

Expert–Novice Differences in Brain Function of Field Hockey Players

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Abstract

The aims of this study were to use functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) to examine the neural bases for perceptual-cognitive superiority in a hockey anticipation task. Thirty participants (15 hockey players, 15 non-hockey players) lay in an MRI scanner while performing a video-based task in which they predicted the direction of an oncoming shot in either a hockey or a badminton scenario. Video clips were temporally occluded either 160ms before the shot was made or 60ms after the ball/shuttle left the stick/racquet. Behavioural data showed a significant hockey expertise x video type interaction in which hockey experts were superior to novices with hockey clips but there were no significant differences with badminton clips. The imaging data on the other hand showed a significant main effect of hockey expertise and of video type (hockey versus badminton), but the expertise x video type interaction did not survive either a whole-brain or a small volume correction for multiple comparisons. Further analysis of the expertise main effect revealed that when watching hockey clips, experts showed greater activation in the rostral inferior parietal lobule, which has been associated with an action observation network, and greater activation than novices in Brodmann areas 17 and 18 and middle frontal gyrus when watching badminton videos. The results provide partial support both for domain-specific and domain-general expertise effects in an action anticipation task.

Key words: fMRI, sport, action observation network, action anticipation, hockey, badminton

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1. Introduction

Research has indicated that expert athletes have better visual and motor skills than novices (e.g. Cañal-Bruland, Lotz, Hagemann, Schorer & Strauss, 2011; Kato & Fukida, 2002; Le Runigo, Benguigui & Bardy, 2010; Piras, Pierantozzi & Squatrito, 2014; Ward & Williams, 2003). Further, advanced cue utilisation research has found that a key component of elite sports performance involves the ability to predict and anticipate the behaviour of other players. This has been shown in sports including football (Dicks, Button & Davids, 2010), cricket (Müller, Abernethy & Farrow, 2006), volleyball (Schorer, Rienhoff, Fischer & Baker, 2013), squash (Abernethy, 1990), tennis (Loffing & Hagemann, 2014) and badminton (Abernethy, 1988).

The neural underpinnings of perceptual-motor expertise have been studied in many domains including imitation of hand actions in guitarists (Vogt et al., 2007), motor imagery (Guillet, Collet, Nguyen, Malouin, Richards, & Doyon, 2008), learning of action sequences in pianists (Landau & D'Esposito, 2006) and dance (Calvo-Merino et al., 2005). Recently, there have been several fMRI studies of the superior perceptual-motor abilities of expert sports players. Wright, Bishop, Jackson and Abernethy (2010) found that expert badminton players, when predicting the part of the court to which a shot was aimed, exhibited greater activity than novices in a set of brain areas integral to action observation, imagery and execution, often referred to as the action observation network (AON). A further experiment using point-light stimuli showed essentially similar results (Wright, Bishop, Jackson & Abernethy,

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2011). Likewise, AON activation and expertise effects have been reported for tennis (Balsler, et al. 2014a), basketball (Abreu, Macaluso, Azevedo, Cesari, Urgesi & Aglioti, 2012) and football (Bishop, et al., 2013; Wright, et al. 2014). One crucial skill component common to such sports is the ability to anticipate what an opponent is going to do next and this is one skill which sets experts apart from novices (e.g. Abernethy, 1990; Abernethy, Zawi & Jackson, 2008). Often these studies employ temporal occlusion techniques and experts seem to be constantly superior at using the earliest information available from an opponent's body kinematics (e.g. Jones & Miles, 1978; Houlston & Lowes, 1993; Jackson, 1986). Thus, in the present work, a temporal occlusion paradigm will be used to explore expert-novice differences in the brain mechanisms underlying advance cue utilisation as participants make judgements of shot direction in the sport of field hockey.

A second area for investigation in the present study is to see whether the 'expert brain' also functions differently from the 'novice brain' when performing a task in which neither group of participants has any experience. There has been very little work to explore this possibility. The only behavioural studies currently in this area focus on pattern recognition. Smeeton, Ward and Williams (2004) found that the skilled footballers and hockey players were able to transfer perceptual information or strategies between their respective sports. In a similar paper (Abernethy, Baker & Côte, 2005), expert netball, basketball and hockey players and a control group performed a recall task for patterns of play derived from each of these sports. Experts consistently outperformed the non-expert controls in their recall of

defensive player positions in their non-preferred sports, suggesting some selective transfer of pattern recall skills.

However, other studies suggest domain-specific rather than domain-general expertise. Calvo Merino et al., (2005) investigated whether the action observation system is specifically tuned to an individual's motor repertoire by including two differing types of dancer, experts in classical ballet and experts in capoeira, as well as inexpert control subjects. Their results showed that there were greater bilateral activations in AON areas when an expert viewed movements that they had been trained to perform compared to movements they had not. Aglioti, Cesari, Romani and Urgesi (2008) asked athletes (basketball players), expert watchers (coaches and sports journalists involved with basketball) and novices to predict the outcome of free throws in basketball or kicks at goal in football. They found that basketball players could predict the outcome of free throws in basketball earlier and more accurately than either novices or expert watchers. Using single-pulse transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) they found an increase in motor evoked potentials (MEPs) in athletes when they were observing the basketball free throw but not the football kick, suggesting that the brain sends out different messages when watching a clip of a sport in which an athlete actively competes. Balsler et al. (2014b) compared expert tennis players and expert volleyball players using video clips of both sports, with each group acting as novice controls in the sports for which they were not expert. This meant that the 'novice' groups still had high levels of anticipation experience as well being used to making decisions under time pressure. Their results nevertheless maintained a difference between the two groups with

domain specific stimulus material; experts experiencing increased activation within the AON, particularly the pre-supplementary motor area, the superior parietal lobule, as well as broad sections of the cerebellum.

However, in a recent critique, Press and Cook (2015) argue that the case for domain-specific motor effects on action observation is weaker than is commonly supposed. They point out that many domain-general effects of motor processes on perception have been identified, and argue that the apparent domain-specific effects reported could be mediated by low-level properties of the stimuli and task such as spatiotemporal perception and attention.

Thus, in the present study we further explore whether expertise in one sporting domain confers an advantage in a different, non-expert, domain and whether experts show differences in brain activation patterns from novices in this non-expert sporting domain. Instead of using two groups of experts as in the above mentioned Balsler et al. (2014b) study, it was decided to have experts and novices, but to include a task in which both groups would be novices in order to see if differences in activation still occurred. From the little behavioural research carried out in this area it would seem that some transfer of perceptual skills is possible. However, if research on the importance of specific motor expertise in action observation (Calvo-Merino, et al., 2005; Aglioti, et al., 2008; Balsler et al., 2014b) is taken into account it may be expected that brain function of expert hockey players may not differ from novice hockey players when watching badminton clips. This is because, as the study by Calvo-Merino and colleagues shows, the action

observation system is very specific in its activation. Finally we point out that domain-specific and domain-general effects are not mutually exclusive, and that both may occur.

We therefore set out to test four main hypotheses: a) that there are domain specific effects of hockey expertise on prediction accuracy in hockey and badminton video stimuli, b) that there are domain-specific effects of hockey expertise on fMRI activations in the same task, c) that there are domain-general effects of hockey expertise on prediction accuracy and d) that there are domain-general effects on fMRI activations.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

Fifteen hockey players, ranging in ability from club level to senior international (mean age 28.7, SD 7.3, 10 male and 5 female, average years' experience of competitive hockey = 8.86, SD 5.6), and 15 non-hockey players (mean age 22.1, SD 3.5, 9 male and 6 female) took part in the study. All participants had a minimum education level of having at least begun a university degree. The hockey players were recruited through the first author's contacts in various hockey teams and clubs. The non-hockey players were recruited through the university or were friends of the hockey players who also wanted to take part. No participants from either group had any experience playing badminton beyond school PE lessons. None of the participants reported regularly watching badminton and none of the non-hockey

players reported regularly watching hockey. All had normal or corrected to normal vision. All participants were fully briefed on the experiment and the use of fMRI. All participants signed a consent form and were free to withdraw at any point.

