

# **Predictive Action Perception from Explicit Intention Information in Autism**

Matthew Hudson<sup>1</sup>, Toby Nicholson, Anna Kharko, Rebecca McKenzie, Patric Bach<sup>2</sup>

Plymouth University, UK.

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<sup>1</sup>Corresponding author now affiliated with: School of Business, National College of Ireland,  
Mayor Street, IFSC, Dublin 1, Ireland. Email: matthew.hudson@ncirl.ie

<sup>2</sup>Now affiliated with: University of Aberdeen, William Guild Building, Kings College, Old  
Aberdeen, Aberdeen, United Kingdom.

26 **Abstract**

27 Social difficulties in Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) may originate from a reduced top-  
28 down modulation of sensory information that prevents the spontaneous attribution of  
29 intentions to observed behaviour. However, although autistic people are able to explicitly  
30 reason about others' mental states, the effect of abstract intention information on perceptual  
31 processes has remained untested. ASD participants (n = 23) and a neurotypical (NT) control  
32 group (n = 23) observed a hand either reaching for an object or withdrawing from it. Prior to  
33 action onset, the participant either instructed the actor to "Take it" or "Leave it", or heard the  
34 actor state "I'll take it" or "I'll leave it", which provided an explicit intention that was equally  
35 likely to be congruent or incongruent with the subsequent action. The hand disappeared  
36 before completion of the action and participants reported the last seen position of the tip of  
37 the index finger by touching the screen. NT participants exhibited a predictive bias in  
38 response to action direction (reaches perceived nearer the object, withdrawals perceived  
39 farther away), and in response to prior knowledge of the actor's intentions (nearer the object  
40 after "Take it", farther away after "Leave it"). However, ASD participants exhibited a  
41 predictive perceptual bias only in response to the explicit intentions, but not in response to the  
42 motion of the action itself. Perception in ASD is not immune from top-down modulation.  
43 However, the information must be explicitly presented independently from the stimulus itself,  
44 and not inferred from cues inherent in the stimulus.

45  
46 Keywords: Autism Spectrum Disorder, Action Prediction, Predictive Coding,  
47 implicit/explicit mentalizing, representational momentum

48

## 49 **Predictive Action Perception from Explicit Intention Information in Autism**

50 Difficulties in social communication and interaction, alongside restricted and repetitive  
51 behaviours and interests, form a core symptom cluster of autism spectrum disorder (ASD),  
52 affecting the initiation and reciprocation of non-verbal, emotional, and communicative  
53 interactions (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). There is an emerging consensus that  
54 these social difficulties may originate, in part, from a general overreliance on bottom-up  
55 sensory input, at the expense of top-down information (e.g., Palmer, Seth, & Hohwy, 2015;  
56 Van de Cruys, et al., 2014). Reduced top-down influence would particularly affect social  
57 interactions, as the hidden goals and intentions that drive others' observed behaviour need to  
58 be constantly disambiguated (e.g. Bach, Nicholson, & Hudson, 2014; Barresi & Moore, 1996;  
59 Hohwy & Palmer, 2014). In typically developing individuals, such top-down influences allow  
60 others' behavior to be seen not as simply the movement of the limbs, but in terms of the  
61 mental states that cause it, as if others' intentions, beliefs, and emotions were "drawn" onto  
62 the behaviour (for reviews, see Bach & Schenke, 2017; Gallagher, 2008; Teufel, Fletcher, &  
63 Davis, 2010). This direct perception of the goals and intentions that imbue observed behavior  
64 with meaning may be less evident in ASD, so that behaviour is perceived only in terms of  
65 what is explicitly visually available.

66 So far, research has however primarily tested situations in which the relevant high-  
67 level information was merely *implied* by the observed behaviours, and not explicitly given,  
68 and therefore needed to be spontaneously inferred from the action kinematics. This limitation  
69 is crucial because there is emerging evidence that while autistic people can reason about  
70 others' mental states when explicitly asked, they tend to not do so spontaneously (e.g.,  
71 Apperly & Butterfill, 2009; Frith & Frith, 2008; Schaller & Rauh, 2017; Senju, 2010; Tager-  
72 Flusberg, 2001; Zalla, Labruyere, Clement, & Georgieff, 2010). Despite being able to  
73 differentiate actions based on explicitly available visual information, for example recognizing

74 different actions or discriminating them from robotic or scrambled motion (e.g., Cusack,  
75 Williams, & Neri, 2015), autistic people find it particularly difficult when action perception  
76 requires *spontaneous inferences* of higher-level information, such as the goals implied by an  
77 action (Ganglmayer, Schuwerk, Sodian & Paulus, 2019; Hudson, Burnett, & Jellema, 2012),  
78 an actor's false beliefs (Schuwerk, Jarvers, Vuori, & Sodian, 2016; Senju et al., 2010), the  
79 emotions implied by biological motion (Centelles, Assaiante, Etchegoyhen, Bouvard, &  
80 Schmitz, 2013), or the intention behind communicative gestures (Von der Luhe et al., 2016).

