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2 **Observation and imitation of object-directed hand movements in**
3 **Parkinson's disease**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Action observation and imitation may facilitate movement in Parkinson's disease (PD).
20 People with PD have been found to imitate intransitive actions similarly to neurologically
21 healthy older adults, but their imitation of object-directed hand movements has not been
22 investigated using kinematic measures. The present study examined observation and
23 imitation of object-directed hand movements in 18 participants with PD compared to 21
24 neurologically healthy age-matched control participants. Participants observed and
25 immediately imitated sequences showing a human hand reaching for and transferring an
26 object between horizontal positions. Both groups significantly modulated the vertical
27 amplitude of their finger movements, showing higher movements when imitating elevated
28 compared to direct trajectories. Movements were lower in vertical amplitude and higher in
29 velocity when imitating the reaching segment than the transfer segment. Eye-tracking
30 revealed that controls made smaller saccades when observing predictable than unpredictable
31 elevated movements, but no effects of predictability on eye movements were found for the
32 PD group. This study provides quantitative evidence that people with mild to moderate PD
33 can imitate object-directed hand movement kinematics, although their prediction of such
34 movements may be reduced. These findings suggest that interventions targeting object-
35 directed actions may capitalize on the ability of people with PD to imitate movement
36 kinematics.

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38 **Keywords:** Parkinson's disease; action observation; imitation; kinematics; eye movements;
39 eye-tracking; motion capture; motor simulation; neurorehabilitation.

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44 **1. Introduction**

45 Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disorder that affects an estimated 10 million
46 people worldwide, and is rapidly increasing in prevalence [1]. The neuropathology of PD
47 involves depletion of dopamine in the basal ganglia, resulting in multiple motor impairments
48 including difficulties with gait, balance, posture, functional mobility, and dexterity. Activities
49 of daily living, such as eating and dressing, as well as other everyday tasks that require fine
50 motor control, are impacted in PD [2,3], and dexterity has been highlighted as a priority area
51 for research by those living with the condition [4].

52 Observation of human movement has been explored as a therapeutic approach for
53 neurological conditions including PD and stroke [5–8], based on evidence that action
54 observation (AO) enhances performance and learning in healthy populations [9,10].

55 Overlapping neural networks are found to be activated by observation and execution of
56 actions [11,12], and imitation – which involves both observation and physical execution of an
57 action - recruits a wider network of brain regions [11]. AO combined with physical practice
58 (imitation) therefore offers a promising technique to promote activation of the motor system
59 and to support the maintenance of functional ability in PD [6]. Recent studies have
60 demonstrated that AO and imitation are relatively preserved among individuals with PD [13–
61 15]. In particular, people with PD imitated the timing and distance of intransitive (non-object-
62 directed) pointing movements in a similar manner to neurologically healthy age-matched
63 participants [14] and imitated the trajectory of a human hand movement more closely than
64 that of a non-biological object [15], although the extent to which people with PD modulate
65 the trajectory of imitated hand movements may be somewhat reduced [15]. Additionally,
66 improvements in motor symptoms such as gait and balance have been reported following AO
67 interventions in people with PD [16–18]. Preliminary evidence from pilot studies has also
68 indicated potential improvements in functional independence [18,19] and functional hand

69 movements [20] following AO-based training with object-directed actions in people with PD.

70 However, mechanisms of observation and imitation of object-directed actions have not been

71 directly assessed in people with PD.

72 In neurologically healthy participants, observation and execution of object-directed actions,

73 such as reaching and grasping, activate areas of the posterior parietal cortex more strongly

74 than intransitive hand gestures [21,22]. The basal ganglia also have an important role in the

75 AO network [23], and appear to be particularly involved in the observation and execution of

76 object manipulation actions such as reaching, grasping, and relocating [24], suggesting that

77 basal ganglia pathology in PD may lead to difficulties in imitating object-directed actions.

78 Neurologically healthy adults have been found to imitate intransitive actions more accurately

79 than object-directed actions [25]. According to goal-directed accounts of imitation, observed

80 actions are represented based on a hierarchy of goals, such that target objects or endpoints

81 may be prioritized over the kinematics of the movement [26,27]. Consistent with this theory,

82 neurologically healthy participants show reduced imitation of kinematics in the presence of

83 visible movement endpoints [28,29]. Given the importance of object-directed actions for

84 everyday activities, and the potential impact of basal ganglia pathology on such actions, it is

85 important to understand how AO and imitation of object-directed actions may be affected by

86 PD.

87 There is some evidence to suggest that the processes involved in observation and imitation of

88 object-directed actions may be altered in PD. For example, behavioural studies have reported

89 reduced accuracy when people with PD imitated pantomimed transitive actions [30,31].