2.2 Stimuli and design

Continuous fMRI data were acquired as participants viewed 2-second video clips of either an opposing badminton player or an opposing hockey player making a shot/pass either left or right. Participants pressed one of two buttons, during a 2-second luminance-matched screen after each clip, to predict to which side they believed the shuttlecock/ball to be travelling. The actors in the video clips were national level players in each respective sport, and the hockey and badminton clips were approximately matched in terms of the filming distance, mean luminance, and the height on the screen of the players. Although both hockey and badminton stimuli involved a strike to the left or right, there are both similarities and differences between the strike played in the badminton clips and those played in the hockey clips. Both shots are played by an implement (hockey stick/badminton racquet) that is held by the athlete being observed. However, the badminton racquet is held in just one hand and is positioned above the head, whereas the hockey stick is held in both hands (left hand at the top of the stick, right hand approximately one third of the way down), with the head of the stick in contact with the floor. Further, whilst both implements are used to propel an object (the shuttlecock in badminton, the ball in hockey) towards the camera, this is also achieved in different ways. The badminton shot consists of one motion, with the shuttlecock in contact with the racquet for minimal time as the athlete volleys the shuttlecock in one immediate motion. In contrast, the hockey stick is first used to bring the ball to a near stop, often the ball is touched again to put it into a more suitable position, the stick head is then drawn away from the ball and then swung to propel the ball forwards. This is an accepted manuscript of an article published by Elsevier in Neuroscience, available online at <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0306452215010635?via%3Dihub>. It is not the copy of record. Copyright © 2015, The Authors.

Each block comprised five video clips and five blank intervals. There were six different block conditions: hockey long (HL), in which the action of a hockey clip was cut to 60ms after the ball was last in contact with the stick; hockey short (HS) in which the action of a hockey clip was cut to 160ms before the ball was released from the stick; hockey control (HC) in which no ball appeared on the screen but the participant had to judge in which hand the hockey player was holding their stick; badminton long (BL), the action of the badminton clip was cut to 60ms after the shuttlecock left the racquet; badminton short (BS), where the action was cut at 160ms before the shuttlecock hit the racquet, and badminton control (BC) where there was no shuttlecock or shot played but the participant had to judge in which hand the player was holding their racquet. The participant's task on the control tasks was the same as on the experimental blocks in terms of having to make a directional judgement and respond using a button press but different in that they didn't have to anticipate the shot direction. Additionally there were two rest blocks of equal length to the experimental blocks in which a grey screen was visible and the participant was not required to respond.

2.3 Procedure

Following a safety briefing and completing the necessary consent and medical forms participants were taken to the scanner where they lay supine with their head held still within a surface coil. Images were viewed via a mirror which was aligned to a monitor outside of the machine and they held a button box in their hands on which

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they had been instructed to push one button to signal 'left' and one button to signal 'right'. Participants viewed the hockey/badminton clips first with the blocks presented in a randomised order. This was followed by a structural scan.

2.4 Data acquisition

Brain images were acquired with a 3T MRI scanner (Magnetom Trio, Siemens, Erlangen, Germany) equipped with an eight-channel array headcoil. Functional images of the entire brain were acquired with a standard gradient-echo, echoplanar sequence (TR = 4000ms, TE = 35ms, Flip angle 90°, 41 slices, voxel size 3 x 3 x 3mm, 64 x 64 matrix). A whole brain anatomical scan (176 slices, 1 x 1 x 1mm voxel size, MP-RAGE T1-weighted sequence) was also acquired.

2.5 Data analysis

SPM8 was used to carry out the image pre-processing. Each EPI volume was realigned to the first image in the sequence to correct for head motion, and structural and mean functional images were co-registered. In order to allow group data analysis, functional and structural images were spatially normalised to the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) template. Spatial smoothing with a 6mm three-dimensional Gaussian filter, convolution with modelled haemodynamic response function and high-pass filtering, with a 128s time-constant preceded analysis of the individual data in which t-contrasts were computed for the difference between action prediction and action observation (control) conditions.

First-level t-contrast values were entered into second level, random effects group analysis. This is an accepted manuscript of an article published by Elsevier in Neuroscience, available online at <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0306452215010635?via%3Dihub>. It is not the copy of record. Copyright © 2015, The Authors.

analysis and one-way ANOVAs. In order to correct for multiple comparisons, FDR (false discovery rate) or FWE (family-wise error) correction was applied to all reported activation clusters at a threshold value of $p < 0.05$. The WFU Pickatlas Talairach Daemon (Lancaster, Summerlin, Rainey, Freitas & Fox, 1997; Maldjian, Laurienti, Burdette & Kraft, 2003) was used at 5mm range with MNI co-ordinate conversion to identify brain areas and probable Brodmann areas from the co-ordinates found.

3. Results

3.1 Behavioural results

In order to establish the data requirements for ANOVA, deviations from a normal distribution were assessed using a one-sample Komolgorov-Smirnov test applied to data for each of 12 cells of the overall design; video condition (HL, HS, HC, BL, BS, BC) x group (hockey players, hockey non-players). Accuracy for the control conditions deviated significantly ($p < .05$) from a normal distribution, but all of the action prediction conditions were consistent with a normal distribution at $p > .05$. Further to this, for the eight action prediction conditions, one sample t-tests showed that data in each cell was significantly above chance (reference value 50%) and significantly below ceiling (reference value 100%) all at $p < .005$. Conversely, three out of the four cells indicating control conditions had median scores not significantly different from 100% (Wilcoxon test, at $p > .05$). Not surprisingly, performance on the control conditions (which hand is the racquet/stick in?) was at or near ceiling thereby reducing variance and distorting the data. Because of this

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ceiling effect and because behavioural performance on the control task was not of significant interest we excluded these control data from the ANOVA. The data for the active conditions alone were therefore entered into a 2 x 2 x 2 mixed ANOVA to compare hockey experts and novices across the four different direction prediction conditions (HL, HS, BL, BS). Thus, there were two within participant variables: *video* type (hockey, badminton) and *occlusion* level (long, short), and one between participant variable, hockey *expertise* (expert, novice). The ANOVA showed a significant main effect of video type, $F(1,28) = 249.8, p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = .90$; accuracy across all participants was higher on the hockey task ($M = 78.9\%$) than the badminton task ($M = 60.9\%$). The main effect of expertise did not reach significance ($p = .098$), neither did the main effect of occlusion level ($p = 0.33$) or the three-way interaction ($p = .82$). However, the expertise x video type interaction was significant, $F(1,28) = 4.82, p < .05$; partial $\eta^2 = .19$. Analysis of the interaction (conducted with two one-way ANOVAs, one for the hockey videos and one for the badminton videos) revealed that the only significant difference lay in the hockey condition where experts significantly outperformed novices, $F(1,28) = 8.54; p < .01$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.16$; observed power = 0.517. Means and standard errors of accuracy in the four experimental conditions are shown in Figure 1.

