Visual space curves before eye movements

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ABSTRACT

Despite the incessant retinal disruptions that necessarily accompany eye movements, our percept of the visual world remains continuous and stable – a phenomenon referred to as spatial constancy. How the visual system seamlessly achieves spatial constancy is poorly understood despite almost four centuries worth of theorizing and experimentation (*1-4*). Here, I measured visual sensitivity at geometrically symmetric retinotopic locations, observing transient but marked sensitivity differences between them where none should be observed if cells that support spatial constancy indeed faithfully translate or converge across visual space (*5-10*). These differences, recapitulated by a novel but simple neurobiologically inspired general mechanical model, reflect an overriding influence of putative visually transient error signals that curve visual space. Intermediate eccentric locations between the current and future location of gaze, likely to contain retinal disruptions are uniquely affected by curved visual space. This suggest that active visual processing at these locations is transiently turned off before an eye movement, and with the gating off of these error signals, fully turned back on after an eye-movement– a novel mechanism underlying spatial constancy.

INTRODUCTION

We rapidly move our eyes, saccade, between two resting locations in space 3 to 5 times per second in order to bring eccentric objects of interest to the central 2° of the visual field (i.e., the fovea) (*11*). Saccades displace our retinal image of the visual world. Yet, I rarely ever notice the retinal disruptions saccades ubiquitously accompany in our day-to-day visual experiences. To account for this visual continuity and stability, early electrophysiological studies posit that cells across retinotopic brain areas predictively shift their spatial extent from their current locations of

sensitivity to their future post-saccadic locations just before a saccade is made. These findings
suggest that visual resources which would otherwise spatially overlap with the current location
of gaze, predictively shift to the location in space the eye will land once the saccade is complete,
thereby accounting for imminent retinal disruptions that accompanies the saccade. However, it
has been long suspected and recently confirmed that these early studies did not sample enough
spatial positions to thoroughly assess the reliability of these purely translational retinotopic shifts
towards post-saccadic locations (*12*). Specifically, recent electrophysiological studies have
uniquely exposed these classical studies and convincingly demonstrate that cells across
retinotopic brain areas converge primarily around the eccentric target of the saccade (*8-10*). This
has ignited an intense and persistent search for a novel mechanism underlying spatial constancy.
However psychophysical experiments which typically provide critical insights that ultimately
inform ensuing electrophysiological studies have been unable to implicate a novel mechanism,
until now.

Here, human subjects, for the first time, were randomly flashed low-contrast probes for
20ms at 2.5 degrees of visual angle (or dva) from the fixation dot (*Experiment 1*), from the
midpoint (at eccentricity of 5°) between the fixation dot and the saccade target (*Experiment 2*), or
from the saccade target (*Experiment 3*), at upper and lower tangential locations (i.e., around the
path of the saccade, Fig. 1A), geometrically symmetric to one another with respect to the radial
axis (i.e., the path the saccade is expected to travel along).   To discourage any artificial
restriction of visual resources along the tangential axes, probes were also isotropically flashed
along the radial axis (See Methods). Subjects reported with a button-press whether they were
able to detect a flashed probe around the time of an eye movement towards an eccentric
target. With respect to target onset, flashed probes fell within the time window of 0 to
1285ms after target onset (Fig. 1B).

RESULTS

Peri-saccadic localization of the eccentric target mirrors initial shifts in gaze but does not
mirror later shifts in gaze

The results in Fig. 2A, 1st panel, calculated across experiments from 0 to 209ms after target onset
along the tangential axes show that gaze was unexpectedly averted away from the target in the

direction of the foveal tangential clockwise fov_{cw} location. This shift in gaze is agreement with

transient increases in neural activity in the posterior parietal cortex during fixation at an eccentric

foveal site (*13*). From 210ms to 820ms after target onset (2nd panel) gaze continued to remain

eccentric while compressing downward towards the foveal tangential counterclockwise fov_{ccw}

location. This compression in gaze, in anticipation of the saccade, is in part in agreement with

the shrinkage of receptive fields observed in the extrastriate cortex (*8, 10*). The spatial

distribution between these marked shifts in gaze along radial and tangential axes was statistically

significant (rad_{shift}, p = 4.0058e-36; tan_{shift}, p = 0.0149). Fig. 2A, 3rd panel, shows that the

saccade landing position, from 0 to 50ms after saccades land in the periphery, was dramatically

