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1 A pipelining mechanism supporting previewing during visual exploration and reading

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9 Abstract

10 Humans have a remarkable ability to efficiently explore visual scenes and text by means of 11 eye-movements. Humans typically make eye-movements (saccades) every ~250ms. Since the 12 saccadic motor planning and execution takes 100ms this leaves only ~150ms to recognize the 13 fixated object (or word), while simultaneously previewing candidates for the next saccade 14 goal. We propose a *pipelining mechanism* that efficiently can coordinate visual exploration 15 and reading. The mechanism is timed by alpha oscillations that coordinate the saccades, 16 visual recognition and previewing in the cortical hierarchy. Consequently, the neuronal 17 mechanism supporting visual processing and saccades must be studied in unison to uncover the brain mechanism supporting visual exploration and reading. 18

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21 Highlights

22 23	•	Humans have a remarkable ability to efficiently acquire information from visual scenes and pages of text by means of saccadic exploration.
24 25 26	•	Visual exploration is surprisingly efficient given the temporal and spatial constraints imposed by the visual system. As such, both information from current fixations as well as upcoming locations must be processed within a 150 ms time window.
27 28	•	New data recording in humans and non-human primates points to a link between the timing of saccades and alpha oscillations.
29 30	•	We present a framework in which visual exploration and reading are supported by similar neuronal mechanisms.
31 32	•	We propose a novel mechanism in which visual exploration and reading is supported by a pipelining mechanism organized by alpha oscillations.
33 34	•	According to the pipelining mechanism, fixated and previewed objects/words are represented at different phases of an alpha cycle.
35		

37 Main text

38 Our understanding of the visual system presents an intriguing conundrum: How do we 39 manage to efficiently explore visual scenes and text by eye-movements given the relative 40 slow and spatially limited processing capabilities of the human visual system? We saccade 41 every 250 - 300 ms when reading and visually exploring natural scenes. Given that it takes 42 about 100 ms to initiate and execute a saccadic motor program, there is only 150 - 200 ms 43 available to process the fixated object or word while in parallel planning the next saccade. 44 Importantly, since saccades typically land on informative objects or words [1, 2] (Figure 1), a 45 parafoveal previewing process is required when exploring and deciding on the next saccade 46 goal. Thus, ultra-fast neuronal computation is essential for supporting saccadic exploration; 47 however, we still need to uncover how the visual system can achieve this remarkable 48 computational feat. The fast computation must rely on a highly tuned machinery in which 49 eye-movements are coordinated with visual input [3]. As such, even small maladaptations can 50 exacerbate problems in visual perception and possibly result in reading disorders.

51 The temporal constraints during visual exploration and reading

52 As mentioned above, the identification of current objects (pre-targets) as well as the saccade 53 decision on future saccade goals (targets) must be made within 150 ms after fixating on the 54 current object. This is because saccades are initiated as often as every 250 ms and it takes 55 about 100ms to initiate and execute a saccadic program towards the target [4, 5]. It takes 56 about 60 ms for information to travel from the retina to the visual cortex leaving about 90 ms 57 for neocortical processing of the fixated object (Figure 2A-B). What is the evidence that 58 visual objects can be identified within 150 ms? Multivariate approaches applied to MEG data 59 allow for identifying the *neuronal fingerprint* associated with representation of semantic 60 features [6]. It was found that naturalness and animacy can be decoded from multivariate brain activity at respectively 122 ms and 157 ms after stimulus onset [6]. This timing is 61 62 consistent with intracranial recordings in monkeys in which object category was decoded within 125 ms in the inferior temporal cortex [7]. Relating visual input to existing memory 63 64 representations engaged the medial temporal lobe (i.e. parahippocampal areas, entorhinal cortex and hippocampus) at 150 - 200 ms after stimulus onset (for a review see [8]). In 65 66 humans, event-related potentials increase in response to objects embedded in inconsistent compared to consistent scenes at about 300 - 400 ms (an N400 type response) [9-11]. 67 68 However, this ERP response is so late that it cannot reflect early recognition. In short, 69 electrophysiological studies suggest that it is possible to identify visual objects at the 70 semantic level ("meaning") within 150 ms. However, within the same 150 ms time-window 71 future saccade goals must be explored and selected. Given that several processes must be 72 completed within this short time-window, this poses a serious computational challenge to the 73 visual system (Figure 2B). Parafoveal previewing prior to the saccade can serve to reduce 74 recognition of the fixated object to about 110 ms [4, 5, 12]. This then leaves ~40 ms more for 75 previewing the upcoming saccade goal (Figure 2C); i.e. it buys time to alter the saccade plan 76 if, for instance, the saccade goal is deemed uninformative. We suggest that the acceleration of 77 visual processing by previewing might be essential for efficient visual exploration.

