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Running Head: PERIPHERAL VISION AND EXPERTISE

The contributions of central and peripheral vision to expertise in basketball: How blur helps to
provide a clearer picture

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1 Author notes:

2 Donghyun Ryu was supported by a Hong Kong PhD Fellowship (PF09-06744) awarded by the
3 Research Grants Council (RGC), Hong Kong. David Mann was supported by a Rubicon Grant
4 (446-10-029) awarded by the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (NWO) and the
5 Marie Curie Actions Cofund. Portions of the data have been previously presented in The 9th
6 Asia-Pacific Conference on Vision 2013 (APCV2013) and in a published abstract entitled, “The
7 effect of blur on information pick-up from central and peripheral vision: A gaze contingent study
8 of skilled basketball players” in *PsyCh Journal*, 2, S1, 9.

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relative roles of central and peripheral vision when performing a dynamic forced-choice task. We did so by using a gaze-contingent display with different levels of blur in an effort to (i) test the limit of visual resolution necessary for information pick-up in each of these sectors of the visual field, and as a result, to (ii) develop a more natural means of gaze-contingent display using a blurred central or peripheral visual field. The expert advantage seen in usual whole field visual presentation persists despite surprisingly high levels of impairment to central or peripheral vision. Consistent with the well-established central/peripheral differences in sensitivity to spatial frequency, high levels of blur did not prevent better-than-chance performance by skilled players when peripheral information was blurred, but did impact response accuracy when impairing central vision. Blur was found to always alter the pattern of eye movements before it decreased task performance. The evidence accumulated across the four experiments provides new insights into a number of key questions surrounding the role that different sectors of the visual field play in expertise in dynamic, time-constrained tasks.

Keywords: gaze-contingent display, decision-making, central vision, peripheral vision, expertise

1 **The contributions of central and peripheral vision to expertise in basketball: How blur**
2 **helps to provide a clearer picture**

3 In dynamic visually-guided tasks such as driving a car, flying a plane, and playing sport,
4 the role of peripheral vision is often overlooked but plays a crucial role in guiding behaviour. For
5 example when driving, if an eminent hazard is evident in the periphery, the driver first detects
6 the hazard using their peripheral vision and then re-directs their central gaze towards it
7 (Crundall, Underwood, & Chapman, 1999). Because of the putative significance of peripheral
8 vision in dynamic tasks, it has long been assumed that skilled performers might have some form
9 of superiority in their ability to pick-up information using their visual periphery. In particular,
10 this might in part be because they are better able to account for central task demands, and as a
11 result, are able to adequately account for information in their peripheral vision (Underwood,
12 Crundall, & Chapman, 2008; Weltman & Egstrom, 1966). In contrast, novices may require more
13 attentional resources to concentrate on the unfamiliar information in their central vision, and as a
14 result may have little attentional capacity to attend to the peripheral information (Parker, 1981).

15 Much of what is currently known about central and peripheral vision is based on studies
16 that measure the direction of visual gaze. In these studies gaze is typically recorded to provide an
17 inference of what visual information is relied upon when performing the task. Studies of this
18 nature typically (though not exclusively) find systematic differences in the visual search pattern
19 of skilled and lesser-skilled performers (for reviews see, Abernethy, 1988; Land, 2006). There
20 are, though, two fundamental problems in using the direction of central vision to make inferences
21 about the roles of central and peripheral vision in information pick-up. First, the line-of-gaze
22 may not necessarily equate to where the observer's attention is directed, as it might equally, at
23 any instant, be directed towards any part of the *peripheral* visual field (Ripoll, 1991). The second

1 problem is that even if a performer's attention is aligned centrally, the fact that gaze is directed
2 towards any given location cannot in itself guarantee that relevant information has been 'picked-
3 up' to benefit task performance. There are numerous examples of stark expert-novice differences
4 in information extraction where the gaze behaviours of the different skill groups are largely
5 indistinguishable (e.g., Abernethy & Russell, 1987; Helsen & Pauwels, 1992). The inability of
6 conventional gaze studies to account for potential information pick-up from peripheral vision is a
7 substantial limitation and this – coupled with the absence of alternate methods of assessing
8 peripheral vision use in everyday tasks – means that expert-novice differences in the use of
9 peripheral vision remain largely untested (Davids, 1984).

10 Screen-based *gaze-contingent displays* that change content depending on where an
11 observer is looking provide one potential means of differentiating the roles of central and
12 peripheral vision. Gaze-contingent displays dynamically alter the information visible to
13 participants depending on where the participant is fixating at that given moment in time. The
14 technique permits the creation of conditions in which vision can be restricted to, for example,
15 either only a limited eccentricity around the line of gaze (creating a 'moving window' that
16 presents only central vision), or, only vision *outside* this central field (creating a 'moving mask'
17 that presents only peripheral information) (McConkie & Rayner, 1975; Rayner & Bertera, 1979).
18 In the moving window condition any information pick-up must originate from central vision as
19 the line of gaze and the information available for pick-up are aligned, whereas in the moving
20 mask condition information pick-up must be from information located *away* from the line-of-
21 gaze. To-date, gaze contingent displays have been used to differentiate the roles of central and
22 peripheral vision across a wide range of different *static tasks*, that is, tasks in which the display
23 does not change. For example, the technique has been used to great effect to examine skill in

1 reading (Rayner, 1975; Rayner, Inhoff, Morrison, Slowiaczek, & Bertera, 1981), showing that
2 central vision is used during the early part of fixations to identify words whereas peripheral
3 information is used later in the fixation to select a target for the next saccade.

4 Recent technological advances now allow the gaze-contingent technique to be applied to
5 dynamic video displays where the visual array is continuously changing and tasks can be
6 performed under rather strict time constraints. Ryu, Abernethy, Mann, Poolton and Gorman
7 (2013) recently used a gaze-contingent display to examine the complementary roles of central
8 and peripheral vision when skilled and less-skilled basketball players performed a fast-paced
9 decision-making¹ task. Participants viewed video stimuli representative of situations encountered
10 in basketball games and made decisions about the most appropriate action to take when the video
11 footage occluded at a critical moment in the play. The results showed that the skilled players had
12 an advantage for information extraction that held irrespective of whether they were using central
13 and/or peripheral vision. The results of the study did, however, also reinforce a crucial point
14 about the dual-role of peripheral vision in dynamic tasks, that is, it is used not only to *pick-up*
15 information, but also to *localise* other features to guide future eye movements (e.g., Findlay,
16 1982; Nuthmann, 2014; Ripoll, 1991). When peripheral vision was completely removed by using
17 opaque (i.e., black) occlusion, not only was peripheral information pick-up impaired, but
18 participants altered their search strategy because they were also unable to localise other display
19 features. Because opaque occlusion was used it was not possible to determine whether the
20 changes in gaze were a result of restrictions to information pick-up or because participants were
21 unable to see the information necessary to localise features used to guide their next fixation(s).

¹ The term *decision-making* in the field of expertise refers to the ability to choose the most appropriate response when faced with a variety of different possible options. We avoid the use of the term here to avoid confusion with the wider psychological literature on decision-making.

1 A common approach in studies using gaze contingent displays is to use a blurred rather
2 than a fully opaque (black) imposition to the visual field in order to preserve the information
3 necessary for the guidance of eye movements while still impairing information pick-up. For this
4 to be successful, the threshold level of peripheral blur necessary to impair information pick-up
5 should be less than that necessary to alter gaze. However, it is not at all clear whether this is
6 actually the case. For instance, Loschky and McConkie (2000) presented a moving window
7 using peripheral blur when viewing static images and found that the extent of the visual search
8 was influenced by a lower level of blur than was performance on the task. That is, the threshold
9 level of blur necessary to impair information pick-up was *higher* than that needed to alter gaze.
10 A growing number of studies have shown that blur actively constrains attentional selection and
11 as a result readily changes gaze. Loschky et al. (2014) have recently argued that blur pre-
12 attentively guides attentional selection, and consistent with this idea, gaze tends to be drawn
13 towards clear rather than blurred regions of an image (e.g., Enns & MacDonald, 2013; Loschky
14 & McConkie, 2002; Nuthmann, 2014; Reingold & Loschky, 2002). In particular, blur attenuates
15 the size of saccades: a clear moving window surrounded by a blurred periphery leads to smaller
16 saccades (e.g., Loschky & McConkie, 2000, 2002; Nuthmann, 2014), while central blur with a
17 clear surround increases the size of saccades (Cornelissen, Bruin, & Kooijman, 2005; Nuthmann,
18 2014). Fixation durations on the other hand tend to increase irrespective of whether the blur is
19 central or peripheral (Bertera & Rayner, 2000; Loschky & McConkie, 2000, 2002; Nuthmann,
20 2014; though see Miellet, Zhou, He, Rodger, & Caldara, 2010), a finding that most likely reflects
21 an increase in the difficulty in planning the next saccade (Cornelissen et al., 2005).

22 Collectively these studies suggest that as the quality of visual input decreases, gaze will
23 be altered before peripheral information pick-up decreases. However, existing studies rely

1 repositioning of the gaze contingent display on the screen was on average 16 ms (range 12-20
2 ms). This display-change latency is well below the 80 ms latency shown to be necessary to detect
3 blur in gaze contingent displays (Loschky & Wolverton, 2007). The system was calibrated by
4 asking participants to fixate on targets in a 9-point reference grid and then validated in the same
5 manner (acceptable error to $< 0.5^\circ$). Calibration was repeated if the error at any given point was
6 $> 1^\circ$, or if the average error for all points was $> 0.5^\circ$. Eye movement data were analysed using
7 Data Viewer software (SR Research Ltd., Mississauga, ON).

8 **Test Materials**

9 The dynamic visual stimuli were video clips of five-on-five basketball play (see Gorman,
10 Abernethy, & Farrow, 2012, 2013). The video footage was filmed from a raised platform at the
11 half-court position so that all players and all markings on one half of the court were visible. The
12 film was edited so that clips ended at the moment the ball-carrier would be required to make a
13 critical decision. In the previous study by Ryu et al. (2013), participants were required to decide
14 whether the player with the ball was best placed to pass the ball or to ‘drive’ the ball towards the
15 basket. It is possible that participants could have generated high response accuracies for the pass-
16 or-drive decision if they simply followed the heuristic that ‘if a teammate sets a screen², then I
17 should drive to the basket’. It is possible, indeed probable, that the more skilled players may
18 have been more aware of the potential to apply the heuristic(s) and, if they chose to so do, might
19 provide a plausible explanation for their performance advantage across all the viewing
20 conditions. To address this potential concern, the task for Experiment 1 was altered to a four-
21 choice one in which a decision was required on each trial as to which of the four teammates was
22 best positioned to receive a pass. Three expert coaches (each with over 40 years of coaching, and

² A ‘screen’ takes place when an offensive player stands stationary in a position on the court that impedes the movement of an opposing player attempting to defend an attacking teammate.

1 national or international coaching experience) collectively viewed the video clips to ensure that
2 each clip was representative of actual game play and to adjudge the most appropriate decision.
3 Only those clips in which the coaches were in complete agreement were used in the experiment.

4 For the purpose of introducing visual blur, three levels of a low-pass Gaussian filter were
5 applied to the video footage using Adobe Premiere CS 4 (Adobe Systems Incorporated, San Jose,
6 CA): 20 units for the low, 50 for the moderate and 100 for the high blur conditions. This method
7 applies Gaussian blur to each pixel where the radius of the Gaussian kernel equates to 5.4, 14.1,
8 and 26.6 pixels and as a result the videos were filtered with a spatial frequency cut-off of 1.0,
9 0.5, and 0.3 cycles per degree respectively (based on 50% attenuation of the amplitude in the
10 frequency domain). These blur levels were chosen on the basis of pilot testing to select levels of
11 blur that were expected to have no, moderate, and a severe impact on task performance.

12 Experiment Builder software (SR Research Ltd., Mississauga, ON) facilitated the gaze-
13 contingent presentation of the video clips. Nine different viewing conditions were presented (see
14 Figure 1). In the *full clear* control condition, the normal, un-manipulated display was presented.
15 In four *moving window* conditions, a clear moving circular window of 2.5° radius was generated
16 about the point of fixation, with peripheral vision degraded using either a low, moderate, or high
17 blur filter, or a black opaque mask. Bertera and Rayner (2000) established that a window of 2.5°
18 radius represents the size of the visual span in a search task, that is, the minimum window size at
19 which performance is not impaired. We adopted this size window as it ensured that the window
20 included the fovea ($\approx 1^\circ$ radius; Polyak, 1941) while not being so large that it occluded all of the
21 useful information in our task. In the four *moving mask* conditions, central vision was degraded
22 by applying a low, moderate, or high blur filter, or a black mask, to the circular window of 2.5°
23 radius about the point of fixation while the periphery remained clear. The same eight video clips

1 were used for each of the nine viewing conditions to ensure that performance in each condition
2 could be effectively compared while keeping the trial numbers to a manageable level. The
3 experimental test film therefore consisted of a total of 72 trials (8 video clips \times 9 viewing
4 conditions) that all participants viewed in the same randomized order.

