

1 **CHAPTER 47**

2 **Eye movements and**
 3 **concurrent event-related**
 4 **potentials': eye fixation-**
 5 **related potential**
 6 **investigations in reading**

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8 **Abstract**

9 The eye-fixation related potential (EFRP) technique is based on electroencephalogram (EEG) meas-
 10 urements of electrical brain activity in response to eye fixations. EFRPs are extracted from the EEG
 11 by means of signal averaging but in contrast to conventional event-related potential (ERP) technique
 12 the averaged waveforms are time-locked to the onset and offset of eye fixation, not to the onset of
 13 stimulus events. EFRPs have shown to be a useful technique, in addition to eye movement record-
 14 ings, to investigate early lexical processes and for establishing a timeline of these processes during
 15 reading. Moreover, the technique permits one to analyse the EEGs in a natural condition allowing
 16 the investigation of complex visual stimuli such as visual scenes or three-dimensional images.
 17 However, some challenges remain to be solved. Among them, we discuss the saccadic contamination
 18 and the overlap effects that may distort the findings and we propose some suggestions that might
 19 improve these issues. EFRPs may also represent a point of interest for many applications involving
 20 tools for disabled people, video games, or brain–computer interfaces.

21 **Introduction**

22 In the last 20 years computers and other electronic equipment have become remarkably important
 23 for vision research and cognitive psychology in general. While offline techniques such as question-
 24 naires and recall tests were primarily used in experimental psychology during the 1960s and 1970s,
 25 the progress in computer science and electronics has allowed development of very accurate equip-
 26 ment for tracking cognitive processes online. Among these techniques, two methods, eye tracking
 27 and event-related potentials (ERPs), have become very popular and widely used in laboratories. Both
 28 of these techniques hold the potential to give a precise timeline description of processes over time

1 and this temporal accuracy helps to refine the cognitive modelling. However, both techniques also
 2 have severe limitations. In this chapter, we start by reviewing the advantages and limitations of these
 3 techniques in order to show how their combination can provide a better understanding of cognitive
 4 operations. Indeed, seeking a convergence between different techniques has become an actual chal-
 5 lenge for many laboratories in brain research and cognitive psychology. There are several attempts to
 6 combine EEG and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) (Rossell et al., 2003), magnetoen-
 7 cephalography (MEG) and fMRI (Sato et al., 2008), and fMRI and eye tracking (Brown et al., 2008)
 8 with the aim to find the best cognitive measurement. We will describe here how it is possible and
 9 relevant to combine ERP and eye tracking recordings (the so-called eye fixation-related potential
 10 (EFRP) technique) and how this EFRP technique can provide valuable information about cognitive
 11 processes underlying reading. Finally, we will review a number of challenges to be addressed in the
 12 future for improving this technique and to succeed in establishing a reliable technique for investigat-
 13 ing cognition.

14 **ERPs and eye movements are complementary techniques**

15 ERPs are widely used in cognitive neuroscience to capture cognitive processes and their time-course
 16 with a high temporal resolution (Hillyard and Kutas, 1983). ERPs reflect electrical brain activity
 17 (primarily summed postsynaptic potentials of pyramidal cells in the neocortex) that is associated
 18 with sensory or cognitive events. ERPs emerge after averaging continuous electroencephalogram
 19 (EEG) recorded during many presentations of stimuli. These time-locked average waveforms show
 20 several positive (such as P1, P300, etc.) or negative (such as N1, N400, Contingent Negative
 21 Variation, etc.) components within a certain latency range after an event onset. Each component
 22 has a characteristic scalp distribution, some differences in polarity (positivity or negativity), ampli-
 23 tude, or latency that permit us to correlate them to particular cognitive processes (for a review, see
 24 Rugg and Coles, 1995). This technique has been used to investigate mechanisms of sensory memory
 25 (for review, see Näätänen, 1990 and Näätänen et al., 1978), semantics of language (for review see,
 26 Kutas and Federmeier, 2000; Kutas and Hillyard, 1980), and visual perception (for a review, see
 27 Hegdé, 2008).

28 However, the ERP signal is contaminated by saccades and cannot be recorded with cognitive activ-
 29 ities requiring a free visual inspection (i.e. with sequences of saccades). This limitation strongly
 30 constrains the use of this technique in a natural environment. Although several techniques such as
 31 multisource component analysis (Berg and Scherg, 1994) and regression-based methods (Wallstrom
 32 et al., 2004) have been developed to cope with these ocular artefacts, researchers usually reject the
 33 contaminated EEG segments resulting in data loss (Junget al., 2000). In order to avoid such ocular
 34 artefacts caused by excessive saccadic eye movements (blinks, saccades), stimuli are therefore
 35 presented in isolation and subjects are asked to maintain their eyes fixated on the display and
 36 instructed to avoid any eye movements. This, however, creates, difficulties, especially when reading,
 37 visual scene perception, or object recognition are under investigation.

