External location of touch is constructed post-hoc based on limb choice

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1 Abstract

2 When humans indicate on which hand a tactile stimulus occurred, they 3 often err when their hands are crossed. This finding seemingly supports the view that the automatically determined touch location in external space affects 4 limb assignment: the crossed right hand is localized in left space, and this 5 conflict presumably provokes hand assignment errors. Here, participants 6 7 judged on which hand the first of two stimuli, presented during a bimanual 8 movement, had occurred, and then indicated its external location by a reach-9 to-point movement. When participants incorrectly chose the hand stimulated 10 second, they pointed to where that hand had been at the correct, first time point, 11 though no stimulus had occurred at that location. This behavior suggests that 12 stimulus localization depended on hand assignment, not vice versa. It is, thus, 13 incompatible with the notion of automatic computation of external stimulus 14 location upon occurrence. Instead, humans construct external touch location 15 post-hoc and on demand.

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17 Introduction

18 Spatial perception and actions rely on multiple spatial codes, often 19 associated with different reference frames. For instance, the accuracy of 20 pointing or reaching with an arm or finger to a visual target depends not only on 21 the position of target relative to gaze (Fiehler et al., 2011; Thompson et al., 2014), but also on salient world-centered landmarks (Schütz et al., 2013). 22 23 Similarly, judgment of visual location during whole-body movement is 24 influenced by a target's position relative to gaze, as well as by the location of 25 the target relative to the body (Tramper & Medendorp, 2015).

26 In touch, too, space is coded in several reference frames. Touch 27 activates specialized sensory receptors embedded in the skin, and the 28 arrangement of the peripheral sensors is reflected in the homuncular 29 organization of primary somatosensory cortex (Penfield & Boldrey, 1937; Roux 30 et al., 2018), referred to as a skin-based or somatotopic layout. However, 31 because our body can take various postures, the stimulus location in space -32 often referred to as its external location - must be derived by combining skin 33 location and body posture, a process termed tactile remapping (Heed, Buchholz, 34 et al., 2015). Indeed, there is evidence that external tactile locations can be coded in a gaze-centered reference frame (Harrar & Harris, 2010; Mueller & 35 36 Fiehler, 2014a, 2014b), but also relative to anchors such as the head, torso, 37 and hand (Alsmith et al., 2017; Heed et al., 2016).

38 It is less clear, however, according to which principles these different 39 spatial codes are employed. Both bottom-up features such as the availability of 40 sensory information (Bernier & Grafton, 2010) and the spatial reliability of a 41 sensory channel (Ernst & Banks, 2002; van Beers et al., 2002), as well as top-42 down information such as task-constraints (Badde et al., 2015; Schubert et al., 43 2017), action context (Mueller & Fiehler, 2014b), and cognitive load (Badde et 44 al., 2014) can affect the relative contributions of different reference frames, 45 presumably in a weighted manner (Angelaki et al., 2009; Atsma et al., 2016; 46 Badde & Heed, 2016; Ernst & Di Luca, 2011; Kayser & Shams, 2015; Lohmann 47 & Butz, 2017; Tramper & Medendorp, 2015). Yet, whereas there is widespread

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consensus that each spatial code can have more or less influence depending
on the specific situation, it is currently not known whether all putative codes are
always constructed, or whether they are only computed based on demand.

51 For touch, it has been suggested that the construction of spatial location 52 is an automatic process, implying that any tactile input is remapped into an 53 external code, irrespective of its relevance (Heed & Azañón, 2014; Röder et al., 54 2004). The most common experimental manipulation underlying this claim is 55 limb crossing. Crossing, say, a right arm over to the left side of space leads to 56 different skin-based (here: right body side) and external (here: left side of 57 space) spatial codes of a tactile stimulus delivered to the right hand. A task-58 irrelevant tactile stimulus delivered to a crossed right hand accelerates visual 59 discrimination in the right visual field if it precedes the visual target stimulus by 60 60 ms, but on the left side if it leads by 180 ms or more (Azañón & Soto-Faraco, 61 2008). Thus, responses to visual targets were faster after anatomically 62 congruent tactile cues (e.g., tactile stimulus on crossed right hand, visual target 63 in right hemifield) at short cue-stimulus intervals, but after externally congruent 64 tactile cues (e.g., tactile stimulus on the left hand crossed over to the right side, 65 visual target in right field) at long cue-stimulus intervals. Such effects are 66 usually interpreted as evidence that tactile remapping - the precise computation of the external tactile stimulus location – is automatic and forms 67 68 the basis for the performance enhancement at this external location.

69 The same conclusion has also been drawn from results obtained with 70 the tactile temporal order judgment (TOJ) task; in this task, participants report 71 which of two successive tactile stimuli, each presented to a different body part 72 - typically the two hands - occurred first (Heed & Azañón, 2014; Shore et al., 73 2002; Yamamoto & Kitazawa, 2001). When the time interval between the two 74 stimuli is short, participants sometimes choose the wrong stimulus. Notably, 75 stimulus confusion is much more prominent when the arms are in a crossed 76 than uncrossed posture. This is surprising because the TOJ task asks about 77 the identity of the touched limb, and, in theory, it would be irrelevant to this 78 question where the hand was in space. That limb crossing, nevertheless,

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affects TOJ implies that posture cannot be strategically ignored, but isautomatically incorporated into the hand assignment.

81 Several explanations have been put forward to account for crossing 82 effects in tactile localization. First, it has been suggested that touch location, 83 once it is remapped, is retained only in an external spatial code, and the original 84 skin location is discarded in the process. To report which body part has been 85 touched, the brain must then reversely determine which limb was located at the 86 computed external location at the time of the touch (Kitazawa, 2002; Kitazawa 87 et al., 2008; Yamamoto & Kitazawa, 2001). We refer to this suggestion as the space-to-limb reconstruction hypothesis. When applied to errors in the TOJ task, 88 89 this hypothesis implies that participants correctly remap the two tactile stimuli 90 into external space, but then reconstruct erroneously which hand was at the 91 first spatial location.

92 A second explanation assumes that TOJ errors reflect the conflict 93 between different codes used for stimulus location. When the limbs are 94 crossed, skin-based and external spatial codes point to different sides of space, 95 and this conflict must be resolved, a process that takes time and is error-prone 96 (Röder, Kusmierek, Spence, & Schicke, 2007; Simon, Hinrichs, & Craft, 1970). 97 In this view, the TOJ crossing effect is a marker for the presence of conflict and. 98 thus, for the fact that remapping into an external spatial code has taken place. 99 Notably, the interpretation that the TOJ crossing effect derives from a remapped 100 stimulus location is indirect because participants only report a binary decision 101 about which hand was stimulated, not the spatial location of the perceived 102 stimulus. Increasing the distance between the uncrossed hands can slightly 103 reduce errors in TOJ (Gallace & Spence, 2005; Roberts et al., 2003; Shore et 104 al., 2005), and the TOJ crossing effect is smaller when the hands' positions 105 additionally differ in height or depth (Azañón et al., 2016). These graded 106 modulations of the TOJ have led to the claim that the TOJ paradigm is an 107 implicit index of tactile remapping (Azañón et al., 2015; Badde & Heed, 2016; 108 Heed & Azañón, 2014). We refer to this suggestion as the stimulus switch 109 hypothesis. It implies that participants have correctly remapped the two stimuli

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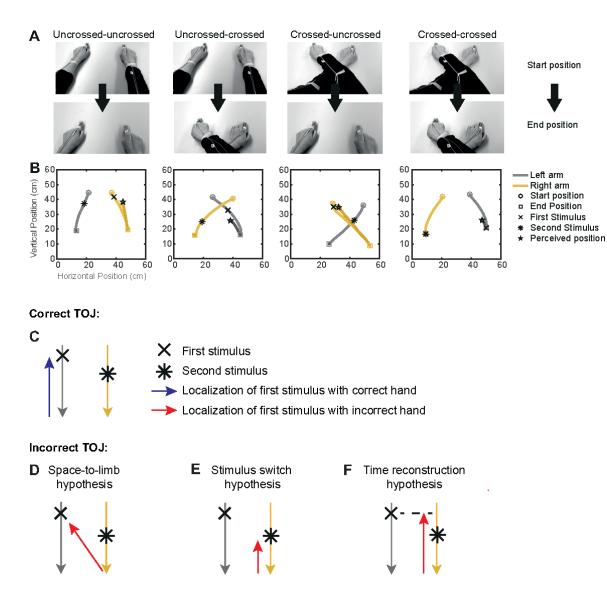
into space, but have incorrectly resolved the conflict between the different spatial codes of the first stimulus, consequently assigning the incorrect stimulus to the first time point; as a consequence, participants incorrectly report the hand that received the second stimulus.

