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Alder, D, Ford, PR, Causer, J and Williams, AM (2014) The coupling between gaze behavior and opponent kinematics during anticipation of badminton shots. HUMAN MOVEMENT SCIENCE, 37. pp. 167-149. ISSN 0167-9457

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Running title: Gaze behaviour and opponent kinematics

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**The coupling between gaze behaviour and opponent kinematics during anticipation of
badminton shots**

Abstract

1
2 **Purpose:** We examined links between the kinematics of an opponent's actions and the
3 visual search behaviours of badminton players responding to those actions. **Method:** A
4 kinematic analysis of international standard badminton players ($n = 4$) was undertaken as they
5 completed a range of serves. Video of these players serving was used to create a life-size
6 temporal occlusion test to measure anticipation responses. Expert ($n = 8$) and novice ($n = 8$)
7 badminton players anticipated serve location while wearing an eye movement registration
8 system. **Results:** During the execution phase of the opponent's movement, the kinematic
9 analysis showed between-shot differences in distance travelled and peak acceleration at the
10 shoulder, elbow, wrist and racket. Experts were more accurate at responding to the serves
11 compared to novice players. Expert players fixated on the kinematic locations that were most
12 discriminating between serve types more frequently and for a longer duration compared to
13 novice players. Moreover, players were generally more accurate at responding to serves when
14 they fixated vision upon the discriminating arm and racket kinematics. **Conclusions:** Findings
15 extend previous literature by providing empirical evidence that expert athletes' visual search
16 behaviours and anticipatory responses are inextricably linked to the opponent action being
17 observed.

18 **Key Words:** Visual search; Biomechanics; Expert performance; Decision making; Eye
19 movements

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1.1 Introduction

Expert athletic performance consists of many perceptual, cognitive and motor elements (Causer, Janelle, Vickers & Williams, 2012). A key element in elite sport is the ability to anticipate opponent actions prior to their completion (Williams, Ford, Eccles & Ward, 2012). Expert athletes are able to anticipate opponent actions by using vision to extract information from their movements prior to a key event in the action, such as ball-racket or ball-foot contact (Abernethy & Russell, 1987; Abernethy, Zawi & Jackson, 2008; Savelsbergh, Williams, van der Kamp & Ward, 2002; Williams, Ward, Knowles & Smeeton, 2002). However, contradictory findings have emerged in the literature as to the kinematic information that athletes should allocate visual attention to when making anticipation judgments. These conflicting findings are found between and within researchers examining the visual fixations of athletes during anticipation judgments and those examining where the kinematic differences between actions occur, probably because in both cases neither quantifies the other. In this study, we examine, for the first time in the literature, the coupling between the kinematics of opponent actions and the associated visual search behaviours of athletes who are attempting to anticipate those actions.

Previously, researchers have investigated the kinematic differences between actions (Huys, Smeeton, Hodges, Beek & Williams, 2008), whilst others have separately examined the kinematic information that athletes fixate vision upon during anticipation (Williams et al., 2002). Huys et al. (2008) used principal component analysis (PCA) to investigate the kinematic patterns that discriminated between forehand tennis strokes to four locations in the opponent's court. The shots varied in direction and depth by being 'cross court' and 'inside-out' to both short and long areas of the court. The kinematics differed between shots as a function of direction, but not shot depth. The authors found that kinematic differences between shots to the left or right occurred at locations across the whole body. In a similar

1 study, Bourne, Bennett, Hayes and Williams (2011) used PCA to examine handball shots
2 directed to each of the four corners of the goal. In contrast to Huys et al. (2008), kinematic
3 patterns between shots to the four different locations were not significantly different,
4 suggesting that between-shot differences may be subtle and related to changes in refined hand
5 kinematics, which were not measured. Differences between actions in a sport are clear when
6 they are somewhat exaggerated and/or occur across all of the body, such as the ‘cross court’
7 versus ‘inside-out’ tennis shots examined by Huys et al. (2008). As such, visual search
8 research using tennis shots (Ward, Williams & Bennett, 2002; Williams et al., 2002) has
9 shown that the locations of fixations tend to be distributed across a number of central regions
10 of the body (e.g., head, trunk), which perhaps act as an ‘anchor point’ of fixation that enables
11 peripheral vision to pick up the kinematic differences in the multiple locations (Ripoll,
12 Kerlirzin, Stein & Reine, 1995). However, when the differences between actions are subtler,
13 the discriminating differences between shots occur in fewer and often distal body locations
14 (e.g., hands in Bourne et al., 2011). For example, research examining visual search behaviours
15 during badminton shots shows the fixations are located on specific distal areas of the body
16 (arm, wrist, and racket in Abernethy & Russell, 1987), because kinematic differences between
17 badminton shot types are hypothesised to be subtle and occurring in these distal areas.
18 Variation in the amount of kinematic locations or information available that differentiate
19 between and within actions might lead to related variation in the locations of visual search
20 fixations used to extract this information. The evidence suggests that the kinematics of the
21 opponents’ action and the visual search behaviour of the athlete anticipating those actions are
22 inextricably linked, which implies that they should not be examined in isolation.