- 78 The temporal constraints during reading are equally tight. After the retinal input has arrived 79 in occipital cortex at 60 ms, the visual word form area (VWFA) is engaged for orthographic processing at about 90 ms [13] (Figure 2D-E). Later follows lexical access and semantic 80 81 recognition supported by different parts of the left temporal cortex [13]. Eye-tracking 82 research has demonstrated that fixation times are longer for low- compared to high-frequency 83 words [12, 14] and that the word-frequency effect is present a least within 150 ms as revealed 84 by survival analysis [15, 16]. This implies that lexical identification completes before the 85 motor program of the next saccade is initiated [4]; i.e. within 150 ms (Figure 2E). 86 Electrophysiological findings quantifying ERPs and ERFs also support the notion that lexical 87 identification happens within 150 ms [17-19]. As for natural vision, this presents an 88 intriguing problem: if lexical access takes 150 ms and saccade programming about 100 ms, 89 lexical retrieval of the fixated word as well as previewing the next word in the parafovea 90 must be completed within 150 ms [4, 20] (Figure 2E). Previewing will serve to reduce the 91 lexico-semantic recognition possibly to about 110 ms [4, 5, 12], which will leave time to 92 preview the next saccade goal (Figure 2F). This allows just enough time to alter the saccade 93 plan if the next word is deemed uninformative (e.g. the).
- 94

95 The spatial constraints during visual exploration and reading

96 The visual system also holds an interesting spatial conundrum: Visual acuity drops 97 dramatically for parafoveal vision (2–5 degrees relative to the current fixation) while our eyes 98 can still saccade to relevant (and not necessarily salient) parts of visual scenes [1, 2, 21] 99 (Figure 1). As for visual exploration of natural scenes, it is of great interest to consider the 100 spatial perceptual span in relation to parafoveal visual acuity [22, 23]. Using gaze-contingent 101 paradigms that occlude the peripheral view, it was demonstrated that the radius of the 102 effective visual span is about 8 degrees [24]. Likewise, by applying an *artificial scotoma* that 103 moves with the gaze, participants could still perform a visual search task when occluding up

104 to 4.1 degrees of the field of view. Even peripheral gist information is extracted in this type 105 of paradigm [25]. The relatively large visual span in combination with reduced acuity for 106 parafoveal vision begs the question: in which detail do we process an object before we 107 saccade to it? [26]. In the light of this question, it is debated whether objects are previewed at 108 the semantic level [26, 27]. For instance, studies have shown that search times are faster for 109 objects embedded in inconsistent visual scenes (e.g. a tube of toothpaste in the living room) 110 as compared to consistent scenes (e.g. a tube of toothpaste in the bathroom) [28]; however, it 111 is debated whether this reflects semantic previewing [29, 30]. A recent EEG study 112 investigated fixation-related potentials (FRPs) in response to pre-target objects prior to 113 saccading to target objects that were embedded in either consistent or inconsistent scenes. 114 Larger FRPs were found for objects embedded in inconsistent as compared to consistent 115 scenes [31]. Specifically a larger negative potential at ~300 ms (akin to the N400 type ERP 116 effect) was observed in response to fixations at the pre-target object when the target was 117 inconsistent with the scene. This finding provides support for semantic previewing.

