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TITLE:

An emerging target paradigm evokes fast visuomotor responses on human upper limb muscles

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Stimulus-locked responses (SLRs), Reaction time (RT), Visually-guided reaches, Humans, Electromyography

SUMMARY:

We present a new behavioural paradigm that elicits robust fast visuomotor responses on human upper limb muscles during visually guided reaches.

30 **ABSTRACT:**

31 To reach towards a seen object, visual information has to be transformed into motor
32 commands. Visual information such as the object's colour, shape, and size is processed and
33 integrated within numerous brain areas, then ultimately relayed to the motor periphery. In
34 some instances we must react as fast as possible. These fast visuomotor transformations, and
35 their underlying neurological substrates, are poorly understood in humans as they have lacked
36 a reliable biomarker. Stimulus-locked responses (SLRs) are short latency (<100 ms) bursts of
37 electromyographic (EMG) activity representing the first wave of muscle recruitment influenced
38 by visual stimulus presentation. SLRs provide a quantifiable output of rapid visuomotor
39 transformations, but SLRs have not been consistently observed in all subjects in past studies.
40 Here we describe a new, behavioural paradigm featuring the sudden emergence of a moving
41 target below an obstacle that consistently evokes robust SLRs. Human participants generated
42 visually-guided reaches toward or away from the emerging target using a robotic
43 manipulandum while surface electrodes recorded EMG activity from the pectoralis major
44 muscle. In comparison to previous studies that investigated SLRs using static stimuli, the SLRs
45 evoked with this emerging target paradigm were larger, evolved earlier, and were present in all
46 participants. Reach reaction times (RTs) were also expedited in the emerging target paradigm.
47 This paradigm affords numerous opportunities for modification that could permit systematic
48 study of the impact of various sensory, cognitive, and motor manipulations on fast visuomotor
49 responses. Overall, our results demonstrate that an emerging target paradigm is capable of
50 consistently and robustly evoking activity within a fast visuomotor system.

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52

53 **INTRODUCTION:**

54 When we notice a message on our cellphone, we are prompted to perform a visually-guided
55 reach to pick up our phone and read the message. Visual features such as the shape and size of
56 the phone are transformed into motor commands allowing us to successfully reach our goal.
57 Such visuomotor transformations may be studied in laboratory conditions, which permit a high
58 degree of control. However, there are scenarios where response time is of the essence; for
59 example, catching our phone if it were to start to fall. Laboratory studies of fast visuomotor
60 behaviors often rely on displaced target paradigms where on-going movements are modified in
61 mid-flight following some change in target position (e.g.-(Soechting and Lacquaniti, 1983;
62 Veerman et al., 2008)). While such online corrections can occur in <150 ms (Day and Lyon,
63 2000), it is difficult to ascertain the exact timing of fast visuomotor output using kinematics
64 alone due to the low-pass filtering characteristics of the arm, and because such output is
65 superseding a movement already in mid-flight. Such complications lead to uncertainty about
66 the substrates underlying fast visuomotor responses (e.g.- see review by(Gaveau et al., 2014)).
67 Some studies suggest that subcortical structures such as the superior colliculus, rather than
68 fronto-parietal cortical areas, may initiate online correction (Day and Brown, 2001).

69

70 This uncertainty regarding underlying neural substrates may be due, at least in part, to the lack
71 of a reliable biomarker for the output of the fast visuomotor system. Recently, we have
72 described a novel measure of fast visuomotor responses that may be generated from static
73 postures and recorded via electromyography (EMG). Stimulus-locked responses (SLRs) are time

74 locked bursts of EMG activity that precede voluntary movement (Corneil et al., 2004; Pruszynski
75 et al., 2010), evolving consistently ~100 ms after stimulus onset. As the name implies, SLRs are
76 evoked by stimulus onset, persisting even if an eventual movement is withheld (Wood et al.,
77 2015) or moves in the opposite direction (Gu et al., 2016). Furthermore, SLRs evoked by target
78 displacement in a dynamic paradigm are associated with shorter latency online corrections, and
79 manipulations of sensory input that influence SLR timing also influence the timing of on-line
80 reach corrections (Kozak et al., 2019). Thus, SLRs provide an objective measure to
81 systematically study the output of a fast visuomotor system, as they may be generated from a
82 static posture and parsed from other EMG signals unrelated to the initial phase of the fast
83 visuomotor response.

84
85 All studies investigating the SLR have reported less than 100% detection rates across
86 participants, even when using more invasive intramuscular recordings (Pruszynski et al., 2010;
87 Wood et al., 2015; Gu et al., 2016). Low detection rates and a reliance on invasive recordings
88 limit the usefulness SLR measures in future investigations into the fast visuomotor system in
89 disease or across the lifespan. While it is possible that all subjects may simply not express the
90 SLR, it may also be the case that the stimuli and behavioural paradigm were not ideal. Past
91 reports of SLRs have used paradigms wherein participants generate visually-guided reaches
92 towards static, suddenly appearing targets (Pruszynski et al., 2010; Gu et al., 2016). However, a
93 fast visuomotor system is most likely needed in scenarios where we must rapidly interact with a
94 falling or flying object, leading us to wonder if moving rather than static stimuli may better
95 evoke SLRs. Here, we have adapted a moving target paradigm used to study eye movements
96 (Kowler, 1989), and combined it with a pro/anti visually guided reaching task used to examine
97 the SLR (Gu et al., 2016). We found the emerging target paradigm improved the magnitude and
98 detectability of the SLR, in comparison to past studies relying on static stimuli. The emerging
99 target paradigm also elicited shorter latency RTs. The purpose of this paper is to describe the
100 emerging target paradigm, and present results on SLR magnitude, across-subject prevalence
101 and RT in comparison to the static paradigm used previously. The emerging target paradigm can
102 also be modified in many different ways, which should promote more thorough investigations
103 into sensory, cognitive, or motor factors that promote or modify fast visuomotor responses.