23 The effectiveness of anticipation judgments may be dependent upon whether the
24 athlete fixates on the correct kinematic locations where the differences between actions are
25 occurring (Savelsbergh, van der Kamp, Williams & Ward, 2005). Alternatively, incorrect

1 anticipation might occur when athletes fixate on the correct kinematic differences but fail to
2 recognise or use this information. However, researchers have measured the visual search
3 behaviours used in anticipation without differentiating the effectiveness of the judgment.
4 There is a need to examine visual search behaviours as a function of anticipatory judgment
5 outcome to reveal the underlying reasons for success and errors. Moreover, some researchers
6 have established that athletes change the areas they fixate vision upon across the on-going
7 movement (Abernethy & Russell, 1987; Kim & Lee, 2006; Savelsbergh et al., 2002), since
8 the amount or type of kinematic information emanating from different areas of the opponent's
9 body changes across the movement. Researchers have generally not examined this temporal
10 component of visual search behaviour (for exceptions, see Abernethy & Russell, 1987; Kim
11 & Lee, 2006; Savelsbergh et al., 2002) despite the need to know "when" exactly athletes
12 fixate upon certain kinematic information as it unfolds across the observed action.

13 The aim in this study was to examine kinematic differences between types of
14 badminton serves and quantify whether players fixate vision upon that discriminating
15 kinematic information during successful anticipation judgments. In the first section of the
16 paper, a kinematic analysis of expert players executing badminton serves was conducted. In
17 the second section, a new set of expert and novice players took part in a temporal occlusion
18 test in which they were required to anticipate the landing locations of those serves while their
19 visual search behaviours were recorded. It was expected that the kinematic analysis would
20 reveal between shot-type differences in the arm, wrist, and racket regions (Abernethy &
21 Russell, 1987). It was predicted that expert players would fixate vision upon these between-
22 shot differences more frequently compared to the novice players. The visual fixations of
23 expert players were predicted to be based upon the kinematic differences between shots
24 during the phases of the movement in which they emerge on more trials compared to the
25 novice players. The between-group differences in visual search strategies were expected to be

1 associated with greater accuracy of anticipation judgments for the expert compared to novice
2 players. Moreover, when fixating on areas of the opponent's body that discriminate shot type
3 at the time in which they become discriminatory, both groups were predicted to have
4 significantly more successful anticipation judgments compared to when fixating on other
5 areas of the visual display.

6 SECTION 1

7 2.1 Method

8 2.11 Participants

9 Participants were four expert badminton players ($M = 25.6$ years of age, $SD = 2.3$)
10 from Great Britain (GB) who were on the Team GB World Class Development Programme
11 for athletes with the potential to medal at international events. They were taking part in 20
12 hours a week of badminton specific practice and they had played badminton regularly for over
13 10 years, participating in numerous international competitions. Each participant provided
14 informed consent prior to the study. Full approval was provided by the local ethics committee.

15 2.12 Procedure

16 Each participant had a set of passive reflective markers positioned on numerous
17 anatomical locations in order to replicate the University of Western Australia (UWA) full
18 body marker set (Dempsey, Lloyd, Elliott, Steele, & Munro, 2009). Two further reflective
19 markers were positioned on the racket head at approximately the 10.00 hrs (termed from here
20 as "racket 1") and 02.00 hrs (termed from here as "racket 2") locations of a "clock face"
21 where the racket head/handle intersection would be 06.00 hrs. A marker was also placed on
22 the cork of the shuttle. The right service box of a badminton court was then encircled by four
23 Motion Capture cameras (Qualysis Pro-Reflex MCO 1000, Sweden) synchronized with the
24 Qualysis Motion Capture System (Version 1.10.2xx, Sweden) to record the participant's
25 movements. The participants were required to perform 10 short and 10 long serves to the

1 corresponding service box on the opposite side of the court as per a traditional badminton
2 serve. A panel of three Olympic badminton coaches chose the serve in a doubles match as the
3 shot to be examined in this study. They stated that in elite badminton doubles matches,
4 anticipating the serve is one of the most important attributes a player needs to possess, with
5 the majority of points being won by the team that gain the advantage at the return of serve.

