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Context affects Quiet Eye duration and motor performance independent of cognitive effort

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Abstract

An extensive body of research exists which has investigated ‘Quiet Eye’ and performance in aiming tasks. However, little attention has been paid to whether the context in which tasks are executed affects Quiet Eye and, despite consistent behavioural effects, little is known about the mechanisms that underpin the phenomenon. In this study, 21 novice participants completed golf putts in **three different contexts** while pupil dilation, Quiet Eye duration, and putting accuracy were measured. Results showed putting was more accurate when putting to win compared to the control (**no context**) condition and Quiet Eye duration was **longer** when putting to win or **tie** a hole compared to the control condition. There was no effect of context on pupil dilation. **Results suggest that, while the task was challenging, performance scenarios can be included in learning environments for novice golfers to enhance representativeness of practice without adding additional load to cognitive resources.**

Key Words: perceptual-cognitive skill; expertise; gaze behaviour, motor control

Introduction

54 Over the past two decades, researchers have conducted numerous empirical
55 investigations in to the visual control of movement in aiming tasks (Causser, Hayes, Hooper,
56 & Bennett, 2017; Causser, Holmes, Smith, & Williams, 2011; Miles, Wood, Vine, Vickers, &
57 Wilson, 2015; Vickers, Vandervies, Kohut, & Ryley, 2017; Vine & Wilson, 2011). A
58 consistent finding is that the final visual fixation (lasting over 100ms; within one-degree of
59 visual angle) prior to execution of an action is exhibited for longer by higher skilled
60 participants. Longer final fixations are associated with more successful performance
61 outcomes (Lebeau et al., 2016), commonly referred to in the literature as the ‘Quiet Eye’
62 (QE; Vickers, 1992; Vickers, 1996; Vickers & Williams, 2007). Research findings
63 highlighting the performance benefits of QE have been consistently shown in sport (Lebeau
64 et al., 2016), surgery (Causser et al., 2014; Harvey et al., 2014), and coordination disorders
65 (Miles et al., 2015). Researchers have also developed interventions to increase QE duration
66 and reported subsequent performance improvements (Causser, Holmes, & Williams, 2011;
67 Panchuk et al., 2014; Vine et al., 2011; Vine & Wilson, 2011).

68 Researchers working in the field of perceptual-motor control have investigated how
69 task constraints affect gaze behaviour, anxiety, and cognitive effort, to glean a broader
70 understanding of the factors affecting performance. To this end, researchers have examined
71 how QE is affected by factors such as physiological arousal (Vickers & Williams, 2007), the
72 presence of opponents (Vickers et al., 2019), and in particular the manipulation of anxiety
73 (Causser et al., 2014; Causser et al., 2011; Moore et al., 2012; Vine et al., 2013; Wood &
74 Wilson, 2011). In an effort to manipulate anxiety, previous work has often used competition
75 scenarios. For example, Causser et al. (2011) instructed skilled shotgun shooters to ‘shoot as if
76 they were in a competition’ in an attempt to heighten anxiety and found an increase in self-
77 reported anxiety as well as later QE onset and shorter QE duration alongside reduced

78 shooting accuracy in this condition. From here on, we refer to such manipulations of
79 situational variables as manipulations of ‘context’ where context is defined as referring to
80 ‘the situation within which something exists or happens, and that can help explain it’
81 (Cambridge English Dictionary, 2020).

82 The manipulation of context has been of particular interest following recent reviews
83 which have identified the need for researchers to further investigate its influence (see Cañal-
84 Bruland & Mann, 2015; Loffing & Cañal-Bruland, 2017; Williams & Jackson, 2019). Such
85 research has reported that the presence of contextual information (i.e., that which provides
86 information about the situation and does not seek to alter anxiety) can improve anticipation
87 accuracy in cricket (Runswick et al., 2019; Runswick et al., 2018) and tennis (Murphy et al.,
88 2016). McRobert et al. (2011) reported that providing contextual information that did not
89 focus on manipulating anxiety resulted in not only enhanced accuracy in a perceptual-
90 cognitive anticipation task, but also led to a reduction in length of mean fixation duration
91 which was suggested as being due to a reduction in the time required to process information.
92 This suggests that the provision of contextual information which does not seek to manipulate
93 anxiety may also affect the functional coupling between QE and action execution and may do
94 so differently than reported in previous QE research that has focused on anxiety (Rodrigues et
95 al., 2002).

