Dissecting errors of the exogenously-driven and endogenously-driven saccadic tasks in the common marmoset

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Abstract

Various saccadic tasks traditionally used in oculomotor research, including both exogenously-driven
and endogenously-driven saccades, have been proposed as clinical diagnostic for human movement
disorders. Recently, common marmosets have been proven to be a good primate model for these
movement disorders. However, whether similar saccadic measurements can be used for marmosets
was not tested. Here, we trained three marmosets on the gap task, an exogenously-driven saccadic
task, and the oculomotor delayed response (ODR) task, an endogenously-driven saccadic task. We
demonstrated that with long-term training, they were able to learn and switch between the two tasks.
The marmosets showed undershooting tendency in the gap and both under- and overshooting
tendency in the ODR task when they made saccades to the target. We also categorized the error trails
into distractive, impulsive, and visuomotor errors, depending on when a false saccade happened in
relation to the task progression and interpreted possible causes of errors based on the saccade
response time and the task history. Each error category may indicate specific failures in a particular
aspect of cognitive or sensory-motor processes. Finally, and critically, we found that saccades from
successful trials exhibited the highest saccade peak velocity and the shortest saccade duration
comparing to the same saccade amplitude from error trials. Taken together, we showed the potential
of training the same marmosets on conflicting oculomotor tasks simultaneously. We documented the
baseline performance and compared successful and error trials in both gap and ODR tasks from the
same animals. We propose that analyzing the error trials in sync with successful trials could provide
a further understanding of the marmosets' cognitive and sensorimotor processes in both healthy and
disease conditions.

1   Introduction

Saccades are conjugate rapid eye movements that primates use to bring their fovea to the target of
interest (Yarbus, 1967; Zee and Leigh, 1983).These movements exhibit stereotypic kinematics with a
fixed relationship between saccade amplitude, velocity, and duration (Bahill et al., 1975; Lebedev et
al., 1996). Besides studying the characteristics of saccade kinematics *per se*, various saccade
paradigms have been developed to probe different neuronal mechanisms (Gooding and Basso, 2008).
A number of studies have also demonstrated that the saccade kinematics and the measurements of
saccade paradigms can be useful in clinical diagnostics of neurological diseases (Leigh and Kennard,
2004; Ramat et al., 2007), including movement disorders (Termsarasab et al., 2015; Waldthaler et al.,
2021; Fukushima et al., 2017), psychiatric diseases (Bittencourt et al., 2013; Morita et al., 2020), and
neurodegenerative diseases (Antoniades and Kennard, 2015; Opwonya et al., 2021).

To faithfully reproduce these neurological diseases with human-like behavioral symptoms, there are
pressing needs to develop animal models using non-human primates (Verdier et al., 2015; Qiu and
Li, 2017). The common marmosets (*Callithrix jacchus*), a new world monkey, has been proposed as
a possible primate model for these diseases because of their availability in transgenic tools (Sasaki et
al., 2009; Izpisua Belmonte et al., 2015; Park et al., 2016), their smooth brain surface for pinpoint
intracranial injection (Lin et al., 2019; Mundinano et al., 2016) and their ability to be trained on
behavioral paradigms (Okano, 2021). The marmosets can learn to perform a variety of visual and
cognitive tasks under head unrestrained condition (Spinelli et al., 2004; Clarke et al., 2011; Yamazaki
et al., 2011; Jendritza et al., 2021). Their short lifespan also makes them suitable candidates for long-
term behavioral observation with the progression of neurological diseases (Tardif et al., 2011). In
fact, several neurological models of marmosets have been successfully generated using various
methods (Eslamboli et al., 2007; Tomioka et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2019; Jenner et al., 1984;Fox et al.,
2010; Emborg, 2017).

The marmosets can also be trained to perform various saccadic paradigms under head restrained
condition (Mitchell et al., 2014), for example, step task (Sedaghat-Nejad et al., 2019; Chen et al.,
2021) and gap task (Johnston et al., 2018). Both tasks are exogenously-driven saccadic task because
the saccade was initiated in response to a visible visual stimulus. With some modification of the task
design, one report has shown successful training for marmosets saccading to a less salient saccade
target (anti-saccade task, (Johnston et al., 2019)). However, the endogenously-driven saccadic tasks,
such as oculomotor delayed response (ODR) task or memory-guided saccade task where the target is
being only briefly presented and the saccade is initiated to the target location that is no longer
visually available (Hikosaka and Wurtz, 1983; Funahashi et al., 1989), were not reported successfully
trained on marmosets (but see Carney et al., 2019). Since both exogenously-driven and
endogenously-driven saccadic paradigms are important in the clinical diagnostic and for probing
different aspect of neurological diseases in human, the primate model selected for these diseases
would be more ideal if the same animal can perform the both type of tasks concurrently.

In the current study, we trained three marmosets in two different saccadic paradigms, the gap and the
ODR tasks. We aimed to see if it is possible to achieve a stable performance on the standardized
exogenously-driven and endogenously-driven saccade tasks in the same animals. By comparing the
task performance, and the saccade kinematics of the two tasks, and identifying the characteristics of
the error trials, we have established a baseline measurement to pave the way for future studies of
neurological disorders using marmoset as animal models.

2   Materials and Methods

2.1 Animal ethics

78 All marmosets (*Callithrix jacchus*) used in this study were born in the breeding colony of Kyoto
79 University Animal Research Facility. The experiments followed the guideline of the Japan
80 Neuroscience Society and the Science Council of Japan. Animal Ethics Committee at Kyoto
81 University, Japan approved all experimental procedures.

2.2 Animal preparation and surgical procedure

Three adult marmosets were used in this study; marmoset S: male 2.5 years, 390 g; marmoset N:
female 2.5 years, 370 g; and marmoset M: male 2 years, 340 g. All marmosets started with one week
transportation cage adaptation followed by two weeks of chair training. After achieving a stable
performance in the chair, marmosets underwent surgery of headpost implantation for preparation of
head-fixing training. Induction of anesthesia was achieved using 14 mg/kg ketamine along with 0.07
mg/kg atropine, 0.5 mg/kg dexamethasone and 1.5 mg/kg gentamicin to prevent excessive salivation,
to relieve pain, and to prevent infection. Under 1.5 % isoflurane, each marmoset was aseptically
mounted its own custom-made headpost that we designed based on MRI reconstruction of their skulls
(Chen et al., 2021). The headposts were 3D-printed using Dental-SG material (Form2, Formlabs,
U.S.A.), and they were attached to marmosets' skulls using dental resin, Super-Bound (Sun Medical
Co., Ltd., Japan). After the surgery, marmosets received 4 days of antibiotics, ampicillin, 30 mg/kg,
and anti-inflammatory and analgesics medication, ketoprofen, 0.8 mg/kg. After medical treatment,
the marmosets were given an additional week for recovery.

