Closed-loop optogenetic perturbation of macaque oculomotor cerebellum: evidence for an internal saccade model

Abbreviated title: Perturbation of cerebellar oculomotor internal model

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Abstract

Internal models are essential for the production of accurate movements. The accuracy of saccadic eye movements is thought to be mediated by an internal model of orbital mechanics encoded in the cerebellum. The cerebellum may also be part of a feedback loop that predicts the displacement of the eye in real time and compares the predicted displacement to the desired displacement command to ensure that saccades land on target. To investigate the role of the cerebellum in these two aspects of saccade production, we delivered saccade-triggered light pulses to channelrhodopsin-2-expressing Purkinje cells in the oculomotor vermis (OMV) of two macaque monkeys. Light pulses delivered during the acceleration phase slowed the deceleration phase of ipsiversive saccades. The long latency of these effects, and their scaling with light pulse duration, are consistent with an integration of neural signals downstream of the stimulation. In contrast, light pulses delivered during contraversive saccades reduced saccade velocity at a short latency (~6 ms) that was followed by a compensatory reacceleration which caused gaze to land near or on the target. We conclude that the contribution of the OMV to saccade control depends on saccade direction; the ipsilateral OMV is part of a forward model that predicts eye displacement, whereas the contralateral OMV is part of an inverse model that creates the force required to move the eyes accurately.

Significance Statement

Theory and experiment suggest that saccade production involves an internal model of oculomotor mechanics that resides inside the cerebellum. How cerebellar neurons implement this model is poorly understood. To shed light on this issue, we briefly stimulated P-cells in the OMV optogenetically during saccades and examined the resultant movement deviations. Stimulation of the contralateral OMV affected saccade dynamics at short latency, suggesting that the contralateral OMV is part of the feedforward circuit that produces the saccade motor command. In contrast, perturbation of the ipsilateral OMV affected saccade dynamics at a longer latency; it prolonged the saccade deceleration phase, leading to hypermetria. This dysmetria is consistent with perturbation of the eye displacement integrator in the feedback loop of the saccade generator.

Introduction

The generation of accurate saccades requires an intact cerebellum (Takagi et al., 1998; Barash et al., 1999). Purkinje (P-) cells in the oculomotor vermis (OMV, lobules VIc and VII) and their targets in the caudal fastigial nucleus (cFN) are thought to play important roles in real-time saccade control (Herzfeld et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2016). Caudal fastigial-nucleus neurons, in turn, project directly to premotor burst neurons in the saccade burst generator (SBG) and are thus positioned to optimize saccade speed and accuracy given the demands of oculomotor mechanics. How this modification is accomplished is not yet understood.

[Figure 1]

According to a popular local feedback model (Fig. 1), a desired saccade displacement command drives excitatory burst neurons (EBN), which, in turn, activate motoneurons (MN) to move the eyes quickly to the intended target (Robinson, 1975; Jürgens et al., 1981). This feedforward pathway produces the force needed to obtain an optimal peak velocity for the intended saccade displacement (Robinson, 1964; Harris and Wolpert, 2006). To account for the viscoelastic properties of the eyes, the feedforward pathway must contain an inverse model of the oculomotor plant to produce a burst that compensates for these mechanics. The inverse model is thought to reside in the cerebellum (Wolpert et al., 1998).

A second component of the model is a feedback pathway that predicts displacement of the eyes by integrating an efference copy of the EBN command. When the dynamic motor error (Fig. 1, DME) between the predicted and desired displacement reaches zero, the saccade stops on target. This model nicely explains how saccade accuracy is maintained despite midflight perturbations (Keller et al., 1996; Xu-Wilson et al., 2011) or pharmacological slowing (Soetedjo et al., 2002; Barton et al., 2003). This feedback circuitry also may involve the cerebellum (Quaia et al., 1999).

A key difference between the feedforward and feedback pathways is that manipulations of the former are compensated by the latter to keep the resulting movement accurate. A second key difference between them is that the feedback pathway has less direct access to the EBNs and may involve more synapses. Thus, manipulations of the feedback pathway are expected to affect saccades at longer latencies. We exploited these differences to ask whether OMV P-cells/cFN neurons contribute to the feedforward pathway, the feedback pathway, or both. We expressed channelrhodopsin (ChR2) in the OMV P-cells of two macaques (El-Shamayleh et al., 2017) and activated these neurons with brief light pulses at different times during visually guided saccades.

These perturbations deviated saccade trajectories in ways that depended on saccade direction. Contraversive saccades were slowed in midflight after a short latency, but this was followed by a compensatory reacceleration that brought the eyes to the target. These effects are consistent with a reduced drive in the feedforward pathway. In contrast, stimulation during ipsiversive saccades prolonged their deceleration phase, largely independently of when the stimulation was applied. Stimulation-perturbed saccades were systematically hypermetric, and the amount of hypermetria scaled with light pulse duration. These effects are consistent with a reduced drive at the input of the feedback integrator. We conclude that the role of the OMV in saccade control depends on the direction of the saccade: the contralateral OMV is part of the feedforward pathway whereas the ipsilateral OMV is part of the feedback integrator. Our conclusion is supported by a detailed version of the saccade generator model (Fig. 1) under which stimulation of feedback and feedforward pathway produces perturbed eye movement trajectories that closely match those produced by actual brief activation of the ipsi- and contraversive OMV, respectively.

Materials and Methods

All experiments were performed in accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and exceeded the minimum requirements recommended by the Institute of Laboratory Animal Resources and the Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care International. All the procedures were evaluated and approved by the local Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Washington.

Animal subjects. Two juvenile male rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*), Sq and Tm (8.1 and 12.9 kg, respectively), participated in this study. Animal Sq, but not Tm, had participated in previous studies (El-Shamayleh et al., 2017; Soetedjo et al., 2019). Both animals underwent two surgeries; the first was to implant a scleral search eye coil (Judge et al., 1980) and head stabilization lugs. The second was to implant stainless steel recording chambers, one aimed at the superior colliculus (SC) and the other at the OMV. The OMV chamber was aimed straight down, 3 mm left of the midline and 14 mm posterior in Sq and 1.5 mm left of the midline and 15 mm posterior in Tm, relative to the stereotaxic ear-bar zero.

After the animals had recovered from the first surgery, they were trained to track a red laser dot (~0.25° diameter) on a tangent screen 62 cm from their eyes. To obtain a dollop of fortified applesauce reward, the animals were required to fixate the dot for 1.2 – 2 sec, and after the target spot jumped, to shift their gaze to the target in <450 ms and remain within (± 2°) of the target for 1.5 sec. Once they performed this task reliably for ≥2 hours, the recording chambers were implanted.

AAV vector Injection. Adeno-associated virus (AAV) plasmid engineering and vector production has been described previously (El-Shamayleh et al., 2017). AAV vectors were injected as follows. Using standard extracellular recording techniques, we identified the OMV on the basis

of saccade-related activity, and then mapped the spatial extent accessible within the recording chamber (Soetedjo and Fuchs, 2006; Soetedjo et al., 2008; Kojima et al., 2010). We injected the AAV vector solution using an injectrode made of 30 G stainless steel hypodermic tubing insulated with polyimide and epoxylite (Kojima et al., 2021; Soetedjo and Kojima, 2022). We injected the AAV vector solution at depths with strong saccade-related multiunit activity. Sq received a total of 24 µL of AAV9-L7-ChR2-mCherry (1.41E+13 genomes/mL) across 4 tracks (~0.75 mm apart) and at up to 4 depths per track (1.5–2 µL at each depth over the course of 1 min with ≥ 2 min between injections) (El-Shamayleh et al., 2017). Tm received a total of 27 µL of AAV1-L7-ChR2-mCherry (1.53E+13 genomes/mL) along a single track at 7 depths (3–5 µL at each depth over the course of 2 min with ≥ 3 min between injections). We waited at least 6 weeks after the injection to start experiments.

Saccade task. Sq and Tm were trained to make horizontal 24° saccades that started from a 12° eccentricity and crossed straight-ahead gaze. To reduce the predictability of the task, approximately 30% of the target steps were either 6 or 18°; these “catch” trials were not accompanied by light activation and were not analyzed. When a saccade onset was detected, the target spot was extinguished for 200 ms to eliminate the possibility of any visually guided corrective movement during the saccades.

[Figure 2]

Light activation. We stimulated ChR2-expressing P-cells with a custom built 450 nm light source based on an Osram PLTB450B laser diode (El-Shamayleh et al., 2017; Soetedjo and Kojima, 2022) coupled to a 200 µm, 0.39 NA (FT200EMT, Thorlabs, Newton, NJ, USA) optical fiber patch cable. To minimize tissue damage and increase light spread, the optical fiber was sharpened to an apical angle of 20°. A double-barrel cannula housed an Alpha-Omega glass-tungsten microelectrode (impedance: ~100 kΩ at 1 kHz) and the optical fiber. The

microelectrode was used to identify depths with strong saccade-related activity. The electrode and optical fiber were driven independently using an EPS micro-positioner (Alpha-Omega, Nazareth, Israel). During experiments, the tip of the fiber was 0.5–1 mm above the tip of the microelectrode.

We performed two types of experiment that differed in light pulse duration. In the first type, which was performed in both animals, the light pulse was triggered at one of 4 different times during a saccade. The first was as early as possible after saccade onset (0 ms delay); we call this light pulse "T0". The second, third and fourth trigger times occurred 10, 20, and 30 ms after T0 (T10, T20 and T30, respectively). T0 and T10 occurred during the acceleration phase of a saccade, T20 occurred near the time of peak velocity and T30 occurred during the deceleration phase. In these experiments, light pulse duration was fixed at 30 ms for Sq and 10 ms for Tm. The briefer pulses in Tm were motivated by the need for more precise estimates of effect latency, which differed for ipsilateral and contralateral saccades. To provide approximately equal light flux to each animal, the optical power of the laser was set to 60 mW for Sq and to 130 mW for Tm. In the second experiment type, performed on Tm only, light pulse durations varied randomly across four values: 1.25, 2.5, 5 and 10 ms. In these experiments, light pulses were delivered at T0 only.

The light source was triggered by saccade initiation (Fig. 2). Saccades were detected by a Power 1401 data acquisition and control system (Cambridge Electronic Design, UK) that monitored horizontal eye velocity continuously. When the eye velocity after a target step crossed a 15°/s threshold, the Power 1401 randomly picked a trigger time and produced a TTL pulse. In the first experiment type, 4 trigger times were used (T0–T30), and the TTL pulse drove the laser directly. In the second type, the Power 1401 generated a T0 TTL pulse that triggered an Arduino microcontroller that randomly produced a 1.25, 2.5, 5 or 10 ms pulse that drove the laser. The delay introduced by pulse duration selection was ~100 µs.

General data analysis. Eye and target position data were digitized at 1 kHz. Extracellular voltages and signals from a photodiode that detected laser light were digitized at 50 kHz. All data were saved in Spike2 (Cambridge Electronic Design, UK) format. Analyses were performed in Spike2 and Matlab (Mathworks, USA). The on and off times of each laser pulse were extracted from the sampled photodiode output. Eye position traces were filtered forward and backward (Matlab “filtfilt” function, non-causal) with a 70 Hz, low pass, 61-coefficient Hamming window finite impulse response filter to reduce recording noise. A central derivative (Matlab “gradient” function) was applied successively to the filtered eye position signal to obtain eye velocity and then acceleration. After each target step, the program searched the subsequent 90–500 ms for an eye velocity >50 °/s and identified the first such movement, if it existed, as a saccade. Horizontal eye velocities that rose above, or fell below, a threshold of 15 °/s were considered the onset and end of the saccade, respectively. The program identified the amplitude of the target step and measured the metrics of the saccades, as well as the occurrence times of light pulses. We discarded trials that were contaminated by blinks and those in which the horizontal or vertical eye position was ≥1.5° from the target when it stepped. These two criteria eliminated <10% of the trials.

Determining optogenetic effect latency. To measure the latency of optogenetic stimulation on saccades, we divided trials into five groups: control (no light pulse), T0, T10, T20 and T30. We aligned the position, velocity and acceleration traces on saccade onset (the time at which eye velocity exceeded 15 °/s) and averaged them within each group for each saccade direction. The light pulse onset time is defined as the mean time of occurrence of the light pulse within each condition. The standard deviations of the onsets ranged from 0.54 to 1.22 ms (Table 1 and 2, mean pulse onset).

We compared eye acceleration on control trials against those in each stimulation group using a 2-tailed Student's t-test (Matlab “ttest2” function with default options) each millisecond

from the light pulse onset time until 125 ms after saccade onset. We considered the light pulse to have had an effect on conditions in which the P values were <0.05 for at least 10 consecutive milliseconds. The first time at which P=0.05 was estimated using a 2-point linear interpolation. To estimate the mean occurrence time of the effect, we performed a bootstrap analysis on the light-perturbed trials in each group. We obtained 1000 resampled (with replacement) data sets and compared each of these bootstrap data set with the control data set to obtain an estimate of the time of the effect as described above (reported as mean ± SD of bootstrap resamples).

