

1 **Examining the importance of local and global patterns for familiarity**
2 **detection in soccer action sequences.**

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Abstract

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Pattern recognition is a defining characteristic of expertise across multiple domains. Given the dynamic interactions at local and global levels, team sports can provide a vehicle for investigating skilled pattern recognition. The aims of this study were to investigate whether global patterns could be recognised on the basis of localised relational information and if relations between certain display features were more important than others for successful pattern recognition. Elite (n = 20), skilled (n = 34), and less-skilled (n = 37) soccer players completed three recognition paradigms of stimuli presented in point-light-stimuli format across three counterbalanced conditions: ‘whole-part’; ‘part-whole’; and ‘whole-whole’. ‘Whole’ clips represented a 11v11 soccer match and ‘part’ clips presented the same passages of play with only two centre forwards or two peripheral players. Elite players recognised significantly more accurately than the skilled and less-skilled groups. Participants were significantly more accurate in the ‘whole-whole’ condition compared to others, and recognised stimuli featuring the two central attacking players significantly more accurately than those featuring peripheral players. Findings provide evidence that elite players can encode localised relations and then extrapolate this information to recognise more global macro patterns.

Keywords: pattern recognition, local and global information, expertise, soccer.

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Introduction

48 Perceptual-cognitive skill has been defined as the ability to identify and acquire
49 environmental information that is integrated with existing knowledge such that appropriate
50 responses can be selected and executed (Marteniuk, 1976). The ability to encode, store, and
51 retrieve information has been proposed to enable skilled performers to anticipate events
52 ahead of their happening and is especially important where performers operate under strict
53 temporal constraints (for reviews, see Williams et al., 2011; Williams & Jackson, 2018).
54 Perceptual-cognitive processes that encapsulate encoding, storage and retrieval have been
55 linked to expert performance in military (see Endsley & Smith, 1996; Russo et al., 2005),
56 medicine (see Sowden et al., 2000; Abernethy et al., 2008), and sport (see Williams, 2009).

57 One perceptual-cognitive skill that has consistently been shown to differentiate skilled
58 from lesser-skilled performers across a variety of domains is the ability to perceive and
59 recognise patterns within displays. The recognition paradigm involves presenting participants
60 with a series of domain-specific stimuli in an initial viewing phase. Following a short break,
61 participants then complete a recognition phase in which they are shown a further collection of
62 stimuli- some of which were presented in the viewing phase and others that are novel- and are
63 asked to respond to each stimulus as to whether they recognise it as having been presented in
64 the earlier viewing phase or not. From its origins in chess (Goldin, 1978) to facial recognition
65 research (e.g., Leder and Carbon, 2005), and sport (e.g., Williams et al., 2006), researchers
66 have reported consistent findings. Specifically, higher skilled participants (variously
67 classified as ‘experts’ ‘skilled’ or ‘elite’) demonstrate a recognition advantage (responding
68 more accurately and/or quickly) over lesser skilled participants when responding to structured
69 stimuli (i.e., those representative of typical game-based scenarios) but with this advantage
70 being lost for unstructured stimuli (i.e., those in which display features are organised
71 randomly or do not represent typical game-based scenarios).

72 More recently, researchers have progressed to focusing upon investigating the
73 processes that underpin pattern perception and recognition. For such research aims, invasion
74 sports like soccer serve as useful vehicles given that they comprise of interactions between
75 multiple display features (teammates, opponents, ball, playing field dimensions) which are
76 dynamic, and hence require performers to make decisions under temporal constraints. In
77 seeking to address *how* experts recognise patterns, Williams et al. (2006) asked skilled and
78 less-skilled soccer players to complete pattern recognition paradigms under normal video-
79 film conditions and when stimuli were converted to point-light sequences in the recognition
80 phase. Point-light stimuli represented players as coloured dots against a black background
81 (which retained playing field markings but removed all other visual information). Skilled
82 soccer players demonstrated a recognition advantage over lesser-skilled in video-film *and*
83 point-light conditions, providing initial evidence that skilled performers make use of
84 relational information between display features (i.e., players and ball) to perceive and encode
85 structure and meaning rather than isolated or superficial display features.

86 At a perceptual level, Dittrich's (1999) interactive encoding hypothesis has been used
87 to explain pattern perception and recognition in environments or contexts comprising of
88 multiple display features. Specifically, skilled performers initially employ 'bottom-up' low-
89 level processes to extract motion information and temporal relationships between features,
90 before engaging in high-level processing, where the stimulus presentation is matched with an
91 internal semantic template employing higher-order 'top-down' processes (Diderjean &
92 Marmeche, 2005; Gobet & Simon, 1996). To this end, Wong and Rogers (2007) suggest that
93 the fundamental challenge is for researchers to identify the minimal set of features which
94 enable accurate pattern recognition. They propose a similar concept in their recognition of
95 temporal patterns theory, whereby a pre-processing stage extracts only the essential
96 information for pattern classification, before matching this information to a known template

97 in memory. It is proposed that skill-level differences in pattern recognition arise because
98 skilled performers have developed more complex and refined memory representations as a
99 result of extended domain specific practice which support efficient encoding, storage and
100 retrieval (Ericsson & Kintsch, 1993). In contrast, given their lack of domain-specific practice,
101 novices have developed less sophisticated memory representations, hence meaning cannot be
102 extracted so readily, which impairs pattern recognition, and ultimately performance (Bilalic
103 et al., 2010).