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106 **PROTOCOL:**

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108 **1. Participant preparation**

109 1.1 After obtaining informed consent, participant preparation involves the application of EMGs
110 to the upper limb muscles and setup in the apparatus. The pectoralis major muscle is involved
111 in cross body reaching and provides a convenient location for electrode placement; therefore,
112 the remainder of the methods will focus on this muscle. You may target the clavicular head, and
113 if this location is not ideal then the sternal head, or the lateral portion of the pectoralis muscle
114 close to the shoulder. Reasons for alternative electrode placement may include excessive hair
115 or distribution of adipose, both of which may lower the signal to noise ratio of the EMG signal.
116 To ensure consistency within this experiment, we required all participants to use their right arm
117 for visually guided reaches regardless of handedness. Here we used a commercially available

118 system to record surface EMG activity (Delsys Inc. Bagnoli-8 system), however other recording
119 equipment or electrodes may be used.

120 1.1.1 Visualize the muscles from which you will be recording. For pectoralis major, ask
121 participants to relax elbows at sides and push palms together. This action will allow the
122 visualization of target muscle(s), as this action is similar to the one used to grasp and
123 manipulate the manipulandum.

124 1.1.2 Using alcohol swabs, clean the skin surface overlying the sternal and/or clavicular
125 heads of the pectoralis major of the reaching arm and skin overlying the contralateral
126 clavical; the latter will be the location of the ground electrode.

127 1.1.3 Apply double sided adhesive to Delsys surface sensors then apply small amount of
128 electrode gel to each of the parallel EMG sensors.

129 1.1.4 Ask participant to place palms together again and adhere sensors perpendicular to
130 the long axis of the visualized target muscle. Place ground electrode on left clavicle.

131 Secure sensors and ground electrodes to surrounding skin with medical tape and insert
132 sensor wires into Delsys amplifier.

133 1.1.5 We used a desktop computer connected to the Delsys system to provide real-time
134 monitoring of EMG activity throughout the experiment, and to help determine the
135 suitability of electrode placement. To determine a suitable placement, ask participant to
136 fully extend their right arm. During cross-body, leftward reaches, the peak EMG activity
137 should be at least 2 times the level of baseline activity (if not considerably higher),
138 whereas EMG activity should decrease from baseline during movements in the opposite
139 (right) direction. Reposition the electrodes if necessary to ensure that these activity
140 levels are observed.

141 1.2 We have set up participants in a bilateral endpoint robot (Kinarm, Kingston, Ontario,
142 Canada). Only the right manipulandum was used. SLRs have been reported in the context of
143 upper limb movements made in other platforms. The Kinarm endpoint robot allows reaching
144 movements in a horizontal plane, and the application of force to the manipulandum. Adding
145 force increases the background activity of the muscle of interest, allowing for expression of the
146 SLR as an increase or decrease in muscle activity following stimulus presentation in the muscle's
147 preferred or non-preferred direction, respectively. A level of baseline activity is especially useful
148 in the non-preferred direction, as baseline and non-preferred reaching activity in the pectoralis
149 muscle would be indistinguishable without a background loading force. We have applied 5N of
150 force to the right and 2N of force down (opposite to a leftward presented target relative to the
151 start position), throughout the entirety of the experiment.

152 1.2.1 Seat the participant in the experimental chair. Move and adjust the chair close
153 enough to the screen and robot so the participant is comfortable. With a constant force
154 applied to the arm for the duration of the experiment, the priority is to ensure the
155 participant is comfortable, as repeated changes in body posture may change
156 background muscle recruitment, while also ensuring that the recorded muscle is
157 recruited during the reaching task.

158

159 **2. Stimuli construction/ apparatus**

160 2.1 All experimental procedures used the KINARM endpoint robot system. All stimuli were
161 generated via the Kinarm apparatus using Matlab® (version R2016a, The MathWorks, Inc.,

162 Natick, Massachusetts, United States) Stateflow® and Simulink® applications. In our setup,
163 stimuli were presented via a VPIXX projector (Saint-Bruno, QC, Canada) custom integrated into
164 the Kinarm platform to ensure high quality visual images and event timing.

165 2.1.1 The emerging target paradigm contains 4 primary components, all of which are
166 referenced here in relation to the midpoint of the two robot manipulandum origins in
167 the Kinarm endpoint robot (reported in cm). An **inverted y path** (y: -19 (top of inverted
168 y) or -34 (bottom of inverted y), x: -/+2 (inner, bottom inverted y), -/+8 (outer bottom
169 inverted y); width .5 height: 20 (top) or 15 (bottom)), an **occluder** (centered at: 0, -29;
170 width: 35 height: 15), a **moving target** which moves down the inverted y and behind the
171 occluder (start: 0, -17; radius: 1; speed: 10 cm/s, speed behind occluder: 30 cm/s), and
172 **start position** (0, -42; radius 1) (See Supplementary material for screen shot).

173 2.1.2 The occluder contains a notch cut out on the center bottom between the two
174 outputs (0, -29; width: 5 height: 5). The participant is instructed to: “fixate the notch
175 while a target is behind the occluder”. Doing so ensures the eye is stable at target
176 emergence.

177 178 **3. Procedure**

179 3.1 Throughout a trial, the distal portions of the “inverted Y” path, the occluder box, and a
180 white cursor representing the participant’s hand position were present (See Supplementary
181 material for screen shot). The participant’s hand/arm was occluded during the experiment via
182 an upward facing mirror reflecting downward-presented targets. Hand position was
183 represented in the position as a real-time cursor (RTC) projected onto the screen. At the
184 beginning of each trial, two stationary white dots are also presented to the participant. The dot
185 above the occluder (T1) will become the eventual reach target. The other dot (T0) was located
186 below the occluder, and represents the central start position.