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119 As for reading, the spatial perceptual span in relation to parafoveal visual acuity has been 120 investigated using gaze-contingent paradigms in which performance is measured when the 121 text is occluded to the left and/or right of the gaze. This results in the conclusion that the 122 visual span extends 14-15 letter spaces (2-3 words) to the right of fixation and 3-4 letters to 123 the left [32]. Interestingly, this effect is reversed in readers of Hebrew who read from right to 124 left [33]. Therefore, the spatial perceptual span in reading is also not constrained by the 125 reduction in visual acuity of extra-foveal vision. However, it has been shown that occluding the word just to the right of fixation, reduces reading-speed by 25-40 ms per word [12]. 126 127 Interestingly, making the fixated word disappear after 60 ms hardly impacts reading, but 128 making the parafoveal word disappear after 60ms, increases reading times substantially [34]. 129 As such there is strong evidence that fluent reading relies on previewing.

Again, in which detail is upcoming text previewed in the parafovea? There is strong evidence for previewing at the sub-lexical level (e.g. orthographic and phonological levels). Experiments using the gaze-contingent boundary paradigm demonstrated that fixation times on a word were reduced after it was primed in the parafovea by an orthographically similar letter string (e.g *sorp* priming *song*) compared to an unrelated condition (*door* replaced by *song*) (e.g [35-37]). A similar effect was found with respect to phonological previewing using homophones (e.g., *beach* priming *beech*) [38, 39]. Previewing at the phonological level is also supported by reading studies manipulating the spelling-sound regularity. It is well
established that fixation times are longer on words with irregular spelling-sound mappings.
However, this difference disappears when previewing is prevented in a gaze contingent
paradigm [40].

141 It remains debated if words are previewed at the lexical and semantic level. Previewing at the 142 lexical level has been investigated using sentences containing target words of low- or high-143 lexical frequency. Several eye-tracking studies have found that pre-target fixation times are 144 not modulated by the lexical frequency of the target word, suggesting the absence of lexical 145 previewing [41]. We recently challenged this notion by combining eye-tracking with a rapid 146 frequency tagging paradigm. In this paradigm, we subliminally flickered the target words that 147 were of low- or high-frequency during natural reading. We found that when readers fixated 148 on the pre-target words, there was a stronger tagging response as measured by MEG when the 149 target words were of low- compared to high-frequency [42]. This finding provides support for 150 previewing at the lexical level. Another controversial topic is whether there is previewing at 151 the semantic level. This question was studied using boundary paradigms in which the target 152 word is changed just as the participant saccades to it. When for instance the target word 153 changed from *tune* to *song*, the fixation times on *song* were compared to when the target 154 word changed from the unrelated word *door* to *song*. The fixation times on *song* did not 155 differ between these two conditions when the sentences were presented in English, indicating 156 a lack of semantic preview benefits [43]. Surprisingly, studies using Chinese [44] and 157 German [45] have found evidence for semantic previewing, e.g. shorter fixation times on *dog* 158 when the previewed word was *puppy* compared to when it was *desk* (for the German study, 159 this was possibly explained by the capitalization of nouns [46]). Another EEG study was 160 based on participants reading lists of nouns that were either semantically related or not. In 161 favour of no semantic previewing [47], the fixation-related potentials for a given word did 162 not depend on whether the preceding word was semantically related to it or not. In sum, 163 while there is evidence for previewing at the sub-lexical level, there are mixed reports on 164 lexical and semantic previewing.

A mechanism supporting visual exploration and reading by pipelining coordinated by alpha oscillations

Having introduced the temporal and spatial constraints of the visual system, we here propose
a pipelining mechanism that can be used to guide efficient visual exploration and reading.
Before explaining the details of the mechanism, we will first review the temporal coding

170 scheme observed in exploring animals that inspired the model. There is an intriguing link between visual and spatial exploration. The goal of both behaviours is to process information 171 172 from the current location while deciding where to go next. Intracranial neuronal 173 investigations in behaving rats have provided important insights into the neurophysiological 174 mechanisms coordinating this process. Place cell recordings in the rat hippocampus have 175 demonstrated that neuronal theta oscillations (6 - 12 Hz) play an essential role for organizing 176 neuronal representations of space. The phenomenon of *theta phase precession* shows that a 177 given place cell fires late in the theta cycle as the rat enters a place field. As the rat advances, 178 the firing precesses to earlier theta phases. This finding is best explained by a mechanism in 179 which a sequence of spatial representations is 'read out' within a theta cycle [48, 49]. 180 Neuronal representations early in the theta cycle code for current location whereas firing later 181 in the cycle codes for upcoming locations. This phase-coding scheme is consistent with a 182 pipelining mechanism in which different representations along the path are sequentially 183 processed at different theta phases. Could a related mechanism support visual exploration in 184 which objects on a *saccadic path* are encoded as a sequence organized by oscillations?