90 Moreover, a neurophysiological study found that when individuals with PD were asked to

91 observe, imagine, or imitate a cutting action using scissors, motor evoked potentials of the

92 hand muscles were facilitated only during the imitation task, whereas an age-matched

93 neurologically healthy control group exhibited corticomotor facilitation across all three tasks

94 [32]. However, kinematic measures of imitation of object-directed actions have not been
95 studied.

96 The present study used motion tracking to investigate imitation of movement trajectory in the
97 context of object-directed hand movements in people with PD compared to a neurologically
98 healthy age-matched control group. Similar to previous studies of people with PD [14,15] and
99 without PD [29,33], an exaggerated elevated trajectory (i.e., higher than necessary to reach
100 the target endpoint) was compared with a more direct trajectory between target positions, to
101 ensure that participants would attend to the kinematics of the movement rather than just the
102 endpoints (see [34]).

103 Based on previous findings from studies on AO and imitation of intransitive actions in PD
104 [14,15], it was hypothesised that participants with PD would imitate the trajectory of
105 observed movements by modulating the vertical amplitude of their own hand movements in
106 response to stimuli depicting trajectories of different heights, although they might exhibit
107 reduced modulation relative to age-matched control participants [15]. Alternatively, if the
108 basal ganglia have a particular role in observing and executing object-directed actions [24],
109 people with PD may have greater difficulty in imitating such actions.

110 To further examine mechanisms of object-directed imitation, the movement sequences to be
111 imitated included two segments, in which the model first reached towards an object and
112 picked it up, then transferred the object to a new location. The “reach” segment thus involved
113 a movement towards a visible target, which was expected to result in reduced imitation of the
114 kinematics for both groups relative to the “transfer” segment, in which the kinematics may be
115 prioritized and attended to more closely in the absence of a visible target object [26,27].
116 Additionally, it was speculated that imitated reach movements might be faster and smoother
117 than imitated transfer movements for both groups, anticipating that the visible target object
118 would facilitate a more direct movement towards the perceived or remembered location of

119 the object [27,28]. Although participants observed the model's hand grasping and picking up
120 the object, they did not physically manipulate an object in their own movement space. This
121 was to ensure that the movements executed by the participant were based on a representation
122 of the observed action (i.e., imitation), rather than simply being driven by reaching for the
123 object, which could provide a direct affordance or visual cue. Nonetheless, if people with PD
124 have a particular difficulty with object-directed actions, they may still rely more on the object
125 as a cue during observation and attend less than controls to the kinematics of the movement,
126 subsequently exhibiting a greater difference in imitation between reach and transfer
127 segments, compared to the control group.

128 Finally, eye movements during action observation were recorded to explore potential
129 differences between groups in action observation and prediction. It was hypothesised that
130 fewer and smaller eye movements might be made when observing predictable compared to
131 unpredictable actions, based on previous findings that both individuals with PD and
132 neurologically healthy older adults made fewer and smaller eye movements when watching a
133 moving finger than a moving shape, which might reflect greater ongoing prediction of the
134 movement [15]. It was also anticipated that predictability effects might be greater for elevated
135 than direct trials, since participants may attend more closely to the kinematics of the atypical
136 elevated trajectory. However, if processes of AO and imitation for object-directed actions are
137 altered in people with PD, they might exhibit differences in eye movements, such as reduced
138 effects of predictability, compared to age-matched control participants.

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144 **2. Methods**145 **2.1. Participants**

146 Eighteen individuals diagnosed with idiopathic PD (5 female and 13 male participants; mean
147 age 63.7 years, $SD = 6.8$) were recruited through Parkinson's UK and local neurology clinics.
148 The mean time since diagnosis was 7.7 years ($SD = 4.6$) and participants had mild to
149 moderate symptoms based on the Hoehn and Yahr scale [2] ($M = 2$, $SD = .5$), with a mean
150 Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS-MDS [3]) motor score of 42.8 ($SD =$
151 12.8). Participants with PD remained on their regular dopaminergic medication during testing
152 and none had a history of surgical intervention. The control group consisted of 21 older adults
153 with no history of neurological injury or illness (10 female and 11 male participants; mean
154 age 67.3 years, $SD = 7.3$) who were recruited through a volunteer list and local community
155 groups. All participants except two in the PD group were right-handed. There was no
156 significant difference in age between the groups ($t(37) = 1.76$; $p = .087$), and age was not
157 found to contribute significantly to imitation effects, so was not included in further analysis.

