

Sensory information from a slipping object elicits a rapid and automatic shoulder response

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Humans have the remarkable ability to hold, grasp, and manipulate objects. Previous work has
3 reported rapid and coordinated reactions in hand and shoulder muscles in response to external
4 perturbations to the arm during object manipulation; however, little is known about how
5 somatosensory feedback of an object slipping in the hand influences responses of the arm. We
6 built a hand-held device to stimulate the sensation of slipping at all five fingertips. The device
7 was integrated into an exoskeleton robot that supported it against gravity. The setup allowed us
8 to decouple somatosensory stimulation in the fingers from forces applied to the arm— two
9 variables that are highly interdependent in real-world scenarios. Fourteen participants
10 performed three experiments in which we measured their arm feedback responses during slip
11 stimulation. Slip stimulations were applied horizontally, in one of two directions, and participants
12 were either instructed to follow the slip direction, or to move the arm in the opposite direction.
13 Participants showed responses within ~67 ms of slip onset when following the direction of slip,
14 but significantly slower responses when instructed to move in the opposite direction. Arm
15 responses were modulated by the speed but not the distance of the slip. Finally, when slip
16 stimulation was combined with mechanical perturbations to the arm, we found that sensory
17 information from the fingertips significantly modulated the shoulder feedback response. Overall,
18 the results demonstrate the existence of a rapid feedback system that stabilizes hand-held
19 objects.

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27 **NEW & NOTHEWORTHY**

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29 We tested whether the sensation of an object slipping from the fingers modulates shoulder
30 feedback responses. We found rapid shoulder feedback responses when participants were
31 instructed to follow the slip direction with the arm. Shoulder responses following mechanical
32 joint perturbations were also potentiated when combined with slipping. These results
33 demonstrate the existence of fast and automatic feedback responses in the arm in reaction to
34 sensory input to the fingertips that maintain grip on hand-held objects.

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53 **INTRODUCTION**

54 Imagine that you are looking at your smartphone, while your partner is asking you a question.
55 After you fail to respond to the question, your partner decides to get your attention by pulling
56 your phone out from your hand. In this situation, your partner's action would initiate a combined
57 response of your upper limb and hand to stabilize your grasp and secure the device. How the
58 nervous system rapidly uses haptic and proprioceptive feedback to appropriately respond in
59 such complex real-world scenarios is an important question in sensorimotor neuroscience
60 (Mazurek et al., 2018; Mathis et al., 2019).

61 Previous reports have shown evidence that the nervous system automatically increases
62 grip force to prevent an object from falling when slip is detected (Cole and Abbs 1988; Jones
63 and Hunter 1992; Johansson et al. 1996; Johansson and Westling 1984). In the case of self-
64 initiated movements, these grip-force modulations are highly predictive (Danion and Sarlegna
65 2007; Diamond et al. 2015; Flanagan and Wing 1997; Hadjiosif and Smith 2015; Wolpert and
66 Flanagan 2001). Within the arm, humans generate rapid and flexible motor responses in
67 response to mechanical perturbations that compensate for the coupling between joints (for
68 review see Pruszynski et al. 2012) and are modulated by task goals (Pruszynski et al. 2008;
69 Pruszynski et al. 2016; Weiler et al., 2019).

70 Previous work has mainly characterized grip and upper limb responses independently—
71 it is clear, however, that hand and arm responses need to be tightly coordinated for successful
72 object manipulation (Smeets et al. 2019). To explore this coordination, Crevecoeur and
73 colleagues (2016) applied loads to the arm joint while participants held an object in precision
74 grip. Their results showed that hand muscles rapidly accounted for the perturbation direction in
75 a goal-dependent manner. Thus, perturbation in the upper limb modulates grip force. It is
76 unknown, however, whether there is a fast and automatic coupling between sensory information
77 from the fingers (e.g., slipping object) and arm feedback responses.

78 To study how somatosensory information at the finger tips modulates arm responses, we
79 designed a new device to emulate the sensation of an object slipping during grasping.

80 Importantly, the object slip could be manipulated independently from any loads applied to the
81 shoulder or elbow joints. In real life, when somebody pulls an object you are holding, part of the
82 force will be transmitted to your arm and sensed via the muscle spindles, resulting in a direct
83 compensatory response of the arm muscles (Dimitriou 2014). Hence, any arm response in this
84 scenario could be the result of proprioceptive information from the arm rather than from
85 somatosensory information from the finger tips. To be able to disentangle these two sources of
86 information, we mounted the device on a robotic exoskeleton, such that the forces inducing the
87 slip sensation at the fingertips could be uncoupled from the forces applied to the arm. This
88 allowed us to investigate the effect of the somatosensory information from the fingers, without
89 the confounding influence of proprioceptive information at the arm.

90 We hypothesized that the sensation of an object slipping may trigger a rapid shoulder
91 muscle response to compensate for the slipping direction. A priori, it was not clear whether such
92 an automatic response would involve the arm following the direction of slip or opposing the
93 direction of slip. In Experiment 1, we therefore compared responses under a “follow” or “against”
94 instruction and found a much more rapid response when participants followed the direction of
95 slip. In Experiment 2, we tested how the speed and distance of the slip would influence the rapid
96 shoulder muscle response. Finally, Experiment 3 investigates how this mechanism interacts
97 with mechanical perturbations applied to the shoulder joint, as occurs in real-world scenarios.
98 This design allowed us to study somatosensory and proprioceptive perturbations in the hand
99 and shoulder independently, as well as the interaction between them when these perturbations
100 are combined.

