1: | | | |
| Contrast 1 -> Directed attention to Upper-torso -> | b = 0.70 | b = -0.01 | b = 0.70 |
| Upper-torso self-location | <i>CI</i> : 0.43, 1.02 | <i>CI</i> : -0.28, 0.27 | <i>CI</i> : 0.37, 1.03 |
| Model 2: | | | |
| Contrast 1 -> Directed attention to abdomen -> | b = 0.96 | b = -0.10 | b = 0.86 |
| Abdomen self-location | <i>CI</i> : 0.67, 1.29 | <i>CI</i> : -0.39, 0.19 | <i>CI</i> : 0.52, 1.21 |
| Model 3: | | | |
| Contrast 2 -> Directed attention to Legs/feet -> | b = 0.68 | b = 0.02 | b = 0.70 |
| Legs/feet self-location | <i>CI</i> : 0.43, 0.93 | <i>CI</i> : -0.21, 0.26 | <i>CI</i> : 0.41, 0.99 |
| Alternative Models | | | |
| Alternative model 1: | | | |
| Contrast 1 -> Upper-torso self-location -> Directed | b = 0.50 | b = 0.59 | <i>b</i> = 1.09 |
| attention to Upper-torso | <i>CI</i> : 0.23, 0.80 | <i>CI</i> : 0.31, 0.86 | <i>CI</i> : 0.74, 1.44 |
| Alternative model 2: | | | |
| Contrast 1 -> Abdomen self-location -> Directed | b = 0.60 | b = 0.70 | <i>b</i> = 1.31 |
| attention to abdomen | <i>CI</i> : 0.35, 0.89 | <i>CI</i> : 0.45, 0.96 | <i>CI</i> : 0.97, 1.64 |
| Alternative model 3: | | | |
| Contrast 2 -> Legs/feet self-location -> Directed | b = 0.48 | b = 0.43 | b = 0.90 |
| attention to Legs/feet -> | CI: 0.25, 0.74 | CI: 0.21, 0.64 | <i>CI</i> : 0.63, 1.18 |

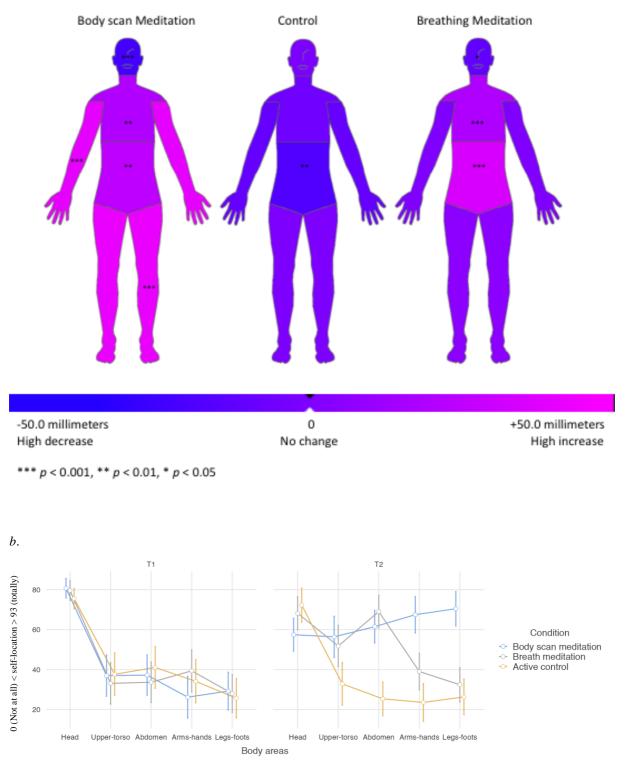
| 1057 | |
|--------------|--|
| 1057 1058 | <i>Note</i> : Contrast 1: Body Scan = 1; Breath meditation = 1; control = -2; Contrast 2: Body Scan = 2; Breath |
| 1058 | meditation = -1; control = -1. b = unstandardized beta coefficient; CI = 95% Confidence Interval (lower and |
| 1059 | upper bound). |
| 1060 | upper bound). |
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| 1085 | Figure 1. Body map of the color gradient change in self-location during the 30-min practice as function of the |
| 1086 | experimental condition (a), means and confidence intervals (95%) of self-location as function of body area, time |
| 1087 | and experimental condition (b) (Study 1) |
| 1088 | |
| 1089 | а. |
| | |



Note: T1 = questionnaire completion after a 5-min rest period before the one-week training; T2: questionnaire completion after a 5-min rest period before the 30-minute lab practice session; T3: questionnaire completion at the end of the 30-minute lab practice session.