5 **INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE**

6 **Procedure**

7 Participants were seated 60 cm from the Eyelink II display monitor. The horizontal and
8 vertical extents of the monitor subtended $30 \times 24^\circ$ of visual angle respectively (screen size = 338
9 \times 270 mm). Prior to each trial a black fixation target was presented at the centre of the display.
10 The participant fixated this target and the gaze position measured during the fixation was used to
11 correct any post-calibration drift. Each video clip ran for 7 s, and 3 s after it occluded a static
12 response slide was shown to participants for 5 s. A common challenge in studies of this type is to
13 ensure that participants are able to unambiguously communicate their decision to the
14 experimenter. In studies employing video displays, this is often achieved by using a response
15 image that shows the final video frame seen prior to occlusion of the video (Mann, Farrow,
16 Shuttleworth, & Hopwood, 2009; Raab & Johnson, 2004, 2007). This approach ensures that
17 participants can unambiguously select, in this case, the exact player they chose to be the correct
18 decision. We were concerned though that, by doing so in this experiment, we would be
19 inadvertently providing participants with additional information that may not have been available
20 to them when the central or peripheral visual field was occluded (the gaze contingent
21 manipulations were not present when participants viewed the response slide). As a result, we
22 chose to use response slides that were based on the final frame of the video clip, but we
23 employed three specific modifications (see Figure 1j for an example). First, all defensive players

1 were digitally removed (using Adobe Photoshop CS 4) to prevent the proximity of the defender
2 and attacker from biasing participant responses (an unmarked attacker or distant defender is a
3 key cue to pass to that teammate). Second, the attacking players without the ball were replaced
4 (at exactly the same location) by a standard image of a player standing in a neutral anatomical
5 position to prevent the posture of the teammate from biasing responses. Finally, a numerical
6 label (from 1 to 4) was placed adjacent to the four attacking teammates to ensure that participants
7 could unambiguously communicate their response. Participants were instructed to decide as
8 quickly and as accurately as possible which player was best placed to receive a pass, and to press
9 the corresponding numerical button on a computer game pad (Microsoft Sidewinder Plug and
10 Play; Microsoft, Redmond, WA). Prior to testing participants took part in 18 practice trials
11 (different to those used in the experiment) to familiarise themselves with the test procedure and
12 with the gaze-contingent manipulations of vision. The entire test session took around 60 min.

13 **Dependent Variables and Data Analysis**

14 **Performance data.** *Response accuracy* was determined by calculating the percentage of
15 trials where the response of the participant matched the response agreed upon by the coaches.

16 *Response time* was the mean time (in ms) that elapsed from the moment the response slide
17 appeared on the screen to the time that the button press response was registered by the computer.

18 **Gaze data.** Three dependent variables were computed for analysis. First, the *mean*
19 *fixation duration* (in ms) was calculated by averaging the duration of all fixations in each video
20 clip. Second, *mean saccadic amplitude* was calculated as the average angular subtense of all
21 saccades in each trial (in degrees of visual angle) to measure the breadth of the search. Third, ten
22 areas of interest were identified to examine differences in the distribution of gaze during a trial:
23 (i) the player in possession of the ball (the ball-carrier), (ii) the defender of the ball-carrier, (iii-

1 vi) each of the four attacking team-mates (from closest to most distant from the ball-carrier), and
2 (vii-x) the matching defenders of the four attacking team-mates. The areas of interest changed
3 whenever the ball was passed between players to ensure that the ball-carrier always referred to
4 the player in possession of the ball. The location of each area of interest was coded once for
5 every frame of video footage to produce a template that could be used to automatically detect
6 whether the location of gaze coincided with one of the areas of interest. *Percentage of total*
7 *viewing time* spent viewing each of the ten areas of interest was then calculated for each trial.

8 **Statistical analyses.** As the main purpose of Experiment 1 was to isolate the use of
9 central and peripheral visual information while examining for changes in gaze behaviour, we
10 conducted separate analyses of the four *moving window* conditions and the four *moving mask*
11 conditions while including the *full clear* viewing condition as a fifth (control) condition in each
12 analysis. As a result, for the *moving window* and *moving mask* conditions four dependent
13 variables (*response accuracy*, *response time*, *mean fixation duration*, and *mean saccadic*
14 *amplitude*) were analysed using separate 2 (Skill: skilled, less-skilled) \times 5 (Blur: clear, low blur,
15 moderate blur, high blur, opaque) ANOVAs with repeated measures on the second factor.
16 Planned *t*-tests were used to (i) compare performance in each of the blur manipulations to that
17 found in the clear (control) condition, (ii) perform successive comparisons to check for
18 differences between increments in blur, and (iii) determine whether the response accuracy in
19 each condition was significantly different to the 25% level achievable by chance/guessing. The
20 distribution of fixations to the ten areas of interest (*percentage of total viewing time*) were
21 subject to 2 (Skill) \times 5 (Blur) \times 10 (Area of interest) ANOVAs with repeated measures on the
22 last two factors. In order to check whether there was any learning occurring over the course of
23 the experiment as a consequence of repeated exposure to each of the eight separate video clips,

1 the response accuracy and response time data were subject to a 2 (Skill) \times 9 (Clip exposure: 1st,
 2 2nd, 3rd ..., 9th presentation) ANOVA with repeated measures on the second factor.³ In all
 3 experiments, effect sizes are reported as partial eta squared values or Cohen's d , and a
 4 Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied to the degrees of freedom when the assumption of
 5 sphericity was violated. The alpha level for all comparisons was set at $p = .05$.

6 Results

7 **Response accuracy and response time.** In the *moving window* trials (Figure 2a) the
 8 skilled players outperformed the less-skilled players irrespective of the level of peripheral blur
 9 (main effect for skill, $F(1, 36) = 73.47, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .67$). Intriguingly though, when compared
 10 to the clear (control) condition the two groups *improved* their response accuracy with some
 11 peripheral blur (skill \times blur interaction, $F(4, 144) = 2.58, p = .04, \eta_p^2 = .07$). The response
 12 accuracy improved for the skilled players with moderate peripheral blur ($p = .02, d = 0.59$), and
 13 for the less-skilled players with low peripheral blur ($p = .03, d = 0.72$). Skilled players performed
 14 above chance levels irrespective of the level of blur ($ps < .001, ds > 3.06$), whereas less-skilled
 15 players performed above chance levels with low and moderate blur, and with black opaque
 16 vision ($ps < .048, ds > 1.00$). This is noteworthy given that their accuracy in the clear control
 17 condition was only at chance level. In the *moving mask* trials (Figure 2b) the skilled players also
 18 performed consistently better than the less-skilled players irrespective of the level of central blur
 19 (main effect for skill, $F(1, 36) = 79.52, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .69$; no main effect of blur, $F(4, 144) < 1$;
 20 no skill \times blur interaction, $F(4, 144) < 1$). The skilled players responded at better-than-chance
 21 levels irrespective of the amount of blur (all $ps < .001, ds > 3.89$) whereas the responses of the

³ There were no changes in response accuracy (no main effect for exposure, $F(8, 288) = 1.43, p = .19, \eta_p^2 = .04$, no skill \times exposure interaction, $F(8, 288) = 1.72, p = .09, \eta_p^2 = .05$) or response time (no main effect of exposure, $F(5.05, 181.69) = 1.21, p = .31, \eta_p^2 = .03$, no skill \times exposure interaction, $F(5.05, 181.69) < 1$) as a consequence of repeated exposure to the video clips.

1 less skilled players were no better than chance for any level of central blur ($ps > .14$, $ds < 0.72$).

2 **INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE**

3 In the *moving window* trials (Figure 2c) the skilled players responded quicker than the
 4 less-skilled players irrespective of the level of peripheral blur (main effect for skill, $F(1, 36) =$
 5 9.39 , $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .21$). Blur significantly altered the response times, though similarly for the
 6 two skill groups (main effect for blur, $F(2.52, 90.64) = 26.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .42$; no skill \times blur
 7 interaction, $F(2.52, 90.64) = 1.09$, $p = .35$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$). When compared to clear vision, response
 8 times were slower when the periphery had moderate blur, high blur, or was black. Response
 9 times increased from low to moderate blur ($p < .001$, $d = 0.55$), and from high blur to black
 10 peripheral vision ($p < .001$, $d = 0.61$). In the *moving mask* trials (Figure 2d) the skilled players
 11 responded faster than the less-skilled players (main effect for skill, $F(1, 36) = 10.85$, $p = .002$,
 12 $\eta_p^2 = .23$; main effect for blur, $F(3.21, 115.38) = 7.62$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .18$). When compared to
 13 the clear condition the response times differed only with black central vision ($p < .001$, $d = 0.59$).

14 **Fixation durations.** The level of peripheral blur in the *moving window* trials influenced
 15 the duration of fixations (main effect of blur, $F(2.12, 76.26) = 6.19$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .18$), with the
 16 mean duration decreasing with high blur ($p = .028$, $d = 0.42$) and with black occlusion ($p = .004$,
 17 $d = 0.58$; see Figure 2e). The fixation duration decreased in each of the progressive comparisons
 18 ($ps < .031$, $ds > 0.20$) except between clear and low peripheral blur ($p = .649$, $d = 0.07$). The
 19 changes in fixation duration were not mediated by the skill level of participants (no skill \times blur
 20 interaction, $F(2.12, 76.26) = 1.74$, $p = .18$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$; no main effect of skill, $F(1, 36) < 1$). In the
 21 *moving mask* trials (Figure 2f) central blur *increased* the fixation duration with low, moderate,
 22 and high blur ($ps < .044$, $ds > 0.31$; main effect for blur, $F(3.03, 109.11) = 15.53$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 =$
 23 $.30$). Successive comparisons revealed significant decreases in the duration of fixations from

1 moderate to high blur and from high blur to black central vision ($ps < .005$, $ds > 0.31$). The
 2 changes in fixation duration with blur were not mediated by skill (no skill \times blur interaction,
 3 $F(3.03, 109.11) = 2.02$, $p = .115$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$; no main effect of skill, $F(1, 36) < 1$).

4 **Saccadic amplitude.** Saccades became progressively shorter with increasing peripheral
 5 blur in the *moving window* trials (Figure 2g; main effect of blur, $F(2.99, 107.67) = 51.61$, $p <$
 6 $.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .59$). The saccadic amplitude decreased across each progression in blur ($ps < .041$, ds
 7 > 0.19) except from low to moderate blur ($p = .30$, $d = 0.08$). All four levels of peripheral
 8 blur/opacity resulted in saccadic amplitudes that were smaller than those used with clear vision
 9 ($ps < .041$, $ds > 0.19$). The skilled players used shorter saccades than the less-skilled players
 10 (main effect of skill, $F(1, 36) = 4.24$, $p = .047$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(2.99,$
 11 $107.67) = 1.18$, $p = .32$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$). In the *moving mask* trials central blur had less effect on
 12 saccadic amplitudes, though there were still changes in amplitude as a result of blur (Figure 2h;
 13 main effect of blur, $F(2.80, 100.65) = 14.81$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .29$). The saccadic amplitude
 14 increased with moderate and high blur and with black central vision ($ps < .03$, $ds > 0.13$), with
 15 saccadic amplitude increasing from low to moderate blur and from moderate to high blur (both
 16 $ps < .003$, $ds > 0.18$). The main effect of skill did not reach significance ($F(1, 36) = 3.80$, $p = .06$,
 17 $\eta_p^2 = .10$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(2.80, 100.65) = 2.00$, $p = .12$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$).

18 **Fixation time to areas of interest.** The majority of the viewing time during the *moving*
 19 *window* trials (Figure 3a) was spent viewing, in order of priority, the ball-carrier, the defender of
 20 the ball-carrier, plus the closest attacking teammate and his defender (main effect for area of
 21 interest, $F(1.76, 63.27) = 97.08$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .73$). As the level of blur increased, participants
 22 were more likely to view the ball-carrier, and less likely to view the defender of the ball-carrier
 23 (blur \times area of interest interaction, $F(12.47, 448.79) = 4.61$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$), most probably

1 highlighting the primacy of the ball-carrier for information extraction. The level of peripheral
 2 blur also influenced the amount of time spent viewing *any* of the ten areas of interest (as opposed
 3 to other less-relevant features on the screen, main effect of blur, $F(2.97, 106.97) = 18.1, p < .001,$
 4 $\eta_p^2 = .34$), with participants less likely to view one of the ten areas of interest in the high blur and
 5 black opaque conditions ($ps < .001, ds > 0.68$). In addition, a significant skill \times blur interaction
 6 ($F(2.97, 106.97) = 3.45, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .09$) highlighted that the skilled group were more likely to
 7 view one of the ten areas of interest in the full vision and low blur conditions, but that this
 8 difference dissipated with higher levels of blur.

9 **INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE**

10 The fixation priorities with central blur in the *moving mask* trials (Fig. 3b) were similar to
 11 those seen with peripheral blur (viz., the ball-carrier and his defender, and the closest attacker
 12 and his defender; main effect for area of interest, $F(1.80, 64.69) = 86.40, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .71$).
 13 Mild and moderate central blur *increased* the time that participants spent directing their gaze
 14 towards the ten areas of interest (main effect of blur, $F(3.06, 110.22) = 4.84, p = .003, \eta_p^2 = .12$),
 15 primarily because participants increased the time they spent viewing the ball-carrier and his
 16 defender (blur \times area of interest interaction, $F(12.62, 454.16) = 2.02, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .05$). In the
 17 clear vision condition skilled players tended to spend more time than less-skilled players viewing
 18 one of the ten areas of interest; however, this expert difference dissipated with the introduction of
 19 blur (skill \times blur interaction, $F(3.06, 110.22) = 3.90, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .10$).

20 Discussion

21 The results of Experiment 1 show that when examining the performance of skilled and
 22 less-skilled basketballers on a forced-choice task, the expert advantage holds even when
 23 participants have very poor or no vision in their central or peripheral visual field. Response

1 accuracy remained the same, and in some cases increased, despite very noticeable perturbations
2 to vision. However, even the mildest levels of central or peripheral blur resulted in significant
3 changes in gaze. Low blur significantly altered gaze behaviour in both the *moving window* and
4 *moving mask* conditions. We had particularly sought to discover a level of peripheral blur that
5 would impair information pick-up while leaving the pattern of gaze unchanged. Instead, we
6 found the opposite. Evidently, even minor impositions to the central or peripheral visual field
7 resulted in changes in gaze, but not in performance.

8 The performance of participants across the different viewing conditions in Experiment 1
9 is noteworthy for a number of reasons. First, the change in task from the simple two-choice one
10 used by Ryu et al. (2013) to the four-choice task used in this experiment has lessened the
11 likelihood that the expert advantage noted in the Ryu et al. study could have arisen as a
12 consequence of the selective application of a simple heuristic known by the skilled but not
13 novice players. Second, consistent with recent studies that have shown improvements in
14 perceptual performance when viewing blurred dynamic stimuli (see Jackson et al., 2009; Mann
15 et al., 2010b), certain levels of blur *facilitated* performance, specifically, moderate peripheral
16 blur for the skilled players, and low peripheral blur for the less-skilled players.