185

186 In support of the above scheme, phase-coding with respect to neuronal oscillations has been 187 identified from intracranial recordings in humans performing visual and working memory 188 tasks. For instance, using human intracranial data it was demonstrated that individual 189 working memory representations are represented at different phases of an 8 Hz rhythm [50]. 190 Another intracranial study found that different visual categories were reflected by a phase-191 code [51]. Work based on intracranial recordings in non-human primates also reports phase 192 coding in the visual system in various tasks [52-54]. Inspired by the phase-coding mechanism 193 we propose a framework (Box 1 and 2) where oscillations in the 8–13 Hz alpha band serve to 194 organize visual presentations in a phase-coded manner to support parafoveal previewing and 195 eventually guide the saccadic trajectory.

We hypothesize that natural visual exploration and reading relies on a process in which several objects or words are processed simultaneously at different levels in the cortical hierarchy. Consider Box 1A in which the viewer fixates on the *woman*. The visual input propagates in the cortical hierarchy in which features of increasing complexity are combined to eventually recognize the object *woman* in inferior temporal (IT) cortex. While the participant fixates on the *woman*, the *dog* is previewed as a potential saccade goal. The previewing creates a bottleneck problem in IT cortex when two objects (e.g. *woman* and *dog*) 203 are processed. We propose that the bottleneck-problem is solved by a pipelining mechanism 204 in which several objects are processed simultaneously but at different levels in the cortical 205 hierarchy (detailed in Box 1B). This scheme serves two different purposes: First, the preview 206 of the *dog* will speed up the visual processing when this object eventually is fixated, thus 207 reducing the recognition time. It is essential that the saccades are locked to the phase of the 208 alpha oscillations in order for the processing to be coordinated. This scheme increases the 209 efficacy of visual processing and it also buys some time allowing for the saccade plan to be 210 revised in case the previewed object is deemed irrelevant.

- 211 We argue that a similar mechanism supports natural reading (see Box 2), with the exception 212 that the saccades typically are directed to the right. When the word jumped is fixated, this 213 allows for *over* to be previewed. To reduce a bottle-neck problem when processing the words, 214 they are organized in a temporal coding manner along the alpha cycle. Parafoveal previewing 215 results in the lexico-semantic identification reducing from about 150 ms to 110 ms. This 216 provides extra time for evaluating the next saccade goal and potentially skip a less 217 informative word (e.g. the). Importantly, the saccades are locked to the phase of the alpha 218 oscillations in order to organize the timing of the processing and the visual input. In short, we 219 argue that efficient visual exploration and reading rely on parafoveal previewing, and the 220 created bottleneck problem can be solved by a pipelining mechanism, suggesting that the 221 processing of fixated and previewed objects is coordinated in time by alpha oscillations.
- A computational mechanism organized as a pipeline requires an intricate temporal organization (Box 1 and 2). The transfer of representations between levels in the hierarchy as well as the sequential processing must be coordinated. In the example Box 1, some of the visual features of the *boy* will propagate to face-selective areas. Likewise, the face-selective area will process the *boy* slightly earlier than the *woman*. Based on recent findings, we propose that the oscillatory coupling serves to coordinate the information transfer between regions [55, 56] as well as organizing the sequential processing in a phase-coded manner.
- Which neuronal dynamics might support a pipelining mechanism coordinated by brain oscillations? Based on human and animal data, it has been proposed that theta and alpha oscillations are a consequence of pulses of inhibition [57-59]. At the peak of an inhibitory pulse, neurons are prevented from firing. As the inhibition ramps down over the cycle, the most excitable neurons will fire first, then the somewhat less excited neurons and so forth. As such, the pulses of inhibition implement a type of filter, ensuring that neuronal representations are activated sequentially according to excitability [59, 60]. This mechanism

can account for the theta phase precession in rats [57] and has been proposed to operate in the visual system [59]. In case of the visual system, fixated representations are more excited compared to parafoveal representations. This allows the foveal representation to overcome the inhibition earlier and thus activate earlier in the alpha cycle. The sorting of visual representations, according to excitability, is a crucial component in the proposed pipelining mechanism (Box 1 and 2). While we have put forward an example with 2 objects in each cycle, the scheme could be extended to 3-4 objects and to include more hierarchical levels.