mislocaized towards the peripheral tangential clockwise $peri_{cw}$ location. This observation, for

the first time, explains the orthogonal mislocalization of flashed stimuli away from a stationary

target, as observers most likely under these conditions erroneously perceive the eccentric target

as tangentially localized (*14, 15*). As expected, a larger variance was observed for the initial

locus of gaze (6.84 deg²) when compared to the variance associated with the compressed locus of

gaze (2.12 deg²). As for the variance associated with the saccade landing position, a larger

variance (10 deg²) was observed when compared to the loci of the gaze in the fovea (Fig. 2A, 4th

panel). These results strongly suggest that the tangential bias in the locus of the saccade landing

position (more eccentric region) remained mirroring the tangential bias in the initial shift in gaze

within the fovea (less eccentric region), even as gaze actively compressed towards the fov_{ccw}

location, in turn introducing an angular bearing (curvilinear) component within the

representation of visual space.

Curved visual space directly mediates unexpected transient differences in peri-saccadic

sensitivity across visual space

To test this "curved visual space" prediction, peri-saccadic sensitivity across visual space were

investigated. In line with this prediction, Fig. 2B, 1st panel, shows that when subjects began to

compress their gaze downward towards the fov_{ccw} location, there was a transient but marked

increase in peri-saccadic sensitivity at the fov_{ccw} location, while at the fov_{cw} location, there

was a transient but marked decline in peri-saccadic sensitivity. Indeed, because these retinotopic

locations are geometrically symmetric to one another, this should not happen if cells that support

spatial constancy faithfully translate or converge (*5-10*). From 820ms onwards after target onset

there was a global decline in peri-saccadic sensitivity at both foveal locations. This global

decline is in agreement with peri-saccadic corollary discharge commands originating from pre-

motor brain areas (*4*). The 2nd and 3rd panels show the opposite pattern in the changes in peri-

saccadic sensitivity. Specifically, from 210ms to 820ms after target onset, there are declines in

peri-saccadic sensitivity at $para_{ccw}$ and $peri_{ccw}$ locations and increases in peri-saccadic

sensitivity at $para_{cw}$ and $peri_{cw}$ locations, which again cannot be explained by a faithful

translation or convergent retinotopic shifts across visual space (*5-10*). Equally revealing is the

fact that at these eccentric locations, from 820ms onwards after target onset, there is a slow but

clear peri-saccadic sensitivity "hand-off", as $para_{ccw}$ and $peri_{ccw}$ locations that once

experienced declines in peri-saccadic sensitivity slowly begin to experience increases.

Conversely, at $para_{cw}$ and $peri_{cw}$ locations that once experienced increases in peri-saccadic

sensitivity slowly begin to experience declines. These peri-saccadic sensitivity hand-offs

strongly suggest that curved representations are eventually calibrated around the time a saccade

has been planned.

Curved visual space curves trajectories typically expected to travel along a linear path.

To further test this peri-saccadic sensitivity hand-off prediction, saccade trajectories were

investigated. In line with this prediction, Fig. 2C shows that trajectories from the current position

of gaze towards the periphery were curved across experiments, at a rate of 73% towards the

$peri_{cw}$ location, while in 27% of all trials, saccades were curved towards the $peri_{ccw}$ location,

reflecting a calibrated visual representation towards the actual location of the target. Specifically,

when the saccade target was presented at azimuth angles of 0°, the trajectories were curved

towards the per_{cw} location at a rate of 91% with an average curvature of 0.22 in area/amp (*16*).

Conversely, for the remaining trials when saccades were curved towards the per_{ccw} location, an

average curvature of -0.80 in area/amp was observed. Next, when the peripheral target was

presented at an azimuth angle of 45°, the trajectories were curved towards the per_{cw} location at a

rate of 65% with an average curvature of 0.56 in area/amp, while for the remaining trials

(saccades curved towards the per_{ccw} location) an average curvature of -0.74 in area/amp was

observed. Finally, when the saccade target was presented at an azimuth angle of 315°,

trajectories were curved towards the per_{cw} location at a rate of 60% with an average curvature of

1.12 in area/amp, while for the remaining trials (saccades curved towards the per_{ccw}) location)

an average curvature of -1.17 in area/amp was observed.