38 Another serious difficulty with the ERP paradigm is that these isolated stimuli are displayed with
 39 unnaturally long intervals between them (>500 ms or 1000 ms). These long delays serve to prevent
 40 the overlap between cognitive processes (Dambacher and Kliegl, 2007). They might also explain why
 41 rather late components such P300 and N400 have been investigated for studying cognition. For
 42 example, in reading studies, the presentation of words isolated with long interstimulus interval (ISIs)
 43 (as in Hillyard et al., 1983) prevents the study of any anticipatory or overlapping processes (spillover
 44 effects) which occur normally during text comprehension. This situation is far from a natural read-
 45 ing process and the ecological validity of the experimental results is questionable. In real life, most
 46 cognitive activities which involve a sequence of visual fixations to inspect the environment have a
 47 great majority of fixations lasting less than 300 ms. In reading once again, typical fixation lasts around
 48 200 or 250 ms and during this time period all perceptual and cognitive operations are realized. In
 49 reality, studying the typical late ERP components in reading, such as P300 and N400, means that the
 50 eyes have already moved to the next word when the peak of these components appears.

1 *Eye movement* measurements provide a complementary method to capture cognitive processes
 2 with a high resolution. The eye tracking technique provides data about the positions and timing of
 3 eye fixations with a high spatial (<0.5° visual angle) and temporal accuracy (>1 kHz). It also allows
 4 one to distinguish between early and late processing by comparing first-pass fixations (fixations
 5 occurring in a certain region of interest for the first time) with second-pass fixations in the same
 6 region in order to capture the processes associated with reprocessing or verification. The eye tracking
 7 technique has been used widely during reading, scene viewing, and visual search tasks but also to
 8 investigate attentional effects during spoken language comprehension (Tanenhaus et al., 1995). Eye
 9 movement variables (such as fixation duration, timing, and saccadic path) provide a robust measure
 10 of underlying cognitive processes. In reading studies, for example, it has been shown that fixation
 11 duration to a lexically frequent word is shorter than to a non-frequent word (Rayner 1998) or that
 12 the length of scan path can provide a good index of ergonomic difficulty on an interface (Goldberg
 13 and Kotval, 1998).

14 One of the major difficulties in interpreting the eye movements is to determine whether a fixation
 15 represents rather deep processing (i.e. semantic processing) or more superficial processing. The
 16 researcher can only rely on temporal variables (gaze duration, 1st pass fixation duration, etc.)
 17 obtained in certain experimental conditions for interpreting the meaning of these fixations. However,
 18 even in this case, the interpretation is not still ensured due to the large variability (between and
 19 within-subjects, tasks, etc.) on fixation durations and it would be beneficial to have other indices that
 20 might confirm or invalidate it.

21 **Combining measures of ERPs and eye** 22 **movements: EFRP technique**

23 In our view, ERPs and eye movements provide complementary measures to capture cognitive proc-
 24 esses providing the possibility to find out precisely when and in which order (in a text or visual scene)
 25 different cognitive operations occur. This approach has been used by measuring ERPs and electro-
 26 oculogram (EOG) simultaneously (Yagi et al., 1998; see also the literature on saccade-related poten-
 27 tials), or by measuring eye movements with an eye tracker and ERPs in separate sessions (Sereno
 28 et al., 1998), or by measuring ERPs and eye movements by an eye tracker simultaneously (Baccino
 29 and Manunta, 2005; Hutzler et al., 2007). Each of these approaches has, however, some limitations
 30 and further development is needed to understand the underlying cognitive processes during single
 31 eye fixations. In the following section these approaches are briefly described and the synchronized
 32 measuring technique is explained in detail.

33 **EOG-based EFRPs**

34 As early as 1964, the analysis of eye movements recorded concurrently with ERPs was used to inves-
 35 tigate the neural processes associated with saccades (Gaarder et al., 1964). The so-called saccade-
 36 related potentials used EOGs that were measured simultaneously with EEG by electrodes placed on
 37 the scalp and around the eyes—horizontal and vertical EOGs, respectively. The EEG signals were
 38 time-locked to the onset of the saccades. These neurophysiological investigations were not focused on
 39 cognitive processes occurring during a fixation (on a meaningful stimulus) but rather by the topog-
 40 raphy (frontal or parietal areas) and temporality of human brain potentials *preceding* saccades (visu-
 41 ally triggered or self-initiated). In particular, they widely used the well-known pro- and antisaccade
 42 task (Brickett et al., 1984; Evdokimidis et al., 1991, 1996; Everling and Fischer, 1998; Everling et al.,
 43 1997; Kurtzberg and Vaughan, 1982; Moster and Goldberg, 1990). The pro- and antisaccade terms
 44 refer to saccades that are performed towards a target (Pro-) or to the opposite side (Anti-). The overall
 45 scope was to determine whether a reflexive response (prosaccade) might be suppressed by a voluntary
 46 motor act (antisaccade). In particular, the task served to investigate pathophysiological mechanisms
 47 of several disorders of the central nervous system and has been used as a diagnostic tool.