2.3 Eye tracking and calibration

Eyelink 1000 Plus (SR Research, Canada) was used to track marmosets' eyes binocularly with
sampling frequency of 500-Hz. We used both pupil and corneal reflection information for accurate
tracking. We calibrated the eyes position with the same method described in (Chen et al., 2021).
Briefly, for online calibration, we used marmoset face photos presented randomly on the screen and
the marmosets were free to look at the photos for 10 second per trial. We then used a graphical user
interface to examine the photos that were presented and the corresponding marmosets' gaze. We
manually adjusted the x and y gain and the x and y offset of the eye positions for each marmoset
individually. This calibration was done once for each marmoset after the first time sitting in front of
the eye tracker. Then, based on the task performance of the marmosets, slight changes in the gain and
offset were made manually in each day.

2.4 Monitor Setup

108 We used a 1280 X 1024 pixels resolution LCD monitor at the refresh rate of 60 Hz (Dell P1917S).
109 The visual distance was 40 cm, and the background where the tasks were presented was with a grey
110 background with luminance of 80.81 cd/m^2. The experimental software used to control the stimuli
111 display was PsychoPy 3.6 (Peirce et al., 2019).

2.5 Saccadic paradigms

2.5.1 Gap task

In the gap task (**Figure 1A**), a 1-degree-radius marmoset face picture was presented as a fixation
stimulus over a grey background at the center of the screen for up to 1000 ms at the beginning of a
trial. The marmosets were trained to initiate the trial by fixating at the fixation stimulus and staying
within a 2-degree-radius invisible window centered at the fixation stimulus (**Figure 1A**, dashed

circle). The trial started if their gaze entered the window. If they successfully stayed within the
window for 200 ms, a gap period was initiated, where the fixation stimulus was removed and only
the grey background was presented. During this gap period, the marmosets were trained to keep their
gaze within the 2-degree invisible window centered at the removed fixation stimulus. The gap period
(0 to 400 ms) was predetermined randomly every session. After successfully finishing the gap period,
a peripheral stimulus (1-degree marmoset face) was shown as the saccade target. The target location
was randomly picked from eight potential locations and the locations were separated equally by a 45-
degree radial visual angle from horizontal meridian using predetermined eccentricity (4, 5, 6, 7, 8 or
9 degree) before session initiation. The marmosets were required to make a saccade toward the target
and stay within a 2-degree invisible window centered at the saccade target location for 200 ms to
attain a drop (0.05 ml) of the reward. The reward was prepared by mixing baby supplement banana
pudding (Kewpie Corp., Japan) with banana flavored Mei-balance (Meiji Holdings Co., Japan). A
1000 ms was given to the marmosets to make a response, otherwise, the trial was terminated. One
session was terminated if the marmosets reached either 24 successful trails or 48 trials (maximum
trial number per session). The marmosets were able to perform 3.20 ± 0.37 (mean $\pm$ standard
deviation) sessions per day.

2.5.2 Oculomotor delayed response (ODR) task

In the ODR task (**Figure 1B**), the marmosets were trained to initiate the trial with similar criteria
used in the gap task. After trial initiation, a peripheral stimulus was flashed for around 67 ms in either
right or left relative to the fixation stimulus. A delay period followed immediately after the peripheral
stimulus presentation ranging from 100 to 400 ms (predetermined at session start) in which the
marmosets were still required to keep fixating at the fixation stimulus. The target location was
randomly picked from either right or left from horizontal meridian using predetermined eccentricity
(4, 5, 6, 7, or 8 degree) before the session started. After the delay period, the fixation stimulus was
removed, and the marmosets were trained to make a saccade toward the remembered peripheral
stimulus location and stay within the 2-degree invisible window centered at the invisible peripheral
stimulus for 183 ms to be rewarded. The same response time window of gap task (1000 ms) was also
used here. We used a different fixation and target stimulus (a white circle enclosed by a black arena,
total 1-degree-radius, indicated in **Figure 1B**) than in the gap task to make it easier for the marmosets
to learn and to associate each stimulus with each task. One session was terminated if the marmosets
reached either 16 successful trails or 32 trials (maximum trial number per session). The marmosets
were able to perform 4.05 ± 1.71 (mean $\pm$ standard deviation) sessions per day. Gap task was
performed first during training.

2.6 Saccade detection

We used U'n'Eye, a deep neural network developed for eye movement detection and classification,
to detect saccades in our study (Bellet et al., 2019). The eye data were first preprocessed and the
ground-truth saccade dataset was first labeled and manually checked following the same procedure
and criteria as (Chen et al., 2021). After labeling around 200 trials per animal, the data were gathered
and fed into U'n'Eye for network training and validation to get optimal performance for the
marmosets. After training, the rest of the preprocessed eye data were fed into the trained network for
saccade labeling and the result were inspected manually to check for mislabeling.

2.7 Successful and error trials definition

We divided the total trials into either successful or error trials. Successful trials were defined as the
trials that the marmosets made a saccade toward the target and stay within a 2-degree invisible

window centered at the saccade target location for 200 ms or 183 ms in the gap or ODR tasks,
respectively, and obtain the reward at the end of the trial. Alternatively, error trials were defined as
the trials that the marmosets failed to get the reward at the end of the trial. Detailed definition of the
error trials is mentioned in the result section.

2.8 Data analysis

2.8.1 Task performance and stability

To compare the improvement of each task before and after long-term training, we calculated the
success rate of the first and the last month of training for the gap task with each gap period and for
the ODR task with each delay period regardless of the target eccentricities for each marmoset. We
further analyzed if the success rate was dependent on target eccentricity by separating the successful
trials into the first and the latter half according to the training period for each task and each animal
regardless of the gap or delay period. We then took the difference between the first the latter half of
the success rate and combined the result of the three marmosets to analyze if the performance
improvement was correlated with the target eccentricity for each task. The same practices were
performed to determine if the success rate changed with the gap or the delay period for each task and
whether the improvement was correlated with gap or delay period.

To analyze the performance stability, we also compared the standard deviation (std) of the success
rate of the first and the last month of training for the gap task with each gap period and for the ODR
task with each delay period regardless of the target eccentricities for each marmoset. We took the
difference of the std calculated according to the target eccentricity between the first and the latter half
of the training period again to checked if the change in standard deviation was dependent on the
target eccentricity for each task. The same practice was again taken to determine the dependency
between the changes in std and gap or delay period.

2.8.2 Radial distance from the saccade endpoint to the target location

To analyze whether the marmosets had any systematic saccade undershooting (hypometria) or
overshooting (hypermetria) when they made their saccades toward the targets in each task, we
measured the radial distance from the saccade endpoint to the target location. We first rotated all the
target location and the saccades after target onset in gap task or fixation stimulus offset in the ODR
task. The rotation angle was determined by the angle between the target location of the trial to the
positive x axis. Next, we subtracted the length of the saccade after rotation to the distance of the
rotated target location to obtain the radial distance.

2.8.3 Saccade main sequence

194 To characterize the change of saccade kinematics for different trial categories, we looked at the
195 saccade main sequence (Bahill et al., 1975; Chen et al., 2021). We first plotted the saccade amplitude
196 (x) against the saccade peak velocity (f(x)). We then fitted the data with the following equation:

$$f(x) = a \times (x^n)$$

197 a and n are the fitted parameters representing the slope and the exponent.