114 Importantly, both hypotheses outlined above assume that touch is 115 automatically remapped to its veridical external location. However, recent 116 experiments have cast doubt on whether this is actually the case. For instance, 117 if a tactile stimulus is presented during an arm movement, and participants 118 indicate the stimulus's location by pointing to its external location after the 119 movement, they make systematic localization errors (Dassonville, 1995; Maij, 120 Grave, et al., 2011; Maij et al., 2013, 2017; Watanabe et al., 2009). Importantly, 121 because these errors differ for fast and slow movements, it has been suggested 122 that participants do not compute the precise spatial location of a stimulus when it occurs, but instead infer spatial location post-hoc by estimating hand location 123 124 at the perceived time of the tactile stimulus (Maij et al., 2017). We refer to this 125 suggestion as the time reconstruction hypothesis. Accordingly, errors in the 126 TOJ task would occur because participants first choose the incorrect hand, and 127 then derive stimulus location based on that hand's position at the time of the first stimulus. Note, that here participants merge the correct, first stimulus's time 128 129 with the incorrect, second stimulus's hand. For the present study, the key claim 130 of the *time reconstruction hypothesis* is that stimulus location is only computed 131 after the hand has been chosen. This feature is at odds with the idea that tactile 132 judgments are based on spatial remapping (Heed, Buchholz, et al., 2015; Shore 133 et al., 2002; Yamamoto & Kitazawa, 2001), according to which the stimulus location is determined first and then used to make the hand assignment - in 134 135 fact, the time reconstruction hypothesis reverses the dependency between 136 localization and limb assignment proposed by other the theoretical accounts.

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138 Figure 1. Experimental conditions of Experiment 1 and predictions of the tested tactile 139 localization hypotheses. A-B. Experimental procedure. A. The arms moved from an uncrossed 140 or crossed start posture to an uncrossed or crossed arm end posture. B. Representative 141 example TOJ trial showing the bimanual movement (grey, left hand; yellow, right hand) for the 142 four combinations of uncrossed and crossed start and end postures, as well as the reach-to-143 point movement of the hand at which the first tactile stimulus was reported. C. Illustation of a 144 correct TOJ trial: the stimulus is assigned to the correct hand, which points to the correct 145 location. Grey (yellow) traces illustrate the left (right) hand's movement toward the body, here 146 during a trial from an uncrossed start to an uncrossed end posture. The blue arrow indicates 147 the movement of the correctly assigned hand towards the location of the first stimulus (cross). 148 D-F. Illustration of the three hypotheses that may account for TOJ errors. The red arrows 149 indicate the movement of the incorrectly chosen hand. D. Space-to-limb reconstruction 150 hypothesis: participants point with the incorrect hand at the external location of the first stimulus. 151 E. Stimulus switch hypothesis: participants point with the incorrect hand at the external location

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of the second stimulus (star). F. Time reconstruction hypothesis: participants point with theincorrect hand at the location at which that hand was at the time of the first stimulus.

Here, we assessed hand assignment and spatial localization of tactile 154 stimuli presented during movement. Our objective was to test whether TOJ 155 156 responses mark the use of the stimulus's external-spatial location constructed 157 in response to the stimulus, or whether instead participants estimate stimulus 158 location post-hoc by integrating the hand movement trajectory with stimulus 159 time. In other words, we aimed to directly contrast the three discussed 160 hypotheses for tactile localization: the space-to-limb reconstruction hypothesis, 161 the stimulus switch hypothesis, and the time reconstruction hypothesis.

162 We presented human participants with two tactile stimuli during a 163 bimanual movement and assessed which hand participants perceived to have 164 been stimulated first (TOJ hand assignment), as well as exactly where in space participants had perceived the first stimulus (tactile stimulus localization). The 165 experimental logic, and its relation to the three tested tactile localization 166 167 hypotheses, are illustrated in Fig. 1. Because tactile stimuli were presented 168 shortly before, after, and during the time of movement, their spatial location 169 depended on their timing relative to the movement. This allowed us to 170 determine which tactile location participants had perceived when they had 171 made a hand assignment error in the TOJ task. Contrary to common opinion, 172 TOJ errors were not associated with the location of the second, incorrect stimulus. Instead, when participants chose the incorrect hand, they reported its 173 174 location at the time point at which the first, correct stimulus had occurred. Thus, 175 participants constructed stimulus location by combining the position of the 176 incorrectly chosen hand with the stimulus timing that belonged to the other, non-177 chosen hand's stimulus, resulting in reported locations at which no stimulus had 178 ever occurred. This finding invalidates current explanations of crossing effects 179 as being based on the remapped external spatial location of the tactile stimulus.

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180 **Results**

181 Experiment 1

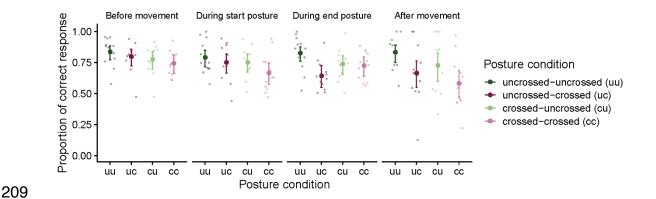
Participants adopted a start posture with their hands resting on a table 182 183 and their arms stretched out in an uncrossed or crossed posture (see Fig. 1A,B 184 for an illustration of experimental conditions and trial timing). A tone then 185 instructed a movement of the two hands about 30 cm towards their body. 186 bringing the arms into either an uncrossed or crossed arm end posture (see Fig. 1A). Shortly before, during, or shortly after the movement, participants 187 received two tactile stimuli, one on each hand, with a stimulus onset asynchrony 188 189 (SOA) of 110 ms. At this SOA, participants often misreport which of the two 190 stimuli occurred first, both when the arms are still (Heed & Azañón, 2014; Shore 191 et al., 2002; Yamamoto & Kitazawa, 2001) and during movement (Heed, Möller, 192 et al., 2015; Hermosillo et al., 2011). After the bimanual movement, participants 193 reported on which of the two hands the first stimulus had occurred by reaching 194 with this hand to the perceived external location of the stimulus (see Fig. 1B). 195 The response, thus, contained two components: the hand to which the first 196 stimulus was assigned, and explicit spatial localization of this stimulus.

197 Hand assignment

198 In a first step, we verified that hand assignment in the TOJ task was modulated 199 by hand crossing and timing of stimuli relative to the movement (Heed, Möller, 200 et al., 2015; Hermosillo et al., 2011). We measured TOJ performance as the 201 percentage of correct reports of which hand had been stimulated first in the TOJ 202 task, as indicated by the hand that participants used for their localization response (see Fig. 2). Stimuli could occur during all times (see Methods for 203 details), so we binned the binary (correct/ incorrect) TOJ response data into 204 205 four movement phases - stimulation before movement onset, during first and 206 second half of movement, and after movement offset - to assess the 207 modulation of TOJ performance by stimulus time relative to the bimanual 208 movement.

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210 Figure 2. Proportion of correct hand assignment across movement conditions (uncrossed-211 uncrossed, uncrossed-crossed, crossed-uncrossed, crossed-crossed) in the four phases of the 212 bimanual movement (before movement, during start posture, during end posture, after 213 movement) in Experiment 1. For conditions without a postural change (i.e., uncrossed-214 uncrossed, crossed-crossed), trials were assigned as "during start posture" if the first stimulus 215 occurred during the first temporal half of the movement and they were assigned as "during end 216 posture" if the first stimulus occurred during the second temporal half of the movement. For 217 conditions with a postural change (i.e., uncrossed-crossed, crossed-uncrossed), trials were 218 assigned as "during start posture" if the first stimulus occurred before the postural change and 219 as "during end posture" if the first stimulus occurred after the postural change. Error bars denote 220 2 s.e. from the mean; asymmetry is due to nonlinear conversion from the GLMM's logit scale 221 to percentage correct. Large symbols are group means, small symbols are individual 222 participants' performance.