Normalization for population analysis. To pool data across experiments, we calculated a pair of normalization factors for each experimental session, one for ipsiversive saccades and one for contraversive saccades, that compensated for small changes in the gain of the eye coil system across days. In each trial, we set the horizontal eye position, measured 10 ms before the identified onset of the saccade, to zero. We presumed that the eyes were stationary or nearly so during this epoch. We then computed the mean saccade amplitude from control trials in each experiment using the eye position 125 ms after saccade onset as the endpoint. We then normalized this mean saccade amplitude of the control trials to exactly 24°. We then multiplied the position, velocity and acceleration traces from each trial by the normalization factor of that particular experiment.

Statistics. Hypothesis testing for the comparison of saccade metrics, e.g., amplitudes, peak velocity and duration, was performed using a permutation test with 10,000 iterations (Wilcox, 2022). We considered P<0.05 as significant for all statistical tests. Averages (mean ± SD) were computed across trials within each condition. The standard deviation of the difference between the means was computed as: $SD = \sqrt{(SD_c^2 + SD_s^2)}$ (Taylor, 1997), where SD_c is the standard deviation in the control conditions and SD_s is the standard deviation in the stimulation condition. Bonferroni correction was used to control the Type I error rate of multiple comparisons between

control trials and the four stimulation conditions (T0, T10, T20 and T30). Other statistical tests are described in the Results as needed.

Quantitative model description. We compared the qualitative effects of OMV P-cells light activation with simulations from a local negative feedback model of saccade burst generator (Fig. 13A). The model was constructed in Simulink, a Matlab graphical block diagramming tool for simulating dynamical systems. The model was simulated using a 4th order Runge-Kutta ordinary differential equation solver with 0.1 ms time step. Starting from the eyes, the eye plant block transfer function was (Robinson, 1964; Fuchs and Luschei, 1971; Goldstein and Robinson, 1984; Fuchs et al., 1988; Scudder, 1988):

$$E(s) = \frac{0.075s+1}{(0.25873s+1)(0.029852s+1)(0.0034181s+1)} \quad (1)$$

The motoneurons were implemented as a summing block that receives excitatory inputs from position integrator (step), EBNs (pulse) and a slide component transfer function (slide) with the following weights: *wIntMN* = 0.988, *wEbnMN* = 0.104 and *wSlideMN* = 0.1092, respectively (see Fig. 13A for where to apply the weight values). The slide component transfer function was:

$$S(s) = \frac{1}{0.075s+1} \quad (2)$$

At the input of both the EBN and OPN blocks, we placed a first-order lowpass filter with a 2 ms time constant:

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{0.002s+1} \quad (3)$$

The EBN firing rate (*EBNfr*) was computed as:

$$EBNfr(x) = \begin{cases} MaxEBNfr(1 - e^{-0.0009x}) & for\ x \geq 0 \\ 0 & for\ x < 0 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Maximum EBN firing rate (*MaxEBNfr*) was set to 1000 spikes/s to simulate faster saccades, and 750 spikes/s to simulate slower ones. The OPN firing rate (*OPNfr*) was computed as:

$$OPNfr(x) = \begin{cases} 160 & for\ x > opn\ threshold \\ 0 & for\ x \leq opn\ threshold \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

The value of *opn threshold* was set to 50 spikes/s. The OPNs inhibited the EBNs with a weight of *wOpnEbn* = 32.

The IBNs were implemented as a summing block that receives excitatory inputs from EBNs and OPN trigger (150 spikes/s 10 ms pulse). The IBNs inhibited the OPNs with a weight of *wIbnOpn* = 1.50. To convert the dynamic motor error (DME) output from the comparator to a firing rate, a weight of *wCompEbn* = 80 was used. A 5-ms delay (transfer function $e^{-0.005s}$) followed the feedback integrator ($\frac{1}{s}$) (Van Gisbergen et al., 1981). All weight values were chosen to produce normal 24° saccades with velocity profiles that approximated data in Fig. 10.

To simulate a 24° saccade, a step was applied to the comparator, and an OPN trigger occurred 40 ms later. To simulate optogenetic light activation of OMV P-cells, a 450 spikes/s, 10-ms pulse was applied at either 6.4 ms or 26.4 ms after saccade onset at the negative input of either the EBNs, the feedback integrator, or both.

Results

We performed 18 experiments in which the time of light pulse onset was varied across trials. (8 experiments in Sq, 10 in Tm). Significant effects on saccade metrics were obtained in all of these experiments except one (Fig. 4C, “+”) which was not analyzed further. We performed 6 additional experiments with variable light pulse durations (1.25 – 10 ms) on Tm.

Effects of T0 light pulses on saccade metrics and kinematics. Optical stimulation of OMV P-cells produced distinct effects on leftward and rightward saccades at most sites. In an exemplar experiment from Sq (Fig. 3A, B; leftward triangle in Fig. 4C, left panel), T0 light pulses triggered shortly after the onset of *leftward* saccades (5.34±0.92 ms) (Fig. 3A, blue bar) did not affect the average peak saccade velocity (P=0.77), but caused a reacceleration ~36 ms after pulse onset (Fig. 3A bottom panel, vertical line). This reacceleration slowed the deceleration phase, extended saccade duration by 7.18±8.41 ms, and increased saccade amplitude by 2.19±1.13°.

In contrast, T0 laser pulses triggered by *rightward* saccades (5.18±0.91 ms after saccade onset, Fig. 3B) reduced eye velocity ~11 ms after pulse onset. This latency was roughly one third the latency on leftward saccades. As expected, this slowing of the saccade reduced peak eye velocity by 120.73±127.96 °/s (P<0.0001). Nevertheless, saccades were normometric (amplitude change relative to control: -0.57±2.68°, P=0.32). The amplitude loss during acceleration (4.49±2.36°) was compensated for by an amplitude increase during deceleration (3.92±3.56°).

[Figure 3]

Similar effects were obtained from animal Tm (Fig. 3C, D; square in Fig. 4C, right panel). T0 light pulses that occurred just after (7.41±0.54 ms) *leftward* saccade onset (Fig. 3C) reduced eye velocity ~7 ms after pulse onset, decreasing peak velocity by 88.46±113.83 °/s (P<0.0001). The reduction of peak velocity was followed by a reacceleration that extended the deceleration phase. The extended deceleration phase increased the displacement during deceleration by 3.34±2.28°, which compensated for the amplitude loss of 3.63±2.19° during the acceleration phase and resulted in normometric saccades (P=0.24). These data, obtained from Tm during *leftward* saccades, are similar to those obtained from Sq during *rightward* saccades (Fig. 3B).

The effects of T0 light pulses (Fig. 3D, 7.13±0.53 ms after saccade onset) on Tm's *rightward* saccades were similar to those on Sq's *leftward* saccades (Fig. 3A). The light pulses did not affect the peak velocity (P=0.92). Reacceleration started ~23 ms after pulse onset and increasing saccade amplitude by 1.57±0.97° (P<0.0001).

[Figure 4]

These distinct deviations of saccades made in opposite directions are reminiscent of the hypermetric and hypometric saccades produced by inactivation of the ipsi- and contralateral CFN, respectively (Robinson et al., 1993; Iwamoto and Yoshida, 2002; Goffart et al., 2004). OMV P-cells project to the CFN in an uncrossed manner (Noda et al., 1990), suggesting that our results might depend on the media-lateral location of the optical fiber in the OMV (Fig. 4A). In Sq, as the optical fiber was moved from more central (0) to lateral locations in the vermis, saccade amplitudes increased for leftward saccades (Fig. 4A, left, black circles) and decreased for rightward saccades (red circles). T0 pulses delivered near the midline (two filled circles) produced small hypermetrias for both left- and rightward saccades (P<0.06) that did not differ significantly (P>0.4). In Tm, as stimulation locations moved from lateral to central vermis positions, the amplitude of rightward saccades decreased (Fig. 4A, right, red circles) whereas the amplitude of leftward saccades increased (black circles). At the two locations to the left of the midline (filled circles), optogenetic stimulation did not produce a significant difference in amplitude change for either rightward or leftward saccades (P>0.1).

These analyses suggest that the OMV recording chambers were slightly off-center. In Sq, the chamber was slightly to the left of the functional midline, and in Tm, the chamber was slightly to the right. We therefore describe Sq's leftward saccades, and Tm's rightward saccades, as *ipsiversive*. We describe Sq's rightward saccades, and Tm's leftward saccades, as *contraversive*. We then compared stimulation induced amplitude changes from the ipsi- or

contraversive directions (Fig. 4B). Based on these two plots, Sq data from the six left side locations (Fig. 4B, left, open circles) and seven in the right side for Tm (Fig. 4B, right, opencircles) were grouped together for later population analysis. The remaining experiments in which the effects of optical stimulation on left- and rightward saccade amplitudes did not differ significantly (Fig. 4B, filled circles) are referred to as *midline stimulation*. The chamber locations for all experiments are shown in Fig. 4C (gray circles).

Effects of laser pulse time on ipsiversive saccades. Laser stimulation affected the deceleration phase of ipsiversive saccades, largely irrespective of pulse timing. Despite the 10 ms delay between them, T0 and T10 pulses produced reacceleration effects that occurred at approximately the same times. With respect to saccade onset, these effects occurred at 35.62±0.97 and 36.16±1.18 ms for Sq and at 27.89±0.89 and 29.70±1.18 ms for Tm (Fig. 5A, C, red and green vertical lines). With respect to laser pulse onset, these times correspond to latencies of 30.76±0.97 and 21.27±1.17 ms for Sq and to 20.66±0.89 and 12.53±1.18 ms for Tm (Table 1). In summary, T0 and T10 pulses produced a reacceleration that was more closely time-locked to the movements than it was to the timing of the light pulses.

[Figure 5]

[Table 1]

After delivering T20 and T30 pulses, the time reacceleration occurred was more dependent on the stimulation than it was after T0 and T10 pulses because the reacceleration time occurred increasingly later as stimulation delay increased (Fig. 5B, D, blue and brown vertical lines). The reacceleration after T20 pulses occurred ~2.5 and ~4.5 ms later than it did after T10 pulses for Sq and Tm, respectively (38.64±0.73 and 34.06±3.29 ms after saccade onset, respectively). After T30 pulses, reacceleration occurred ~7 and ~10 ms later than it did

after T20 pulses for Sq and Tm, respectively (45.28±1.18 and 43.59±2.39 ms after saccade onset, respectively). As expected, the latency was shorter as the stimulation occurred later (Table 1). Therefore, unlike T0 and T10, the effect of T20 and T30 pulses was less time-locked to the movements.

Change in saccade metrics. Optical stimulation caused ipsiversive saccades to become hypermetric (Fig. 5A-D, top panels; Table 1), but did not affect peak velocity (one-way ANOVA across control and T0–T30 groups: $F(4, 744)=0.69$, $P=0.60$ and $F(4, 1199)=1.02$, $P=0.40$ for Sq and Tm, respectively), acceleration duration ($F<1.7$, $P>0.1$, both animals), or displacement amplitude of the eye during the acceleration phase ($F<1.3$, $P>0.1$, both animals). Optical stimulation caused reacceleration of ipsiversive saccades during the deceleration phase and increasing their deceleration duration ($P<0.0001$, all conditions except for T0 and T10 in Tm for which $P>0.15$). Therefore, eye displacement during the deceleration phase increased (all P values <0.0001; Table 1). In summary, optical stimulation of OMV P-cells reaccelerated ipsiversive saccades during the deceleration phase and increased their amplitudes.

[Figure 6]

Titrating the reacceleration effects. To determine whether saccade amplitudes were also dependent on pulse duration, we fixed the start time of the laser pulse at T0 and varied its duration from 1.25 to 10 ms. In Tm, ipsiversive saccades became 0.75±0.92° ($P<0.0001$) larger in response to 1.25 ms-long pulses (Fig. 6A, B). Moreover, increasing the duration of light pulses continued to increase the magnitude of the hypermetria by 0.22 °/$\log_2$[pulse duration], as expected from an integration mechanism (Fig. 6B, red line, slope significantly different from zero, $P<0.0001$).

In summary, brief activation of ipsilateral OMV P-cells reaccelerated saccades during their deceleration phase and produced hypermetria. The time at which reacceleration occurred depended on the state of the movement but relatively little on stimulation timing. Hypermetria increased with the duration of the stimulation. These results contrast with the effects of OMV P-cell activation on contralateral saccades, which we describe below.