Delta-rhythmicity known to support the inhibition of attentional signals support transient

differences in peri-saccadic sensitivity

Fig. 3A, 1st panel, shows that a large part of the observed changes in peri-saccadic sensitivity at

fov_{cw} and fov_{ccw} locations is actively meditated by rhythmicity in the delta frequency band at

~2 Hz and ~3 Hz respectively, which is known to support attentional shifts or, in the case of a

lower frequency (~2 Hz), their inhibition during demanding visuomotor tasks (*17*). Fig. 3A, 2nd

panel, shows that the spectral signature that mediated the fov_{ccw} location was not location-

specific when compared to shuffled data sets (p=0.2280). Conversely, the spectral signature that

supported the fov_{cw} location (the locus shifts in gaze was biased towards and away from) was

specific to that retinotopic location (p=0.0230). The $para_{cw}$, $para_{cw}$, $peri_{ccw}$, and $peri_{ccw}$

locations also exhibited rhythmicity in the ~2 Hz delta frequency band (Fig. 3B–C, 1st panel).

The spectral signature observed at eccentric clockwise and counterclockwise retinotopic

locations were not location-specific (p=0.0915, p=0.9725, p=0.3179, p=0.9725) (Fig. 3B–C, 2nd

panel). Furthermore, the phase of ~2 Hz within $para_{cw}$ and $para_{ccw}$ locations was consistently

offset by approximately 201°, and even larger offset of 290° was observed at the more eccentric

$peri_{cw}$ and $peri_{ccw}$ locations (Fig. 3B–C, 3rd panel). This antiphase periodicity at ~2 Hz

suggests that the retinotopic brain areas that support these upper and lower eccentric tangential

locations are synchronized by attentional dynamics at a common frequency but with location-

specific phases (*18*).

Novel neurobiologically inspired retinotopic lever under an inverse force field can explain

transient differences in peri-saccadic sensitivity

To provide a mechanistic account of the neural computations and architecture that support this

"curved visual space", a neurobiologically inspired phenomenological mechanical model is

proposed. At its core, the model assumes that underlying peri-saccadic attentional and

oculomotor signals (Fig.3) are actively modulated by what I have termed "visually transient error

signals", which give rise to an input and output forces exerted by corresponding time varying

masses (Fig. 4B, Fig. 4E) that act upon a "retinotopic lever". Under an inverse force field ($\varepsilon = $ -

0.55), input and output forces transiently shift spring-loaded sensors – population retinotopic

receptive fields (pRFs) that tile visual space and thereby shape normalized density (putative

population sensitivity) at a sampled retinotopic location in time (Fig. 4A, Fig. 4D, and Extended

Data Fig. 1-2).

As far as the foveal simulations, location-specific visually transient error signals (Fig.

3A) give rise to an input force that is preparing to act on the input arm of a "retinotopic lever"

which causes pRFs to shift upper ward in the direction of the fov_{cw} location and later compress

towards the fov_{ccw} location (Fig. 2A, 1st and 2nd panel). A compressed input force causes the

lever to pivot on its "foveal fulcrum" thereby providing a transient neural advantage at the

fov_{ccw} location. To always maintain retinotopic organization, pRFs that tile the more eccentric

regions in visual space are initially restricted from over-translating towards the foveal fov_{cw}

location by their population elastic fields (pEFs, see Methods) which remains mirroring the onset

location of the input force before a full compression occurs. For the sake of simplicity, foveal

simulations began from the point in time when pRFs mirrored the initial shift in gaze

(translational output force), followed by late compressive shift towards the fov_{ccw} location

(compressed input force) (Fig. 4B). Under these input and output forces, simulation results in

Fig. 4C show that putative population sensitivity recapitulated signatures in peri-saccadic

sensitivity in the foveal region of visual space (Fig. 2B, 1st panel). Assuming that retinotopic

cells are not mediated by visually transient error signals (i.e., visual representation does not

include a curved component), translational shifts anticipating retinal image disruptions should

have yielded no difference in putative population sensitivity (Fig. 4C, dotted marker) in

comparison to peri-saccadic sensitivity observed in Fig. 2B, 1st panel. Similarly, symmetrically

convergent retinotopic shifts towards a stationary peripheral site (Fig. 4C, thin markers) cannot

explain the changes in peri-saccadic sensitivity observed in the fovea.

As far as the eccentric simulations (Fig. 4D), after a fully compressed input force, pRFs

moved further towards the fov_{ccw} location in proportion to the mislocalization of the target.