96 Recent evidence that has specifically investigated whether anxiety and context operate
97 through separate mechanisms has affirmed this assertion (Broadbent et al., 2019; Runswick et
98 al., 2018). Runswick et al. (2018) conducted an experiment using an in-situ cricket batting
99 task where context and anxiety were manipulated separately. Results showed that when
100 performing in conditions where anxiety was manipulated there was a reduction in and batting
101 performance and processing efficiency, inferred from an increase in visual fixations on
102 irrelevant stimuli. In contrast, when contextual information was provided in the absence of

103 the anxiety manipulations, bat-ball contact was negatively affected but through changes in the
104 execution of motor responses without changes in processing efficiency. A similar study by
105 Broadbent et al. (2019) sought to confirm these findings by having expert soccer players
106 complete an anticipation task in high or low anxiety conditions with and without ‘contextual
107 priors’ that detailed the opponents action tendencies. In conditions where anxiety was
108 manipulated (through performance evaluation) performance was negatively affected and was
109 underpinned by a decrease in processing efficiency measured through self-reported mental
110 effort. However, context enhanced performance without affecting processing efficiency.
111 Taken together, these findings reported by Runswick et al. (2018) and Broadbent et al. (2019)
112 suggest that the provision of context and the manipulation of anxiety both affect aspects of
113 perceptual-motor control, including gaze behaviour, cognitive load, and performance
114 execution, but do so through separate mechanisms. There is then a need to consider how the
115 provision of contextual information independent to any manipulation of anxiety affects QE
116 and associated performance.

117 Despite consistent research findings concerning QE and motor performance, there
118 remains some debate over the mechanisms that underpin the phenomenon. In their review,
119 Gonzalez et al. (2017) highlighted a number of mechanisms that have been proposed to
120 underpin the QE effect. Mechanisms included allocation of attention (Klostermann et al.,
121 2014), motor programming (Mann et al., 2011) and response selection and online control
122 (Causer et al., 2017). For example, Vine et al. (2017) used a temporal occlusion paradigm
123 during a golf putting task to show that the latter portion of the QE period was critical when
124 executing the putt, suggesting therefore that QE is not just a motor programming period but
125 also has a role to play in online control. However, evidence has recently emerged which
126 suggests that QE mechanisms may be linked to information processing and increased
127 cognitive effort (Campbell et al., 2019; Klostermann et al., 2014). This suggests that the

128 performance enhancing effects of longer QE periods are due to QE being a proxy for
129 increases in allocation of cognitive resources devoted to the task at hand.

130 Pupil dilation has been used as a measure of cognitive effort, with larger task-invoked
131 pupil dilation reported as being related to increased cognitive effort during harder cognitive
132 tasks (Campbell et al., 2019; Moran et al., 2016; Robinson & Unsworth, 2019). While Vine et
133 al., (2017) have shown the importance of information available late in the QE period in a
134 golf-putting task, Campbell et al. (2019) found that participants' peak pupil dilation occurred
135 at the onset of QE, consistent with the suggestion that this was the most cognitively
136 demanding time in the task and that QE may be related to cognitive effort. Pupil dilation
137 could, therefore, provide a useful window into the mechanistic underpinnings of QE,
138 however Campbell et al.'s (2019) study represents one of the first to investigate the
139 relationship between QE and pupil dilation and so there is a need to examine this further.
140 Further, there has been no investigation into how experimental manipulations of context
141 which alter the degree of cognitive challenge may affect this relationship. By understanding if
142 context affects QE duration, cognitive effort, and perceptual-motor performance, it is possible
143 to better understand the findings of previous work that has used context to manipulate
144 anxiety. Such investigations can then inform the design training environments that are as
145 representative as possible (Pinder et al., 2016) without overloading the cognitive resources of
146 the learner (Runswick, et al., 2018; Van Merriënboer & Sweller, 2005).