158 The study was approved by a UK National Health Service Research Ethics Committee
159 (NRES Committee North West – Liverpool Central). All procedures were conducted in
160 accordance with the requirements of the ethical approval and the Declaration of Helsinki.
161 Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

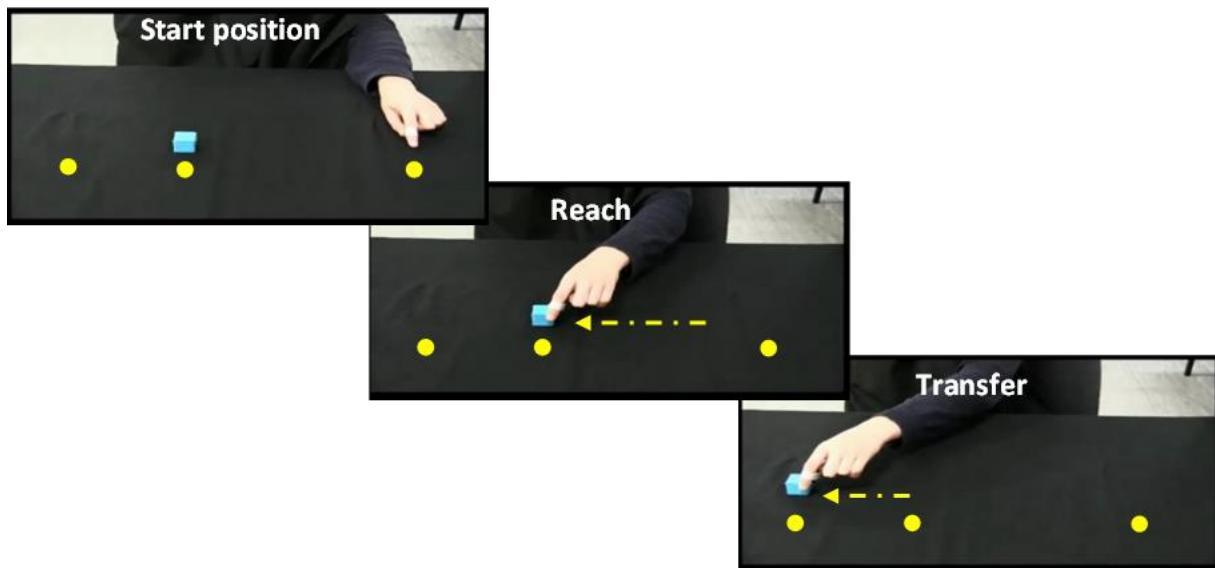
162 **2.2. Stimuli and procedure**

163 Participants observed video recordings of simple movement sequences depicted by a human
164 hand and then immediately imitated the movements using their dominant hand. The video
165 was shown as a mirror image, such that right-handed participants viewed a left-handed
166 stimulus and left-handed participants viewed a right-handed stimulus. In each sequence, the

167 hand reached for and grasped a small cube-shaped object and then transferred it to another
168 location (see Fig. 1).

169 The sequences involved movements between three of four possible positions (e.g., starting at
170 position 4, reaching for an object at position 2 and transferring the object to position 1) at
171 intervals of 150 mm along a horizontal movement space. Each sequence consisted of one
172 longer movement (300 mm; e.g., positions 4-2) and one shorter movement (150 mm; e.g.,
173 positions 2-1). To minimise variability and noise in the data, only the longer segment from
174 each sequence was included in the analysis: this was the reach segment in 50 % of trials
175 (sequences 3-1-2; 4-2-1) and the transfer segment in 50 % of trials (sequences 3-4-2; 4-3-1).
176 Within each trial, both parts of the sequence followed either a direct trajectory, with a vertical
177 amplitude of approximately 85 mm at the apex of the movement, or an elevated trajectory,
178 with a vertical amplitude of approximately 195 mm. Video clips were approx. 3 s in duration
179 and were followed immediately by a “beep” sound signaling for the participant to commence
180 their movement.