243 Computational modelling has proposed mechanism for how phase-coded representations are 244 exchanged between brain regions [55]. Indeed, intracranial recordings in non-human primates 245 suggest that synchronization in the alpha band reflects forward communication in the 246 extended visual system [61]. The phase of the alpha oscillations modulates the gamma band 247 activity, which serves to segment the representations in the alpha cycle. This scheme allows 248 for the exchange of phase-coded representations between brain regions [62]. We propose that 249 alpha-band phase-synchronization in the cortical hierarchy supports the phase-coded 250 pipelining scheme by coordinating the feedforward transfer of increasingly higher level 251 representations.

252 Evidence linking alpha oscillations and saccades

253 As outlined in Box 1 and 2, we propose that alpha oscillations are involved in organizing a 254 pipelining mechanism supporting visual processing. While alpha oscillations for decades 255 were thought to reflect idling or a state of rest [63], it is now evident that they are involved in 256 numerous cognitive processes [58, 64, 65]. One key observation is that alpha oscillations are 257 present during continuous visual presentation e.g. [66, 67]. More recently, both human and 258 animal research has found an intriguing link between the phase of alpha oscillations and 259 saccades. A study based on both MEG and intracranial human data showed that saccade 260 onsets are locked to the phase of ongoing alpha oscillations when viewing natural images 261 [68]. Importantly, the locking of saccades to alpha phase was stronger for pictures later 262 remembered as compared to later forgotten. This suggests that visual information impact 263 memory areas stronger when saccades are coordinated by the phase of alpha oscillations. This 264 notion is further supported by a nonhuman primate study in which saccades produced a 265 phase-reset of theta/alpha oscillations in the hippocampus; the magnitude of the phase-reset 266 predicted memory encoding [69]. Using EEG, it was shown that saccadic reaction times 267 relates to the phase of pre-saccadic alpha oscillations [70]. A recent study in non-human 268 primates reported on multi-electrode recording in the frontal-eye-field that allowed for 269 decoding of the focus of the attentional spotlight. Importantly, the spotlight explored the 270 visual space at a 7-12 Hz alpha rhythm ('attentional saccades') [71]. In another non-human 271 primate study, signals from the V4 receptive field of respectively current and future fixations 272 were coherent in the alpha band around the time of saccades [72]. Finally, saccadic 273 suppression is also related to alpha oscillations: recording sites in V4 associated with 274 peripheral vision increase in alpha power during saccades [73]. In short, strong evidence is 275 accumulating in support of an intimate connection between saccades and alpha oscillations. 276 These findings in humans and animals provide some support for the proposed mechanism for 277 visual exploration and reading (Box 1 and 2)

278 <u>Previewing primes and speeds up visual recognition</u>

279 Key to the mechanism that we propose is that previewing speeds up the identification of 280 objects in visual scenes as well as lexico-semantic retrieval during reading [42, 74, 75]. 281 Several models suggest that object and lexical recognition relies on attractor type networks 282 (e.g. [76-79]). The core idea is that incomplete representations can be reconstructed through 283 pattern completion in a network of neurons with recurrent connections. The time it takes for 284 an attractor network to converge is dependent on the basin of attraction and the trajectory to 285 be travelled. Priming can be thought of as guiding a neuronal representation closer to the 286 attractor as studied in computational models [80]. We propose that parafoveal previewing 287 serves to prime a given neuronal representation so that when the respective object or word is 288 fixated, retrieval is facilitated, and identification is sped up. In short, attractor type networks 289 can provide a physiologically compatible account for how parafoveal previewing can prime 290 object identification and lexico-semantic retrieval.