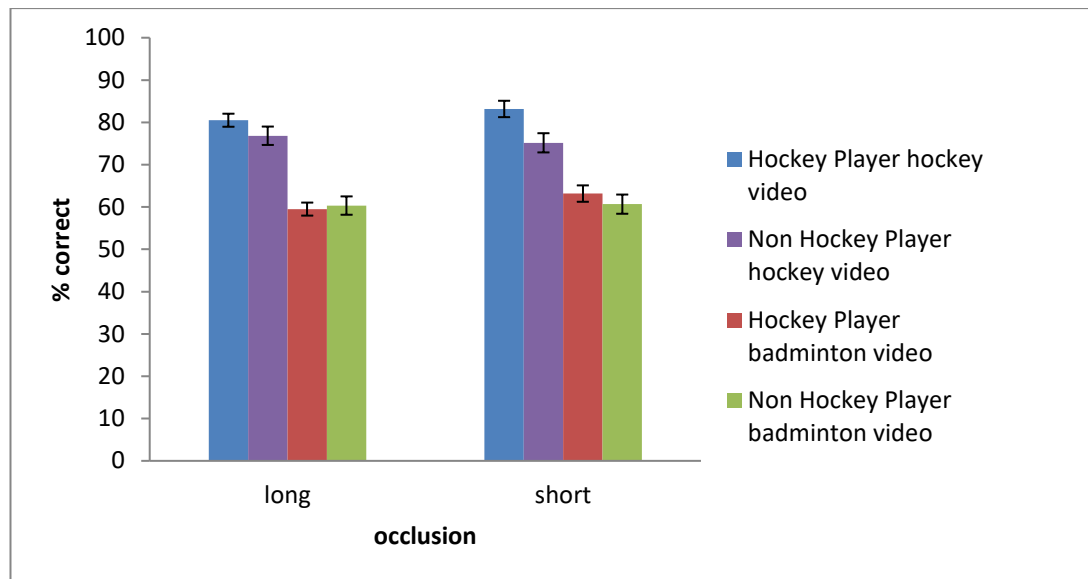


Figure 1. Mean percentage accuracy of direction prediction on the two video types for hockey players and hockey non-players. Error bars are ± 1 S.E.M.

3.2 fMRI results

In a first level analysis of the fMRI data individual t -contrasts were calculated for HL-HC, HS-HC, BL-BC, and BS-BC. These t -contrasts were entered into a full factorial second level model, with the following factors: expertise (hockey expert, hockey novice), video type (hockey, badminton) and condition (long, short). Results were based on whole-brain, random-effects analysis and family-wise error (FWE) correction at $p < .05$ and minimum cluster size = 5. F -contrasts showed a significant main effect of expertise. There was, also, a significant main effect of video type (Hockey versus Badminton video) thus there are variations in the brain areas activated during direction prediction in different sports. This is evident in figure 2, which identifies voxels that were significantly more activated during action

prediction than in the corresponding action observation control condition, for hockey and non-hockey players observing hockey and badminton stimuli.

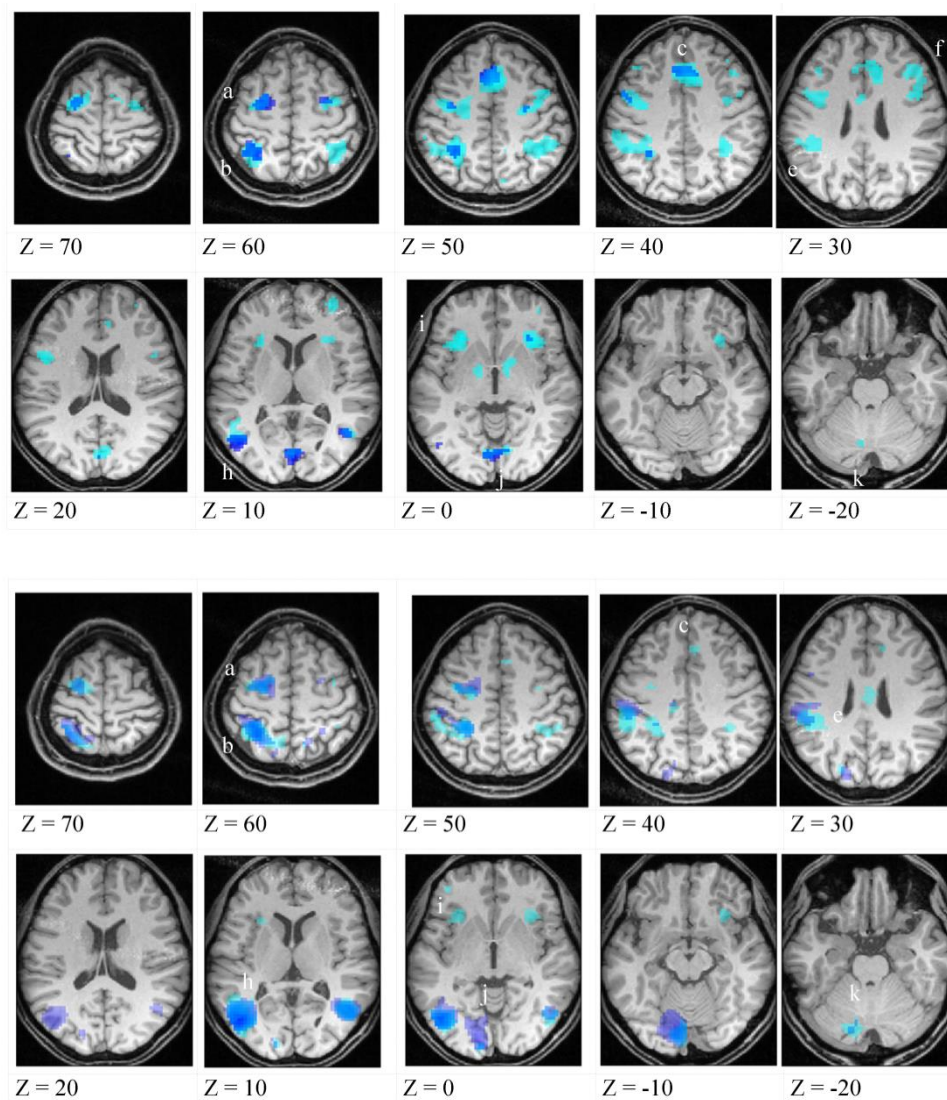


Figure 2. Brain voxels responding significantly more strongly to action prediction than action observation control stimuli. The upper set of images show data from the badminton task, and the lower set show data from the hockey task. Light-toned blobs (cyan) represent observation data from hockey players, and the darker tones (blue) data from non-hockey players. Key: a = premotor cortex; b = superior parietal lobule; c = medial frontal cortex; d = anterior cingulate; e = inferior parietal sulcus; h = temporal-parietal junction; i = anterior insula; j = occipital cortex; k = cerebellum. This is an accepted manuscript of an article published by Elsevier in Neuroscience, available online at <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0306452215010635?via%3Dihub>. It is not the copy of record. Copyright © 2015, The Authors.

As Figure 2 shows, in aggregate, responses are found in an action-observation network and are closely comparable with previous published data (reviewed in the Introduction) for tennis and football. In detail however, there are differences in the distribution of activations within this network for the four sub-conditions. The corresponding data are shown in Table 1a & b.