101

102 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

103 *Participants*

104 Fourteen human participants (aged 22.7 ± 3.7 ; 6 males, 8 females) with no known
105 musculoskeletal or neurological diseases were invited to perform three experiments described

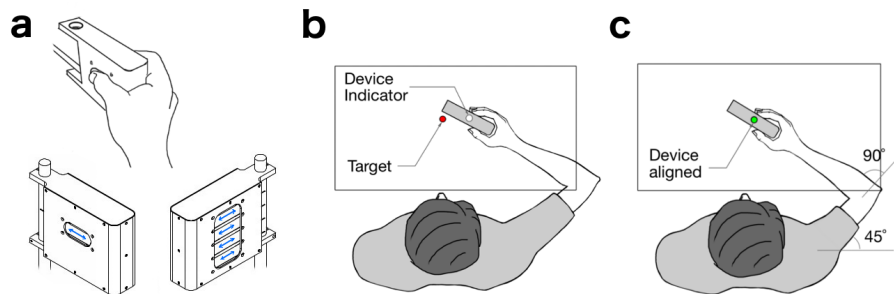
106 below. Participants reported to be right-hand dominant and had normal or corrected-to-normal
107 vision. The Office of Research Ethics at Western University approved all experimental
108 procedures according to the Declaration of Helsinki, and all participants signed a consent form
109 prior to participating in an experiment.

110

111 *Apparatus*

112 Participants performed the experiments using a robotic exoskeleton (KINARM, BKIN
113 Technologies, Kingston, Ontario, Canada) that permits flexion and extension movements of the
114 shoulder and elbow joints in the horizontal plane intersecting the shoulder joint (Scott 1999).
115 The KINARM robot can independently apply mechanical loads to the shoulder and/or elbow and
116 record kinematic variables of these joints. Mechanical stimuli were delivered to the fingertips
117 using a custom-built, computer-controlled stimulator box, designed to produce a slipping
118 sensation at each of the five fingers (Figure 1a). The stimulator box was mounted to the
119 KINARM (fixed in the hand plate) and participants grasped it during the task. The stimulator
120 allowed position and speed control of the contact surfaces in one dimension for all fingers. The
121 surface that contacted the fingertip was flat and had fine sandpaper (grit 800) as a surface
122 finish. This stimulus surface was chosen to obtain sufficiently high friction between the contact
123 surface and the skin without restraining the slider movement. The contact surface for each
124 finger was 18 mm in the vertical plane and 40 mm in the horizontal plane. The range of
125 movement of the sliders was 18 mm driven by high-speed digital servos (Power HD 3688HB;
126 operation speed 0.07 sec/60°; stall torque 2.8 kg-cm). To measure the grip force of each
127 individual finger, two load sensors (Honeywell FSG020WNPB) per finger were placed behind
128 the sliders. Because the hand, arm, and the case of the finger-stimulation box were all fixed to
129 the KINARM exoskeleton, slip stimuli delivered to the fingers did not induce any torque in the
130 elbow or shoulder joints. The setup included an overhead screen and semitransparent mirror to
131 show visual information. Each segment length of the robot was adjusted to fit the participant's

132 arm. Arm supports were selected according to the arm size and foam padding was used to
133 reduce any undesirable arm movement. Throughout the experiment, direct vision of the entire
134 arm and hand was occluded so that responses were guided only by somatosensory information.



135
136 *Figure 1: Stimulator device and experimental setup. (a) Left, right and holding view of the*
137 *stimulator box. Blue arrows indicate the movement of the sliders. (b) In all experiments,*
138 *participants held the stimulator box that could trigger a slipping sensation at the fingertips.*
139 *Visual feedback of the device position (white circle) and the target position (red circle) were*
140 *displayed in the same plane of motion. (c) Before each trial, participants were instructed to align*
141 *the device visual feedback with the target feedback while accomplishing the baseline state*
142 *conditions of position, grip force, and muscle pre-activation (see experimental paradigm). All*
143 *visual feedback was then removed for the start of a trial (i.e., prior to the delivery of a*
144 *mechanical slip, mechanical joint perturbation, or both).*

145
146 *Experimental paradigm*

147 *Experiment 1: Rapid feedback responses.* We hypothesized that the sensation of the object
148 slipping in the finger tips would cause a rapid response in the arm. A priori we did not know
149 whether this response would cause the arm to follow the object slip (to stabilize the object) or
150 whether it would move the arm in the opposite direction (to resist the perturbation). We therefore
151 designed a postural task in which the participants held the stimulator box while they felt the slip
152 in one of two directions—either inward or outward with respect to the hand. In separate blocks,

153 participants were either instructed to “follow the slip” or to “move against the slip”. If there exists
154 a rapid and automatic coupling between slip sensation and arm response, the reaction in the
155 “natural” direction should be substantially faster. The procedure began with the participant
156 grasping the stimulator while seated in the exoskeleton. During all trials the direct visual
157 feedback of the hand and arm was occluded, however, during the initial part of the experiment,
158 a visual cursor (white circle: 1 cm diameter) indicating the position of hand was projected onto
159 the mirror (Figure 1b). To start a trial, the participant had to fulfill three conditions: 1) Using
160 visual feedback, participants had to align their hand (white cue) with the home target (red circle:
161 2 cm diameter) whose position corresponded to a shoulder angle of 45 degrees and an elbow
162 angle of 90 degrees (Figure 1c). 2) After entering the home target, the exoskeleton gradually
163 applied a background torque of 2 Nm to either the flexor or extensor muscles of the shoulder
164 (arm pre-activation). Participants were instructed to keep their hand at the home target while
165 grasping the stimulator. 3) Participants had to apply a grip force of $0.5 \text{ N} \pm 0.1 \text{ N}$ between the
166 thumb and the rest of the fingers. Once participants achieved these three conditions, all
167 visual feedback was removed. Then, if participants maintained this baseline state for a random
168 period between 250-500 ms (uniform distribution) the trial started. If participants failed to
169 achieve/maintain this baseline state for 1 s the trial restarted from the beginning. For
170 Experiment 1, participants were instructed to move their arm as fast as they could either in the
171 same (to follow) or the opposite (go against) direction of the slip. To avoid any constraints on
172 the movement, participants did not receive any instructions pertaining to the distance they
173 should move. The slider displacement was 16 mm with a speed of 20 mm/s in either the inwards
174 to outwards directions. Participants completed 240 trials in two blocks. Half of the participants
175 received the instruction of “follow the slip” first and the other half received the instruction of
176 “move against the slip” first. The order of slipping direction was randomized and participants
177 completed 120 trials in each block. About 20 minutes were required to complete Experiment 1.
178