Effects of laser pulse time on contraversive saccades. As shown in Fig. 3B and C, the main effect of the light pulse on contraversive saccades was a deceleration which was followed by reacceleration that compensated for it, allowing perturbed saccades to land on target. In contrast to the effect on ipsiversive saccades, OMV stimulation perturbed contraversive saccades with a latency that was nearly independent of light pulse timing (Table 2). For Sq, T0, T10, and T20 pulses (Fig. 7A, B, red, green and blue bars; see Table 2 for their onsets) decelerated saccades starting at 13.86±0.71, 22.76±0.69 and 31.63±1.85 ms after saccade onset, respectively (Fig. 7A, B, vertical lines; T30 (brown bars) had no effect). Relative to laser onset, the latencies were ~6–9 ms (Table 2). Similar results were obtained for Tm, where latencies for T0, T10, T20, and T30 pulses were ~4–5 ms (Table 2; Fig. 7C, D, vertical lines). These results show that OMV stimulation decelerates contraversive saccades at low latency irrespective of the state of the movement.

[Figure 7]

[Table 2]

Change in Saccade Metrics. T0 pulses reduced the peak velocity of contraversive saccades (by 106.61±130.27 °/s in Sq and by 97.43±114.27 °/s in Tm, both $P<0.0001$; Fig. 7A, C, velocity panels, red traces; Table 2). Under most circumstances, this lower velocity would have resulted in a shorter saccade; the relationship between peak velocity and amplitude for a

rhesus monkey predicts a 5° smaller amplitude in response to a 10% decrease in the peak velocity of a 24° saccade (Fuchs, 1967). Despite nearly 15% reduction of peak velocity produced by optogenetic OMV P-cell stimulation, saccade amplitudes remained relatively unchanged. Saccade amplitude decreased slightly but significantly in Sq (by 0.93±2.18°, $P<0.001$, Fig. 7A, position panel, red trace) but there was no significant change in Tm ($P=0.39$, Fig. 7C, position panel, red trace; Table 2).

T0 optogenetic stimulation abbreviated the acceleration phase of contraversive saccades, decreasing eye displacement during this phase by 3.07±2.51 and 3.77±2.17° in Sq and Tm, respectively (Table 2). To compensate for this amplitude loss, the eyes reaccelerated at 35.83±0.95 and 26.18±0.39 ms after saccade onset for Sq and Tm, respectively (Fig. 7A and C, acceleration panels, red traces). Increasing the duration of the T0 pulse from 1.25 to 10 ms slightly reduced acceleration displacement (three experiments in Tm). Nevertheless, saccade reacceleration during the deceleration phase compensated for the displacement loss so that saccade amplitude was nearly constant for all pulse durations (one-way ANOVA across control and all 4 pulse duration groups: $F(4, 803)=2.08$, $P=0.081$). These data attest to the engagement of a mechanism that extends the deceleration phase to compensate for an abbreviated acceleration phase.

[Figure 8]

The negative feedback model (Fig. 1) predicts that, for a given saccade amplitude, saccade duration should decrease as peak velocity increases (Soetedjo et al., 2002; Barton et al., 2003). For contraversive control saccades, the results of the linear regression indicated that the peak velocity explained >60% of the variation in saccade duration (Fig. 8A, B, black circles and lines, $R^2=0.61$ and 0.73 for Sq and Tm, respectively). When light pulses were applied at T0 and T10, the relationship between saccade duration and peak velocity still was nearly linear (T0:

Fig. 8A, B, red lines, R^2=0.70 and 0.62, for Sq and Tm, respectively) and (T10: Fig. 8C, D, green lines, R^2=0.69 and 0.58, for Sq and Tm, respectively). In summary, the slowed saccades increased their durations linearly as predicted by the negative feedback model.

The effects of T20 and T30 pulses were limited to the deceleration phase. After T20 pulses to either Sq or Tm, their saccades decelerated and then the eyes moved more slowly toward saccade end (Fig. 7B, D, velocity and acceleration panels, blue). In Sq, T30 pulses did not significantly affect the saccades (Fig. 7B, brown), but in Tm, T30 pulses decelerated and appeared to truncate saccades (Fig. 7D, velocity and acceleration panels, brown).

[Figure 9]

We examined the effect of T20 and T30 pulses on the saccade deceleration phase by comparing the relationship between deceleration duration and peak velocity with that of the control saccades (Fig. 9A-C, black circles and linear regression lines: R^2= 0.30 and 0.53 for Sq and Tm, respectively). As expected, slower saccades had longer deceleration durations. This was true for both control and stimulated saccades, but was particularly clear for the latter. Slow saccades on stimulated trials had unusually long deceleration durations, and the relationship between peak velocity and deceleration duration on stimulated trials was fit better with a second-order polynomial than by a line (Fig. 9A-C, blue and brown data and fits, F-test, $P<0.0001$). Saccade deceleration duration decreased steeply with increasing peak velocity, and deceleration durations on some stimulation trials were shorter than those of controls. After T30 pulses in Tm, 6.59 % of the perturbed saccades had deceleration durations shorter than the shortest deceleration duration of control saccades (Fig. 9C, brown data). These results suggest that a pulse delivered during deceleration truncated faster saccades, but prolonged the deceleration phase of slower saccades. An analysis of saccade velocity profiles confirmed

these results. T20 and T30 pulses decelerated contraversive saccades, and truncate the fast ones selectively (Fig. 10).

[Figure 10]

The selective truncation of fast saccades was more likely to occur because the gaze was closer to the intended target when the pulse occurred during fast saccades than it was during slow saccades. Indeed, the average eye displacement when the pulse occurred during fast saccades (10.36±1.51°, 12.26±0.80° and 18.04±0.87° for trials in Fig. 10A-C, respectively) was higher than during slow saccades (7.30±1.47°, 7.58±0.93° and 11.01±1.80° for trials in Fig. 10D-F, respectively; all P values <0.0001). As expected, truncated fast saccades were hypometric (Fig. 10A-C, insets, all P values <0.01), but slow saccades were near normometric because the compensatory reacceleration prolonged their deceleration phase (Fig. 10D-F, insets, all P values > 0.2).

Mixed contra- and ipsiversive effects after midline stimulation. In two experiments each on Sq and Tm, we delivered light pulses near the midline vermis (Fig. 4A, B, filled circles). These produced mixed effects. As before, we compared the population average time courses of eye position, velocity and acceleration in Sq and Tm separately (Fig. 11, Sq: A, B, E, and F; Tm: C, D, G and H). The ipsiversive direction was defined as leftward for Sq and rightward for Tm, so for consistency we present the data in the same directional order as in Figs. 5 and 7 (Fig. 11A – D, ipsiversive; E – H, contraversive).

[Figure 11]

In both animals, T0 light pulses caused a significant decrease of average peak saccadic velocity in both the left- and rightward directions (Fig. 11A, C, E and G, middle panels, red

traces, P<0.0001). Unlike the previous contraversive data (Fig. 7), the reduction in peak velocity was followed by reacceleration that produced small, but significant, hypermetrias of 1.23±1.54, 0.41±1.47, 1.08±1.99 and 0.38±1.35° (Fig. 11A, C, E and G, respectively, P<0.031). T10 pulses also significantly decelerated both left- and rightward saccades (green traces), but the reacceleration that followed caused Sq's leftward saccades and Tm's left- and rightward saccades to become hypermetric (Fig. 11A, C and G, respectively; P<0.0001). Similar results were obtained on T20 and T30 stimulation trials (Fig. 11B, D, F and H). No hypometria was produced in either direction for any pulse condition in either animal, and hypermetria was more likely produced.

Does the ipsilateral OMV help compensate for the effects of contralateral activation? T0-perturbed contraversive saccades exhibited a compensatory reacceleration during their deceleration phase that brought the saccades closer to normometric (Fig. 7; Table 2). T0-perturbed ipsiversive saccades reaccelerated >20 ms after the pulse onset (Fig. 5; Table 1). An intriguing possibility is that the ipsilateral OMV/cFN was responsible for the compensatory reacceleration of perturbed contraversive saccades.

To test this possibility, we compared the time of occurrence of the ipsiversive effects (Fig. 12A, B, respectively) with the time of the beginning of the compensatory reacceleration of perturbed contraversive saccades (Fig. 12C, D, respectively). We analyzed T0 data because they exhibited the earliest and largest effect on peak velocity.

[Figure 12]

We examined the times at which the average acceleration time course "turned around" after crossing zero to produce compensatory reacceleration that slowed saccade deceleration (Fig. 12C, D, green lines; same as red arrows in Fig. 7A, C). For Sq, this occurred at

35.83±1.90 ms (mean±2SE, Fig. 12C, green solid and dashed lines) after saccade onset. In comparison, the effect of T0 pulses on ipsiversive saccade occurred 35.62±1.95 ms after saccade onset (Fig. 12A, blue solid and dashed lines). These two times differ by <1 ms. The same comparison for Tm yielded similar results. Compensatory reacceleration occurred 26.18±0.78 ms after the onset of a contraversive saccade (Fig. 12D, green solid and dashed lines) and T0 pulses affected ipsiversive saccades 27.89±1.77 ms after saccade onset (Fig. 12B, blue solid and dashed lines). These results are consistent with the idea that the ipsilateral OMV/cFN is part of the circuit that compensates for the decrease in the contraversive velocity caused by activity increase in contralateral OMV P-cells.

Comparison with model simulations. The short latency of contraversive effects is consistent with OMV P-cells being in the feedforward path of the local feedback circuit. This placement is also supported by the compensation that occurred after these perturbations; the compensation is similar to that observed after electrical stimulation of omnipause neurons (OPN) (Becker, 1981; Keller et al., 1996) and the inactivation of pontine saccadic premotor nuclei (Soetedjo et al., 2002; Barton et al., 2003), which are in the feedforward path. In contrast, ipsiversive perturbation produced effects at a long latency that appeared to accumulate, were uncompensated, and led to hypermetria. These data suggest that the effect of ipsiversive optical perturbation may occur in the feedback path.

[Figure 13]

We formalized these intuitions using a local feedback model of the saccade generator that included a “latch” circuit to prevent the OPN from firing during a saccade (Fig. 13A, see Methods for detail quantitative description of the model) (Fuchs et al., 1985; Takahashi et al., 2022). The input of the model is a 24° displacement command, which is compared with the

estimate of eye displacement from the feedback integrator to produce a dynamic motor error (DME). During fixation, the OPNs inhibits both EBNs and inhibitory burst neurons (IBNs) (Langer and Kaneko, 1983; Iwamoto et al., 2009). A trigger signal (10 ms black pulse, 150 spikes/s), presumably from the superior colliculus (Sparks et al., 2000), inhibits the OPNs via the IBNs (Takahashi et al., 2022) and allows the EBNs to respond to the DME. The EBNs drive the abducens motoneurons (MNs) directly to produce the burst that accelerates saccades. In addition, the EBNs drive the MNs via a position integrator (Kaneko, 1997) to produce a steady discharge (a step) to hold the gaze where the saccade lands and also via a transfer function to produce the decaying part ("slide" term) of abducens discharge before reaching a steady discharge (Optican and Miles, 1985; Sylvestre and Cullen, 1999). The EBNs also drive both the feedback integrator and the IBNs (Sasaki and Shimazu, 1981; Strassman et al., 1986a) which in turn, inhibits the OPNs. The EBN-IBN-OPN-EBN loop forms a latching circuit that maintains the OPN's pause during a saccade.

The cFN, which projects to both the contralateral EBNs and IBNs, is inhibited by OMV P-cells. Therefore, we simulated optical activation of the contralateral vermis by a 10 ms 450 spikes/s pulse (green) that inhibited the EBNs. How the ipsilateral cFN influences the burst generator is less clear because because the targets to which it projects, the contralateral EBNs and IBNs, are silent due to inhibition by ipsilateral IBNs (Strassman et al., 1986b; Takahashi et al., 2022). Because our data showed that the effect of ipsilateral OMV P-cell stimulation appeared to be integrated, we applied a 10 ms 450 spikes/s stimulation pulse (brown) to inhibit the feedback integrator.

Contralateral activation (green pulse) that occurs 6.4 ms after saccade onset (Fig. 13B, red bar) decelerates the saccade at a short latency (Fig. 13B, velocity panel, compare black control and red perturbed saccades). Shortly after the end of the activation pulse, the saccade reaccelerates and fully compensates for the amplitude loss (Fig. 13B, position and velocity

panels, red trace), making the saccade accurate. When the activation pulse occurs during the deceleration phase (26.4 ms after saccade onset, Fig. 13B, blue bar), the saccade is truncated, producing hypometria (Fig. 13B, blue trace). If we apply the activation pulse during slower saccades, which we produced by reducing the maximum EBN firing rate from 1000 to 750 spikes/s (see Methods), early activation (Fig. 13C, red bar) creates effects similar to those for faster saccades (Fig. 13C, red traces; compare with Fig. 13B). When the activation pulse is applied later (blue bar), the saccade is no longer truncated, and the end of the pulse is followed by a full compensation (blue trace). These model responses reflect the data shown in Fig. 10.