1 The term EFRP was first introduced by Yagi and colleagues (Joyce et al., 2002; Yagi and Ogata,
 2 1995; Yagi et al., 1998). EFRPs consisted of time-locking the EEG signals to the offset of saccadic eye
 3 movements and not at the onset of stimulus events, as in the conventional ERP studies and averaged
 4 them to obtain EFRPs for single eye fixations. The most prominent component of the EFRP is called
 5 the lambda response, which is a positive component with a latency of about 80 ms from the offset of
 6 saccades (Kazai and Yagi, 2003). The lambda response has been shown to exhibit changes with prop-
 7 erties of the visual stimulus (e.g. Kazai and Yagi, 1999) and attention (Yagi, 1981). The purpose of
 8 these EFRP experiments has been to focus the interest on early ERP components showing that even
 9 at these short latencies cognitive signals might be extracted (and not only visual-evoked potentials).
 10 However, EFRP technique based on measuring EOG does not provide an accurate measurement of
 11 fixation location since the eye position is not tracked directly but recalculated from calibrated posi-
 12 tions. Furthermore, the EOG method is sensitive to changes in luminance and the ability to accu-
 13 rately identify the amplitudes for small saccades is not very precise. EOG literature is replete with
 14 examples showing the limits of such a practice to determine the spatial accuracy of a fixation (Marton
 15 and Szirtes, 1988a, 1988b). For a wide applicability of the EFRP technique, the exact determination
 16 of a subject's gaze position by means of an eye tracker is inevitable.

17 Infrared eye tracking-based EFRPs in two separate sessions

18 In some other studies, the analyses of eye movements concurrently to ERPs have been made by
 19 running two experiments in parallel: one using eye tracking and the other ERPs, but with *different*
 20 subjects (Dambacher et al., 2007; Sereno and Rayner, 2003; Sereno et al., 1998). Trying to establish a
 21 timeline of lexical processing, Sereno et al. (2003) showed interesting findings on early components
 22 (P1, N1, P2) appearing during a single fixation. ERPs appeared to be sensitive to lexical processing as
 23 early as 100 ms and to context effects as early as 132 ms (132–192 ms) after stimulus presentation.
 24 However, due to parallel and not simultaneous measures of ERPs and eye movements, the results are
 25 not confirmative because they come from different experiments increasing the variability of data.

26 Infrared eye tracking-based EFRPs

27 The EFRP technique has been recently improved by synchronizing the measures from an infrared eye
 28 tracker with an EEG permitting the recording of data simultaneously (Baccino et al., 2005; Hutzler
 29 et al., 2007; Simola et al., 2009). The setup of an EFRP experimental platform is based on two comput-
 30 ers generally connected through their parallel ports (Fig. 47.1).

31 While one computer (A) is devoted to stimulus presentation and eye movement (EM) acquisition,
 32 the other one (B) collects the EEG signals. The coupling of the two systems is achieved by sending a
 33 synchronization signal (TTL Trigger) as soon as the stimulus (words, images, etc.) is presented on
 34 the display (stimulus onset). The synchronization signal enables the EM and EEG data to be recorded
 35 simultaneously and to get an accurate timestamp for offline data matching. Therefore, one impor-
 36 tant thing is to ensure that both signals are sampled at the same rate. A sampling rate around 1 KHz
 37 is, at present, possible with many EEG and eye trackers and this frequency appears preferable to
 38 detect fine processes occurring within a fixation. EFRPs will emerge with segmentation of the contin-
 39 uous EEG signal with reference markers such as fixation onset and offset detected during eye move-
 40 ment analysis. As in ERP studies, EFRPs are obtained by averaging the EEG epochs for every fixation
 41 on a specific stimulus but are shorter in time than ERPs.

42 The EFRP technique has several advantages when compared with previously techniques using
 43 EOG or recording eye movements and ERPs in separate sessions.

- 44 • *Same subject, same stimulus*: one of the most important advantages is to directly correlate the
 45 eye fixations with the EEGs for the same subject, the same stimulus, and within the same region
 46 of interest. This procedure decreases the data variability observed in comparing eye move-
 47 ments and ERPs in separate sessions and ensures better interpretation of the underlying cognitive
 48 processes.