6 **2.13 Data analysis**

7 A standard biomechanical analysis was conducted on each serve, consisting of
8 movement duration, total distance travelled, peak acceleration and peak velocity (Lees, 2002).
9 All dependent variables were recorded from the start of the serve, defined as when the
10 server's feet were set, until the end of serve, defined as shuttle/racket contact. Coaching
11 literature from badminton indicated that players anticipate shot depth during the early stages
12 of the server's movement, whereas shot direction (e.g., left, right) is recognised during initial
13 shuttle flight (Badminton Association of England, Handbook, 2005). Therefore, all dependent
14 variables were calculated as a function of depth (long, short). Additionally, after initial
15 inspection of the serves, the action was separated into two distinct phases termed the
16 *preparation* and *execution phases*. The preparation phase was defined as from the video frame
17 in which the server's feet were set to the frame in which the racket and shuttle were set prior
18 to their final forward motion. The execution phase was defined as from the frame containing
19 the set point of the racket and shuttle up until that containing racket-shuttle contact.

20 First, movement duration was calculated as a function of phase. Second, total distance
21 travelled was calculated for each marker for each of the serves as a function of movement
22 phase. Total distance covered was calculated by summing the movement path distances of a
23 marker across an action. Displacement data were not calculated as a variable within this study
24 as it only provides the length of the line between the start and end point of the marker and,
25 therefore, has the potential to provide a null value. Total distance covered for each marker

1 between short and long serves in each phase was analysed using separate paired t-tests on
2 each marker. Only the markers that differentiated short from long serves for distance covered
3 were selected for further analysis, as the other markers were deemed not part of the
4 discriminating information indicating the length of the shot to the server's opponent. Third,
5 peak acceleration was calculated and analysed using separate paired t-tests across both phases
6 for only those markers that were differentiated for their total distance covered between long
7 and short serves.¹ In order to limit the potential inflation of type-1 errors through multiple t-
8 tests, each alpha value was adjusted using the Bonferroni correction method. Updated alpha
9 values are reported throughout.

10 **3.1 Results**

11 The average movement duration was 4,550 ms ($SD = 0.65$) consisting of the
12 preparation ($M = 3,400\text{ms}$, $SD = 500$) and execution phase ($M = 1,900\text{ms}$, $SD = 320$). Total
13 distance covered was significantly greater in seven out of the 28 markers in one of the
14 movement phases at least for long compared to short serves. The distance travelled for these
15 seven markers and the statistical results for this dependent variable are shown in Table 1 for
16 the preparation phase of the movement and Table 2 for the execution phase. No differences
17 were found in the preparation phases for distance travelled in any of the markers. However, in
18 the execution phase, total distance travelled was greater in long compared to short serves in
19 the right elbow, medial right wrist, 3rd carpal on right wrist, racket 1, racket 2, lateral right
20 wrist and right shoulder (all $p < .01$). These seven kinematic markers and locations were
21 subjected to further analysis.

22 In the preparation phase, peak acceleration was greater in long compared to short
23 serves in the 3rd carpal on right wrist ($p < .01$) and racket 2 ($p < .01$). There were no
24 significant differences found for peak acceleration for the other five markers. Table 3 shows

¹Peak velocity was also calculated for the seven markers that differentiated short from long serves. The data did not differ to the peak acceleration data and was, therefore, not included in order that the paper remain concise.

1 the peak acceleration of the seven markers in the execution phase of the movement, as well as
2 the statistical results for this dependent variable. In the execution phase, peak acceleration was
3 greater in long compared to short serves in all seven markers. It differentiated short from long
4 serves in the right shoulder, right elbow, medial right wrist, lateral right wrist, 3rd carpal on
5 right wrist, racket 1 and racket 2 (all $p < .01$).

6 SECTION 2

7 4.1 Method

8 4.11 Participants

9 Participants were eight expert ($M = 28.9$ years of age, $SD = 3.1$) and eight novice ($M =$
10 18.5 years of age, $SD = 1.1$) badminton players. Expert participants were on the Team GB
11 World Class Development Programme for athletes who have potential to medal at World or
12 Olympic events. The expert participants were taking part in 20 hours a week of badminton
13 specific practice and had played badminton regularly for over 10 years, participating in
14 international competitions. In contrast, novice participants were individuals who had not
15 taken part in any structured badminton training or competition. Each participant provided
16 informed consent prior to the study. Full approval was provided by the local ethics committee.