During a slower saccade, the DME decreases more slowly than it does during a faster saccade (DMEs at blue pulse onset are 8.55 and 12.13° for faster and slower saccades, respectively). The slower decrease of the DME slows the decrease of EBN activity which prevents the OPN input from exceeding the 50 spikes/s threshold to resume firing during the activation pulse. The saccade reaccelerates and is normometric.

Ipsilateral activation (brown pulse) reduces the “charge” in the feedback integrator and leads to reacceleration during the deceleration phase of the saccade (Fig. 13D, red and blue traces). The latency of the reacceleration is attributed to a 5 ms delay in the feedback path; therefore, the simulation produces the same latencies for both early (red bars) and later (blue bar) activation pulses. In contrast, the latency of ipsilateral OMV P-cell activation decreased when activation occurred later (Table 1). This decreasing latency suggests a delay mechanism that depends on the real-time state of the saccades.

Delivering *both ipsi- and contralateral* activating pulses to the model *simultaneously* (Fig. 13E) produces saccades that mimic the mixed effect produced by activation of the midline vermis (Fig. 11). An early contralateral activation pulse (red bar) lowers peak velocity, but the simultaneous ipsilateral activation pulse causes the model to over-compensate and produce

hypermetria (Fig. 13E, red traces). A later activation pulse (Fig. 13E, blue bar) no longer produces saccade truncation like that produced by contralateral activating pulse in Fig. 13B (blue) because the reduced output of the feedback integrator from ipsilateral activating pulse increases DME. This DME increase balances the simultaneous contralateral activating pulse, which in turn, prevents the OPN from being activated. The reacceleration after the pulse over-compensates, leading to hypermetria (Fig. 13E, blue traces). We also did not observe saccade truncation in the experimental midline stimulation, and the perturbed saccades were either hypermetric or normometric (Fig. 11).

In conclusion, the qualitatively similar responses produced by activation of an established local feedback model suggest different roles for the contra- and ipsilateral OMV/cFN complex in saccade generation. The contralateral side contributes to the feedforward path (green arrows), influencing the saccade at short latency. On the other hand, the ipsilateral side contributes to the feedback path, integrating EBN activity (brown arrows) and balancing the contralateral drive to allow the saccade to land on target.

Discussion

Our results show brief activation of OMV P-cells during a saccade changes its trajectory in midflight. A new contribution of this study is the discovery that the nature of the change depends on the direction of the saccade relative to the locus of stimulation in the OMV. Stimulation during contraversive saccades produced a deceleration within ~6 ms. If stimulation occurred near saccade onset, a compensatory reacceleration occurred after the deceleration, driving the saccades to land near or on target. If stimulation occurred later, the compensatory reacceleration depended on the velocity of the saccades. Faster saccades did not reaccelerate,

and they became hypometric. However, slower saccades reaccelerated and landed near the target.

In contrast, OMV P-cell stimulation affects ipsiversive saccades at a longer delay. Under these circumstances, reacceleration during the saccade deceleration phase was not followed by compensation, so saccades were hypermetric. The amount of hypermetria depended on the duration of the activation pulse.

What is the effect of OMV P-cell activity on the SBG? OMV P-cells inhibit neurons in the cFN, which project to contralateral pontine and medullary burst neurons. During saccades, the cFN drives contralateral EBNs and IBNs. The burst of the EBNs drives abducens motoneurons on the same side, and that of the IBN inhibits the abducens motoneurons on the opposite side. This circuit predicts the results of contralateral OMV P-cell activation. The light pulse excited P-cells, inhibiting cFN and reducing the cFN drive to both EBN and IBN. Lower EBN and IBN activities decreased the drive to the agonist abducens motoneurons and the inhibition of the antagonist abducens motoneurons, respectively. This signal transmission route likely produced the deceleration of contraversive saccades. Given that the shortest latency of a simple spike following a light pulse is ~3 ms (El-Shamayleh et al., 2017), the excited P-cells must decelerate saccades within ~3 ms.

Two unexpected findings suggest that the contralateral P-cell activation reduced the activity of the feedforward element of a local feedback model (Robinson, 1975; Jürgens et al., 1981), similar to those of OPN stimulation (Becker, 1981; Keller et al., 1996). First, T0 activation pulses slowed saccades but did not lead to hypometria. A reacceleration during the deceleration phase compensated for the displacement reduction during the acceleration phase.

Inhibition of the contralateral cFN, e.g., due to P-cell activation, reduces the activity of the EBNs (Fig. 13A). This reduced EBN activity would lead to hypometria in an open-loop

circuit. However, a reduced motor command slows the increase of the eye displacement prediction of the feedback integrator, which, in turn, slows the decrease in DME. The slower reduction in DME allows the EBN to continue producing a high firing rate for a longer duration, reaccelerating the eyes and achieving the intended eye displacement.

The second is that late (T20 and T30) activation pulses, which occur during saccade deceleration phase, truncate the faster saccades. The faster the saccade is, the lower the DME is when the activation occurs. The local negative feedback model readily explains that the low DME breaks the OPN latch circuit (Van Gisbergen et al., 1981; Scudder, 1988; Yoshida et al., 1999; Takahashi et al., 2022), allowing the OPN to resume firing and stop the saccade..

In contrast to contralateral activation, ipsilateral activation produces hypermetric (non-compensated) saccades. The earliest activation pulses, even those as short as 1.25 ms, elicit reacceleration >20 ms later and produce hypermetria. A similar effect can be produced by a brief inhibition of the feedback integrator in the model (Fig. 13).

Given that the onset of the ipsilateral activation reacceleration effect is similar to the time of contralateral compensatory reacceleration (Fig. 12), the feedback integrator appears to be part of the ipsilateral OMV/CFN complex. The mossy fiber projection from the paramedian pontine reticular formation (Yamada and Noda, 1987; Noda et al., 1990) suggests that the OMV/cFN complex receives an efference copy of the EBN motor command that could be appropriate for correcting perturbation (Ohtsuka and Noda, 1992).

The left and right OMV are likely to have the same cerebellar cortex microcircuits (Eccles, 1967). However, circuits on one side of the OMV apparently switch their role from a real-time feedforward controller during contraversive saccades to a feedback displacement integrator during ipsiversive saccades. As a feedforward controller, the OMV adjusts EBN and IBN activity to overcome the eye mechanics' sluggishness and prevent untimely OPN

reactivation that would truncate saccades. As a displacement integrator, the circuits estimate the eye displacement and determine the deceleration time course. Neurons outside the cerebellar cortex may influence this switching role. These same neurons may also lie in a feedback loop that, with OMV P-cells, forms a neural integrator. A cerebellar nucleocortical projection (Houck and Person, 2015) seems unlikely to form the integrator loop because the sparse retrogradely labeled fastigial neurons did not overlap the high density of anterogradely labeled terminals from the OMV (Yamada and Noda, 1987). Another possible candidate is brainstem neurons that project directly or indirectly to the OMV as mossy fibers. They should exhibit a gradual increase of activity just before and during a saccade like a long-lead burst neuron, and their activities should be different during contra- and ipsiversive saccades, e.g., have a directional tuning (Ohtsuka and Noda, 1992; Prsa et al., 2009). The involvement of long-lead burst neurons as a displacement integrator has been predicted in a saccade generator model (Scudder, 1988).

Comparison with cFn inactivation studies.

Our optical activation experiments and modeling suggest that the balance of contralateral and ipsilateral OMV activity is essential to produce normometric and stereotypical saccades. Bilateral cFN inactivation produced hypermetria of both ipsi- and contraversive saccades (Robinson et al., 1993). Activation near the midline of the vermis produced a mix of early deceleration and late reacceleration effects. Early activation reduced peak velocity and produced hypermetria of saccades in both directions, whereas later activations produced slight hypermetria. Therefore, the reacceleration effect during saccade deceleration phase dominated the midline activation effects. This reacceleration during saccade deceleration phase also explains the ipsiversive hypermetria after unilateral cFN inactivation (Goffart et al., 2004).

Contralateral P-cell activation during the deceleration phase was more likely to stop saccades early and produce hypometria. These data may explain why the hypometria of contraversive saccades after unilateral cFN inactivation was uncompensated (Robinson et al., 1993; Goffart et al., 2004). The loss of contralateral cFN drive would make saccade truncation more likely. The compensation from the ipsilateral cFN may not be enough to make the saccade normometric. Indeed, this partial compensation may explain the smaller hypometric deficit of contralateral saccades after unilateral cFN inactivation (Iwamoto and Yoshida, 2002).

Comparison with P-cell simple spike study.

What do the results mean for the roles of OMV P-cell simple spike (SS) activity in controlling the saccade? Our results suggest that the SS activity of all OMV P-cells during both saccade acceleration and deceleration participate in determining the saccade trajectory. The activity of those on the contralateral side controls the movement in real-time during both the saccade acceleration and deceleration phases. Population SS activity of contralateral P-cells, i.e., the cells that exhibit a pause in complex spikes (CSs) (CS-off error direction) after the end of the saccades under gain decrease adaptation (Soetedjo and Fuchs, 2006; Soetedjo et al., 2008; Kojima et al., 2010), quickly increased the firing rate during saccade acceleration and then paused during saccade deceleration (Herzfeld et al., 2015, their Fig. 4, green). The high gain of the firing rate increase during acceleration allows for fast and efficient compensation of the orbital mechanics, and the pause during deceleration prevents the activity from truncating the saccades via OPN re-activation.

The population SS activity of ipsilateral P-cells (CS-on direction) increased at a lower gain during saccade acceleration. It only reached about half of the peak activity of the contralateral population. The activity did not pause during saccade deceleration and showed lingering activity that lasted ~50 ms after the saccade ended (Herzfeld et al., 2015, their Fig. 4,

brown). It is unclear whether this activity reflects the activity of a feedback displacement integrator, but the lingering activity suggests it could be a decaying activity after an integration process (Kustov and Robinson, 1995; Nichols and Sparks, 1995).

In conclusion, the contralateral and ipsilateral OMV P-cells have distinct roles in controlling the trajectory of a saccade. These distinct roles can be explained using a local negative feedback model of saccade generation. The contralateral OMV is part of the feedforward element of the model, which affects both saccade acceleration and deceleration. The ipsilateral OMV is part of the feedback displacement integrator, and its activity only affects the saccade deceleration phase. Therefore, both sides of the OMV can control saccade termination, and the model suggests that the termination of saccades is likely accomplished by activating the OPN.

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Figure and Table Legends

Figure 1. A simplified block diagram of a local negative feedback model of the saccade generator. MN, motoneurons; EBN, excitatory burst neurons; DME, dynamic motor error.

Figure 2. The eye movement recording and the closed-loop systems used to deliver light pulses to the OMV. Left side shows the stepping target red dot on the screen and the scleral search coil. Middle shows normal eye position (green) and velocity (purple) time courses (dashed), and the effects of a light pulse (small blue bar, vertical line is light onset) on them. Right side shows triggering of laser light pulse by velocity signal.

Figure 3. Two exemplar un-normalized data sets from animal Sq (*A* and *B)* and Tm (*C* and *D*). Top to bottom: eye position, velocity, and acceleration panels. Red traces, control saccades; Blue traces, saccades perturbed by T0 light pulses (blue bars); error shades = 1SD. Vertical lines, detected time occurrence of activation effect at P=0.05 statistical difference between control and perturbed saccades. Number of trials: Sq, leftward control: 27, T0:16; rightward control: 22, T0: 22; Tm, leftward control: 34, T0: 33; rightward control: 42, T0: 27.

Figure 4. The effects of optical fiber location on saccade amplitude change. Sq, left column; Tm, right column. *A*, Saccade amplitude change vs. medio-lateral location of the optical fiber. Red circles, rightward saccades; black circles, leftward saccades. *B*, amplitude change in one saccade direction vs. the other. Filled circles, fiber located to the right (Sq) or to the left (Tm) of midline. *C*, actual locations of optical fibers of all experiments (green circles); injection sites (X). Other symbol represents a single experiment. The “d”s represent 6 experiments using variable

light pulse durations. +, an experiment that produced no significant change in saccade either saccade metrics or kinematics.

Figure 5. Population averages of *ipsiversive* saccade time courses. Traces are normalized (see Methods). *A* and *B*, animal Sq, T0, T10 and T20, T30, respectively. Top to bottom, eye position, velocity and acceleration panels. Horizontal bars, light pulses. Black, control saccades; red, T0 pulse perturbed saccades; green, T10 pulse perturbed saccades; blue, T20 pulse perturbed saccades; orange, T30 pulse perturbed saccades. Solid vertical lines in the corresponding colors indicate the P=0.05 difference from the control. *C* and *D*, animal Tm, same displays, conventions as in *A* and *B*.