81         To convincingly test whether ASD involves a generalized reduction in top-down  
82 processing, it needs to be established that these characteristics persist even if the relevant  
83 higher-level information is explicitly given, in a form that makes spontaneous inferences  
84 unnecessary. This study provides this crucial test. It utilizes a recent paradigm (Hudson,  
85 Nicholson, Ellis, & Bach, 2016; Hudson, Nicholson, Simpson, Ellis, & Bach, 2016) that  
86 reliably reveals how social perception in neurotypical individuals is biased by the integration  
87 of both explicit top-down intention information, and intention information merely implied by  
88 the actor's behaviour. In each trial, participants view, on a monitor, an actor's hand near an  
89 object and are given explicit information about the actor's goal, either by hearing the actors  
90 verbal statements (e.g., "I'll take it!", "I'll leave it!"), or by themselves instructing the actor  
91 ("Take it!", "Leave it!"). They then briefly view the actor either reach for or withdraw from  
92 the object, equally likely following the expectation or acting against it. The hand disappears  
93 mid-trajectory, and participants simply report, either on a touch screen, or using a probe  
94 comparison task, the last seen position of the hand. Across several studies, these perceptual  
95 judgments were reliably distorted by the goal implied by the action kinematics, so that a  
96 reach was perceived nearer the object than it really was and a withdrawal further away (the  
97 representational momentum effect: Freyd & Finke, 1984). Importantly, perceptual judgments  
98 were also biased by the actor's explicit intention statements. Participants reported hands



124 23 in each group provides 80% power (G\*Power: Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) to  
 125 detect across-groups within-subject effects sizes of .42, within-groups effect sizes of .61, and  
 126 between-subject effect sizes of 0.84. The smallest effect sizes of interest detectable with this  
 127 paradigm (SESOI, Lakens, Scheel, & Isager, 2018) are .30, .43 and .59, respectively. The  
 128 experiment was approved by Plymouth University ethics board.

129 Participants completed the Autistic Spectrum Quotient (Baron-Cohen, Wheelwright,  
 130 Skinner, Martin, & Clubley, 2001), which is a 50-item self-administered questionnaire that  
 131 measures the degree of autistic traits in clinical and neurotypical populations along five  
 132 dimensions (social skills, attention switching, imagination, attention to detail, and  
 133 communication). Initial feedback from potential participants and their support worker  
 134 suggested that the four response options (definitely/slightly agree, definitely/slightly  
 135 disagree) be condensed to two (agree, disagree). The binary scoring of 1 or 0 for each item of  
 136 the AQ permitted this with no loss of variance in AQ scores. Participants also completed the  
 137 Vocabulary and Matrix Reasoning subtests (FSIQ-2) of the WASI IQ test (Wechsler, 1999),  
 138 although we were unable to collect data from two NT participants. After participant  
 139 exclusions (see below), the two groups did not differ in age, gender, Full-2 IQ, Verbal *t*-score  
 140 or Perception *t*-score, whilst AQ scores were higher for the ASD group (see Table 1).

141

142 Table 1. Participant information after exclusions. Sample size and gender composition, with  
 143 mean and SD of age, WASI score, and Autistic Spectrum Quotient Score for each group.

	<b>N (females)</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Left Handed</b>	<b>IQ</b>	<b>Verbal</b>	<b>Perception</b>	<b>AQ</b>
<b>NT</b>	23 (7)	40.7 (8.6)	8%	112.5 (14.0)	55.6 (11.3)	58.2 (7.1)	17.1 (7.8)
<b>ASD</b>	23 (5)	40.1 (12.5)	11%	106.5 (19.1)	50.8 (13.8)	55.7 (12.0)	30.2 (9.4)
<b><i>P</i></b>	.502	.848	.773	.246	.219	.410	<.001

144

145

146 *Apparatus & Stimuli*

147           The experiment was administered using Presentation (NeuroBS) on a Hewlett Packard  
148 s230tm EliteDisplay Touchscreen (1920x1080, 60 Hz). A Logitech PC120 combined  
149 microphone and earphone headset delivered auditory stimuli and registered verbal responses.

150           The stimulus set consisted of 8 action sequences, each consisting of 26 frames (960 X  
151 540 px). They were filmed with a Canon Legria HFS200 at 30fps and separated into  
152 individual frames with MovieDek. Each sequence showed a hand reaching from the right to  
153 the left towards a goal object, depicting the initial start of the action but stopping before  
154 object contact. Sequences were digitally manipulated using Corel Paintshop Pro X6, so that  
155 all background details were replaced with a uniform black background. Four sequences  
156 showed natural reaches towards objects that were safe to touch (water bottle, water glass,  
157 wineglass, handle of a knife). In the other four sequences, the safe objects were digitally  
158 replaced by a painful object of similar size (cactus, broken water glass, broken wineglass,  
159 knife blade), ensuring identical reach kinematics in both conditions.

160           Each sequence started with the hand at a neutral middle point (randomly chosen  
161 between frames 11-16) and progressed forwards or backwards through the sequence in two-  
162 frame steps for 3, 4, or 5 frames (80ms each) to depict reaches for or withdrawals from the  
163 object. The response stimuli were created by erasing the hand from a single frame of each of  
164 the sequences to depict just the object. When displayed directly after the action, it created the  
165 impression that the hand simply disappeared.

166           Audio stimuli of an actor saying “I’ll take it” and “I’ll leave it” (1000ms duration)  
167 were recorded with a M-Audio Microtrack 2 Digital Voice Recorder, and were presented  
168 binaurally but biased 50% to the right ear to match the implied location of the actor.

169

170

171 *Procedure*

172 Participants first completed two training sessions, which served to progressively  
173 familiarise them with the task requirements (see Supplementary Materials for analysis). In the  
174 first training session (42 trials), participants reported, via touchscreen, the position of a  
175 briefly presented static hand. In the second training session (48 trials), participants judged the  
176 final position of a moving hand after it had disappeared. As in the main experiment,  
177 participants were instructed to touch the tip of the index finger.