17 4.12 Video recording and film construction

18 A domain-specific representative task was created for this study using life-sized video
19 footage of players completing a variety of serves from the perspective of an opponent in a
20 doubles match. To create the task, the four international badminton players from the first
21 section of the paper were videotaped completing a range of serves. A high-definition (HD)
22 video camera (Canon XHA1S; Tokyo, Japan) was positioned two metres away from the net at
23 eye level (1.7 metres) so as to provide the most realistic representation of the opponent's view.
24 The players completed long and short serves to three different directions/locations on the
25 opponent's court. The locations were the tee (the point at which the centre line meets the

1 service line or back tramline), centre of service box, and wide to the left and right service box.
2 The six areas of the court were identified by the same panel of Olympic coaches as being the
3 most commonly used during a badminton serve in a doubles match. Although the primary
4 independent variable was shot depth, three shot directions were included in the video (central,
5 left and right), so as to increase the difficulty of the task, lowering the level of chance on the
6 test from 50% (long, short) to 17% (six landing locations). During filming, another individual
7 was positioned on court who acted as the doubles partner for the server. Both the server and
8 their partner could be viewed on the video. Each of the servers performed three shots to each
9 of the six locations, making a total of 18 serves per server, and 72 serves in total.

10 Serves were edited (Adobe Premier Pro Editing Software, Version CS5, San Jose,
11 USA) into video clips to be used in a test film. Each video clip began with a black screen for
12 2,000 ms containing white text. Since the experiment was to take place on a badminton court,
13 the text informed the participant to stand in the left or right service box so as to receive the on
14 screen serve. At 2,000 ms, another black screen showed white text of a “3, 2, 1” countdown
15 that lasted 2,000 ms. At 4,000 ms, a still picture of the initial video frame of the service action
16 was shown for 500ms. At 4,500 ms, the video began with the initial still frame containing the
17 start of the trial for 500 ms and the beginning of the video of the movement/preparation phase
18 started at 5,000 ms approximately. The video ran for approximately 4,500ms. The clips ended
19 with a black screen that occluded for 3,000 ms. Each clip was occluded at one of three time
20 points: 40 ms pre racket/shuttle contact; at racket/shuttle contact; and 40ms post racket/shuttle
21 contact. The trials were presented in a random order across the test film, but kept in the same
22 order for each participant.

23 **4.13 Procedure**

24 Prior to the experiment, participants received instruction about the rationale and
25 protocol of the study. A mobile eye-tracking system (ASL MobileEye, Bedford, USA) was

1 used to record gaze behaviours. The mobile eye-tracking system is a head-mounted,
2 monocular eye-tracking system that computes point of gaze within a scene through
3 calculation of the vector between the participant's pupil and cornea. The calibration consisted
4 of participants fixating to six pre-determined location points on a still image of one of the
5 trials (server's head, racket head, left foot, shuttle, non-server's head and racket head). During
6 calibration, participants were instructed to adopt the typical stance used when returning serve.

7 Testing took place on a full size international standard badminton court. The test film
8 was back projected life-size onto a two-dimensional screen (size 2.74 metres high x 3.66
9 metres wide, Draper, USA). The screen was positioned on the opposite side of the court at
10 1.98 metres from where the net would be in a position that provided the most representative
11 view of the serves. Participants were required to start each trial on either the left or right hand
12 side of the service area, as they would do in a normal badminton match. The start locations
13 were clearly marked on the floor with an "X" using tape. Participants were required to
14 physically carry out a return shot as they would do in a match and to provide verbal
15 confirmation as to the end location of the serve. The experimenter hand notated the verbal
16 response of the participant during the experiment. The physical return shot was not recorded
17 as a dependent variable, but was used to increase the fidelity of the task. A time limit was set
18 for the verbalised and movement response to occur at 3,000 ms after the video occlusion,
19 which approximately corresponded to the moment when the shuttlecock would reach the
20 ground on film and become unplayable. Any responses that occurred after the time limit were
21 deemed incorrect. At the 3,000 ms time limit, the black screen containing white text
22 informing the participant where to stand on the next trial appeared.