223 In accordance with previous findings, TOJ performance declined in the crossed 224 compared to the uncrossed posture (Heed & Azañón, 2014), and depended on 225 the posture at the time of stimulation (Heed, Möller, et al., 2015; Hermosillo et 226 al., 2011). For instance, for the uncrossed-uncrossed movement condition (see 227 Fig. 2, dark-green data points), the probability of a correct response was high 228 compared to the crossed-crossed movement condition (see Fig. 2, light magenta data points) throughout all movement phases. For the conditions with 229 a postural change (uncrossed-crossed, crossed-uncrossed, see Fig. 2, dark-230 231 magenta, light-green data points) the probability of correct responses was 232 modulated by the posture at the time of stimulation. A generalized mixed model 233 (GLMM) with factors Start Posture, End Posture, and Movement Phase 234 revealed significance for all main effects and interactions (see Supplementary

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Table 1). With movement phase, the effect of Start Posture (see Fig. 2, dark vs. light colors) declined, whereas the effect of End Posture (see Fig. 2, green vs. magenta colors) increased. For instance, for movements from an uncrossed to a crossed posture, TOJ performance was better during the first two movement phases, that is, when the hands were still uncrossed, than during the last two movement phases, that is, when the hands were crossed.

241 In sum, TOJ performance in our first experiment reflected known 242 modulations of hand posture and movement timing. Participants made, on 243 average, more than 15% TOJ errors even with uncrossed hands. This high error 244 rate is due to the use of the short SOA of 110 ms (Heed, Möller, et al., 2015; 245 Heed & Azañón, 2014; Shore et al., 2002; Yamamoto & Kitazawa, 2001), and 246 is an intended outcome of the experimental paradigm, allowing, as a next step, 247 comparison of spatial localization responses for incorrect TOJ trials across all 248 postures.

249 Explicit tactile localization in space is unaffected by hand posture

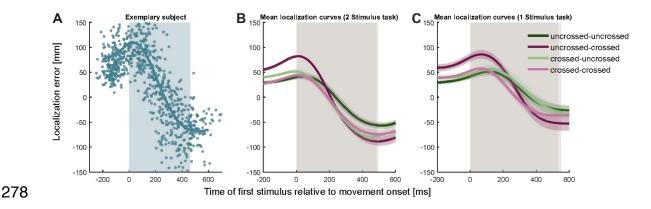
250 Having verified that TOJ hand assignment showed the well-known 251 effects of posture, we next turned to tactile stimulus localization. Localization 252 errors are computed as the spatial difference (calculated as signed difference 253 in the direction along the path of the reporting hand, see Methods for details) of 254 the perceived stimulus location and the hand's true position at stimulus 255 presentation. From previous studies involving single stimuli and unimanual 256 movements, it is known that participants make systematic localization errors 257 when they retrospectively point to the spatial location of a tactile stimulus that 258 was presented while the target limb was moving. More specifically, localization 259 is systematically biased in the direction of the movement during the initial part 260 of a movement, and in the opposite direction during the final part of the movement (Dassonville, 1995; Maij et al., 2013, 2017; Watanabe et al., 2009), 261 262 resulting in systematic localization error curves with positive values indicating 263 errors in movement direction and negative values indicating errors in the 264 opposite direction. This pattern of movement time-related directional biases 265 was evident also in the present data (see Fig. 3A for an example of a single

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participant). Critically, bias was comparable across all four posture conditions(see Fig. 3B).

To validate that localization behavior in our task was not biased by the 268 269 specifics of the TOJ task, participants performed a simpler 1-stimulus control 270 task in separate blocks of the experiment. While making bimanual movements 271 with uncrossed and crossed start and end postures, they received a single 272 tactile stimulus and pointed to it, as in the 2-stimulus task (see Methods for 273 details). Participants virtually always indicated correctly which hand had 274 received the stimulus (average percentage correct, 99.5%). Critically, 275 localization error curves were indistinguishable from the task with two stimuli 276 (see Fig. 3C), indicating that tactile localization was affected neither by task 277 difficulty nor by the nature of the TOJ task.



279 Figure 3. Localization errors systematically vary with the progression of the movement. A. 280 Mean localization error (teal line) of all correct TOJ trials of a single participant in Experiment 281 1. Each dot represents the localization error of a single trial, that is the difference between 282 actual hand position at the time of tactile stimulation and indicated hand position at the end of 283 the trial. Blue shading represents the average movement time, with 0 ms = movement start. 284 Note, that the localization error is positive at the beginning of the movement, indicating error in 285 the direction of the movement. Localization error is negative towards the end of the movement, 286 indicating error against the direction of movement. B-C. The localization error pattern of the 287 correct trials in A was evident across all subjects for both the 2 Stimulus experimental task (B) 288 and for the 1 Stimulus control task (C) and for all posture combinations. Traces reflect the mean, 289 shaded areas around the traces reflect s.e.m. The shaded regions in the background indicate 290 the average movement duration, which differed shlightly between conditions (see 291 Supplementary Table 2).

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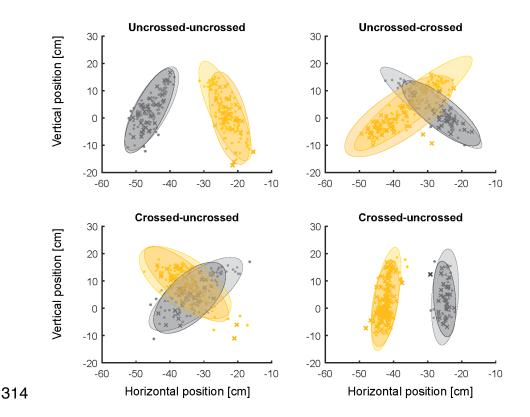
292 Explicit tactile localization is directed towards the assigned hand

We have so far assessed performance in trials in which participants had made a correct TOJ hand assignment (referred to as correct TOJ trials from hereon). We now turn to localization errors in incorrect TOJ trials. These errors allow differentiating between the three hypotheses about how participants determine stimulus localization in tactile decision paradigms (see Fig. 1D-F).

298 We first turn to the space-to limb reconstruction hypothesis. It posits that 299 tactile perception takes place in space rather than on the body; thus, a limb 300 assignment entails computing which limb was at the first spatial location. Thus, 301 in our task, responses with the incorrect hand would result from assigning the 302 incorrect hand to the correct spatial location of the first tactile stimulus (see Fig. 303 1D). Accordingly, the assigned, incorrect hand should be directed to the 304 location at which the stimulus of the other, correct hand had occurred, and the 305 reported stimulus location in incorrect TOJ trials should scatter around the 306 movement trajectory of the correct hand. Contrary to this prediction, participants 307 consistently pointed to locations scattered around the movement trajectory of 308 the assigned, incorrect hand, indicating that the chosen stimulus had been 309 perceived on the incorrect hand (see Fig. 4 for the localization responses of the 310 participant with the largest variability in localization errors). Thus, localization 311 behavior did not support the implication of the space-to-limb reconstruction 312 hypothesis that the correct external spatial location is simply assigned to a 313 wrong limb.

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Left hand correct TOJ
 Right hand correct TOJ

- * Left hand incorrect TOJ
- Right hand incorrect TOJ

315 Figure 4. Localization responses (i.e., finger positions in the horizontal plane at the end of the 316 reach-to-point movement indicating the location where the participant perceived the first 317 stimulus) for the different movement conditions. Data are from a single participant with the 318 largest variability. Ellipses represent 95% of the variability and show large overlap for correct 319 and incorrect TOJ trials. The space-to-limb reconstruction hypothesis would predict that, during 320 error trials, participants point with the incorrectly assigned hand to the location of the correct 321 stimulus; thus, if this hypothesis were correct, orange ellipses should overlay with light grey 322 ellipses, and dark grey ellipses should overlay with yellow ellipses.

323 Localization aims at the assigned hand's position at the time of the first 324 tactile stimulus

325 Given that participants appear to have perceived the stimulus at the assigned hand, two possibilities remain as to which stimulus location was 326 327 associated with erroneous responses (see Fig. 1). The stimulus switch 328 hypothesis posits that the two stimuli were localized correctly, and one is 329 chosen for the response. In incorrect TOJ trials, participants would confuse the 330 two stimuli and report the second stimulus by pointing at its location with the 331 respective, incorrect hand. In this case, participants should point to where the 332 hand was positioned at the time point of the second, erroneously chosen

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333 stimulus (referred to as time 2 from hereon). In contrast, the *time reconstruction* 334 hypothesis assumes that participants always use the correct, first time point (time 1 from hereon), and determine the position of the assigned response limb 335 336 at this time point. This hypothesis predicts that, in incorrect TOJ trials, 337 participants point to where the incorrectly assigned hand was positioned at the 338 correct time, that is, time 1. Note, that no tactile stimulus occurred at this 339 external spatial location, because it combines the time of the first, correct 340 stimulus with the movement trajectory of the second, incorrect stimulus's hand.