17 Based on the collective results of Experiment 1 we began to wonder whether, despite our
18 best endeavours to neutralise contextual information from the response slide itself (by removing
19 the defensive players and standardizing the appearance of the remaining attacking players), there
20 may still have been information provided that could have assisted the performance of the
21 participants. For example, skilled basketball players are likely to know that passing to teammates
22 with closer proximity will lower the risk of pass interception and is a much more common pass
23 option. By showing the proximity of the teammates to the ball-carrier in the response slide, it is

1 possible that the decisions of skilled players were biased towards what was ultimately the more
2 correct option. Before progressing with other studies – and making potentially erroneous
3 conclusions based on the results of Experiment 1 – we decided to first investigate whether the
4 response slides typically used in studies of this nature do inadvertently contain information that
5 could be utilised by skilled but not less-skilled players to bias their responses and could explain
6 the expert advantage found in Experiment 1.

7 **Experiment 2**

8 In Experiment 2 we asked skilled and less skilled basketball players to make pass
9 selection decisions of the type performed in Experiment 1 but when they only saw the response
10 slide and no preceding video. Three different response slides were compared – one identical to
11 that used in Experiment 1, one in which the image of the ball-carrier was replaced by a ball
12 (thereby removing the posture but not location of the ball-carrier), and one in which the ball-
13 carrier was completely removed (thereby removing both location and posture information).
14 Given the fixational priority participants show towards the ball-carrier, we sought to establish
15 whether the position and/or posture of the ball carrier shown in the response slide aids response
16 selection.

17 **Method**

18 Fifteen skilled male basketball players (M age = 24.9, SD = 3.3; M playing experience =
19 11.8 yrs, SD = 4.1; all were guards in their University League) and 15 less-skilled players (M age
20 = 23.1, SD = 5.1; M playing experience = 2.7 yrs, SD = 2.3; recreational level) took part. None of
21 the participants in Experiment 2 had participated in Experiment 1.

22 The final frame of each of the 8 video clips used in Experiment 1 was edited to create
23 three different types of response slide for each clip (see Figure 4): (i) a '*posture + position*' slide

1 identical to that used in Experiment 1; (ii) a ‘*position only*’ slide where the ball-carrier was
2 replaced by an image of a basketball; and (iii) a ‘*no ball-carrier*’ slide where the ball-carrier was
3 completely removed. A mirror-image of each of the 24 response slides was created to double the
4 number of response slides whilst reducing the potential confound of showing previously seen
5 images. The resulting 48 response slides were projected (SANYO PLC-XU106K) onto a large
6 screen (image size: 2.5 × 2.3 m) and presented to participants in the same randomized order.
7 Participants sat 3 m from the screen so that the horizontal and vertical extents of the screen
8 subtended 47 × 43° of visual angle respectively. The task, as in Experiment 1, was to decide
9 which of the four attacking teammates shown in the response slide was best positioned to receive
10 a pass. Response slides were shown for 5 s, after which participants wrote their response (Player
11 1, 2, 3 or 4) on an answer sheet. Participants’ eye movements were not recorded and there were
12 no gaze-contingent manipulations applied. The entire test session took around 20 min.

13 Response accuracy (% trials correct) was the only dependent measure and was analysed
14 using a 2 (Skill: skilled, less-skilled) × 3 (Response-slide: posture + position, position only, no
15 ball-carrier) ANOVA with repeated measures on the second factor.

16 **INSERT FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE**

17 **Results and Discussion**

18 Skilled and less-skilled participants were able to select the most appropriate player to
19 pass to on the basis of information present in the response slides (Figure 5a). The response
20 accuracy of the skilled players was at better-than-chance levels irrespective of the type of
21 response slide (all p s < .001, d s > 2.28), whereas less-skilled players performed above chance
22 levels only when viewing the *posture + position* and *position only* response slides (both p s <
23 .019, d s > 1.42; skill × response slide interaction, $F(2, 56) = 3.71$, $p = .03$, $\eta_p^2 = .12$). The skilled

1 players responded more accurately than their less-skilled counterparts irrespective of the
2 response slide (main effect for skill, $F(1, 28) = 51.94, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .65$). Response accuracy
3 was lower for the *no ball-carrier* response slide than it was for both the *posture + position* and
4 *position only* response slides (both $ps < .001, ds > 1.05$; main effect for response slide, $F(2, 56) =$
5 $42.04, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .60$). There was no difference in performance on the *posture + position*
6 and *position only* response slides ($p = .37, d = 0.10$).

7 **INSERT FIGURE 5 ABOUT HERE**

8 Based on our expectations prior to commencing Experiment 1, the findings of
9 Experiment 2 were surprising to the extent that they revealed that static response slides can
10 provide significant contextual information to support better-than-chance responses by *both* skill
11 groups in the absence of any video information. There was a clear demonstration, consequently,
12 that the response slides used in Experiment 1 contained sufficient information to provide a basis
13 for response selections that were at better-than-chance levels. The similarity of performance for
14 the *posture + position* and *position only* response slides showed that the information for better-
15 than-chance judgements is unlikely to come from the posture of the ball-carrier. Rather, the
16 *position only* and *no ball-carrier* comparison showed that a large proportion of the information
17 available must come from the position of the ball-carrier, most likely relative to the position of
18 the other players. Remarkably though, the response accuracy of the skilled players was still
19 better-than-chance even when the location of the ball-carrier was unknown. This might be
20 because skilled players can infer the best player to pass to based on the proximity to the basket.

21 The results of this experiment bring into question the conclusions from Experiment 1 that
22 the expert advantage was due to superior information pick-up from central and peripheral vision.
23 Rather, the findings from Experiment 2 suggest that this expert advantage might be at least

1 partially, or perhaps entirely, due to the different amounts of information that players of different
2 skill levels can extract from the static response slides. Importantly, the findings have wider
3 implications for a range of studies that have examined the perceptual-cognitive attributes of
4 expertise by employing freeze-frame presentations of the last scene from a video clip (e.g., Mann
5 et al., 2009; Raab & Johnson, 2004, 2007).

6 **Experiment 3**

7 In Experiment 3, we set out to find a way of minimizing the influence of the response
8 slide on response selection while ensuring a sufficiently robust means of registering the choice
9 made by participants. We compared four different response options: (i) a slide that was simply
10 the final (unedited) frame of the preceding video clip (cf. Mann et al., 2009; Raab & Johnson,
11 2004, 2007); (ii) the *posture + position*, and (iii) *no ball-carrier* slides from Experiment 2; and
12 (iv) a slide simply showing a still image of a vacant basketball court. Participants selected the
13 most appropriate player to pass to, both when the response slide was, and was not, preceded by a
14 video clip. This was done to (1) determine the extent to which any information pick-up from the
15 video was additional to that available solely from the response slide and (2) to ensure that the
16 response slide could still unambiguously measure responses when observing video footage.

17 **Method**

18 Fifteen skilled male basketball players (M age = 25.2, SD = 3.2; M playing experience =
19 11.1 yrs, SD = 4.4; all playing as a guard in their University League) and 17 less-skilled players
20 (M age = 22.4, SD = 3.8; M playing experience = 2.0 yrs, SD = 2.4) who had not participated in
21 either of the previous experiments took part in Experiment 3.

22 The final frame of each of the eight video clips used in Experiment 1 was edited to create
23 four different response slides (Figure 4): (i) a '*full-image*' slide showing an unedited copy of the

1 final frame; (ii) a ‘*posture + position*’ slide identical to that used in Experiment 2 (and
2 Experiment 1); (iii) a ‘*no ball-carrier*’ slide identical to that used in Experiment 2; and (iv) a
3 ‘*vacant court*’ slide showing a blank court with a ball initially positioned at the centre of the
4 free-throw line. The position of the ball in the *vacant court* slide was controlled by a computer
5 mouse so that participants could indicate the position on the court where they believed the player
6 best positioned to receive the pass was standing (i.e., the position of their feet). The attacking
7 player closest to the mouse click was taken as the participant’s response based on a comparison
8 of the distances between the screen-based x-y coordinates at the centre of the ball (when the
9 mouse click took place) and at the centre of the feet of the four attacking teammates (mid-point
10 of the stance). All 32 of the response slides created were mirrored to produce 64 response slides.

11 In half of the trials (*video-clip* condition), the corresponding 7 s video clip preceded
12 presentation of the response slide while in the other half (*no video-clip* condition), a blank screen
13 was shown for 7 s, followed by presentation of the response slide. Each response condition (4
14 response slide types × video/no video) was presented in a separate block of 8 trials and was
15 preceded by 2 practice trials. The order of presentation of each block and each trial within a
16 block was randomized across participants and response slides were evenly distributed across the
17 different conditions. The video clips and response slides were projected in an identical fashion to
18 Experiment 2. Participants selected the player that they felt was best placed to receive the ball by
19 responding with a button press on a game pad or, for the vacant court responses, a mouse click.

20 Response accuracy scores were submitted to a 2 (Skill: skilled, less-skilled) × 2 (Video:
21 *video-clip, no video-clip*) × 4 (Response-slide: *full-image, posture + position, no ball-carrier,*
22 *vacant court*) ANOVA with repeated measure on the latter two factors.

23

Results and Discussion

1 The only slide that did not provide information to facilitate better-than-chance responses
2 was the vacant court slide (Figure 5b). The crucial video \times response slide interaction ($F(3, 90) =$
3 $14.88, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .33$) showed that response accuracies did not differ between the different
4 slides when preceded by the video ($F(3, 90) < 1$), but there were clear differences in accuracy
5 when the video was not shown ($F(3, 90) = 18.03, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .38$). Only with the vacant-court
6 slide was the response accuracy of both groups no better than chance ($ps > .69, ds < 0.21$).

7 Consistent with Experiment 2, the response slide which provided vision of the ball-carrier
8 (*posture + position*) contained sufficient information to permit both skill groups to make better-
9 than-chance responses regardless of whether or not the response slide was preceded by a video.
10 Surprisingly, performance did not differ when viewing the *full-image* slide, suggesting that it is
11 the position of the ball-carrier (relative to their team-mates) rather than information from the
12 other players (attacking or defensive) that is most pivotal to success. Apparently the relative
13 positions of the defenders and the posture of the attacking teammates provides no additional
14 information to assist performance in this task.

15 The critical finding from Experiment 3 though was the discovery of a response slide, the
16 *vacant court*, from which neither group was able to extract information to permit better-than-
17 chance selections. Further, this same response condition when preceded by a video produced
18 significantly higher response accuracy – and accuracies no different to those achievable using the
19 other response slides – strongly suggesting that it is possible to reliably engender responses from
20 participants without providing supplementary information.

21 **Experiment 4**

22 Experiment 4 had three major objectives. The first was to replicate Experiment 1 but on
23 this occasion by using the mouse click response on a blank court. Second, because the results of

1 Experiment 1 suggested that information pick-up could be sustained despite surprisingly high
2 levels of peripheral and central blur, in Experiment 4 we also sought to establish the level of blur
3 that influenced information pick-up in each of the central and peripheral fields of vision alone.
4 To do so we extended the ensemble of viewing conditions by adding conditions that combined
5 blur in one sector of the visual field with black opacity in the other. Third, because particular
6 levels of blur *facilitated* performance in Experiment 1, in Experiment 4 we added uniform levels
7 of blur across the whole (central + peripheral) visual field to establish whether any facilitatory
8 effect was a result of uniform blur, or an effect of blur in one sector relative to the other.

9 Method

10 Participants

11 Eighteen skilled male basketball players (M age = 24.9, SD = 2.9; M playing experience
12 = 13.4 yrs, SD = 4.1; playing as a guard in the top tier of their University League) and 18 less-
13 skilled players (M age = 22.2 SD = 2.6; M playing experience = 1.8 yrs, SD = 1.1) volunteered
14 for Experiment 4, none of whom had participated in any of the previous experiments.

15 Apparatus, Test Materials, and Procedure

16 The set-up and procedures were identical to Experiment 1 with two key exceptions. First,
17 a mouse click on the *vacant court* slide was used to register responses. Second, an additional ten
18 viewing conditions were used to create those combinations of conditions seen in Figure 6 in
19 which the central and/or the peripheral sectors of the visual field contained (i) clear vision, (ii)
20 low blur, (iii), moderate blur, (iv) high blur, or (v) was fully opaque. Combinations a-i shown in
21 Figure 6 replicate those used in Experiment 1 while the remainder of the conditions were new.
22 The same eight video-clips used in Experiment 1 were viewed in each of the 19 viewing
23 conditions. The test consisted of a total of 152 trials (8 trials \times 19 viewing conditions), with

1 testing divided into four blocks of 38 trials. Participants completed two blocks in each of two 60-
 2 min testing sessions on separate days. The order of the blocks was counterbalanced across
 3 participants and the trials in each block were randomised.