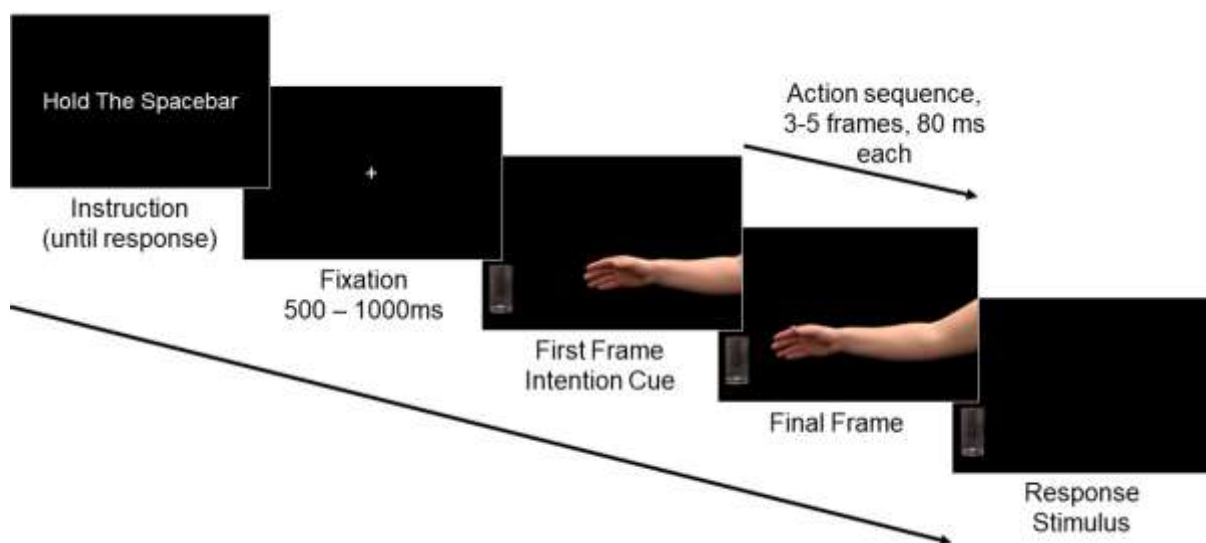
178 Participants then completed two blocks of the experiment. Each trial (Figure 1) started  
179 with a written instruction to hold the spacebar with the right hand, to prevent tracking of the  
180 stimulus with the finger, while the other hand rested on the desk or lap. A fixation cross was  
181 then presented for 500 to 1000ms, followed by the first frame of the stimulus sequence (hand  
182 in neutral position). In separate blocks, participants either verbally instructed the actor  
183 (Spoken Instruction) or heard the actor state an intention (Heard Intention). In the Spoken  
184 Instruction block, participants said “Take it!” if the object was safe to grasp and “Leave it!” if  
185 the object was potentially painful. Responses were not recorded but correct performance was  
186 monitored throughout by the experimenter. In the Heard Intention block, participants heard  
187 the actor say “I’ll take it” if the object was safe, and “I’ll leave it” if the object was  
188 potentially painful. Block order was counterbalanced between participants. In both blocks,  
189 there was a 50% congruency between intention statement and action, and participants were  
190 explicitly told that the actor was just as likely to do what they had said/were instructed as do  
191 the opposite. The biases we measure therefore reflect people’s prior expectation that other’s  
192 statements truthfully signal their intention, rather than contingencies learned within the  
193 experiment.

194 In both conditions, the action sequence began 1200ms after the onset of the intention  
195 statement or the registration of the verbal response by Presentation’s sound threshold logic,



196 showing the hand reaching for or withdrawing from the object, for 3, 4 or 5 frames. When the  
 197 hand disappeared mid-action, participants released the spacebar and, with the same hand,  
 198 touched the screen where the last seen position of the tip of the index finger had been. For  
 199 each experimental session, participants completed 10 practice trials, followed by two blocks  
 200 of 48 trials, providing all factorial combinations of object type (safe, painful), object identity  
 201 (4), action direction (reach, withdrawal), and sequence length (3, 4, 5 frames).

202



203

204 Figure 1. Trial sequence in the experimental blocks.

205

### 206 *Trial and participant exclusion*

207 Trials were excluded if the correct response procedure was not followed (participants  
 208 released the spacebar prior to offset of the visual stimulus) and if the response initiation time  
 209 (spacebar release after stimulus offset) or response execution time (spacebar release to touch  
 210 screen response) was less than 200ms or more than 3SD above the group mean. Trial  
 211 exclusions for the NT group (9%, SD=6.5%) and ASD group (14%, SD=15%) did not differ  
 212 ( $t(44)=1.61, p=.116$ ), leaving on average 174 trials per participant in the NT group (22 per  
 213 condition) and 163 trials per participant in the ASD group (20 per condition). After  
 214 exclusions, response initiations were slower to intention/action incongruent than congruent

215 actions ( $F(1,44)=7.52, p=.009, \eta p^2=.146$ ), and the ASD group was slower than the NT group  
216 to initiate responses ( $F(1,44)=5.05, p=.03, \eta p^2=.103$ ) and execute responses ( $F(1,44)=19.6,$   
217  $p<.001, \eta p^2=.308$ ), but this group effect did not interact with any of the conditions of interest  
218 (see Supplementary Materials). Participants were excluded (NT=4; ASD=3) if their responses  
219 showed no consistent relationship with the visual stimuli, as assessed by four a priori criteria  
220 (Hudson, Bach, et al., 2018): (1) if the selected screen position in each trial was not  
221 significantly correlated with the real screen position on either axis; (2) if the correlation  
222 coefficient between the real and selected screen positions was less than 3SD below the group  
223 median on either axis; (3) if the mean screen distance (pixels) between the real and selected  
224 screen positions was more than 3SD above the group mean; (4) if not enough valid trials  
225 (<50%) remained after trial exclusions (see below). One additional NT participant was  
226 excluded because they misunderstood the task, and two ASD participants were excluded for  
227 terminating the experiment before the second block.

228

229 *Analysis*

230 To assess the prediction that location judgments would be shifted in the direction of  
231 the actors' explicit goal (nearer the object after "take", farther after "leave") and in the  
232 direction of the action trajectory (nearer for reaches, farther for withdrawals), we measured  
233 the difference between the hands' location and where participants localized it on the touch  
234 screen. For each trial, the perceptual bias in pixels was calculated by subtracting the real  
235 disappearance point of the tip of the index finger from the participant's touch screen  
236 responses. Positive values reflect rightward (X axis) and upward (Y axis) biases from the real  
237 position, and negative values reflect leftward (X axis) and downward (Y axis) biases.