Figure 6. Population averages of the effects of different light pulse duration on *ipsiversive* saccade amplitude. *A*, time courses of saccades after T0 and variable duration pulses. Horizontals bars, light pulses; pulse durations: red, 1.25 ms; green, 2.5 ms; black, 5 ms; brown, 10 ms. *B*, saccade amplitude vs. $\log_2$ of pulse durations (squares). Circles, control. Filled circle and squares, averages. Red lines, linear regression. N=328, 93, 120, 98 and 109 for control and pulse durations of 1.25, 2.5, 5 and 10 ms, respectively.

Figure 7. Population averages of *contraversive* saccade time courses. The same conventions as for Fig. 5. *A* and *B*, animal Sq. *C* and *D*, animal Tm.

Figure 8. Contraversive saccade duration vs. peak velocity after T0 and T10 pulses. *A* – *D*, T0 (red) and T10 (green) perturbed saccades in both Sq (A, C) and Tm (B, D), linear fits of data; control saccades (black). Histogram of saccade durations (right column), bin width = 2 ms.

Figure 9. Contraversive saccade deceleration duration vs peak velocity after T20 and T30 pulses. *A*, monkey Sq. T20 stimulation data, blue: perturbed saccades, black: control saccades. *B,* and *C*, monkey Tm. B, T20 stimulation data, blue; C, T30 stimulation data, brown; in both B and C, black are control saccades. Black lines are linear regressions; curved blue and orange lines are second-order polynomial fits. Histogram bin width = 2 ms.

Figure 10. Comparison of the effects of T20 and T30 stimulations on fast (*A* – *C*) and slow (*D* – *F*) contraversive saccades. *A* and *D*, monkey Sq, T20 stimulation data; fast saccades (A) 700–900 °/s; slow saccades (D) <600 °/s. *B* and *E*, monkey Tm, T20 stimulation data; fast saccades (B) 680–750 °/s; slow saccades (E) <500 °/s. *C* and *F*, monkey Tm, T30 stimulation data; fast saccades (C) 680–760 °/s; slow saccades (F) <496 °/s. Black, control; blue and brown, T20 and T30 stimulation data, respectively. Error shade = 1SD. Insets, saccade amplitude comparisons. Error bar = 1SD. Velocities of both animals were plotted in positive direction. Trials were selected to match the time course of saccade acceleration phase.

Figure 11. Population averages of saccade time courses resulting from stimulation of near midline OMV sites with mixed effects. The same organization and directional order as in Figs. 5 and 7. *A*, *B*, *E* and *F*, animal Sq. *A* and *B*, leftward saccades, N=50, 39, 46, 38, and 36 for control and T0, T10, T20 and T30, respectively. *E* and *F*, rightward saccades, N=35, 34, 34, 29,

and 26 for control, and T0, T10, T20 and T30, respectively. *C*, *D*, *G* and *H*, animal Tm. *C* and *D*, rightward saccades, N=84, 48, 43, 26, and 45 for control, and T0, T10, T20 and T30, respectively. *E* and *F*, leftward saccades, N=123, 87, 60, 78, and 66 for control, and T0, T10, T20 and T30, respectively.

Figure 12. Comparison of the timing of T0 ipsiversive reacceleration and T0 contraversive compensatory reacceleration. *A* and *B*, ipsiversive acceleration time courses of Sq and Tm, respectively. Red, control ipsiversive saccades; blue, T0 perturbed ipsiversive saccades. Error shades = 1SD. Solid vertical lines, mean time of occurrence of the ipsiversive reacceleration effect, dashed lines, 2SE. Red and blue data here are the same as black and red data in both Fig. 5A and C, respectively,. *C* and *D*, contraversive acceleration time courses of Sq and Tm, respectively. Red, control contraversive saccades; blue, T0 perturbed contraversive saccades. Error shades = 1SD. Solid vertical lines, mean time occurrence of contraversive compensatory reacceleration, dashed lines, 2SE. Red and blue data here are the same as black and red data in both Fig. 7A and C, respectively,

Figure 13. Model and simulations. *A*, The circuit of a local feedback model of the saccade generator. Abbreviations, DME, dynamic motor error; IBN, inhibitory burst neurons; OPN, omnipause neurons; EBN, excitatory burst neurons; MN, motoneurons. Equations and weight values, see Methods. *B*, Simulations of contralateral activation, top panel: position, lower panel, velocity. Black, control; red, early activation pulse; blue, later activation pulse. Bars, activation pulses. *C*, the same as in B, but with slower saccades. *D*, Simulations of ipsilateral activation. E, Simulations of simultaneous ipsi- and contralateral activations.

Table 1. Summary of ipsiversive saccade metrics and optical activation timings.

Table 2. Summary of contraversive saccade metrics and optical activation timings.

Fig. 1

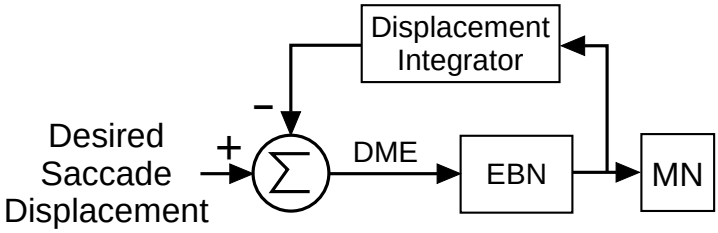
Displacement
Integrator
−
Desired
Saccade
Displacement
+
∑
DME
EBN
MN

Fig. 2

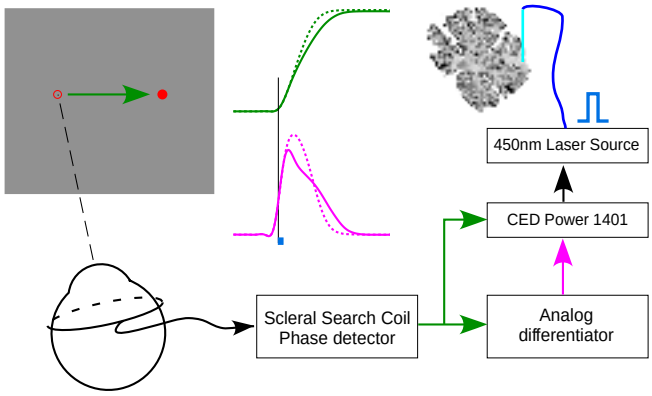
450nm Laser Source
CED Power 1401
Scleral Search Coil
Phase detector
Analog
differentiator

Fig. 3

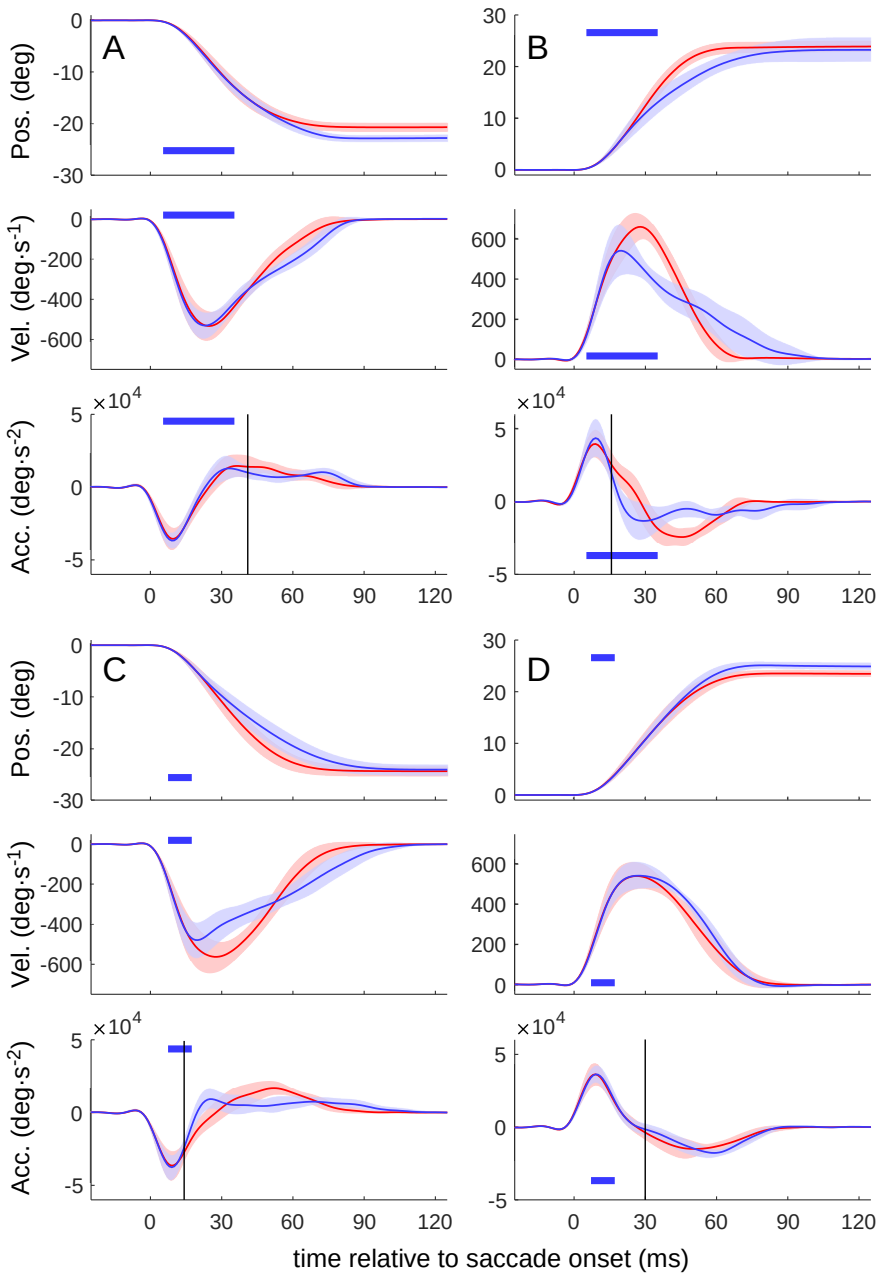
A
B
C
D
Pos. (deg)
Vel. (deg·s-1)
Acc. (deg·s-2)
×10^4
time relative to saccade onset (ms)

Fig. 4

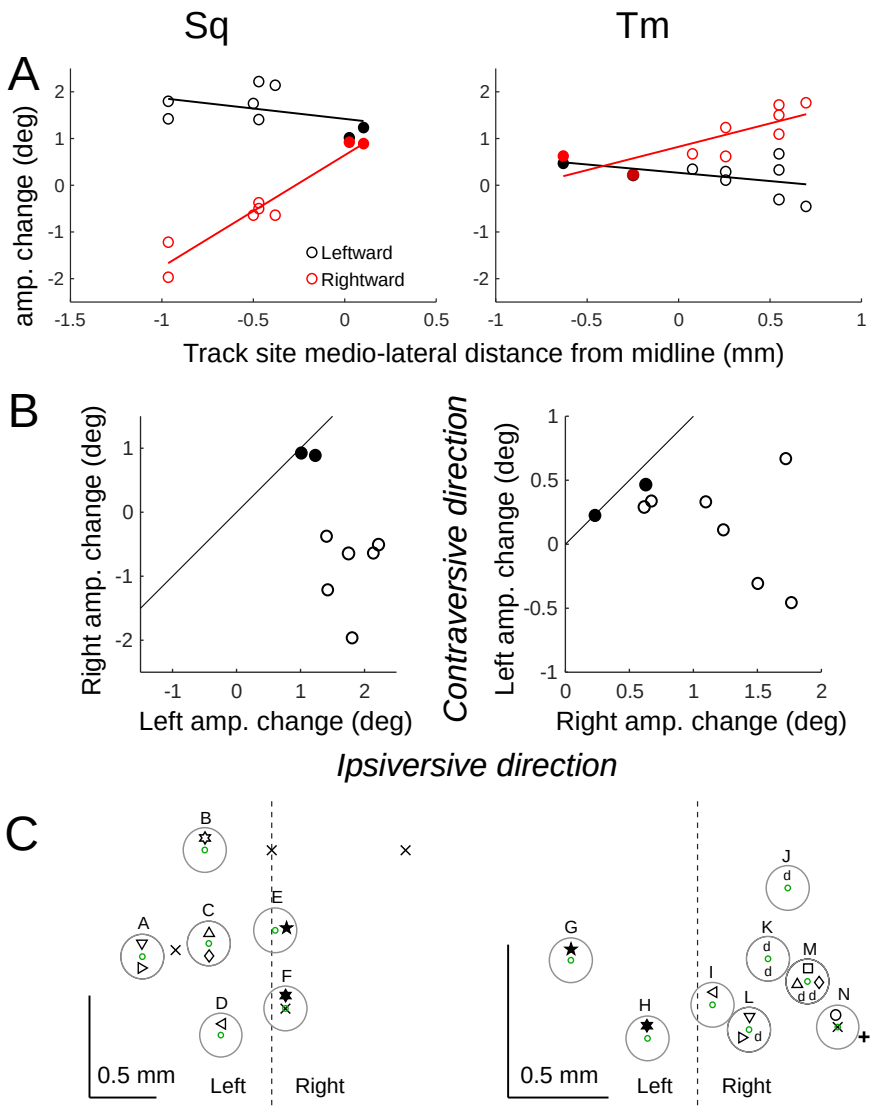
A
Sq
Tm
amp. change (deg)
Leftward
Rightward
Track site medio-lateral distance from midline (mm)
B
Right amp. change (deg)
Left amp. change (deg)
Contraversive direction
Left amp. change (deg)
Right amp. change (deg)
Ipsiversive direction
C
0.5 mm
Left
Right
0.5 mm
Left
Right