198 We also plotted the saccade amplitude (x) against the saccade duration (f(x)) and fitted the data with
199 the following equation:

$$f(x) = b \times (x) + c$$

200 b and c are the fitted parameters representing the slope and the intercept. All fitted curves were
201 overlaid on the correspondent figure, color-coded with trial categories.

2.9 Statistical analysis

203 All statistical analysis is described in the Result section. Additional statistical analysis was performed
204 and described in the Supplementary Figures. If not specifically mentioned, the result of the analysis
205 was made by combining all 3 marmosets' data.

3 Result

3.1 Task performance improved after long-term training

All three marmosets were trained for eight months on both gap and oculomotor delayed response
(ODR) tasks (**Figure 1**). To quantify the effect of training, we separated the trials into two categories,
successful and error, based on if the marmosets were rewarded or not while performing the tasks
(Materials and Methods). When the training was just started for one month, the successful trials were
on average 56.0 % across the marmosets in the gap task and 21.0 % in the ODR task (**Figure 2**). This
indicates that likely the gap task was intrinsically easier than the ODR task for the marmosets. At the
last month of training, the successful trials increased to on average 75.7 % in the gap task (marmoset
S: $p = 0.004$; marmoset N: $p = 0.08$; marmoset M: $p = 2 \times 10^{-13}$, Wilcoxon rank sum test). However,
the successful trials did not increase significantly in the ODR task (average, 24.0% marmoset S: $p =$
0.6; marmoset N: $p = 0.2$; marmoset M: $p = 0.1$, Wilcoxon rank sum test). There were no clear
dependency between the success percentage and the target eccentricities either in the first 4 month
(gap: marmoset S: rho = -0.8, $p = 0.06$; marmoset N: rho = -0.9, $p = 0.02$; marmoset M: rho = -0.6, p
$= 0.2$, ODR: marmoset S: rho = -0.2, $p = 0.9$; marmoset N: rho = 0.5, $p = 1$; marmoset M: rho = 0.5,
$p = 1$; Spearman Rank coefficient) or in the later 4 months in both tasks (gap: marmoset S: rho = -0.3,
$p = 0.7$; marmoset N: rho = 0.09, $p = 0.9$; marmoset M: rho = -0.9, $p = 0.03$, ODR: marmoset S: rho
$= -0.6$, $p = 0.4$; marmoset N: rho = 1, $p = 0.3$; marmoset M: rho = 1, $p = 0. 3$; Spearman Rank
coefficient). The improvement comparing the first 4 months of the training to the later 4 months was
also not dependent on the target eccentricity we trained them on (gap: rho = 0.3, $p = 0.2$, ODR: rho =
0.3, $p = 0.5$; Spearman Rank coefficient). Similarly, the dependency of success percentage to the gap
or the delay period was weak in the first 4 months (gap: marmoset S: rho = -0.1, $p = 0.8$; marmoset
N: rho = 0.5, $p = 0.4$; marmoset M: rho = -0.2, $p = 0.4$; Spearman Rank coefficient, ODR: marmoset
S: rho = -1, $p = 0.003$; marmoset N: rho = -0.7, $p = 0.2$; marmoset M: rho = 0.03, $p = 1$; Spearman
Rank coefficient), and also in the later 4 months (gap: marmoset S: rho = 0, $p = 1$; marmoset N: rho =
-0.6 $p = 0.2$; marmoset M: rho =-0.8, $p = 8.3 \times 10^{-4}$, ODR: marmoset S: rho = -0.9, $p = 0.007$;
marmoset N: rho = -0.4, $p = 0.5$; marmoset M: rho = -0.8, $p = 0.03$; Spearman Rank coefficient).
However, the improvement between the first to the latter half of the training was dependent on the
gap period and was weaker in the longer gap period in the gap task (rho = -0.6, $p = 0. 02$; Spearman
Rank coefficient). In the ODR task, the improvement was not dependent on the delay period (rho = -
0.13, $p = 0.6$; Spearman Rank coefficient). We also found that the average standard deviation (std) of
the percentage of successful category trials decreased from 22.4 to 17 in the gap task (marmoset S: p
$= 2.3 \times 10^{-19}$, marmoset N: $p = 0.6$, marmoset M: $p = 3 \times 10^{-21}$, Two-sample F-test) and 16.3 to 10.6 in
the ODR task (marmoset S: $p = 3 \times 10^{-4}$; marmoset N: $p = 0.6$; marmoset M: $p = 9.2 \times 10^{-5}$, Two-sample
F-test) comparing the first to the last month of the training period (**Figure 2**). This indicates that the
task performance became stable after long-term training for both tasks. The decrease in std was not
dependent on either the target eccentricity (gap, rho = -0.3, $p = 0.3$, ODR, rho = 0.4, $p = 0.4$,
Spearman Rank coefficient) or the gap/delay period (gap, rho = 0.14, $p = 0.6$; ODR, rho = -0.4, $p =$
0.1, Spearman Rank coefficient). Besides the effect of the long-term training in the tasks'

performance improvements, another possible reason was that for simplicity of training, we used only
two possible target locations (horizontal left or right) in the ODR task instead of eight in the gap task
(Materials and Methods). The marmosets could have memorized the possible target locations and
randomly chose either side in the ODR task after long-term training. Indeed, we found that in the
error category, there were 6.1 % of the trials where the marmosets picked the exact opposite side of
the target location in the last month of training. This was higher than in the first training month (4.5
%). However, this probability was still way lower than the successful category in the last month of
training (24.0%). Based on the above evidence, we believe that the marmosets learned the task
structure and the possible locations of the target and were using the cue as a guide instead of only
guessing where the target would've showed in the ODR task. Hence, the marmosets started with
relatively low and unstable task performance in both the gap and ODR tasks, but after long-term
training, they improved their performance in both the percentage of successful trials and the
performance stability, especially in the gap task. They were also able to generalize such
improvements in different task conditions, for instance, target eccentricity and gap/delay periods
starting from the beginning of the training.

3.2   Hypometric saccades in both tasks but hypermetric saccades only in ODR task found

To further investigate how the marmosets reached to the target in either task, we plotted the radial
distance between the endpoint of their very first saccade after target onset in the gap task or fixation
spot offset in the ODR task from successful category (**Figure 3A**). In the gap task, we found that
most of these saccades landed within the target window (**Figure 3B**). However, a small portion of
these saccades were hypometric and increased with target eccentricity (rho = 0.9, p = 1.9×10^{-9};
Spearman Rank coefficient), but not with the gap period (rho = 0.2, p = 0.2; Spearman Rank
coefficient). If a second saccade was made following the first, the endpoint of the second saccade
was in general closer to the target (**Figure 3B**, p < 2.2×10^{-308}; Wilcoxon rank sum test). The
occurrence of the second saccades were more frequent with larger eccentric target (rho = 0.8, p =
2.8×10^{-4}; Spearman Rank coefficient) and with longer gap period (rho = 0.4, p = 0.02; Spearman
Rank coefficient). This means that in some trials, particularly for larger eccentric targets, the
marmosets made several short saccades (hypometric saccades) to reach to the target in the gap task.