4 **INSERT FIGURE 6 ABOUT HERE**

5 **Dependent Variables and Data Analysis**

6 Similar to Experiment 1, the dependent variables collected for analysis were *response*
 7 *accuracy*, *response time*, *mean fixation duration*, *mean saccadic amplitude*, and *percentage of*
 8 *total viewing time* spent viewing each of the ten areas of interest. For the first four dependent
 9 variables, data analysis comprised of five discrete sets of 2 (Skill) \times 5 (Blur) ANOVAs with
 10 repeated measures on the second factor. The five discrete ANOVAs were used for each of the
 11 five rows shown in Figure 6. Planned *t*-tests determined differences from the full vision
 12 condition, progressive differences between blur levels, and compared response accuracy levels to
 13 chance/guessing. In addition to the two-way ANOVAs, 3-way 2 (Skill) \times 5 (Blur) \times 10 (Area of
 14 interest) ANOVAs with repeated measures on the last two factors were conducted on the
 15 *percentage of total viewing time*. The response accuracy and response time data were also
 16 subjected to a 2 (Skill) \times 19 (Clip exposure: 1st, 2nd, 3rd ..., 19th presentation) ANOVA with
 17 repeated measures on the second factor to check whether there were any effects of learning as a
 18 result of repeated exposure to the individual clips.⁴

19 **Results and Discussion**

20 **Replicating Experiment 1: moving window (clear/blur) and moving mask (blur/clear)**

21 **Response accuracy and response time.** Despite changing the response slide, the
 22 response accuracies in Experiments 1 and 4 were remarkably similar. In the *moving window*

⁴ There were no changes in response accuracy or response time as a consequence of repeated exposure to the video clips. For both measures there was no main effect for clip and no skill \times clip exposure interaction (all *F*s < 1).

1 (*clear/blur*) trials (Figure 7a) the skilled players were more accurate than the less-skilled players
 2 irrespective of the level of peripheral blur (main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) = 95.96, p < .001, \eta_p^2 =$
 3 $.74$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(4, 136) = 1.63, p = .17, \eta_p^2 = .05$; no main effect for blur, $F(4,$
 4 $136) = 1.89, p = .12, \eta_p^2 = .05$). Similarly in the *moving mask (blur/clear)* trials (Figure 7b), the
 5 response accuracy of the skilled players was higher irrespective of the level of central blur (main
 6 effect of skill, $F(1, 34) = 146.94, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .81$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(4, 136) < 1$; no
 7 main effect for blur, $F(4, 136) < 1$). In all the *moving window (clear/blur)* and *moving mask*
 8 (*blur/clear*) conditions the response accuracy of the skilled players was above chance levels (all
 9 $ps < .001, ds > 6.32$), whereas for the less-skilled players this was only true when central vision
 10 was clear ($ps < .035, ds > 0.56$) and never when central vision was in any way impaired. When
 11 compared to the clear condition, the accuracy of the less-skilled players *increased* with moderate
 12 ($p = .043, d = 0.67$) and high ($p = .048, d = 0.53$) peripheral blur but not with low blur ($p = .83, d$
 13 $= 0.05$) or with opaque occlusion ($p = .07, d = 0.72$). The skilled players did not increase their
 14 accuracy in any of the blur conditions.

15 **INSERT FIGURE 7 ABOUT HERE**

16 Response times were influenced by the level of peripheral blur in the *moving window*
 17 (*clear/blur*) trials (Figure 7c; main effect of blur, $F(2.90, 98.57) = 7.44, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .18$), with
 18 response times increasing with high peripheral blur ($p = .013, d = 0.34$) and black peripheral
 19 vision ($p < .001, d = 0.54$). Response times were not influenced by the skill level of the
 20 participants (no main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) < 1$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(2.90, 98.57) < 1$).
 21 Central blur also influenced response times in the *moving mask (blur/clear)* trials (Figure 7d;
 22 main effect of blur, $F(3.25, 110.62) = 3.29, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .09$), with moderate central blur ($p =$
 23 $.03, d = 0.34$) and black central vision ($p = .01, d = 0.33$) resulting in longer response times.

1 Again, response times were not influenced by the skill of the participants (no effect of skill, $F(1,$
 2 $34) < 1$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(3.25, 110.62) < 1$). When compared to Experiment 1,
 3 response times were less influenced by blur in Experiment 4, most likely because participants
 4 took more time to process the information in the slides in Experiment 1.

5 **Fixation durations.** The fixation durations were altered by peripheral blur in the *moving*
 6 *window (clear/blur)* trials (Figure 7e; main effect of blur, $F(2.50, 85.07) = 14.17, p < .001, \eta_p^2 =$
 7 $.29$), with the durations increasing with low and moderate peripheral blur ($ps < .003, ds > 0.50$)
 8 and decreasing with black peripheral vision ($p = .005, d = 0.71$). Fixation durations were not
 9 influenced by the skill level of participants ($F(1, 34) < 1$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(2.50,$
 10 $85.07) < 1$). Mild, moderate and high *central* blur significantly lengthened the fixations in the
 11 *moving mask (blur/clear)* trials (Figure 7f; $ps < .001, ds > 0.89$; main effect of blur, $F(2.61,$
 12 $88.68) = 22.81, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .40$). However, with central blur the skilled participants used
 13 longer fixations than the less-skilled participants did (main effect for skill, $F(1, 34) = 4.25, p =$
 14 $.047, \eta_p^2 = .11$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(2.61, 88.68) = 1.88, p = .15, \eta_p^2 = .05$).

15 **Saccadic amplitude.** Saccadic amplitudes were somewhat resistant to peripheral blur,
 16 with the key reduction occurring with black peripheral vision (Figure 7g; main effect of blur,
 17 $F(3.06, 103.94) = 81.08, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .71$). Skill significantly interacted with blur ($F(3.06,$
 18 $103.94) = 3.48, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .09$; no main effect for skill, $F(1, 34) < 1$), primarily because the
 19 skilled players decreased their saccadic amplitude from high blur to black peripheral vision ($p <$
 20 $.001, d = 1.58$) while the less-skilled players did so from low to moderate peripheral blur ($p =$
 21 $.008, d = 0.23$) and from high blur to black periphery ($p < .001, d = 1.55$). With central blur in
 22 the *moving mask (blur/clear)* trials, longer saccades were found with high central blur and black
 23 central vision (Figure 7h; $ps < .001, ds > 0.51$; main effect of blur, $F(4, 136) = 19.14, p < .001,$

1 $\eta_p^2 = .36$). In this case the relationship was not mediated by the skill level of the participants (no
 2 main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) = 1.30, p = .26, \eta_p^2 = .04$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(4, 136) < 1$).

3 **Fixation time to areas of interest.** Similar to Experiment 1, in the *moving window*
 4 (*clear/blur*) trials participants spent most of their time viewing the ball-carrier, the defender of
 5 the ball-carrier, and the closest attacker and defender (Figure 8a; main effect of area of interest,
 6 $F(1.60, 54.26) = 105.71, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .76$). The time allocated to the different areas of interest
 7 remained similar for all of the blur conditions *except* with the black periphery (area of interest \times
 8 blur interaction, $F(9.43, 320.49) = 3.48, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .09$) when less time was spent viewing
 9 the defender of the ball-carrier ($p = .042, d = 0.53$) and the closest attacker + defender ($ps < .001,$
 10 $ds > 0.71$). When compared to the clear condition, participants were less likely to look towards
 11 any of the ten areas of interest with the black periphery ($p < .001, d = 0.99$; main effect of blur,
 12 $F(4, 136) = 15.31, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .31$). Skilled participants spent more time than the less-skilled
 13 participants looking at the ten areas of interest in the full clear, low and moderate peripheral blur
 14 conditions ($ps < .05, ds > 0.51$), but not in the other two conditions ($ps > .58, ds < 0.19$; skill \times
 15 blur interaction, $F(4, 136) = 3.49, p = .009, \eta_p^2 = .09$). All other effects were non-significant. The
 16 fixational priorities in the *moving mask (blur/clear)* conditions (Figure 8b) were essentially
 17 identical to those found in the *moving window (clear/blur)* trials, despite central vision being
 18 blurred or even opaque (main effect for area of interest, $F(1.74, 59.04) = 95.73, p < .001, \eta_p^2 =$
 19 $.74$). When compared to the clear condition, the time spent viewing the ten areas of interest
 20 tended to be reduced more with black central vision ($p = .10, d = 0.32$) than for any other blur
 21 condition ($ps > .32, ds < 0.18$; main effect of blur, $F(2.45, 83.40) = 3.00, p = .045, \eta_p^2 = .08$).
 22 Across all conditions the skilled players spent more time than the less-skilled players directing
 23 their central vision towards the ten areas of interest even though this area of the visual field was

1 blurred or opaque (main effect for skill, $F(1, 34) = 7.56, p = .009, \eta_p^2 = .18$).

2 **INSERT FIGURE 8 ABOUT HERE**

3 In summary, the expert advantage for response accuracy was preserved across all the
4 *moving window* and *mask* conditions in Experiment 4, just as it had been in Experiment 1. The
5 skilled players showed above-chance accuracy in all viewing conditions, whereas the less-skilled
6 players only did so when central vision was clear. The skilled players were apparently not
7 affected by black central or peripheral vision, meaning that they could pick up information from
8 the other clear sector of the visual field without decreasing their performance. Interestingly, we
9 also found that the less-skilled players *increased* their performance with moderate and high
10 peripheral blur [in Experiment 1, improvements were seen for the skilled participants with
11 moderate peripheral blur and in the less-skilled with low peripheral blur].

12 The gaze behaviour across Experiments 1 and 4 was also very similar, and crucially again
13 shows that even the lowest level of blur can result in significant changes to gaze while leaving
14 performance unchanged. Mild central *or* peripheral blur produced immediate increases in the
15 duration of fixations (Figure 7e & 7f; see also Bertera & Rayner, 2000; Cornelissen et al., 2005;
16 Loschky & McConkie, 2000, 2002; Nuthmann, 2014), though higher levels of blur were required
17 to alter the saccadic amplitude: the amplitude decreased with moderate peripheral blur for the
18 less-skilled participants, and only with black peripheral vision for the skilled players (consistent
19 with the usual finding that a window decreases saccadic amplitude, see Bertera & Rayner, 2000;
20 Cornelissen et al., 2005; Loschky & McConkie, 2000, 2002; Nuthmann, 2014). On the other
21 hand, high central blur and black central vision both increased the amplitudes for all participants
22 (see Cornelissen et al., 2005; Miellet et al., 2010; Nuthmann, 2014).

23 **Information pick-up from each sector of the visual field in isolation: moving window**

1 **(blur/opaque) and moving mask (opaque/blur) conditions**

2 **Response accuracy and response time.** When viewing with central vision only in the
 3 *moving window (blur/opaque)* trials (Figure 9a), the response accuracy of the skilled players was
 4 better than it was for the less-skilled players with clear, low and moderate central blur ($ps < .001$,
 5 $ds > 1.90$), but not with high blur ($p = .21$, $d = 0.43$) or when the screen was completely black (p
 6 $= .27$, $d = 0.37$; skill \times blur interaction, $F(4, 136) = 15.26$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .31$; main effect for
 7 skill, $F(1, 34) = 40.00$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .54$; main effect of blur, $F(4, 136) = 30.29$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 =$
 8 $.47$). When compared to the clear central vision condition, skilled players responded less
 9 accurately with moderate and high central blur and with fully black vision ($ps < .001$, $ds > 0.88$).
 10 The response accuracy of the skilled players decreased from low to moderate blur ($p = .011$, $d =$
 11 0.76) and from moderate to high central blur ($p < .001$, $d = 2.37$). The accuracy of the less-
 12 skilled players was only better-than-chance when central vision was clear ($p < .001$, $d = 2.83$).

13 When viewing with only peripheral vision in the *moving mask (opaque/blur)* trials
 14 (Figure 9b), the skilled players responded more accurately than the less skilled players in *all* blur
 15 conditions ($ps < .001$, $ds > 1.45$) except, unsurprisingly, when vision was completely black ($p =$
 16 $.27$, $d = 0.37$; skill \times blur interaction, $F(4, 136) = 10.06$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .23$; main effect of skill,
 17 $F(1, 34) = 47.50$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .58$; main effect of blur, $F(4, 136) = 12.98$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .28$).
 18 Remarkably, the skilled players performed at better-than-chance levels even when viewing with
 19 only high peripheral blur and no central vision. Compared to the clear peripheral condition,
 20 skilled players' response accuracy decreased with moderate and high peripheral blur, and with no
 21 vision ($ps < .044$, $ds > 0.53$), but not with low blur ($p = .28$, $d = 0.38$). The response accuracy of
 22 the skilled players decreased only from high peripheral blur to full occlusion ($p < .001$, $d = 1.71$).

23 **INSERT FIGURE 9 ABOUT HERE**

1 When compared to clear vision, the response times in the *moving window (blur/opaque)*
 2 trials were slower with every level of blur (Figure 9c; $ps < .001$, $ds > 0.43$) except with fully
 3 opaque vision ($p = .89$, $d = 0.02$; main effect of blur, $F(2.98, 101.25) = 7.62$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .18$;
 4 no main effect for skill, $F(1, 34) < 1$, no skill \times blur interaction, $F(2.98, 101.25) < 1$). In contrast,
 5 response times did not differ to any great extent in the *moving mask (opaque/blur)* trials (Figure
 6 9d). There was a significant main effect of blur ($F(2.77, 94.30) = 3.27$, $p = .03$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$; no
 7 main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) < 1$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(2.77, 94.30) = 1.39$, $p = .25$, $\eta_p^2 =$
 8 $.04$) as response times slowed from low to moderate peripheral blur ($p = .005$, $d = 0.29$).

9 **Fixation durations.** In the *moving window (blur/opaque)* trials (Figure 9e) fixations
 10 became longer when low central blur was introduced ($p < .001$, $d = 0.82$) but then stabilised
 11 (main effect of blur, $F(1.40, 47.72) = 4.89$, $p = .021$, $\eta_p^2 = .13$; no main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) =$
 12 2.02 , $p = .16$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$; no blur \times skill interaction, $F(1.40, 47.72) < 1$). The same outcome was
 13 found in the *moving mask (opaque/blur)* trials (Figure 9f) with the duration increasing from clear
 14 to low peripheral blur ($p < .001$, $d = 0.36$) and then stabilising (main effect of blur, $F(1.35,$
 15 $45.77) = 4.01$, $p = .04$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$; no main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) = 1.90$, $p = .18$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$; no
 16 blur \times skill interaction, $F(1.35, 45.77) = 1.59$, $p = .22$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$).⁵

17 **Saccadic amplitude.** In the *moving window (blur/opaque)* trials the size of the saccades
 18 increased with progressive increases in central blur (Figure 9g; main effect of blur, $F(1.38,$
 19 $46.92) = 34.35$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .50$; no main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) = .002$, $p = .97$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$;
 20 no skill \times blur interaction, $F(1.38, 46.92) = .44$, $p = .57$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$), with significant changes
 21 across all successive comparisons ($ps < .038$, $ds > 0.21$) except between low and moderate

⁵ The effect of blur was still present in both the moving window (blur/opaque) and moving mask (opaque/blur) conditions when the fully opaque condition was removed from the analysis ($ps < .001$).