187 3.1.1 For each trial, a participant brings the RTC into the central start position T0.
188 Motion of T1 starts once the RTC remains aligned with T0 for a variable duration of 1-
189 1.5 s. If the participant exits the T0 start position before the prescribed time, the trial
190 will start again. The occluder will either be green, instructing the subject to generate a
191 pro-reach toward the target when it emerges from below the occluder, or red,
192 instructing the subject to generate an anti-reach away from the emerging target. T0
193 disappeared once T1 begins moving, at which point no restrictions are placed on the
194 subject’s arm motion.

195 3.1.2 After T1 reaches the occluder, it moves behind the occluder and travels at a
196 constant speed of 30 cm/s along the y axis. Once T1 reaches half the length of the
197 occluder, it bifurcates along one of the inverted y outputs with an additional x axis
198 speed of 30cm/s. Thus, speed along the y axis is kept constant. The side T1 appears at
199 the bottom of the inverted ‘y’ is randomized. The target vanishes for ~0.5 s, depending
200 on the size of the occluder and the speed of T1 motion.

201 3.1.3 Once T1 reaches the edge of the occluder closest to the participant, instead of
202 sliding past the edge of the occluder to create an initial ‘half-moon’ stimulus, T1 is
203 invisible to the participant until the full target has moved below the occluder. This is
204 done to control for visual processing effects of partial stimuli, especially if different
205 speeds of targets are used which would cross the boundary at different times. A partial

206 emergence of a target (e.g.- half moon stimulus) produce a target composed initially of
207 a higher spatial frequency, which based on our previous results would lead to increased
208 SLR latency and decreased magnitude (Kozak et al., 2019).

209 3.1.4 Simultaneous with target appearance, a secondary target is presented in the
210 corner of the screen, at a location covered by a photodiode. This target presented to the
211 “corner” photodiode is not seen by the subject, but provides an analog signal that
212 allows for the precise alignment of target appearance with muscle activity. This veridical
213 signal is needed to account for any delay between the time that presentation software
214 requests that the target emerges below the obstacle, and the time at which such
215 emergence actually happens. Prior to data collection in any setup, we recommend using
216 multiple photodiodes (one over the corner stimulus, others over where the targets
217 emerge) to identify any lags in stimulus timing and ensure minimal trial-by-trial
218 variability.

219 3.1.5 If the occluder is green, the participant is instructed to perform a pro-reach
220 towards the emerging target, and intersect it, at which point the trial will end. If the
221 occluder is red the participant must perform an anti-reach in the opposite direction of
222 the target. The ‘inverted y’ path of T1 promotes leftward and rightward reaches in the
223 pectoralis major muscles preferred and non-preferred direction, respectively.

224 3.1.6 Correct feedback is provided after the trial as either a ‘HIT’ (correct interception),
225 ‘WRONGWAY’ (incorrect direction for pro/anti reach), or ‘MISS’ (neither correct nor
226 incorrect responses detected). This feedback is written in the middle of the occluder in
227 the inter-trial interval. In the anti-reach conditions, a correct interception (moving away
228 from a target) is not based on the mirror image of T1, but rather the horizontal distance
229 relative to T0. Distance is also used to determine a ‘MISS’ trial, where a target had
230 moved a certain distance off of the screen and no correct or incorrect response was
231 detected.

232 3.2 The procedure was split into 4 blocks of 100 trials each. Trial types were randomly
233 intermixed. Each participant performed 100 reaches per unique condition (targets emerging left
234 or right, pro- or anti-reach conditions; 4 trial types total). It is recommended that each
235 condition consists of a minimum of ~80 reaches per condition when using surface recordings, as
236 the next analysis step relies on data from many trials for SLR detection. Each block took
237 approximately 7.5 minutes to complete.

238 3.3 For the purpose of comparison, we have also included a ‘static’ pro-reach and anti-reach
239 paradigm, similar to paradigm reported in (Gu et al., 2016). Doing so allows us to compare the
240 properties of SLRs recorded in the emerging target task to those recorded in a task used
241 previously. Briefly, all recording methods are identical as listed above. The key difference lies in
242 the nature of the behavioural paradigm, which involves only T0 (at the start position) and the
243 presentation of a static target to the left or right. The start position (T0) is in the same position
244 as in the emerging target paradigm (y: 0, x: -42, relative to the midpoint between the robotic
245 manipulandum origins). The radius of T0 is larger ($r=2$), and the colour of T0 changes to red or
246 green to instruct the subject to generation a pro or anti reach in response to T1. T target (T1)
247 appears 10 cm to the left or right of T0 after a randomized hold period (1-2s where the
248 participants RTC must remain inside of T0; this period also serves as the instruction period
249 based on the color of T0). As in the emerging target paradigm, a participant must reach towards

250 a target if T0 is green, and reach in the diametrically opposite direction away from a target if T0
251 is red. As in Gu et al. 2016, the appearance of T1 was synchronous with the disappearance of
252 T0.

253

254 4. Analysis

255 4.1 Each block of data gathered from a participant has a downloadable .zip file containing
256 kinematic data from each trial, as well as Delsys EMG surface recordings and photodiode output
257 saved as analog inputs. These files are then unzipped and analyzed offline via custom Matlab
258 scripts. Data was sampled at 1000 Hz. Error trials were not analyzed, as indicated by incorrect
259 reach directions (3.5 cm in the wrong direction), long RTs (>500 ms) indicating presumed
260 inattentiveness or short RTs (<120) indicating anticipation. The following details our method of
261 analysis of SLRs and RTs, although alternative methods may also be suitable.