147 In this study, we used a golf-putting task and manipulated the context under which
148 participants putted to investigate how context affects QE duration and motor performance.
149 Specifically, participants putted under conditions where they were instructed that a successful
150 putt would either 'win the hole', would 'tie the hole' (traditionally referred to as a half), or to
151 putt as if they were practising (i.e., absence of context). We recorded QE duration (ms) and
152 putting accuracy (error score) to assess how context affected perceptual-motor control, motor

153 performance and recorded pupil dilation (mm) as an indicator of cognitive effort. Based on
154 the literature showing the effects of QE on performance (Lebeau et al., 2016; Mann et al.,
155 2007) and effects of context on cognitive processes (McRobert et al., 2011b), we predicted
156 that the presence of context would improve putting accuracy and this would be mediated by
157 an increase in QE duration. On the basis of Campbell et al's (2019) proposals, we expected
158 an increase in QE duration would also be accompanied by an increase in pupil dilation as a
159 proxy of cognitive effort. However, Runswick et al. (2018a; b) reported that context had little
160 effect on cognitive effort, which contrasts with the proposals of Campbell et al. (2019).
161 Runswick et al's (2018a; 2018b) findings therefore would inform the hypothesis that the
162 presence of context would affect QE duration and performance but with no change in pupil
163 dilation. Given the relatively novel nature of this part of the study and the limited yet
164 contrasting existing research findings, our aim here was to test these competing hypotheses.

165 Method

166 Participants

167 We conducted an a-priori power analysis using G*power (Faul et al., 2007). The
168 calculation was based on the main effect size from Runswick et al. (2018) that represents the
169 only previous study to investigate the effects of context on perceptual-cognitive-motor
170 performance in a sports-based task. We used the within-factor effect size that displayed a
171 significant effect of context on motor performance ($\eta p^2 = 0.46$). We set a moderate
172 correlation ($r = 0.3$) and power at 0.95. The minimum sample size required was $n = 10$. Given
173 the very large effect size in Runswick et al. (2018), and to account for potential dropout, we
174 recruited 21 participants. The 21 participants (mean age 21.22 ± 1.89 years) who completed
175 the study were all classed as novice golfers, defined as those with no experience playing golf.
176 Due to the nature of the sample some participants may have had some limited exposure to
177 putting during classes or playing 'crazy golf'. The research was conducted in accordance with

178 the ethical guidelines of the lead institution and written informed consent was obtained from
179 all participants at the outset.

180 **Apparatus and task**

181 The experimental task required participants to complete a golf putt without break
182 from a distance of 243cm (8 ft). Testing was conducted using a hole on an indoor putting
183 green in a laboratory. The golf club used was a ‘Series Tour’ golf putter, and the ball was a
184 regulation golf ball (diameter = 43.67 mm, mass = 45.93). Gaze behaviour, QE duration and
185 pupil diameter were recorded using a SensoMotoric Instruments (SMI) mobile eye tracker
186 recording at 60hz. Pupillometry was recorded at a sampling frequency of 30 Hz from both the
187 left and right eye. Putting accuracy was recorded using a standard digital video camera
188 positioned above the hole.

189 **Procedure**

190 Participants were required to attend one testing session. Upon arrival at the laboratory,
191 all participants provided written informed consent. Participants then put on the SMI eye-
192 tracker, which was calibrated by the lead investigator using the 3–point calibration system
193 with participants looking at golf balls on the ground from a putting stance to represent the
194 viewing angle to be used during testing. Participants were informed that they would be asked
195 to perform 18 golf putts, representing an 18-hole match and were instructed to perform the
196 putt in the way they deemed most appropriate for the scenario they were given. Prior to each
197 putt, the lead investigator provided the participant with contextual information. This
198 consisted of participants being informed that the subsequent putt was to either win the hole,
199 **tie** the hole, or the putt was simply a practice putt. The order of putts was counterbalanced
200 across participants. As participants were all considered novice golfers, in ‘win’ and ‘**tie**’
201 scenarios the researcher also **outlined the possible outcome of each putt to ensure the**
202 **participant understood the context but did not direct them on how to behave.** For example,

203 “This putt is to win the hole. If you hole the putt you will win, if you miss you will have a
204 second putt to tie (draw) the hole”; “This putt is to tie (draw) the hole. If you hole the putt
205 you will tie (draw), if you miss the putt you will lose the hole”; “The hole is over and you are
206 taking a practice putt”.