291 Concluding remarks

We argue that the visual system must operate in a highly efficient manner to support visual 292 293 exploration and reading. The core issue is that the fixated object or word must be processed 294 in the same time-interval as when the next saccade goal is planned. Given the bottleneck 295 problem in the visual hierarchy, we propose that this is achieved by a pipelining mechanism 296 in which current and upcoming spatial locations are processed – not simultaneously – but in 297 fast succession. Importantly, we propose that neuronal oscillations in the alpha band serve to 298 coordinate the pipelining mechanism that is implemented by a phase-coding scheme in which 299 different representations activate sequentially along the phase of the alpha oscillations. 300 Finally, to time the visual input with the neuronal processing, the mechanism also requires 301 that saccades are locked to the phase of the alpha oscillations.

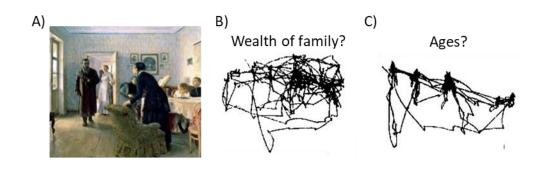
302 The framework results in a set of testable predictions. A core prediction is that alpha band 303 oscillations coordinate the neuronal processing associated with saccadic visual exploration. 304 As a result, representationally-specific representations for fixated and upcoming saccade 305 goals should be coupled to the phase of the alpha oscillations. This could be tested by MEG 306 or EEG recordings combined with eye-tracking studies in humans engaged in visual 307 exploration or reading tasks. The time-course of the representationally specific activation 308 could be identified by multivariate approaches and related to the phase of the ongoing alpha 309 oscillations [81]. As a complementary approach, rapid frequency tagging at different 310 frequencies (50 to 70 Hz) could be used to track several objects and the respective neuronal 311 signals would then reflect the neuronal processing [42]. Specifically, we predict that the 312 fixated as well as the parafoveal object (or word) would be become active at different phases 313 of the alpha signal (see Box1C and Box2B). Importantly, we also predict that saccades would 314 be locked to alpha phase (as in [68]) and that this locking would be more pronounced with an 315 increase in task-demands. Finally, we predict that regions in the cortical hierarchy are phase-316 locked in the alpha band. The phase-locking would allow for the phase-coded information to 317 be exchanged [55, 56]; possibly there would be a systematic phase-shift of the alpha cycles 318 through the cortical hierarchy to guide the feed-forward flow of phase-coded information 319 [82].

In sum, we have here presented a novel and testable framework for the neuronal mechanisms supporting visual exploration and reading in relation to saccades. Crucially, neuronal oscillations are required for organizing the visual representation as well as the timing of saccades. Since the proposed mechanism provides a unified account for visual exploration and reading, it also opens the door for future investigations aimed at understanding the neuronal substrate associated with reading disorders.

327 **Outstanding Questions**

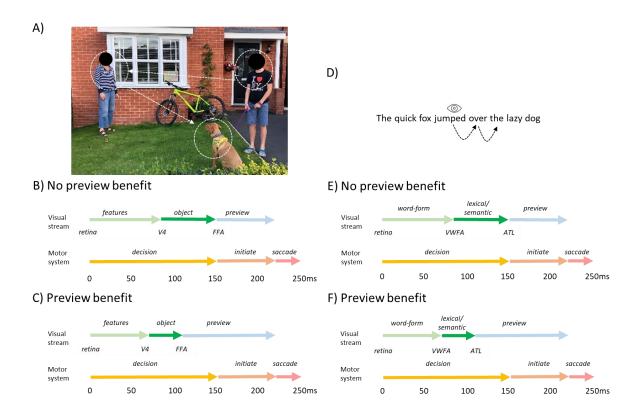
- 328 In which detail are upcoming objects previewed before saccades are made to them? Are they 329 previewed at the semantic level or maybe just in terms of features?
- In which detail are upcoming words previewed during reading before saccades are
 made to them? Are they primarily previewed at the sub-lexical (e.g. orthographical,
 phonological, orthographic) or also at the lexical and semantic level?
- What is the role of brain oscillations in visual exploration and reading? Recent studies
 have found cases where saccades are locked to the phase of alpha oscillations [68],
 but how general is this phenomenon?
- Are different objects and words represented along the phase of oscillations in the alpha cycle during visual exploration and reading (akin to the coding scheme of place representation organized by theta oscillations observed in exploration rats)? This can be addressed using multi-variate methods applied to MEG and EEG data in order to relate representational specific information to the phase of oscillations in the alpha band [81]. Likewise, *rapid frequency tagging* can be used to investigate the allocation of visual resources already prior to a saccade in relation to brain oscillations [42].
- Is there a link between previewing abilities and reading disorders? For instance,
 impaired previewing during reading might account for some of the reading deficits
 observed in some types of developmental and acquired dyslexia. Can our proposed
 pipelining mechanism account for the impaired previewing?
- Recent evidence suggests that prediction plays an important role in language
 comprehension [83-85]. How do top-down predictions impact bottom-up parafoveal
 previewing during reading? Could it be that both pre-activated representations and the
 representations of the previewed objects are encoded at the same phase of the alpha
 cycle?
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355