238 As in prior work (Hudson, Bach, et al., 2018; Hudson, McDonough, et al., 2018;  
239 McDonough et al., 2019), participants generally pressed further rightwards (34.0 px) and

240 downwards (-105.3 px) of the real stimulus position, reflecting well-known shifts towards a  
241 stimulus' centre of gravity (Coren & Hoenig, 1972). The overall distance from the real  
242 position did not differ between groups ( $t(44) = 1.51, p = .140$ ), but the ASD participants had a  
243 larger rightwards bias (ASD: 41.2px; NT: 26.9px,  $t = 2.28, p = .027$ ), but a smaller  
244 downwards bias (ASD: -96.1px,  $t = 2.57, p = .014$ ; NT: -114.5px). As these biases reflect  
245 general localization errors that are independent from our effects of interest, and are also  
246 present in the training sessions with dynamic and static stimuli (see Supplementary Material),  
247 the mean biases across groups were subtracted from each participant's mean response,  
248 therefore leaving all comparisons of interest unaffected.

249         These difference scores were analyzed separately for the X axis and Y axis with a  
250 mixed-effects ANOVA, with Intention Type (heard intention, spoken instruction), Action  
251 (reach, withdrawal), and Intention (take it, leave it) as within-subject factors, and Group (NT,  
252 ASD) as between-subjects factor. Main effects of Action will reveal the extent to which  
253 responses are biased away from the hands' real position towards the goals implied by the  
254 action kinematics (further leftwards towards the object for reaches than for withdrawals).  
255 Main effects of Intention will reveal the extent to which responses are biased away from the  
256 hands' real position towards the explicitly provided goal information (further leftwards for  
257 goals to "take" the object rather than "leave" it)<sup>1</sup>. Interactions with Group will reveal whether

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<sup>1</sup> The main effect of intention is statistically equivalent to the congruency effect in which perceptual biases are larger for matching kinematics and prior intentions compared to mismatching ones. The difference between "Take" and "Leave" are free to differ (+/-) from zero independently of the action effect. The greater the difference between the intention conditions, the more maximal the perceptual shift leftwards is for reaches after "Take it" and the more maximal the perceptual shift rightwards is for withdrawals after "Leave it", relative to incongruent conditions (reaches after "Leave it", withdrawals after "Take it"). The intention effect can be reconceptualised as a non-directional shift (e.g., by sign reversing responses in the reach condition), so that they reflect perceptual shifts along the trajectory, irrespective of which direction that is. From that perspective, the disappearance point of reaches would generally be shifted forwards in the direction of motion, but less so when the intention was to "leave" rather than to "take" the object. Conversely, the disappearance point of withdrawals would be shifted forwards in the direction of motion, but less so when the intention was to "take" rather than to "leave" the object. Both analyses are statistically identical: they only differ in the sign with which deviations for reaches are coded (see also Hudson, Bach, et al., 2018).

258 ASD and NT groups differ in how much perceptual judgments are biased by kinematics  
259 (Action X Group) and explicit goal information (Intention X Group).

260 There were no between-group differences in variance on any of the effects of interest  
261 (Levene's max  $F = 3.69$ ,  $p = .061$ ). Bayes factors are reported for crucial two-sided tests with  
262 default priors using JASP (JASP Team, 2018), which provides a relative estimate of how  
263 much more likely the presence of an effect is given H1 than the null hypothesis. All other  
264 main effects or interactions will be evaluated against a Bonferroni-corrected alpha threshold  
265 for incidental findings due to hidden multiplicity in ANOVAs (Cramer, 2016).

266

## 267 Results

268 *X axis*

269 As predicted, and replicating our prior work, there was a main effect of Action,  
270  $F(1,44)=6.27$ ,  $p=.016$ ,  $\eta p^2=.13$ , 95% CI [2.2, 23.7],  $BF_{10}=2.18$ , showing that perceived  
271 disappearance points of reaches were shifted more leftward (towards the object) than those of  
272 withdrawals, and a main effect of Intention,  $F(1,44)=53.4$ ,  $p<.001$ ,  $\eta p^2=.548$ , 95% CI [6.9,  
273 12.4],  $BF_{10}=2.763e+6$  (Figure 2), showing that perceptual judgements are biased more  
274 leftward after an explicit intention to "Take" the object than to "Leave" it, showing the  
275 predicted perceptual bias towards explicit action goals..

276 The main question was whether the perceptual biases induced by explicit intention  
277 information was smaller in the ASD group, as predicted from a generally reduced reliance of  
278 top-down information. However, there was strong evidence against an interaction of Intention  
279 and Group,  $F(1,44)=1.78$ ,  $p=.190$ ,  $\eta p^2=.04$ , 95% CI [-8.9, 1.8],  $BF_{10}=0.60$ . Separate analyses  
280 provided decisive evidence that intentions to "take" or "leave" the object biased perceptual  
281 judgments towards and away from this object in both groups, with similar effect sizes in the  
282 ASD,  $t(22)=4.97$ ,  $p<.001$ ,  $d=1.03$ , 95% CI [6.7, 16.2],  $BF_{10}=451.7$ , and the NT group,

283  $t(22)=6.05, p<.001, d=1.26, 95\% \text{ CI } [5.2, 10.6], \text{BF}_{10}=4809$ . Thus, explicit goal information  
284 biases social perception in both groups, refuting a generalized impairment in top-down  
285 processing.