179 *Experiment 2: Speed and distance of the slip.* To test whether speed and distance of the slip
180 could modulate the arm response, participants performed an accuracy task. We asked
181 participants to precisely compensate for the slip of the sliders with an arm movement. Thus, if
182 the participant felt that the sliders moved 1 cm in the forward direction within the device, the
183 hand was required to also move 1 cm in the forward direction. We ask participants to move
184 without delay from the slip onset. As in Experiment 1, a trial in Experiment 2 started when
185 participants accomplished and maintained the baseline state. Mechanical slip occurred at one of
186 two different distances and two speeds. Participants completed a total of 96 trials in this
187 experiment. The instruction was to follow the direction of the slip as accurate as possible. The
188 order of slipping distance (8/16 mm), velocity (10/20 mm/s), and direction (in/out) was
189 randomized. About 20 minutes was required to complete Experiment 2.

190

191 *Experiment 3: Combined slip and arm perturbations.* In Experiment 3, we studied the interaction
192 between simultaneous perturbations to the arm and slip stimulation at the fingertips. In this
193 experiment, participants performed a postural task that required holding and keeping the
194 stimulator box centered at a target. A mechanical load was applied at the shoulder joint, either
195 alone or in combination with a slip stimulation to the fingers. The instructions to accomplish the
196 baseline state were the same as in Experiments 1 and 2. At the moment of perturbation, the
197 stimulator moved the sliders, and/or the KINARM robot applied a mechanical load at two
198 different strengths (1 Nm or 2 Nm) at the shoulder joint. Participants were instructed to move the
199 hand back to the original position (without visual feedback), as quickly as possible after
200 perturbation onset. Participants completed a total of 96 trials in this experiment. The order of slip
201 stimulation (present/absent) and strength of joint perturbation (1 Nm/2 Nm) was randomized.
202 About 20 minutes were required to complete Experiment 3.

203

204 *Muscle activity*

205 Surface EMG recordings were obtained from four upper-limb muscles involved in flexion or
206 extension movements at the elbow and/or shoulder joints (pectoralis major clavicular head,
207 PEC, shoulder flexor; posterior deltoid, PD, shoulder extensor; biceps brachii long head, BI,
208 shoulder and elbow flexor and wrist supinator; triceps brachii lateral head, TRI, elbow extensor).
209 Prior to electrode placement, the skin was cleaned and abraded with rubbing alcohol and the
210 electrode contacts were covered with conductive gel. Electrodes (DE-2.1, Delsys, Boston, MA)
211 were placed on the belly of the muscle, oriented along the muscle fiber, and the reference
212 electrode (Dermatode, American Imex, Irvine, CA) was attached to the clavicle. To assess the
213 quality of each EMG signal, we performed a set of maneuvers known to elicit high levels of
214 activation for each muscle in the horizontal plane. EMG signals were amplified (gain = 103) and
215 band-pass filtered (20 – 450 Hz) by a commercially available system (Bagnoli, Delsys) then
216 digitally sampled at 1,000 Hz.

217

218 *Data analysis*

219 Data processing and statistical analyses were performed using MATLAB (The Mathworks,
220 Natick, MA). All joint kinematics (i.e., hand position and joint angles) were sampled at 1000 Hz
221 and then low-pass filtered (12 Hz, 2-pass, 4th-order Butterworth). EMG data were band-pass
222 filtered (20-500 Hz, 2-pass, 2nd-order Butterworth) and full-wave rectified. EMG data were
223 normalized to their own mean activity over the 200-ms period before slip perturbation onset
224 when either shoulder flexor or extensor muscles were loaded by the exoskeleton (i.e., shoulder
225 flexion or extension torque preload, 2Nm). All data were aligned on perturbation onset that could
226 be either a mechanical slipping, mechanical joint perturbation, or both at the same time.
227 To estimate the temporal onset of task related EMG activity for each participant, we used each
228 participant's EMG activity from two conditions to generate a time-series receiver operator
229 characteristic (ROC) from 0 ms – 200 ms relative to perturbation onset. Briefly, ROC curves
230 quantify the probability that an ideal observer could discriminate between two stimuli conditions:

231 a value of 0.5 represents chance-level discrimination, whereas a value of 0 or 1 represents
232 perfect discrimination (Green and Swets 1966). ROC curves were generated from the pectoral
233 or deltoid muscle EMG activity, depending on the condition. We then fit the time-series ROC
234 curves with a linear regression technique, which estimates the temporal onset of task-related
235 EMG activity by determining when the time-series ROC curve diverges from chance-level
236 discrimination (i.e., ~ 0.5 ; see Weiler et al., 2015). We will refer to this time point as the
237 divergence onset time.

238 Hand tangential velocity was used to determine the end of the hand trajectories. We performed
239 different statistical tests such paired t-test and ANOVA when appropriate for each of the three
240 experiments. Details of these procedures are provided below in the Results section.

241 Experimental results were considered statistically significant if the corrected p-value was less
242 than 0.05.

243

244 **RESULTS**

245 *Experiment 1: Automatic arm response in the direction of slip*

246 In Experiment 1 participants were instructed to move the hand position via the shoulder joint as
247 fast as possible either in the same (to follow) or in the opposite (go against) direction of the slip.
248 If there exists a rapid and automatic coupling between slip sensation and arm response, the
249 reaction in the “natural” direction should be substantially faster.