341 We test between the predictions of these hypotheses by comparing the 342 localization error curves in correct and incorrect TOJ trials. In the case of correct 343 TOJ trials, we assume that participants aimed, as instructed, at the position of 344 the correct hand at time 1. Therefore, we derive the localization error curve as 345 the spatial difference of perceived location and hand position at time 1 (see Fig. 346 5, dark blue lines). However, we can also derive a localization error curve for 347 correct trials under the assumption that participants pointed towards the hand's 348 position at time 2. To derive this hypothetical curve, we calculated the spatial 349 difference of participants' localization responses and the hand's position at time 350 2, rather than time 1 (see Fig. 5, light blue lines). The time 2 error curve is 351 shifted to the left, or "backwards" in time, relative to the time 1 error curve. This 352 is because, for the time 2 curve, the assumed "true" target location is the hand's 353 position 110 ms further into the movement, due to the SOA between the two 354 tactile stimuli. Accordingly, each assumed target location is closer to the 355 movement's end by the trajectory the hand has moved during the 110 ms 356 interval between the two stimuli.

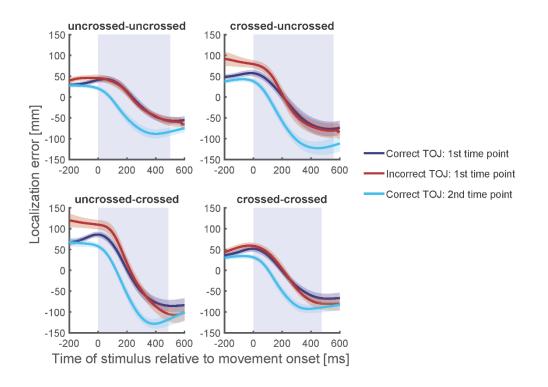
The first, time 1 error curve can now serve as a template of a localization error curve if the participant truly aimed at the hand's position at time 1. The second, time 2 error curve, in contrast, serves as a template of a localization error curve if the participants had truly aimed at the hand's position at time 2. For incorrect TOJ trials, we do not know whether participants aimed at where the incorrectly chosen hand was positioned at time 1 or at time 2. The rationale of our analysis, thus, is to compare the localization error curves of incorrect TOJ

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trials with the template localization error curves derived from correct TOJ trials

365 (see Fig. 5 and Methods).



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Figure 5. Localization curves, averaged across participants, for each of the four posture conditions in Experiment 1. Curves of incorrect TOJ trials (red) show a similar pattern as the localization curves of the correct TOJ trials at time 1 (dark blue), but not as the localization curves of the correct TOJ trials at time 2 (light blue). Traces reflect the mean localization error, shaded areas around the traces reflect s.e.m. across participants. The shaded regions in the background represent the average movement time.

373 Localization errors of incorrect TOJ trials overlapped with localization 374 errors of correct TOJ trials at time 1 for each of the four start and end posture 375 combinations. To quantify this further, we computed the temporal shift required to align localization errors of incorrect TOJ trials with those of correct TOJ trials 376 377 (see Maij et al., 2009). If, in incorrect TOJ trials, participants aimed for the 378 incorrect hand's position at time 1, then the temporal shift should be zero 379 relative to the localization error curve in correct TOJ trials relative to time 1: 380 furthermore, it should be about -110 ms (negative denoting a shift towards left,

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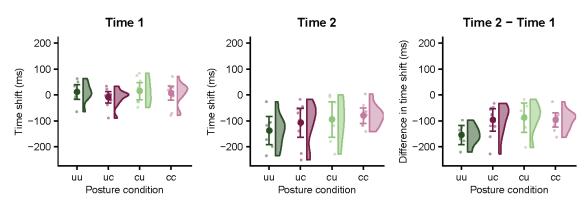
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381 see above) compared to the localization error curve of correct TOJ trials relative 382 to time 2. If, however, participants aimed for the incorrect hand's position at 383 time 2, the shift pattern should be exactly reverse, that is, zero compared to the 384 second template curve, and around +110 ms compared to the first template 385 curve.

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390 Figure 6. Time shift of stimulus localization error in TOJ error trials relative to time 1 (left panel) 391 and time 2 (middle panel) for the four posture conditions in Experiment 1. The temporal shift of 392 the localization error curve was significantly different from zero when calculated relative to time 393 2, but not relative to time 1; this result is consistent with the time reconstruction hypothesis, but 394 not with the stimulus switch hypothesis. This pattern was similar across all participants as 395 demonstrated by the differences in time shift between time 2 and time 1 (right panel). Data are 396 visualized with raincloud plots (Allen et al., 2019) that display probability density estimates, 397 condition averages (large symbols), and individual participants (small symbols). Error bars 398 denote 95% confidence intervals.

Fig. 6 displays the temporal shift between the localization error curve of incorrect TOJ trials and the error curves at time 1 and time 2 derived from correct TOJ trials.

We fitted a linear mixed model with two factors: factor Posture Condition coded the four combinations resulting from uncrossed and crossed start and end postures. Factor Reference Time Point coded whether the localization error curve for correct TOJ trials was computed relative to time 1 or time 2. The

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406 dependent variable was the time shift that best aligns the localization error 407 curve between correct and incorrect TOJ. This analysis revealed a significant 408 effect of Reference Time Point ($\chi^2(9,10) = 15.55$, p < 0.001), indicating that the 409 time shift required to align the localization error curves of correct and incorrect 410 TOJ trials differed depending on whether localization error of correct TOJ trials 411 was computed based on time 1 or time 2. In contrast, there was no effect of 412 Posture Condition ($\chi^2(7,10) = 1.57$, p = 0.67) or interaction ($\chi^2(7,10) = 4.53$, p 413 = 0.21) between the two factors. This latter result indicates that the relationship 414 of localization in correct and incorrect TOJ trials held across all postures; this 415 result is also illustrated by the very similar relationship of the different 416 localization error curves in the four panels of Fig. 5. Thus, whereas limb posture 417 affected hand assignment, it did not affect tactile localization.

418 To assess whether localization in incorrect TOJ trials aimed at a location related to time 1 or time 2, we tested the respective times shifts required to align 419 420 the localization errors of the two types of trials against zero. The time shift 421 between localization errors for correct TOJ trials at time 1 and incorrect TOJ 422 trials, averaged across the four posture conditions, was 6 (s.e., 3) ms; if this 423 value is not significantly different from 0, then an LMM of only this condition 424 should not improve by inclusion of an intercept, as the latter would model the 425 deviation of the average shift away from 0. The comparison of a model with and 426 without intercept did not provide statistical evidence to reject a zero time shift 427 $(\chi^2(1) = 0.84, p = 0.36)$. Null findings are difficult to interpret in the context of 428 frequentist statistics. Therefore, we complemented our analysis by a Bayesian 429 analysis comparing a model with only a random participant factor with a model 430 that, in addition, included a population intercept, equivalent to the linear mixed 431 model reported above. The population-level intercept estimate was 6 ms and 432 the 95% confidence range [-8.28; 19.27 ms] included 0. Model comparison via 433 leave-one-out cross-validation found themodel without intercept to be more 434 credible than the model with the population intercept, that would have been 435 indicative of a non-zero localization error shift between correct and incorrect 436 TOJ tials (difference of expected log predictive density, ELPD, for second as 437 compared to first model: -0.6, s.e. 0.9).

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438 We ran the same analyses for the time shifts required to align localization 439 error curves between correct and incorrect TOJ trials when correct trials' error 440 curve had been calculated relative to time 2. In contrast to the results for time 441 1, the average time shift between localization errors for correct TOJ trials at 442 time 2 and incorrect TOJ trials was -105 (s.e., 7) ms, and a model without 443 intercept fit this condition significantly worse than a model with the intercept 444 $(\chi^2(1) = 19.38, p < 0.001)$. The significant difference to time 2 suggests that 445 participants did not aim at the position of the second stimulus in incorrect TOJ 446 trials.