23 Participants engaged in 10 familiarization trials after which the calibration of the
24 mobile eye-tracking system was checked. Participants then completed the test film in two
25 blocks of 36 trials, lasting approximately nine minutes each. There was a five-minute break

1 between the blocks in which the eye movement system calibration was checked again. The
2 experiment was filmed using two HD cameras. One camera was positioned two metres behind
3 the baseline and the other two metres to the right of the court, perpendicular to the service
4 area. After the experiment, the verbal responses from the participants recorded on the video
5 footage were individually checked against those originally hand notated. Reliability checks
6 were carried out on 10% of the verbal response data using intra-observer (98%) and inter-
7 observer (91%) agreement methods (Thomas, Nelson, & Silverman, 1996).

8 **4.14 Data Analysis**

9 Response accuracy was calculated as a score showing the number of correct verbal
10 responses made by participants on the 72 trials. An independent t-test was used to compare
11 overall response accuracy performance between the two groups in terms of the frequency of
12 correct trials out of the 72 trials. Mean response accuracy scores for correct trials across the
13 occlusion points were analysed using a 2 Group (expert, novice) x 3 Occlusion Points
14 (shuttle-racket contact, 40 ms before, 40 ms after) ANOVA with repeated measures on the
15 last factor. Separate one-way ANOVAs were used to examine the type of errors (depth,
16 direction or both) made by the two groups.

17 Eye movement data were recorded at 25 frames per second. The video footage from
18 the eye movement registration system was subjected to frame by frame analysis using Adobe
19 Premier Pro Video Editing Software (Version CS 5, San Jose, USA). First, we conducted a
20 standard visual search behaviour analysis to enable comparison with previous research (e.g.,
21 Williams & Elliott, 1999). Four gaze behaviours were initially calculated: number of fixations,
22 fixation location, fixation duration, and duration of final fixation. A fixation was defined as
23 when the participant's gaze remained within three degrees of visual angle of a location or
24 moving object for a minimum duration of 120 ms (Vickers, 1996). Final fixation was defined
25 as the last fixation on the screen prior to the video occluding. Separate independent t-tests

1 trials, $SD = 3$) when compared to the novice players ($M = 39$ correct trials, $SD = 5$), $t(14) =$
2 $7.46, p < .01$. The Group (expert, novice) x Occlusion Points (shuttle-racket contact, 40 ms
3 before, 40 ms after) ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for group, $F(1, 14) = 59.76, p$
4 $< .01$. There was a significant main effect for occlusion point, $F(2, 14) = 30.49, p < .01$, with
5 response accuracy being significantly higher in the 40 ms post racket/shuttle contact occlusion
6 point ($M = 18$ correct trials out of 24 trials, $SD = 0.21$) compared to both the racket/shuttle
7 contact occlusion point ($M = 15$ correct trials, $SD = 1.12$) and the 40 ms pre racket/ shuttle
8 contact occlusion point ($M = 13$ correct trials, $SD = 0.32$). There were significantly more
9 correct trials in the racket/shuttle contact occlusion period compared to the 40 ms pre
10 racket/shuttle contact occlusion points.

11 Response errors were made by incorrectly stating shot depth, shot direction, or shot
12 depth and direction combined. One way ANOVA revealed novice players made significantly
13 more direction errors ($M = 17$ incorrect trials out of 34, $SD = 4$) compared to depth errors (M
14 $= 7$ incorrect trials out of 34, $SD = 1$) and combined depth and direction errors ($M = 10$
15 incorrect trials out of 34, $SD = 1$), $F(2, 14) = 30.45, p < .01$. A separate one-way ANOVA
16 showed skilled players made significantly more direction errors ($M = 9$ incorrect trials out of
17 18, $SD = 1$) when compared to depth errors ($M = 4$ incorrect trials out of 18, $SD = 1$) and
18 combined depth and direction errors ($M = 5$ incorrect trials out of 18, $SD = 1$), $F(2, 14) =$
19 $44.81, p < .01$. Players who made direction errors may plausibly have been able to return the
20 shuttlecock in a real-game due to their correct depth response placing them within the vicinity
21 of it, whereas those who made errors on depth would be less likely to return it, if at all.

22 **5.11 Visual search behaviour**

23 The overall number of visual fixations during trials in the temporal occlusion test did
24 not differentiate the expert ($M = 2.02$ fixations per trial, $SD = 0.68$) and novice players ($M =$
25 1.88 fixations per trial, $SD = 0.26$), $t(14) = -.57, p = .58$. Mean duration of fixation for the

1 expert players ($M = 1154$ ms per trial, $SD = 169$) was significantly longer compared to the
2 novice players ($M = 968$ ms per trial, $SD = 103$), $t(14) = -2.64$, $p < .01$. The final fixation for
3 the expert group ($M = 1700$ ms, $SD = 132$) was significantly longer compared to the novice
4 players ($M = 1262$ ms, $SD = 221$), $t(14) = -2.91$, $p < .01$.

