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Age Differences in the Maintenance and Restructuring of Movement Preparation

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In 2 experiments, elderly and young subjects performed simple reaction time, choice reaction time, and movement plan restructuring tasks, using a stimulus precuing paradigm. In Experiment I, the precue display (200 ms) and preparation interval (250,500, 750, or 1,000 ms) were experimentally determined. In Experiment 2, the precue display interval was subject determined. For the restructuring task, the precue specified the response on 75% of the trials, enabling movement plan preparation with respect to movement parameters of arm and direction. On remaining trials, the precue incorrectly specified the response, requiring movement plan restructuring. Elderly, but not young, subjects restructured a movement plan for direction more quickly than for arm or for both parameters. These findings indicate that elderly individuals have poorer movement plan maintenance for direction than for arm and thus exhibit functional change in movement preparation processes relative to young individuals.

Motor act production can be characterized as involving the preparation of an appropriate movement plan, maintenance of that plan until execution, possible restructuring of that plan under expected or unexpected response contingency change, and, finally, proper execution of that plan (Stelmach, Goggin, & Amrhein, 1988). Recent studies using a movement plan restructuring task (Rosenbaum & Kornblum, 1982) have shown that elderly and young subjects prepare and restructure a movement plan in a qualitatively similar manner with respect to the movement parameters of arm (Stelmach et al, 1988) and direction (Larish & Stelmach, 1982; Stelmach et al, 1988). Only proportional slowing distinguished elderly from young subjects in these studies.

Briefly, in the movement plan restructuring task, a precue stimulus specifies the target stimulus response on 75% of the trials, enabling specific movement plan preparation. On the remaining trials, the precue stimulus incorrectly specifies (partially or entirely) the target stimulus response with respect to levels of movement parameters such as arm (left or right) and direction (away or toward the body) and thus requires restructuring of the prepared movement plan. Furthermore, this task provides two latency measures to separately assess movement plan preparation, maintenance and restructuring (reaction time [RT]), and execution (movement time [MT]).

A methodological concern with the interpretation of the aforementioned studies concerns the lengthy duration of the precue stimulus display and subsequent preparation interval (PI, measured from precue stimulus offset until target stimulus onset). Because the precue display interval and PI were each fixed at 1,000 ms (yielding an effective preparation interval of 2,000 ms), it is possible that the finding of qualitative similarity of the two age groups was fortuitous: Differential loss of specific parameter preparation (either loss of the use of that preparation or loss, per se) on the part of elderly subjects may have reached a collective asymptotic level before the target response was made.

This preparation loss would correspondingly decrease differences in RT to alter the specific parameters of the movement plan (because parameter preparation is greatly reduced or no longer exists) at time of response yielding a pattern of results resembling that of young subjects, who do not appear to lose this preparation. This pattern of results for young subjects can be characterized as a set of relatively small, though systematic, differences among parameter alteration conditions (see, e.g., Larish & Frekany, 1985; Stelmach et al, 1988).

Differential preparation loss on the part of elderly individuals, therefore, may be measurable by means of shorter precue display and preparation intervals. For example, following a brief precue interval (e.g., 200 ms), parameter-specific patterns of preparation loss may be found as PI increases, using a range of relatively short durations (e.g., 250, 500, 750, or 1,000 ms). Because of this loss, there would be a lessened need to alter the movement plan when a response is required; with increases in PI, RT for invalid precue trials would therefore decrease. This RT decrease might occur for all or only specific types of parame-

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ter alteration (i.e., changing arm and direction, changing arm, and changing direction), depending on the scope of change in these parameters (related structures and processes) due to age. Last, as this preparation loss progresses with increasing PI, valid precue trials would lose the benefit of a prepared movement plan resulting in increased RT.

The present article presents two experiments that extend the investigation of the similarities and differences between elderly and young persons in the performance of a movement restructuring task reported by Stelmach *et* al. (1988). The specific goal of the experiments was to determine whether elderly and young individuals differ in their time course of movement plan preparation, maintenance, and alteration. To assess existence of different time courses of movement plan preparation and maintenance for elderly and young individuals, simple reaction time (SRT) and choice reaction time (CRT) tasks were also included in the experimental procedure.