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183 **Fig. 1. Stimulus videos depicted a human hand reaching for and moving a small cube**
184 **between 3 of 4 possible positions spaced 150 mm apart (example shows sequence 4-2-1),**
185 **following either a direct or elevated trajectory. Participants observed and then**
186 **immediately imitated the sequence but without physically manipulating an object (the**
187 **object was not present in their own movement space). Note that circles depicting target**
188 **positions are shown for illustration only and no target markers were visible during the**
189 **task. Example stimulus videos are available at <https://osf.io/ysbri/>.**

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191 Stimuli were projected at life-size on a 530 mm x 300 mm screen, positioned approximately
192 700 mm from the participant. As noted above, to avoid the potential use of the object as a
193 direct visual cue, participants did not physically manipulate an object in their own movement
194 space, but were instructed to perform the movement as if the object was present: "Watch the
195 video carefully, and then after the beep, copy what you have seen as closely as you can in
196 terms of the timing and size of the movement. Please perform the action as if you were
197 actually moving the block". A short practice block of four trials was followed by 60 test
198 trials, presented in two blocks of 30. Each block contained 10 elevated trajectory trials and 10
199 direct trajectory trials (20 of each type in total). The remaining 10 trials in each block
200 depicted slightly faster direct movements to examine potential modulation of timing, but the
201 difference in peak velocity was very subtle (108 mm/s) and preliminary analysis revealed no
202 significant differences in imitation of movement duration or peak velocity between these
203 faster trials and the direct trials in either group, so the faster trials were omitted from further
204 analysis. The order of trials within each block was randomized and a short break was
205 provided halfway through each block.

206 A motion sensor was attached to the intermediate phalanx of the index finger of the
207 participant's dominant hand. Hand position was tracked in X, Y, and Z axes using a

208 Polhemus Fastrak® electromagnetic motion capture system at a sampling rate of 120 Hz. Eye
209 movements were recorded while participants observed the hand movement sequences, using
210 an Eyelink 1000 Plus eye tracker (SR Research Ltd.) with remote monocular pupil capture at
211 a sampling rate of 500 Hz, with a spatial resolution of 0.1° and saccade detection threshold of
212 30°/s. A nine-point calibration was performed with each participant prior to the experiment.

213 2.3. Data processing and statistical analysis

214 Kinematic data from trials where the movement sequence was correctly imitated (i.e.,
215 positions were moved to in the correct order) were extracted and analysed using MATLAB
216 version 7.10.0. The kinematic measures included in the analysis were vertical amplitude,
217 peak velocity, and dimensionless jerk (a measure of movement smoothness [35]). Missing
218 data (incomplete or missing trials) and errors (incorrect sequences) were removed,
219 constituting 7 % of trials in the PD group and 1 % in the control group. Outliers were then
220 identified and removed using the standard deviation procedure described by van Selst and
221 Jolicouer [36]. This resulted in the exclusion of 1.81 % of datapoints from the PD group and
222 2.33 % from the control group. The kinematics of the longer movement in each trial were
223 then analysed using linear mixed-effects modelling (LMM). The factors Group (PD, control),
224 Trajectory (elevated, direct), and Segment (reach, transfer) were included as fixed effects
225 with random intercept effects for Participants. To allow for greater estimation of variance
226 components, random slopes for Trajectory or Segment were also included where these
227 improved the fit of the model (i.e., Trajectory for vertical amplitude; Segment for horizontal
228 amplitude, peak velocity, and dimensionless jerk). Models were fitted using the maximum
229 likelihood procedure with the Satterthwaite adjustment method. Significant interactions were
230 further analysed using t-tests.

231 Eye movements during observation of the movement sequences were analysed for 16
232 participants in the PD group and 20 in the control group (recordings were incomplete or

233 unusable for 2 PD participants and one control group participant; see [37] for discussion of
234 challenges of eye tracking with this population). Fixations and saccades were analysed to
235 identify effects of the predictability of the observed transfer movements. While the direction
236 of the “reach” segment was always predictable (because the model reached towards a visible
237 object), the “transfer” segment was considered predictable if this segment started from the
238 furthest endpoint; i.e., position 4 (where the hand could only move in one direction), or
239 unpredictable if it started from position 3 (where either a leftward or rightward movement
240 was possible). Equal numbers of predictable and unpredictable transfer movements were
241 included across trials.

242 Trials where loss of capture (e.g., due to excessive blinking) exceeded 30 % were removed
243 from the eye movement data (7.81 % of trials in the PD group; 3.5 % in the control group).
244 Removal of outliers then resulted in the exclusion of a further 3.36 % of datapoints from the
245 PD group and 3.69 % from the control group.

246 Fixations and saccades were analysed using LMM, with fixed factors of Group, Trajectory,
247 and Predictability, random intercepts for Participants, and random slopes for Predictability.
248 Statistical analyses were conducted in R [38] using the package lme4 [39].

249 Examples of kinematic and eye movement time series data for complete trials are provided at
250 <https://osf.io/ysbrj/>.

251

252

253 **3. Results**

254 The best-fitting models for each dependent variable in the kinematic and eye movement
255 analyses are summarised below. Full details of model structures, parameters, and effects are
256 provided in supplementary materials.