Table 1a: Location and extent of principal clusters responding more strongly to action prediction than action observation (control) stimuli for badminton tasks, and for expert and novice hockey players. For each cluster, the significance level (FDR-corrected $p < .05$) only of the largest peak is reported. The tabulated data corresponds to Figure 2 (upper).

| Experts: badminton | | | | |
|---------------------|------|-----------------|--------------|------------------|
| AAL Label | BA | MNI coordinates | Cluster size | Peak FDR-p-value |
| Parietal sup L | 7/40 | -33 -46 55 | 577 | 6.89E-09 |
| Supp motor area | 8/32 | 3 17 49 | 466 | 2.88E-08 |
| Insula ant R | 13 | -30 23 1 | 169 | 1.43E-07 |
| Insula ant L | 13 | -36 17 -2 | 144 | 3.10E-07 |
| Sup front sulcus L | 6 | -24 -7 55 | 551 | 9.77E-07 |
| Precentral R | 6 | 30 -20 52 | 436 | 6.68E-06 |
| Calcarine R | 18 | 3 -76 16 | 162 | 1.57E-05 |
| Temporal mid L | 39 | -45 -67 13 | 69 | 6.85E-05 |
| Inf parietal R | 40 | 42 -43 49 | 317 | 0.00012 |
| Temporal mid L | 22 | 48 -61 13 | 29 | 0.000708 |
| Frontal mid R | 10 | 36 53 10 | 36 | 0.001259 |
| Med globus pallidus | | 12 -1 -2 | 41 | 0.001628 |
| Frontal mid L | 9 | -42 29 37 | 22 | 0.00624 |
| Cerebellum crus 1 L | | -6 -73 -26 | 23 | 0.013078 |
| Cingulate ant L | 24 | -3 2 28 | 17 | 0.015654 |
| Supp motor area R | 6 | 12 -1 67 | 12 | 0.038533 |
| Novices: badminton | | | | |
| AAL Label | BA | MNI coordinates | Cluster size | Peak FDR-p-value |
| Temporal mid L | 39 | -48 -70 10 | 91 | 1.78E-11 |
| Frontal sup L | 6 | -27 -7 58 | 139 | 9.01E-08 |
| Calcarine R | 18 | 3 -79 4 | 110 | 3.09E-05 |
| Parietal sup L | 40 | -33 -49 55 | 150 | 8.74E-07 |
| Supp motor area | 8/32 | -6 20 46 | 126 | 8.74E-05 |
| Temporal mid R | 39 | 45 -61 10 | 24 | 0.021185 |

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Table 1b: Location and extent of principal clusters responding more strongly to action prediction than action observation (control) stimuli for hockey tasks, and for expert and novice hockey players. For each cluster, the significance level (FDR-corrected $p < .05$) only of the largest peak is reported. The tabulated data corresponds to Figure 2 (lower).

| Experts: hockey | | | | |
|-------------------|----|-----------------|--------------|------------------|
| AAL Label | BA | MNI coordinates | Cluster size | Peak FDR-p-value |
| Temporal mid L | 39 | -45 -67 7 | 407 | 7.02E-11 |
| Postcentral mid L | 40 | -30 -43 55 | 769 | 7.02E-11 |
| Temporal mid R | 39 | 51 -64 10 | 186 | 3.88E-09 |
| Frontal mid L | 6 | -39 -7 52 | 283 | 3.99E-07 |
| Calcarine L | 18 | -6 -85 -11 | 215 | 7.59E-05 |
| Front inf orb R | 47 | 33 23 -8 | 97 | 1.24E-05 |
| Insula L | 13 | -33 20 -2 | 82 | 5.77E-06 |
| Cingulum mid L | 24 | -15 -25 34 | 20 | 0.000554 |
| Precuneus R | 7 | 9 -55 55 | 16 | 0.000641 |
| Cingulum mid R | 24 | 6 -10 31 | 44 | 0.008651 |
| Occipital sup R | 19 | -21 -82 34 | 25 | 0.003076 |
| Parietal inf R | 40 | 42 -46 49 | 93 | 0.004521 |
| Cingulum ant R | 32 | 12 35 28 | 23 | 0.011825 |
| Frontal mid R | 6 | 36 -7 52 | 27 | 0.002592 |
| Novices: hockey | | | | |
| AAL Label | BA | MNI coordinates | Cluster size | Peak FDR-p-value |
| Temporal mid L | 39 | -48 -70 10 | 480 | 2.97E-11 |
| Parietal sup L | 40 | -30 -49 58 | 664 | 2.97E-11 |
| Lingual L | 18 | -9 -79 -9 | 598 | 2.97E-11 |
| Frontal sup L | 6 | -27 -7 -58 | 290 | 3.85E-11 |
| Temporal mid R | 19 | 51 -64 10 | 218 | 3.93E-11 |
| Postcentral R | 40 | 30 -49 61 | 11 | 0.029181 |
| Precentral L | 9 | -51 5 34 | 10 | 0.035793 |
| Parietal sup R | 7 | 15 -58 61 | 11 | 0.039696 |

As is apparent from Figure 2, expertise effects may differ in brain locations for hockey and badminton stimuli however the crucial comparison to test for domain-specific as opposed to domain-general expertise effects is the interaction between hockey expertise and video type, which proved to be non-significant. In this respect the fMRI results did not match the behavioural results.

Possible reasons considered for the non-significant interaction included firstly a possible confounding effect of the “control” condition, which, after all, differs from the action prediction task in both the stimulus content and in the

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associated task, and secondly differences in the difficulty of the hockey and badminton tasks, which may have a masking effect. To address these questions, a second ANOVA was conducted with a different design, in order to clearly differentiate differences in the effects of video type and expertise on the action observation condition from any possible such effects on the control condition. The first-level contrasts for this effect were activations relative to background, that is, HL-B, HS-B, HC-B, BL-B, BS-B and BC-B. The background in this case was explicitly modelled as the response during blank-screen intervals. In addition, the behavioural accuracy of responses was entered as a covariate for each action prediction condition and each participant. This was done in order to partial out possible effects due to differences in the difficulty of conditions. The F-contrasts for the main effects of expertise (expert-novice) video type (hockey-badminton) and condition (long, short, control) showed significant effects at $p < .05$ with a whole-brain FWE correction. However, no significant voxels were found for the two-way interaction between expertise and video type, the two-way interaction between between expertise and condition, or the three-way interaction between expertise, videotype and condition. These general findings were not altered by the presence or absence of the covariate. As there were no significant voxels responding to the expertise x video type interaction, even at $p < .001$ uncorrected, a small-volume correction was not considered appropriate.

To further analyse the effect of expertise, t-contrasts were computed to identify voxels that differentially responded in hockey experts and novices during action prediction conditions alone. These results are shown as red blobs in Figure 3.

For comparison, voxels responding more strongly to hockey than badminton are shown in green, and voxels responding significantly to the covariate alone are shown in blue. Corresponding data showing the co-ordinates of active clusters are shown in tables 2a, 2b.