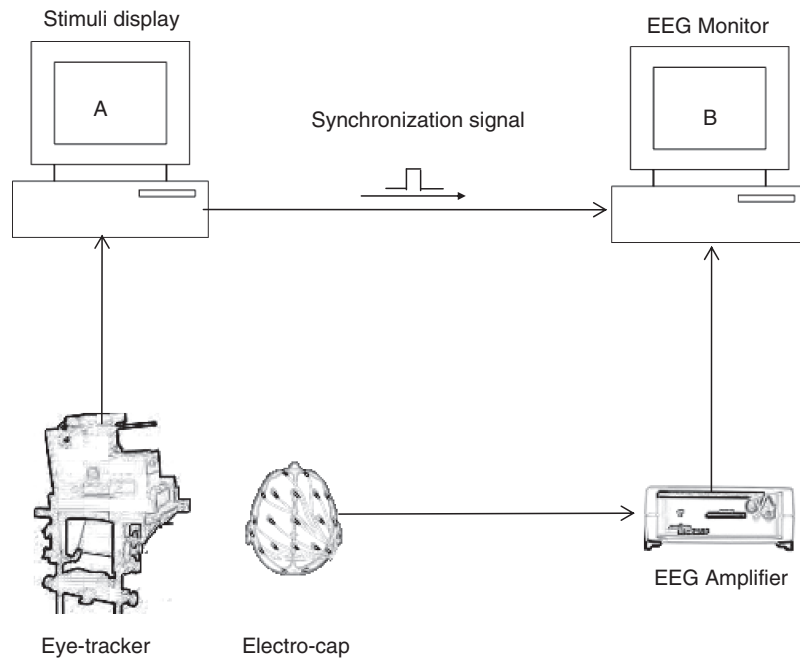


Fig. 47.1 Experimental set-up for recording EFRPs. A TTL trigger synchronizes two computers, one (A) dedicated to presentation of stimuli and eye tracking, and the other one (B) monitoring and recording the EEG.

- 1 • *Precise time line:* combined with an eye tracker at high temporal resolution (≥ 1 KHz) and high
2 accuracy ($< 1^\circ$ visual angle), EFRP technique allows one to establish a precise time course of the
3 activation/inhibition sequence of EEG waveforms underlying any fixation. Thus, it is possible to
4 know what EEG components are correlated to a fixation on a specific stimulus and this can be
5 fruitful for cognitive interpretation and modelling. In this sense, the EFRP technique acts as a
6 zoom into a fixation and permits to investigate the role of early components in cognitive activity
7 rather than late components which have been extensively studied by the conventional ERP para-
8 digm. However, some challenges have to be solved as the overlap problem associated to short stim-
9 uli presentation (Dambacher et al., 2007) and some suggestions will be given in the next section.
- 10 • *Natural context:* another major advantage of the EFRP technique is the ability to capture ERPs in
11 a natural context. As we have seen, the artificial presentation of stimuli during a conventional
12 ERP paradigm requiring a steady gaze during one or more seconds is no longer employed with
13 EFRPs. This artificial presentation could sometimes be the cause of severe restrictions especially
14 for studying spillover effects¹ or integrative processes (as in text comprehension). With the EFRP
15 technique, experimental settings allowing for a strong ecological validity can be used since the
16 technique allows one to move the gaze freely onto any complex stimuli (text, visual scenes, etc.).
- 17 • *Categorizing fixations:* recently, Unema et al. (2005) have shown by crossing fixation duration
18 with the amplitude of the following saccade that fixations, at least during free viewing, can be
19 categorized as ambient or focal fixations. EFRP analyses should be able to improve this categori-
20 zation process by analysing the corresponding EEGs components and detect whether some atten-
21 tional component can be associated to the fixation. Separating these components with statistical
22 procedures (see next section) but also the localization of the activation (on which electrode) may

¹ Effects coming from the previous word and spread out on the next word.

1 be highly informative for labelling fixations. These findings will contribute greatly to interpreting
 2 scanpaths and fixations on some region of interests in real life activities.

3 **EFRPs during reading tasks**

4 One of the most well-studied ERP components associated with reading is the N400 component
 5 which occurs several hundreds of milliseconds after word presentation. There is extensive evidence
 6 that the occurrence of the N400 component is related to semantic priming that indicates a semantic
 7 relationship between a word and the context in which it occurs (e.g. Kutas et al., 1980, 2000). In a
 8 typical N400 experiment, a subject reads a sentence having either a semantically incongruent or
 9 congruent sentence ending (Federmeier and Kutas, 1999). The amplitude of the N400 component is
 10 smaller for congruent compared with incongruent sentence endings suggesting that more lexical
 11 search is required during the incongruent condition. However, during the natural reading process
 12 the eye fixations are short (around 200 to 250 ms) which constrains the amount of time for lexical
 13 processing and oculomotor operations (Rayner, 1998). As a consequence, ERP components occur-
 14 ring later than 250 ms overlap with those in response to the next word (Dambacher et al., 2007). It
 15 seems therefore important to examine the early components and to find out about their role in lexi-
 16 cal processing. Only a few studies have examined early components by comparing eye movements
 17 and early ERPs (e.g. Sereno et al., 1998, 2003). In both of these studies, ERPs and eye movements
 18 were recorded in two separate sessions with different subjects.

19 In Sereno et al. (1998), eye movements and the ERPs were recorded while the subjects were reading
 20 single-line sentences and performing a lexical decision task for words presented in isolation, whereas
 21 in the other study, the subjects were reading sentences. However, the words were presented word-
 22 by-word, and the target word was always at the end of the sentence (Sereno et al., 2003). High- and
 23 low-frequency regular words were compared with high- and low-frequency non-regular words. ERP
 24 outcomes showed that a lexical effect emerges around 100 ms post-stimulus as reflected by P1 compo-
 25 nent, followed by N1 and P2 components associated with word frequency and regularity, respectively
 26 (Sereno et al., 1998). On the other hand, Raney and Rayner (1993) studied mechanisms of rereading
 27 by recording eye movements and ERPs also in two separate sessions. Eye movement recordings
 28 showed that reading speed increased during the second reading, that is, forward fixation durations
 29 were shorter, the number of forward fixations decreased, and forward saccade lengths increased. The
 30 ERP results showed that the amplitude of N1–P2 complex increased during the second reading,
 31 suggesting that during the second reading ‘lower level’ demands such as initial perceptual and compre-
 32 hension processes decreased and this facilitation is reflected in the magnitude of N1–P2 responses. As
 33 mentioned previously, all of these comparative studies between ERPs and eye movements did not use
 34 real EFRPs since both measures have been made with different subjects in separate sessions.