257 3.1. Kinematic analysis

258 Analysis of vertical amplitude (Fig. 2A) revealed a significant effect of Trajectory ($b = 64.0$,
259 $SE = 8.69$, $t(44.73) = 7.36$; $p <.001$), such that amplitude was greater when imitating elevated
260 movements ($M = 137$ mm, $SD = 60.9$ mm) than direct movements ($M = 78$ mm, $SD = 33.6$
261 mm), indicating that participants modulated the trajectory of their own hand movements in
262 response to differences in the observed movement trajectory. There was also a significant
263 effect of Segment ($b = 8.24$, $SE = 3.13$, $t(1401.91) = 2.63$; $p = .0086$), reflecting higher
264 amplitude movements in the transfer segment ($M = 112$ mm, $SD = 56.8$ mm) than the reach
265 segment ($M = 103$ mm, $SD = 57.3$ mm). There was no significant effect of Group ($b = 3.83$,
266 $SE = 7.48$, $t(47.76) = .51$, $p = .61$), but the interaction between Group and Trajectory showed
267 a non-significant trend ($b = -21.39$, $SE = 12.81$, $t(44.95) = -1.67$; $p = .1$), reflecting a slight
268 reduction of modulation in the PD group ($M = 47.98$ mm, $SD = 38.78$ mm) compared to the
269 control group ($M = 67.96$ mm, $SD = 40.02$ mm).

270 For horizontal amplitude, there were no significant main effects of Trajectory ($b = 4.81$, $SE =$
271 3.82 , $t(1398.30) = 1.26$, $p = .21$), Segment ($b = 6.04$, $SE = 5.37$, $t(65.46) = 1.13$, $p = .26$), or
272 Group ($b = -26.46$, $SE = 16.94$, $t(41.20) = -1.56$, $p = .13$), but there was a significant
273 interaction between Group, Trajectory and Segment ($b = 18.33$, $SE = 7.97$, $t(1397.45) = 2.30$,
274 $p = .02$). In the PD group, movements were significantly longer in elevated than direct trials
275 in the transfer segment (elevated $M = 341$ mm, $SD = 77.4$, direct $M = 330$ mm, $SD = 72.4$
276 mm; $t(17) = -2.38$; $p = .029$) but not the reach segment (elevated $M = 335$ mm, $SD = 68.2$
277 mm, direct $M = 336$ mm, $SD = 64.7$ mm; $t(16) = .25$; $p = .81$).

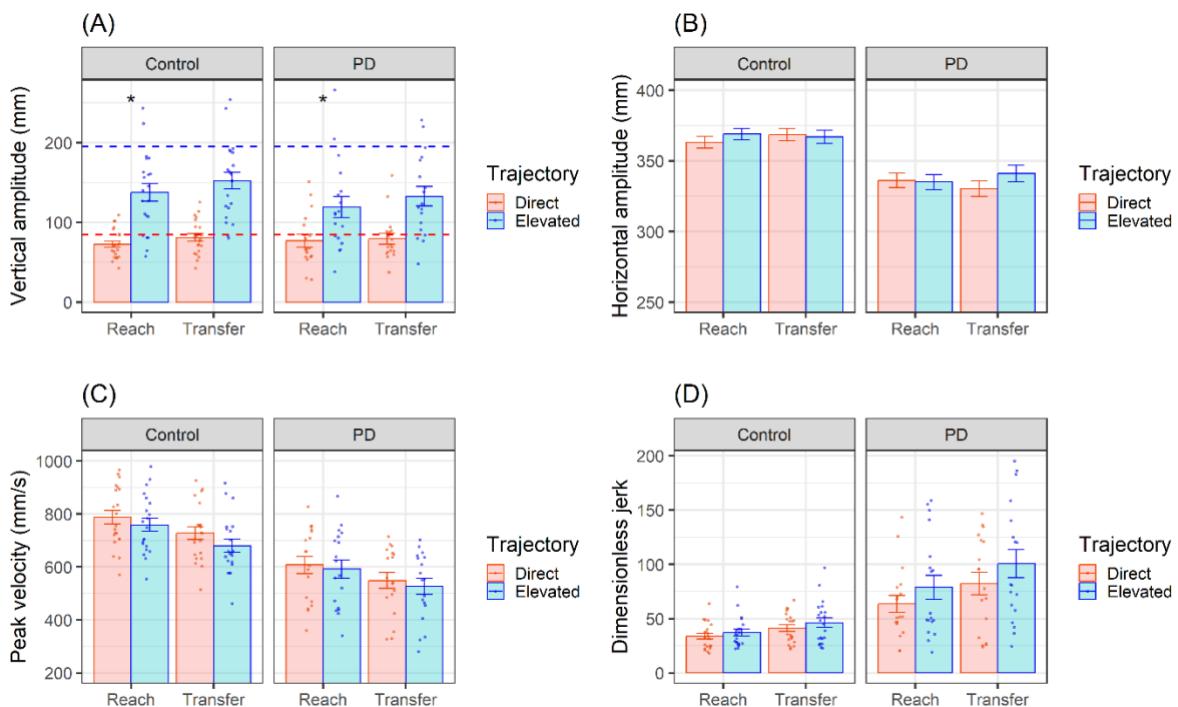
278 Analysis of peak velocity (Fig. 2B) showed significant main effects of Trajectory ($b = -27.29$,
279 $SE = 10.77$, $t(114.88) = -2.54$; $p <.001$), Segment ($b = -60.60$, $SE = 9.65$, $t(1413.33) = -6.28$;
280 $p <.001$) and Group ($b = -180.57$, $SE = 36.93$, $t(42.19) = -4.89$; $p <.001$). Overall peak