104 The findings from research that has employed point-light methods (see Williams et
105 al., 2006) to manipulate the visual information available to participants has provided evidence
106 that skilled players perceive and encode relational information between display features to
107 successfully recognise patterns. Follow-up analyses employing visual search (North et al.,
108 2009) and verbal report methods (North et al., 2011) provided evidence which indicated that
109 the centrally located attacking display features and the patterns formed through their positions
110 and movements between one another were especially important to successful recognition
111 judgments. To more directly examine whether certain localised micro-relations (i.e., those
112 between central attacking display features) were more important than others to pattern
113 recognition judgments in soccer, North et al. (2017) employed a pattern recognition paradigm
114 in which skilled and less-skilled players were initially presented with full-sided (i.e., 11
115 vs.11) patterns of play shown as point-light stimuli in the viewing phase. In the subsequent
116 recognition phase, stimuli were edited so as to only present localised micro-relations across
117 three conditions; two peripheral players, two central attacking players, and two central
118 attacking players as well as the player in possession of the ball. Findings showed that skilled
119 players' recognition accuracy was significantly higher in the conditions that preserved the
120 relational information conveyed by central attacking features, with recognition accuracy
121 improving further with the addition of the player in possession of the ball. It was concluded

122 that within a global pattern, certain local patterns may be redundant to the perception and
123 recognition of the global pattern (i.e., peripheral players), whereas other local patterns are
124 more important (i.e., the central attacking players and/or player in possession of the ball),
125 when making pattern recognition judgments.

126 The proposal that localised patterns are central to recognition of a global pattern is
127 consistent with attention and perceptual processes supporting familiarity judgments across
128 other domains, including chess (e.g., see Bilalic, et al., 2010) and face recognition (e.g., see
129 Royer et al., 2015). In the latter context, and employing a similar method to North et al.
130 (2017), Leder and Carbon (2005) manipulated both the *amount* and *order* of information
131 presented in the viewing and recognition phases where either the whole face or parts of the
132 face (nose, eyes, and mouth in experiments 1 and 3, and just the eyes for experiments 2 and
133 4) were shown. Findings showed that participants were able to detect familiarity from ‘whole
134 – whole’ and ‘whole – part’ presentation. However, when presented with ‘part’ stimuli in the
135 viewing phase (i.e., nose, mouth and/or eyes) and then asked to recognise ‘whole’ stimuli
136 (i.e., the whole face) in the recognition phase, recognition accuracy was significantly
137 impaired. Based on these finding, the authors concluded that it was necessary to encode the
138 critical information within the context of the global pattern initially.

139 In another facial recognition study, Royer et al. (2015) restricted the amount of visual
140 information presented to participants by employing a ‘*bubbles technique*’, which masks large
141 areas of the face, but exposes other aspects through the medium of bubbles. When compared
142 to novices, experts needed access to fewer facial features in the initial viewing phase, to make
143 successful familiarity judgments in the subsequent recognition phase. In contrast to the work
144 of Leder and Carbon (2005), who did not examine between group skill differences, the data
145 suggested that experts were able to encode micro relations between key features (i.e., the eyes
146 in viewing condition) even when they were presented in the absence of the global pattern, and

147 that they could then extrapolate this localised relational information to recognise the global
148 pattern in the subsequent recognition phase when the whole stimulus (i.e., the whole face)
149 was presented (i.e., global pattern). Moreover, Leder and Carbon (2005) did not seek to
150 identify the relative importance of different types of facial features that may facilitate
151 recognition.

152 The experimental approaches employed by Leder and Carbon (2005) and Royer et al.
153 (2015) highlight a potential limitation with the methods used by North et al. (2017), who only
154 employed a ‘whole-part’ order of presentation from viewing to recognition phases. To this
155 end, it is unclear whether pattern recognition in contexts involving multiple, dynamic,
156 discrete display features (e.g., team invasion sports) can be successfully completed when
157 ‘part’ or localised micro-relations between features are presented initially (i.e., in the viewing
158 phase), whether successful pattern recognition can only be achieved if such micro-relations
159 are initially encoded within the context of the global pattern, or whether this is constrained by
160 the nature of the ‘part’ information presented.

161 As per the aforementioned recognition of temporal patterns theory (Wong & Rogers,
162 2007), the fundamental challenge is for researchers to identify the minimal set of features
163 which enable accurate pattern recognition. The study reported here extended upon the work
164 of North et al. (2017) by introducing a novel ‘part-whole’ condition akin to that employed in
165 research by Leder and Carbon (2005) and Royer et al. (2015) examining facial recognition.
166 The aim was to investigate whether global patterns could be recognised on the basis of
167 localised relational information between select display features. We also sought to test
168 whether relations between certain display features were more important than others for
169 successful pattern recognition. In contrast to much of the research investigating skill-based
170 differences in pattern recognition, we included multiple skill levels to establish if expertise
171 rather than simple experience causes differences to emerge. Elite (professional), skilled

172 (semi-professional), and less-skilled (recreational) participants completed three recognition
173 paradigms of stimuli presented in point-light format. The premise here was to manipulate not
174 only the type of information available, but also the order in which it was presented across
175 three counterbalanced conditions (viewing → recognition phase): ‘whole-part’; ‘part-whole’;
176 and ‘whole-whole’. Within the ‘part’ presentation, we manipulated the nature of the
177 information that was displayed (hereon referred to as *Featured Players*), which resulted in
178 either just the two central attacking players or peripheral players being shown.