Cells across retinotopic brain areas can receive both convergent and translational signals around

the time of a saccade (6, 9). To this end, pRFs later converged around an emerging output mass

which exceeded the magnitude of the initial shift in gaze and approximated the location of the

mislocalized target (Fig. 2A, 1st and 3rd panel) (19). This is immediately followed by the onset of

a translational force proportional to the magnitude of a saccade orthogonal to the radial axis

towards the $peri_{cw}$ location (Fig. 4E). Indeed, under three forces, especially when the forces that

corresponds to convergent and translational signals emerge, a neural advantage at eccentric

clockwise locations should be observed. As predicted, Fig. 4F shows that putative population

sensitivity was able to recapitulate peri-saccadic sensitivity signatures at parafoveal locations

(Fig. 2B, 2nd panel). These simulation results, for the first time, provides a mechanistic account

of the neural computations and architecture that supports peri-saccadic retinotopic shifts

orthogonal to the saccade direction (*7, 8*). Finally, as expected, a purely translational or

symmetrically convergent retinotopic shifts cannot explain changes in peri-saccadic sensitivity.

DICUSSION

Curved visual space is the most fundamental peri-saccadic representation of visual space
and can elucidate a range of previously unexplained transient peri-saccadic effects

Overall, results reported here strongly suggest that peri-saccadic retinotopic shifts reflect an

overriding influence of visually transient error signals that curves visual space and are not the

result of purely translational or convergent signals as previous studies had suggested (*5-10*).

Indeed, this is the first time such an observation has been made. Quite convincingly, curved

visual space constitutes the most fundamental peri-saccadic representation of visual space and in

turn determines (i.) whether a flashed stimuli will be orthogonally mislocaized away from a

stationary saccade target (*14, 15*), (ii.) whether cells in the extrastriate cortex will align with or

shift orthogonally to the saccade direction (*7, 8*) and (iii.) the extent retinotopic cells will

asymmetrically or symmetrically converge towards the saccade target (*20*).

Novel mechanism underlying spatial constancy and its possible predation origins
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Most importantly, curved visual space introduces a novel mechanism underlying spatial

constancy. Specifically, observed foveal shifts in gaze strongly suggest that the visual system,

before saccades, intentionally (mis)directs visual resources in the direction of gaze (i.e., away

from retinotopic locations that lie between the presaccadic and post-saccadic retinal locations).

These resources are further withheld via retinotopic compressions within the foveal region of

visual space. In light of this transient opponent (mis)direction and the compression of visual

resources, intermediate eccentric regions that were once actively supported by the visual system

are no longer so (i.e., visual processing is transiently turned off). This causes visual processing
within these regions to significantly lag behind, as it is observed in the behavioral, and
computational readouts highlighted above (Fig 2A, 1st, 2nd, 3rd panel; Fig 2B; Fig 2C).
Furthermore, because peri-saccadic resources spread across visual space in an extremely slow
manner (21), marked here for example by delta rhythmicity (~2 Hz) known to support the
inhibition of visual resources (Fig 3), reverted translational spreading of visual resources back
towards intermediate eccentric locations is left trailing behind the rapid movement of the eye.
This intrinsic difference in speed ultimately allows the incessant retinal disruptions that
necessarily accompany eye movements to escape our day-to-day percept of visual world.

Keeping in mind that Helmholtz, the first researcher to empirically investigate spatial
constancy, often referred to this phenomenon as somewhat of a magic trick (2), it is quite
remarkable that the human visual system has evolved to account for these retinal disruptions
using a (mis)directional strategy, tactic typically used by magicians to manipulate the perception
of an observer in order to keep their subtle movements concealed (22). As to the reasons behind
the election of such a strategy to achieve spatial constancy, because humans were once preys,
one possibility is that it reflects an evolutionarily conversed visuomotor avoidance or escape
strategy the mammalian visual system frequently used to track a distal target (e.g., conspecific,
predator) from a safe distance (e.g., corner of the eye), which is later followed by a calculated
movement (e.g., saccade) towards the location once avoided (*23-25*).

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COMPETING INTEREST

Authors has no competing financial interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that supports this study is available upon reasonable request.

CODE AVAILABILITY

The custom Matlab code that supports the analyses reported in this study is available upon

reasonable request.