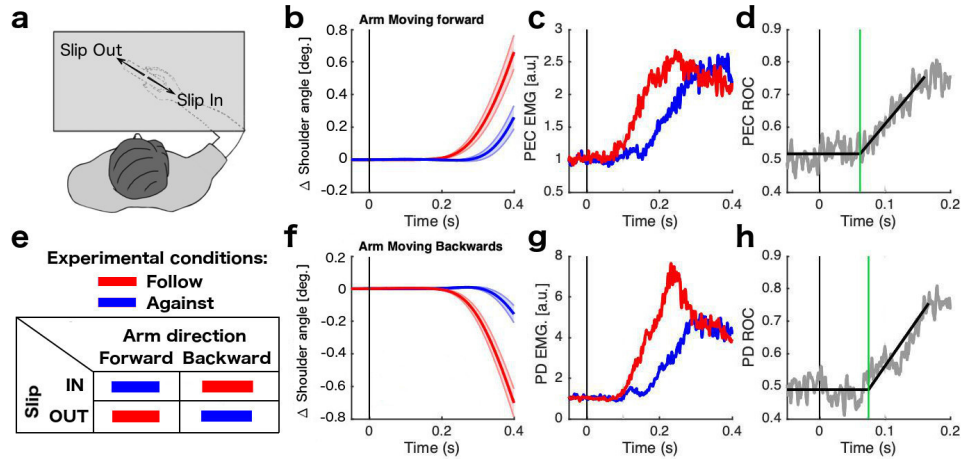
250 Figure 2a shows the task design, in which participants performed backwards or forward
251 movements for the two slip directions (2x2 design, Figure 2e). The mean kinematics of the
252 shoulder joint are shown in Figure 2 b and f for forward and backwards arm movement,
253 respectively. For both arm movements, we found that following the slip (red traces) resulted in
254 faster responses compared to moving against the slip (blue traces). The EMG data also
255 revealed a faster ramping of agonist muscle activity when the participants followed the slip
256 (Figure 2c,g). To quantify the difference in timing, first we estimated the onset of divergence

257 from baseline activity for the two conditions (follow and against) in each participant. Indeed, for
258 the forward arm movement (Figure 2c), participants performed faster responses when they
259 moved in the same direction of the slip (mean onset time = 60.0 ms; SE = 0.2) compared to
260 when they moved in the opposite direction (mean onset time = 148.1 ms; SE = 0.5). Then we
261 calculate the divergence time between the two conditions for each arm movement. In both
262 cases the divergence between In and OUT conditions was close to 67 ms (forward 67.1 ms SE
263 0.1 and backwards 67.1 ms SE 0.2). A paired t-test indicated a significant difference ($t(13) =$
264 2.11, $p = 0.027$). This behavior was similar for the backward arm movement (Figure 2g),
265 showing a faster arm response when participants moved in the same direction of the slip (mean
266 onset 78 ms) compared to when they moved to the opposite direction (mean onset time = 153
267 ms; $t(13) = 2.37$, $p = 0.016$).

268 To investigate if the arm response to slip is different for forwards and backwards directions
269 (shoulder flexion and extension), we determined the divergence onset time between the two
270 conditions (follow and against) for each arm movement and then we performed a t-test between
271 arm directions. This contrast did not reveal a significant difference ($t(13) = 0.32$, $p = 0.374$).

272 Figure 2 d and h show time-series ROC curves from an exemplar participant fit with the linear
273 regression technique that indicates the divergence onset time (green line) between follow and
274 oppose movements in panels c and d, respectively.

275 These results show that the arm feedback response is faster when the arm movement is in the
276 same direction of the slip as compared to when the participant moves in the opposite direction.



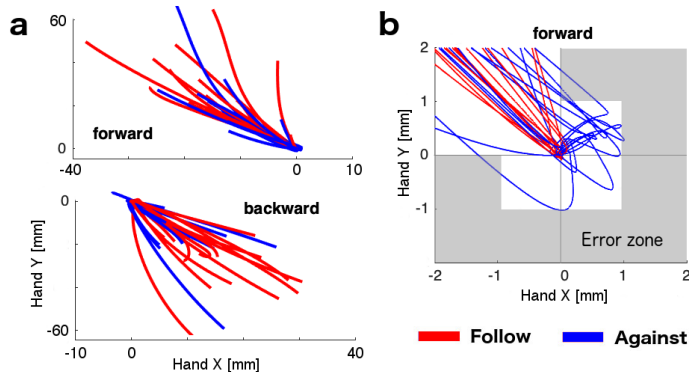
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278 *Figure 2. Shoulder responses related to slipping direction. During experiment 1, participants*
 279 *received slip stimulation in two directions (a) and they were instructed to move the arm either in*
 280 *the same (follow) or the opposite (against) direction of the slip (e). (b,f) shows the average*
 281 *kinematics of the shoulder joint. (c,g) Normalized muscle activity. (d,h) ROC curve of the*
 282 *divergence between follow and against conditions. (b,c,d) shows the results for a forward arm*
 283 *movement while (f,g,h) shows the results of backward arm movement. Shaded areas represent*
 284 *the standard error of the mean. ROC panels indicate in gray the ROC curve and in black the*
 285 *best fitted line. Green line indicates the timing of a significant difference of the muscle response*
 286 *for both conditions (red and blue). All Muscle activity traces correspond to the agonist shoulder*
 287 *muscle for each arm movement. deg. (degrees), a.u. (Arbitrary units). All data are aligned on*
 288 *slipping onset.*

289

290 If there is an automatic response to follow the direction of a perceived slip, we would expect that
 291 some of the feedback responses under the “move against” instruction is produced in the wrong
 292 direction (i.e., in the direction of the slip). To test for this possibility, we carefully analyzed the
 293 paths of the hand during the trials. Figure 3a shows the average displacement trace of the hand
 294 position for each participant, showing that participants generally followed the instruction.
 295 However, on individual trials, participants made a number of errors. We defined an error as

296 individual trials when the participant moved more than 1 mm away from the home position
297 (either in the x or y axis) in a direction different from the correct quadrant (i.e., second quadrant
298 for the forward movement, fourth quadrant for the backward movement; Figure 3b). Participants
299 showed only a small number of errors when the arm movement followed the slip (3.1% of total
300 trials) compared when the slip was opposite to the arm movement (26.9% of total trials). This
301 difference was significant for both forward ($t(13) = 3.59$, $p = 0.001$) and backwards movements
302 ($t(13) = 3.21$, $p = 0.002$). These results suggest that the response to follow a slipping object with
303 the arm is not only fast, but also automatic—that is, it can intrude on a voluntary response and
304 induce errors (Haith and Krakauer 2018).