In the ODR task, the hypometric saccades did not increase significantly either with target eccentricity
(rho = 0.5 p = 0.1; Spearman Rank coefficient) or with the delay period (rho = -0.05, p = 0.8;
Spearman Rank coefficient) (**Figure 3C**). However, hypermetric saccades were found in the ODR
task (**Figure 3A,** right 2 panels). The occurrence of hypermetric saccades was dependent on the
eccentricity (rho = -0.9, p = 8.5×10^{-7}; Spearman Rank coefficient) and was higher for targets with
smaller eccentricity. If a second saccade was made following the first, again, the endpoint of the
second saccade was in general closer to the target than the first saccade (p = 1.6×10^{-22}; Wilcoxon
rank sum test) The occurrence of second saccades overall was not significantly correlated with target
eccentricity (rho = -0.5, p = 0.09; Spearman Rank coefficient), but it was less frequent comparing to
the correspondent eccentricity in the gap task (p = 2.4×10^{-4}; Wilcoxon signed rank test).

Having found successful trials with hypermetric and hypometric saccades, we further subdivided
these trials into three subgroups: pure single saccade group, single saccade group, and multiple
saccade group, based on how the marmosets reached to the target (**Figure 4**). We then redefined
them as follows; the saccade that started within the fixation window and ended within the target
window as the "answering saccade" (from pure single saccade and single saccade group, **Figure 4A,**
Figure 3D) and replotted the distance between the answering saccade endpoint to the target (**Figure**
3E, F). To further assess the accuracy of these answering saccades, we calculated the half width of

those histograms as a proxy of it. The half width of the histogram did not change with eccentricity in
the gap task (rho = 0.5, p = 0.05; Spearman Rank coefficient) and was in general smaller than those
in the ODR task (p = 0.02; Wilcoxon signed rank test). However, the half width decreased with
eccentricity in the ODR task (rho = -0.8, p = 2.9×10^{-4}; Spearman Rank coefficient), suggesting that
the accuracy of the answering saccades was higher in targets with larger eccentricities in the ODR
task. For the saccade following the answering saccade, again, we found that the endpoints of these
saccades were in general closer to the target than the answering saccade (gap / ODR; $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$ /
p = 1.2×10^{-5}; Wilcoxon rank sum test) and the second saccades were less frequent in the ODR task
than in the gap task (P= 2.4×10^{-4}; Wilcoxon rank sum test). We also confirmed by analyzing
separately the x and y coordinates of the answering saccades endpoint relative to the target location,
that x coordinates were always less accurate than y coordinates (**Supplementary Figure 1**).

3.3   Effects of gap period

After separating the trials into subgroups in the successful category, we calculated the saccade
response time (SRT) of the single and pure single groups, defined as the time from target onset in the
gap task or fixation offset in the ODR task to the starting time of the answering saccade. We used the
trials that contained only answering saccades because it was difficult to define which saccade from
the multiple groups was really in response to the target onset or fixation offset in the gap or ODR
task. As indicated in **Figure 5A**, the SRT decreased with increasing gap period (rho = -0.4, p = 0.03;
Spearman Rank coefficient) and gap zero had the longest SRT, in agreement with the gap effect
phenomenon, defined as a temporal gap between fixation point offset and target onset that typically
results in shorter saccadic latencies than if the fixation point remains on (Saslow, 1967; Reulen,
1984; Tam and Ono, 1994; Pratt et al., 1999; Chen et al., 2021). This effect was not dependent on the
eccentricity of the target location (rho = -0.06, p = 0. 8; Spearman Rank coefficient). Furthermore, a
detailed analysis of the SRT distributions for all three marmosets showed no express saccades in the
gap task (**Supplementary Figure 2A**).

3.4   Potential capture of attention effect in ODR task

As for the ODR task (**Figure 5B**), a decreasing trend of SRT with an increasing delay period was
observed only in one marmoset (marmoset M: rho = -0.9, p = 0.02; Spearman Rank coefficient).
However, the other two marmosets showed a decreasing trend of SRT up until 200 ms then a rebound
of slower SRT at 250 ms. The averaged SRT across the three marmosets did not show clear trend of
decreasing SRT with increasing the delay period (rho = -0.1, p = 0. 6; Spearman Rank coefficient).
Similar to the gap task, there was also no dependency of the SRT on the eccentricity of the target
location (rho = -0.5, p = 0. 1; Spearman Rank coefficient). In addition, the averaged SRT of gap /
ODR task was 155 / 149 ms for Marmoset S, 165 / 240 ms for Marmoset N, and 158 / 194 ms for
Marmoset M. These results showed that the SRT in ODR task was generally longer than that for the
gap task for the same marmoset (marmoset S: p = 1.5×10^{-21}, marmoset N: p = 1.6×10^{-80}, marmoset M,
p = 5.6×10^{-37}; Wilcoxon rank sum test). We also noticed that ultra-short latency answering saccades
exhibited in the ODR task (**Supplementary Figure 2B**), which was consistent across all three
marmosets.

3.5   Different types of errors made by the marmosets

In addition to the trials in successful category, the marmosets also made many errors during the tasks
(error rates; gap task: 37.7%, ODR task: 78.7%, averaged from three marmosets). Therefore, we
decided to take benefit from these errors and try to interpret why the marmosets ended up not getting
the reward. To do so, we further divided the error trials into three categories, distractive error,

impulsive error, and visuomotor error categories, based on when the marmosets made mistakes
relatively to the task monitor events **(Figure 6A)**. For the gap task, we first labeled the error trials
based on three monitor events in a given trial, fixation stimulus onset, fixation stimulus offset, and
target stimulus onset. If a trial ended after fixation stimulus onset and before fixation stimulus offset,
it was defined as a distractive error trial. If a trial ended after fixation stimulus offset and before
target stimulus onset, it was defined as an impulsive error trial. Finally, if a trial ended after fixation
stimulus offset and after target stimulus onset but without reward, it was defined as a visuomotor
error trial. We then looked for the first saccade in the labeled trial which broke fixation (i.e., the first
saccade started within the fixation window and ended outside the fixation window). This saccade was
taken as the saccade that responded to the nearest monitor event for this trial, and the SRT was then
calculated. In gap task, anticipatory saccades were reported for marmosets (Chen et al., 2021). These
anticipatory saccades were considered to be not in response to the nearest monitor event (target
onset) because the response time was too short (< 70 ms). These saccades might just have a slower
response, and the response was to the second nearest monitor event (fixation offset). Considering
that, we redefined the trials with SRT less than 70 ms labeled as visuomotor error trials to be
impulsive error trials and redefined the trials with SRT less than 70 ms labeled as impulsive error
trials to be distractive error trials and recalculated the SRT based on the second nearest monitor
events. If the marmoset never entered fixation eye window after fixation stimulus onset, the trial was
defined as a distractive error trial and no saccades or SRTs were identified. Also, if the marmoset did
not leave the fixation window after entering it, the trial was defined as a visuomotor error trial and no
saccades or SRTs were identified. Example trials and saccades are shown in **Figure 6B**.