35 In a first study on reading using a real EFRPs technique, Baccino et al. (2005) recorded EEGs and
 36 eye movements simultaneously during a priming task. The prime and the target words were presented
 37 simultaneously and subjects were asked to make a judgement about semantic relatedness after read-
 38 ing the two words. The aim of the work was to study parafoveal-on-foveal effect, that is, whether the
 39 processing of the next word (word on the right) affects the processing of the fixated word in order to
 40 test whether parallel or sequential processing occurs during reading and whether semantic process-
 41 ing occurs in the parafoveal field during early lexical processing. The results showed that even first-
 42 pass fixation duration (summed fixation duration before the eyes moved to the second word) did not
 43 show any evidence for semantic processing during parafoveal processing, the early EFRPs in response
 44 to prime words were sensitive to lexical processing of the target word, especially at occipital O1 elec-
 45 trode (Fig. 47.2). A marginally stronger effect was found for the amplitude of N1 component at
 46 around 120 ms post-stimulus. Similarly, a stronger effect was found for non-associated than for non-
 47 words for a positive component appearing around at 140 ms post-stimulus at the central and frontal
 48 recording sites. These results suggest that these early ERP effects are due to sensitivity to word form
 49 in parafoveal area and preventing semantic access of illegal form for further processing. Semantic
 50 effects were observed in the P2 component (peaking around 215 ms) which was more pronounced

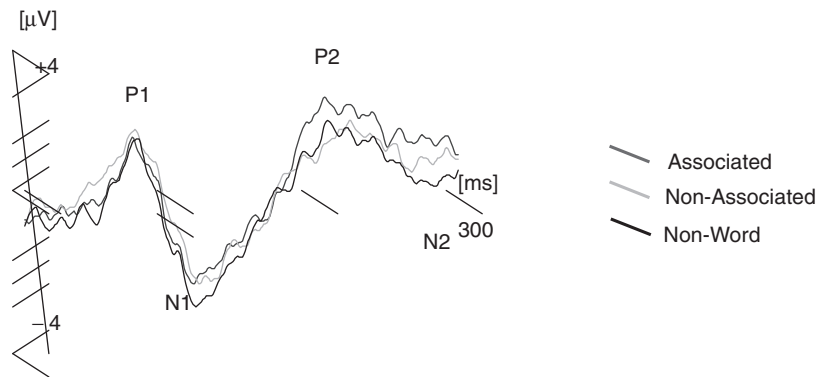


Fig. 47.2 Grand-averaged EFRP waveforms recorded at the left occipital electrode (O1) during three conditions: associated, non-associated and non-word prime-target word pairs.

1 during processing of prime words followed by associated other than non-associated target words
 2 suggesting that semantic processing occurs parafoveally during early lexical processing.

3 However, in all previous ERP studies, the reading process was mimicked by presenting the words
 4 in isolation (Serenio et al., 1998), word-by-word (Serenio et al., 2003), or presenting only two words
 5 simultaneously (Baccino et al., 2005). It is questionable whether these paradigms are suitable enough
 6 to study the mechanisms of reading or whether they instead capture processes related to single word
 7 processing. As a consequence further investigations are needed in order to understand the mecha-
 8 nisms underlying reading sentences but also to find out whether the EFRP technique brings added
 9 value in comparison to conventional ERP studies in this area.

10 In a recent study, Hutzler et al. (2007) attempted to validate the EFRP technique by comparing it
 11 with the conventional ERP technique on a very known effect in visual word recognition: the old/new
 12 effect (Rugg and Nagy, 1989). This effect is characterized by a positive component peaking around
 13 250 ms for correctly recognized old words. Subjects were instructed to read a sentence with five
 14 words presented concomitantly in a row. After correcting the EOG artefacts with an independent
 15 component analysis (ICA), similar results were acquired using both techniques. Brain potentials
 16 associated with old words were more positive at the right than the left recording sites and in anterior
 17 and central regions as reported earlier by Rugg et al. (1989). This positivity occurred in a time window
 18 from 250 to 600 ms after reading the last word in a sentence. With this striking similarity of effects,
 19 the authors conclude that EFRPs are as reliable indicators of word processing as conventional ERPs.