Fig. 5

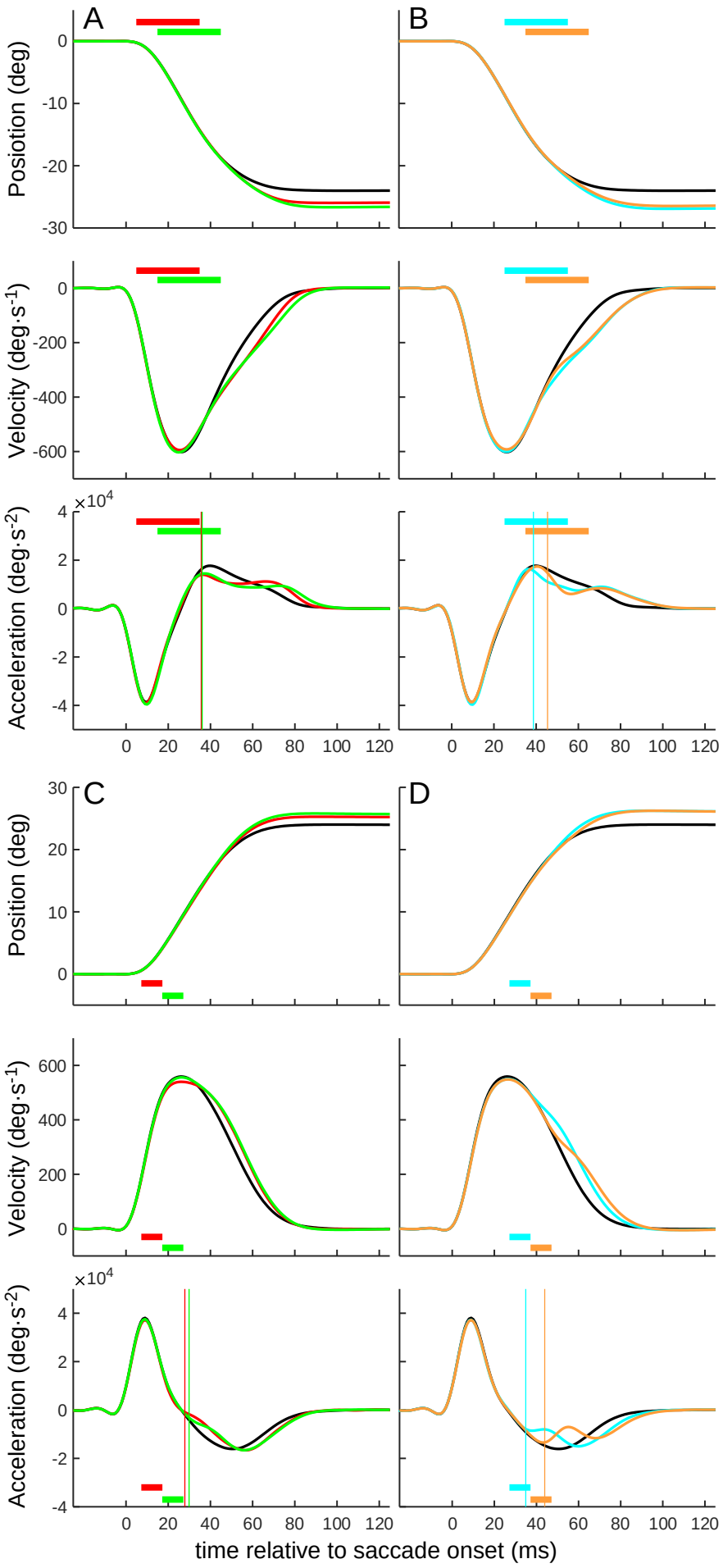
A
B
C
D
Posiotion (deg)
Velocity (deg·s-1)
Acceleration (deg·s-2)
Position (deg)
×10^4
time relative to saccade onset (ms)

Fig. 6

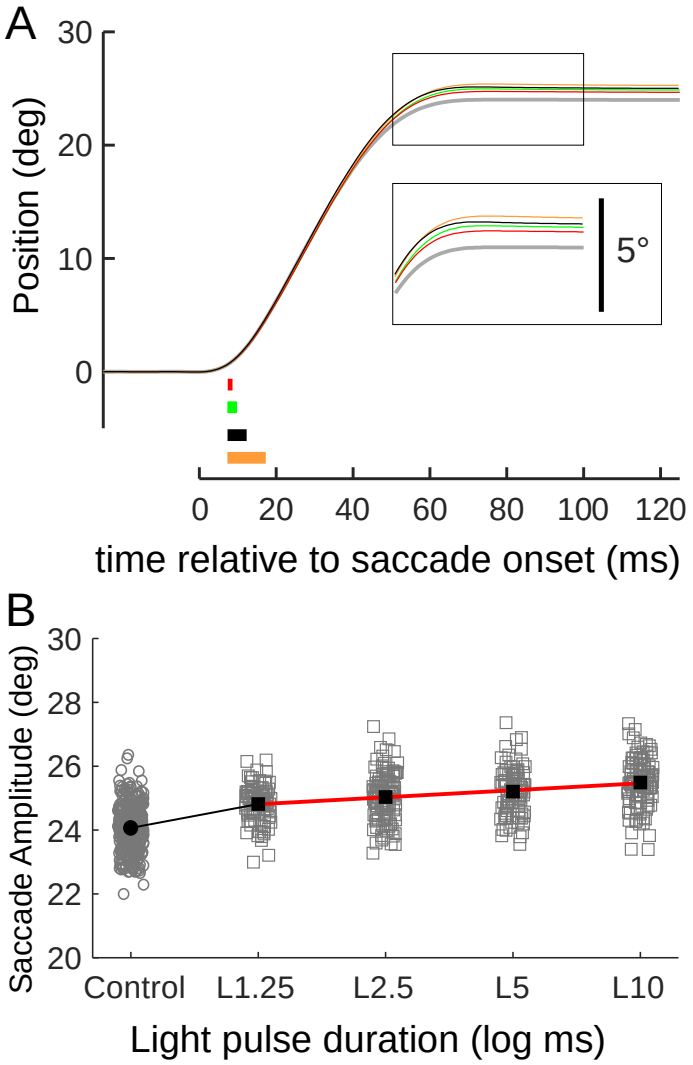
A
30
20
10
0
Position (deg)
5°
0
20
40
60
80
100
120
time relative to saccade onset (ms)
B
30
28
26
24
22
20
Saccade Amplitude (deg)
Control
L1.25
L2.5
L5
L10
Light pulse duration (log ms)

Fig. 7

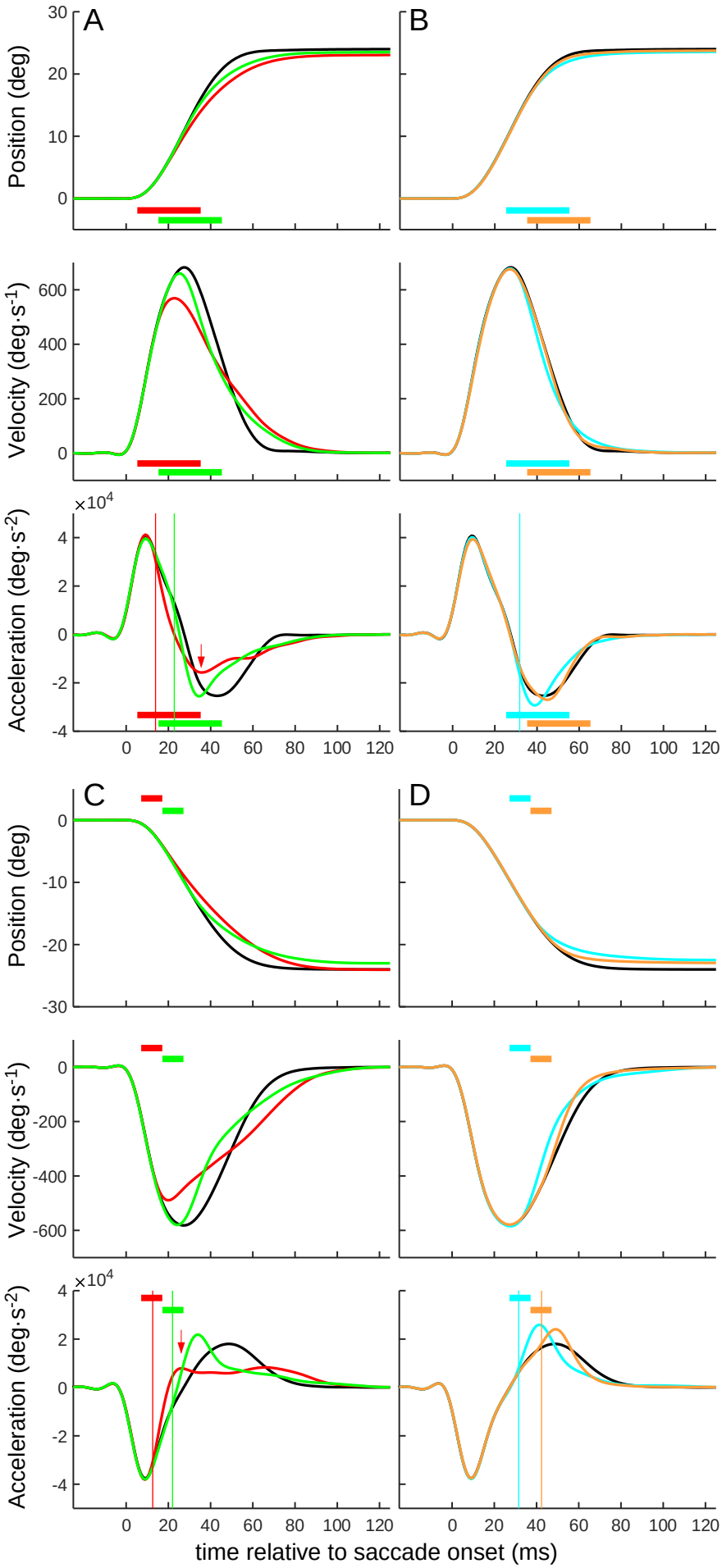
A
B
C
D
Position (deg)
Velocity (deg·s-1)
Acceleration (deg·s-2)
×10^4
time relative to saccade onset (ms)