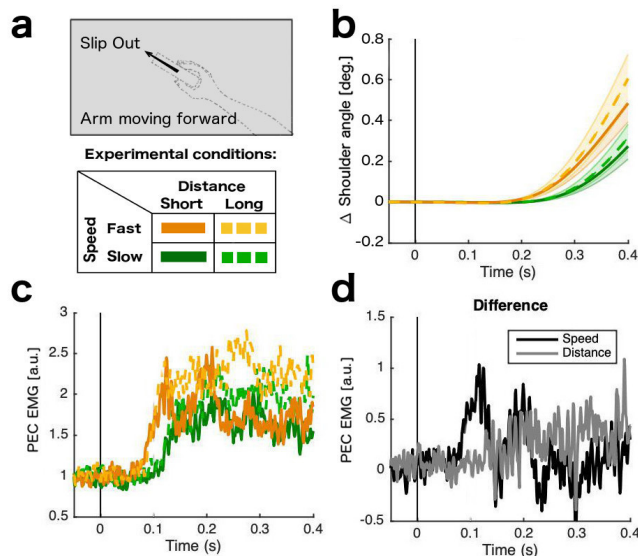


305
306 *Figure 3. Hand paths for experiment 1. a) Each trace indicates the average path of each*
307 *participant for both conditions—follow (red) and against (blue)—and both directions of arm*
308 *movement (forward and backward). Paths start on the trial onset (at home position 0,0) and*
309 *finish after 600 ms. b) Zoomed view of the home position in the forward movement. Gray area*
310 *indicates the error zone for individual trials. Note that the image shows the average traces which*
311 *hardly fall in the gray area, however individual trials marked as error trials exceed those limits.*

312
313 *Experiment 2: Fast feedback responses vary with speed, but not with the distance of slip.*

314 In Experiment 1, we showed an automatic response of the arm that follows the slip sensation on
315 the fingers. It has been shown that rapid responses can be modulated in a task-dependent

316 manner to maintain limb stability (Shemmell et al. 2010). We therefore tested whether the
317 characteristics of the slipping stimulus modulates the arm response, or if the arm responds
318 equally to any slip sensation. We used two speeds and two distances for the slip stimuli (Figure
319 4a). To limit the overall number of conditions, we chose to study only forward arm movement
320 with slipping in the direction out of the hand. Overall, we found that faster slips (orange colors in
321 Figure 4c) elicited earlier (mean onset time = 67.0 ms, SE 0.6) muscle activity compared to
322 slower slips (green colors; mean onset time = 114.3 ms, SE 0.7; $t(13) = 3.99$, $p = 7.6e-4$).
323 However, the muscle activities resulting from the two slip distances using the same slip speed
324 (solid vs dashed lines of the same tone), were not significantly different for either slow slip ($t(13)$
325 = 0.89, $p = 0.194$) or fast slip ($t(13) = 1.36$, $p = 0.097$). These results suggest that the speed of
326 the slipping has a stronger effect on the early arm response, as compared to slip distance
327 (Figure 4d).



328
329 *Figure 4. Shoulder responses according to different slip characteristics. During experiment 2,*
330 *participants received slip stimulation in the “out” direction using two speeds and two distances*
331 *(a) and they were instructed to move the arm following the slip. (b) Average kinematics of the*
332 *shoulder joint. (c) Normalized muscle activity. (d) Gray line shows the difference between Fast*
333 *Long and Fast Short (Distance) while black line shows the difference between Fast long and*

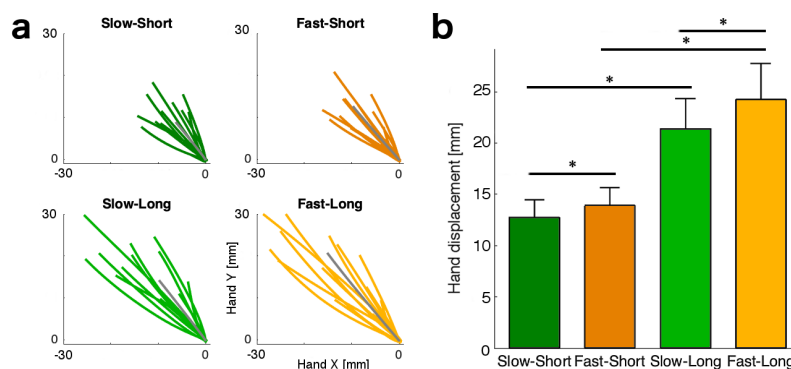
334 *Slow long (Speed). All Muscle activity traces correspond to the agonist shoulder muscle for*
335 *each arm movement.*

336

337 The explicit task goal in Experiment 2 was to move the hand the same distance as the sensed
338 slip (i.e., the displacement of the device sliders). Although participants' movements did not
339 exactly match the distance (8 or 16 mm), the average displacement showed a clear effect of the
340 slip characteristics on the final position of the participant's hand (Figure 5a). The slip distance
341 (short vs. long) showed a clear influence on the final position, both in the slow (Figure 5b, $t(13)$
342 = 5.40, $p = 1.2e-4$) and fast conditions ($t(13) = 4.37$, $p = 7.5e-4$). Although the instructions
343 emphasized an accurate compensation for the slip distance, the speed of slip also had a
344 significant influence on hand displacement for both the short ($t(13) = 1.83$, $p = 0.044$) and long
345 slips ($t(13) = 2.19$, $p = 0.023$). An ANOVA also showed a significant interaction between slip
346 speed and distance ($F(3,39) = 20.3$, $p = 5.6e-6$), resulting from a larger influence of speed in the
347 long distance condition as compared to the short distance condition.