SUPPLEMENTAL TEXT

Fig 1. Behavioural protocol. (A) Markers in the illustration of visual space show all retinotopic

locations at which a probe was flashed before and after the deployment of attention, saccade

planning, and, finally, the execution of a saccade. Probes of interest, presented along the

tangential axes, are conspicuously highlighted in open circle markers. **(B)** Temporal sequence of

a valid trial across experiments with respect to target onset.

Fig 2. Behavioural data. (A) Probability density map of foveal gaze and saccade landing was

calculated using a bivariate gaussian kernel along with their bivariate contour ellipse area

estimates for each probability density map. Error estimates are standard error of means across

observers. **(B)** Shifts in peri-saccadic sensitivity along tangential axes with respect to target

onset; error estimates were calculated using a 20-fold jackknife procedure. **(C)** Mean saccade

trajectory deviation for horizontal and oblique saccades across experiments. Positive values on

the ordinate denote trajectory deviation towards a clockwise location (cw), while negative values

denote trajectory deviation towards a counterclockwise location (ccw) (*16*).

Fig 3. Frequency domain representation of peri-saccadic sensitivity and cross-location

phase coherence estimates. (A-C) Representation of raw detrended peri-saccadic sensitivity at

less and more eccentric locations in visual space. Shuffled (n=1000, dashed line) versus

unshuffled (solid line) data set were used to compute location-specific spectral signatures at a

p<0.05. For parafoveal and peripheral clockwise and counterclockwise locations a cross-location

phase coherency analysis was performed.

Fig 4. Model architecture and neurobiological force field with simulated putative

population sensitivity. (A) For illustration purposes, a single eccentricity dependent population

receptive field (pRF) within a retinotopic field is highlighted in pink. A pRF is defined by its

center, size, and an eccentric dependent population elastic field (pEF). **(B)** MGα denotes gaze

transitional signals modelled as a virtual mass at infinity located in the direction of an upper

tangential location approximating the initial shift in gaze. MF denotes compressive signals

modelled as a varying mass located at a lower tangential location in the fovea. **(C)** Simulation

results in the foveal region when a pRF is under the influence of a resultant force exerted by (i)

MF and MGα (curved space, thick marker) (ii) MC (convergent signals modelled as a varying

mass at a stationary peripheral site; see Methods) and (iii) MT (saccade transitional signals

modelled as a virtual mass at infinity located in the direction of a straight saccade; see Methods).

(D) A pRF bounded by pEF is highlighted in pink for parafoveal simulations. **(E)** MGβ denotes

gaze translational signals modelled as a virtual mass at infinity located in the direction of a

downward shifts in gaze, MM denotes a varying mass at a mislocalized peripheral target, and

MS denotes the curved transitional signals modelled as a virtual mass at infinity located in the

direction of a curvilinear saccade. **(F)** Curved, convergent and translational simulation results.

Extended Data Fig. 1 Peri-saccadic spatiotemporal retinotopic shifts for foveal simulations.

(A) hexagonal retinotopic field spanning the entire visual field. Retinotopic shifts are produced

by the perturbation of pRFs under an inverse force field in discrete time increments of 1ms by

the combination of external forces exerted by **(B)** corresponding masses ($M_{G\alpha} + M_F$).

Extended Data Fig. 2 Peri-saccadic spatiotemporal retinotopic shifts for parafoveal

stimulations. (A) Retinotopic shifts when the combination of external forces is exerted by **(B)**

corresponding masses ($M_{G\beta} + M_M + M_S$).

METHODS

Human subjects

Six consenting human subjects (5 females and 1 male; 21-26 years old) with corrected-to-

normal visual acuity participated in the three experiments reported. Three of the six subjects

participated in the foveal and parafoveal experiments. The remaining three subjects participated

in the peripheral experiment. The Yale Ethics Review board approved the protocol of these

experiments and the storage of the data that was collected.