1 central blur ($p = .16$, $d = 0.15$). In the *moving mask (opaque/blur)* trials the saccades also
 2 lengthened with increases in blur (Figure 9h; main effect of blur, $F(1.60, 54.51) = 8.98$, $p < .001$,
 3 $\eta_p^2 = .21$; no main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) < 1$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(1.60, 54.51) < 1$)
 4 with the saccadic amplitude increasing from moderate to high peripheral blur ($p = .001$, $d = 0.33$)
 5 and decreasing from high blur to full opacity ($p < .001$, $d = 0.77$).⁶

6 **Fixation time to areas of interest.** Participants allocated their fixations towards the
 7 usually prioritised areas in the *moving window (blur/opaque)* trials *except* when viewing with
 8 high central blur and fully opaque vision (Figure 10a; blur \times area of interest interaction, $F(9.15,$
 9 $310.99) = 28.65$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .46$; main effect of blur, $F(4, 136) = 150.27$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .82$;
 10 main effect of area of interest, $F(2.25, 76.61) = 63.88$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .65$). In those cases, central
 11 gaze was directed in a random fashion with approximately equal time allocation towards all ten
 12 areas of interest. Essentially, the gaze behaviour with high central blur was akin to that with
 13 completely opaque vision (i.e., it was randomly distributed). With peripheral blur in the *moving*
 14 *mask (opaque/blur)* trials (Figure 10b), the time spent viewing the areas of interest only changed
 15 in the fully opaque condition ($p < .001$, $d = 1.32$), suggesting that the necessary information to
 16 guide gaze was present with every level of peripheral blur (blur \times area of interest interaction,
 17 $F(12.35, 419.81) = 22.79$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .40$; main effect of blur, $F(2.14, 72.73) = 132.21$, $p <$
 18 $.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .80$; main effect of area of interest, $F(2.59, 88.11) = 78.08$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .70$).

19 ****INSERT FIGURE 10 ABOUT HERE****

20 Here we have individually isolated central and peripheral vision so that, unlike in the
 21 previous comparisons, there was not the opportunity for participants to compensate for blur in

⁶ The effect of blur was still present in both the moving window (blur/opaque) and moving mask (opaque/blur) conditions when the fully opaque condition was removed from the analysis ($ps < .001$).

1 one part of the visual field by information pick-up from the other sector. Evidently, task
2 performance continues to be very good despite considerable blur in the central or peripheral
3 visual field alone. The response accuracy of the skilled players was compromised by moderate
4 central or peripheral blur, but high central blur was necessary to completely impair information
5 pick-up, and even the highest level of peripheral blur was not enough to prevent information
6 pick-up. The response accuracy of the skilled players remained better than chance under all
7 circumstances *except* where there was high central blur (with a black periphery) or,
8 unsurprisingly, when there was no visual information at all. Sufficient information was extracted
9 with high peripheral blur (and black central vision) to perform at better-than-chance levels, but
10 not with high central blur, demonstrating the greater susceptibility of central vision to blur.

11 The analysis of the gaze data again highlights how susceptible gaze behaviour can be to
12 even mild levels of blur. Low central blur increased the duration of the fixations and increased
13 the size of the saccades, while low peripheral blur also increased the duration of the fixations.
14 The analysis of the fixational priorities provides a very good proxy measurement for the response
15 accuracy of the skilled participants. More specifically, only in those conditions where the
16 response accuracy of the skilled performers was reduced to chance-guessing (high central blur
17 and full opaque vision) was there a measurable change in the areas of interest fixated by
18 participants. In the conditions where there was a relative, but not total decrease in performance
19 (*viz.*, moderate central blur and high peripheral blur), the gaze allocation of participants tended
20 to be indistinguishable from that relied on with full vision. This provides some indication that,
21 with those levels of blur, skilled participants still look towards the same areas that they would
22 usually do, but that the blur has somewhat impaired their ability to pick-up the information
23 necessary to support optimal performance in this task.

1 **The effect of uniform blur: central + peripheral blur**

2 **Response accuracy and response time.** The skilled players responded more accurately
 3 than the less skilled players at every level of full-field blur (Figure 11a; $ps < .001$, $ds > 1.48$)
 4 though, encouragingly, not when the screen was completely black (skill \times blur interaction, $F(4,$
 5 $136) = 15.09$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .31$; main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) = 85.44$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .72$; main
 6 effect of blur, $F(4, 136) = 21.95$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .39$). Compared to when the visual field was
 7 clear, the response accuracy of the skilled players decreased only with high blur (or with black
 8 occlusion, $ps < .001$, $ds > 1.26$). Response accuracy decreased significantly from low to
 9 moderate blur ($p = .04$, $d = 0.69$) and from high blur to full opacity ($p < .001$, $d = 1.52$). Blur
 10 influenced the response times of all participants in a similar manner (Figure 11b; main effect of
 11 blur, $F(2.87, 97.50) = 6.95$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .17$; no main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) < 1$, no skill \times
 12 blur interaction, $F(2.87, 97.50) < 1$). Compared to the fully clear condition, response times were
 13 slower with moderate and high blur and with fully black/opaque vision ($ps < .04$, $ds > 0.28$).

14 **INSERT FIGURE 11 ABOUT HERE**

15 **Fixation durations.** Fixations became progressively longer with each increase in full-
 16 field blur (Figure 11c; $ps < .001$, $ds > 0.54$; main effect of blur, $F(1.59, 54.18) = 19.66$, $p < .001$,
 17 $\eta_p^2 = .37$; no main effect of skill, $F(1, 34) < 1$; no skill \times blur interaction, $F(1.59, 54.18) < 1$),
 18 reversing only when the screen was completely black ($p = .003$, $d = 0.72$).

19 **Saccadic amplitude.** The size of the saccades did not change with increases in full-field
 20 blur (Figure 11d; no main effect of blur, $F(1.45, 49.30) = 2.37$, $p = .12$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$; no main effect
 21 of skill, $F(1, 34) < 1$; no blur \times skill interaction, $F(1.45, 49.30) < 1$).

22 **Fixation time to areas of interest.** The fixational priorities of the participants remained
 23 similar with low, moderate, and high full-field blur and only changed in the fully opaque

1 condition when gaze was randomly allocated across all ten areas of interest (main effect of area
2 of interest, $F(2.31, 78.43) = 121.22, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .78$). More time was spent viewing the ten
3 areas of interest with moderate and high blur than in the normal fully clear condition ($ps < .043,$
4 $ds > 0.37$; blur \times area of interest interaction, $F(12.53, 425.90) = 25.37, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .43$; main
5 effect of blur, $F(2.79, 94.87) = 269.50, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .89$).

6 Uniform blur across the whole visual field produced results that essentially mirrored
7 those seen with central blur and a black periphery (Figure 9a). Moderate blur impaired
8 performance, though not enough to completely impair information pick-up. In contrast to the
9 earlier findings in Experiments 1 and 4, no improvements in performance were evident for any
10 level of full-field blur. This suggests that any facilitatory effect of blur is likely to be a result of
11 greater blur in one sector of the visual field *relative to* the other.

12 Low full-field blur resulted in an immediate increase in the duration of the fixations
13 without changing the *breadth* of the search (i.e., the mean saccadic amplitude). This suggests that
14 it is the manipulation of peripheral vision *relative to* central vision (or vice versa) that changes
15 the breadth of the visual search (i.e., the mean saccadic amplitude), rather than it being a simple
16 by-product of the presence of blur. The important implication for gaze-contingent studies is that
17 even mild blur in one (but not the other) sector of the visual field is likely to produce changes in
18 the breadth of the visual search (see also Loschky & McConkie, 2002). Crucially though, and in
19 agreement with the results seen for the *moving window (blur/opaque)* and *moving mask*
20 *(opaque/blur)* conditions (Figure 10), only when response accuracy was reduced to chance levels
21 (in the fully opaque condition) was there a commensurate change in the fixational priorities of
22 the skilled participants. Gaze priorities were largely unchanged with low, moderate and high
23 blur, suggesting that any relative reduction in response accuracy was a result of impaired

1 information pick-up rather than an inability to direct gaze towards the areas of interest.

2 **General Discussion**

3 The purpose of the series of experiments reported in this paper was to examine the
4 relative contributions of central and peripheral vision to response selection in dynamic viewing
5 conditions. The evidence accumulated across the four experiments provides new insights into a
6 number of questions surrounding the role that different sectors of the visual field play in
7 expertise in dynamic, time-constrained tasks.

8 **The locus of the expert advantage**

9 It is well-established that experts exhibit superior performance on domain-specific tests
10 of response selection (e.g., Allard, Graham, & Paarsalu, 1980; Horswill & McKenna, 2004;
11 Starkes, 1987; Underwood et al., 2008), and as a result, it is commonly assumed that this expert
12 advantage stems, at least in part, from the experts' superior use of peripheral vision. However,
13 until recently, there has been very little empirical evidence to demonstrate such a difference. Ryu
14 et al. (2013) employed a gaze contingent display to show that expert basketball players
15 maintained their superior response selection when compared to less skilled controls even when
16 information was only available to central or peripheral vision. Experiment 4 confirmed this
17 conclusion. For central vision, when viewing with the *moving window (clear/blur)* in
18 Experiments 1 and 4, experts consistently recorded higher response accuracies than novices and
19 performed above chance in all conditions whereas the less-skilled performers achieved only
20 occasionally better-than-chance performance (Figures 2a & 7a). When there was no peripheral
21 information available and central vision was blurred (*moving window (blur/opaque)*; Figure 9a)
22 the expert advantage, and their better-than-chance responses, persisted until their central vision
23 was either highly blurred or was completely black. The expert advantage is a strong and

1 systematic one that holds persistently when information pick-up is possible via central vision.

2 When clear *peripheral* information was available and central vision was either blurred or
3 opaque (*moving mask (blur/clear)* conditions), a persistent expert advantage was observed that
4 held across all conditions (Figures 2b & 7b). When no central vision was available and the
5 periphery was blurred (*moving mask (opaque/blur)* conditions) the expert advantage and their
6 better-than-chance performance persisted for all levels of blur, disappearing only when the
7 display was completely black. The better-than-chance responses when the only information
8 available was a highly blurred peripheral image (and no central information) is extraordinary and
9 highlights the robust capacity of the experts to extract salient information from even highly
10 impoverished displays.

11 **The influence of blur**

12 **How does blur affect information pick-up?** The impact of blur on performance is
13 largely dependent upon whether or not the whole of the visual field is blurred. When either
14 central or peripheral vision was clear and blur was applied to the other sector, blur had relatively
15 little impact on response accuracy or on the conclusions reached regarding the locus of expertise.
16 However, when only central or peripheral vision was available and blur was applied to those
17 sectors of the visual field, blur much more systematically degraded response accuracy. When
18 low and moderate blur were applied uniformly across the *full* visual field, the responses of both
19 the skilled and less-skilled participants closely resembled, with one exception, those seen when
20 viewing with only central vision. Collectively this suggests that participants were almost always
21 relying on information from central vision to perform the task. The one important exception
22 though was seen for the skilled participants with *high* full-field blur; rather than resembling the
23 chance-level guessing seen when viewing with central vision only, the results more closely

1 replicated those seen when viewing with only *peripheral* vision (Figure 9b). This suggests that
2 the skilled players had the capacity to alter their attentional focus to rely on peripheral visual
3 information when the central vision no longer supported task performance.

4 **Can blur facilitate performance?** A number of previous studies have suggested that
5 modest levels of blur may facilitate the performance of some perceptual tasks (e.g., Jackson et
6 al., 2009; Mann et al., 2010b). Here we have also observed specific situations where blur
7 improved task performance. With clear central and blurred peripheral vision, in both Experiment
8 1 (Figure 2a) and Experiment 4 (Figure 7a) we found conditions where peripheral blur increased
9 response accuracy when compared to the clear control condition. For Experiment 1 this was the
10 case for the less skilled group with low peripheral blur and for the highly skilled group with
11 moderate peripheral blur; in Experiment 4 this was only the case for the less skilled group with
12 moderate and high blur. No facilitatory effects were evident for the *moving mask* conditions or
13 when blur was applied to the full visual field. These findings suggest that any improvements that
14 accrue are likely to occur when the periphery is more blurred than is central vision. The failure to
15 replicate the improvement in performance seen for the skilled participants in Experiment 1 –
16 most likely because of the more appropriate response slide adopted in Experiment 4 – suggests
17 that any facilitatory effect might be isolated to less-skilled rather than skilled participants. The
18 mechanism of the improvement may be related to the attenuation of concurrent peripheral
19 demands and distractions, permitting an increased attentional focus towards critical centrally-
20 fixated cues. Blur shifts visual attention towards the clear regions of the visual field (Enns &
21 MacDonald, 2013; Loschky & McConkie, 2002; Nuthmann, 2014) and it is possible that in our
22 study peripheral blur encouraged the less-skilled participants to attend towards the more salient
23 (and evidently important) information located in their central vision.

1 **Even mild blur alters gaze.** Peripheral vision can be used for direct information pick-up
2 as well as to locate a suitable location for subsequent visual fixations. We sought to establish
3 which of these two key roles would be influenced by a lower level of blur, and found there to be
4 a clear and unambiguous answer. Even the lowest levels of central and peripheral blur led to
5 considerable changes in gaze behaviour without changing performance on the task. This supports
6 the idea that there is degeneracy in gaze patterns, that is, the pattern of visual gaze can change
7 without necessarily altering task performance. This reinforces the view that the limiting factor to
8 perceptual performance is possession of the requisite knowledge to use information rather than
9 the specific pattern of gaze used during the task (Abernethy & Russell, 1987).