Figure 1. A) When exploring a picture we typically saccade 3-4 times per second. The classic work by Yarbus (1967) demonstrates that saccades land on informative parts of the picture. B) The saccadic path when the participant is asked to judge the wealth of the family. C) The saccadic path when the participant is asked about the ages of the people in the picture. In conclusion, objects explored and thus the saccadic path is depending on the goal of exploration. These findings are consistent with the notion that objects in the scene are previewed prior to saccading to them. Reproduced from Yarbus (1967)





365 Figure 2. A) In this example the participant first fixates on the boy and then saccades to the woman followed by the dog. B) The timing of the visual exploration process. The visual 366 object (the boy) arrives at 60 ms in V1 after which visual features are identified at about 85 367 ms. There is electrophysiological evidence suggesting that the object can be identified before 368 369 150 ms in object selective cortex. While this process is going on, the next saccadic decision 370 must be made (*woman* or *dog*?) such that the motor program can commence. It takes about 371 100 ms to initiate and execute the saccadic motor command. Typically, a saccade is executed 372 about 250 ms after the fixation onset. As both the object identification as well as the saccade decision must be performed with 150 ms, this places serious computational demands on the 373 374 visual system. C) Previewing by parafoveal processing allows for speeding up visual processing. For instance, when fixating on the boy the woman can be previewed. When the 375 376 woman then is fixated the recognition can be reduced to about 110 ms. This has two 377 important advantages: 1) it leaves about 40 ms for previewing the next saccade goal (the *dog*) 378 and 2) the preview occurs sufficiently early to impact the next saccade goal (e.g. to skip). D) 379 A sentence is read by fixating on the words sequentially. When fixating the word *jumped* it 380 must simultaneously be decided on whether to saccade to over. E) The timing of the visual reading process. For instance, visual features of the word *over* arrive at 60 ms in V1 after 381 382 which the word-form is identified in the visual word-form area (VWFA) at ~90 ms. There is electrophysiological evidence suggesting that lexical recognition of the word is done within 383

384 150 ms by a network including the anterior temporal lobe (ATL). While this process is going

385 on, the next saccade decision (*over*) must be made such that the saccadic motor program can

386 be initiated. Both the lexical identification as well as the saccade decision must be performed

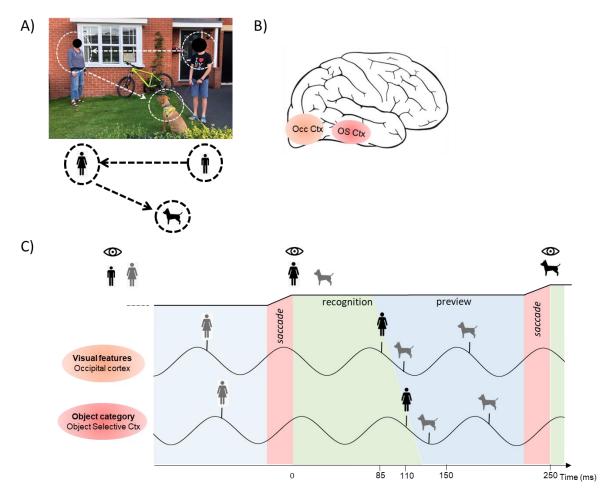
387 within 150 ms. F) Parafoveal previewing of a word (e.g. over) allows for reducing the lexico-