Visual stimuli and experimental protocol

Fig. 1 summarizes the protocol used across experiments. In a dimly lit room, stimuli were

presented on a gamma corrected display with a spatial resolution of 1400 x 1050 pixels and a

mean luminance of 38cd/m². Eye movements were recorded using an infrared video-based eye-

tracker sampled at 1kHz (I-Scan Inc., Woburn, MA). While tightly head fixed using a head rest

and a customized bite bar, subjects at the onset of each trial acquired fixation for 300ms. Fixation

within this temporal window was spatially aligned with the fixation point (0.5 dva in diameter)

using a custom-developed 9-point eye-calibration procedure in Picto. Next, depending on the

subject, a saccade target was presented at an eccentricity of 10° and at azimuth angles of 0° (for

s_1), 45° (for s_2) and 315° (for s_3) (Fig. 1A). Following target onset, fixation was maintained for

another 300-600ms within ~2dva fixation tolerance window, at the end of which the fixation spot

was extinguished, which served as the central motor cue for subjects to make an eye movement

towards the saccade target. For another 500ms after the central motor cue, the saccade target

remained visible. Finally, a low contrast probe (at a contrast level which the subject could detect

with 50% accuracy) were isotropically flashed, depending on the experiment, for 20ms either

along the radial or tangential axis at a random time during the 300-600ms window between the

target onset and the central motor cue (25% of trials) or at a random time between 0-340ms after

the central motor cue (50% of the trials). On the remaining 25% (which yielded a false alarm rate

of 1.2%), no probes were presented. All three conditions were randomly interleaved across trials.

With respect to target onset, the presentation of flashed probes fell within a time window of 0-

1285ms after target onset (Fig. 1B). Subject was asked to report, using a push button, whether

they were able to detect the flashed probe. While the responses along the radial axis were not

analyzed, the presentation of these probes was crucial in controlling for any response biases that

may have emerged at upper or lower locations along tangential axes. To ensure that attentional

and oculomotor resources was not being driven by an asymmetric stimuli configuration as it is

the case in previous studies (*26, 27, 28*), no secondary salient spatial cue was presented. Along

the tangential axes, a total of ~6010 trials were collected across experiments, with a minimum of

650 trials per subject.

Statistical analyses

To investigate gaze dynamics, probability density maps and variance estimates were calculated

using median filtered edge preserving fixational data, which was rotated to an angle of 0° across

target locations. Next, I calculated a gaze probability density map for the foveal and periphery

regions using a bivariate Gaussian kernel (*29*). The estimated locus of gaze across subjects was

defined as the peak of each probability density map (i.e., the yellow contour lines). To compare

the distribution of gaze in the fovea during the 0 to 209ms window after target onset versus 210

to 820ms window after target onset, a Mann-Whitney U statistic was calculated at p value less

than 0.05. Further, variance in gaze was calculated using a bivariate Contour Ellipse Area

(BCEA) approach which included 68% of fixational data around the mean (*30*). Accompanying

error bars were obtained which denote the standard error of the mean variance across subjects.

To investigate the extent saccade trajectories were curved across experiments at each saccade

location. Horizontal and vertical eye positions, with the time window starting point constituting

the moment fixation was maintained to the moment the eye landed in the periphery, was isolated.

Next to obtain a measurement of curvature, the curved area that emerged from the eye position

during this time window was calculated. To then obtain a ratio measure of curvature per unit

amplitude, this area was divided by the amplitude of the saccade (*31*). Accompanying calculated

error bars denote the standard error of the mean at each target location across experiments. To

investigate normalized changes in peri-saccadic sensitivity across subjects, I first binned each

subject's percent correct responses for the foveal (Exp. 1), parafoveal (Exp. 2), and peripheral

(Exp. 3) experiments, using a 15ms sliding window that was moved in 45ms increments. Next, I

obtained each subject's raw peri-saccadic sensitivity, using a 20-fold jackknife procedure by

estimating sensitivity from 95% of the data. This was repeated 20 times, each time leaving out

5% of the data. This produced a mean and an error estimate of peri-saccadic sensitivity at each

tangential location for each experiment across subjects (*32*). To control for any eccentric-

dependent effect on raw peri-saccadic sensitivity, these traces were normalized by the average

sensitivity over the initial 100ms in the data. To investigate frequency domain and cross-location

phase coherence dynamics, a fast Fourier transform (FFT) was applied to the detrended raw peri-

saccadic sensitivity data. Next, we computed the mean of the spectral signatures and

corresponding standard error of the mean across subjects. To than assess whether the observed

periodicities were location specific, we randomly shuffled (n=1000) the probe location identities

across trials and calculated the sensitivity function and periodicity of the shuffled data using the

same procedures noted above. A two tailed paired-sample t-test at p-values of 0.05 was

calculated to assess the significance between shuffled and non-shuffled data. Finally, for the

cross-location phase coherence analysis, we applied an approach to the shuffled and non-shuffled

detrended data that is commonly used in assessing the underlying coherence in neural data (*33*). I

then projected the difference between phase angles of each subject between counterclockwise

(ccw) and clockwise (cw) locations and then calculated the resultant vector across subjects.