281 velocity was higher in the control group ($M= 740$ mm/s, $SD = 150$ mm/s) than the PD group
282 ($M= 566$ mm/s, $SD = 158$ mm/s). Peak velocity was higher when imitating direct movements
283 ($M= 676$ mm/s, $SD = 180$ mm/s) than elevated movements ($M= 646$ mm/s, $SD = 172$ mm/s),
284 and for reach segments ($M= 695$ mm/s, $SD = 177$ mm/s) compared to transfer segments ($M=$
285 628 mm/s, $SD = 170$ mm/s).

286 For dimensionless jerk (Fig. 2C), there was a significant main effect of Group, reflecting
287 higher overall jerk (i.e., less smooth movements) in the PD group ($M= 83.0$, $SD = 64.4$) than
288 the control group ($M= 39.9$, $SD = 23.7$). There was also a significant interaction between
289 Group and Trajectory: as illustrated in Fig. 2C, while movements were smoother overall for
290 direct trials than elevated trials, the difference in jerk between direct and elevated trials was
291 greater in the PD group (elevated $M = 91.9$, $SD = 73.1$; direct $M = 74.2$, $SD = 53.2$) than the
292 control group (elevated $M = 42.2$, $SD = 26.7$; direct $M = 37.8$, $SD = 20.1$); $t(47.5) = -2.79$; p
293 $= 0.0075$; $d = .65$.

294 All other main effects and interactions for the kinematic measures were non-significant (all p
295 $> .1$; see supplementary materials Table 1).

296



297

298 **Fig. 2. Kinematic measures during imitation of object-directed actions: each**
 299 **measure is presented for imitation of elevated vs. direct trajectories in reach and**
 300 **transfer segments of the sequences. Plots show means with SEM error bars; dots**
 301 **represent individual participants. (A) Vertical amplitude was significantly higher**
 302 **for elevated vs. direct trials (indicating imitation of trajectory) and for transfer**
 303 **vs. reach segments. There was a non-significant trend for reduced vertical**
 304 **amplitude modulation in the PD group. Reference lines indicate model**
 305 **kinematics for the direct (red dashed line) and elevated (blue dashed line)**
 306 **trajectories. (B) Horizontal amplitude did not differ significantly between**
 307 **groups, but movements were longer in elevated vs. direct trials in the transfer**
 308 **segment in the PD group. (C) Peak velocity was significantly higher in the**
 309 **control group, as well as for direct vs. elevated trials and reach vs. transfer**
 310 **segments. (D) Dimensionless jerk was significantly higher in the PD group,**
 311 **particularly for elevated vs. direct movements.**

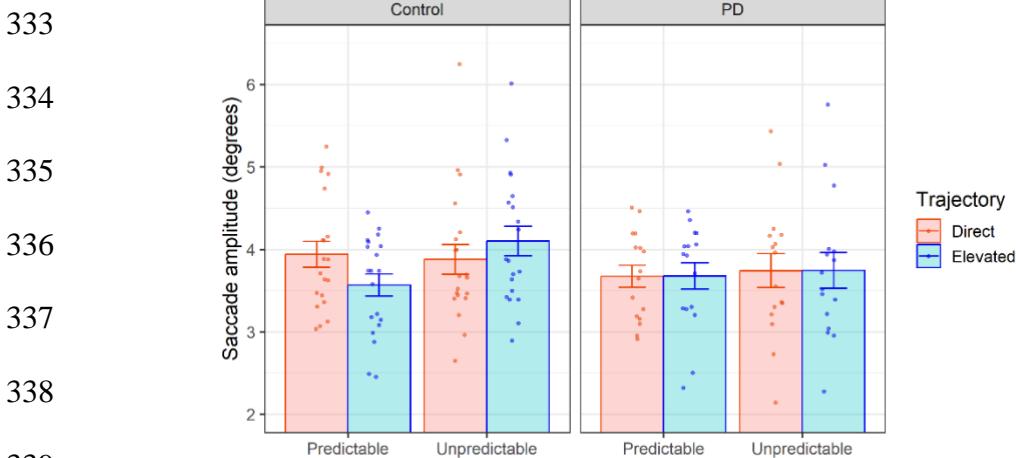
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313 3.2. Eye movements