179 Consistent with existing literature on pattern recognition (e.g., Williams et al., 2006),
180 a main effect for expertise was hypothesised where more skilled participants would
181 demonstrate superior overall recognition accuracy than their lesser skilled counterparts. In
182 view of the research on facial recognition (Royer et al., 2015), a main effect of recognition
183 paradigm condition was hypothesised, where recognition accuracy would be higher in the
184 ‘whole-whole’ and ‘whole-part’ conditions than in the ‘part-whole’ condition. Additionally,
185 this pattern of results was expected to be further pronounced in the more skilled players,
186 resulting in a Skill Level x Recognition Paradigm interaction. When investigating the nature
187 of information (*Featured Players*) displayed in the part conditions, a main effect for expertise
188 was hypothesised, where more skilled participants would demonstrate superior recognition
189 accuracy for stimuli in which the central attacking display features were presented (North et
190 al., 2009; 2017; Williams et al., 2012). In contrast, no skilled based differences/interactions
191 were expected for the ‘part’ condition where only the peripheral players were shown (e.g.,
192 Royer et al., 2015).

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Method

197 **Participants**

198 Using effect sizes from previous pattern recognition research (North et al. 2017), a
199 priori power calculations suggested only a small sample size was required ($n = 15$) to detect
200 the hypothesised Skill Level x Recognition Paradigm condition interaction. However, given
201 criticism that experimental research is undermined by underpowered work with low sample
202 sizes (Abt et al., 2020 cite a median sample size of $n = 19$), here we aimed to increase
203 statistical power relative to previous pattern recognition research by recruiting a larger
204 sample. To this end, 20 elite (M age = 26.4 years, $SD = 5.23$), 34 skilled (M age = 20.6 years,
205 $SD = 1.2$), and 37 less-skilled (M age = 20.7 years, $SD = 1.1$) participants (all male)
206 completed this study. Using the taxonomy put forward by Swann et al. (2015) for defining
207 expertise, participants were considered elite if they had played, or were playing, professional
208 soccer in the top 3 divisions of the English Football League (Championship, League 1,
209 League 2). Participants were considered skilled if they had played, or were currently playing,
210 soccer competitively at County (UK tier 11) level or higher. Less-skilled participants were
211 classified as such if they had never participated in soccer above recreational / Sunday league
212 standard (matches typically played on Sunday, a lower standard of competition). Written
213 informed consent was obtained from all participants and ethical approval was granted by the
214 lead University's ethics board.

215 **Test Stimuli**

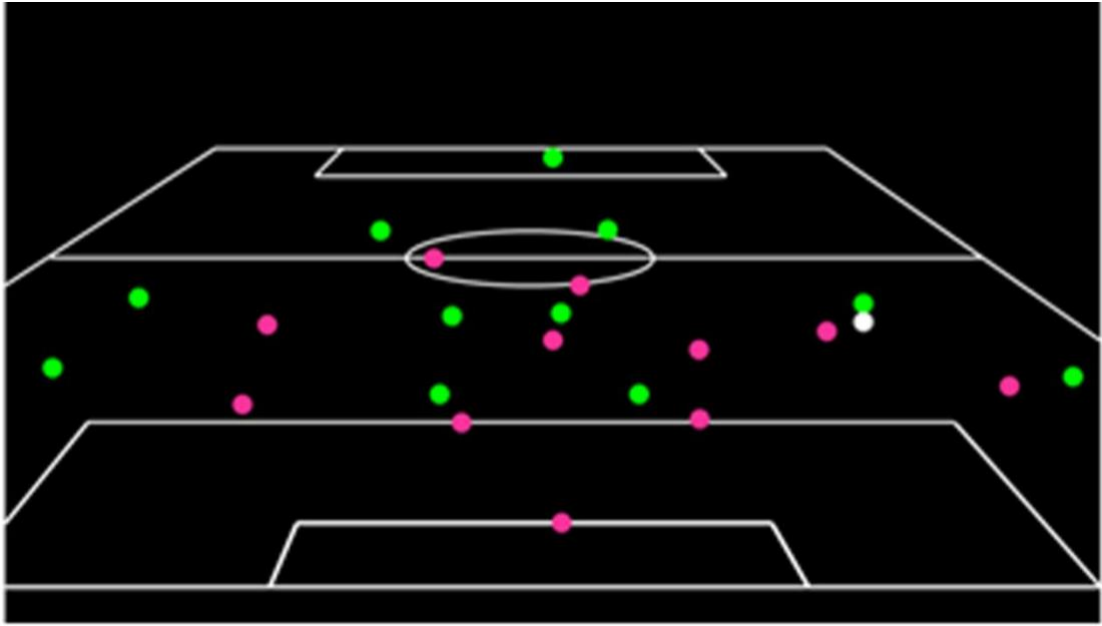
216 Stimuli were all structured soccer offensive sequences presented in point-light format
217 (for an example, see Figure 1). All stimuli presented sequences that were filmed from a raised
218 position, approximately fifteen metres behind the goal at a height of nine metres. Prior to
219 their inclusion, a battery of offensive soccer sequences was independently assessed for