20 Challenges in EFRP research

21 While the EFRPs seem to have a promising future in the cognitive toolbox, some challenges remain
 22 to be solved for rendering this technique efficient and reliable. In particular, further investigations
 23 are needed to understand which factors have a prominent contribution to EFRP waveforms by
 24 removing the effects of previous saccadic amplitude and microsaccades within the fixation and by
 25 analysing the effects of overlap processes. These questions cannot be only processed by psychologists
 26 but require the contribution of more formal sciences such as mathematics, statistics and signal
 27 processing. This renders this technique highly interdisciplinary and very challenging.

28 EEG source separation: overlap responses, saccade and 29 microsaccade artefacts

30 During a conventional ERP paradigm, the EEG signal is contaminated by saccadic eye movements.
 31 While in the EFRP paradigm, theoretically only the EEG segments occurring during a visual fixation

1 are analysed (and so eye movements are filtered out), it is still possible that these EEG segments are
 2 contaminated by saccadic eye movements that precede or follow fixations. A number of ocular
 3 correction algorithms (Schwind and Dormann, 1986; Vigário, 1997; Wallstrom et al., 2004) have
 4 been applied to EEG analyses and one challenge would be to test whether they can also be applied to
 5 EFRP data.

6 Furthermore, since the eye is always in motion even during a fixation, miniature saccades (micro-
 7 saccades, drifts, tremors) are actively generated involuntarily and unconsciously. It is still possible
 8 that this microsaccadic² activity represents an artefact which complicates the interpretation of EFRPs.
 9 A real challenge in EFRP technique is therefore the correction of these artefacts caused by saccades
 10 and microsaccades.

11 Finally, since EFRPs have very short duration (corresponding to duration of a given fixation)
 12 neural responses elicited by successive fixations can temporally coincide and produce a strong over-
 13 lap of cognitive components. Many potential pitfalls can result from this adjacent-response overlap
 14 and it can distort the EFRPs averages. A challenge would be to solve this overlap problem.

15 All these potential problems (saccades, microsaccades, and overlap) are related to the fact that the
 16 EFRP waveforms are complex and difficult to interpret. So, the question for the future, which is also
 17 the case for classical ERP studies, would be to dissociate this complex signal into a set of simpler
 18 signals in order to determine more clearly the underlying cognitive processes correlated with them.
 19 This question has received a lot of consideration in the past mainly by using several decomposition
 20 methods.

21 Saccades artefacts and ocular corrections

22 As stated above, the EEG signals are contaminated by extracerebral artefacts of biological origin,
 23 originating outside the brain, but still recordable from the scalp (Gratton, 1998; Schwind et al., 1986;
 24 Vigário, 1997). These extracerebral signals come mainly from tongue, facial, jaw, and neck muscles
 25 which generate a persistent low-voltage high-frequency signals (>20 Hz) with focused spatial distri-
 26 bution and rapidly decaying autocorrelation function (Whitham et al., 2007). Since, these artefacts
 27 have characteristic signatures in space, time, and frequency, definitely distinct from EEG spontane-
 28 ous activity (Picton et al., 2000), a number of valuable statistical techniques have been developed to
 29 handle these ocular artefacts in the EEG signals and to remove them. The best known methodology
 30 for doing this is blind source separation (BSS) based on second-order statistics (such as autocorrela-
 31 tion) or based on higher-order statistics such as principal component analysis (PCA) or independent
 32 component analysis (ICA) (Congedo et al., 2008). The principle of BSS is the separation of a set of
 33 signals from a set of mixed signals, without the aid of any information (or with little information)
 34 about the source signals or the mixing process. BSS can be applied only if source signals does not
 35 correlate with each other and thus the separation is realized such that the regularity of each resulting
 36 signal is maximized, and the regularity between the signals is minimized (i.e. statistical independence
 37 is maximized). BSS methods have proven their usefulness in the removal of eye blinks from the EEG
 38 signals because of their high energy (Jung et al., 1998, 2000) and recently to identify the signal of
 39 cognitive load in pupillary responses (Jainta and Baccino, 2010). But eye movements, both volitional
 40 movements, saccades and microsaccades, generate smaller brain potentials than do blinks and the
 41 question is whether these BSS methods can also be applied here. This has been suggested in a compar-
 42 ative study testing different BSS methods (Wallstrom et al., 2004). Other approaches have been
 43 introduced using Bayesian techniques (Roberts, 1998) or incorporating a model of brain activity to
 44 detect already known brain components (Berg et al., 1994). The research on EEG source separation
 45 is still in constant evolution and the challenge for EFRP studies will be to investigate which of the
 46 different ocular correction algorithms have to be chosen or developed for having the most reliable
 47 EFRPs possible.

² Here, the term microsaccade will be used generically.