447 While neither the non-significant difference to time 1 in the LMM analysis, 448 nor the Bayesian parameter estimate including 0 statistically imply equality of 449 the error curves in correct and incorrect TOJ trials, these statistical results are 450 consistent with the two conditions being equal, and they suggest that, if a 451 difference exists, it is small. Furthermore, the time shift of -105 ms for time 2 452 closely matches the stimulus SOA of 110 ms, further suggesting that, in error 453 trials, participants did not aim for hand location at the second, but rather at the 454 first time point. Corroborating this conclusion, the Bayesian 95% interval [-138; 455 -76 ms] of the intercept estimate includes -110 ms, and comparison of Bayesian 456 models for time 2 with and without intercept strongly favored the model 457 including the intercept (difference in ELPD from first to second model, -1.4, s.e. 1.9). 458

459 Experiment 2

460 The results of Experiment 1 suggest that when asked to localize the external 461 location of the first of to two tactile stimuli applied in succession to different 462 hands, participants chose which hand received the stimulus and then inferred 463 the position of the chosen limb at the time point of the first stimulus. 464 Consequently, when participants chose the incorrect limb, stimulus location 465 was determined as the location at which the incorrect hand was at the correct 466 (first) time point. While these results support the *time reconstruction hypothesis*, 467 it should be realized that Experiment 1 tested only a single SOA of 110 ms 468 between the two tactile stimuli. If our conclusions drawn from Experiment 1 are

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469 correct, then localization of stimuli assigned to the incorrect hand should always470 depend on the first stimulus's time, independent of SOA.

471 Experiment 2 tested this conjecture. Again, participants judged which hand had 472 received the first of two tactile stimuli during a bimanual movement and then 473 located the stimulus perceived to have occurred first. We presented tactile 474 stimuli with four different SOAs: 60, 85, 110, and 135 ms. As explained in 475 Experiment 1, the shift between the time 1 and time 2 curves of correct TOJ 476 trials reflects the SOA of the two tactile stimuli. Accordingly, the two template 477 curves are further apart the larger the SOA (compare light vs. dark blue lines in 478 panels A-D of Fig. 7). As the estimated localization error curves in Experiment 479 1 were similar for all combinations of the hands' start and end posture, 480 Experiment 2 involved only reaches from an uncrossed to an uncrossed posture 481 and from a crossed to a crossed posture. This strategy minimized marker 482 obstruction and homogenized movement time across conditions (see 483 Supplementary Table 3). Experiment 2 was conducted in a different lab than 484 Experiment 1, using different equipment, re-written experimental code, different 485 experimenters, and new analysis scripts (see Material and methods for details). 486 To further scrutinize the reliability of our results, we increased our sample size 487 and acquired a higher number of trials.

488 Hand assigment

In accordance with Experiment 1 and previous findings (Heed, Möller, et al., 2015; Hermosillo et al., 2011), TOJ performance in Experiment 2 was modulated by hand posture and SOA. At all SOA, participants made large amounts of errors, ensuring that a sufficient number of trials were available to analyze incorrect TOJ trials. Detailed results are reported in the Supplementary Information (Supplementary Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 4).

495 **Explicit stimulus localization in space**

496 Complementing the findings from Experiment 1 and further corroborating the 497 *time reconstruction hypothesis*, localization errors of the incorrect TOJ trials 498 largely overlapped with the localization errors of correct TOJ trials at time 1 for

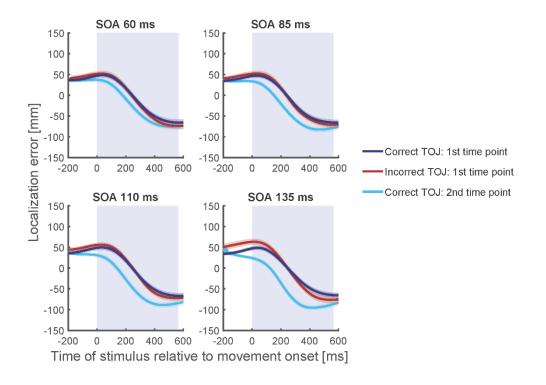
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499 each of the four SOAs (see Fig. 7) and for each subject and posture condition

500 (see Supplementary Fig. 2-4).

501



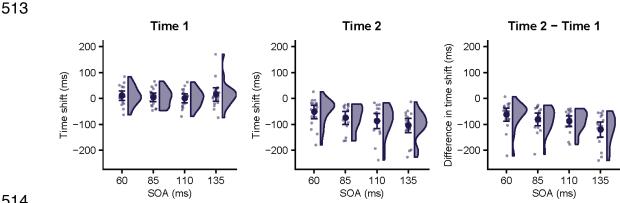
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Figure 7. Localization curves, averaged across participants and posture, for each of the four SOAs in Experiment 2. Curves of incorrect TOJ trials (red) show a similar pattern as the localization curves of the correct TOJ trials at time 1 (dark blue), but not as the localization curves of the correct TOJ trials at time 2 (light blue). This pattern was highly similar across all subjects and also when calculated separately for each posture condition (see Supplementary Information). Traces reflect the mean, shaded areas around the traces reflect s.e.m. The shaded regions in the background represent the average movement time.

- 510 Fig. 8 shows the temporal shift between the localization error curves of incorrect
- 511 TOJ trials and the error curves of correct TOJ trials relative to time 1 and time
- 512 2 four all four SOAs.

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515 Figure 8. Time shift of stimulus localization error in incorrect TOJ trials relative to time 1 (left 516 panel) and time 2 (middle panel) for the four SOAs in Experiment 2. For all SOAs, the temporal 517 shift relative to time 1 was not significantly different from 0. In contrast, the time shift was 518 significantly different from zero for all SOAs when calculated relative to time 2, and it was 519 numerically similar to the respective SOA. These results are consistent with the time 520 reconstruction hypothesis, but not with the stimulus switch hypothesis. This pattern was similar 521 across all participants as demonstrated by the differences in time shift between time 2 and time 522 1 (right panel). Data are visualized with raincloud plots (Allen et al., 2019) displaying probability 523 density estimates, condition averages (large symbols), and individual participants (small 524 symbols). Error bars denote 95% confidence intervals.

525 A linear mixed model with factors SOA and Reference Time Point 526 (localization errors for correct TOJ trials computed relative to time 1 vs. time 2) 527 and time shift of the error curve between correct and incorrect TOJ trials as dependent variable revealed a significant main effect of Reference Time Point 528 $(\gamma^2(9,10) = 21.33, p < 0.001)$ and a significant Reference Time Point × SOA 529 530 interaction $(\chi^2(7,10) = 9.90, p = 0.02)$. The time shift between localization errors 531 for correct TOJ trials at time 1 and incorrect TOJ trials, averaged across all four 532 SOA conditions, was 8 ms. As in Experiment 1, a LMM with a common intercept for all SOAs did not fit the data better than a model without an intercept ($\chi^2(1)$) 533 534 = 1.24, p = 0.27). Similarly, allowing for individual intercepts per SOA did not improve the goodness of fit, ($\chi^2(3) = 2.74$, p = 0.43). Thus, none of the tested 535 models provided statistical evidence to reject a zero time shift with respect to 536 537 time 1. These results were again supported by parameter estimates of 538 Bayesian models equivalent to the afore-mentioned LMMs, which estimated 539 both an intercept across all SOAs and individual intercepts per SOA to lie in

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540 intervals that included 0 (see Supplementary Information). Model comparison 541 via leave-one-out cross-validation found a model without population intercept 542 to be more credible than a model with a common intercept (difference of 543 expected log predictive density, ELPD: -0.2, s.e. 0.6) and a model with 544 individual intercepts per SOA (ELPD: -2.2, s.e. 2.2).

545 In contrast, the average time shifts between localization errors for correct 546 TOJ trials at time 2 and incorrect TOJ trials were -52 (s.e., 12) ms, -75 (s.e., 547 12) ms, -87 (s.e., 14) ms, and -104 (s.e., 13) ms for the SOA 60 ms, 85 ms, 110 548 ms, and 135 ms, respectively. A model with a common intercept for all SOAs 549 explained the data significantly better than a model without an intercept ($\chi^2(1)$) 550 = 29.27, p < 0.001). A model allowing for different intercepts for each SOA 551 further improved the goodness of fit ($\chi^2(3) = 14.3$, p = 0.003), indicating that 552 localization curve's time shift relative to time 2 depended on the respective SOA 553 (see Supplementary Table 5 for Bayesian model estimates). Model comparison 554 via leave-one-out cross-validation found a model with individual SOA intercepts 555 to be more credible than a model with a common intercept (difference of 556 expected log predictive density, ELPD: -5.4, s.e. 3.8) and a model without 557 intercept (ELPD: -7.2, s.e. 4.7).