220 structure by three coaches, all of whom held UEFA coaching licences, one holding the
221 highest coaching qualification offered (UEFA pro licence). For each clip, coaches rated the
222 degree of structure on a 10-point Likert-type scale (10 being a very highly structured
223 sequence of play and 1 being highly unstructured). Only those clips with a mean rating of
224 seven or higher were used in the study (as per the method previously employed by North et
225 al., 2009, 2011 and Williams et al., 2006, 2012). Original film footage was converted into
226 point-light format using the software package AnalysaSoccer2 (Liverpool John Moores
227 University) which allowed .avi clips to be reconstructed by presenting points of light against
228 a black background and then digitised. In point-light format all attacking players were
229 displayed as green dots, defensive players were presented as pink dots and the ball as a white
230 point of light (see Figure 1). Each sequence was five seconds in length, and would end when
231 the player in possession was about to make an attacking pass. The inter-trial interval was 2-
232 seconds. The stimuli were presented using an NEC video projector onto a 2.7 m x 3.7 m
233 screen. The test films were opened on a PC and displayed to participants through a Windows
234 Media player (v10) at a rate of 25 frames per second. The test stimuli for this study can be
235 found at: https://osf.io/372x5/?view_only=c93a4624991e4d39b1164c81feaa2b8d

236 **Figure 1**

237 *A Frame from a Point-Light sequence of a Soccer Match in the 'Whole' Condition*

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239

240 **Conditions**

241 *Order of Information Presentation*

242 In total, participants completed three separate recognition paradigms that were
243 counterbalanced within each of the three skill groups. The order and type of information
244 presented across the viewing and recognition phases are outlined below.

245 *Recognition paradigm 1:*

- 246 - **Whole-whole:** presented 18 whole soccer clips (i.e., 11 offensive players, 11
247 defensive players, and ball) in both the viewing and recognition phases.

248 *Recognition paradigm 2:*

- 249 - **Whole-part:** presented 18 whole soccer clips in the viewing phase, followed by 18-
250 part clips in the recognition phase. The part clips were split evenly between the
251 condition which presented just two peripheral players and the condition which
252 presented just two central attacking players, with the order of these clips randomised
253 (but kept consistent across participants).

254 *Recognition paradigm 3:*

255 - **Part-whole:** presented 18 part clips in the viewing phase, that were split evenly
256 between the condition which presented just two peripheral players and the condition
257 which presented just two central attacking players, with the order of these clips
258 randomised (but kept consistent across participants). In the recognition phase, 18
259 whole clips were then presented.

260 For each of the three recognition paradigms, of the 18 stimuli that were shown in the
261 recognition phase, 12 had been presented in the viewing phase and six were novel. For the
262 ‘whole-part’ paradigm, previously shown and novel clips were split evenly between the
263 Featured Players condition.

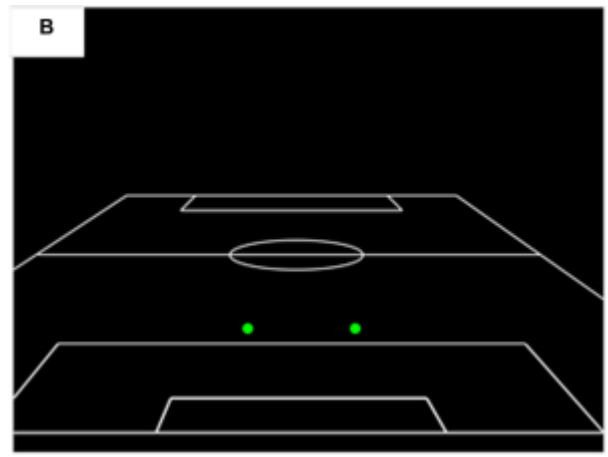
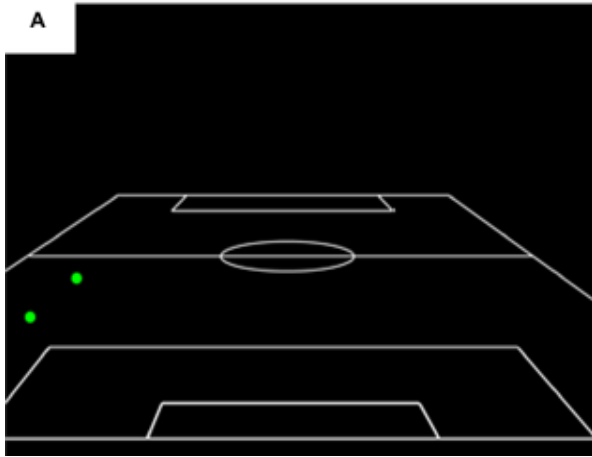
264 *Featured Players*

265 Across the viewing and recognition phases, stimuli were presented in either ‘whole’
266 or ‘part’ formats. For ‘whole’ clips all display features were presented (i.e., 11 offensive
267 players, 11 defensive players, and the ball). However, for ‘part’ clips, the displays were
268 edited to manipulate the visual information/featured players available to participants. There
269 were two ‘part’ conditions, with these being the peripheral players condition (showing two
270 peripheral players from the team in possession) or two central offensive players condition
271 (showing two central offensive players from the team in possession). Example frames from
272 the two ‘part’ conditions are show in Figure 2a and b.