1 Microsaccades artefacts

2 Microsaccades (Engbert 2006; Martinez-Conde et al., 2004, see also Martinez-Conde and Macknick,
 3 Chapter 6, this volume) are small saccades (mostly $<0.5^\circ$) occurring involuntarily during fixation.
 4 Their role seems to neutralize the natural perceptual fading caused by retinal adaptation during fixa-
 5 tion. Even under stabilized conditions of visual stimulus presentation as used with a conventional
 6 ERP paradigm, the micro-saccadic activity can be a source of artefacts, specifically an induced
 7 enhancement of power in the gamma band (30–70 Hz) around 200–300 ms following stimulus onset.
 8 Usually, this gamma-band activity is widely assumed to reflect synchronous neural oscillation associ-
 9 ated with perceptual binding (i.e. binding of visual elements into unitary percepts) (Tallon-Baudry
 10 et al., 1996), recognition of object category and familiarity (Tallon-Baudry et al., 1997), attention
 11 (Kaiser and Lutzenberger, 2005), and consciousness (Summerfield et al., 2002). Recently, it has been
 12 suggested that this synchronization reflects rather the outcome of ocular muscle spike potentials
 13 generated by microsaccades (Yuval-Greenberg et al., 2008). Most of the classical ERP studies do not
 14 control microsaccades although they can represent a serious source of artefacts and consequently for
 15 EFRPs analyses. However, due to their weak electrical activity generated, microsaccades cannot be
 16 removed automatically by BSS techniques as for saccades previously. Consequently, one challenge is
 17 to devise new methods capable of identifying the electrical signature of microsaccades in EFRPs
 18 signal according to their characteristics.

19 Overlap processes occurring during short EFRPs

20 EFRPs are obtained by signal-averaging EEG epochs which are time-locked to eye fixations. However,
 21 as EFRPs are especially short in time around 200–300 ms—which is the delay for fixation duration
 22 on average in reading—they can overlap in time because of successive fixations. This overlap can
 23 distort the EFRPs averages mostly in the earliest components (P1, N1). A future challenge in EFRP
 24 research will be to analyse the distortion of these EFRP averages provoked by the adjacent-response
 25 overlap in order to isolate the different components and permit their interpretation. Various meth-
 26 ods may be employed to deal with this overlap.

27 A promising approach seems to be those employed by Woldorff (1993) with a set of algorithms
 28 (ADJAR for Adjacent Response Technique) that might be applied to dissociate the effects coming
 29 from successive fixations (Talsma and Woldorff, 2005). At the origin, this method has been devised
 30 to cope with the overlap problem occurring in the ERPs recorded at high stimulus presentation rates
 31 (i.e. short ISIs). Indeed, at short ISIs, the ERP responses to successive stimuli may overlap and distort
 32 the ERP averages. The case is similar for eye fixations. The procedure works in two steps: first, by
 33 subtracting out the differential distortion from previous fixation overlap and secondly by using an
 34 iterative algorithm trying to converge toward the best estimates of the waveform (i.e. by removing
 35 distortions resulting from overlap by both previous and subsequent fixation). The method has been
 36 employed successfully for dissociating attentional components (Fu et al., 2005) or removing overlap
 37 from scalp-recorded activity (Hopfinger and Maxwell, 2005).

38 Another approach would be to employ a statistical decomposition method already known for
 39 removing ocular artefacts and which also may be used to dissociate the different subcomponents
 40 which occur during EFRPs data. PCA and ICA are of course popular methods that can be used for
 41 this purpose (see also the description of BSS methods given earlier) and are used to create space/time
 42 decompositions of the EEG signal. All of them attempt to decompose an array of data into sets of
 43 component scores and loadings (Shaw, 2003) using eigenvalue decomposition to derive the compo-
 44 nents of EEG signals. While PCA supposes that EEG sources are spatially orthogonal to one another
 45 (i.e. independent of each other), ICA segregates these EEG sources using non-orthogonal (oblique)
 46 factors. A priori, there is no reason to believe that distinct EEG sources are spatially orthogonal and
 47 this explains why ICA is generally preferred to PCA (Jung et al., 1998, 2000) for this objective. The
 48 ICA approach is better for the study of cortical sources of ERP because ICA components tend to
 49 result in single components that are a result of single cortical sources, whereas PCA components
 50 often result in single components that are linear combinations of multiple underlying sources and

1 must be modelled with multiple-dipole source models (Richards, 2004). Actually, the problem with
 2 these statistical techniques lies in the interpretation of the different isolated components, namely
 3 how to associate components to cognitive processes—attention, semantic. . . . One way would be to
 4 go beyond the two-way data used in PCA/ICA and overcome the typical time-frequency decomposi-
 5 tion of single channels. Such methods are called multi-way methods (Miwakeichi et al., 2004; Mørup
 6 et al., 2006) and permit to add more variables into the analysis such as channels, subjects, conditions,
 7 etc. One of these multiway methods is the Parallel Factor Analysis (PARAFAC) used in several papers
 8 for separating multiple potential components in the EEGs (Mørup et al., 2006, 2007). We assume
 9 that PARAFAC may be also well adapted to separate different components elicited by successive fixa-
 10 tions (as EFRPs) in entering them into the analysis. This operation should cope with the overlap
 11 difficulty inherent to EFRPs and this type of work should be carrying out in the future.