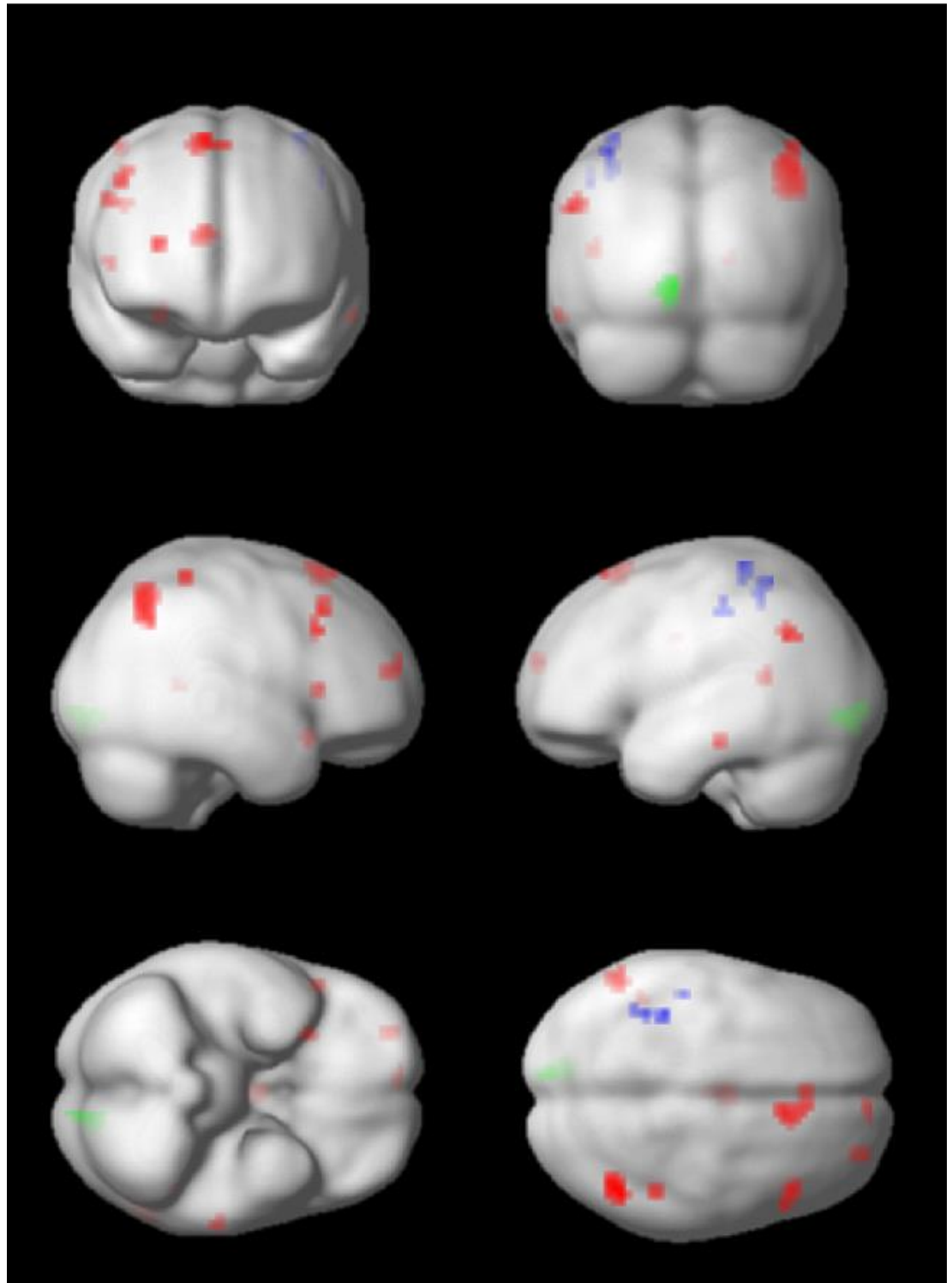


Figure 3. Activations thresholded at $p < .05$ FWE with minimum cluster size = 5 on a whole brain, second level analysis. Red: hockey experts > hockey novices across all hockey and badminton action prediction conditions. Green: hockey videos > badminton videos. Blue: voxels responding to the covariate alone (mean response accuracy per participant per condition).

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Table 2a. Clusters > 5 voxels showing main effects of expertise across both hockey and badminton action videos, all at $p < .05$ FWE corrected.

| Action prediction: Hockey experts > hockey novices | | | | |
|--|----|-----------------|--------------|------------------|
| AAL Label | BA | MNI coordinates | Cluster size | Peak FWE-p-value |
| Angular R | 40 | 45 -61 43 | 73 | 6.87E-05 |
| Frontal sup med R | 10 | 9 62 19 | 12 | 1.88E-05 |
| Frontal mid R | 8 | 48 23 46 | 10 | .0001 |
| Cingulum mid L | 24 | 0 -7 31 | 21 | .000107 |
| Frontal sup med R | 6 | 12 23 61 | 6 | .000258 |
| Frontal sup med R | 6 | 0 32 61 | | .009997 |
| Postcentral R | 40 | 48 -40 61 | 8 | .001126 |
| Frontal sup R | 10 | 30 56 13 | 11 | .002358 |
| Angular L | 40 | -57 -61 31 | 16 | .004378 |
| Frontal inf operc L | 9 | 54 20 37 | 11 | .007515 |
| Frontal inf operc L | 9 | 45 23 34 | | .018198 |
| Temporal inf L | 20 | -63 -25 -20 | 5 | .008735 |
| Precuneus R | 29 | 18 -43 7 | 5 | .009326 |
| Temporal mid L | 22 | -45 -49 13 | 7 | .011109 |
| Insula R | 47 | 27 17 -20 | 7 | .011798 |
| Frontal inf tri R | 47 | 51 20 4 | 5 | .018119 |
| Action prediction: Hockey novices > hockey experts | | | | |
| AAL Label | BA | MNI coordinates | Cluster size | Peak FWE-p-value |
| Temporal mid L | 39 | -48 -73 10 | 8 | .000597 |
| Postcentral L | 5 | -36 -37 70 | 8 | .00381 |
| Postcentral L | 1 | -45 -34 64 | | .010845 |

Table 2b. Other significant effects in ANOVA

| Action prediction: Hockey > badminton videos | | | | |
|--|----|-----------------|--------------|------------------|
| AAL Label | BA | MNI coordinates | Cluster size | Peak FWE-p-value |
| Lingual L | 18 | -15 -85 -8 | 87 | 7.04228E-05 |
| Calcarine L | 17 | -9 -94 -2 | | 7.90127E-05 |
| Calcarine L | 17 | -9 -91 -11 | | .000240372 |
| Covariate only | | | | |
| Postcentral L | 1 | -39 -37 67 | 21 | .003222 |
| Postcentral L | 40 | -48 -28 52 | 5 | .008448 |
| Precentral L | 9 | -48 5 37 | 5 | .016621 |

The same ANOVA was re-run with and without accuracy as a covariate. As noted above, the presence or absence of the covariate did not affect the main

effect of expertise. However it did affect the responses to video type. With the covariate, the activated region was restricted to occipital cortex. With no covariate, additional regions of parietal cortex showed significant activation.

To further analyse the expertise effects, planned comparisons were carried out. Although the ANOVA analyses suggested no interaction between expertise and video type, because some previous work has suggested sport specific effects of expertise (Aglioti *et al.*, 2008; Balsler *et al.*, 2014b; Calvo Merino *et al.*, 2005) we used this more sensitive approach to probe expertise effects for each sport separately. Firstly, the main expertise effect was tested using a t-contrast for the direction prediction conditions minus control conditions. T-contrasts, unlike F-contrasts, show the direction of an effect. First-level t-contrasts for (HL-HC)+(HS-HC) and (BL-BC)+(BS-BC) were calculated to separately estimate an overall level of activation for both hockey and badminton directional judgements relative to an action-observation control. A second level, random effects, analysis was then conducted on these t-contrasts from the individual data. An initial analysis compared experts with novices on the contrast hockey action minus hockey control. Experts showed increased activation relative to novices of the right rostral inferior parietal lobule in Brodmann area 40 (see Table 3 and Figure 4). This location was close to but not identical with the largest cluster in the ANOVA across both video types (Table 2a). This area has been shown to be activated in mirror neuron studies and is considered to be the human equivalent of area PF/PFG in monkeys (for reviews see Fabbri-Destro & Rizzolatti, 2008; Iacoboni & Dapretto, 2006; Rizzolatti, 2005; Rizzolatti & Craighero, 2004; Rizzolatti, Fogassi & Gallese, 2001).

Table 3: Expert vs. novice (hockey action minus hockey control)

| Hemisphere | Lobe | Label | Brodmann area | MNI co-ordinates | Cluster size | FDR-p value |
|----------------|----------|--------------------------|---------------|------------------|--------------|-------------|
| Right cerebrum | Parietal | Inferior parietal lobule | 40 | 39 -51 42 | 76 | 0.004 |

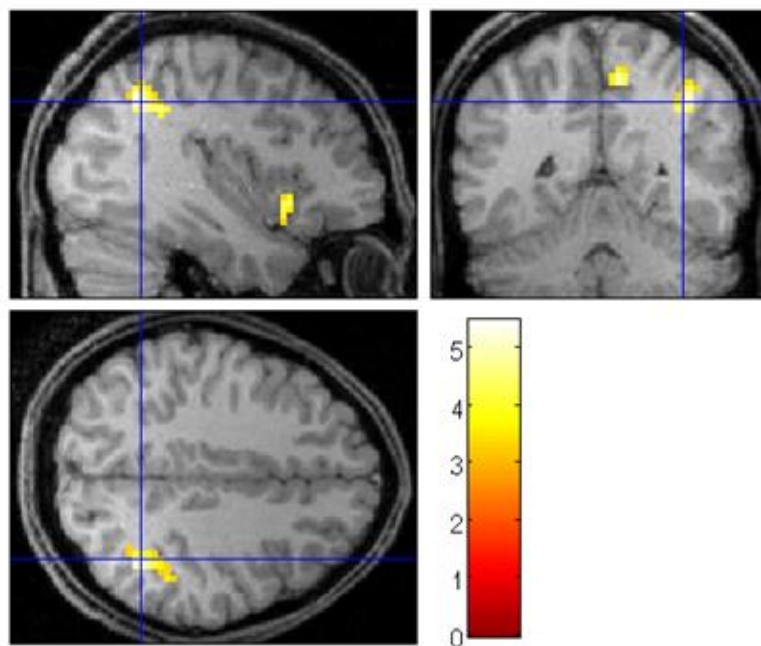


Figure 4: The crosshairs indicate the location of the peak of activation shown in Table 3.