273 **Figure 2a and b:**

274 *A Frame from a Point-Light Sequence Highlighting the two Featured Players Conditions*

275



281 *Note.* Both examples are for the ‘Part’ condition, with A depicting two peripheral players and
282 B two central forward players.

283

284 **Procedure**

285 All participants sat in a chair 4-metres from the projection screen, such that the image
286 subtended a viewing angle of approximately 40-degrees. Before participants received task
287 instructions, they completed a sport history questionnaire to attain information on their
288 playing history. Participants were then told that they would be presented with a series of
289 stimuli showing offensive soccer sequences that had been converted into point-light format.
290 The concept of point-light stimuli s was fully explained, with an example provided of a
291 normal video clip and then its point-light equivalent.

292 Ahead of the viewing phase in each recognition paradigm, participants were informed
293 that 18 five-second clips would be presented in total as either ‘whole’ (11 v11 soccer game)
294 or ‘part’ form (with only two select players shown). To familiarise participants with these
295 display modes they were shown an example of a ‘whole’ and ‘part’ clip. When viewing the
296 clips, participants were instructed to watch them as if they were a central defensive player but
297 that no response was required during the viewing phase. Following the viewing phase,
298 participants had a 10-minute break before commencing the next part of the study; the
299 recognition phase. For the recognition phase, participants were informed that they would be

300 presented with a further 18 stimuli but that now they would be asked to provide a response
301 following the presentation of each stimulus. Specifically, for the ‘whole-whole’ condition,
302 they were asked to indicate whether they recognised each clip as having been presented in the
303 preceding viewing phase (respond ‘yes’) or not (respond ‘no’). For the ‘whole-part’ and
304 ‘part-whole’ paradigms, participants were instructed that some of the clips in the recognition
305 phase were edited versions of clips that had been presented in the viewing phase, whereas
306 others were edited versions of clips that had not been presented previously. So, in these
307 recognition paradigms, participants were asked to respond ‘yes’ or ‘no’ as to whether each
308 clip in the recognition paradigm was an edited version of one presented in the earlier viewing
309 phase. For each of the three recognition paradigms, all participants were asked to watch each
310 video clip in its entirety before responding and if a participant missed a clip they were asked
311 not to respond. There was a 60-minute washout period between each recognition paradigm to
312 reduce the potential effects of boredom and fatigue.

313 **Data Analysis**

314 Recognition accuracy was determined by dividing the total number of correct
315 recognition judgements by the total number of video clips presented and then multiplying this
316 by 100 to calculate a percentage score for overall recognition performance and for each
317 respective condition (*Recognition Paradigm* and *Featured Players*). To examine overall
318 performance for *Skill Level* by *Recognition Paradigm*, a mixed design Analysis of Variance
319 (ANOVA) was run, where the between-participant factor was *Skill Level* (elite vs. skilled vs.
320 less skilled) and the within-participant factor *Recognition Paradigm* (‘whole-part’ vs. ‘part-
321 whole’ vs. ‘whole-whole’).

322 To isolate the effects of the *order* in which the information was presented as well as
323 the *type* of the information presented in the ‘part’ conditions (i.e., *Featured Players*), we

324 removed the ‘whole-whole’ condition from our analyses. We then conducted a second mixed
325 design ANOVA, where *Skill Level* was the between participants factor and there were two
326 within participants factors; *Recognition Paradigm*, comparing performance between the
327 ‘part-whole’ and ‘whole-part’ conditions, and *Featured Players* in the ‘part’ conditions,
328 comparing performance between the two central offensive players and the two peripheral
329 players. Partial eta squared values were calculated to provide measures of effect size for
330 interactions and main effects and Cohen’s *d* values were also calculated for comparisons
331 between two means. All post hoc tests were conducted using Bonferroni-corrected
332 comparisons with the alpha level for statistical significance set at $p < 0.05$. The full data for
333 this study can be found at
334 https://osf.io/372x5/?view_only=c93a4624991e4d39b1164c81feaa2b8d

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Results

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Total Performance for *Skill Level* by *Recognition Paradigm* Condition