262 4.1.1 Reaction time was defined as 8% of the peak tangential velocity.

263 4.1.2 To analyze muscle activity offline, customized Matlab scripts convert the signals to
264 source microvolts, and remove any DC offset, rectify the EMG signal, and filter the signal
265 with a 7-point moving average filter.

266 4.1.3 A time-series receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) analysis is used to detect the
267 presence and latency of the SLR (Corneil et al., 2004; Pruszynski et al., 2010), by defining
268 the probability by which an ideal observer can discriminate through time the side of
269 stimulus presentation based only on EMG activity. In our experiment, the ROC values
270 were based on two distributions of EMG activity following leftward or rightward
271 stimulus presentation (e.g.- Fig. 2c red versus light red traces). The ROC value (i.e., the
272 area under the ROC curve) was calculated and plotted at every time sample (1ms) from
273 100 ms before to 300 ms after target presentation (Fig. 1b or 2c). A ROC value of .5
274 indicates chance discrimination, whereas values of 1 or 0 indicate perfectly correct or
275 incorrect discrimination relative to target presentation, respectively. Discrimination
276 thresholds was set to 0.6, and the discrimination latency was determined as the first of
277 8 of 10 consecutive points that exceeded this value (Fig. 2c indicated by vertical red or
278 blue lines). These parameters (threshold, and number of points exceeding threshold)
279 may change depending on the quality and quantity of surface or intramuscular EMG
280 recordings, and a bootstrapping analysis may be used to objectively determine
281 confidence intervals. Past work of ours has shown that a value of 0.6 equates
282 approximately to a 95% confidence interval (Goonetilleke et al., 2015).

283 4.1.3.1 We then determined the **presence** of an SLR on pro-reach trials using a
284 RT-split analysis (see Fig.1, (Wood et al., 2015)). Briefly, this analysis determines
285 whether EMG activity is more locked to stimulus onset rather than movement
286 onset by using two separate time-series ROC analyses. First, trials from left and
287 right directions are sorted and divided in 'early' and 'late' RT groups (Fig. 1a). A
288 time-series ROC analysis is performed separately on early and late groups (Fig.
289 1b), which yields separate EMG discrimination times for both groups. The ROC
290 discrimination times are then plotted against the mean RTs for their respective
291 early and late groups. This plot yields two points (early discrimination/RT versus
292 late discrimination/RT) that are connected via a line (Fig. 1c). For this line, a
293 slope of 90 deg would indicate that EMG discrimination times are locked to

294 stimulus presentation, whereas a slope of 45 deg would indicate that EMG
295 discrimination are locked to movement onset. In practice, we used a cut-off
296 slope of 67.5 degrees (halfway between 45 and 90 deg) to detect whether an SLR
297 was present (slope > 67.5 deg) or not (slope < 67.5 deg).
298 4.1.3.2 If SLR presence is determined, the **SLR latency** is defined by the
299 discrimination latency from all the trials (4.1.3). After finding the discrimination
300 latency, the same opposing left and right reaches were used to determine the
301 **SLR magnitude** of the response. Left and right mean EMG traces were overlaid
302 on the same plot (Fig. 2c dark red versus light red traces). Magnitude is
303 calculated as the difference between left and right mean EMG traces from SLR
304 latency to 30 ms post discrimination latency.

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308 REPRESENTATIVE RESULTS:

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FIGURE 1

FIGURE 2

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313 FIGURES AND TABLES:

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FIGURE 3

FIGURE 4

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319 FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS:

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FIGURE 1. Example of an SLR from a representative participant, illustrating our detection criteria. a) Trial-by-trial recruitment for right pectoralis major muscle for right or left reaches in the pro-reach condition. Each row is a different trial. Intensity of colour conveys the magnitude of EMG activity. Trials are sorted by reach RT (white boxes) and aligned to stimulus onset (black line). The SLR appears as a vertical banding of activity highlighted by grey boxes; note how EMG activity increases or decreases time-locked ~90 ms after leftward or rightward stimulus presentation, respectively. Purple or green bars indicate the trials contributing to the early or late RT groups, respectively. b) Time-series ROC analysis indicating time of EMG discrimination for early (purple) and late (green) trials shown in (a). c) For the early (purple) and late (green) group, mean RT is plotted as a function of ROC discrimination. The slope of the line connecting these two points is 83.7 degrees, indicating that EMG activity is more aligned to stimulus presentation than movement onset. SLR detection requires that the slope of this line exceed 67.5 degrees (halfway between 45 and 90).

336 FIGURE 2. Representative results from participants 1 and 2, showing the variability in the
337 presence or absence of SLRs in the static (1st and 3rd rows), and the consistency of SLR presence

338 in the emerging target paradigms (2nd and 4th rows). A) Trial-by-trial recruitment for right
339 pectoralis major muscle for these participants (same format as Fig. 1a). Conditions exhibiting an
340 SLR are outlined in purple (2nd, 3rd and 4th rows). B) Mean +/- SE of EMG activity for both pro
341 (red) and anti (blue) reaches, segregated by side of stimulus presentation (fainter traces used
342 for movements in the non-preferred direction). Note how EMG activity in the SLR interval often
343 initially increases after leftward stimulus presentation, even on anti-reach trials where the
344 reaches proceed to the right (light blue traces). C) Time-series ROC analysis for pro (red) and
345 anti (blue) reaches shown in (b). SLR epoch highlighted in grey box; horizontal dashed lines at
346 0.4 and 0.6. Vertical coloured lines (if present in pro condition) show the discrimination time for
347 pro- (red) or anti- (blue) reach trials.