Fig. 8

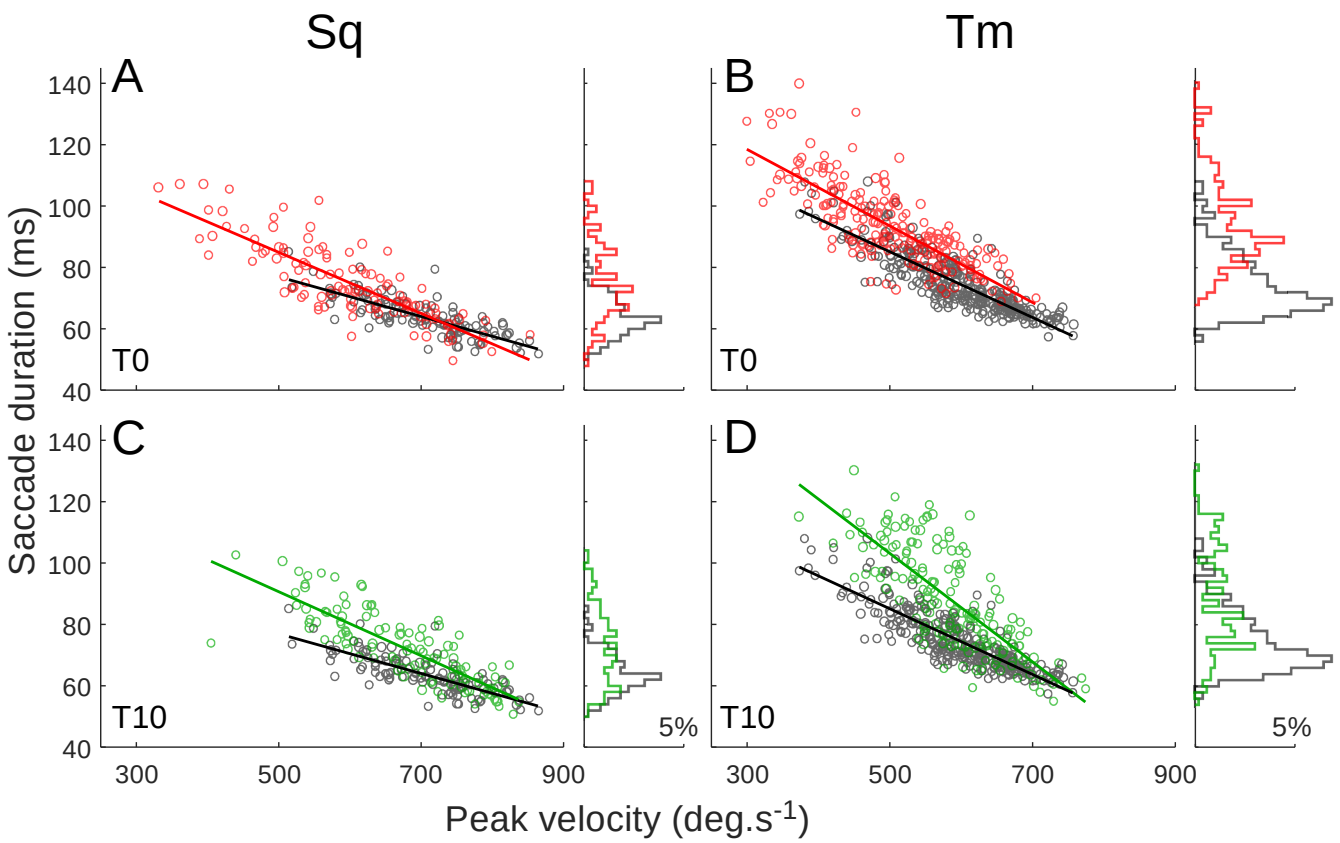
Sq
Tm
A
B
C
D
T0
T0
T10
T10
5%
5%
Saccade duration (ms)
Peak velocity (deg.s-1)
140
120
100
80
60
40
300
500
700
900

Fig. 9

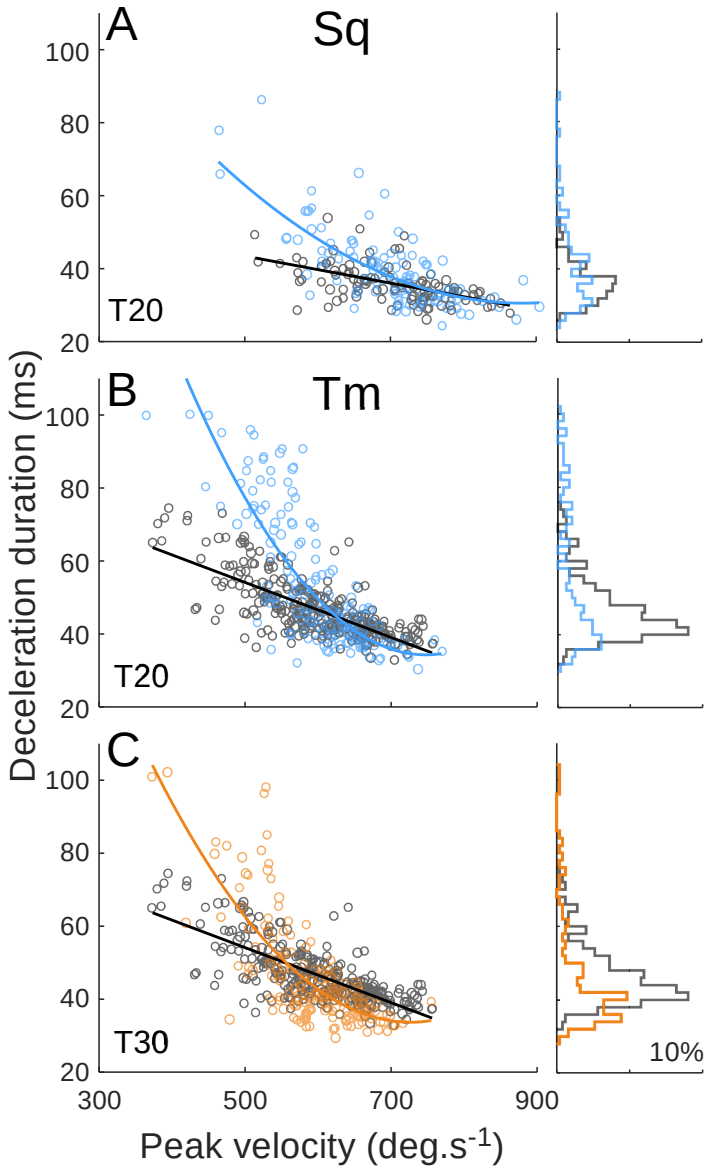
A
Sq
B
Tm
C
T20
T20
T30
10%
Deceleration duration (ms)
Peak velocity (deg.s-1)
100
80
60
40
20
300
500
700
900

Fig. 10

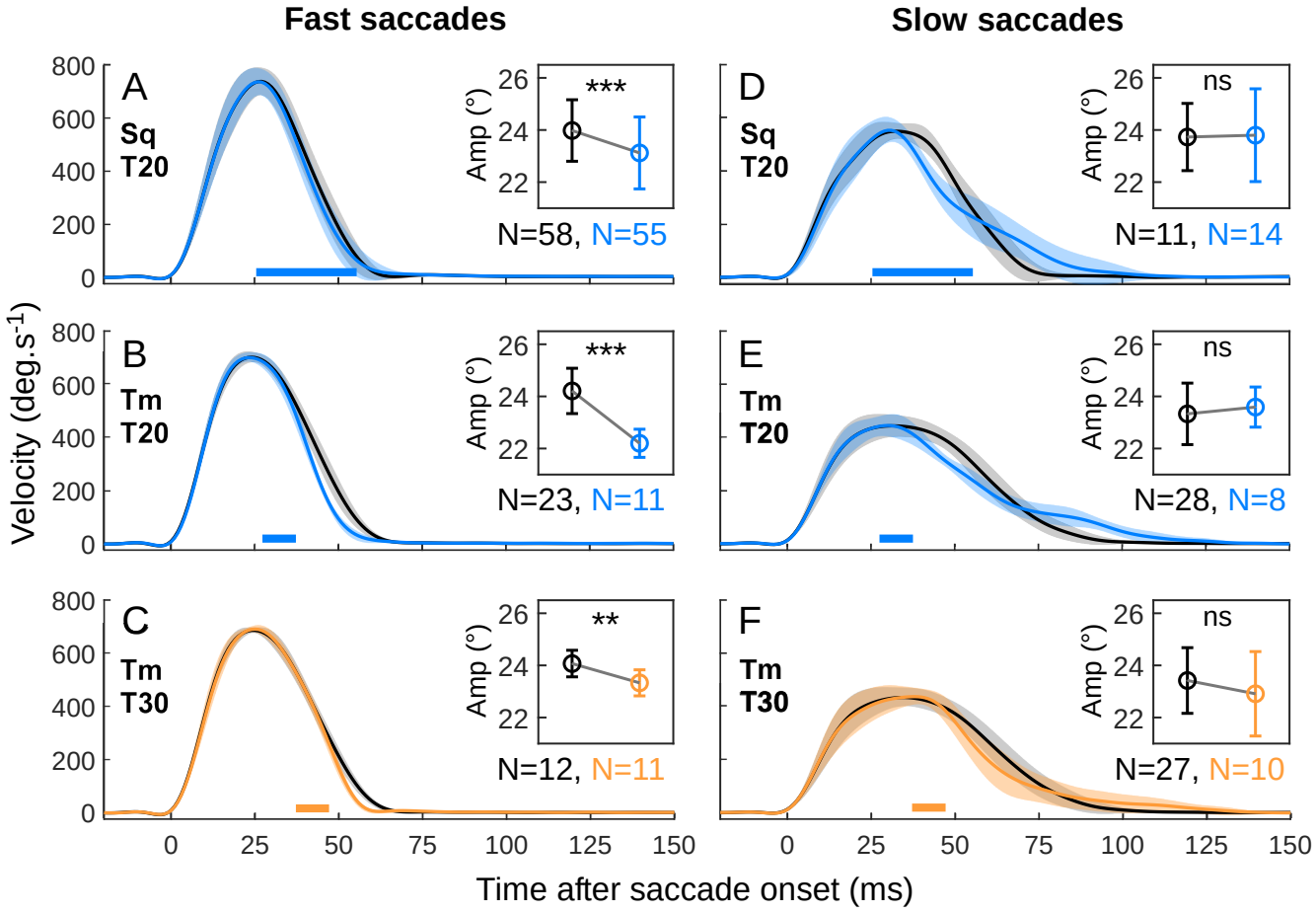
Fast saccades
Slow saccades
A
Sq
T20
B
Tm
T20
C
Tm
T30
D
Sq
T20
E
Tm
T20
F
Tm
T30
Amp (°)
***
**
ns
N=58, N=55
N=23, N=11
N=12, N=11
N=11, N=14
N=28, N=8
N=27, N=10
Velocity (deg.s-1)
Time after saccade onset (ms)

Fig. 11

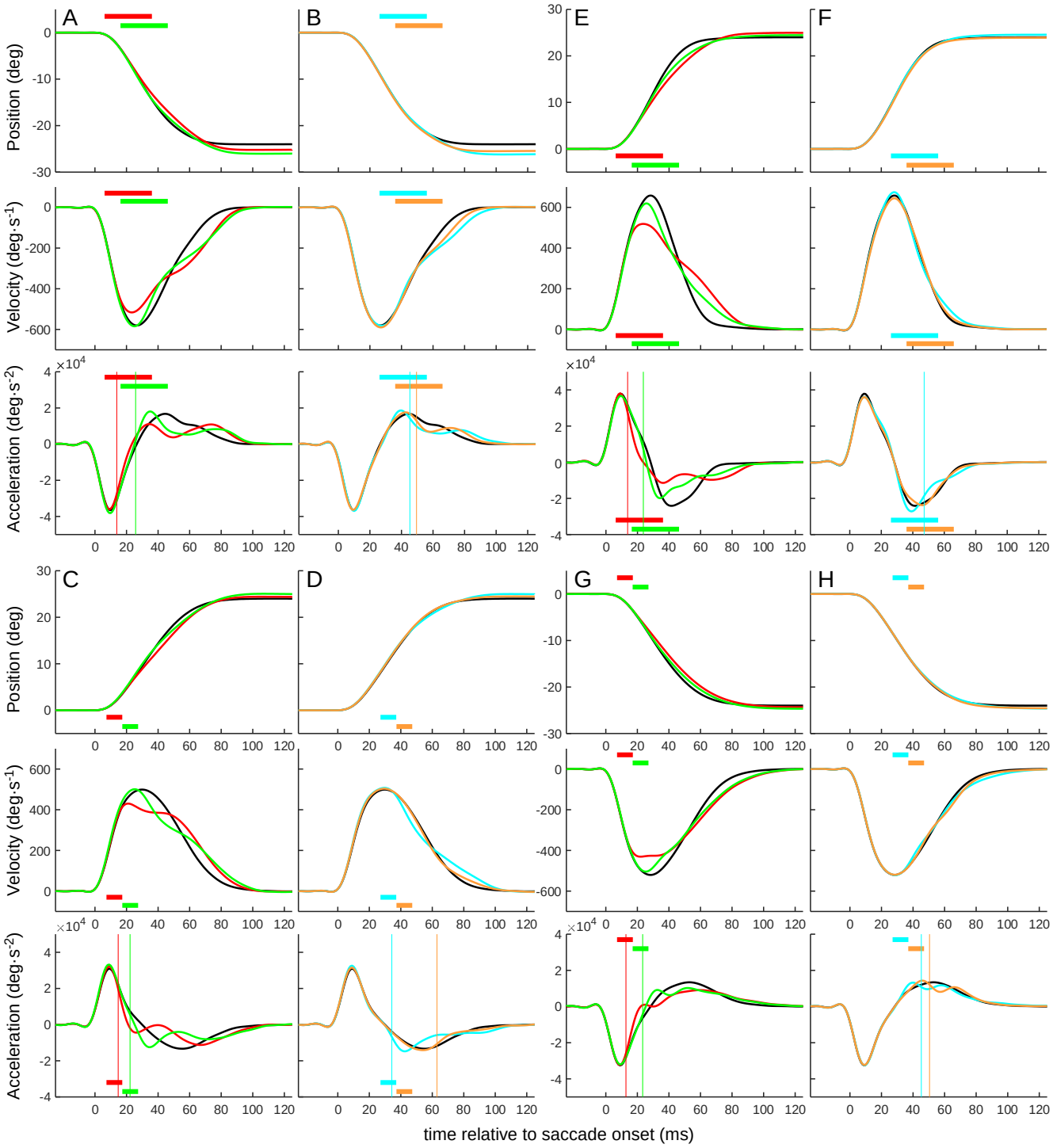
A
B
E
F
C
D
G
H
Position (deg)
Velocity (deg·s-1)
Acceleration (deg·s-2)
×10^4
time relative to saccade onset (ms)