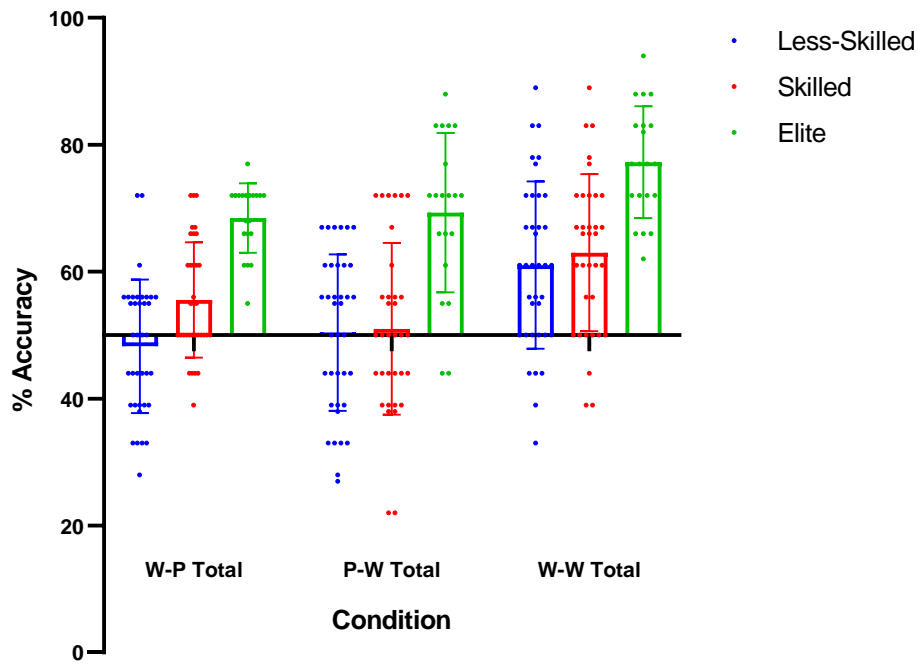
338

Figure 3

339

Recognition Accuracy (%) Scores across the Paradigm Conditions

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341

342 *Note.* Whole-whole condition = W-W, whole-part condition = W-P, and part-whole = P-W.

343 Individual data points are presented alongside mean and standard deviation.

344 There was a main effect of *Skill Level* on recognition accuracy ($F_{2, 88} = 52.093, p <$
 345 $0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.54$). Post hoc comparisons showed that elite players recognised more
 346 accurately than the skilled ($p < 0.001, d = 0.850$) and less-skilled groups ($p < 0.001, d = 1.05$).
 347 There was no difference in recognition accuracy between the skilled and less-skilled groups
 348 ($p = 0.121, d = 0.22$).

349 **Table 1**

350 *Mean Recognition Accuracy (%) across Paradigm Condition as a Function of Skill Level*

351

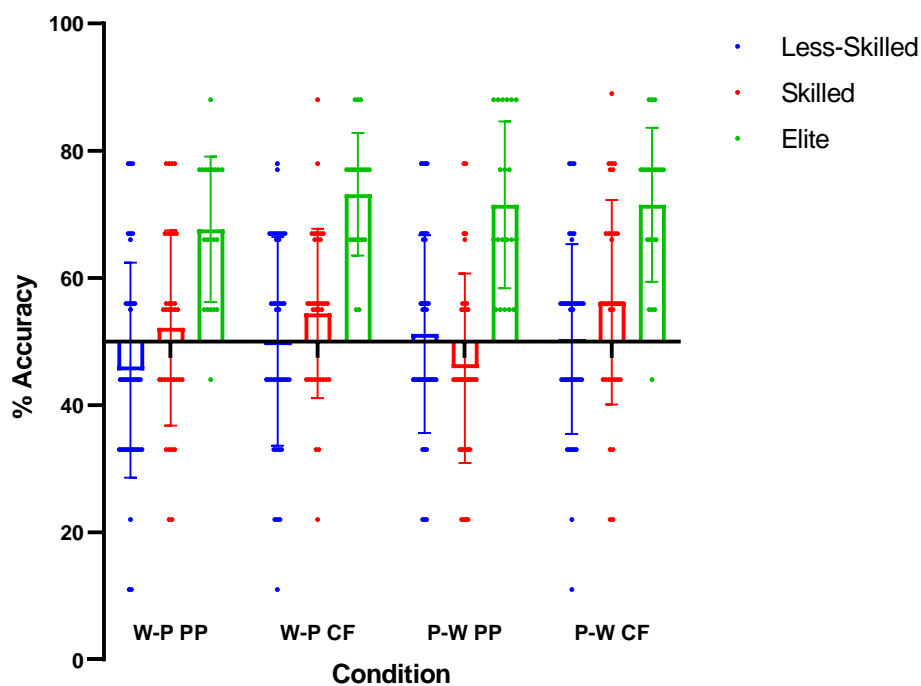
Group/Condition	Whole-whole	Whole-part	Part-whole	Total
Elite	77.25 (8.80)	68.45 (5.54)	69.30 (12.53)	71.67 (10.06)
Skilled	63.00 (12.38)	55.56 (9.09)	51.00 (13.52)	56.52 (13.70)
Less-skilled	61.03 (13.17)	48.24 (10.53)	50.41 (12.31)	53.22 (13.20)
Combined	67.09 (11.45)	57.42 (8.36)	56.90 (13.12)	60.47 (9.34)

355 There was a main effect of *Recognition Paradigm* on recognition accuracy, ($F_{2, 176} =$
 356 $21.503, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.196$). Post hoc comparisons revealed that participants were more
 357 accurate in the ‘whole-whole’ condition compared to the ‘whole-part’ ($p < 0.001, d = 0.58$),
 358 and the ‘part-whole’ conditions ($p < 0.001, d = 0.61$). There was no difference between
 359 ‘whole-part’ and ‘part-whole’ ($p = 0.769, d = 0.03$) conditions. There was also no *Skill Level*
 360 by *Recognition Paradigm* interaction ($F_{4, 176} = 1.030, p = 0.393, \eta_p^2 = 0.023$; Figure 3).

361 **Featured Players**

362 **Figure 4**

363 *Recognition Accuracy (%) Scores for the Featured Players Conditions*



364

365 *Note.* Whole-part condition = W-P, and part-whole condition = P-W. Peripheral players
 366 condition = PP, and central forwards condition = CF. Individual data points are presented
 367 alongside mean and standard deviation.