5 The Group (expert, novice) x Response Accuracy (correct, incorrect) x Location
6 (racket, wrist, shuttle, other) ANOVA on the visual fixation locations in the preparation phase
7 revealed no significant main effects or interactions. Table 4 shows the statistical results for
8 the same ANOVA on the fixation location data in the execution phase of the movement, while
9 Figure 2 shows the fixation locations for both groups in the execution phase. A significant
10 main effect for fixation location showed participants fixated vision on the racket in more trials
11 compared to the wrist, shuttle or other location. Moreover, the wrist was fixated in more trials
12 compared to the shuttle and other location.

13 There was a significant three-way Response Accuracy x Location x Group interaction
14 that explained the interactions in the data. *Post hoc* showed that the expert players fixated the
15 racket on more of their 54 correct trials ($M = 37$ out of 54 correct trials, $SD = 2.21$) compared
16 to the novice players on their 39 correct trials ($M = 20$ out of 39 correct trials, $SD = 2.11$) and
17 that they fixated on the racket in more correct trials compared to all other locations for both
18 groups across all trials ($p < .05$). There were no significant differences in the amount of
19 incorrect trials in which the racket was fixated between the expert ($M = 10$ trials out of an
20 average of 18 incorrect trials, $SD = 1.32$) and novice group ($M = 11$ trials out of an average of
21 33 incorrect trials, $SD = 1.02$). However, both groups fixated the racket significantly more on
22 correct trials compared to incorrect trials ($p < .05$), with the number of incorrect trials in
23 which the racket was fixated being relatively low. For the wrist location, there were no
24 between-group differences in the number of correct trials in which fixations upon the wrist
25 occurred for the expert ($M = 14$ trials out of an average of 54 correct trials, $SD = 1.43$) and

1 novice players ($M = 13$ trials out of an average of 39 correct trials, $SD = 1.06$). However, the
2 novice players fixated the wrist on more incorrect trials ($M = 10$ out of an average of 33
3 incorrect trials, $SD = 2.32$) compared to the expert players ($M = 7$ out of an average of 18
4 incorrect trials, $SD = 2.11$). Both groups fixated the wrist in more correct compared to
5 incorrect trials ($p < .05$).

6 For the shuttle location, the novice players fixated the shuttle in more correct ($M = 3$
7 out of 39 correct trials, $SD = 1.01$) and incorrect trials ($M = 7$ out of 33 incorrect trials, $SD =$
8 1.21) compared to the expert players. However, the number of correct trials in which the
9 shuttle was fixated was very low and was significantly lower than for the racket and wrist (p
10 $< .05$), whilst for the novice players it occurred on significantly more incorrect compared to
11 correct trials ($p < .05$). For the other locations, the novice players fixated them in more
12 incorrect trials ($M = 6$ out of 33 incorrect trials, $SD = 1.32$) compared to the expert players,
13 but there were no between-group differences in fixations on other locations in correct trials,
14 with the number of trials in which this occurred being very low. Moreover, the novice group
15 fixated the other location more during incorrect trials compared to correct trials, whereas the
16 expert group did not.

17 **6.1 General Discussion**

18 We examined the kinematic differences between long and short badminton serves and
19 whether athletes fixate vision upon the discriminating kinematic information during
20 successful anticipation responses. A comprehensive kinematic analysis demonstrated when
21 and where the discriminating kinematic differences occurred between long and short serves.
22 Subsequently, expert and novice participants completed a temporal occlusion anticipation test
23 whilst wearing a mobile eye movement registration system. As predicted, the expert
24 participants were significantly more accurate at anticipation on the temporal occlusion test
25 compared to the novice participants. Findings support previous research showing that expert

1 athletes are better than novice athletes at anticipating upcoming actions (Abernethy et al.,
2 2001; Dicks, Button & Davids, 2010; Gabbett, Rubinoff, Thorburn & Farrow, 2007; Muller,
3 Abernethy & Farrow, 2006; Savelsbergh et al., 2002; Williams et al., 2002), especially earlier
4 in the execution of the action (Abernethy, 1990; Williams et al., 2002). The expert group have
5 a significantly greater amount of domain specific experience, thus enabling them to combine
6 the current environmental situation with those previous experiences to aid in response
7 selection (Causer et al., 2012), whereas the novices do not.