207 **Dependent Measures**

208 *Putting Accuracy*

209 Putting accuracy was recorded as a measure of putting performance. Ten concentric
210 circles surrounded the hole that progressively increased in radius from 10cm to 100cm at
211 10cm intervals. Error was scored out of 10 (putt finishes in the hole) with the score
212 decreasing by 1 for every ring further from the hole. Any putt that finished outside the 100cm
213 radius ring (the furthest ring from the hole) was scored as zero.

214 *Quiet Eye Duration*

215 Consistent with previous literature (e.g., Causer et al., 2017; Vickers, 2007), QE was
216 defined as the initiation of the final fixation on the ball that occurred prior to the start of the
217 backswing. QE duration was recorded using the eye tracker and defined as the length of the
218 fixation (ms) starting from onset, the first frame when the final fixation on the ball began, to
219 offset, when gaze deviated by more than 1 degree of visual angle from the ball for more than
220 100 ms (Vickers, 2007).

221 *Pupillometry*

222 Campbell et al., (2019) suggested that pupil dilation would peak at the onset of QE.
223 However, in this study pupil dilation peaked after the onset of QE in 74% of all trials. We
224 therefore recorded pupil dilation in three ways. Firstly, the pupil dilation (mm) at the onset of
225 QE (Campbell et al., 2019). Secondly, the peak task-evoked pupillary response that occurred
226 during the QE period, and finally the mean pupil dilation across the period of the QE. The
227 dilation of the right eye was used for all analyses(Kahya et al., 2018; Moran et al., 2016;

228 Porter et al., 2007). Full QE and pupillometry data was available for 19 out of 21 participants
229 due to technical issues with the eye tracker for the remaining two participants.

230 Data Analysis

231 Separate one-way repeated measures ANOVA were used to establish the effect of
232 context (win vs tie vs practice conditions) on each dependent variable (putting accuracy,
233 Quiet Eye duration and both mean and peak pupil dilation). Any violations of sphericity were
234 corrected for by adjusting the degrees of freedom using the Greenhouse Geisser correction
235 when epsilon was less than 0.75 and the Huynh-Feldt correction when greater than 0.75
236 (Girden, 1992). The alpha level (p) for statistical significance was set at 0.05. A Bonferroni
237 adjustment was employed for multiple comparisons in order to lower the significance
238 threshold and avoid Type I errors (McLaughlin & Sainani, 2014). Partial eta squared (ηp^2)
239 was used as a measure of effect size for all ANOVA analyses and Cohen's d for post-hoc
240 comparisons.

241 Results

242 Performance

243 **Putting accuracy.** There was a main effect of context on putting accuracy ($F(2,40) =$
244 $3.696, p < 0.034, \eta p^2 = 0.156$, Figure 1). Post hoc tests using Bonferroni correction revealed a
245 higher performance score (more accurate putting) in the *Win* (4.92 ± 1.48) compared to
246 *Practice* (3.93 ± 1.51) condition ($p = 0.026, d = 0.66$). There was no difference in putting
247 accuracy between the *Tie* (4.23 ± 1.74) and *Practice* ($p = 1.0, d = 0.18$) or *Win* ($p = 0.42, d =$
248 0.43) conditions.