A second analysis explored expert-novice differences for the badminton action minus badminton control contrast. There were three areas of significantly greater activation in the experts' brains (see Table 4 and Figure 5).

Table 4: Expert vs. novice (badminton action minus badminton control)

| Hemisphere | Lobe | Label | Brodman area | MNI co-ordinates | Cluster size | FDR-p value |
|----------------|-----------|----------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|-------------|
| Left cerebrum | Occipital | Lingual gyrus | 17 | -21 -93 -6 | 89 | 0.002 |
| Right cerebrum | Frontal | Middle frontal gyrus | 9 | 27 30 36 | 55 | 0.008 |
| Right cerebrum | Occipital | Cuneus | 18 | 9 -96 15 | 62 | 0.007 |

Brodman areas 17 and 18 correspond to visual cortical areas V1 and V2 respectively. Brodman area 9 has been linked to sustaining attention and working memory (Lloyd, 2007).

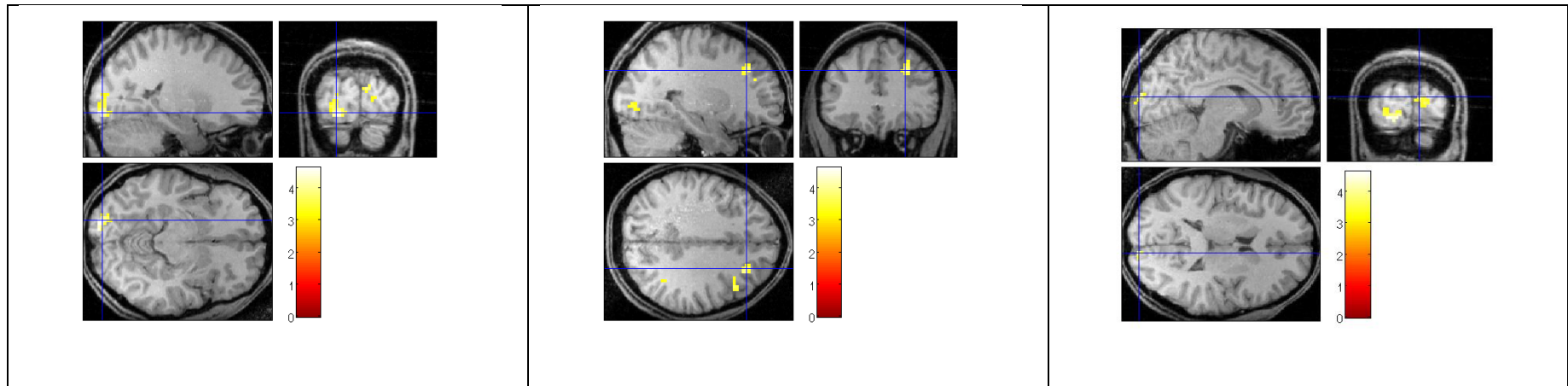


Figure 5: The crosshairs indicate the three peaks of activation shown in Table 3

Thus, although overall, the interaction of expertise and video type was not significant when examined on a voxelwise basis, planned comparisons showed partitioning of the main effect of video type (hockey versus badminton) in that there were significant effects of expertise, in separate voxel clusters, for hockey action and for badminton action.

The next analysis was to see if experts showed any differences in their activation depending on which sport they were watching. It was found that experts had two areas of their brain that were more active when watching hockey compared to badminton clips (see Table 5 and Figure 6).

Table 5: Experts (hockey action minus control vs. badminton action minus control)

| Hemisphere | Lobe | Label | Brodmann area | MNI co-ordinates | Cluster size | FDR-p value |
|---------------|----------|---------------------|---------------|------------------|--------------|-------------|
| Left cerebrum | Parietal | Postcentral gyrus | 5 | -6 -51 66 | 45 | 0.017 |
| Left cerebrum | Limbic | Posterior cingulate | 30 | -6 -63 9 | 92 | 0.001 |

Brodmann area 5 is labelled as somatosensory association cortex and has been associated with sensory motor control of hand movements (Premji, Zapallow, Tsang, Tang, Jacobs, & Nelson, 2011). The posterior cingulate was also more activated for hockey judgements and has been associated with episodic memory retrieval (e.g. Hirshhorn, Grady, Rosenbaum, Winocur & Moscovitch, 2012; Kuchinke, Fritzscheier, Hofmann & Jacobs, 2013).

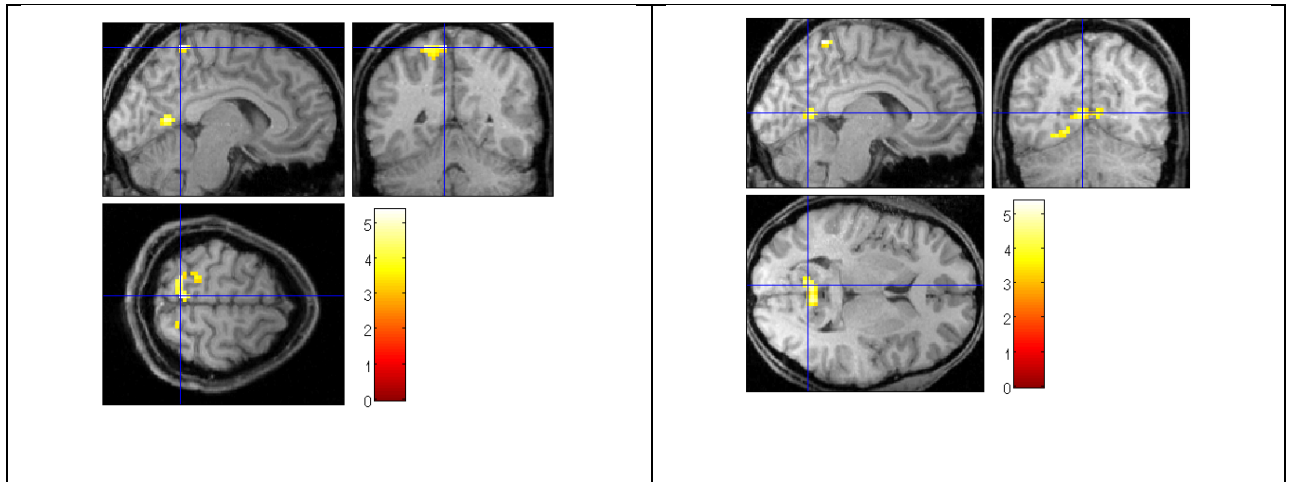


Figure 6: The crosshairs indicate the significant peaks of activation shown in Table 4

Novices also showed a range of activation differences when comparing by sport.

First, they showed greater activation in the primary visual cortex for hockey

judgements relative to badminton judgments (see Table 6 and Figure 7).