12 Categorizing fixations and ecological impact

13 One of the most difficult exercises for any scientific experimenter is to interpret different measures
 14 recorded during an experiment. Measurement is usually very variable according to subject variability
 15 or task characteristics. As we seen in previous sections, the problem is also obvious for both eye
 16 tracking and ERP techniques. For example, how is it possible to compare two fixations apart from
 17 their duration or from the orientation of the previous saccade (backward vs. forward saccade) and to
 18 be able to interpret the underlying processes occurring during this fixation? One of the major
 19 advances of the EFRPs should be to succeed in categorizing or describing more accurately eye move-
 20 ments (fixations and saccades) as a function of the concurrent EEG measures. However, as in any
 21 fixation several components overlap, a challenge in the development of the technique would be to
 22 index some specific brainwaves that might correlate closely to some cognitive processes (attention,
 23 perception, etc.) as the N400 is an index of semantic incongruity. This challenge certainly needs the
 24 development of appropriate signal processing analyses as shown above and also to test on simple
 25 tasks dedicated to one component the characteristics of the associated EFRPs. Once these questions
 26 are addressed, it would be possible to improve the interpretation process by generating some inter-
 27 pretation maps which consists of visualizing the attentional/perceptual/semantic components
 28 coupled with gaze positions. Until now, these maps can only represent the position or duration of
 29 fixations but with the adjunct of EFRP analyses, it would be possible to categorize fixations from
 30 their principal component. For example, in the Unemà experiment (2005) which aims to disentangle
 31 between ambient or focal fixations by crossing two different variables (saccade extent and fixation
 32 duration), EFRPs will surely bring better information about the characteristics of EFRPs associated
 33 with each fixation and would facilitate the cognitive labelling of these fixations. Furthermore, the
 34 activation/inhibition phases can be spatially localized on the scalp and this spatial information can
 35 provide some information about the type of processing involved. Let's take an illustration from the
 36 distinction between ambient/focal fixations during the perception of visual scenes (Velichkovsky,
 37 2002). As the author pointed out, there is a possibility that during the ambient processing (pre-
 38 attentive mode) the neural substrates in the 'dorsal visual pathway' guide the eye movements and
 39 locate the regions of interest for further examination. In contrast, during focal processing (attentive
 40 mode), the neuronal network in the 'ventral visual pathway' is thought to be recruited for further
 41 analysis of object shape, colour, and texture. If these claims are true, electrodes attached to the dorsal
 42 region should be more activated during ambient fixations and electrodes attached to ventral region
 43 more activated during focal fixations. In both cases, EFRPs should reflect these two modes of visual
 44 processing and may help in classifying fixations as ambient or focal.

45 An applied perspective of EFRPs: brain–computer interfaces

46 BCIs is an emergent field of human–computer interfaces (HCIs) which aims to utilize neurophysi-
 47 ological signals (such as EEG or any brain imagery techniques) originating in the brain to control
 48 external devices or computers. Of course, the application of BCIs is obvious for impaired people but

1 can have also many other applications in video-game, remote system control (robot, camera, etc.)
 2 and any adaptive interfaces in real or virtual environments. However, nowadays, BCI control capa-
 3 bilities are still not comparable to other HCI peripherals such as joysticks or a computer mouse and
 4 the technique remains focused on impairments. Most investigated paradigms include motor
 5 commands that are either real or imaginary; virtual spellers or object selectors based on the monitor-
 6 ing of the subject's oriented attention, either auditory or visual (Birbaumer et al., 2006). EFRPs and
 7 BCI techniques are very close in essence, they represent the two sides of a same principle: how to
 8 interpret an EEG signal either to understand cognitive processes in context (EFRPs) or to work out
 9 an action by controlling a device in real-time (BCIs). As a consequence, the same questions need to
 10 be solved: how to process the EEG (EFRP) signal, what waves patterns can be picked up as detectable
 11 cognitive activity and for BCI how to translate them into control devices.

12 Conclusion and future studies

13 The EFRP technique has proven to be a useful approach to investigate cognitive processes during
 14 reading by simultaneously measuring eye movements and concurrent ERPs. In comparison with
 15 conventional ERP technique, it provides a better tool to investigate these processes in a more natural
 16 experimental setting, allowing eye movements to occur naturally during reading or viewing.
 17 Moreover, EFRP can have a large number of applications with BCIS in adding the eye position infor-
 18 mation to the recorded continuous EEGs and allowing a more precise knowledge of the underlying
 19 cognitive activity. These applicative forms may be useful for the development of assistive technolo-
 20 gies for disabled people. However, as with every new methodology, some challenges need to be
 21 resolved, particularly the problem of overlapping processes. Decomposition methods seem to be
 22 suitable for disentangling the complex brain waves into simpler and interpretable components.
 23 Furthermore, more experimental studies are needed to ascertain the role of factors that influence the
 24 EFRP components. Despite some methodological drawbacks, coupling of eye movement and ERP
 25 recording techniques (that might be called augmented eye movements) provides a valuable tool
 26 to explore the neural, cognitive and behavioural mechanisms and their time course during reading
 27 or any other cognitive tasks involving visual inputs such as object recognition (Rämä and Baccino,
 28 2010).

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