249 Quiet Eye Duration

250 There was a main effect of context on QE duration ($F(1.520, 27.361) = 5.250, p < 0.02, \eta p^2$
251 $= 0.226$, Figure 2). Post hoc tests using Bonferroni correction revealed shorter QE duration in

252 the *Practice* (489.23 ± 453.19 ms), compared to *Tie* (752.82 ± 747.76 ms, $p = .05$, $d = 0.43$)
253 and *Win* (704.80 ± 607.48 ms, $p = .005$, $d = 0.40$) conditions. There was no difference in QE
254 duration between *Tie* and *Win* conditions ($p = 1.0$, $d = 0.07$).

255 **Pupillometry**

256 There was no main effect of context on pupil dilation at the onset of QE (*Practice* = $3.77 \pm$
257 0.80 ; *Tie* = 3.56 ± 0.84 ; *Win* = 3.67 ± 0.72 ; $F(2, 36) = 2.299$, $p = 0.116$, $\eta^2 = 0.119$). There
258 was also no main effect of context on mean pupil dilation (*Practice* = 3.81 ± 0.72 ; *Tie* = 3.71
259 ± 0.71 ; *Win* = 3.66 ± 0.66 ; $F(2, 36) = 2.536$, $p = 0.093$, $\eta^2 = 0.123$). Finally, there was also
260 no main effect of context on peak pupil dilation during the QE period (*Practice* = 3.94 ± 0.72 ;
261 *Tie* = 3.88 ± 0.67 ; *Win* = 3.85 ± 0.62 ; $F(2, 36) = 0.71$, $p = 0.45$, $\eta^2 = 0.04$).

262 **Discussion**

263 Our aim in this experiment was to investigate how manipulation of context affected
264 visual motor control and motor performance. Participants completed a golf-putting task under
265 manipulations of context or in the absence of context. We recorded Quiet Eye duration as a
266 measure of visual motor control, putting accuracy as a measure of motor performance, and
267 pupil dilation as an indicator of cognitive effort. We predicted that context would positively
268 affect performance, and this would be mediated by changes in QE duration. If Campbell et
269 al's (2019) proposals were accurate then we expected that an increased in QE duration would
270 also be accompanied by an increased in pupil dilation as a proxy of cognitive effort.
271 However, the contrasting findings of Runswick et al. (2018a; b) informed the competing
272 hypothesis that context would affect QE duration and performance with no change in pupil
273 dilation as an indicator of cognitive effort.

274 In line with our hypotheses, and consistent with findings from previous empirical
275 investigations, there was a significant main effect of context on performance (Causer et al.,

276 2011; McRobert et al., 2011b; Murphy et al., 2016). Participants putted more accurately when
277 putts were in context ‘to win’ compared to practice putts (no context). These findings are
278 partially consistent with those reported by Runswick et al. (2018) who found the presence of
279 context affected performance in an interceptive perceptual-cognitive-motor task. However,
280 whilst we observed an *improvement* in putting accuracy, Runswick et al. (2018) found the
281 presence of context caused a *degradation* in quality of bat-ball contact. When the cricket
282 batters in Runswick’s study were exposed to context (in the form of fielder position and score
283 line information) there was an enhanced likelihood of negative outcomes (i.e., they could lose
284 their wicket, or the fielders could intercept their shots). In this study, however, the context of
285 putting to win meant participants had two attempts to avoid losing the hole, meaning a
286 potential increase in possible positive outcomes. Together, these findings suggest that the
287 type of scenario presented, and task may mediate the effects of context on motor
288 performance.

289 The main effect of context on performance (putting accuracy) was accompanied by a
290 main effect of context on QE duration. However, QE durations reported here are shorter than
291 reported elsewhere previously (e.g., Vine et al., 2011), which may be due to novice
292 participants being used in this experiment whereas much previous research has employed
293 skilled participants. Despite QE duration being comparatively short, both putting conditions
294 where context was provided (i.e., putting ‘to win’ or ‘tie’) were characterised by significantly
295 longer QE durations than when putting in the absence of context (i.e., the ‘practice’
296 condition), which was also the condition in which putting was least accurate. Although not in
297 an aiming task, McRobert et al. (2011) previously reported changes in gaze behaviour during
298 perceptual-cognitive tasks when provided with contextual information relative to when
299 performing the same tasks without contextual information. In the study reported here, the link
300 between an increase in QE duration and enhanced putting accuracy in the ‘putt to win’