The definitions of the error categories were similar in the ODR task **(Figure 6C)**. The three monitor
events were identified as fixation stimulus onset, target stimulus onset, and fixation stimulus offset.
Distractive error trails were then defined as the trials ended after fixation stimulus onset and before
target stimulus onset. Impulsive error trials were defined as trials ended after target stimulus onset
and before fixation stimulus offset. Visuomotor error trials were defined as trials ended after fixation
stimulus offset but without reward. Again, the SRT was extracted for each trial. No anticipatory
saccades were reported previously, so we did not relabel any trials. Example trials and saccades are
shown in **Figure 6D**.

363   3.6   Distinct error rate and saccade response time for each category

We first compared the distractive error category in either task **(Figure 7)**. Because the marmosets
were trained with different fixation stimulus configuration **(Figure 1A)**, they should be able to
distinguish the tasks even at the very beginning of the tasks. This was reflected by different
percentage in the distractive error. We expected that because the ODR task was more demanding and
had a lower percentage of success, the percentage of distractive error in the ODR task should be
higher. However, to our surprise, the result was the opposite: the percentage of distractive error was
lower in all three marmosets in the ODR tasks (marmoset S: $chi^2 = 34.2$, $p = 5x10^{-9}$; marmoset N:
$chi^2 = 1.3x10^{3}$, $p < 2.2x10^{-308}$; marmoset M: $chi^2 = 677.5$, $p < 2.2x10^{-308}$; chi-square test).

For the impulsive error category, we found that the proportion was much higher in the ODR than in
the gap task **(Figure 7)**. This was probably because the information about the upcoming target
location was not given to the marmosets during the gap period, whereas it was given just before the
delay period in the ODR task. The marmosets needed to actively suppress their reflexive response to
the cue, and failure to suppress such impulsivity will result in breaking of fixation faster than in the
gap task. We confirmed this by looking at the SRT in the impulsive error category and found that the
median of SRT was shorter in the ODR than in the gap task (marmoset S: $p = 5x10^{-27}$, marmoset N: p

$= 1\text{x}10^{-105}$, marmoset M, $p = 6.9\text{x}10^{-264}$; Wilcoxon rank sum test) and comparable with that in the
successful category of the gap task (**Figure 8**).

We also found that the percentage of the visuomotor error was higher in the ODR than in the gap task
(**Figure 7**), and the SRT in the visuomotor error saccades were slower in the ODR than in the gap
task (marmoset S: $p=9.3\text{x}10^{-119}$, marmoset N: $p = 7.7\text{x}10^{-92}$, marmoset M, $p= 1.5\text{x}10^{-153}$; Wilcoxon
rank sum test) (**Figure 8**).

3.7   Marmosets repeated the same incorrect answer in the ODR task

We observed that, in the ODR task, all three marmosets exhibited consistently longer SRT in the
visuomotor error trials than those in the successful trials (marmoset S: $p < 2.2\text{x}10^{-308}$, marmoset N: p
$= 5.4\text{x}10^{-104}$, marmoset M, $p < 2.2\text{x}10^{-308}$; Wilcoxon rank sum test) (**Figure 8**). To further investigate
why the marmosets failed in the last step of the ODR task, we simply separated the saccade vectors
made in response to the target location in the impulsive and the visuomotor error categories (**Figure.
9A**). We found that across all three marmosets, saccades from the impulsive error trials were mainly
directed toward the target stimulus. This implies that the main reason of making an impulsive error
was indeed the inability to suppress the reflexive saccade toward the cue. However, for saccades
from the visuomotor error trials that were directed toward the target, the main failure reason was the
generation of hypometric saccades that did not reach the target when we calculated the radial distance
between the saccade endpoint to the target location (**Figure. 9B**). Alternatively, the marmosets made
more often, saccades away from the target stimulus (**Figure. 9A**). This was an unexpected result
because if the marmosets forgot the target direction of the current trial, an equal bias of saccading
toward or away from the target would've seen. If the marmosets only remembered the rough target
direction but not the exact location, the saccade direction should be made then in the same direction
as the target location. To further investigate why this happened, we took the saccade that directed
away from the target, from the visuomotor error trial, and named it as a "current trial saccade" and
inspected what was the marmosets' previous response (**Figure 9C**). We found that if the previous
trial was a successful trial, the marmosets did not show any tendency to select the same or the
opposite location of target that they chose before (**Figure 9C**, left figure). However, if the
visuomotor error trial was preceded by an impulsive trial, the marmosets showed a tendency to
saccade to the opposite side of their previous choice (**Figure 9C**, middle figure). This means that the
marmoset actually made a saccade away from the target in the current visuomotor trial given that
most of the impulsive error trails had saccades directed toward the target (**Figure 9A**). If the
visuomotor error trail was preceded by another visuomotor trial, the marmosets tended to stick with
the same answering direction of their choice (**Figure 9C**, right figure), which would be the opposite
of the target location.

3.8   High saccade peak velocity and short saccade duration for successful answering saccades

Finally, we compared the saccade kinematics across all categories for both tasks. We first looked at
the relationship between saccade peak velocity and amplitude. As **Figure 10A, B** shows, in both the
gap task and the ODR task, the peak velocity was similar in the successful trials and was also the
highest comparing to saccades in other error categories. Furthermore, we found that the saccades
duration in the successful trials was the shortest compared to the error saccades in either task when
looking at the relationship between saccade duration and amplitude (**Figure 10C, D**).

4   Discussion

We showed that the marmosets were able to learn two different saccadic paradigms, the gap and the
ODR task, and switch in between them. Regarding successful trials, we found hypometric saccades
in the gap but both hypo- and hypermetric saccades in the ODR task. We also analyzed the SRT and
confirmed gap effect and potential capture of attention effect for either task from the marmosets. We
further categorized and analyzed the error trials to interpret why the marmosets made mistakes in
each task. We found that the marmosets had less distractive error in the ODR task, however, the
impulsive errors were more comparable to the gap task. Although there were more visuomotor errors
in the ODR than in the gap task, these errors were not a consequence of the previously successful
answer. Rather, these errors might be the result of repetitively making the same mistake. At the end,
we looked at the relationship of saccade amplitude to peak velocity and duration. We found that the
successful trials had the highest saccade peak velocity and the shortest saccade duration in both tasks.
To the best of our knowledge, no previous research has fully documented the learning curve of the
gap and the ODR task and directly compared the two in the same common marmosets. This is also
the first time a detailed analysis was made in both the successful and the error trials to interpret the
potential cognitive and sensory-motor processes while the marmosets were performing the tasks. We
believe our approach can better evaluate the marmosets' behavior and pave the way to analyze the
behavior in both healthy and disease model marmosets.

We started the comparison by looking at the success rate in each task. Our data showed clearly that
the marmosets learned both tasks and were able to switch in between them. It is known that previous
experience helps in improving the subject's ability to identify and correctly respond to visual stimuli.
Previous studies have shown that with long-term training, performance can be enhanced a lot
(Goldstone, 1998). But, if we cross-compared between the two tasks, the success rate was lower in
the ODR task than in the gap task (**Figure 2**). We attribute this to the absence of the visual target in
the ODR task while making a saccade to the target, and the complete reliance on the working
memory in recalling the location of the previously presented target. Indeed, previous macaque
monkey studies have shown that saccades made in response to a remembered target location are
associated with larger errors than saccades made in response to a visually accessible target (Opris et
al., 2003; Stanford and Sparks, 1994). The ODR task is associated with a higher difficulty and a
higher chance of delivering an incorrect answer. There might be also the issue of interference
between the exogenously-driven and an endogenously-driven saccadic tasks being trained in parallel.
The marmosets may choose to receive more reward on the easier task but avoid doing the more
difficult one. However, in the ODR task, there was no clear avoidance behavior (for example, sudden
performance drop), and after long-term training, there was an improvement in performance, although
not as dramatic as in the gap task.