314 Analysis of saccade amplitude (Fig. 3) showed significant main effects of Trajectory ($b = .037$, SE = .10, $t(1302.05) = 3.70$, $p < .001$) and Predictability ($b = .53$, SE = .16, $t(56.10) = 3.37$, $p = .0014$), but no significant main effect of Group ($b = .11$, SE = .21, $t(47.36) = .55$, $p = .58$). There were significant interactions between Group and Trajectory ($b = -.38$, SE = .15, $t(1300.23) = -2.53$, $p = .012$), Trajectory and Predictability ($b = -.58$, SE = .14, $t(1299.9) = -4.13$, $< .001$), and a 3-way interaction between Group, Trajectory, and Predictability ($b = .59$, SE = .21, $t(1299.4) = 2.79$, $p = .0054$). T-tests indicated that participants in the control group exhibited significantly smaller saccades when observing predictable compared to unpredictable movements in elevated trials (predictable $M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.02$; unpredictable $M = 4.08$, $SD = 1.24$; $t(19) = -3.62$; $p = .0018$; $d = .81$) but not in trials with a direct trajectory (predictable $M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.22$; unpredictable $M = 3.88$, $SD = 1.20$; $t(19) = .31$; $p = .76$; $d = .07$). The PD group showed no significant effect of predictability for either the elevated trials (predictable $M = 3.66$, $SD = 1.06$; unpredictable $M = 3.74$, $SD = 1.23$; $t(15) = -0.365$; $p = .72$; $d = .09$) or direct trials (predictable $M = 3.65$, $SD = 1.04$; unpredictable $M = 3.72$, $SD = 1.28$; $t(15) = -.43$; $p = 0.68$; $d = .11$).

329 For all other eye movement measures (saccade count, fixation count, and fixation duration)
330 there were no significant main effects or interactions (all $p > .09$; see supplementary materials,
331 Table 2).

332



340 **Fig. 3. Saccade amplitude during observation of object-directed actions was**
 341 **significantly reduced for predictable vs. unpredictable transfer movements in the**
 342 **control group, specifically in trials with an elevated trajectory. Plots show means with**
 343 **SEM error bars; dots represent individual participants.**

344

345

346 **4. Discussion**

347 The present study demonstrated that individuals with mild to moderate PD were able to
 348 imitate object-directed actions by modulating the trajectory of their hand movements
 349 according to differences in the observed trajectory. People with PD showed a similar pattern
 350 of imitation to neurologically healthy age-matched control participants when imitating both
 351 reach and transfer segments of the hand movement sequences. These results extend previous
 352 findings indicating the ability of people with mild to moderate PD to imitate intransitive hand
 353 movements [14,15], providing quantitative evidence that their imitation of object-directed
 354 movements is also relatively preserved. Although modulation of kinematics was not
 355 significantly reduced in people with PD compared to the control group, there was a non-
 356 significant trend towards reduced modulation in the PD group. Previous studies of

357 intransitive hand movements have not consistently found a significant difference in imitation
358 between PD and control groups[14,15]. It is therefore possible that a subtle deficit in
359 imitation exists, which the present and previous studies have not been sufficiently powered to
360 detect.

361 It should also be noted that the overall extent of vertical amplitude did not differ significantly
362 between groups, although peak velocity was lower and jerk was higher in the PD group,
363 likely reflecting effects of PD symptoms such as bradykinesia, tremor, and rigidity. The fact
364 that vertical amplitude did not differ overall between groups suggests that action observation
365 may be particularly effective in maintaining movement size in people with PD, although this
366 is speculative without a comparison condition in which movements were performed without
367 action observation.