10 Blur in the majority of cases resulted in fixation durations that were longer than normal
11 irrespective of the level of blur and where it was applied in the visual field (see Figures 2f, 7e,f,
12 9e,f & 11c; see also Loschky & McConkie, 2002; Nuthmann, 2014). Further, saccadic
13 amplitudes generally decreased with peripheral blur (with the exception of low blur in
14 Experiment 4, see Figures 2g & 7g; see also Bertera & Rayner, 2000; Cornelissen et al., 2005;
15 Loschky & McConkie, 2000, 2002; Nuthmann, 2014) and increased with central blur (Figures
16 2h, 7h, 9h, & 11d; see also Cornelissen et al., 2005; Mielliet et al., 2010; Nuthmann, 2014).
17 Despite these measurable changes in gaze, participants did not necessarily alter *where* they
18 directed their gaze (as measured by fixation time to areas of interest). As blur was introduced,
19 participants looked towards the same key features in the display even though they changed the
20 way that they did so. This leads to the conclusion that top-down knowledge (expertise in this
21 study) can override much of the attentional biasing found when blur influences gaze (Enns &
22 MacDonald, 2013; Loschky et al., 2014; Nuthmann, 2014).

23 The selection of the next gaze location appears to be more important than peripheral

1 information pick-up when the eyes move throughout a scene. Motter and Simoni (2008) have
2 shown that information extraction from peripheral vision is good when the eyes are stationary,
3 but may be limited when the eyes are freely able to move. In their task participants identified the
4 presence of a stationary target object either when they (i) *had* to, (ii) *were allowed* to, or (iii)
5 *were forbidden* to move their eyes. When the eyes were *not* allowed to move, targets could be
6 found further from the fovea than when the eyes did move. Yet, when allowed to move their eyes
7 participants did so as it proved to be quicker for finding targets than it was when simply relying
8 on peripheral information pick-up to locate the target. As a result, when the eyes are freely able
9 to move, the key role of peripheral vision may be to locate the next target for the relocation of
10 central vision. This is consistent with our finding that gaze is more sensitive to blur than is
11 information pick-up, though our results also show that peripheral information pick-up is still
12 useful when the eyes move. When using only peripheral vision in the *moving mask (opaque/blur)*
13 trials, skilled participants continued to direct their gaze towards the usual areas of interest, yet
14 still extracted sufficient information from their periphery to sustain their usual level of accuracy.

15 This lead us to the question of what might be the most suitable level of blur to use when
16 applying gaze-contingent displays to dynamic tasks. In this study we found that the time spent
17 viewing the ten areas of interest provided a good proxy measurement for performance, i.e.,
18 performance decreased to chance levels when the participants were no longer able to direct gaze
19 towards their typically prioritised areas of interest. Perhaps, rather than seeking a level of blur
20 that leaves all measures of gaze unchanged, a more realistic aim may be to find the highest level
21 of blur that allows participants to maintain fixation towards their key areas of interest. In this
22 experiment this was possible with moderate central blur and high peripheral blur (in conjunction
23 with an opaque complimentary field; Figures 9 & 10). These blur levels decreased information

1 pick-up while allowing participants to view the display features they would normally rely on.

2 **The validity of gaze measurement for assessing attentional priorities**

3 The vast majority of existing studies examining the gaze behaviour of experts and non-
4 experts engaging in dynamic perceptual tasks do so without gaze-contingent manipulations and
5 as a result use measures of gaze behaviour to infer differences in attentional priority (e.g., Bard
6 & Fleury, 1981). The difficulty with this approach is the potential for gaze and attention to
7 disassociate such that, if attention is directed to the periphery, the line of gaze may provide a
8 false indication of the allocation of attention. The important question that is central to the validity
9 of inferences drawn from usual studies of visual search is whether the allocation of gaze under
10 normal search conditions is comparable to gaze allocation in the *moving window (clear/opaque)*
11 trials when gaze and attention are effectively moved into alignment. The comparison of the
12 percentage time spent viewing the areas of interest (Figures 3 & 8) reveals a highly consistent set
13 of fixational priorities when there is clear central and peripheral vision and when central vision is
14 clear but the periphery is black. Importantly, the conclusion that would be reached from usual
15 gaze studies using fully clear vision would also be the conclusion reached when there is no
16 peripheral vision. This would suggest that the potential for attention to be distributed away from
17 the line of gaze may therefore be of less concern in gaze studies than has previously been
18 suggested (e.g., Abernethy, 1988). Conversely, the attentional priorities did not seem to alter in
19 any great way when central vision was black and peripheral vision was clear in the *moving mask*
20 (*opaque/clear*) trials. Even though central information pick-up was not possible, gaze was still
21 directed towards the same areas of interest. This shows that experts possess flexibility in their
22 information pick-up and that they can, when necessary, use their peripheral vision to compensate
23 for the loss or impairment of central information.

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1 Figure captions

2 *Figure 1.* Screenshots of nine different viewing conditions (a) full clear; (b-e) *moving*
 3 *window (clear/blur)* conditions (low, moderate, high, and opaque, respectively); (f)-(i) *moving*
 4 *mask (blur/clear)* conditions (low, moderate, high, and opaque, respectively) and an example of
 5 the response slide used in Experiment 1 (j).

6 *Figure 2.* Mean (a + b) response accuracy, (c + d) response time, (e + f) fixation
 7 duration, and (g + h) saccadic amplitude for the *moving window (clear/blur)* conditions (left) and
 8 *moving mask (blur/clear)* conditions (right) for skilled and less-skilled players in Experiment 1.
 9 Horizontal line (a & b) indicates the 25 % level achievable by chance/guessing; Asterisks
 10 indicate data values significantly different from the 25% level that would be achievable by
 11 chance/guessing (** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$). Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

12 *Figure 3.* Percentage of total viewing time towards each of the ten areas of interest
 13 across the blur conditions for the skilled and less-skilled participants: (a) *moving window*
 14 *(clear/blur)* conditions; (b) *moving mask (blur/clear)* conditions. Error bars indicate the standard
 15 error of the mean. Areas of interest are the ball-carrier (AB) and their defender (DB); Teammate
 16 closest to ball-carrier (A1) and defender (D1); teammate 2nd closest to ball-carrier (A2) and
 17 defender (D2); teammate 3rd closest to ball-carrier (A3) and defender (D3); and teammate
 18 furthest from ball-carrier (A4) and defender (D4).

19 *Figure 4.* Example of response slides used in Experiment 2 and 3. The top row shows
 20 examples of the three response slides used in Experiment 2: (a) *posture + position*; (b) *position*
 21 *only*; (c) *no ball-carrier*. The bottom row shows examples of the four response slides used in
 22 Experiment 3: (a) *full-image*; (b) *posture + position*; (c) *no ball-carrier*; (d) *vacant court* (the
 23 ball was synchronised with the mouse cursor).

24 *Figure 5.* Mean response accuracy for (a) the three different response slides in

1 Experiment 2, and (b) the eight different response options in Experiment 3. Horizontal line
 2 indicates the 25 % level achievable by chance/guessing; Asterisks indicate data values
 3 significantly different from the 25% level that would be achievable by chance/guessing (** $p <$
 4 0.01 , * $p < 0.05$). Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

5 *Figure 6.* Screenshots of the nineteen different viewing conditions in Experiment 4: (a)
 6 full clear; (b-e) *moving window (clear/blur)* conditions (low, moderate, high, and black opaque,
 7 respectively); (f)-(i) *moving mask (blur/clear)* conditions (low, moderate, high, and black
 8 opaque, respectively); (j)-(l) *moving window (blur/opaque)* conditions (low, moderate, and high,
 9 respectively); (m)-(o) *moving mask (opaque/blur)* conditions (low, moderate, and high,
 10 respectively); (p)-(s) *central + peripheral blurred* conditions (low, moderate, high, and opaque,
 11 respectively). The information in brackets (e.g., clear/blur) refers to the respective quality of the
 12 visual information in the central and peripheral sectors of the visual field.

13 *Figure 7.* Mean (a + b) response accuracy, (c + d) response time, (e + f) fixation
 14 duration, and (g + h) saccadic amplitude for the *moving window (clear/blur)* conditions (left) and
 15 *moving mask (blur/clear)* conditions (right) for skilled and less-skilled players in Experiment 4.
 16 Horizontal line (a & b) indicates the 25 % level achievable by chance/guessing; Asterisks
 17 indicate data values significantly different from the 25% level that would be achievable by
 18 chance/guessing (** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$). Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

19 *Figure 8.* Percentage of total viewing time towards each of the ten areas of interest
 20 across the blur conditions for the skilled and less-skilled participants in Experiment 4: (a) *moving*
 21 *window (clear/blur)* conditions; (b) *moving mask (blur/clear)* conditions. Error bars indicate the
 22 standard error of the mean.

23 *Figure 9.* Mean (a + b) response accuracy, (c + d) response time, (e + f) fixation

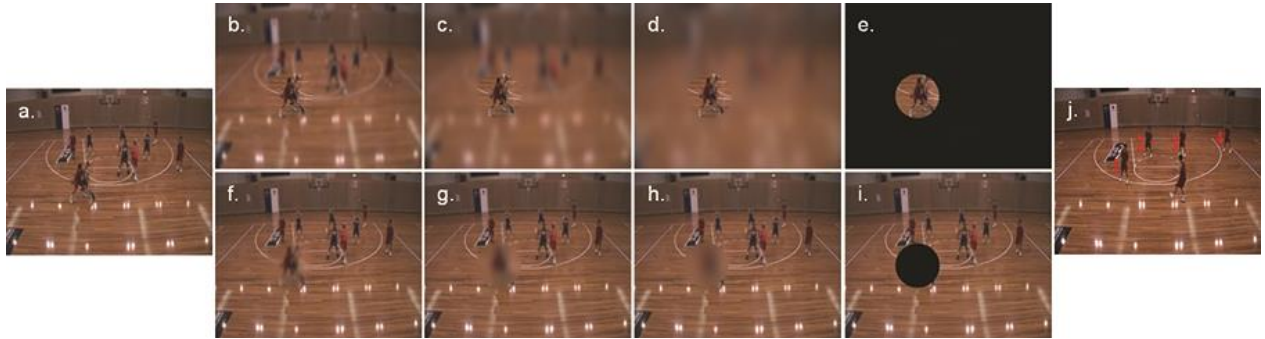
1 duration, and (g + h) saccadic amplitude for the *moving window (blur/opaque)* conditions (left)
2 and *moving mask (opaque/blur)* conditions (right) for skilled and less-skilled players in
3 Experiment 4. Horizontal line (a & b) indicates the 25 % level achievable by chance/guessing;
4 Asterisks indicate data values significantly different from the 25% level that would be achievable
5 by chance/guessing (** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$). Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

6 *Figure 10.* Percentage of total viewing time towards each of the ten areas of interest
7 across the blur conditions for the skilled and less-skilled players in Experiment 4: (a) *moving*
8 *window (blur/opaque)* conditions; (b) *moving mask (opaque/blur)* conditions. Error bars indicate
9 the standard error of the mean.

10 *Figure 11.* *Central + peripheral blurred* conditions in Experiment 4: (a) mean response
11 accuracy; (b) mean response time; (c) mean fixation duration; (d) mean saccade amplitude for
12 skilled and less-skilled players. Horizontal line (a) indicates the 25 % level achievable by
13 chance/guessing; Asterisks signal data values significantly different from the 25% level that
14 would be achievable by chance/guessing (** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$). Error bars indicate the standard
15 error of the mean.

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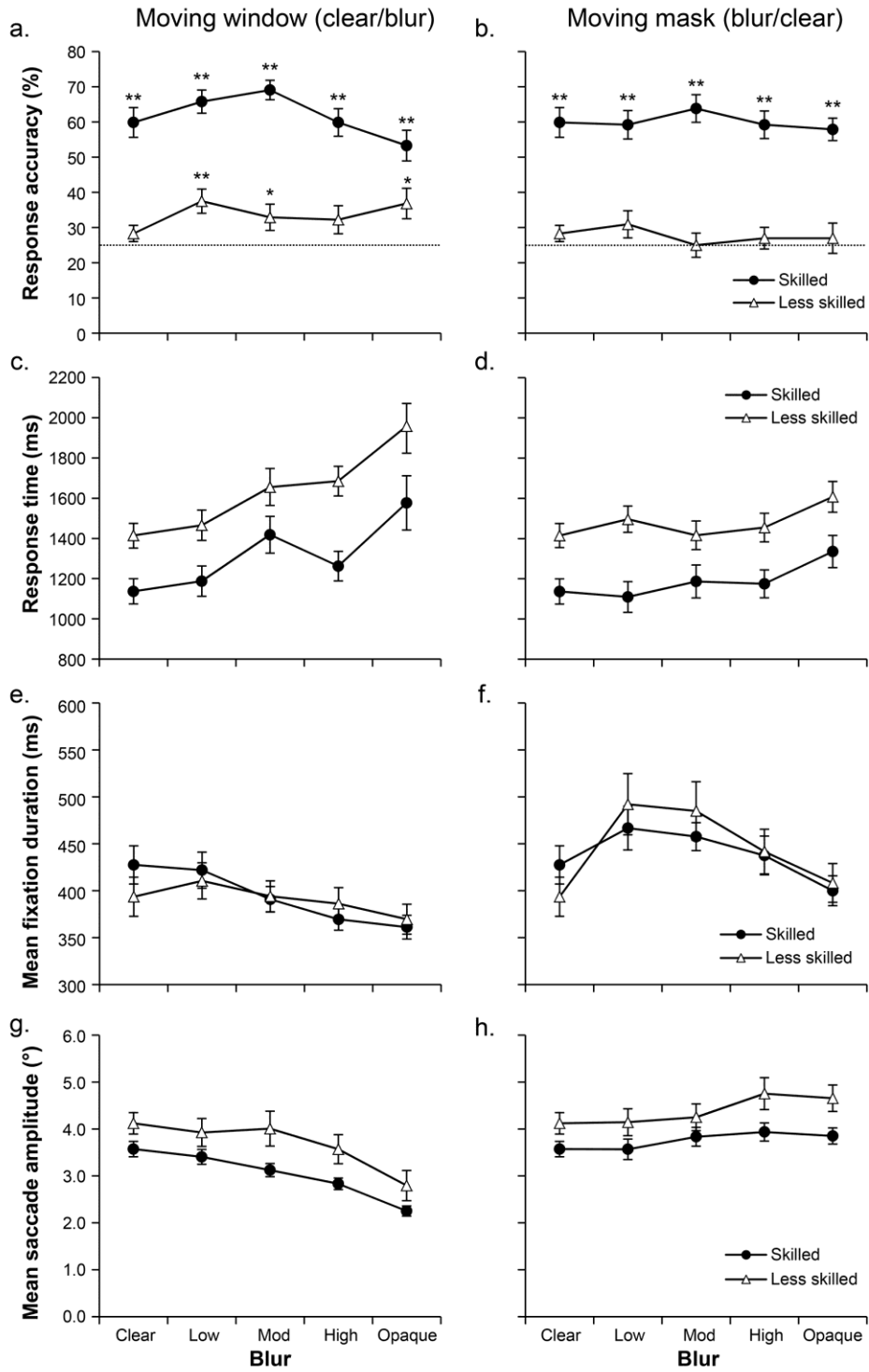
Figure 1