Figure 2. Body map of the color gradient change in self-location during the 21 minutes practice as function of the experimental condition (a), means and confidence intervals (95%) of self-location as function of body area, time and experimental condition (b) (Study 2)

а



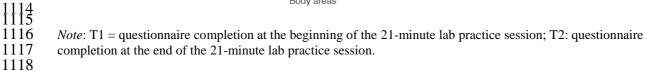


Figure 3. Interaction between experimental condition (body scan meditation vs. breathing meditation vs. active
 control) and time (before vs. after the 21-minutes practice) on the perceived number of thoughts (group means
 and group standard error) (Study 2)

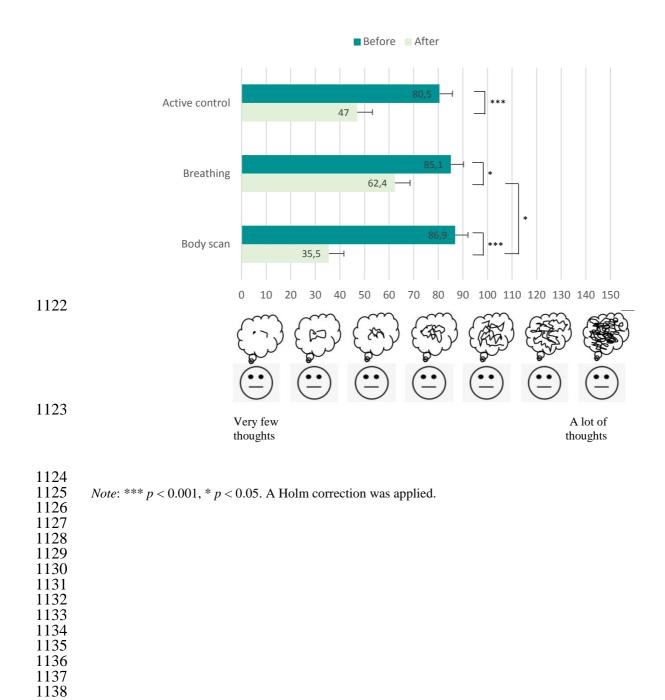
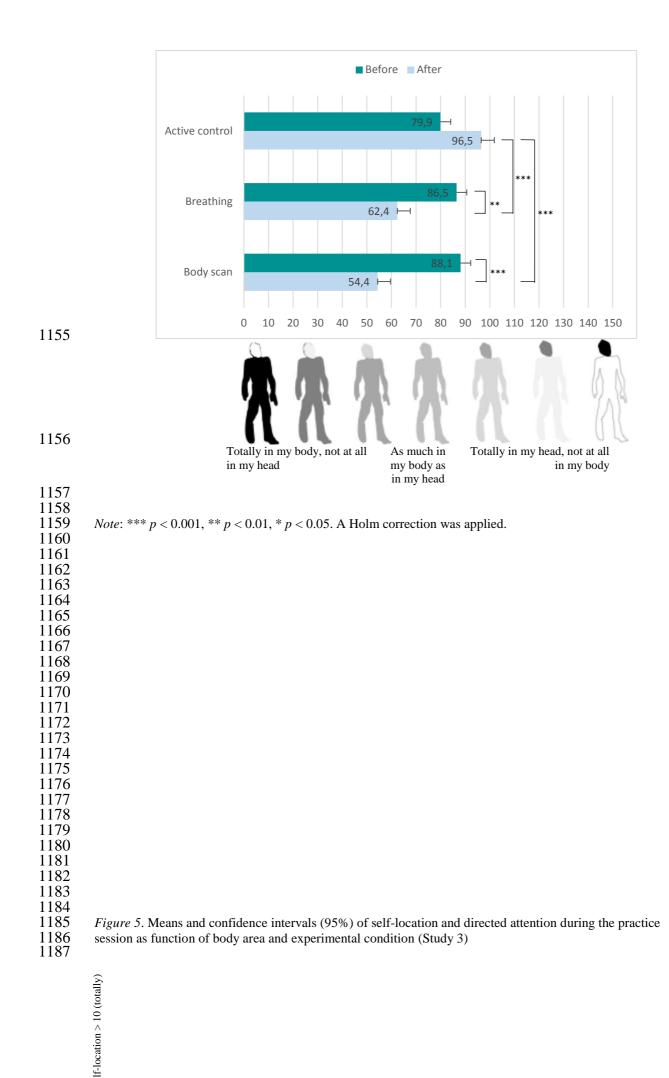
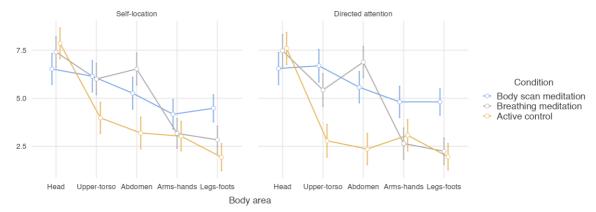


Figure 4. Interaction between experimental condition (body scan meditation vs. breathing meditation vs. active
control) and time (before vs. after the 21-minutes practice) on the measure of self-location transition from the
head to the rest of the body (group means and group standard error) (Study 2)





Note: T1 = questionnaire completion at the beginning of the 11-minute lab practice session; T2: questionnaire completion at the end of the 11-minute lab practice session.