558 In sum, localization curves reflected the increase of, and shift values 559 were numerically close to, the stimulus SOAs. Yet, the time shift value for the 560 110 ms SOA in Experiment 2 was smaller than that of Experiment 1 (-87 vs. -561 105 ms). In fact, average time shift values of Experiment 2 seemed to 562 underestimate the true SOA in Experiment 2, although the Bayesian 95% 563 intervals of the intercept estimates included the true SOA for all but the largest SOA (i.e., 135 ms, see Supplementary Table 5). Furthermore, at time 1, the 564 565 estimated intercepts were all slightly (albeit non-significantly) positive (Fig. 8 left panel, Supplementary Table 5), and when one considers the difference in time 566 567 shift (i.e., Time 2 – Time 1), the estimated values match the true SOA more 568 closely (-63 ms, -81 ms, -88 ms, and -120 ms for SOAs 60 ms, 85 ms, 110 ms, 569 and 135 ms, respectively; see Fig. 8, right panel). We note that time shift 570 calcluations are based on a sliding Gaussian average across noisy, non-linear

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571 patterns of localization errors, and so absolute shift values may not exactly 572 reflect the stimulus SOAs.

573 Discussion

574 The aim of our study was to test whether participants represent the 575 remapped spatial location of tactile stimuli when they make spatial decisions 576 about tactile stimuli. Participants indicated both the target limb and the 577 perceived location in space of the first of two tactile stimuli in a tactile TOJ task. 578 Presentation of stimuli during movement implied that stimulus location 579 depended on stimulation time, allowing us to determine the relationship of 580 stimulus timing and perceived stimulus location in space. If participants had first 581 computed the spatial location, and then derived which limb had occupied this 582 location at time of stimulation (space-to-limb hypothesis, see Kitazawa, 2002), 583 incorrect hand assignment should have been associated with external 584 localization along the trajectory of the correct hand; we did not find any 585 evidence for such behavior. If participants had represented stimulus location 586 and stimulated limb together, and simply confused the two due to conflict 587 between different spatial codes (*stimulus switch hypothesis*), incorrect hand 588 assignment should have been associated with spatial localization at the location 589 of the incorrect limb at the second stimulus's time. Localization error curves 590 were incompatible with this view, as their systematic bias differed significantly 591 from a hypothetical localization curve, derived from correct trials, relating to 592 stimulus time 2. Instead, when participants chose the incorrect hand, their 593 localization errors implied that they had aimed at that hand's location at the time 594 of the first, correct stimulus, evident in a close match of localization curves of 595 correct and erroneous TOJ trials when computed relative to stimulus time 1. In 596 other words, participants derived the reported stimulus location by combining 597 the time of the first, correct stimulus with the trajectory of the second, incorrectly 598 chosen hand, effectively indicating a location at which no stimulus had occurred 599 - consistent with the *time reconstruction hypothesis*. This behavior was evident 600 for all combinations of uncrossed and crossed start and end postures, as well 601 as for all tested SOAs between the two tactile stimuli. TOJ errors, thus, did not

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602 simply reflect temporal confusion of two stimuli; instead, localization in TOJ 603 error trials marks the computation of tactile stimulus location based on correct 604 stimulus timing and movement information of a (correctly or incorrectly) implied 605 body part. Accordingly, limb crossing affected hand assignment, but not 606 stimulus localization.

607 The pattern of hand assignment errors was in line with previous studies: 608 Participants made more TOJ hand assignment errors in conditions that involved 609 hand crossing than in conditions in which the hands were uncrossed (see Fig. 610 3; Heed, Möller, et al., 2015; Hermosillo et al., 2011; Shore et al., 2002; 611 Yamamoto & Kitazawa, 2001). These reliable findings support the interpretation 612 that categorical decisions in touch, such as choosing which limb was 613 stimulated, are affected by weighted integration of different spatial aspects of 614 the tactile stimulus and configuration of the body (Badde et al., 2019; Badde & 615 Heed, 2016; Heed & Azañón, 2014). In contrast, localization error patterns were 616 similar across uncrossed and crossed start and end hand posture conditions, 617 suggesting that arm posture during stimulation did not affect localization 618 responses (see Fig. 4, 5). In particular, localization errors exhibited comparable 619 spatial biases over time in uncrossed and crossed conditions. Furthermore, 620 localization error scattered around the chosen hand was not biased towards the 621 other hand (see Fig. 4), an effect one might have expected if, like hand 622 assignment, spatial localization was subject to weighted influence of the tactile 623 stimulus's anatomical origin as coded by a body-based reference frame.

624 The dissociation between TOJ hand assignment and localization 625 responses indicates that the two phenomena do not reflect the same process. 626 It is widely assumed that the weighted integration of spatial factors reflected by 627 tactile limb crossing effects trades off the anatomical and the external location 628 of a tactile stimulus (Badde & Heed, 2016; Cadieux & Shore, 2013; Kitazawa, 629 2002; Shore et al., 2002; Yamamoto & Kitazawa, 2001). This assumption 630 requires that an external location is constructed as a prerequisite for assigning 631 a stimulus to a hand. Our present finding that participants incorrectly localize 632 tactile stimuli associated with incorrect limb choice, in contrast, implies that not

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633 stimulus location determines hand assignment, but vice versa, hand634 assignment determines perceived stimulus location.

635 This conclusion is incompatible with the common view that crossing 636 effects, obtained in experiments that require categorical decisions such as TOJ, 637 are an implicit indicator of precise tactile localization and tactile remapping. This 638 is a strong claim that may invalidate the experimental logic of numerous papers 639 that have applied this logic. However, the present results are corroborated by 640 another recent study that has challenged the view that errors in tactile 641 categorical response paradigms reflect a conflict between anatomical and 642 external spatial coordinates. In that study, participants performed TOJ of tactile 643 stimuli presented to uncrossed and crossed hands and feet (Badde et al., 644 2019). In each trial, two stimuli were randomly presented to two of the four 645 limbs. In some trials, participants reported the first touch on a limb that had not 646 been stimulated in this trial. For instance, after stimulation of the left hand and the right foot, a participant may have indicated that the first stimulus had 647 648 occurred on the right hand. These TOJ errors systematically depended on 649 different anatomical features such as the type (hand or foot) of the correct limb 650 and its body side. Critically, neither the side of space of the limb that had 651 received the correct stimulus, nor the spatial distance between stimulus and 652 response limb affected TOJ errors in this task. Like the present results, these 653 findings are incompatible with the prevailing view that crossing effects reflect 654 conflict during the integration of anatomical and spatial stimulus location. In fact, 655 the two studies complement each other in that we show here that stimulus 656 location is not used for hand assignment, and Badde et al. (2019) suggest 657 which information is instead used to choose between the two hands in a 658 categorical tactile-spatial task.

Notably, other manipulations that have been used to argue for the relevance of precise spatial representations in tactile decisions can be framed in such a feature-based account as well. For instance, the TOJ crossing effect was reduced when the two hands' positions differed in height or in depth (Azañón et al., 2016). However, this manipulation may have simply introduced

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an additional, non-metric feature that helped representing the two choice 664 665 options as different, thus improving TOJ choice based on a categorical feature rather than on metric distance. Similarly, whereas effects of distance between 666 667 the two hands during a TOJ have been interpreted as implying a metric 668 representation of stimulus location (Roberts et al., 2003; Shore et al., 2005), 669 others have reported such effects only for very small (3cm), but not other (10 670 cm and larger), distances between the hands (Kim & Cruse, 2001), again 671 suggesting that they may reflect categorically coded spatial features, not metric 672 stimulus location.

673 The reason for the apparent contradiction between previous research 674 and these new findings stems from the fact that typical experimental designs, 675 in which tactile stimuli are presented to the two stationary hands, do not allow 676 disentangling the prevailing view of crossing effects indicating conflict between 677 tactile anatomical and (precise) spatial stimulus location from the view that the 678 conflict apparent in limb crossing must indicate other spatial aspects, such as 679 those identified in our previous study (Badde et al., 2019). Thus, limb crossing 680 paradigms that require limb choices about the origin of touch likely reflect the 681 integration of categorical, tactile-spatial stimulus features. We propose that 682 automatic effects, such as crossmodal, tactile-visual cueing (Azañón & Soto-683 Faraco, 2008), too, are based on such feature-based processing. In contrast, precise stimulus location is, contrary to what has regularly been implied, not 684 685 among the pieces of information that are integrated for automatic, tactile-spatial 686 coding. Instead, precise location of the tactile stimulus in space is inferred post-687 hoc only when required.