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349
350 FIGURE 3. Effects of an emerging target paradigm on SLR characteristics and reach RT. A) SLR
351 latency (purple) and magnitude (green) for pro reaches in static versus emerging target
352 paradigms. Latency defined as first 8 out of 10 continuous data points surpassing ROC threshold
353 of .6 (see methods). Magnitude of SLR is defined as the integrated area over 30 ms after SLR
354 discrimination between the mean EMG activity on left versus right trials. All magnitudes were
355 normalized to the maximum for the participant across conditions (e.g.- a value of 1 indicates
356 the maximal response). B) SLR prevalence and reach RT. SLR prevalence determined with RT
357 split analysis (see methods and Fig. 1). RT determined at 8% of the peak tangential velocity. C)
358 SLR magnitude and latency results from pro and anti-reaches in the emerging target paradigm.
359 A) and B) demonstrates how fast visuomotor responses, be they SLRs or reach RTs, and
360 expedited in the emerging target versus static paradigm. C) shows how a cognitive
361 manipulation to prepare for a pro- or anti-reach influences SLR magnitude but not timing. *
362 denotes significance at $p < .05$ compared to static or anti condition based on unpaired t-test.

363
364 FIGURE 4. Summary of participant data. Same format as Fig. 2b and 2c, showing data across all
365 five participants.

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367

368 **TABLE OF MATERIALS:**

Name of Material/ Equipment	Company	Catalog Number	Comments/Description
Kinarm End-Point Robot	Kinarm		Other reaching apparatus may be used
Bagnoli Desktop System	Delsys		Other EMG recording equipment may be used.

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371 **SUPPLEMENTARY FILES:**

372 Supplementary Fig. 1

373

374 **DISCUSSION:**

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376 Humans have a remarkably capacity, when needed, to generate rapid, visually-guided actions at
377 latencies that approach minimal afferent and efferent conduction delays. Systematic study of
378 the neural mechanisms underlying rapid, visually-guided reaches is complicated by the arm's
379 inertia and the fact that responses such as rapid on-line corrections supersede a movement
380 already in mid-flight. We have previously described stimulus-locked responses (SLRs) on the
381 upper limb as a new measure for rapid visuomotor responses (Pruszynski et al., 2010; Gu et al.,
382 2016; Kozak et al., 2019). While beneficial in providing a trial-by-trial benchmark for the first
383 aspect of upper limb muscle recruitment influenced by the visual stimulus, limb SLRs have not
384 been expressed in all subjects and often relied upon invasive intramuscular recordings. Here,
385 we describe an 'emerging target paradigm', in which subjects reach from a stable posture in
386 response to the emergence of a moving visual target from behind an occluder. The benefits of
387 the emergent target paradigm are apparent within individual participants, as participants who
388 does not express the SLR in a paradigm used previously express one in the emerging target
389 paradigm (e.g., Fig. 2, participant 1- 1st row versus 2nd row). Furthermore, SLRs expressed in the
390 emerging target paradigm are much larger than in other paradigms, sometimes attaining
391 magnitudes that approach that obtained just before movement onset (Fig. 2, participant 2; Fig.
392 4, participant 5). Thus, this paradigm has proven to be effective in increasing the magnitude
393 (Fig. 3a), detectability of the SLR (Fig. 3b), and promoting shorter RTs by approximately 50 ms
394 (Fig. 3b), compared to the use of static targets.

395

396 Which features of the emerging target paradigm lead to robust expression of fast visuomotor
397 responses? We speculate that a critical aspect is the implied motion of the target behind the
398 occluder (supplemental material Fig. 1). Implied motion produces strong signals in motion-
399 related areas in the dorsal visual stream that are indistinguishable from those produced by
400 visible moving targets (Krekelberg et al., 2005). Our implementation of the emerging target
401 paradigm also incorporated a high degree of certainty of the time at which the target would re-
402 appear. The disappearance and subsequent emergence of the target behind the barrier may be
403 akin to a 'gap interval' between offset of a central fixation or hold stimulus and presentation of
404 a peripheral target, which also expedites reach reaction times (Gribble et al., 2002) and
405 promotes the expression of express saccades (Paré and Munoz, 1996), which are another type
406 of fast visuomotor response. Finally, it is important that the target emerging from behind the
407 barrier is presented in its entirety, rather than being presented as sliding from behind the
408 barrier. Were the target to slide past the barrier, the earliest stimulus available to the visual
409 system would be a 'half-moon' stimulus that would lack the lower spatial frequencies known to
410 promote earlier and stronger expression of limb SLRs (Kozak et al., 2019). In addition to these
411 theoretical considerations, it is important to position the outlets for the emerging targets at
412 locations associated with the preferred or non-preferred direction of the muscle(s) under study.
413 Introducing a background loading force to increase activity of the muscle of interest is also
414 beneficial in the detection of limb SLRs, as recruitment would increase or decrease for
415 presentation of the target in the preferred or non-preferred direction, respectively. Finally,
416 given the short latency of the limb SLR, it is imperative to ensure that the time of target
417 emergence is known on every trial; depending on make and model, digital screens or projectors

418 can introduce quite variable delays in stimulus presentation which could compromise accurate
419 alignment of muscle activity to critical events.