Novel computational framework - Retinotopic mechanics

The underlying architecture of this simple mechanical model is composed of a retinotopic field

(ϕ_r) and a retinotopic lever which is inspired by a neurobiological force field. The retinotopic

field is a two-dimensional overlapping hexagonal grid of eccentricity-dependent receptive fields

- RF_i - that tiled the foveal, parafoveal and peripheral regions in visual space (Extended Fig. 1-2).

Each RF_i was defined by three parameters: (a) p_i, the spatial extent of the RF center (x_i, y_i) at t_0

(when there is no resultant force acting on the ϕ_r). p_i determines the eccentricity - e_i of RF_i, (b)

s_i, the radius of RF_i is proportional to e_i, and (c) the movement extent (M_{max}) of RF_i is its EF_i

which is also proportional to e_i. ϕ_r emerged from peri-saccadic attentional and oculomotor

signals actively modulated by visually transient error signals that act as input and output forces

of retinotopic lever in this field, and transiently perturb a constellation of population receptive

fields from equilibrium and thereby modulate their putative population sensitivity (density

readouts) as a function of space and time. For simulations at the less eccentric ("foveal"), the

resultant force ($\overrightarrow{F_{R1}}$) included an input and output force ($\overrightarrow{F_I}$, and $\overrightarrow{F_O}$) and an internal force ($\overrightarrow{F_E}$)

which RF_i at t_{0+n} experiences:

$$\overrightarrow{F_O} = \overrightarrow{U_{M_{G\alpha}}} \cdot M_{G\alpha} \cdot |G\alpha|$$

$$\overrightarrow{F_I} = \overrightarrow{U_{M_F}} \cdot M_F \cdot R_\beta^\varepsilon$$
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514 $$\overrightarrow{F_{R1}} = \overrightarrow{F_I} \cdot k_I + \overrightarrow{F_O} + \overrightarrow{F_E}$$
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where $M_{G\alpha}$ and M_F are the virtual mass at infinity in the upward direction which approximates

an initial shift in gaze and a foveal mass located at a lower tangential foveal retinotopic site

which approximates a compressed shift in gaze respectively. $\overrightarrow{U_{M_{G\alpha}}}$ and $\overrightarrow{U_{M_F}}$ are the unit vectors

in the direction of the virtual mass and the foveal mass respectively. $|G\alpha|$ is the magnitude in

gaze towards the upper tangential foveal retinotopic site, while R_β is the spatial difference

between RF_i and M_F raised to an epsilon scalar – ε. The value of ε, depending on the retinotopic

mechanics that best explains the phenomenon in question, can either be consistent with a

proportional- distance rule (i.e., >0) or an inverse-distance rule (i.e., <0). Further, k_I was

obtained by calculating the average of $R_{\beta0}^\varepsilon$ across RF_i's and then taking its reciprocal $\frac{1}{\left(R_{\beta0}^\varepsilon\right)}$,

while $\overrightarrow{F_E}$ is proportional to the movement of RF_i. For the more eccentric ("parafoveal")

simulations, the resultant force ($\overrightarrow{F_{R2}}$) included an input, output, an additional orthogonally biased

translational force ($\overrightarrow{F_I}$, $\overrightarrow{F_O}$ and $\overrightarrow{F_T}$) and an internal force ($\overrightarrow{F_E}$) which RF_i at t_{0+n} experiences:

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$$\overrightarrow{F_I} = \overrightarrow{U_{M_\beta}} \cdot M_{G\beta} \cdot |G\beta|$$
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$$\overrightarrow{F_O} = \overrightarrow{U_{M_M}} \cdot M_M \cdot R_\mu^\varepsilon$$
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534
$$\overrightarrow{F_T} = \overrightarrow{U_{M_S}} \cdot M_S \cdot |S|$$
535
536
$$\overrightarrow{F_{R2}} = \overrightarrow{F_O} \cdot k_O + \overrightarrow{F_I} + \overrightarrow{F_T} + \overrightarrow{F_E}$$
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where $M_{G\beta}$ and M_M are the virtual mass at infinity in the direction towards lower foveal

tangential retinotopic site which approximates a complete compression of gaze and the

mislocalized mass located at a peripheral retinotopic site that approximates a mislocalized