Furthermore, our proposal contrasts with the suggestion that TOJ errors are due to temporal confusion of the two stimuli, hypothesized to occur due to slowing of a neural clock mechanism because crossed postures induce higher cognitive load as compared to uncrossed postures (Kitazawa et al., 2008). This hypothesis is based on the assumption that tactile locations are represented correctly but ordered incorrectly in time. It is incompatible with our finding that participants localized touch in incorrect TOJ trials at the location of the incorrect

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hand at the correct, first stimulus time point. Moreover, an account based on
time confusion is specific to the TOJ paradigm, in which participants compare
two stimuli. In contrast, a feature-based account generalizes to other
experimental paradigms, including ones that present only a single tactile
stimulus (Azañón et al., 2010; Azañón & Soto-Faraco, 2008; Badde et al., 2015,
2019).

701 Our study exploited systematic localization errors when a stimulus is 702 presented during a movement of the arm. A modulation of spatial localization 703 by movement of the respective sensors is not unique to touch. When a brief 704 flash is shown during a smooth pursuit or saccadic eye movement, its 705 localization is perceived with a bias in the direction of the eve movement shortly 706 before and during the first half of the eye movement, and in the opposite 707 direction at the end of the eye movement (Matin & Pearce, 1965; reviewed by 708 Schlag & Schlag-Rey, 2002). As suggested here for touch, visual 709 mislocalization during saccades, too, depends on temporal processing. For 710 instance, irrelevant auditory temporal information can influence the perceived 711 location of a flash near the time of saccades and result in a temporal shift of the 712 visual localization error curve (Binda et al., 2010; Maij et al., 2009). Moreover, 713 when a red flash was presented around the time of a saccade on a split 714 green/red background, participants sometimes reported that the red flash had 715 occurred on the (same-color) red background; these reports of an objectively 716 impossible perception (flash on same-colored background) were best explained 717 by integration of temporal uncertainty of the flash's timing and eye position 718 (Maij, Brenner, et al., 2011). A computational model for these temporal-spatial 719 phenomena faithfully replicates the observed spatial biases for both vision and 720 touch. Illustrated for the case of tactile localization on the arm, the model 721 assumes temporal uncertainty about tactile stimulus occurrence relative to the 722 arm movement and combines a probability distribution of the possible stimulus 723 time with the perceived arm movement trajectory (Maij et al., 2013, 2017; see 724 Maii, Grave, et al., 2011, for the visual analogue). The present results, too, are 725 compatible with the temporal uncertainty model. Independent of which hand the 726 stimulus was assigned to, the temporal estimate of the tactile stimulus was

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identical, resulting in identical localization error profiles, based on the trajectory
of the chosen hand, in correct and incorrect TOJ trials. Thus, the time-based
mechanism that leads to the seemingly surprising perception of spatial
locations at which no stimulus really occurred may be task- and domaingeneral.

732 To summarize, we observed the typical dependence of tactile TOJ 733 responses on limb posture, with higher error rates when the hands are crossed 734 rather than uncrossed. Explicit localization responses of the stimulus chosen 735 as having occurred first were incompatible with theoretical accounts that posit 736 confusion of yoked stimulus representations that encompass the independently 737 determined external-spatial location of tactile stimuli, or projection of a body 738 part onto the determined spatial location of a stimulus. Instead, participants 739 chose one hand presumably based on categorical, spatial stimulus 740 characteristics such as the stimulated body side (Badde et al., 2019), and then 741 combined the time point associated with the first stimulus with the chosen arm's trajectory. After hand assignment errors, participants, thus, effectively 742 743 referenced a post-hoc constructed spatial location at which no stimulus had 744 ever occurred.

745 Materials & methods

746 Data for the presented analyses as well as code to run analyses and create
747 figures are provided at the Open Science Framework website,
748 <u>https://osf.io/ybxn5/</u>.

749 Participants

750 Experiment 1 was performed at the Faculty of Psychology and Human Movement Science of the University of Hamburg. Twelve right-handed 751 752 participants (aged 19-31 years, 7 female) gave informed consent to take part in 753 the experiment. The study was part of a research program approved by the 754 ethics committee of the German Psychological Society (DGPs). Experiment 2 755 preregistered Science Framework website was at the Open

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(https://osf.io/qyzqb). A sample size of 20 participants was defined a priori. We 756 757 collected data from 20 individuals from Bielefeld University. We excluded data 758 of 1 participant from analyses as s/he did not follow the instructions and most 759 of the time localized the tactile stimulus at the start or end position, but not along 760 the movement trajectory. Furthermore, we excluded data of another participant 761 as s/he only completed 384 trials in total. As any form of data acquisition was 762 stopped in our lab beginning of March 2020 due to the spread of the corona 763 virus, we did not collect data from replacement participants. Our sample thus 764 constisted of 18 participants (aged 18-25 years, 15 female). The experiment 765 was approved by the ethics committee at Bielefeld University (Ethical 766 Application Ref: 2017-114).

767 Participants provided written informed consent and were compensated with 768 €7/hr or received course credit. All participants had normal or corrected-tonormal vision and did not have any known perceptual, motor, or neurological 769 disorders. Participants took part only if, in a screening experiment, they 770 771 exhibited a TOJ crossing effect at the SOA used in the main experiment. We 772 used this screening procedure because individual response patterns in tactile 773 experiments involving hand crossing are guite variable (Badde et al., 2015; 774 Cadieux et al., 2010; Yamamoto & Kitazawa, 2001); however, crossing effects 775 are highly reliable across the entire population, so that our screening procedure 776 does not preclude generalization.

777 General setup

Participants were blindfolded. They sat on a chair at a table. A tactile stimulator
(Oticon BC 461-0/12, Oticon Ltd., London, UK) was attached to the phalanx
media of each index finger. Stimulation consisted of 200 Hz vibration for 10 ms.
To mask any noise of the vibrators, participants wore earplugs and heard white
noise through speakers (Experiment 1) or wore sound-attenuating headphones
(Superlux HD669, Superlux Enterprise Development, Shanghai, China;
Experiment 2).

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786 Experiment 1

787 Apparatus, task and procedure

788 The position of each index finger in space was recorded with an Optotrak active. 789 infrared marker motion tracking system (Northern Digital Inc., Waterloo, 790 Ontario, Canada) at a sampling rate of 1000 Hz. One marker was positioned 791 on the nail of each index finger, directly next to the tactile stimulator. A data 792 acquisition unit (Odau; Northern Digital Inc., Waterloo, Ontario, Canada; 793 sampling rate 1000 Hz) synchronized marker position and timing of the tactile 794 stimuli. The experiment was controlled with Matlab (Mathworks, Natick, MA, 795 USA), using the Psychophysics Toolbox (Brainard, 1997) and the Optotrak 796 Toolbox (http://webapp6.rrz.uni-hamburg.de/allpsy/vf/OptotrakToolbox).

797 2 Stimulus Task: Participants moved both hands from a position of about 40 cm 798 away from their body towards their body to a position about 10 cm away from 799 their body. Hand start and end posture were uncrossed and crossed, varied in 800 blocks of 50 trials in pseudo-randomized order (see Fig. 1A). In each trial, a 801 tone instructed the movement start. At a random time (presented between 50-802 800 ms after the tone, drawn from a square distribution) before, during, or after 803 the movement, two tactile stimuli were applied, one to each hand, at an SOA of 804 110 ms; the left-right order of stimuli was pseudo-random. Upon movement 805 completion, participants moved the index finger that they had perceived to have 806 been stimulated first to the location of the first stimulus on the table. The hand 807 remained in this location until a tone, presented 2.5 s after the initial movement 808 cue instructed them to lift the index finger; this finger lift was used to identify the 809 response hand during trajectory analysis. Subsequently, participants 810 repositioned the hands to their start locations. We acquired 300 trials of each posture combination. To compensate for obstruction of motion tracking 811 812 markers, we acquired more trials for 2 participants in the uncrossed to crossed 813 posture and vice versa movement condition. The experiment took 814 approximately 4 hours, split in two-hour sessions held on different days. 815 Practice trials were included on each day before the experiment started until

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816 the participant had understood, and felt confident with, the task. In total we 817 acquired 14.776 trials.

818 *1 Stimulus Task:* The procedure was identical to the 2 Stimulus task except that 819 participants only received one stimulus at either hand and than indicated the 820 perceived location with the respective index finger. Participants performed 300 821 trials in each posture combination split in blocks of 50 trials. In 99,5% of the 822 trials participants were using the correct arm when localizing the stimulus.