Fig. 12

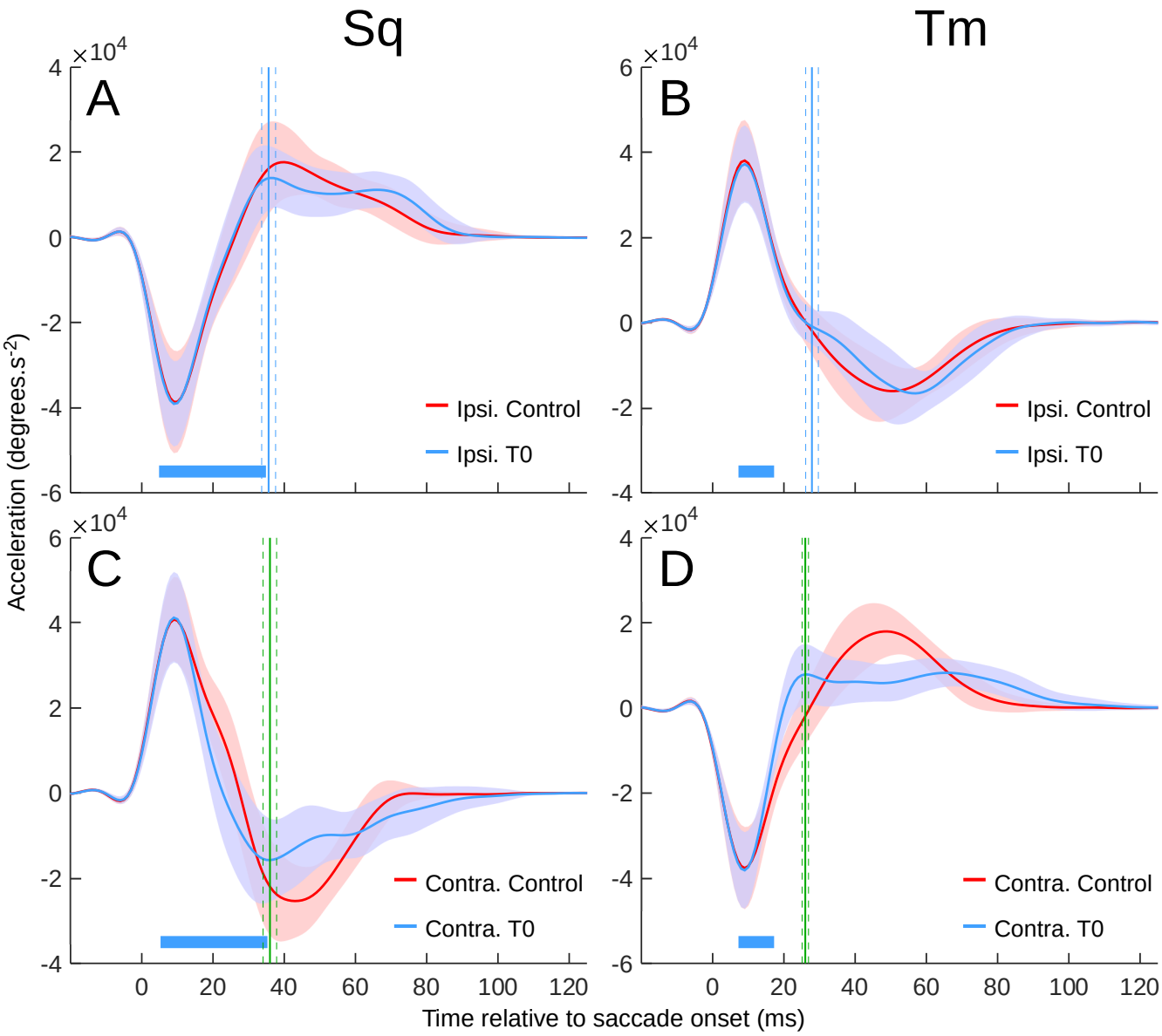
Sq
Tm
A
B
C
D
×10^4
Acceleration (degrees.s^-2)
Ipsi. Control
Ipsi. T0
Contra. Control
Contra. T0
Time relative to saccade onset (ms)

Fig. 13

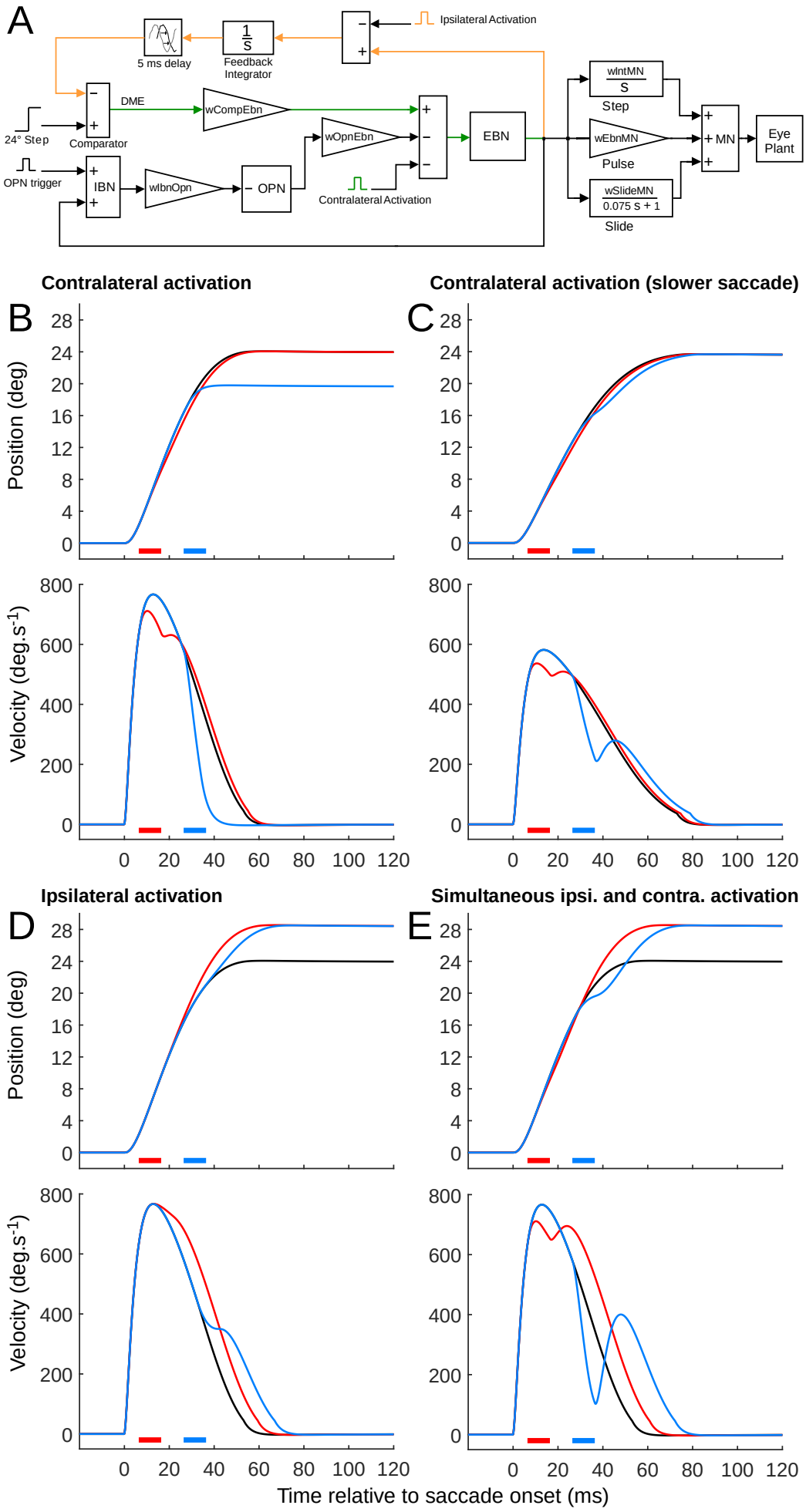
A
Ipsilateral Activation
5 ms delay
Feedback Integrator
DME
wCompEbn
24° Step
Comparator
OPN trigger
IBN
wIbnOpn
OPN
wOpnEbn
Contralateral Activation
EBN
wIntMN
Step
wEbnMN
Pulse
wSlideMN
0.075 s + 1
Slide
MN
Eye Plant
Contralateral activation
Contralateral activation (slower saccade)
B
C
Position (deg)
Velocity (deg.s-1)
Ipsilateral activation
Simultaneous ipsi. and contra. activation
D
E
Time relative to saccade onset (ms)

Table 1. Summary of ipsiversive saccade metrics and optical activation timings.

	Control	T0	T10	T20	T30
Animal Sq					
Number of Trials	181	130	138	150	150
Mean Pulse Onset (mean±1SD ms)		4.86±1.05	14.89±1.22	25.02±1.13	34.92±0.93
Reacceleration Effect Latency (mean±1SE ms)		30.76±0.97	21.27±1.17	13.61±0.71	10.36±1.18
Peak Velocity (mean±1SD º/s)	627.34±98.32	614.60±91.53	620.98±88.94	618.27±89.55	611.94±89.67
Saccade Amplitude (mean±1SD deg)	23.99±1.02	25.99±1.04	26.70±1.11	26.96±1.12	26.51±1.46
Acceleration Displacement (mean±1SD deg)	9.51±1.54	9.14±1.57	9.16±1.84	9.13±1.48	9.39±1.78
Deceleration Displacement (mean±1SD deg)	14.48±1.61	16.85±1.84	17.54±2.07	17.83±1.71	17.12±2.10
Animal Tm					
Number of Trials	295	222	212	226	249
Mean Pulse Onset (mean±1SD ms)		7.24±0.61	17.16±0.54	27.18±0.68	37.16±0.64
Reacceleration Effect Latency (mean±1SE ms)		20.66±0.89	12.53±1.18	6.88±3.28	6.43±2.39
Peak Velocity (mean±1SD º/s)	570.88±89.53	554.74±100.02	564.71±92.82	563.92±89.85	561.80±86.98
Saccade Amplitude (mean±1SD deg)	24.09±0.97	25.43±1.04	25.96±1.10	26.40±1.06	26.33±1.09
Acceleration Displacement (mean±1SD deg)	9.28±1.69	9.42±2.58	9.08±1.77	9.42±1.57	9.23±1.52
Deceleration Displacement (mean±1SD deg)	14.81±1.69	16.01±2.60	16.88±1.75	16.99±1.84	17.10±1.75

Table 2. Summary of contraversive saccade metrics and optical activation timings.

	Control	T0	T10	T20	T30
Animal Sq					
Number of Trials	111	114	115	103	99
Mean Pulse Onset (mean±1SD ms)		5.28±0.97	15.31±0.78	25.35±0.87	35.34±0.89
Deceleration Effect Latency (mean±1SE ms)		8.59±0.72	7.44±0.68	6.28±1.84	N/A
Peak Velocity (mean±1SD, º/s)	703.36±76.29	596.75±105.59	675.32±94.24	696.85±81.60	698.88±75.92
Saccade Amplitude (mean±1SD deg)	23.81±1.13	22.88±1.87	23.32±1.74	23.34±1.46	23.57±1.35
Acceleration Displacement (mean±1SD deg)	11.11±1.49	8.03±2.01	9.50±1.37	10.66±1.25	10.86±1.39
Deceleration Displacement (mean±1SD deg)	12.70±1.56	14.85±2.82	13.82±2.42	12.68±1.76	12.71±1.52
Animal Tm					
Number of Trials	288	214	170	153	167
Mean Pulse Onset (mean±1SD ms)		7.13±0.79	17.16±0.63	27.19±0.66	37.11±0.73
Deceleration Effect Latency (mean±1SE ms)		5.31±0.53	4.94±0.42	4.21±0.66	5.18±0.68
Peak Velocity (mean±1SD, º/s)	597.68±77.67	500.25±83.81	584.85±71.95	595.73±67.13	592.47±63.49
Saccade Amplitude (mean±1SD deg)	23.96±1.04	24.04±1.19	22.99±1.66	22.42±1.45	22.86±1.02
Acceleration Displacement (mean±1SD deg)	9.83±1.54	6.05±1.54	8.13±1.03	9.72±1.39	9.71±1.39
Deceleration Displacement (mean±1SD deg)	14.13±1.63	17.99±1.82	14.86±2.23	12.71±2.05	13.15±1.61