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Figure 2



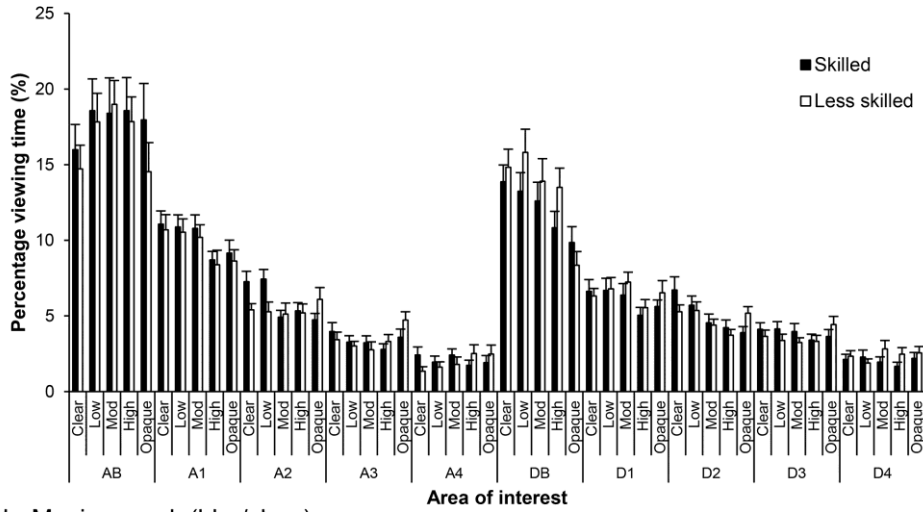
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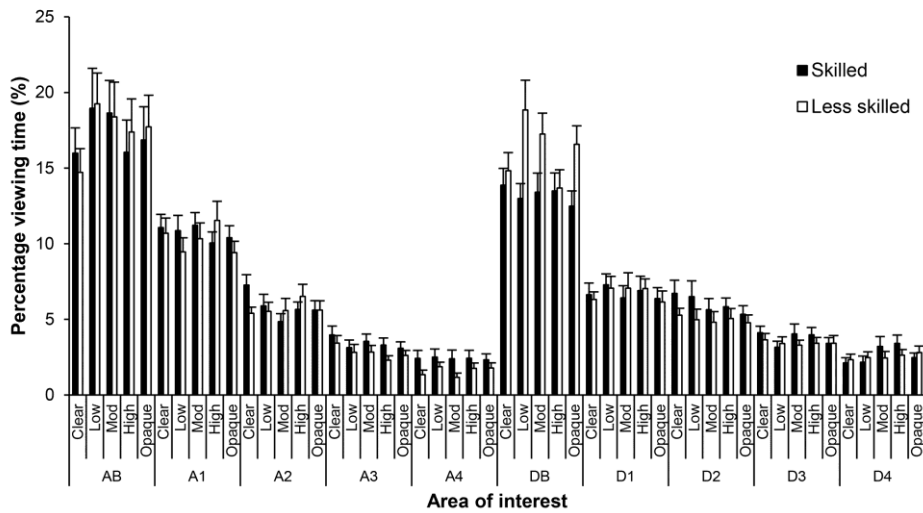
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Figure 3

a. Moving window (clear/blur)



b. Moving mask (blur/clear)



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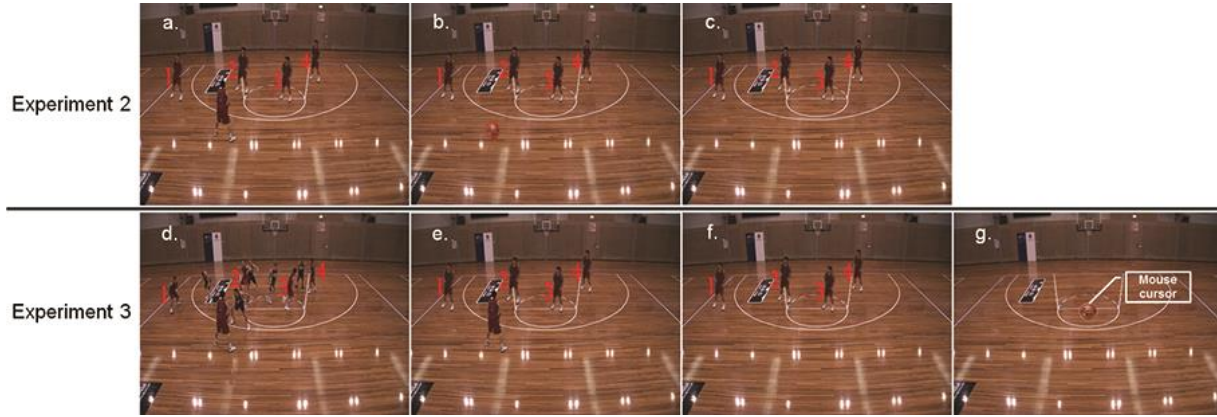
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Figure 4



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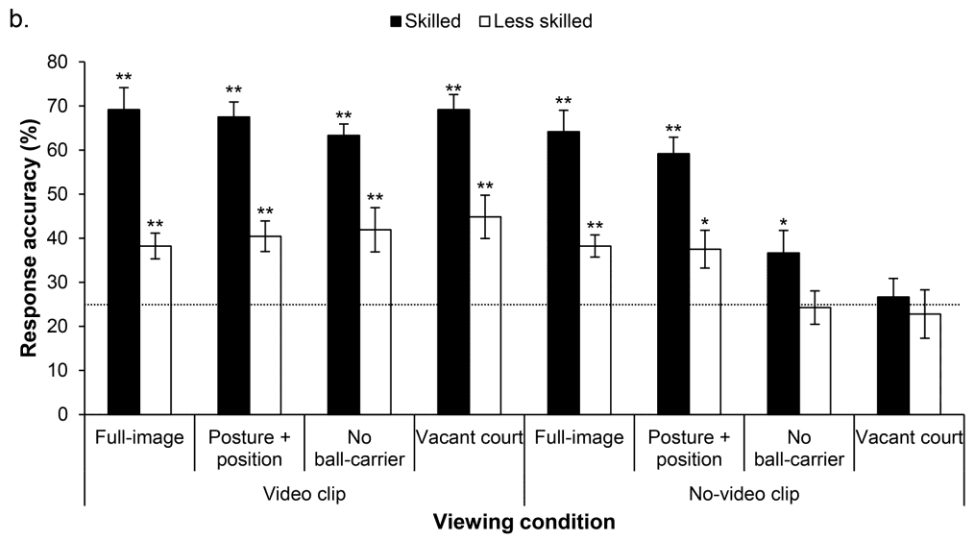
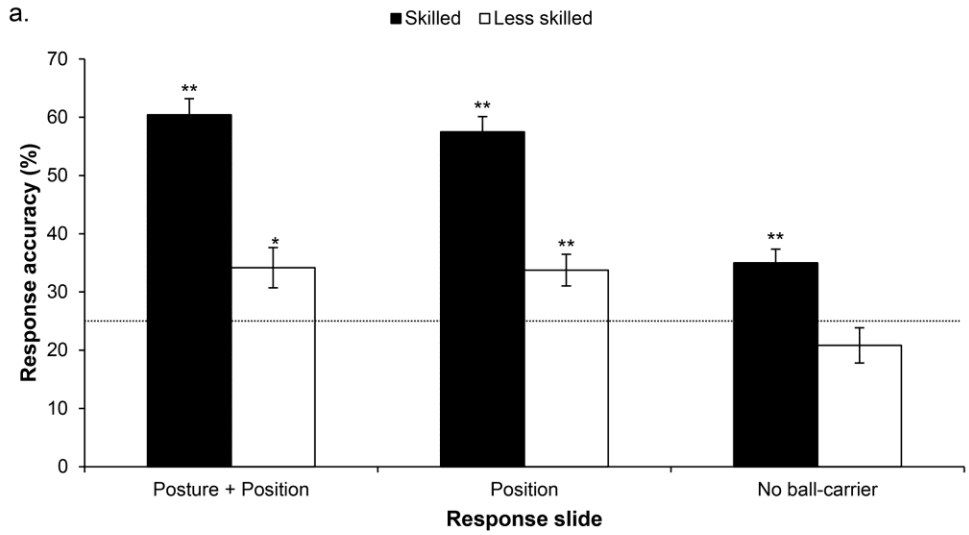
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Figure 5