The SRT task was devised to provide an estimate of the degree of preparation of a movement plan in the restructuring task. In the SRT task, the precue and target stimuli were always identical and thus always specified the same movement parameter values. Given that subjects fully prepare the precued response in the restructuring task, no difference would be expected between RTs of the valid precue trials and the SRT task, a task in which this full preparation is presumed to occur. If a difference favoring the SRT task was found, then less than maximal preparation for the valid precue trials would be indicated. Importantly, the SRT task allowed an inspection of possible age-related differences in this degree of response preparation. Furthermore, if there is a measurable loss of response preparation in the elderly subjects, then there should be time course effects for performance on the SRT task similar to those for the valid precue trials for analogous reasons.

The CRT task provided a baseline measure that assessed mental operations concerned with target stimulus uncertainty (as well as perceptual encoding and certain movement planning factors) underlying the processing on invalid precue trials. Importantly, the difference between the invalid precue trial and CRT task RTs provided an estimate of the additional time needed to alter a prepared movement plan, because in a CRT task, such a plan is not prepared until target stimulus presentation (Klapp, Wyatt, & Lingo, 1974). Although it is clear that both elderly and young individuals make use of stimulus uncertainty information in a CRT task (e.g., Salthouse, 1985; Welford, 1977), it is unclear whether the reported increased RT for invalid over valid precue trials (Larish & Stelmach, 1982; Stelmach et al., 1988) is due to the same processes for the two age groups. Given the possibility that the loss of movement preparation over time renders the alteration of an existing movement plan unnecessary, the elderly RT increase may be primarily due to additional time to process target stimulus uncertainty on invalid precue trials. However, assuming no preparation loss occurs for young subjects, their RT increase for invalid precue trials would likely be due to both the processing of target stimulus uncertainty and the alteration of an intact movement plan.

Accordingly, differences between CRT and invalid precue trials for both age groups, at any PI, would suggest that both groups have some form of intact movement plan available at the time of target stimulus response. However, if differential preparation loss does occur for the movement parameters in the elderly subjects, then the additional RT for a given parameter change condition beyond that of the CRT task would decrease with increases in PI, whereas the additional latency for another change condition would remain constant or decrease to a lesser or greater extent.

Experiment 1

Method

Subjects

Two age groups, one elderly (range, 65-78 years; *M =* 69.4 years) and one young (range, $21-28$ years; $M = 22.6$ years), participated. Each group consisted of eight men and eight women. Subjects in both groups were in good mental, neurological, and physiological health (subjects were screened by means of a self-report questionnaire for instances of stroke, dementia, or Parkinson's disease) and equivalent on education: elderly, 14.8 years; young, 1 5.4 years, /[30] = .99, *p>* .05. All but two elderly and four young subjects were right-handed. To assess age-group sample representativeness, subjects performed the Digit Symbol Substitution Test (DSST), a Performance scale subtest of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised. DSST scores provide an indication of overall psychomotor speed (Salthouse, 1985). Mean scores were 46.8 (52% of maximum) and 72.6 (80% of maximum) for elderly and young groups, respectively. These scores are negatively correlated with increases in age, $r(30) = -.79$, $p < .01$, and are consistent with those reported in the aging literature (e.g., Salthouse, 1985; Stelmach et al., 1988).

Apparatus

In a sound-attenuated testing chamber, subjects sal in a chair positioned in front of a table that was 80 cm in height. Subjects fixated on a visual light display (see Figure 1) consisting ofa nearly square configuration of four red light-emitting diode (LED) lights (6.35 cm wide by 6.99 cm tall) with three yellow LED lights centrally embedded. Lights were positioned 70 cm from the subjects on a vertical black panel. The light display subtended 2° of visual angle. Response keys mounted on the table were configured so that there were columns of three keys 21 cm apart and parallel to the sagittal plane. The keys were elevated 1 cm from the surface of the table and were mounted in ball-bearing sleeves attached to Snap-Action momentary switches requiring an approximate closure force of 40 g. Target and home keys were 3 cm and 1.5cm in diameter, respectively. Target keys were positioned 7 cm above and below the home keys, yielding a response key configuration compatible with the stimulus display. With this configuration, two movement parameters were manipulated, arm (left or right) and direction (away from or toward subject). Subjects wore a set of eye goggles that occluded vision below the horizontal plane of gaze, thus precluding visual guidance of the responses. Stimulus presentation and response recording were controlled by a LSI 11/03 minicomputer.