368 As per Figure 4, when considering the visual information presented in the ‘part’
 369 conditions, there remained a main effect of *Skill Level* on recognition accuracy ($F_{2, 88} =$
 370 $57.043, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.57$). Post hoc comparisons showed that elite players recognised
 371 more accurately than skilled ($p < 0.001, d = 0.92$) and less-skilled ($p < 0.001, d = 1.08$)
 372 groups. There was no difference between the skilled and less-skilled groups ($p = 0.345, d =$
 373 0.17). Similarly, there was no main effect of *Recognition Paradigm* on recognition accuracy,
 374 ($F_{1, 88} = 0.161, p = 0.690, \eta_p^2 = 0.002$).

375 **Table 2**

376 *Recognition Accuracy (%) as a Function of Order and Skill Level for Featured Players*

Order	Condition	Group	Mean (SD)
Part-whole	Central Forwards	Elite	71.50 (12.10)
		Skilled	56.17 (16.06)
		Less-skilled	50.41 (14.93)
		Combined	59.36 (10.9)
	Peripheral Players	Elite	71.50 (13.11)
		Skilled	45.82 (14.89)
		Less-skilled	51.19 (15.54)
		Combined	56.17 (11.06)
Whole-part	Central Forwards	Elite	73.15 (9.63)
		Skilled	54.44 (13.31)
		Less-skilled	50.03 (16.42)
		Combined	59.21 (12.27)
	Peripheral Players	Elite	67.65 (11.44)
		Skilled	52.15 (15.34)
		Less-skilled	45.49 (16.91)
		Combined	55.10 (11.37)

377

378 There was, however, a main effect of *Featured Players* ($F_{1, 88} = 5.977, p = 0.016, \eta_p^2 = 0.064$). Stimuli featuring the two central forwards were recognised more accurately than
 379 those featuring peripheral players ($p = 0.016, d = 0.26$).
 380

381 There was no *Skill Level* x *Recognition Paradigm* interaction ($F_{2,88} = 1.279, p =$
382 $0.283, \eta_p^2 = 0.028$), *Skill Level* x *Featured Players* interaction ($F_{2,88} = 0.994, p = 0.374, \eta_p$
383 $^2 = 0.022$) or *Recognition Paradigm* x *Featured Players* interaction ($F_{1,88} = 0.72, p = 0.789,$
384 $\eta_p^2 = 0.001$). There was also no three-way interaction between *Skill Level*, *Recognition*
385 *Paradigm* and *Featured Players* ($F_{2,88} = 1.923, p = 0.152, \eta_p^2 = 0.042$).

386

387

Discussion

388 In this study we aimed to further investigate whether skilled performers were able to
389 recognise global patterns on the basis of localised relational information between select
390 display features. Having hypothesised, that skilled performers would be able to recognise
391 global patterns through localised relational information (Williams et al., 2006; North et al.,
392 2017), we also sought to test whether relations between certain display features were more
393 important than others for successful pattern recognition. We found skill-based differences
394 across all three recognition paradigms, with elite players being significantly more accurate in
395 recognising stimuli than skilled and less-skilled groups.

396 While we cannot confirm the exact causal mechanisms by which expertise effects
397 were observed, given the nature of the stimuli employed, our findings lend support to the
398 interactive encoding hypothesis proposed by Dittrich (1999). Specifically, skilled performers
399 initially employ low-level processes to extract motion information as well as temporal
400 relationships between features before engaging in high-level processing, where the stimulus
401 presentation is matched with an internal semantic template to govern skilled familiarity
402 judgements (Diderjean & Marneche, 2005; Gobet & Simon, 1996). In view of the
403 recognition of temporal patterns theory conceptualised by Wong and Rogers (2007), expertise
404 effects in pattern recognition can arise because skilled performers have developed more

405 complex and refined higher-order memory representations as a result of extended domain
406 specific practice which support efficient encoding, storage and retrieval of information (see
407 Long-Term Working Memory Theory by Ericsson & Kintsch, 1995). This could explain the
408 main effect for skill level throughout all three recognition paradigms in the present study,
409 especially given the relative approach employed (Chi, 2006), and the three distinct skill levels
410 examined with ‘real’ experts recruited (Swann et al., 2015). As predicted, there was a main
411 effect of *Recognition Paradigm* on performance, with participants significantly more accurate
412 in the ‘whole-whole’ condition than the ‘whole-part’ and ‘part-whole’ conditions. These
413 findings support previous research, where superior familiarity judgments are observed when
414 full-sided stimuli are presented in both the viewing and recognition phases, respectively (e.g.,
415 Williams & Davids, 1998; Williams et al., 2006; North et al., 2017). This finding is also
416 consistent with research investigating facial recognition, where whole faces were recognised
417 more easily than a collection of facial features presented separately, owing to a greater
418 number of important configurations and holistic processing (Leder & Carbon, 2005). From a
419 theoretical perspective, the encoding specificity principle (Tulving & Thomson, 1973) may
420 help to explain findings, and the importance of maintaining specificity between encoding
421 (i.e., viewing phase) and retrieval contexts (i.e., recognition phase), which facilitated
422 recognition performance in the ‘whole-whole’ condition for all participants.