286       Regarding motion prediction cues, the analysis revealed an interaction of Action and  
287 Group,  $F(1,44)=4.30, p=.044, \eta_p^2=.09, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.6, 42.3], \text{BF}_{10}=1.61$ . Analysis of the NT  
288 group provided strong evidence that seeing reaches and withdrawals biased perceptual  
289 judgements towards or away from objects,  $t(22)=4.43, p<.001, d=.92, 95\% \text{ CI } [12.6, 34.7],$   
290  $\text{BF}_{10}=141.5$ . However, for the ASD group, this analysis provided considerable evidence  
291 *against* such a bias,  $t(22)=.25, p=.804, d=.05, 95\% \text{ CI } [-20.6, 16.1], \text{BF}_{10}=0.23$ . Thus, while  
292 perceptual judgments are biased by explicit intention information in ASD just as in NT  
293 participants, they are unaffected by goals implied by the action kinematics.

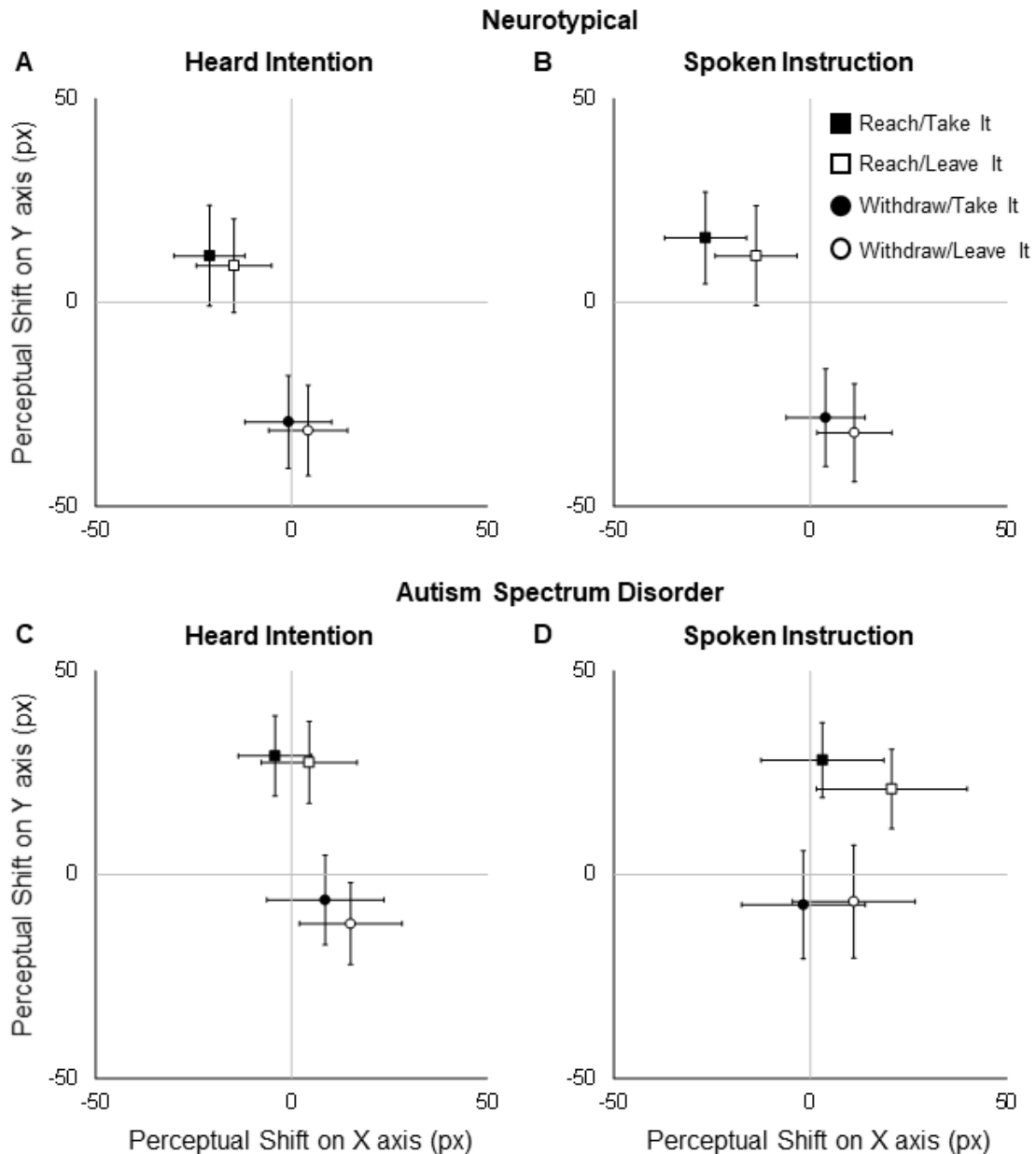
294       Finally, the analysis revealed the predicted interaction of Intention Type (spoken,  
295 heard) and Intention (take it, leave it),  $F(1,44)=17.5, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.28, 95\% \text{ CI } [3.1, 8.9],$   
296  $\text{BF}_{10}=171.8$ , showing that spoken intentions induced larger perceptual shifts than heard  
297 intentions, but this did not differ by Group,  $F(1,44)=1.2, p=.277, \eta_p^2=.03, 95\% \text{ CI } [-2.7, 9.0],$   
298  $\text{BF}_{10}=0.48$ . As we had no further predictions, all other effects are subject to alpha inflation in  
299 an ANOVA (Cramer et al., 2016, Bonferroni-adjusted  $p<.003$ ). No further main effects or  
300 interactions passed the adjusted threshold.