348 Overall, these results show that the initial arm response is mostly dictated by the speed of the
349 slip. In contrast, the overall response of the arm took into account the displacement of the slip to
350 achieve the behavioral goal, but still was slightly biased by the initial speed.

351



352

353 *Figure 5. Hand paths for experiment 2. a) Each color line indicates the average path of each*
354 *participant for each condition for the forward arm movement. Gray line indicates the mean path*
355 *of the group. Paths start on the trial onset (at home position 0,0) and finish when the participant*
356 *stops movement (tangential velocity < 30% of the maximum velocity of each trial). b) Average*
357 *hand displacement from the home target to the end of the movement for each condition.*

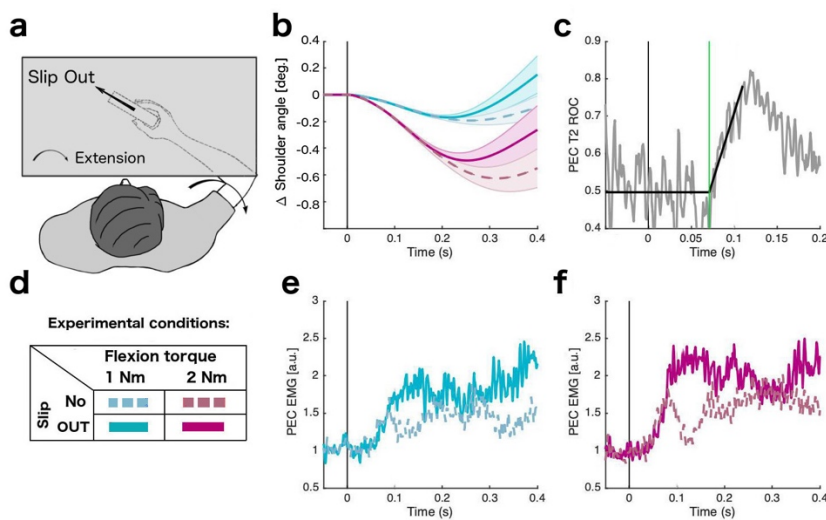
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359 *Experiment 3: Slip modulates response to arm perturbation.*

360 In real-world scenarios our nervous system needs to integrate information from the finger tips
361 with information from the arm to optimally resist perturbations delivered to a hand-held object.
362 Our setup uncoupled these sources of information between the hand and the arm, allowing us
363 to observe the effect of slip stimulation in isolation. But how do feedback from the hand and arm
364 interact when perturbations occur simultaneously with slip stimulation? It is possible that the
365 local arm feedback loop completely overwrites any modulation from the sensation from the
366 fingertips. Alternatively, the two sources of information may be combined in the final response.
367 In Experiment 3, we investigated whether the slip sensation at the fingers modulates the arm's
368 response to a slipping object during an external arm perturbation (either 1Nm or 2Nm). We
369 asked participants to bring the object back to the home position as fast as they could after the
370 perturbation. Figure 6a shows the task setup and Figure 6b the response of the arm to an
371 external mechanical shoulder extension perturbation alone (dashed lines), and to an external
372 perturbation plus slipping in the opposite direction (i.e., out of the hand; solid lines).

373 As expected, the 2 Nm torque produced larger arm displacements than the 1 Nm
374 perturbation (Figure 6b). For both perturbation levels, however, the position of the arm moved
375 back to the original position faster when the slip was included in the perturbation, as compared
376 to when it was absent (torque alone). Although the onset of the EMG activity did not change
377 significantly, the EMG signal showed a significantly higher activity when the slipping stimulation
378 was present (Figure 6e, f). To determine the onset of this modulation, we computed the area

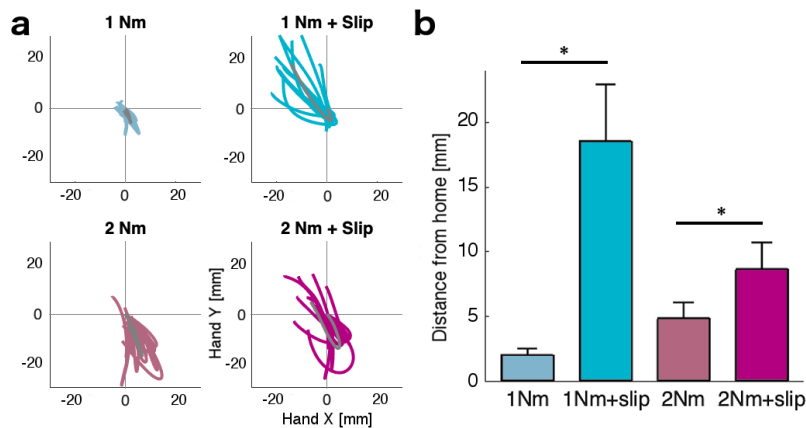
379 under the ROC curve for each time point and determined the divergence between trials with and
380 without slip present using linear regression (see methods). The mean onset time for 1 Nm was
381 98.2 ms, SE 0.9; while for 2 Nm we found a mean onset time of 71.3 ms, SE 0.9 (Figure 6c).
382 For both torques the EMG signal was significantly higher when the slip was present immediately
383 after the divergence time: 1Nm ($t(13) = 2.95$, $p = 0.005$) and 2 Nm ($t(13) = 5.27$, $p = 8.0e-5$).
384 This result suggests that the direct perturbation in the arm does not override the slip sensation
385 from the fingertips, but that both are integrated to produce a combined feedback response.