420
421 There are a number of ways in which the emerging target paradigm could be modified, and
422 doing so can further the understanding of the sensory, cognitive, and movement-related factors
423 that influence the fast visuomotor system. Here, we instructed the subjects to prepare to move
424 toward (a pro-reach) or away (an anti-reach) from the emerging target. As expected from
425 previous results (Gu et al., 2016), consolidation of this instruction enabled subjects to dampen
426 SLR magnitude without changing SLR timing. This shows that the neural centres mediating the
427 SLR can be pre-set by higher-order areas establishing task set, prior to target emergence. There
428 are numerous other dimensions in which the task could be modified to manipulate cognitive
429 factors, for example by altering the predictability of target appearance in either time (i.e.,
430 making the timing of emergence less predictable) or space (i.e., biasing target emergence to
431 one side or another, or providing endogenous cues to indicate the side of emergence).
432 Manipulations of the sensory parameters of the emerging target (e.g., the speed, contrast, size,
433 or colour of the emerging stimulus, or the presence of competing distractors) will also provide
434 insights into underlying substrates. Presenting a static rather than moving target below the
435 barrier would also help parse the effects of target motion versus temporal predictability on the
436 robustness of the limb SLR. Finally, from a motor perspective, the framework of the emerging
437 target paradigm can be extended to bilateral reaching movements, and establishing the
438 presence of robust SLRs on upper limb muscles potentiates the investigation the distribution of
439 such signals to other trunk or limb muscles.

440
441 One of the challenges associated with this paradigm, perhaps paradoxically, is the degree to
442 which reach RTs were shortened. Our SLR detection criteria resembled that used previously
443 (Goonetilleke et al., 2015), as we ran separate time-series ROC analyses for the shorter- or
444 longer-than median RT groups. Doing so requires some degree of variance in reach RTs, and in
445 practice we have found that reach RTs are shorter and less variable in the emerging target
446 paradigm compared to the static paradigm (279 +/- 58 ms (static); 207 +/- 34 ms (dynamic)).
447 Indeed, RTs were sometimes shortened to such a degree that the movement-related volley of
448 EMG activity often blended into the SLR interval. Consequently, the time-series ROC often rose
449 directly from values near 0.5 to values near 1.0, without displaying the brief decrease after the
450 SLR that was required for detection in ((Wood et al., 2015); see Fig 4, participant 1,2,4,5). We
451 expect that the detection criteria for SLRs may continue to evolve and will likely have to be
452 optimized to the specifics of the task at hand. Other task manipulations, perhaps by increasing
453 the temporal uncertainty of target re-emergence or requiring that subjects wait to move for a
454 short interval after target emergence (e.g., by waiting for the emerged target to change colour),
455 may help increase the mean and variance of reach RTs and separate recruitment during the SLR
456 interval from that associated with movement onset.

457
458 In closing, and mindful of the challenges associated with shorter and more invariant reach RTs,
459 the framework of the emerging target paradigm will advance the study of rapid visuomotor
460 responses, by providing a means to obtain robust expression of upper limb SLRs. It is
461 particularly noteworthy that all of the results reported here were obtained with surface

462 recordings, as this will enable study of SLRs in populations that may be less amenable to
463 intramuscular recording, like the young, the elderly, or the infirm. We also expect that the
464 emerging target paradigm could be extended into animal studies in non-human primates and
465 combined with neurophysiological techniques. Together with future work in humans that can
466 rapidly explore the numerous sensory, cognitive, and motor dimensions of the task, the
467 emerging target paradigm should potentiate hypothesis-driven explorations of the fast
468 visuomotor system.

469
470

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481 **DISCLOSURES:**

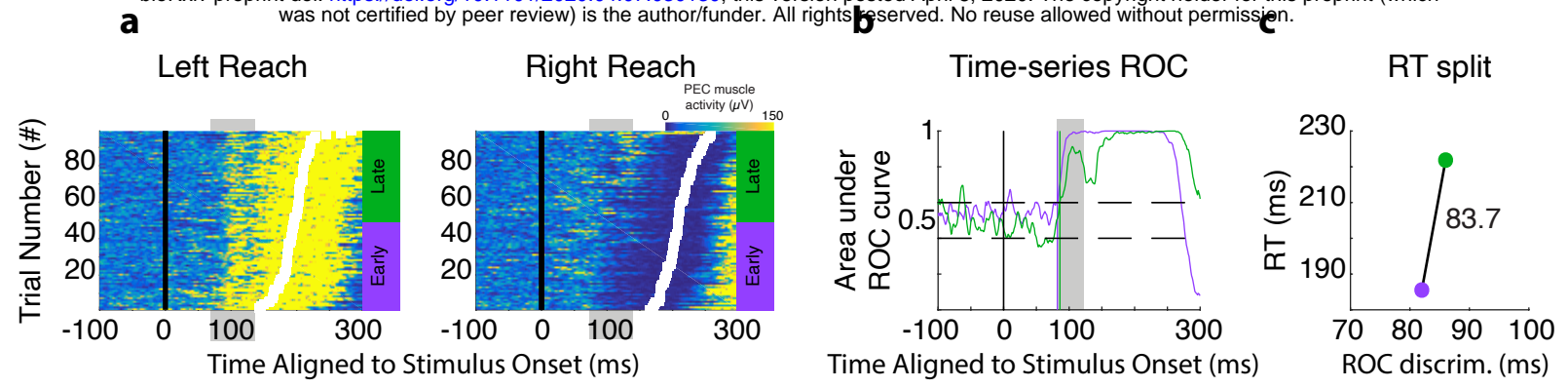
482 The authors have nothing to disclose