301

302 *Y axis*

303       As we had no predictions for the Y-Axis, a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha of  $p < .003$  was  
304 employed (Cramer et al., 2016). A main effect of Action,  $F(1,44)=139.6, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.76,$   
305  $95\% \text{ CI } [31.8, 44.9], \text{BF}_{10}=2.597\text{e}+12$ , showed that reaches were perceived higher than  
306 withdrawals, consistent with a bias in motion direction (i.e. upwards for reaches, downwards  
307 for withdrawals). There also was a main effect of Intention,  $F(1,44)=28.6, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.394,$

308 95% CI [2.1, 4.5],  $BF_{10}=7116$ . Hand disappearance points were perceived higher if the  
 309 intention was to “Take” than to “Leave”. There were no interactions between Intention and  
 310 Group,  $F(1,44)=.05$ ,  $p=.825$ ,  $\eta_p^2=.001$ , 95% CI [-2.2, 2.8],  $BF_{10} = 0.30$ , or between Action  
 311 and Group,  $F(1,44)=1.4$ ,  $p=.243$ ,  $\eta_p^2=.03$ , 95% CI [-5.4, 20.8],  $BF_{10}=0.51$ .



312

313 Figure 2. The perceptual bias (selected screen position – real screen position) on the X and Y  
 314 axis for the NT (top row) and ASD (bottom row) groups, depending on whether explicit  
 315 intentions were passively heard (left panels) or actively spoken (right panels). The  
 316 intersection of the crosshairs at 0,0 represents the real disappearance point on any given trial,  
 317 corrected for overall (across-group) biases in finger placement, with the object located to the  
 318 left. In each panel, bias in the direction of the observed kinematics (main effect of Action) is

319 reflected in how much perceived disappearance points of reaches (squares) are shifted  
 320 leftwards compared to those of withdrawals (circles). The bias in the direction of prior  
 321 intentions (main effect of Intention) is reflected in how much explicit intentions to “take” the  
 322 object (filled markers) shifts perceived disappearance points leftwards compared to intentions  
 323 to “leave” the object (empty markers). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.  
 324

### 325 *Relative weighting of motion and goal information*

326 We next sought to establish whether the predictors of explicit intention and action  
 327 kinematic information exert an equal influence on perceptual judgments, or whether one is  
 328 weighted more than the other, and how this may differ between groups. For each participant,  
 329 we derived statistically orthogonal indices of the effect of each predictor type by comparing  
 330 the main effect of Action (withdrawals – reaches) and the main effect of Intention (Leave It –  
 331 Take It). A mixed-effects ANOVA was conducted with Group (NT, ASD) as a between-  
 332 subjects factor, and Intention Type (heard, spoken) and Predictor Type (motion, intention) as  
 333 within-subjects factors (Figure 3A). The analysis revealed an interaction between Predictor  
 334 and Group,  $F(1,44)=4.71, p=.035, \eta_p^2=.097, 95\% \text{ CI } [1.8, 48.2], \text{BF}_{10}=1.88$ . The NT group  
 335 showed a larger influence of motion ( $m=23.7\text{px}, SD=25.6$ ) than intention information  
 336 ( $m=7.9\text{px}, SD=6.2, t(22) = 2.97, p = .007, d = 0.75, 95\% \text{ CI } [4.7, 26.8], \text{BF}_{10}=6.52$ ). In  
 337 contrast, the ASD group showed no bias,  $t(22) = .902, p = .377, d = 0.34, 95\% \text{ CI } [-30.4, 11.9],$   
 338  $\text{BF}_{10}=.315$ , although numerically there was a larger influence of intention information  
 339 ( $m=11.4\text{px}, SD=11.0$ ) than motion information ( $m=2.2\text{px}, SD=42.5$ ).

340 There was a three-way interaction of Intention Type, Predictor, and Group,  
 341  $F(1,44)=6.12, p=.017, \eta_p^2=.122, 95\% \text{ CI } [5.7, 55.2], \text{BF}_{10}=3.22$ . When analysed separately,  
 342 the NT group provided considerable evidence for the absence of an interaction of Intention  
 343 Type and Predictor,  $F(1,22)=.78, p=.387, \eta_p^2=.034, 95\% \text{ CI } [-12.7, 5.1], \text{BF}_{10}=0.311$ .  
 344 Perceptual judgments were weighted more in favour of motion information than intention  
 345 information in both the Spoken and Heard conditions. This interaction was, however, present

346 in the ASD group,  $F(1,22)=5.34$ ,  $p=.031$ ,  $\eta_p^2=.95$ , 95% CI [2.7, 50.5],  $BF_{10}=1.96$ , who,  
347 unlike the NT group, weighted intention information more strongly than motion information  
348 in the Spoken condition but not the Heard condition.