saccade target respectively. $\overrightarrow{U_{M_{G\beta}}}$ and $\overrightarrow{U_{M_M}}$ are the unit vectors in the direction of the virtual

mass and the mislocalized peripheral mass respectively. $|G\beta|$ is the magnitude of a fully

compressed gaze which is roughly proportional to the magnitude of a mislocalized target. R_μ is

the spatial difference between RF_i and M_M raised to ε, while $|S|$ approximates the magnitude of

an impending saccade. The same calculation used to obtain k_I was used to obtain k_O, however

in this case, the average of $R_{\mu0}^\varepsilon$ across RF_i's was used. Depending on the stimulation, a time

varying resultant force ($\overrightarrow{F_{R1}}$ or $\overrightarrow{F_{R2}}$) perturbed each RF$_i$, which produced spatiotemporal peri-

saccadic retinotopic displacements (Extended Data Fig. 1-2). The population movements of the

constellations of RF$_i$'s manifested in time-varying modulation of raw density, modeling each RF$_i$

as a bivariate gaussian kernel function G. A probability density estimate (or putative population

sensitivity readouts), $\hat{f}$, was obtained using the following equation:

$$G\left(u\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}u^{\mathrm{T}}u}$$

$$\hat{f}\left(\boldsymbol{x}, \mathbf{B}\right) = \frac{1}{k}\sum_{i=1}^{k}G_{\mathbf{B}}\left(|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x_i}|\right)$$

555   Finally, population sensitivity readouts were later normalized using the same approach used to

556   normalize the raw peri-saccadic sensitivity traces.

Fig 1. Behavioural protocol. (A) Markers in the illustration of visual space show all retinotopic locations at which a probe was flashed before and after the deployment of attention, saccade planning, and, finally, the execution of a saccade. Probes of interest, presented along the tangential axes, are conspicuously highlighted in open circle markers. **(B)** Temporal sequence of a valid trial across experiments with respect to target onset.

Fig 2. Behavioural data. (A) Probability density map of foveal gaze and saccade landing was calculated using a bivariate gaussian kernel along with their bivariate contour ellipse area estimates for each probability density map. Error estimates are standard error of means across observers. **(B)** Shifts in peri-saccadic sensitivity along tangential axes with respect to target onset; error estimates were calculated using a 20-fold jackknife procedure. **(C)** Mean saccade trajectory deviation for horizontal and oblique saccades across experiments. Positive values on the ordinate denote trajectory deviation towards a clockwise location (cw), while negative values denote trajectory deviation towards a counterclockwise location (ccw) (16).

Fig 3. Frequency representation of peri-saccadic sensitivity and cross-location phase coherence. (A-C) Representation of raw detrended peri-saccadic sensitivity at less and more eccentric locations in visual space. Shuffled (n=1000, dashed line) versus unshuffled (solid line) data set were used to compute location-specific spectral signatures at a p<0.05. For parafoveal and peripheral clockwise and counterclockwise locations a cross-location phase coherency analysis was performed.

Fig 4. Model architecture and neurobiological force field with simulated putative population sensitivity. (A) For illustration purposes, a single eccentricity dependent population receptive field (pRF) within a retinotopic field is highlighted in pink. A pRF is defined by its center, size, and an eccentric dependent population elastic field (pEF). **(B)** $M_{G\alpha}$ denotes gaze transitional signals modelled as a virtual mass at infinity located in the direction of an upper tangential location approximating the initial shift in gaze. M_F denotes compressive signals modelled as a varying mass located at a lower tangential location in the fovea. **(C)** Simulation results in the foveal region when a pRF is under the influence of a resultant force exerted by (i) M_F and $M_{G\alpha}$ (curved space, thick marker) (ii) M_C (convergent signals modelled as a varying mass at a stationary peripheral site; see Methods) and (iii) M_T (saccade transitional signals modelled as a virtual mass at infinity located in the direction of a straight saccade; see Methods). **(D)** A pRF bounded by pEF is highlighted in pink for parafoveal simulations. **(E)** $M_{G\beta}$ denotes gaze translational signals modelled as a virtual mass at infinity located in the direction of a downward shifts in gaze, M_M denotes a varying mass at a mislocalized peripheral target, and M_S denotes the curved transitional signals modelled as a virtual mass at infinity located in the direction of a curvilinear saccade. **(F)** Curved, convergent and translational simulation results.