Next, we looked at the accuracy of the first saccade and the answering saccade after target onset. As
our data showed, the marmosets have the tendency to undershoot in their saccades in the gap task,
and they make following saccades that correct for their undershooting (**Figure 3**). This is in line with
the previous human research that visually guided saccade tasks are shown to have answering saccade
first undershooting and frequently followed by corrective secondary saccade to line up the fovea with
the target (Nuthmann et al., 2016). This undershooting is referred to as an attempt to reduce the
saccade flight time (Harris, 1995). For the ODR task, less corrective saccade occurred because there
was no visual target to align with, but there was, a clear saccadic range effect occurred, with saccades
biased toward the center of the range, undershooting for furthest targets from fixation center, and
overshooting for closest targets to fixation center. (Kapoula, 1985). This is mainly occurring due to
the task condition. Nonetheless, if we looked at the half-width of the answering saccade distribution,
we found that 5 deg target was the narrowest. This may indicate the 5 deg target was the most
precisely encoded target in the ODR task. Additionally, although previous research showed that

memory guided saccade is usually more hypometric than visually guided saccades (Nuthmann et al.,
2016), similar effect was not observed in our current study.

We did not find express saccade in the gap task in the current study (**Figure 4**) (Johnston et al.,
2018), in contrary to our previous study (Chen et al., 2021) . Even though the training was almost
identical to our previous report. We attribute this difference to two possible reasons, one is the
interference from the ODR task, the other is the use of multiple training eccentricities in the gap task.
Furthermore, not all marmosets showed express saccade after gap task training (Johnston et al.,
2018). But we did observe gap effect in the current study. On the other hand, ultra-short latency
answering saccades were found in the ODR task, which can be a result of several possible cognitive
elements such as predictions, knowledge and strategies (Badler and Heinen, 2006; Heeman et al.,
2019). In addition, when we compared the gap and ODR task, we found that in general, the saccade
response time in the ODR task was longer than in the gap task in the same marmoset (**Figure 5**). This
also comes in accordance with previous macaque studies which have shown that the response time of
memory-guided saccades are longer and less accurate than visually guided saccades (Gnadt et al.,
1991). We also found that ODR task's SRT from two marmosets decreased until 200 ms and then
increased, this is similar to the capture of attention effect observed in the Posner paradigm (Posner,
1980). However, because the ODR task and the Posner paradigm are different, and not all marmoset
showed the same response, it is hard to make a solid conclusion.

One important point of the current study was to extend the analysis to the error trials and to interpret
how the marmosets made mistakes (**Figure 6**). First, by looking at the error rate of different
categories, we found that the distractive error percentage was lower in the ODR task in contrast to the
gap task (**Figure 7**). This is similar to "mind wondering", where attention is generally directed to task
irrelevant internal thoughts for easy and repetitive tasks (Reichle et al., 2010). Moreover, many other
studies proposed that whenever internal cognition is activated, eyes are disengaged from external
stimulus in order to guard the internal thoughts against external events (Smallwood et al., 2007). To
successfully execute a demanding task, it is a must to stay concentrated on the current ongoing task
and not going to the mind wandering state (Benedek et al., 2017). Therefore, the lower distraction
error in the ODR task might be due to the higher demands of the task, which activates more cognitive
processes. However, in the gap task, it is mainly driven by external stimulus and could lead to a mind
wondering state easily. We also found that the impulsive errors were higher in the ODR task. By
comparing the saccade response time of the impulsive errors in ODR task to the response time of the
answering saccades in the gap task, it was clear that the marmosets reflexively made saccades toward
the flashed target that they failed to suppress (**Figure 8**). This also means that while they made the
impulsive saccades, they ignored the fixation spot almost completely. This might be due to our
parallel training of both tasks at the same time. During the gap period, there was no information of
the target, hence, the impulsive errors rate was lower. Even if there were impulsive errors, because
the marmosets did not know where to saccade to, the saccade response time was much slower than
the ODR task. Furthermore, the visuomotor error rate was higher in the ODR task. This could be
related to the task design. Because in the gap task, the final stage was to make an exogenous saccade
to a target stimulus, whereas in the ODR task, marmosets must rely on their working memory to
recall the location of the target generate an endogenous saccade to the remembered target location.
Because of this, the saccade response time was also slower in the ODR task for visuomotor errors. At
last, we noticed that a good proportion of the answering saccades and saccades in the visuomotor
errors in the ODR task had a very short response time, but not in the gap task. This might be due to
the strategy that the marmosets used to answer in the ODR task. In particular, the same delay period
was used in the same session, which may have forced the marmosets to count the time.

We noticed that visuomotor error trials' SRTs were consistently longer than successful trials' SRTs.
This might indicate that the marmosets did not remember the target location and hesitated in making
a saccade to the invisible target. Therefore, we further dissected how the marmosets made
visuomotor error in the ODR task by considering the previous trial target position and their previous
decision (**Figure 9**). Since the target was either presented left or right, and to prevent the marmosets
from picking only one side to get the reward, the failed trial in our task repeated itself until the
marmosets successfully answered the task, we wondered if their decision in the previous trial might
have influenced their current responses. However, we did not find evidence that the previous
successful trial affected the marmoset's next decision. However, if the marmosets had made a
visuomotor error previously, they tended to repeat the same answer. This may be similar to an effect
called "recurring mistakes" (Kuvaldina et al., 2019) where the same mistakes are repetitively made
after the first mistake. Although the neuronal pathway of recurring mistakes is still not clear, our
experiment suggests that the marmosets might be used to identify the neuronal bases of this
psychological phenomena using simple tasks.

The main sequence relationships are believed to reflect optimization of the trade-off between saccade
duration and accuracy (Harris and Wolpert, 2006). It is commonly known that there is a fixed
relationship between the saccade kinematics so that as the saccade amplitude increases, peak velocity
and duration also increase (Fuchs, 1967; Bahill et al., 1975). But when comparing visually guided
and memory guided saccades in macaque, it has been shown that saccades made in response to
remembered locations have lower peak velocities and longer durations than saccades made in
response to a visual stimulus (Gnadt and Andersen, 1988; Powers et al., 2013). In our results (**Figure**
10), we found that the previous statement is true only for saccades with small amplitude, however, as
saccade amplitude got larger, answering saccades made in the ODR task had higher peak velocities
and shorter durations than the same saccades amplitude made in the gap task. Our data also showed
that the amplitude vs duration relationship had a slope smaller in the ODR task than in the gap task.
This could be due to motivation, arousal, or advanced motor planning. It has been recently noticed
that saccade peak velocity is not just dependent on saccade amplitude, but also on motivation,
arousal, and inter and intra-individual variations (Muhammed et al., 2020). In addition, for advanced
motor preparation, expected value comes with great significance and, various studies have shown that
saccade velocity can actually increase if a high reward was anticipated (Di Stasi et al., 2011; Chen et
al., 2013). We think that in all tasks but especially the ODR task, motivation and advanced motor
planning plays a crucial role in modulating saccade velocities. What was striking was that the
answering saccades had the highest peak velocity and the shortest saccade duration comparing to
error categories, as if the marmosets knew whether they would answer correctly or not. This may be
reflecting the confidence of the marmosets in making the saccades (Seideman et al., 2018).