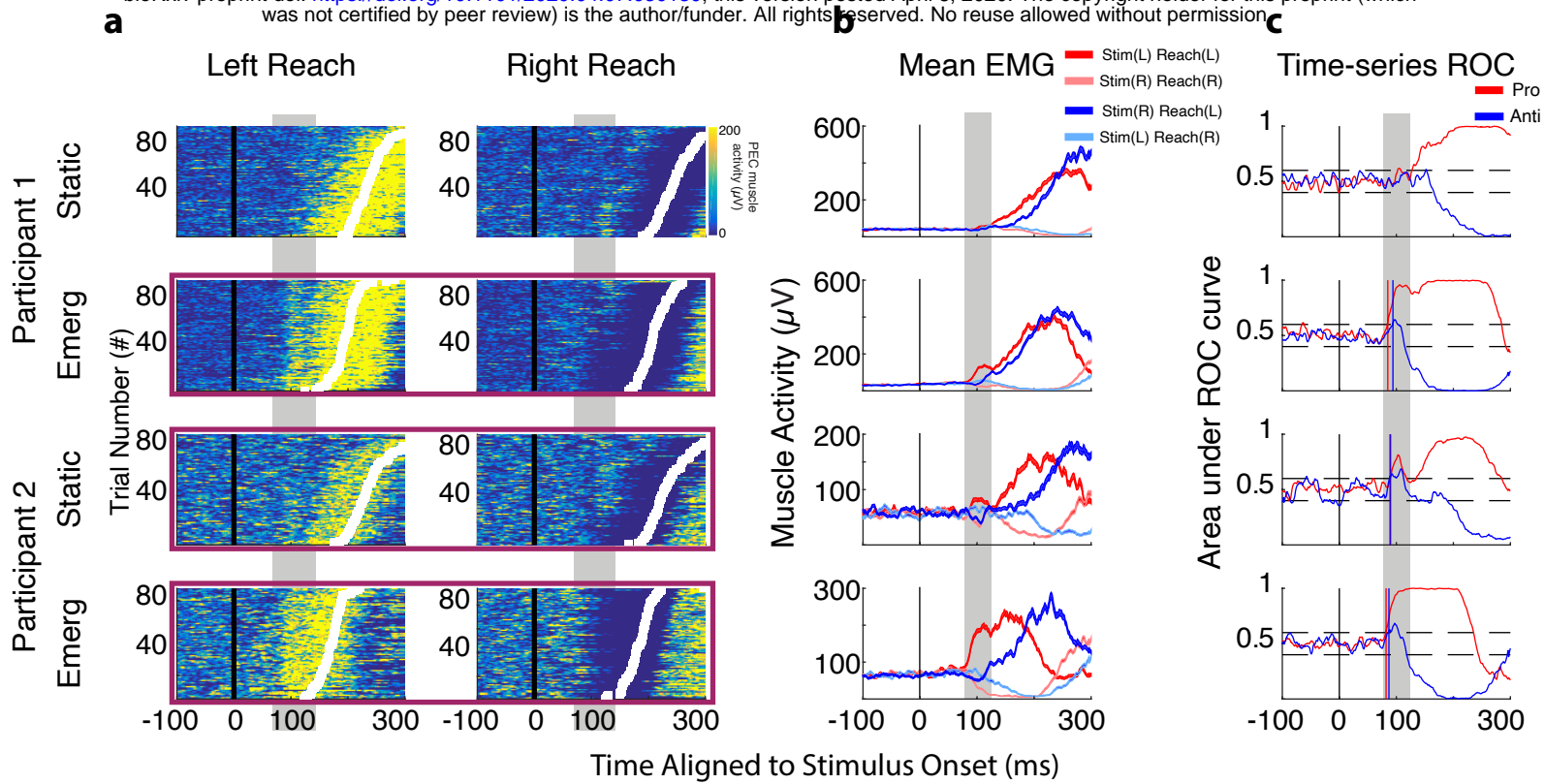
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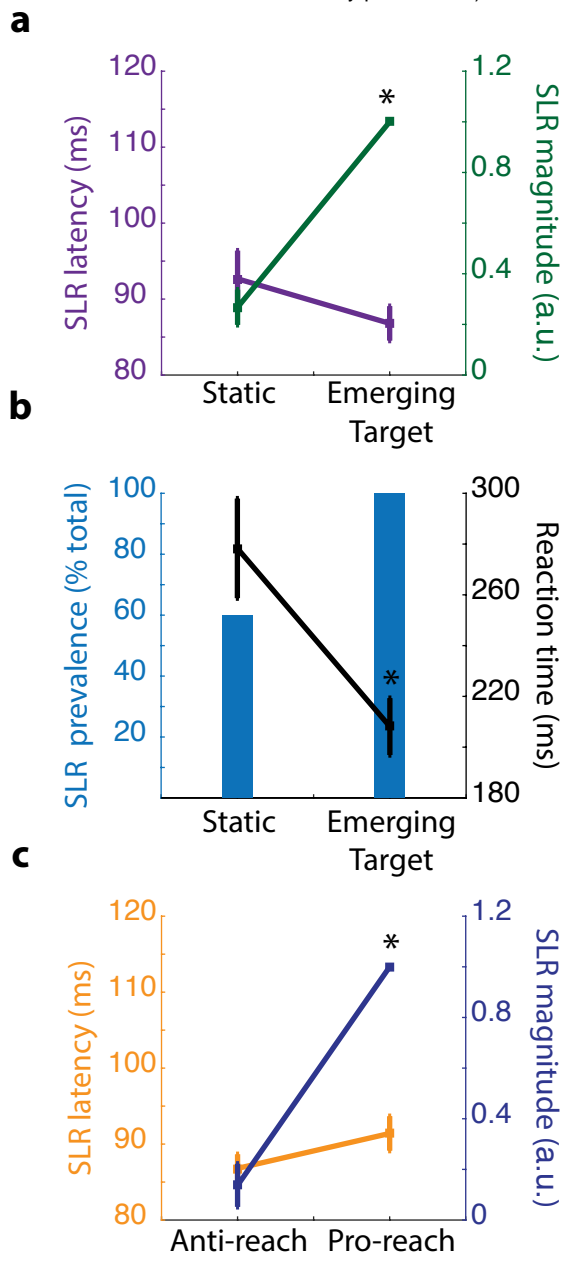