386
387 *Figure 6. Arm responses related to combined torque and slip. During experiment 3, participants*
388 *received either a flexion torque (1 Nm or 2 Nm) or a flexion torque plus slip stimulation (out*
389 *direction) (a,d). Participants were instructed to move the stimulator cursor back to the original*
390 *position (without visual feedback). (b) Average kinematics of the shoulder joint. (e,f) Normalized*
391 *muscle activity. (c) ROC curve of the two conditions (torque and torque plus slip) using 2 Nm.*
392 *ROC panel indicate in gray the ROC curve and in black the best fitted line. Green line indicates*
393 *the timing of a significant difference of the muscle response for both conditions. All Muscle*
394 *activity traces correspond to the agonist shoulder muscle for each arm movement.*

395

396 Participants were relatively accurate in returning to the home target when they received a
397 mechanical torque in the arm. Figure 7a shows the average hand path of each participant for
398 each condition. As expected, the stronger perturbation (2 Nm) resulted in higher variability in the
399 end position of the hand, but overall, participants stopped close to the home position. When the
400 slip was present, however, participants tended to overshoot, ending the movement farther away
401 from the home position compared to the respective control (torque alone). An ANOVA
402 comparing the individual end positions showed a significant main effect of the slip ($F(3,39) =$
403 $13.8, p = 1.6e-5$). We also found a significant interaction between torque and slip ($F(3,39) =$
404 $11.4, p = 2.3e-6$) - the difference between the control and combined condition (torque plus slip)
405 was higher for the 1 Nm perturbation ($t(13) = 5.38, p = 1.2e-4$) than for the 2 Nm perturbation
406 ($t(13) = 2.73, p = 0.017$) (Figure 7b). Overall, slip information biased participants to respond
407 more strongly to the perturbation, ultimately leading to a less accurate performance.



408
409 *Figure 7. Hand paths for experiment 3. a) Each color line indicates the average path of each*
410 *participant for each condition. Gray line indicates the mean path of the group. Paths start on the*
411 *trial onset (at home position 0,0) and finish when the participant stopped the movement*
412 *(tangential velocity < 30% of the maximum velocity of each trial). b) average hand displacement*
413 *from the home target to the end of the movement for each condition.*

414

415 **DISCUSSION**

416 Taken together, our results establish the existence of a fast and automatic arm response that
417 follows the direction of an object slipping from the hand. We were able to reveal this response
418 by artificially uncoupling the slip sensation on the fingertips from the forces acting on the
419 shoulder joint, two variables that are often coupled in real-world situations. In our experiment,
420 the stimulator device was fixed to the robot structure and the hand and arm of the participant
421 were secured with foam padding to prevent any undesired movement within the device. Thus,
422 the slip stimulation did not produce a torque to the arm and the torque applied to the arm did not
423 cause slip of the device, allowing us to assess the arm responses associated with the slipping
424 sensation alone. We report three principal findings. First, we found a fast and automatic
425 feedback response in shoulder muscles when following the direction of a slip stimulus at the
426 fingertip with an onset latency of ~67 ms. Second, this rapid feedback response of the shoulder
427 muscles was modulated by the speed but not by the distance of the slip. Third, responses to
428 mechanical perturbations applied to the upper limb were potentiated when combined with object
429 slip in the direction opposite to the perturbation.

430

431 *Automatic response following a slipping object*

432 Previous work has long demonstrated that the sensation of slip at the fingertips can trigger very
433 rapid increases in grip force (Delhaye et al., 2014; Häger-Ross et al., 1996; Häger-Ross and
434 Johansson, 1996; Crevecoeur et al., 2017; Cole and Abbs 1988; Häger-Ross et al., 1996; Jones
435 and Hunter 1992; Johansson and Westling 1984). Here we found that slip at the fingers also
436 induces a rapid and automatic shoulder muscle response that moves the arm in the direction of
437 the slip. This automatic response was revealed by instructing participants to either follow the
438 slipping direction or to move against it—a paradigm similar to anti-saccade or anti-reach
439 approach (Munoz and Everling, 2004; Gail and Andersen, 2006; Day and Lyon, 2000).
440 Specifically, we found substantially faster responses when the participants were instructed to
441 move their arms in the same direction of the slip as compared to when instructed to move in the

442 opposite direction. If the responses had been arbitrary and fully deliberate, both instructions
443 should have led to the same latency.

444 A related observation comes from a bimanual haptic tracking task (Rosenbaum et al.,
445 2006). In this study, participants were instructed to follow a moving object using the tactile
446 information from the fingertip that made contact with the object. The results show that
447 participants could follow two independent spatial trajectories with their two hands without
448 interference—something that is very hard to achieve during voluntary movements (Kennerley et
449 al., 2002). The lack of interference clearly argues for the existence of an automatic response
450 that guides the arm in the direction of a perceived slip.

451 What is the functional relevance of this automatic response? It is most likely that it
452 serves to facilitate stability of a hand-held object. When an object slips from our grasp, it is
453 essential to follow the movement of the object with the arm to prevent the object from
454 completely slipping from our grasp. Even smaller movements of the object within the grasp
455 should be prevented, as the finger grasp positions are chosen to balance the object in the hand
456 to avoid object rotation (Mackenzie and Iberall 1994).