Design and Procedure

Each subject performed three tasks (movement plan restructuring, SRT, and CRT) in a counterbalanced order across two sessions, each lasting 2 hr, that took place on consecutive days. On a given day, subjects performed either the restructuring task or the SRT and CRT tasks. This mode of task assignment allowed for control of the total

General Experimental Procedure

Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the apparatus and sample trial (valid precue trial) procedure. (Arrows represent index fingers corresponding to left and right arms.)

number of trials per session and maximization of practice effects for each task.

Across all tasks, a trial was initiated by pressing the home keys with the left and right index fingers (see Figure 1). The warning lights were then illuminated for 1.2 s. One second after onset of the warning lights, the precue light was illuminated for 200 ms. Following a blank variable PI that lasted 250, 500, 750, or 1,000 ms, the target light was illuminated. Subjects were instructed to quickly and accurately respond to the target stimulus by releasing the home key corresponding to its lateral position (left or right). Subjects were also instructed to continue pressing, throughout the trial, the remaining home key. RT was measured as the interval from onset of the target stimulus until release of the home key. MT was measured as the interval from the release of the home key until the target key was pressed. Thus, in this experimental design, RT represents a measure of response initiation and MT represents a measure of the remaining latency to complete the response.

In the movement restructuring task, the target stimulus matched the precue stimulus on 75% of the test trials; these trials constituted the *valid precue trials.* For these trials the precue stimulus correctly indicated the values of the arm and direction parameters to be used in the planning of a response to the following target stimulus. The target stimulus differed from the precue stimulus on the remaining 25% of the test trials; these trials constituted the *invalid precue trials.* In these trials, the target stimulus indicated a response different from that indicated by the precue stimulus with respect to values of the arm (left or right) and direction (away from or toward the body) parameters.

For all three tasks, a trial block consisted of 48 test (precue followed by target) trials and 6 catch (precue only) trials. In the restructuring task there were eight experimental trial blocks, resulting in a total set of 384 trials. For each trial block, the test trials consisted of 36 valid and 12 invalid precue trials. The 288 valid precue trials consisted of 18 replications of the 4 possible precue-target stimuli pairs at each of the four PI values. The 96 invalid precue trials consisted of 2replicationsof the 12 possible precue-target stimuli pairs at each of the four PI values. For each PI, this resulted in three parameter change conditions: arm, direction, and arm and direction, each consisting of the four corresponding combinations of precue-target stimuli pairs. For example, the arm change condition was represented by the 4 precue-target stimuli pairs: upper left-upper right, upper right-upper left, lower leftlower right, and lower right-lower left.

For the SRT and CRT tasks, number and composition of trials was chosen to match, respectively, the total number of valid and invalid precue trials in the restructuring task. Thus, in addition to the experimental trials of the restructuring task, subjects received six experimental trial blocks for the SRT task and two experimental blocks for the CRT task. Before starting the experimental trials for each of the three tasks, subjects were given a practice trial block consisting of a random sample from the set of experimental trials devised for each task.

Results

Errors

We removed data from trials on which errors were committed from analysis. Errors consisted of cases of premature responding before onset of precue or target stimuli, releasing both home keys at time of response initiation, and pressing an incorrect target key. Elderly (5.7%) and young (4.3%) subjects had equivalent overall error rates, *F(l,* 30) = 2.29, *p >.* 14. Error rates across trial types were as follows: valid precue, 3.7%; arm change, 5.2%; direction change, 5.6%; arm and direction change, 5.6%; SRT, 5.3%; and CRT, 4.5%; $F(5, 150) = 1.11$, $p >$.35. Importantly, further analysis of these error rates indicated no significant main effect for PI (250,500,750, and 1,000 ms) or interactions with age group for PI or trial type (all *ps >* .07). Also removed from analysis were MT and corresponding RT latencies for trials where MT was either less than 50 ms (representing cases where subjects accidently pressed the target key with their thumbs rather than moving their index finger to press the target button) or greater than 1,000 ms (representing cases where subjects failed to exert sufficient force to press the target button on initial contact). These cases constituted 1.3% and 0.9% of the elderly and young subject data sets, respectively.