Figure 3-Kozak et al. 2020

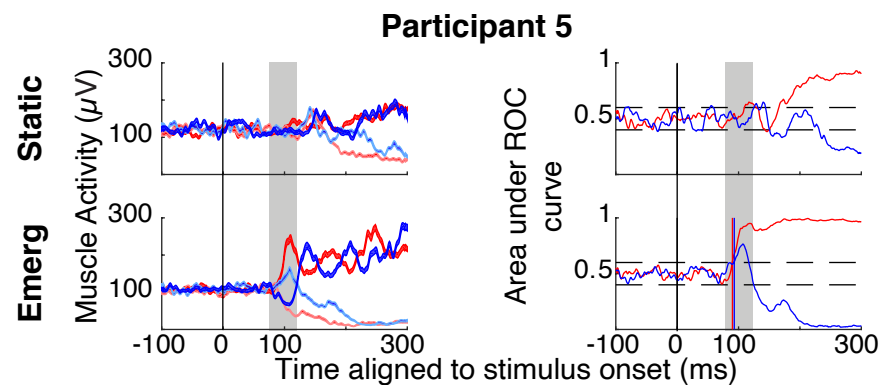
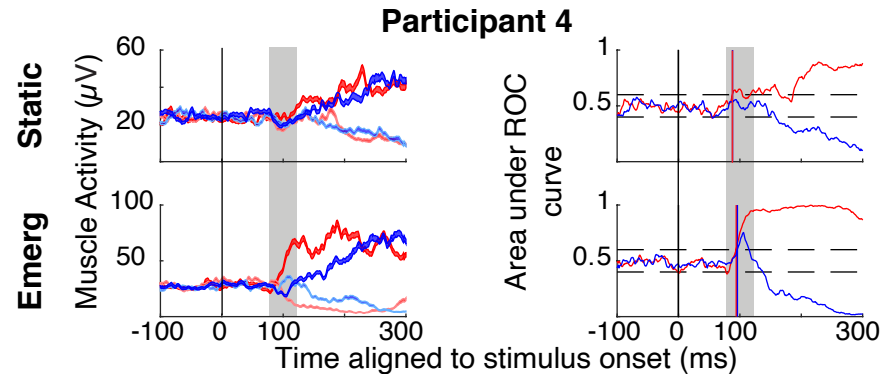
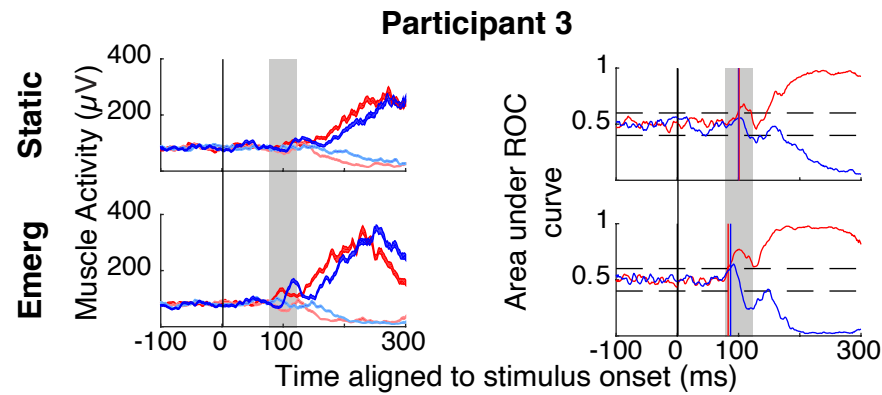
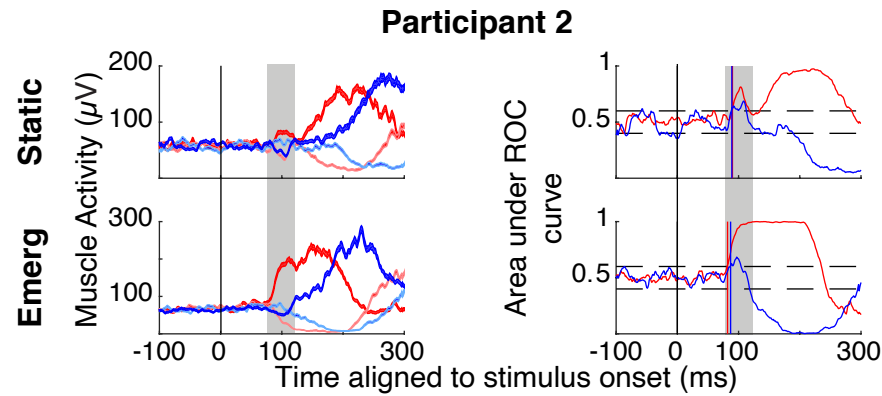
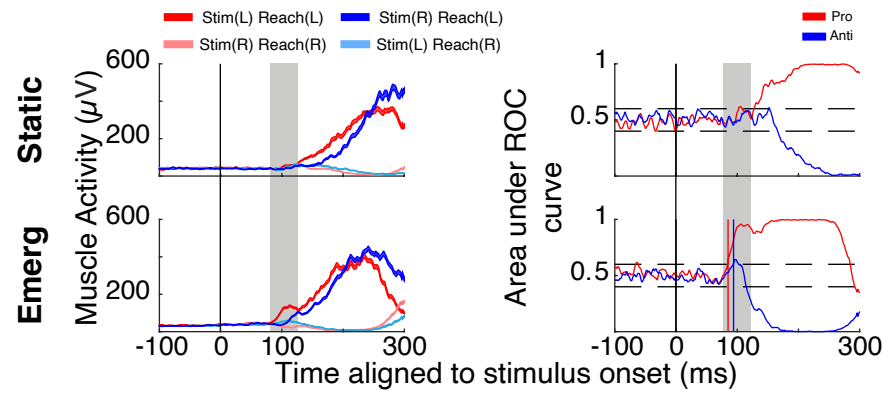


Figure 4-Kozak et al. 2020