423 Consistent with the findings reported by North et al. (2017), the nature of information
424 in the ‘part’ conditions affected recognition. A main effect of *Featured Players* was
425 observed, where participants were more accurate in recognising stimuli that retained the
426 positions and movements of central offensive features than stimuli that presented positions
427 and movements of peripheral players, supporting the importance of these micro relations to
428 pattern recognition. However, and contrary to our predictions and the work on facial
429 recognition by Royer and colleagues (2015), there was no *Skill Level* x *Recognition*

430 *Paradigm* interaction, as elite players showed no difference between the ‘part-whole’ and
431 ‘whole-part’ paradigms. Further, there was no three-way interaction between *Skill Level*,
432 *Recognition Paradigm* and *Featured Players*. Our findings therefore suggest that for the
433 ‘part-whole’ recognition paradigm condition, experts were able to encode micro relations
434 between key features in the initial viewing phase and then extrapolate this information in the
435 subsequent recognition phase where the whole pattern was presented to successfully inform
436 their familiarity judgments.

437 Similarly, and replicating the work of North et al. (2017), our findings suggest that for
438 the ‘whole-part’ condition, experts were able to encode the key localised micro relations from
439 the whole pattern and then accurately recognise this information in the subsequent
440 recognition phase where only the central forwards were presented. In view of the
441 aforementioned encoding specificity principle (Tulving & Thomson, 1973) it appears that the
442 micro relations initially presented maintained sufficient specificity between the encoding and
443 retrieval contexts to facilitate successful recognition performance for the elite players. With
444 regards to the other skill levels, there was also no main effect of *Recognition Paradigm* on
445 recognition accuracy. Crucially, however, their performance was around chance level (skilled
446 = 52.15%, less skilled = 49.28%) with no interaction effects observed across the conditions.
447 This lends further support to conclusions drawn in previous research that experts can
448 recognise global patterns through micro relations between key display features (i.e., those
449 centrally located), whereas lesser-skilled players appear unable to do so (see North et al.,
450 2017).

451 While our work is more conceptually driven, from an applied perspective the finding
452 that experts can recognise more macro global patterns having only previously been presented
453 with localised relations between certain key display features seemingly lends support to the
454 growing popularity of small-sided games (SSGs) as a training method in sport to enhance

455 physical, technical and tactical skills (Sarmiento, 2018). More specifically, training in practice
456 contexts where players are exposed to just two or three opponents could develop important
457 perceptual-cognitive skills that transfer to a full-sided context. This seems particularly
458 pertinent given pattern recognition has been consistently shown to be a defining characteristic
459 of expertise in team-based sports (Williams & Davids, 1995; Abernethy et al., 2005; Gorman
460 et al., 2011).

461 In this study we garnered a considerably larger sample than in most previous research
462 in this area. Further, we recruited an elite level group comprising professional soccer players,
463 who demonstrated clear expertise effects relative to the lesser skilled groups. The lack of
464 skill-based differences between these latter groups alongside the increased statistical power
465 and enhanced group structure, suggests that you have to be a ‘*real*’ expert before skill level
466 effects are observed and expertise studies in this field must endeavour to recruit highly skilled
467 samples (Swann et al., 2015). Nevertheless, there are some limitations that are important to
468 highlight. Specifically, future research may wish to employ more realistic video footage, such
469 as first-person viewing perspectives (e.g., Roca et al., 2013) or immersive technology to
470 increase both the action fidelity and functionality of the task, in order to elicit greater expert-
471 novice differences (Travassos et al., 2013; Stone et al., 2018). Akin to previous research, but
472 more of a challenge when increasing power, processing tracing measures such as verbal
473 reports or visual search behaviour could also be employed to gain a greater understanding of
474 the nature of information constraining familiarity judgements across the different recognition
475 paradigms (Roca et al., 2011; North et al., 2009; 2011). To this end, and while we have
476 explained our findings through the two-stage interactive encoding hypothesis proposed by
477 Dittrich (1999), a more direct measure of the low-level processes employed to extract and
478 encode motion information would help to broaden our understanding of the causal
479 mechanisms underpinning the expertise effects observed. For example, we cannot discount

480 how these may have resulted from superior lower-level memory structures (i.e., short-term
481 memory) in the encoding and retrieval of information, rather than high-level processes (e.g.,
482 LTWM). Finally, future work may wish to undertake qualitative research on pattern
483 recognition to garner richer information on this perceptual-cognitive skill from both a player
484 and coach perspective, which may better inform training design, especially around the use of
485 SSGs for tactical development in sport.

486 In this paper we have extended understanding of perceptual processes informing
487 pattern recognition in environments comprising of multiple dynamic features by manipulating
488 both the type and order in which visual stimuli were presented. Specifically, and in line with
489 previous research (e.g., North et al., 2017) central offensive players appear to be crucial
490 features constraining pattern recognition for soccer action sequences. Additionally, and
491 through our experimental design employing a ‘part-whole’ condition, we have provided novel
492 findings to more directly evidence that elite players are able to encode localised relations
493 between key features and then extrapolate this information to recognise more global macro
494 patterns; whereas lesser-skilled players appeared unable to do so. Our findings have
495 potentially important implications for practice design in developing pattern recognition
496 expertise in team-based sports, albeit further research is needed to more directly investigate
497 this concept.

498

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