349

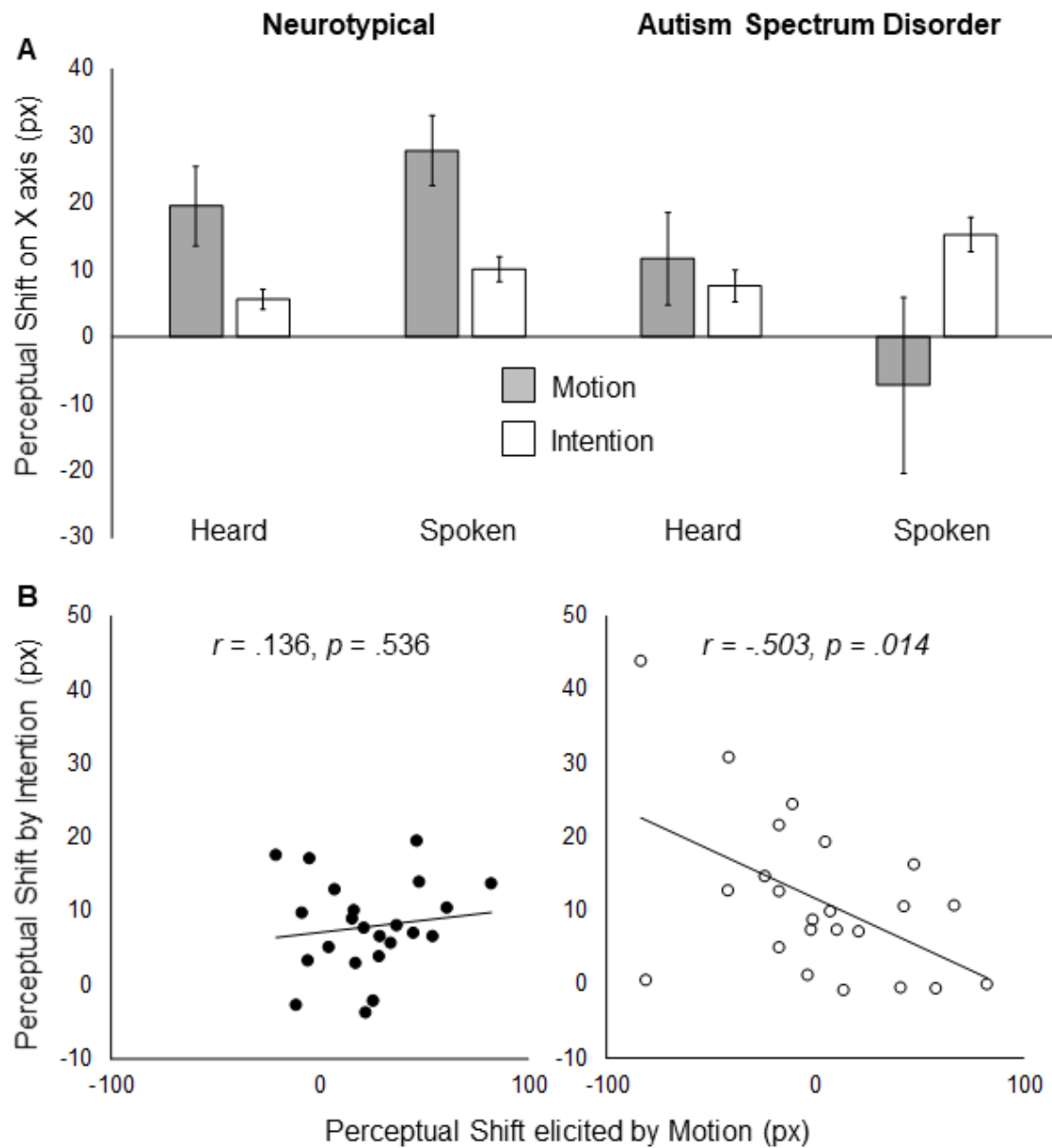
### 350 *Exploratory correlational analyses*

351 We assessed the relationship between the weighting of motion and intention  
352 information across participants (Figure 3B). The NT group showed no correlation in the  
353 perceptual shift caused by motion and intention information,  $r=.136$ ,  $n=23$ ,  $p=.536$ , 95% CI  
354 [-.314, .585],  $BF_{10}=0.31$ . However, in the ASD group, those participants who afforded less  
355 weight to motion information gave more weight to intention information,  $r=-.503$ ,  $n=23$ ,  
356  $p=.014$ , 95% CI [-.895, -.111],  $BF_{10}=4.33$ .

357 Finally, we tested whether the relative influence of motion and intention information  
358 was associated with individual differences in IQ or autistic traits, as measured by the AQ and  
359 its subscales. For each participant, the perceptual shift elicited by intention information was  
360 subtracted from that elicited by motion kinematics, indexing the size to which each  
361 participant weighted each predictive source. The NT group exhibited no relationship between  
362 this relative weighting and overall AQ score, nor any of its subscales, or the verbal or  
363 perception WASI sub-tests. The ASD group exhibited no relationship between autistic-like  
364 traits and the preference of motion or intention information except for a marginal (against  
365 Bonferroni-corrected  $p = .008$ ) negative association with the social skills sub-scale,  $r=-.538$ ,  
366  $p=.008$ , 95% CI [-.155, -.920],  $BF_{10}=7.0$ . The greater the deficit in social skills, the larger  
367 the influence of explicit intention information on the intention-action prediction effect.  
368 Moreover, there were significant relationships between the extent of motion information  
369 weighting and performance on the verbal,  $r=.489$ ,  $p=.018$ , 95% CI [.094, .885],  $BF_{10}=3.64$ ,  
370 and perceptual subtests,  $r=.523$ ,  $p=.010$ , 95% CI [.137, .910],  $BF_{10}=5.70$ , indicating that the



371 higher the IQ score, irrespective of domain, the greater the influence of motion information  
 372 compared to intention information.



373

374 Figure 3. Panel A: The relative weighting of Motion information and Intention information  
 375 on the perceptual shift for NT (left) and ASD (right) groups. Error bars represent standard  
 376 error of the mean. Panel B: The relationship between the weighting of Motion and Intention  
 377 information for each participant in the NT (left) and ASD (right) groups.  
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## Discussion

382  
383 Here, we tested whether social perception in autism spectrum conditions is impervious to top-  
384 down expectation (e.g., Palmer et al., 2015; Van de Cruys, et al., 2014). Replicating our prior  
385 work (Hudson, Bach, et al., 2018; Hudson, Nicholson, Ellis, et al., 2016; Hudson, Nicholson,  
386 Simpson, et al., 2016), in NT participants, perceptual judgments of others' actions were  
387 predictively biased by both the goals implied by the observed kinematics (a reach or  
388 withdrawal) and by the explicit intentions (to "take" or "leave" the object). The ASD  
389 participants differed markedly from this pattern, but in a manner inconsistent with a generally  
390 weaker top-down influence. The explicit intention statements to "take" or "leave" the object  
391 biased perceptual judgments as in NT participants, revealing that top-down influence of  
392 higher-level goal information onto action perception is fundamentally intact. However, ASD  
393 participants exhibited no perceptual shift in response to the goals implied by the observed  
394 movements. Thus, top-down expectations about another's goals shape social perception in  
395 ASD just as they do in NT individuals, but only if these expectations are explicitly provided  
396 and do not have to be spontaneously inferred from the observed kinematics itself.