Response Latencies

Main analyses of variance (ANOVAs) conducted on the RT and MT data concern the effects of age group (young or elderly); PI (250, 500, 750, or 1,000 ms); trial type—four restructuring task trials (valid precue trials and the three parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials, arm, direction, and arm and direction), and the SRT and CRT tasks—collapsed over specific levels of the two movement parameters—arm (left or right) and direction (toward or away from body)—and trial

Figure 2. Mean reaction time for Experiment 1 plotted as a function of age group, preparation interval, and trial type {i.e., valid precue, simple reaction time [SRT] task, choice reaction time [CRT] task, and invalid precue, with parameter change conditions plotted separately).

blocks. We also conducted secondary analyses to further test age group effects and interactions found in the main analyses with respect to the specific levels of the arm and direction parameters. The complete RT and MT data set. averaged over subjects, is given in Appendix A.

RT. RT data are plotted in Figure 2, averaged over subjects and specific parameter levels, for each age group. Analysis yielded a large effect for age group, *F(l,* 30) = 18.8, *p* = .0001, with elderly subjects (455 ms) responding 131 ms slower than young subjects (324 ms). Further analysis indicated that this effect did not interact with level of the specific parameters (all $ps > .05$).

There were also differences among the various types of trials, *F(5,* 150) = 60.8, *p <* .0001. Overall, mean SRT task latency (311 ms) was shortest, followed by mean latencies of the valid precue trials (345 ms), CRT task (374 ms), and parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials: arm (433 ms), direction (437 ms), and arm and direction (437 ms). Furthermore, there were differences across levels of PI, $F(3, 90) = 19.4$, *p* < .0001, with shorter mean latencies for the middle PI values of 500 ms and 750 ms (382 msand 377 ms, respectively) than for the extreme PI values of 250 ms and 1,000 ms (406 ms and 393 ms, respectively). However, trial type interacted with PI, *F(l* 5, 450) = 5.30, *p <* .0001, indicating differences in this pattern of latencies across the four PI values among the various trial types.

Interpretation of the above interaction and main effects is qualified by the finding of two important interactions concerning age group: Age *X* Trial Type, *F(5,*150) = 2.61, *p <* .03, and Age *X* Trial Type *X* PI, *F(15,* 450) = 1.97, *p* < .025, neither of which interacted with the specific levels of the parameters (all

ps > .09). Subsequent analysis of these two interactions was carried out with respect to three specific comparisons:

1. There was a significant interaction between age group and the specific parameter change conditions, $F(2, 60) = 6.17$, $p <$.005. For elderly subjects, a direction change (498 ms) required on average 15 ms less time than an arm (510 ms) or arm and direction change (516 ms), whereas for young subjects, a direction change (376 ms) required on average 19 ms more time than an arm or arm and direction change (both 357 ms). However, this result is contingent on level of PI; the Age *X* Parameter Change Condition *X* PI interaction was also significant, *F(6,* 180) = 2.25, $p < 0.05$. For elderly subjects, there was a significant interaction between parameter change condition and PI, *F(6,* 90) = 2.70, *p <* .02, but not so for young subjects, *F(6,* 90) = 2.12, $p > .05$.

The loci of this interaction for elderly subjects appear to be at PI values of 250 ms and 1,000 ms. However, whereas the differences among the parameter change conditions at 250 ms are not significant, $F(2, 30) = 3.21$, $p > .05$ (or for that matter at PI values of 500 and 750 ms, both *Fs* < I), differences at 1,000 ms are significant, $F(2, 30) = 7.05$, $p = .003$. At this PI, a direction change (472 ms) is 41 ms faster, $F(1, 15) = 12.1$, $p = .003$, than average arm and arm and direction changes (which are equivalent, 511 ms and 514 ms, respectively; *F <* 1).