Table 6: Area showing greater activation for hockey judgements in novices

| Hemisphere | Lobe | Label | Brodmann area | MNI co-ordinates | Cluster size | FDR-p value |
|---------------|-----------|--------|---------------|------------------|--------------|-------------|
| Left cerebrum | Occipital | Cuneus | 17 | -9 -93 3 | 469 | < 0.0005 |

In addition, novices showed reduced activation in Brodmann areas 30 and 8 for

hockey judgements relative to badminton judgments (see Table 6 and Figure 6).

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Table 7: Areas showing reduced activation for hockey judgements in novices

| Hemisphere | Lobe | Label | Brodmann area | MNI co-ordinates | Cluster size | FDR-p value |
|----------------|-----------|----------------------|---------------|------------------|--------------|-------------|
| Right cerebrum | Occipital | Cuneus | 30 | 15 -72 6 | 133 | < 0.0005 |
| Left cerebrum | Frontal | Medial frontal gyrus | 8 | -9 15 51 | 112 | < 0.0005 |

Interestingly, the medial frontal gyrus (Brodmann area 8) has been shown to be associated with uncertainty (Volz, Schubotz & von Cramon, 2004). Higher levels of uncertainty correspond with higher levels of activation in this area and the behavioural data supports the notion that the novices were highly uncertain when making judgements about the badminton condition relative to the hockey condition (the badminton clips were significantly more difficult to predict than hockey clips (HL vs BL; $t(29) = 11.94$, $p < 0.001$, $r = 0.83$. HS vs BS; $t(29) = 9.70$, $p < 0.001$, $r = 0.76$)). A difference in activation was once more seen in Brodmann area 30 although this time in the right hemisphere of the occipital lobe in the cuneus area which is associated with visual processing including processing of real-world scenes (Henderson, Zhu & Larson, 2011) and navigation and orientation (Maguire, 2001).

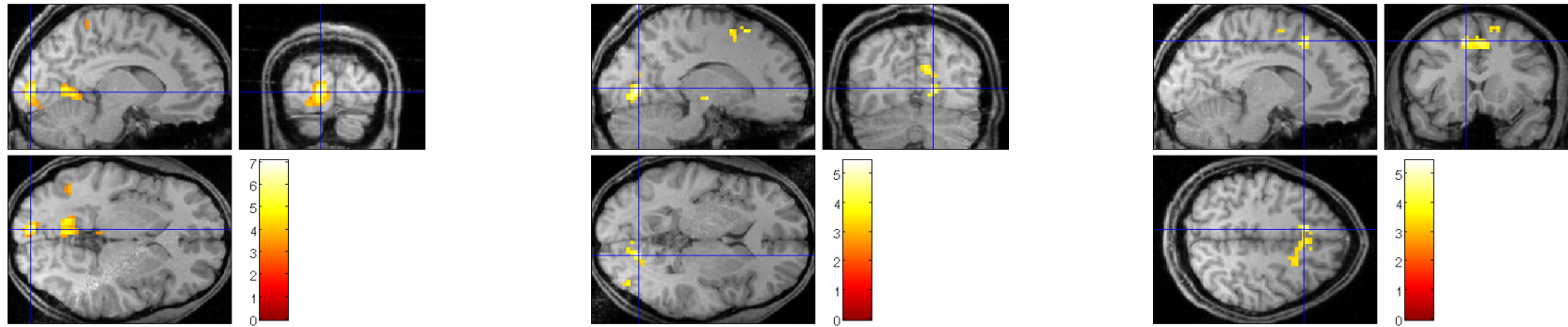


Figure 7: The crosshairs show the peaks of significant activation differences from Table 6 (left) and Table 7 (middle and right)

Finally, although there were no voxels showing significant interactions between expertise and the level of occlusion, and none showing the three-way interaction between expertise, occlusion level and video type, we explored whether the main effect of expertise could be partitioned further. In the light of the behavioural results, it was decided to test whether there were any significant differences in brain activation between experts and novices, in the early occlusion condition. As this condition should be considerably harder, and showed group differences in the behavioural data, it may provide information on whether different areas of the brain were called upon to solve the problem of predicting the shot direction in experts compared to novices. However, planned comparisons using ANOVA (using the (HS-HC) or (BS-BC) first level contrasts) found that there were no activation differences between experts and novices for the HS trials. For the BS trials there was greater activation in the primary visual cortex of experts (see Table 8 & Figure 8) which is consistent with the view that the badminton task engaged processing of basic aspects of the visual stimulus more strongly in the experts.

Table 8: Badminton early occlusion (expert minus novice)

| Hemisphere | Lobe | Label | Brodmann area | MNI co-ordinates | Cluster size | FDR-p value |
|---------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|------------------|--------------|-------------|
| Left cerebrum | Occipital | Lingual gyrus | 17 | -21 -93 -6 | 46 | 0.012 |

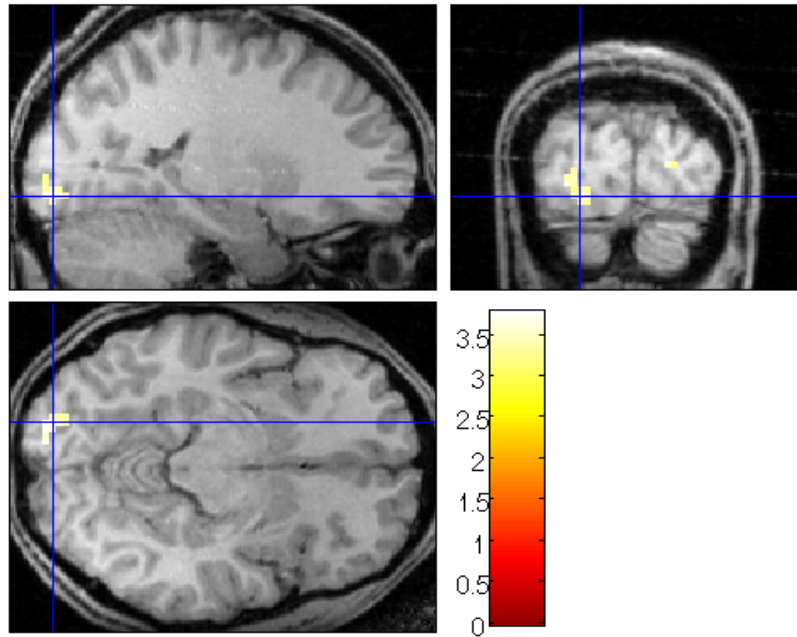


Figure 8: The crosshairs show the peak of significant activation shown in Table 8

4. Discussion

The aim of this study was two-fold. Firstly, the experiments were designed to explore differences in the brain function of participants when making a decision based on video clips of a sport in which one group were experts and one group were novices. Following this the aim was to discover if, when making a decision based on a sport in which neither group of participants were experts, the group who were experts in a different sport still used their brain in an ‘expert’ way.

4.2 Behavioural data

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When looking at the behavioural data, a significant interaction was found between video type and hockey expertise, and this is consistent with the view that the perceptual skills used to predict direction of play in a temporal occlusion task are sport-specific. As the video clips for the two sports could not be precisely matched, overall differences in accuracy emerged for hockey and badminton clips as a main effect of video type in the ANOVA. However, since accuracy data for both video types was normally distributed and showed no ceiling or floor effect for either group of participants, there is no reason to doubt the validity of the significant interaction found in ANOVA. Further analysis of the interaction showed that the only significant difference between the two groups was found for the hockey clips, in particular when they were cut to the shortest time point. This supports much of the previous research in this area (e.g. Jones & Miles, 1978; Houlston & Lownes, 1993; Jackson, 1986) by showing that experts are superior to novices when the task is most difficult. Interestingly, there were no significant differences between the two groups on the badminton clips, which suggests that in this case there is no behavioural evidence of transfer of perceptual skill between sports. This finding contrasts with previous work on pattern recognition, which has found some transfer of recall for playing position patterns between expert and non-expert sports (e.g. Smeeton, Ward and Williams, 2004; Abernethy, Baker & Côte, 2005). Thus, it would seem that, unlike memory based tasks, the skills tapped by advanced cue utilisation tasks are sport specific.