397       These findings challenge the growing consensus that social perception in ASD is not  
398 influenced by top-down modulation (e.g., Palmer et al., 2015; Van de Cruys, et al., 2014).  
399 Instead, our findings imply a more differentiated account in which prediction channels for  
400 perceptually derived top-down information are down-weighted in ASD, while others remain  
401 intact, perhaps guided by the relative reliability of prediction sources (Ernst & Banks, 2002).  
402 Indeed, our analysis of the relative weighting of both types of intention cues found that  
403 neurotypical participants weighted prior motion information more strongly than intention  
404 information, as expected given that current motion is the more reliable predictor of future  
405 position. In contrast, for the ASD group, explicit intention information exerted a greater  
406 influence on the top-down predictive bias than action kinematics, specifically when these

407 intentions were given to the actors by the participants (rather than passively heard). In  
408 addition, in ASD participants, but not in the NT group, the weighting of both predictors was  
409 negatively associated, with the influence of intention information increasing the more that of  
410 kinematic information decreased. This suggests a difficulty integrating the two sources of  
411 information, which is resolved by down-weighting kinematic relative to explicit intention  
412 information (Ernst & Banks, 2002; Hudson, Bach, et al., 2018; Zaki, 2013), although these  
413 results should be interpreted with caution due to the low sample sizes.

414         The question then is why autistic people would form predictions only when the  
415 predictive cue is made explicit. This may speak to the hierarchical organization of the social  
416 perception system. Higher-level predictions generalize across space and time and become  
417 translated into action expectations further down the hierarchy, possibly via goal-to-kinematic  
418 transformations in the motor system (Kilner, 2011), about what one will perceive, such as the  
419 assumption that others will behave in the most efficient way possible to achieve their goals  
420 (Marsh, Pearson, Ropar, & Hamilton, 2015). Action expectations can, however, also form  
421 locally, within the perceptual system for analyzing biological motion (Scholl & Gao, 2013;  
422 Hudson, McDonough, et al., 2018; McDonough et al., 2019). Our data suggest that it is in  
423 these low-level prediction processes that the differences in social perception may originate  
424 (Palmer, Lawson, & Hohwy, 2017). This could reflect either the use of kinematics to generate  
425 perceptual predictions about an action's future course, or the perception of a coherent motion  
426 percept from the sequential motion frames, which requires predictive processes (Kourtzi &  
427 Shiffrar, 1999; Yantis & Nakama, 1998), but which is compromised in ASD (David et al.,  
428 2010).

429         These findings of reduced reliance on motion prediction maps nicely onto wider issues  
430 in biological motion perception in ASD, whereby small reductions in biological motion  
431 sensitivity may give rise to up-stream difficulties in the interpretation of social information

432 from motion cues, such as emotion (for meta-analyses see, Federici, Parma, Vicovaro,  
433 Radassao, Casartelli, & Ronconi, 2020; Todorova, McBean Hatton, & Pollick, 2019).  
434 Interestingly, motion perception sensitivity is related to the extent of the autistic condition  
435 (Kaiser & Shiffrar, 2009) and we similarly found that the underweighting of motion relative  
436 to intention information was negatively associated with IQ and social skills. While these  
437 findings need to be confirmed in more complex and realistic behaviors, they suggest that the  
438 shift from spontaneous inferences to explicit information could become more pronounced  
439 with a more heterogeneous sample that encompasses all levels of the autistic spectrum.  
440 Moreover, perceptual processes may be employed for prediction if provided with explicit  
441 information about the reliability of such sensory information (e.g., Hudson, Bach, et al.,  
442 2018).

443         The current findings have implications beyond the domain of social perception.  
444 Atypical social perception overlaps with that of non-social perception, reflecting a broader  
445 difference in integrating top-down input, resulting in both perceptual enhancements and  
446 impairments (Behrmann, Thomas, & Humphreys, 2006; Mottron, Dawson, Soulieres, Hubert,  
447 & Burack, 2006). An increased reliance on bottom-up sensory evidence at the expense of top-  
448 down information can explain many characteristics of perceptual anomalies in ASD, such as  
449 the preference for local details over global configuration (Happé & Frith, 2006), higher  
450 motion coherence thresholds (Milne, Swettenham, Hansen, Campbell, Jeffries, & Plaisted,  
451 2002; Zaidel, Goin-Kochel, & Angelaki, 2015) or the reduced use of complex/second order  
452 motion cues (Bertone, Mottron, Jelenic, & Faubert, 2003; Kaiser & Shiffrar, 2009). We  
453 suggest that these findings may not reflect a general reduction in the use of high-level  
454 information to shape sensory input, but instead the spontaneous generation of the relevant  
455 inferences from the input.

456

457

458 *Conclusion*

459           Social perception in ASD is subject to top-down modulation but only if this  
460 information is explicitly given as abstract information that is independent of the stimulus  
461 itself. Such perceptual processes in the social domain may represent an especially notable  
462 example of a more general atypicality in ASD perception. This study opens up a new avenue  
463 for perceptual research in ASD. Perceptual processes in ASD may in fact be open to top-  
464 down influences if such information is explicitly provided.

465

466 **Open Practices Statement**

467 The experiment was not formally preregistered. De-identified raw and aggregate data for the  
468 experiments are posted at [osf.io/k3m6n](https://osf.io/k3m6n).

469

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- 636

637 **Author contributions**

638 MH, TN, RM, PB devised the experiment. MH, TN, AK collected data. MH analysed the  
639 data, and wrote the MS with PB. All authors have approved the final manuscript.

640

641 **Acknowledgments**

642 Thanks to Charlotte Brind and Kiara Konstantinidou for WASI data collection, and to  
643 Barbara Wilson for participant liaison, recruitment, and organisation.

644

645 **Funding**

646 This work was supported by the Economic and Social Research Council (grant no.  
647 ES/J019178/1) awarded to P.B.

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649