368 In addition, horizontal amplitude (distance of movement) did not differ significantly overall
369 between groups, but the PD group exhibited longer transfer movements in elevated compared
370 to direct trials. This may reflect the higher vertical amplitude of imitated elevated movements
371 in the transfer segment than the reach segment, which corresponds to an increase in
372 horizontal amplitude for the PD group. This finding suggests that increasing the vertical
373 amplitude of movements may indirectly also promote maintenance of horizontal amplitude.

374 Despite the similar modulation of kinematics between groups, a difference was found in eye
375 movements when observing object-directed hand movements. Specifically, neurologically
376 healthy participants showed an effect of predictability when observing movements with an
377 elevated trajectory (smaller saccades for predictable vs. unpredictable movements), but the
378 PD group did not exhibit any effects of predictability on their eye movements, suggesting that
379 action prediction may be reduced in PD. This may relate to alterations in the perception of
380 biological motion, as indicated by findings showing impaired perception of body movements
381 from point-light displays in both medicated and unmedicated participants with PD [40,41]. It

382 is also possible that reduced prediction is caused by difficulties with sequence learning in PD
383 [42]. However, the present findings contrast with previous research that found no differences
384 between groups in eye movements when observing intransitive hand movements [15]. Further
385 research is needed, with more fine-grained analysis of oculomotor measures (e.g.,
386 acceleration and corrective saccades) and additional manipulations of predictability, to
387 understand whether eye movements during action observation reflect action prediction
388 mechanisms in people with PD and neurologically healthy older adults.

389 To further understand potential effects of PD on imitation of object-directed actions, the
390 present study examined kinematics when imitating different segments of the action that
391 involved reaching for the object and transferring it to a new location. Participants in both
392 groups made faster, lower amplitude movements when imitating the reaching segment than
393 the transfer segment. This may be explained in relation to goal-directed mechanisms in
394 imitation, whereby the target object provides a higher-level goal than the kinematics of the
395 movement itself [26,27], resulting in faster and more direct movements during imitation. It is
396 noteworthy that this difference between reaching and transferring segments was found even
397 though the object was not physically present during action execution, suggesting that the two
398 segments were encoded differently during observation, or that participants imagined (i.e.,
399 mentally simulated) reaching for the object in their own movement space. However, the
400 absence of an interaction between trajectory and segment indicates that *modulation* of the
401 kinematics was not reduced when imitating movements towards a visible endpoint (reach
402 segment) compared to transfer movements without a visible endpoint, as might be expected
403 based on previous findings [28,29]. A greater difference in kinematic imitation may therefore
404 be found if participants reached for a real object.

405 There is considerable evidence that external visual cues can be effective in facilitating
406 movement in people with PD, although this literature is largely focused on cueing of gait

407 rather than upper limb movements [43,44]. Together with previous findings, the present
408 results indicate that while visual cues (such as objects to reach towards) could increase the
409 velocity and smoothness of hand movements, observation and imitation of human kinematics
410 (e.g., the trajectory of an action) may instead influence other aspects of movement such as
411 amplitude [14,15]. It is possible that a more complex pattern would emerge when using
412 objects associated with specific actions (affordances). Indeed, previous work has indicated
413 that people with PD are as responsive, or more so, than people without PD to observing
414 objects associated with grasping actions such as handles (i.e., they show effects of
415 affordances; for a review see [45]).

416 The results of this study demonstrate that people with PD are able to imitate the trajectory of
417 reach and transfer movements in a similar manner to neurologically healthy individuals, even
418 if the extent of imitation may be somewhat reduced. This indicates the potential benefit of
419 AO-based interventions for people with PD, which could help to preserve or improve the
420 performance of object-directed actions. This is also indicated by preliminary evidence from
421 intervention studies showing that training with AO, particularly when combined with motor
422 imagery and physical execution, may enhance the performance of daily activities in
423 individuals with PD, including manual actions using everyday objects [18,20] which may
424 capitalize on responses to affordances [45]. The efficacy of combined AO and motor imagery
425 has also been demonstrated in other populations and at different levels of skill acquisition
426 [46].

427 In conclusion, the present study demonstrated that individuals with mild to moderate PD were
428 able to modulate the amplitude of their hand movements by imitating the kinematics of
429 object-directed actions, exhibiting a similar pattern to neurologically healthy age-matched
430 participants. Future studies should examine observation and imitation of more complex
431 object-directed actions (including actions involving multiple objects) and determine the

432 effectiveness of AO-based training to augment everyday object-directed activities that are
433 central to functional independence for people with PD.

434

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439

440 **Data Availability**

441 Anonymised data will be made available on reasonable request from the corresponding
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446 **Additional Information**

447 The authors report no competing interests.

448

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589 **Author Contributions Statement**

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