4.3 Main findings

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The fMRI analysis, unlike the accuracy data, showed significant main effects of expertise, and non-significant results for the interaction between expertise and video type. Two possible explanations for the discrepancy between fMRI and accuracy results were ruled out. The first possible explanation is that the control condition may somehow have confounded the fMRI results. The control condition was excluded from the behavioural ANOVA due to ceiling effects, however it was included in the first-level analysis of fMRI activations. However, when the fMRI ANOVA was repeated without the control condition, thus matching the ANOVA design for accuracy, it gave essentially the same result: a significant main effect of expertise and a non-significant interaction between expertise and video type. The second explanation is that differences in the difficulty of the task may somehow have confounded the results. Therefore accuracy (for each condition and participant) was included as a covariate. This had essentially no effect on the expert-novice differences observed in fMRI. However, inclusion of the covariate did reduce the extent of the significant activation due to the main effect of video type (hockey versus badminton video). The covariate alone produced significant activation in left parietal cortex and prefrontal cortex that are considered to be part of AON, but these areas did not overlap with those showing the effect of expertise. It must be recognised that although accuracy on the video task may be correlated with expertise, there are many aspects of expertise other than those captured in task accuracy which may affect how the expert brain reacts during an action prediction task. Some divergence of expertise effects in behavioural and fMRI measures was noted previously by Balsler et al. 2014b, Bishop, et al. 2013 and Wright et al. 2014.

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Thus, in summary, the main ANOVA analyses appear to support previous work that has suggested there is a main effect of expertise on action anticipation in sport (Abreu *et al.*, 2012; Bishop *et al.*, 2013; Lyons *et al.*, 2010; Wright *et al.*, 2010, 2013; see also Press & Cook, 2013). In general, irrespective of the sport, experts appear to recruit a wider network of brain areas to make action anticipation judgements than novices.

However, although our main ANOVA analyses suggested no interaction between expertise and video type, because some past research shows sport specific expertise effects (Aglioti *et al.*, 2008; Balsler *et al.*, 2014b; Calvo Merino *et al.*, 2005), we also carried out more sensitive planned comparison analyses. This analysis showed us that although both hockey and badminton tasks activated the action observation network, one area of the brain was significantly more strongly activated in experts than novices when viewing hockey clips. This area was the rostral inferior parietal lobule, a key component in the action observation or mirror neuron system (for reviews see Fabbri-Destro & Rizzolatti, 2008; Iacoboni & Dapretto, 2006; Rizzolatti, 2005; Rizzolatti & Craighero, 2004; Rizzolatti *et al.*, 2001). Although the overall pattern of fMRI results does not favour domain specificity, this particular observation is consistent with the suggestion by Calvo-Merino and colleagues (2005) that the brain's response to seeing an action is influenced by the acquired motor skill of the observer in the action domain. This also fits with the work of Aglioti *et al.* (2008) on basketball and football players who only showed motor evoked potentials when watching clips from the specific sport they participated in, and with recent

work by Balsler et al. (2014b) who identified AON activation relating to sport-specific expertise in tennis and volleyball players.

The second aim of the present study was to see if expert hockey players used their brains differently compared to novices when watching a sport in which they had no expertise. Behavioural studies on talent transfer suggest that experts may be able to transfer their skills to a different sport (at least in pattern recognition tasks; Abernethy *et al.*, 2005; Smeeton *et al.*, 2004) and on this basis we expected to see expert-novice differences in activation patterns even on an unfamiliar sport for both groups. However, the behavioural data in the present study found no difference in success rate between the two groups at predicting the outcome of the badminton clips. Despite this absence of a behavioural difference there were expert-novice differences in activation patterns, suggesting that fMRI activations do not reflect performance accuracy in any simple way. One possibility is that experts and novices may use different strategies to predict shot direction for the badminton clips. When looking at brain function, the experts show AON activation, consistent with the importance of visual-motor experience, when making a decision about their own sport where novices do not. When making a decision about a neutral sport there were no differences in the behavioural data yet the expert group were seen to be engaging areas of their brain reported as being involved in visual processing (BA 17, 18; Boothe, 2002), and attention and working memory (BA 9; Lloyd, 2007) showing that they are perhaps employing a different strategy from novices when trying to

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solve the problem. This would be interesting when it comes to looking at talent transfer as, although the experts are apparently employing a different strategy from the novices, this strategy was no more successful. It may be that compared to a beginner they would need less motor experience in the new sport to apply their perceptual expertise correctly. An attempt to research this training element was made by Urgesi, Savonitto, Fabbro and Aglioti (2012) when they found that both physical practice and observational training in novice volleyball players contributed in complimentary ways to enhancing perceptual expertise. However, greater research in this area is required.

4.4 Supplementary findings

It was found that there were no areas of the expert brain that were significantly more active when watching badminton than while they were watching hockey. However, there were two areas that showed significantly more activation when observing the hockey clips than when observing the badminton. The left posterior cingulate was activated (Brodmann area 30) which has been associated with episodic memory retrieval (Maguire, 2001), and episodic memory has been proposed as the basis for the build-up of perceptual expertise through experience (Gobet, 1998). The other area activated more by hockey clips was the post-central gyrus (Brodmann area 5), which is the location of primary somatosensory cortex, the main sensory receptive area for the sense of touch. BA5 is also implicated in motor imagery as well as in execution of motor responses (Solodkin, Hlustik, Chen & Small, 2004) and could

be activated in this scenario if the experts experience sensorimotor imagery when making a decision about the video clip presented to them.

Novices also showed significant differences in activation depending on the sport they were watching, even though they had similar experience levels (i.e. none) of each sport. They had more activation in Brodmann area 17, the primary visual cortex, when observing hockey than when they were observing badminton, which may reflect greater visual engagement with the easier hockey task. Conversely, there were two areas more active in the novice brain when watching the badminton clips than the hockey clips. These were the medial frontal gyrus in the frontal lobe (Brodmann area 8) and the cuneus in the occipital lobe (Brodmann area 30).

Brodmann area 8 has been shown to be associated with subjective uncertainty (Volz, Schubotz & von Cramon, 2004). Higher levels of uncertainty show higher levels of activation in this area and the behavioural data of novices suggest that the greater difficulty of the badminton clips made them highly uncertain when making judgements about this condition when compared with the simpler, hockey condition. The activation in Brodmann area 30 was this time in the right hemisphere and this is more commonly associated with visual processing as opposed to episodic memory as discussed earlier. For example, Henderson et al (2001) linked this area to viewing real-world scenes. It is possible that the difficulty of the task could mean that the participants were not focusing specifically on the actions present in the video. These differences are consistent with the view that experts and novices employ different perceptual strategies. .

4.5 Conclusion

Looking at the results of this study as a whole, it can be seen that there are differences in how experts and novices use their brains to make a shot direction decision. As expected, when making a decision about the sport in which their expertise lies, the activation centres around areas associated with the action observation system, as well as memory and touch. Differences still remain when decisions are being made about a neutral sport but they are not the same differences as seen in previous work. We find that the experience that the experts have had with hockey has had an impact on their visual processing. Interestingly, the greater difficulty of judgments for the badminton clips leads to the observation that this seems to have caused different strategies to be employed by the two groups. Whereas the experts seemed to persist with applying some visual processing strategy to try and make the correct decision even when the clips were very hard, the novices almost seemed to give up. This is an interesting finding yet it perhaps tells us more about the personalities of those people who are experts in their chosen sport than about whether their talent would transfer successfully to a different sport.

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