Finally, we strongly recommend maintaining a high motivation level for the marmosets during
behavior training. Because if they experienced continuous episodes of failure and no reward, they
lose their enthusiasm and eventually gave up on doing the task. In agreement with that, previous
macaque monkey studies have shown that when monkeys were given the choice to do or abandon a
task with high difficulty, they choose to opt-out the task (Smith et al., 1998).

5   Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

6   Author Contributions

WA was responsible for the behavioural training, data collection, formal analysis, and the writing of
the first draft. CC was involved in guiding the research and editing the manuscript. HO was involved
in the marmosets' MRI imaging and surgeries. The project was overseen and supervised by TI. All
authors shaped the final version of the manuscript and approved the submitted version.

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751   9   Data Availability Statement

752   Data presented in this paper are available upon reasonable request.

753   10   Figure legends

Figure 1 Task illustration. (A) Gap task. A 1-degree-diameter marmoset face was used as both
fixation stimulus and target stimulus. The marmosets were trained to first fixate at the fixation
stimulus for 200ms. After the initial fixation, a gap period of 0 to 400 ms with no stimulus on the
screen was given. The marmosets needed to maintain their fixation during this period. The target
stimulus would appear after this period and the marmosets were trained to saccade to the target to
attain the reward. **(B)** Oculomotor delayed response (ODR) task. A 1-degree-diameter white dot with
black surrounding was used as both fixation stimulus and target stimulus. The marmosets were
trained to first fixate at the fixation stimulus for 200 ms. After the initial fixation, the target location
was presented for 67 ms together with the fixation stimulus. Immediately after this, a delay period of
100 to 400 ms was given. The marmosets were required to maintain fixation at the fixation stimulus
during the target presentation and the delay period. The target stimulus would appear after the delay
period and the marmosets were trained to saccade to the location of the presented target to attain the
reward. The 2-deg-diameter eye window was indicated with dashed circle in each task. Marmoset's
gaze fixation was indicated as a yellow star and the saccades that they made to acquire the reward
was indicated as a blue arrow.

Figure 2 Change in success rate over the training period. (A) Gap task. The success rate for each
session was plotted in relation to the training cumulative sessions, separated by the gap period. The
data here was platted regardless of the target eccentricity. We selected 0 ms (left column), 150 ms
(middle column), and 300 ms (right column) as examples. (B) Similar plots were generated for the
ODR task. We selected 150 ms (left column) and 300 ms (right column) as examples. The black lines
in each plot are the moving average of the success rate with a window size of 10 sessions and moving
at 1 session step.

Figure 3 Radial distance from target location to saccade endpoint. (A) Definition of first
saccades. We first analyzed the radial distance for the first saccade after target onset in the gap task
or fixation offset in the ODR task regardless of whether the saccade vector was toward the target or
not, from the successful trials. **(B)** Radial distance from target location in the gap task to saccade

endpoint of the first saccades. 4-degree and 6-degree target eccentricities are plotted here as an
example for all 3 marmosets. An example of undershooting saccade with saccade endpoint less than -
2-degree radial distance (hypometric) is indicated by arrowhead. **(C)** Radial distance from target
location in the ODR task to saccade endpoint of the first saccades. 4-degree and 6-degree target
eccentricities are plotted here as an example for all 3 marmosets. An example of overshooting
saccade with saccade endpoint more than 2-degree radial distance (hypermetric) is indicated by
arrowhead. **(D)** Definition of answering saccades. We further constrained the saccades with the start
point and the endpoint all within the eye window and defined them as answering saccades (also see
Figure 4A). **(E)** Radial distance from target location in the gap task to saccade endpoint of the
answering saccades. **(F)** Radial distance from target location in the ODR task to saccade endpoint of
the first saccades. Median of the radial distance are indicated in each figure.

Figure 4 Subgroups from the successful trials. (A) Definition of the answering saccade and
subgroups from the successful category. We further separated the trials in the successful category
into three subgroups based on how the marmosets made saccades to reach to the target. The pure
single group is the trials that the marmosets made a single saccade after the target onset from the
fixation eye window and entered the target eye window. The single group is trials that either before
or after the saccade made from the fixation eye window and entered the target eye window there was
a microsaccade within the fixation eye window or within the target window, respectively. The
multiple group is the trials without a saccade starting from the fixation eye window and entered the
target eye window, meaning that the marmosets made several small saccades to eventually reach to
the target. We also defined the saccade made from the fixation eye window and entered the target eye
window answering saccade for each trial and all other saccades as non-answering saccades. By
definition, answering saccades are found only in trials of pure single and single group, not in the
multiple group. **(B)** Percentage of trials in each subgroup from the successful trials. Here we show
the percentage of trials in each subgroup from all the successful trials. Note that in the ODR task,
pure single group was higher in both marmoset S and marmoset M than the gap task. The multiple
groups have lower percentage of trials in the ODR task than in the gap task for all three marmosets.

Figure 5 Saccade response time (SRT) from the successful category of gap and ODR task. Only
answering saccades were included for SRT calculation. **(A)** Averaged SRT of gap task. Note that the
SRT for all three marmosets continued to decrease for gap period 0 to 150 ms. **(B)** Averaged SRT of
ODR task. No consistent SRT change was observed across delay period. Data showing here were
collected regardless of the target eccentricity. Shaded areas around the colored lines indicate the error
bar (standard error mean, S.E.M.) of the SRT. The black solid line in each plot indicates the mean
SRT of the three marmosets.

Figure 6 Description of the error categories in the gap and ODR task. (A) Definition of error
categories in the gap task. Error trials consist of three types of error, defined according to when the
trial was aborted. The eye position shown here represents a visuomotor error trial with saccade
response time (SRT) extracted. If the SRT was less than 70 ms, the trial was relabeled as impulsive
error trial and the SRT would be recalculated based on the second nearest monitor event (in this case,
fixation stimulus offset). The black dashed lines around the eye position indicate eye windowing for
monitoring the marmosets' eye position. **(B)** Example saccades extracted in each error categories
from the gap task. Here we plotted randomly selected error trials from marmoset S for each error
category. For comparison, we also plotted randomly selected successful trials from the same
marmoset. Dashed circles indicate the eye windowing size and location for potential target stimuli.
(C) Definition of error categories in the ODR task. Similar convention is used as in (A). **(D)** Example

saccades extracted from each error categories from the ODR task. Here we plotted randomly selected
trials from marmoset S for each category. Similar convention is used as in (B).