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Figure 6

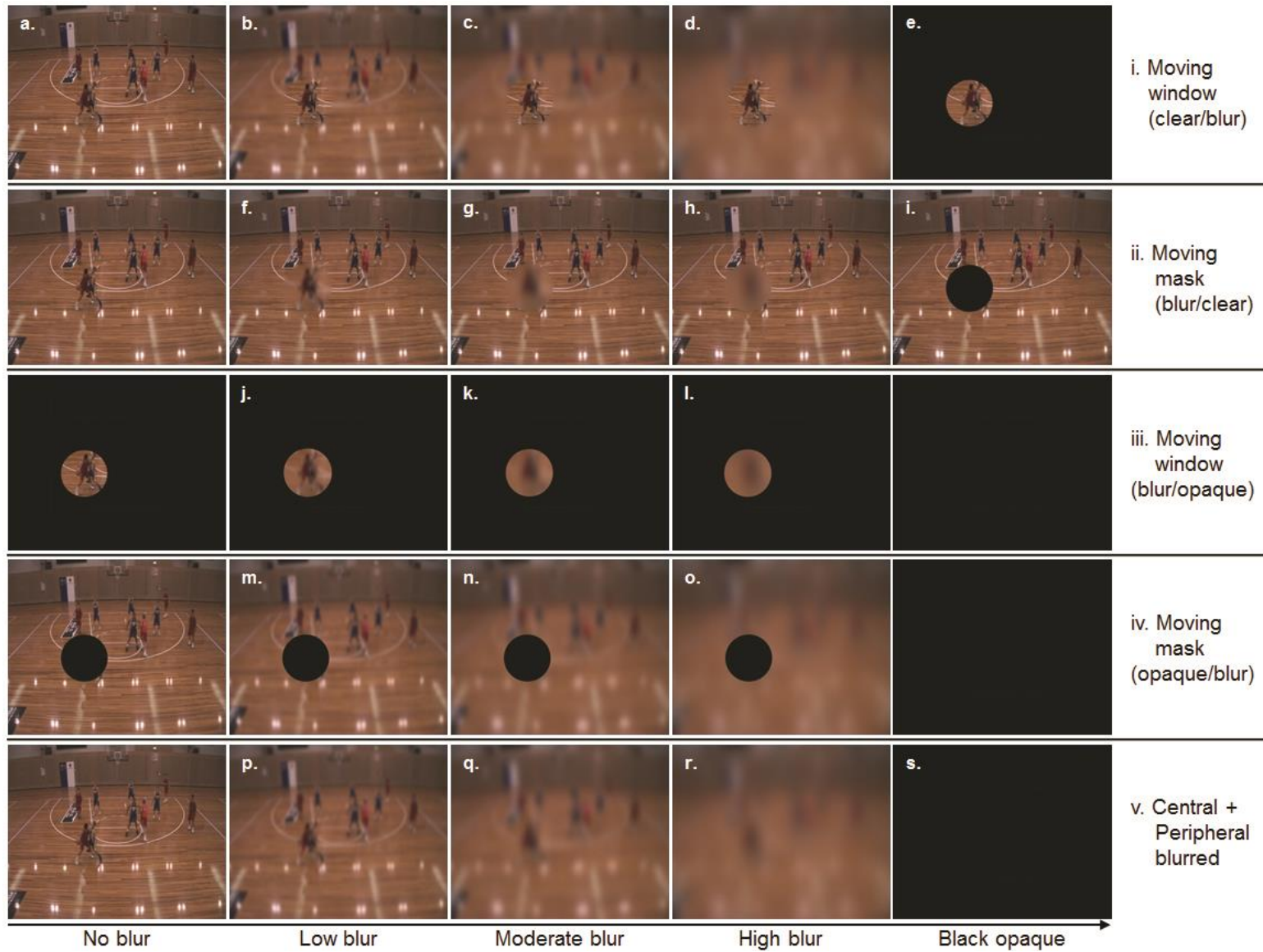


Figure 7

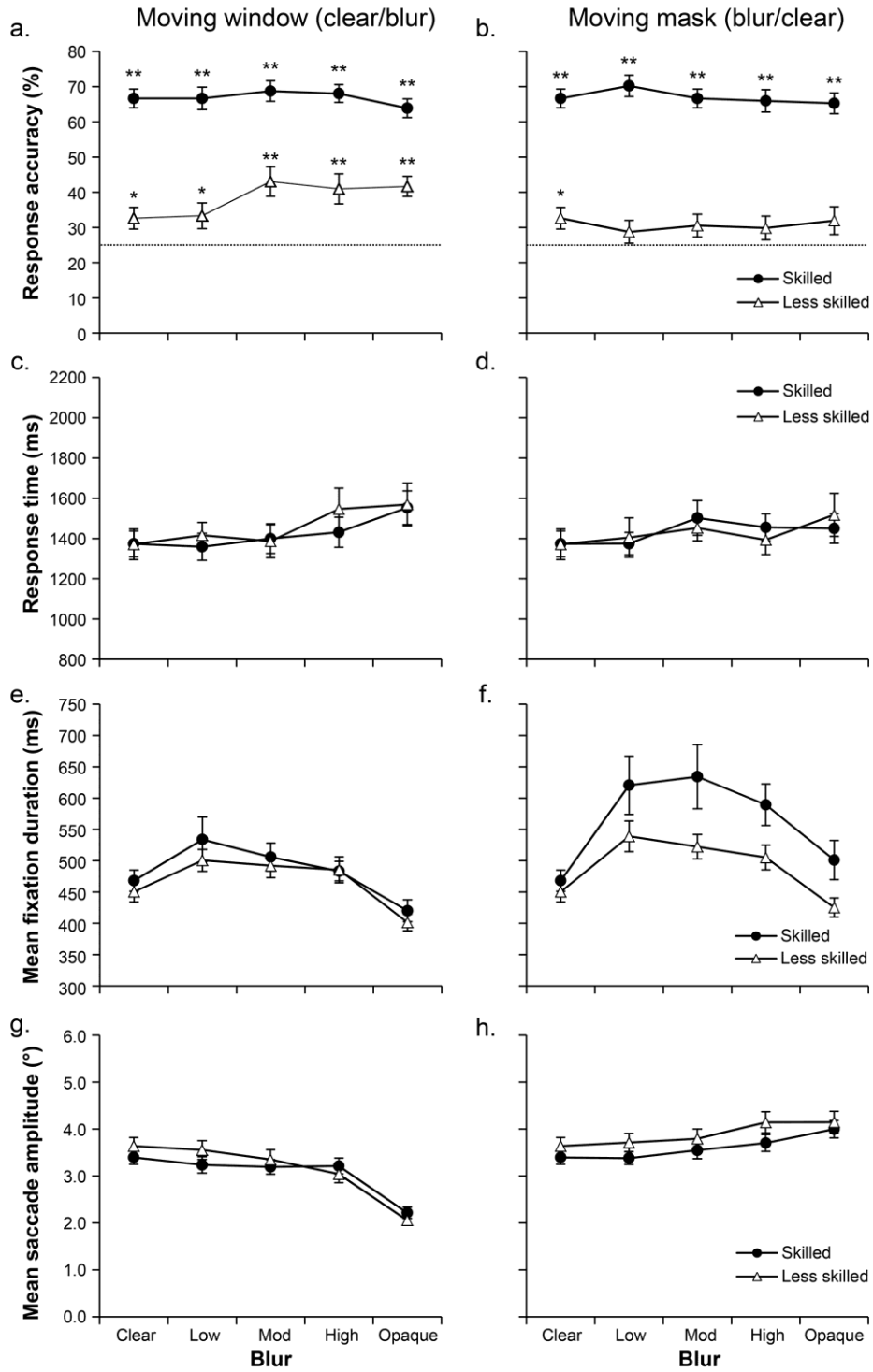
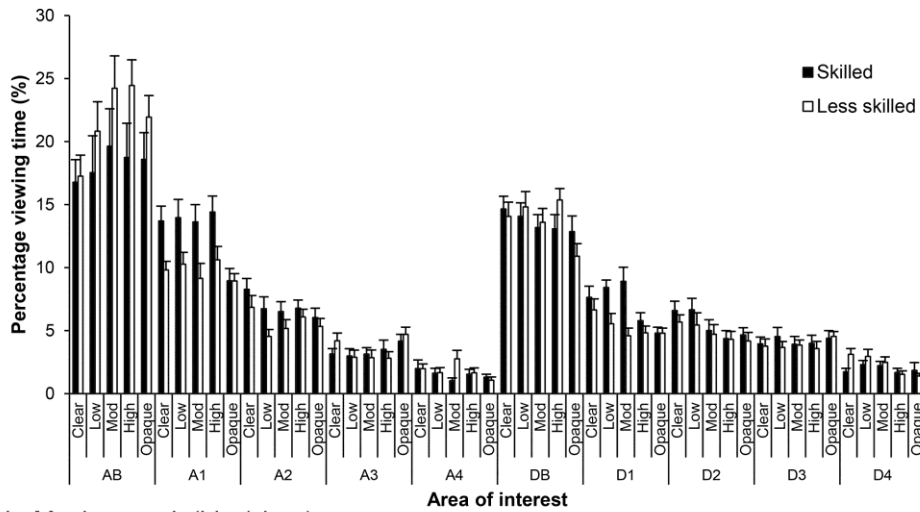


Figure 8

a. Moving window (clear/blur)



b. Moving mask (blur/clear)

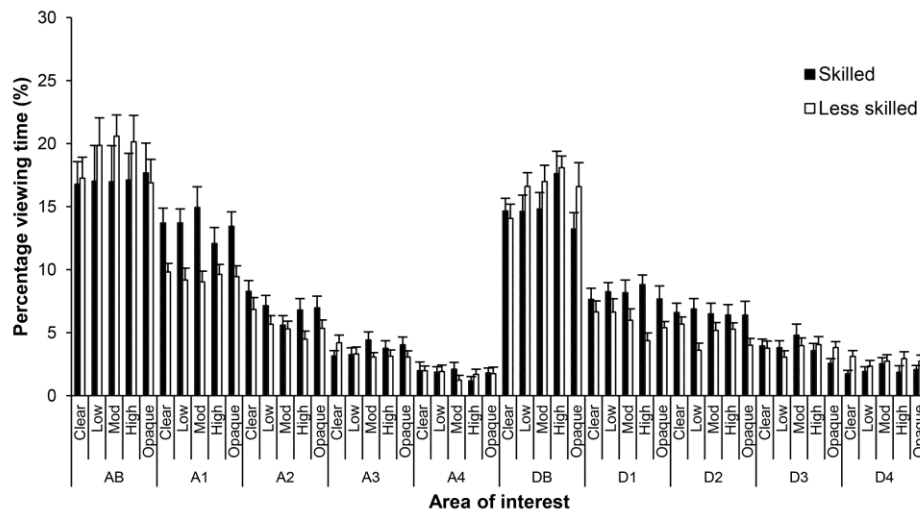


Figure 9

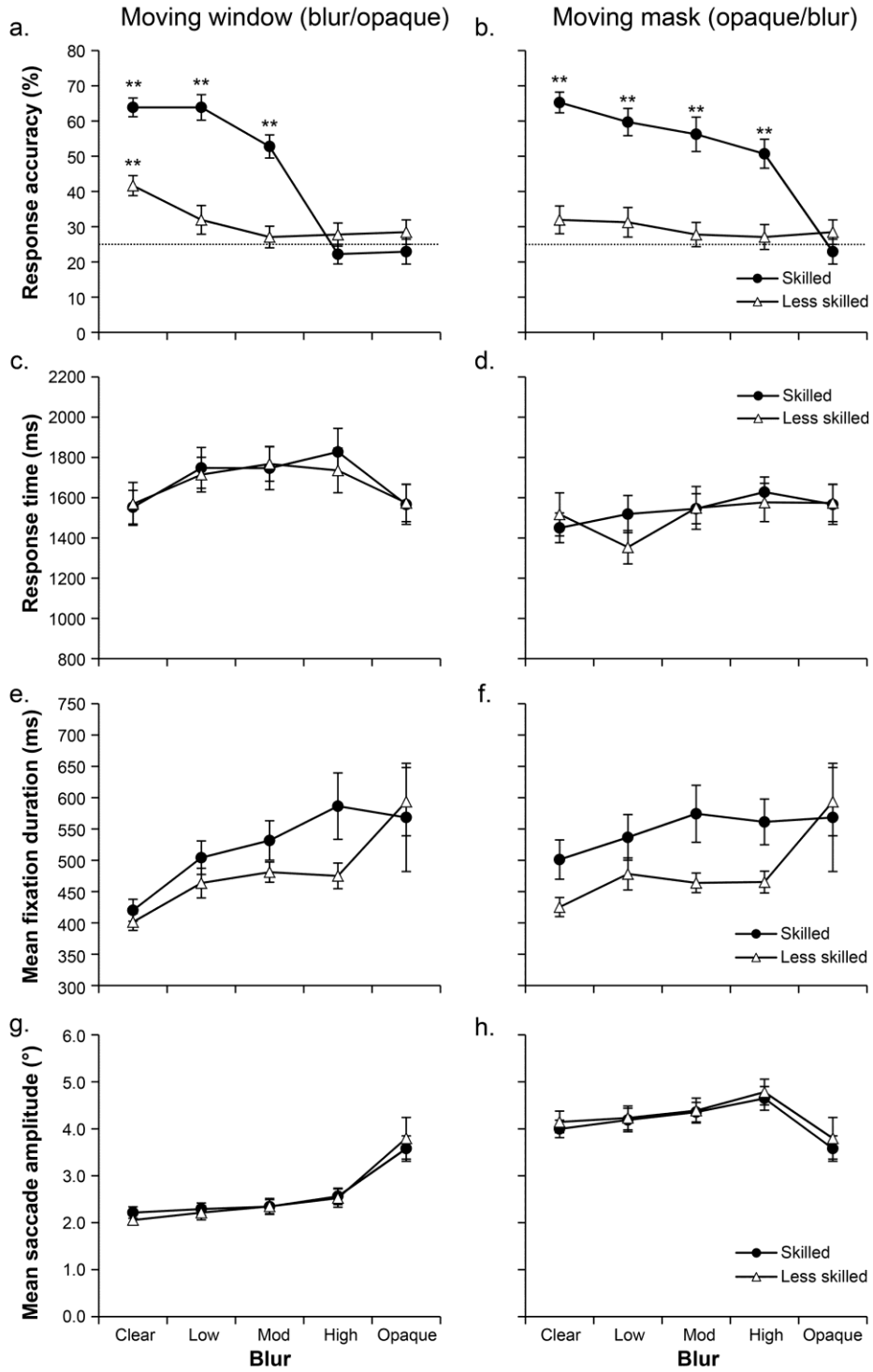
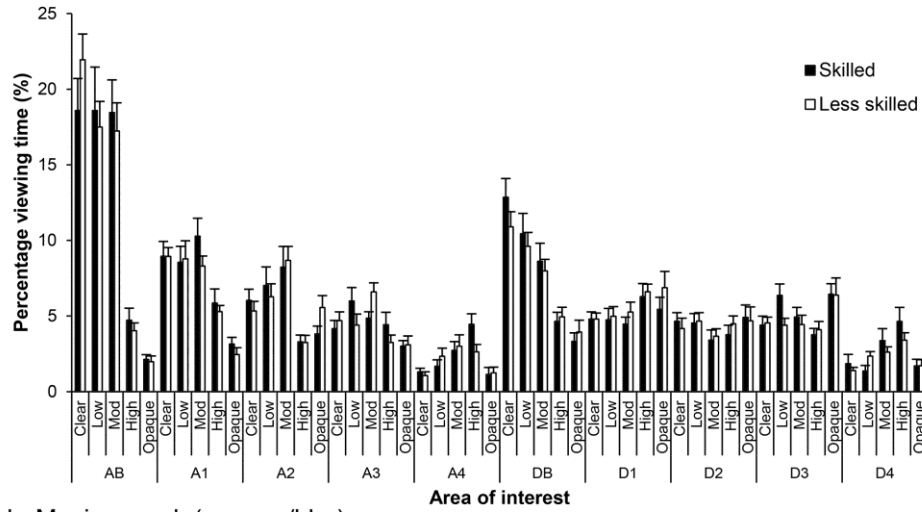


Figure 10

a. Moving window (blur/opaque)



b. Moving mask (opaque/blur)

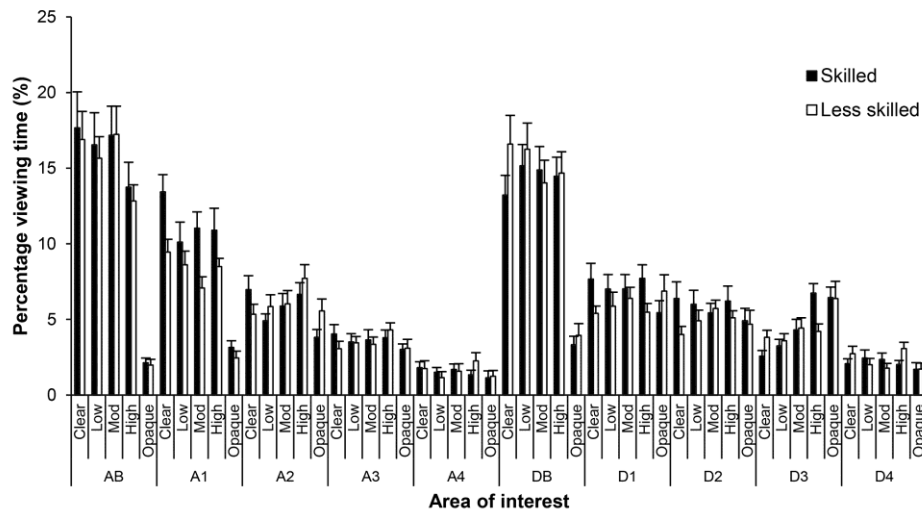


Figure 11