301 condition is consistent with much of the literature concerning QE and motor performance,
302 both within golf putting (see Campbell et al., 2019; Causer et al., 2017) and other tasks (see
303 Lebeau et al., 2016). While previous research has shown that QE duration and subsequent
304 motor performance was affected by anxiety manipulated through the addition of context
305 (Causer et al., 2011), here we have specifically shown the context in which a task is
306 performed- independent of anxiety- affects QE and performance outcomes. This suggests that
307 to develop measures of optimum gaze applicable to real world settings, non-visual
308 information such as contextual factors should be represented in experimental designs and
309 practice environments.

310 To test recent suggestions that QE may be underpinned by cognitive mechanisms
311 based on greater cognitive effort and information processing (Campbell et al., 2019;
312 Klostermann et al., 2014), we collected pupillometry data in three ways during the QE period.
313 The pupil dilations recorded were large compared to those reported in classical work
314 involving participants completing seven digit memory tasks (see Beatty & Kahneman, 1966),
315 suggesting the putting task was cognitively challenging for a novice. However, despite a
316 significant increase in QE duration in the ‘putt to win’ and ‘putt to tie’ conditions compared
317 to the control ‘practice’ condition, there was no effect of the additional context on onset, peak
318 or mean pupil dilation despite concurrent changes in motor performance. This suggests that
319 context manipulations affect perceptual-motor processes independent from changes in
320 cognitive effort. Our findings therefore challenge the predictions of Campbell et al. (2019)
321 who suggest QE may be mediated by changes in cognitive processes. These findings are,
322 however, in line with those of Runswick et al. (2018a;b) and Broadbent et al. (2019) who
323 reported that changes in context affect perceptual-motor processes independent of cognitive
324 effort and anxiety.

325 The results have practical, theoretical and empirical implications. **First, much of the**
326 **current understanding around QE behaviour, while predicated on a strong base of scientific**
327 **evidence derived from research studies that have manipulated numerous constraints on the**
328 **task (e.g Causer et al., 2014; Causer et al., 2011; Moore et al., 2012; Vine et al., 2013; Wood**
329 **& Wilson, 2011), has not considered contextual information which is present in performance**
330 **environments independent of anxiety.** It is important that researchers seek to ensure that
331 factors present in performance environments are faithfully represented, as much as is
332 possible, when designing experiments (Broadbent et al., 2015; Pinder et al., 2016; Stone et
333 al., 2014). Second, the finding that context influenced perceptual-motor processes
334 independent of cognitive effort suggests that not only should context be included in
335 experimental design, but that it could be incorporated in learning environments without
336 overloading the cognitive resources of even novice learners (c.f. Cognitive Load Theory; van
337 Merriënboer & Sweller, 2005). We did not find evidence for the proposal that QE duration
338 may be an indicator of enhanced information processing. Future research could also include
339 more specific measures to investigate other proposed QE mechanisms alongside pupillometry
340 that focus on cognitive approaches.

341 In this study, we employed a context manipulation in a golf-putting task to investigate
342 the effects of context on QE duration, target aiming motor performance and cognitive effort.
343 **Findings showed that context led to an increase in QE duration and more accurate motor**
344 **performance, yet these effects occurred without changes in pupil dilation; a proxy for**
345 **cognitive effort. Findings suggest that QE may not be underpinned by cognitive processing**
346 **and that context could be introduced into both the design of QE experiments and training**
347 **environments using simple hypothetical manipulations.**

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497

498 **Figure Captions**

499

500 **Figure 1.** Mean performance score per putt with individual participant data points for each
501 context.

502 **Figure 2.** Mean Quiet Eye duration with individual participant data points for each context.

503 **Figure 3.** Mean and individual participant data points for each context for (A) Pupil dilation
504 at QE onset (B) Peak pupil dilation during the QE period and (C) Mean pupil dilation during
505 the QE period.

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