823 Analysis

824 Data preprocessing. Start and end of the movement were determined based on 825 a velocity threshold of 5 cm/s. We interpolated missing motion tracking data, 826 for instance due to obstruction when the hands passed each other or due to 827 rotation of the hands, using splines, with the restriction that movement onset 828 and offset could be determined. Trials were discarded when (1) missing marker 829 data could not be adequadetely interpolated (1 Stimulus Task: 13%; 2 Stimulus 830 Task: 11.9%): (2) no stimulus localization response, indicated by finger lifting. 831 could be detected (1 Stimulus Task: 2.8%; 2 Stimulus Task: 5.4%); (3) and 832 when participants did not perform smooth, continuous, and synchronous 833 movements with movement duration less than 200 ms or more 1000 ms (1 834 Stimulus Task: 3.7%; 2 Stimulus Task: 0.2%). In total, 19% (1 Stimulus Task) 835 and 17.5% (2 Stimulus Task) of trials were removed.

Analysis of Temporal Order Judgements (TOJ). We considered the TOJ to be
correct when the hand used for the localization response had indeed been
stimulated first.

Localization error. We calculated the localization error, that is, the difference between the true location of the index finger at the time of stimulation and the reported location, that is, index finger pointing location just before finger lifting. Errors are reported relative to the direction of the movement as a straight line between start and end position of the hand, with positive values indicating errors in movement direction towards the end position of the hand. The localization error varies systematically with the stimulus time relative to

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846 movement onset (Dassonville, 1995; Maij et al., 2013, 2017; Maij, Grave, et al., 847 2011; Watanabe et al., 2009). The localization errors were converted to an estimated localization curve by averaging errors using a moving Gaussian 848 849 window of 75 ms across a time window of -200 to 600 ms (step size 1ms) with 850 respect to movement onset. For each participant and posture condition, we 851 calculated localization curves for correct TOJ trials relative to onset of the first 852 stimulus, for correct TOJ trials relative to onset of the second stimulus, and for 853 incorrect TOJ trials relative to onset of the first stimulus.

854 Comparison of localization errors in correct and incorrect TOJ trials. To 855 determine whether participants localized the stimulus relative to hand position 856 at the first or the second stimulus timepoint, we calculated – separately for each 857 participant and posture condition - the temporal shift that would produce the 858 smallest deviations around a single, common localization curve of the 859 compared conditions 1) between the incorrect TOJ localization curve and the 860 correct TOJ localization curve relative to the first stimulus time point and 2) 861 between the incorrect TOJ localization curve and the correct TOJ localization 862 curve relative to the second stimulus time point. Specifically, we shifted the data 863 points of the incorrect TOJ localization curves in time from 300 - 300 ms in steps of 1 ms and calculated the squared localization error differences with an 864 865 localization curve calculated from data points of the two compared conditions 866 using a common moving Gaussian average for each time shift. We refer to the 867 time value that minimized the summed squared error differences with this 868 overall construction curve as time shift (Maij et al., 2009, 2017).

We assessed the time shift for both stimulus times and, accordingly, obtained two shift values per participant and posture condition. In some instances, we were unable to construct a time shift due to a low number of incorrect TOJ trials for that specific condition (18 cases out of 4 postures x 2 stimulus times x 12 participants = 96); these data points were treated as missing data in the linear mixed model analysis.

875 *Statistical analysis.* We assessed statistical significance of the reported 876 results using (Generalized) Linear Mixed Models ([G]LMM) (Bolker et al., 2009,

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2009) as implemented in R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2014) using packages
lme4, version 1.1-21 (Bates et al., 2015), and afex version 0.26-0 (Singmann,
2015). We estimated intercept parameters of Bayesian mixed factorial models
equivalent to LMM using packages brms, version 2.12.0 (Bürkner, 2017, 2018),
and loo, version 2.2.0 (Vehtari, Gabry, et al., 2017; Vehtari, Gelman, et al.,
2017).

883 GLMM are adequate for analysis of binary variables such as correct vs. 884 incorrect responses in our TOJ task (Jaeger, 2008). Furthermore, (G)LMM and 885 are robust against missing data and account for differences in trial numbers 886 across conditions, as present in our data. All reported statistics were computed 887 using type 3 sums of squares, as implemented in afex. For the random structure 888 of LMM and GLMM for TOJ analysis, we included only random intercepts. 889 because models did not reliably converge when random slopes were included. 890 Models that tested time shifts against zero used only the data corresponding to 891 one particular reference time point of correct trials (localization error relative to 892 time 1 or time 2); given that posture did not significantly modulate time shift, the 893 respective models excluded this factor. Accordingly, we compared a model 894 without intercept [shift $\sim 0 + (1 \mid participant]$ against a model with intercept [shift 895 \sim 1 + (1 | participant], effectively testing whether a non-zero intercept 896 significantly improved the time shift fit.

The brms R package uses STAN as backend. We ran LMM to estimate the 95% interval of the intercepts in the different time shift models. We compared Bayesian models using the loo_compare() function of the loo R package. This function uses leave-one-out cross-validation to compare models by assessing the models' predictive density when each data point is omitted from fitting (Vehtari, Gelman, et al., 2017).

903 Experiment 2

904 Apparatus, task and procedure

905 Kinematic data of the fingers was recorded using an optical motion capture 906 system (Visualeyez II VZ4000v, Phoenix Technologies Inc, Vancouver, BC,

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Canada) at 250Hz sampling frequency with markers placed on the nail of the
two index fingers. The experiment was controlled with Matlab (The MathWorks
Version R2015a; Natick, MA, USA) using the Psychophysics Toolbox
(Brainard, 1997). Stimulus presentation was controlled via custom-made
hardware and triggered through a digital acquisition card (PCI-6509, National
Instruments, Austin, USA).

913 The procedure was largely similar to Experiment 1, except that 1) participants 914 made only reaches from an uncrossed to an uncrossed posture or from a 915 crossed to a crossed posture and 2) tactile stimuli were separated by SOAs of 916 60, 85, 110, or 135 ms. Posture was varied in blocks of 64 trials in a pseudo-917 randomized order. Within each block, SOA and which hand was stimulated first 918 were pseudo-randomized. Participants performed 28 blocks (14 of each 919 posture combination) for a total of 1792 trials. To compensate for marker 920 obstruction and failure to reliably detect finger lifting, 2 participants performed 921 10 additional blocks (5 of each posture combination). As we stopped any form 922 of data acquisition in our lab for an indefinite time period beginning of March 923 2020, 2 participants performed only 19 and 23 blocks, respectively. The 924 experiment took about 5-6 hours to complete, split in two-hour sessions held 925 on different days. Practice trials were included prior to each experimental 926 session.

927 Analysis

928 Data preprocessing. We used custom-written Matlab scripts for processing of 929 kinematic data. We first interpolated missing data points and resampled the 930 data to 1000 Hz using splines, and low-pass filtered the data using a second-931 order butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 6 Hz. We determined 932 movement onset/ offset of each hand as the time of the sample in which the 933 resultant velocity of the respective finger marker exceeded/ dropped below 5 934 cm/s. We excluded trials when missing marker data could not be adequadetely 935 interpolated (8%), when no stimulus localization response, indicated by finger 936 lifting, could be detected (4.2%), and when participants did not perform smooth,

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937 continuous, and synchronous movements (6.8%). In total we removed 18.2%938 of the trials.

939 Analysis of Temporal Order Judgements (TOJ) and localization error. TOJ and 940 localization errors were determined as in Experiment 1. Because localization 941 error curves were similar regardless of start and end posture in Experiment 1, 942 we collapsed across postures in Experiment 2 to calculate the localization error 943 curves; we calculated individual curves for each participant and SOA (60, 85, 944 110, and 135 ms). Localization error curves calculated separately for 945 Experiment 2's two posture conditions yielded gualitatively similar results (see 946 Supplementary Information).

947 *Comparison of localization errors in correct and incorrect TOJ trials.* Time shift 948 values were calculated as in Experiment 1 (separately for each participant and 949 SOA) using a shifting window of -300 to 300 ms (step size 1ms).

950 Statistical analysis. We assessed TOJ performance using a generalized mixed 951 model (GLMM) with factors Posture (uncrossed-uncrossed, crossed-crossed). 952 and SOA (60, 85, 110, 135 ms). The analysis approach for the dependence of 953 time shifts on SOAs followed a similar logic as Experiment 1. We first assessed 954 the significance of main effects and interaction of the experimental design with 955 afex. We then assessed whether time shifts were 0 relative to time 1 and time 956 2. To this end, we compared models with a random participant factor but no 957 fixed factors and intercept [shift $\sim 0 + (1 | participant]$, with a common intercept 958 for all SOAs [shift ~1 + (1 | participant], and with individual intercepts per SOA 959 [shift ~ SOA + (1 | participant] separately for shift values relative to time 1 and 960 time 2, respectively.

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