388 semantic identification upon fixation. As such a previewed fixated word could be recognized

389 at 110 ms. This has an important advantage: it leaves more time for previewing the next word

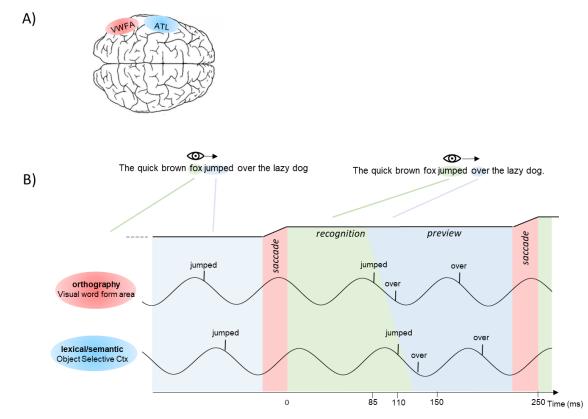
390 and decide the next saccade goal before executing the saccade plan. For instance, a decision

391 might be made to skip highly common but uninformative words.



394 Box 1: A model for pipelining during visual exploration. A) The participant fixates on the 395 boy and then saccades to the *woman* and finally to the dog. B) For simplicity, we assume two 396 stages in which simple features (e.g. color) are identified first, followed by object category recognition in respectively V4 in occipital cortex and objects selective cortex in the inferior 397 398 temporal lobe. C) We hypothesize that the temporal organization supporting the pipelining 399 mechanism is coordinated by oscillations in the alpha band. In this example, 12 Hz alpha 400 oscillations can be considered pulses of inhibition repeated every 83 ms. At the peak of the 401 alpha cycle, neuronal firing is inhibited. As the inhibition ramps down the most excitable 402 representation will activate and so forth. Consider time point t = 0 ms in which the participant 403 moves the eyes from the boy and fixates on the woman. We assume that saccades are locked 404 to the phase of the alpha oscillations such that the visual input of the *woman* arrives at the 405 early down-going inhibitory slope of the alpha cycle at about t = 85 ms where simple visual 406 features of the woman engage visual occipital cortex (e.g. colors in V4). These feature 407 representations are projected to object selective cortex for category identification by 110 ms. 408 This fast category identification is made possible by the preview of the *woman* prior to the 409 saccade which has primed the 'semantic' access. Importantly, the pipelining scheme allows

- 410 the *woman* and the *dog* to be processed in the same cycle in a multiplex manner thus avoiding
- 411 bottleneck problems. This scheme allows for a fast decision to be made to either saccade to
- 412 the *dog* or hold the saccade and preview another object as a potential target.
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Box 2: A model for pipelining during natural reading. A) For the sake of simplicity, two 416 417 stages of word recognition are assumed, namely orthographic identification in visual word 418 from area (VWFA) followed by lexico-semantic access in an extended network including the 419 anterior temporal lobe. B) We hypothesize that the temporal organization supporting the pipelining mechanism is coordinated by oscillations in the alpha band. The 12 Hz alpha 420 421 oscillations can be considered pulses of inhibition repeated every 83 ms [58]. Consider time 422 point t = 0 ms in which the subject saccades and fixates on *jumped*. We assume that saccades 423 are locked to the phase of the alpha oscillations such that the visual input of *jumped* arrives at 424 the early down-going inhibitory slope of the alpha cycle at about 85 ms for orthographic 425 feature identification in the VWFA. The orthographic representations propagate to the ATL 426 for lexico-semantic identification by 110 ms. This fast lexico-semantic process is made 427 possible by the preview of *jumped* prior to the saccade which has primed the lexical access. 428 Importantly, the pipeline scheme allows both *jumped* and *over* to be lexico-semantically 429 processed in the same cycle but at slightly different points in time, thus avoiding a bottleneck 430 problems in the ATL. During the fixation of *over* the word *the* is previewed. Given that the 431 word *the* carries little information, a decision to skip can be made. However, this is only 432 possible if over has been previewed since this will speed up the processing of over leaving more time to preview *the*. 433

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