8 The kinematic differences between long and short serves occurred in the arm, wrist,
9 and racket regions during the execution phase of the movement, whereas there were no
10 kinematic differences between serves in the preparation phase. During the temporal occlusion
11 test, it was expected that the expert players would fixate vision upon the differentiating
12 kinematic locations when this information was available more frequently compared to the
13 novice players. In accordance with this prediction, during the execution phase of the
14 movement, the expert players fixated the racket in more trials and in more correct trials
15 compared to the novice players and compared to any other location. Moreover, both groups
16 fixated upon the discriminating location of the wrist during the execution phase more so than
17 the shuttle and other locations and it was fixated more in correct compared to incorrect trials.
18 However, although the elbow and shoulder were discriminating kinematic locations,
19 participants did not fixate vision upon them, demonstrating that the most relevant cues
20 regarding shot-type were emanating from more distal kinematic locations (i.e. the wrist and
21 the racket). The visual fixation data supports previous research on badminton shots showing
22 that fixations during anticipation judgments are located on specific distal areas of the body,
23 such as arm, wrist, and racket (Abernethy & Russell, 1987). It contradicts previous research
24 in tennis showing fixation locations tend to be distributed across a number of central regions
25 of the body (e.g., head, trunk in Ward et al., 2002; Williams et al., 2002). Therefore, it seems

1 the contradictory results between researchers investigating the kinematic differences between
2 actions (e.g., Bourne et al., 2011) and those examining the kinematic information that
3 observers fixate vision upon (e.g., Williams et al., 2002) are a product of examining these
4 processes in isolation from one another.

5 In contrast, the novice players fixated vision upon the shuttle and other locations,
6 which did not differentiate serve-type, in more trials and in more incorrect trials compared to
7 the expert players. These data agree with previous research by showing that less-skilled
8 players fixate vision upon locations on the opponent's body in which no between-shot
9 differences occur (Savelsbergh et al., 2002; 2005). It was predicted that both groups would be
10 more accurate at anticipation when fixating on the discriminating kinematic locations
11 compared to when they fixated other areas of the display. In support of this prediction,
12 players fixated the racket and wrist in significantly more correct compared to incorrect trials
13 and compared to the shuttle and other locations. Data supports Savelsbergh et al. (2005) who
14 found that the location upon which vision is fixated was a key factor in distinguishing
15 between successful and unsuccessful anticipation performance. In the current study,
16 participants fixated on the wrist and racket in more incorrect trials compared to the shuttle
17 and other locations, albeit the number of trials in which this occurred was relatively low ($n =$
18 10 trials per group per location). These data indicate some incorrect anticipatory judgments
19 occurred when athletes fixated on the correct kinematic differences between actions, but
20 failed to recognise or use this information correctly. However, novice players also made
21 more incorrect judgments compared to expert players when they fixated on the shuttle and
22 other locations, which did not differentiate serve-types. Findings extend previous research by
23 showing that novice players made anticipatory errors when they fixated on the incorrect
24 kinematic locations, whereas expert player did not fixate on this information.

1 It was expected that the kinematic differences between serve-types would emerge or
2 disappear as the movement unfolded across time. The kinematic data supported this
3 prediction as differences between serve-types were found to emerge only in the final
4 execution phase of the movement. During the preparation phase of the badminton serve there
5 were no differences between long and short serves for distance covered at all locations, except
6 for the right elbow. Previously, researchers examining the kinematic cues used during
7 anticipation (Abernethy & Russell, 1987, Abernethy et al., 2008) have suggested this
8 information is available throughout the movement of the opponent, whereas our data show it
9 is not. As predicted, during the execution phase of the movement, the kinematic locations of
10 the arm, wrist, and racket discriminated between the two serve-types. Findings provide
11 support and explanation for researchers who showed that athletes change the areas they fixate
12 upon across the on-going movement (Abernethy & Russell, 1987; Kim & Lee, 2006;
13 Savelsbergh et al., 2002). In our study, the amount and type of kinematic information
14 emanating from different areas of the opponent's body changed across the movement.

15 The standard visual search behaviour analysis used by other researchers (Williams &
16 Elliott, 1999) revealed no between-group differences for the number of fixations per trial.
17 These data contradict previous research showing that expert performers in relatively closed
18 tasks tend to make fewer fixations when compared to novice players (Abernethy, 1990;
19 Poliszczuk & Mosakowsk, 2009; Savelsbergh et al., 2002). These data may be due to the
20 badminton serve and the relatively short movement time for each phase, with the execution
21 phase being only 1,900 ms in duration. However, the expert players had significantly longer
22 fixation durations and final fixations compared to the novice players, supporting previous
23 research. Their average final fixation of 1,700 ms corresponded well with the duration of the
24 execution phase, which was an average of 1,900 ms. Data support previous research on
25 moderately consistent and controlled tasks (Abernethy et al., 2008; Williams et al., 2002)

1 showing fixations of a longer duration are indicative of expert performance. It is possible that
2 the longer fixation duration allowed the expert group more time to extract information from
3 the kinematic cues emanating from the opponent's body.