Figure 7 Percentage of trials in each category of gap and ODR task. After separating the error
trials into proper error categories (distractive, impulsive, or visuomotor), we plotted the percentage of
each category including successful trials collected from the beginning of training regardless of target
eccentricity or gap / delay period. **(A)** Gap task. **(B)** ODR task.

Figure 8 Saccade response time (SRT) from all categories of gap and ODR task. SRT of
correspondent monitor events were plotted for each error and successful categories regardless of
target eccentricity or gap / delay period for either gap or ODR task. **(A)** SRT of distractive error
category. Time zero in the x axis indicates fixation stimulus onset for both tasks. **(B)** SRT of
impulsive error category. Time zero in the x axis indicates fixation stimulus offset in gap and target
stimulus onset in ODR task. **(C)** SRT of visuomotor error category. Time zero in the x axis indicates
target stimulus onset in gap and fixation stimulus offset in ODR task. **(D)** SRT of successful
category. Time zero in the x axis indicates target stimulus onset in gap and fixation stimulus offset in
ODR task. Similar to **Figure 5**, only answering saccade was used to calculate SRT. The median of
SRT for each task is indicated in the figure with a vertical line and an actual number of correspondent
color.

Figure 9 Analysis of current error saccade and previous decision in the ODR task. (A) Saccade
direction of the current error trials. We separated saccades vector and calculated if the saccade
direction was toward the target location or away from it. As can be seen, the marmosets had strong
tendency to make saccade toward the target in impulsive error trials. They also have tendency to
make saccade away from the target in visuomotor error trials. **(B)** Reasons of failure of saccade
toward target in visuomotor trials. We further analyzed the visuomotor error trials with saccades
directed toward the target to see why the marmosets failed in reaching the target. We found most of
the saccades were undershooting saccades and did not reach to the target eye window. A small
portion of the saccades were overshooting. Another small portion of the saccades were that the
marmoset did not stay enough time in the target eye window. **(C)** Previous trial type and saccade
direction relative to current saccade direction. We took only visuomotor error trials with saccade
away from target in this analysis. We found similar percentage of the same and the opposite saccade
direction comparing previous to current trial if the previous trial was a successful trial. However, if
the previous trial was an impulsive trial, the marmosets tend to switch their saccade direction. If the
previous trial was also a visuomotor trial, the marmosets tend to keep the same saccade direction.

Figure 10 Comparing saccade main sequence across error and successful categories. (A)
Saccade amplitude against saccade peak velocity. Here we plotted saccades extracted from each error
category and successful category for gap task. Parameters are: Marmoset S: distractive: a= 84.6, n=
0.817; impulsive: a= 64.08, n= 0.967; visuomotor: a= 48.98, n= 1.135; successful: a= 118, n= 0.768;
Marmoset N: distractive: a= 81.45, n= 0.84; impulsive: a= 67.58, n= 0.94; visuomotor: a= 57.85, n=
1.003; successful: a= 105, n= 0.854; Marmoset M: distractive: a= 80.68, n= 0.897; impulsive: a=
73.85, n= 0.955; visuomotor: a= 58.47, n= 1.096; successful: a= 123.8, n= 0.789. **(B)** Saccade
amplitude against saccade peak velocity. Here we plotted saccades extracted from each error
category and successful category for ODR task. Parameters are: Marmoset S: distractive: a= 42.54,
n= 1.13; impulsive: a= 89.57, n= 0.9077; visuomotor: a= 66.9, n= 0.978; successful: a= 80.11, n=
0.989; Marmoset N: impulsive: a= 106, n= 0.756; visuomotor: a= 58.97, n= 0.974; successful: a=
53.07, n= 1.21; Marmoset M: distractive: a= 92.12, n= 0.872; impulsive: a= 108.3, n= 0.851;
visuomotor: a= 81.34, n= 0.904; successful: a= 89.45, n= 0.984. **(C)** Saccade amplitude against

saccade duration. Here we plotted saccades extracted from each error category and successful
category for gap task. Parameters are: Marmoset S: distractive: b= 2.47, c= 23.24; impulsive: b=
1.67, c= 29.76; visuomotor: b= 1.448, c= 31.39; successful: b= 1.73, c= 20.7; Marmoset N:
distractive: b= 2.33, c= 24.09; impulsive: b= 1.77, c= 27.17; visuomotor: b= 1.68, c= 30.1;
successful: b= 1.09, c= 22.3; Marmoset M: distractive: b= 2.05, c= 26.57; impulsive: b= 1.63, c=
28.03; visuomotor: b= 1.19, c= 30.39; successful: b= 1.31, c= 20.6. **(D)** Saccade amplitude against
saccade duration. Here we plotted saccades extracted from each error category and successful
category for ODR task. Parameters are: Marmoset S: distractive: b= 2.83, c= 28.69; impulsive: b=
0.86, c= 26.56; visuomotor: b= 1.63, c= 29.26; successful: b= 0.39, c= 28.59; Marmoset N:
impulsive: b= 2.19, c= 21.36; visuomotor: b= 2.09, c= 29.20; successful: b= -0.52, c= 34.69;
Marmoset M: distractive: b= 2.17, c= 29.25; impulsive: b= 1.44, c= 21.97; visuomotor: b= 1.96, c=
27.05; successful: b= 0.37, c= 26.82.

Supplementary Figure 1 Distance from target location to answering saccade endpoint. In this
figure, we combined all the answering saccades from successful trials regardless of the gap or delay
period or target eccentricity. Previously, an upward bias of the saccade trajectory and landing
position was reported in both exogenously-driven and endogenously-driven saccadic tasks (White et
al., 1994; Goffart et al., 2006). To preserve possible upward shift from our data set, we first flipped
the target locations in the second and the third quadrant and the correspondent answering saccade
along the x axis. We than rotated all the target locations and the answering saccades to the positive x
axis. Finally, we took the difference between the target and the x and y coordinates the saccade
endpoint independently. **(A)** Result from gap task. **(B)** Result from ODR task. As can be seen, the
undershooting on the x distance from the saccade endpoint to the target location was always more
than the y distance for both tasks. (Gap: marmoset S: $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$, marmoset N: $p = 3.4 \times 10^{-251}$,
marmoset M, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$; ODR: marmoset S: $p = 9.9 \times 10^{-3}$, marmoset N: $p = 3.1 \times 10^{-14}$, marmoset
M, $p = 2.4 \times 10^{-96}$; Wilcoxon rank sum test) and there was no systematic upward or downward bias in
the y distance.

Supplementary Figure 2 Saccade response time (SRT) from the successful category of each gap
period for the gap task and each delay period for the ODR task. Here we plotted the SRT of the
answering saccades of the successful trials regardless of the target eccentricity. **(A)** Gap task. Note
that in all three marmosets, the SRT histogram for 0 ms gap period had rather a long tail. When the
gap period increased to 150 ms, the tail of the histogram got shorter. There was no express saccade
observed in all three marmosets. (B) ODR task. Note that in all three marmosets, extra short latency
saccades (< 70 ms) were observed in all delay period. The median of the SRT for each plot were
indicated in each plot in black.

Figure 1

Figure 2

912 **Figure 3**

Figure 4

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Figure 7

Figure 8

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937   **Supplementary Figure 1**

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940 **Supplementary Figure 2**