457 Consistent with a functional role in object stabilization, we showed in Experiment 2 that
458 the arm responses scale with the initial speed of the slip. For grip force increases, such
459 modulation has been well demonstrated (Häger-Ross and Johansson, 1996; Cole and Abbs,
460 1988; Crevecoeur et al., 2017). In contrast, we found no modulation in the initial shoulder
461 muscle responses when the grasped object slipped at two distinct distances. This was
462 expected, as at the onset of slipping in either condition (short or long distance), the same
463 somatosensory information was transmitted to the nervous system. The differences between the
464 two distances would therefore only become available when the short distance perturbation was
465 completed. Indeed, the later responses and hand distance traces were clearly influenced by the
466 length of the slip. These results provide evidence that the automatic response takes into

467 account afferent feedback from the digits in an adaptive, time-sensitive, and appropriate manner
468 but the contribution of tactile and or muscle afferent feedback remains to be elucidated.
469 The muscle activity latency of the following response of the arm (~67 ms) indicates that the
470 response can be produced faster than normal voluntary responses, which usually have a time
471 scale of 100-150ms. Similar latencies have been reported in previous work for other automatic
472 responses, including the increase in grip force following a load perturbation in the fingertip (Cole
473 and Abbs 1988; Crevecoeur et al. 2017), or a perturbation to the upper limb (Crevecoeur et al.
474 2016). The short latency indicates that these responses are not generated by the normal
475 polysynaptic cortical circuits that underlie voluntary and potentially arbitrary responses. The
476 ~67ms response also suggests that these automatic responses are not generated exclusively at
477 the level of the spinal cord, as known spinal reflexes (i.e., to muscle stretch) occur within ~20-
478 50ms (Weiler et al., 2019; Pierrot-Deseilligny et al., 2012). Feedback responses following
479 mechanical perturbations that arise >50 ms can potentially engage spinal, subcortical, and
480 cortical areas (Cheney and Fetz 1984; Evarts and Tanji, 1976; Pruszynski et al. 2011;
481 Pruszynski et al. 2014; Omrani et al., 2016; for review see, Scott, 2016). While the
482 neuroanatomical substrate that underlies these automatic responses remains to be determined,
483 our study predicts that somewhere in the nervous system, neurons that project to shoulder
484 muscles must receive relatively direct sensory input from tactile sensors in the hand. The
485 response we describe here is similar to the nociceptive withdrawal reflex, where cutaneous
486 inputs drive muscle responses to move the body away from a potentially dangerous stimulus
487 (Sherrington, 1910). Indeed, careful mapping of the withdrawal reflex has revealed an intricate
488 relationship between the location of the nociceptive stimulus and which muscles are recruited to
489 best move the limb away from the stimulus (Schouenborg and Kalliomäki, 1990; Levinsson et
490 al., 1999). A similar mapping and neural substrate could potentially underlie the responses
491 observed here. It should be noted, however, that the direction of function of the following
492 response is substantially different from the withdrawal reflex and thus may require different

493 descending modulation and/or directly engage brainstem and cortical circuits also known to
494 receive rapid somatosensory inputs (Scott, 2016).

495

496 *Combination of slip information with local muscle stretch*

497 In our experimental setup, we artificially dissociated the slip information and the torques acting
498 on the arm. In real world scenarios, however, a perturbation to a hand-held object will induce
499 both slip of the object in the hand and a torque at the shoulder joint. In other possible scenario,
500 the salience of the torque in the shoulder joint (proximal proprioceptive) will be higher in
501 comparison to the stimulation on the fingertips (distal somatosensory) resulting in a
502 preponderant response to the local perturbation in the joint. If the automatic response revealed
503 in the first two experiments indeed functions to stabilize the hand-held object, it must also be
504 functional in combination with stretch to the shoulder joint itself. The results from Experiment 3
505 clearly show that the automatic response to a slip is not overridden by the presence of a
506 perturbation to the shoulder, but rather combines with this locally generated response.

507 The experimental situation corresponds to the natural scenario in which a perturbation to
508 the arm causes a sudden acceleration of the limb. The inertia of the object then induces a slip of
509 the object in the opposite direction. If such slip is detected, the resistive reaction of the arm is
510 amplified, stabilizing the grasp on the object. While not reported here, pilot experiments also
511 indicated that this amplification was not observed when the object slip was in the same direction
512 of the arm perturbation. This arises from forces that are applied directly to the object, in which
513 case the arm should be more compliant to maintain a stable object grasp.

514 Processing of sensory information from the hand and the upper limb have been largely
515 studied in isolation (Delhaye et al. 2018; Scott, 2016); however, the integration of these two
516 sources of information for limb control suggest a confluence of these sensory sources on motor
517 structures. For example, spinal, subcortical (i.e., thalamus), and cortical (i.e., somatosensory
518 cortex) structures are known to receive information from both tactile sensors and muscle

519 spindles (Delhaye et al. 2018; Scott, 2016; Kim et al, 2015; Picard and Smith, 1992). Despite
520 that our experiment did not provide data to test a specific way of integration, one possibility is
521 that the observed combination might take place in regions that receive both types of information.
522 Alternatively, it remains possible that the signals are processed separately, and the combination
523 arises during convergence onto spinal motor neurons.

524 One limitation of our experiments is that we could only study a limited set of slip
525 directions in the horizontal plane. However, if the function of this automatic response is to
526 stabilize hand-held objects, the arm's response to slip should adapt flexibly to the configuration
527 of the arm in space, and to the configuration of the object in the hand. This would imply that slip
528 at the fingertips can also modulate automatic responses around the elbow joint. Such flexibility
529 remains to be experimentally shown. Other limitation of our setup is that regardless that we try
530 our best to constrain the arm and hand movement in the exoskeleton, it is impossible to
531 completely suppress any small change in finger configuration, and as a consequence afferent
532 feedback from the finger muscles was also likely contributing to some extent.

533 In summary, our paper demonstrates that somatosensory information at the hand elicits rapid
534 motor corrections in the shoulder that are suitable to stabilize hand-held objects, are sensitive to
535 the slipping direction and speed, and are integrated with local reflex responses at the shoulder.

536

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