4 The data show for the first time that the visual search behaviour of the athlete
5 anticipating an opponent's action is dependent on the kinematics of that action and that these
6 two variables should not be examined in isolation. Findings contradict the strategy of
7 researchers who have investigated the kinematic differences between movements in isolation
8 (e.g., Huys et al., 2008) and those who have separately examined the kinematic information
9 that observers fixate upon during anticipation (Williams et al., 2002). In the current study, we
10 have shown that the visual search behaviour of the observer is linked to, and interacts with,
11 the kinematics of the movement being observed. The kinematic differences between the long
12 and short badminton serves used in this study occurred at specific and few distal locations in
13 the arm, wrist, and racket. We have also shown that expert players fixate vision upon these
14 kinematic differences between actions more so compared to novice players and that fixating
15 vision on these differences is associated with superior anticipatory judgments. In future
16 researchers examining anticipation should consider measuring visual search behaviours *and*
17 the kinematics of the action being observed. Moreover, perceptual training programmes
18 aiming to develop more efficient anticipation performance should seek to match visual search
19 patterns to the observed movement. It may be that the temporal constraints of anticipating a
20 badminton serve are less severe compared to some other tasks, such as a smash in badminton
21 or tennis. In this study, coaches identified the serve in a doubles match as a key shot that
22 required anticipation as the majority of points won in badminton doubles are won by the pair
23 who gain the attack on the second shot/return of serve (BWF Handbook, 2013). Given that
24 not all shots in these sports require anticipation (Triolet, Benguigui, Le Runigo, & Williams,
25 2013) in future researchers should seek to objectively identify shots that do. In the current

1 study, the kinematic analysis and the test film footage were collected in separate sessions. The
2 kinematic data collection involved the court being encircled by four Motion Capture cameras,
3 as well as the server wearing 28 reflective markers. We felt that a separate session was
4 required to collect the video footage in order to maintain a level of ecological validity and
5 ensure that participants did not attend to the markers instead of engage in their usual visual
6 strategy. In future researchers should seek to collect both sets of data in one session using
7 methods that are less invasive and ecologically limiting (i.e., SimiMotion, Germany). The
8 expert group in this study may have had previous experience of playing with or against the
9 servers used to generate video footage, which was an unavoidable by-product of the small
10 expert population.

11 In summary, we examined for the first time in the literature the coupling between the
12 kinematics differentiating opponent actions and the related visual search behaviour of expert
13 and novice badminton players aiming to anticipate these actions. Long and short badminton
14 serves were differentiated for distance travelled and peak acceleration at the kinematic
15 locations of the arm, wrist and racket. Expert players fixated vision on the locations that were
16 discriminating between serve-types for a longer duration and more frequently when compared
17 to the novice players. The expert players' visual search strategies resulted in more accurate
18 anticipation when compared to the novice players. These data extend previous literature by
19 showing that expert players' visual search behaviour is inextricably linked to the kinematics
20 of the opponents' actions being observed and that this is an essential part of successful
21 anticipatory judgements. Data has implications for applied practitioners in badminton and,
22 possibly, other racket sports attempting to develop perceptual-cognitive skills through
23 providing prescriptive information relating to the critical cues that aid anticipatory
24 judgements.

25

8.1 Acknowledgements

1 The lead author was funded by the English Institute of Sport during this research.

2 There are no conflicts of interest arising from this research.

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10.1 Figure captions

Figure 1: Response accuracy of the expert and novice groups on the temporal occlusion anticipation test.

Figure 2: Visual fixation locations for the expert and novice groups in the execution phase of the movement.

11.1 Table captions

Table 1: Mean (SD) distance travelled (mm) in the preparation phase of the serve for the seven markers that differentiated long from short serves in one of the two phases.

Table 2: Mean (SD) distance travelled (mm) in the execution phase of the serve for the seven markers that differentiated long from short serves in one of the two phases.

Table 3: Mean (SD) peak acceleration (mm) in the execution phase of the serve for the seven markers that differentiated long from short serves in one of the two phases.

Table 4: An ANOVA table for visual fixation location data in the execution phase of the movement for the expert and novice group on successful and unsuccessful trials.