2. Across age groups. RT for the CRT task was 54 ms shorter than RT for the invalid precue trials (collapsed over parameter change conditions), *F(l,* 30) = 16.7, *p <* .0005. However, as can be seen in Figure 2, RT differences for the CRT task and specific parameter change conditions vary as a function of age group and PI, $F(9, 270) = 2.31$, $p < .025$. For elderly subjects,

CRT task and parameter change conditions interacted with PI, $F(9, 135) = 3.51$, $p = .0006$. This interaction is primarily due to a convergence of CRT and direction change RTs with increases in PI, $F(3, 45) = 8.17$, $p = .0002$. The convergence is such that at a PI of 1,000 ms, CRT task (458 ms) and direction change RTs (472 ms) are nearly equivalent $(F < 1)$. Although the arm and arm and direction change conditions also exhibit, on average, significant differences relative to the CRT task across PI, *F(3,* $(45) = 3.08$, $p < .05$, the patterns differ from the degree of convergence seen for the direction change condition. The distinguishing difference is seen most notably at a PI of 1,000 ms where, unlike a direction change, average RT for these two conditions remains significantly greater than RT for the CRT task, $F(1, 15) = 4.73$, $p < .05$. These findings are in strong contrast to young subjects, who do not exhibit any differential pattern among the CRT and parameter change condition RTs with changes in PI, *F(9,*135) = 1.85, *p >* .06.

3. RT for the SRT task was 34 ms shorter than RT for the valid precue trials, $F(1, 15) = 16.4$, $p = .0003$, an effect that did not interact with age group or PI (all *ps* > .10).

MT. MT analysis yielded a large effect for age group, *F(l,* 30)= 16.8, *p <* .0005, with elderly subjects (318 ms) 148 ms slower in completing their responses than young subjects (170) ms). Further analysis indicated that this effect did not interact with the specific levels of the parameters (all $p_s > .05$). There were small, but significant, differences among the various types of trials, F(5,150) = 3.36, *p <* .01. Overall, mean SRT task MT (223 ms) was shortest, followed by mean MTs of the CRT task (241 ms), valid precue trials (245 ms), and parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials: arm and direction (247 ms), arm (251 ms), and direction (257 ms). Furthermore, there were also small, but significant, differences across levels of PI, F(3, 90) = 5.02, *p <* .005: 239, 242, 247, and 248 ms, for PI values of 250, 500,750, and 1,000 ms, respectively. All remaining effects and interactions were nonsignificant (all $ps > .05$).

Discussion

The results indicate general age-related similarities but also specific age-related differences in the performance of a movement plan restructuring, SRT, and CRT tasks. Overall, elderly subjects exhibited the general slowing of RT and MT typically reported in the aging literature (see, e.g, Salthouse, 1985; Stelmach et al., 1988; Stelmach, Goggin, & Garcia-Colera, 1987). Furthermore, for both groups, RT on the valid precue trials was greater than on the SRT task, indicating that elderly and young subjects are similarly sensitive to differences in precue validity. One explanation for the slower valid precue RTs for the two age groups is that precue validity less than 100% (in this case 75%) induces mixing of preparation for both precued and nonprecued responses (see Falmagne, 1965; Lupker & Theios, 1975). If we assume a limit to resources available for response preparation, this mixing would cause less than maximal preparation of the precued response and a corresponding elevation in RT for that response.

For both groups, there was also evidence of initial preparation of a movement plan. Overall, invalid precue trials were slower than the CRT task. However, using CRT task perform-

ance as a baseline measure for the processing of target stimulus uncertainty (as well as other perceptual and motor aspects common to both CRT and invalid precue trials of the movement plan restructuring tasks), distinct differences for the two age groups were found when the specific parameter change conditions were compared. For elderly subjects, with increases in PI, RT for a direction change decreased relative to arm and arm and direction changes. The decrease for the direction change was to the extent that at a PI of 1,000 ms, there was no longer a significant difference between latencies for a direction change and the CRT task. In addition, analysis of the parameter change conditions alone indicated that at a PI of 1,000 ms, not only is the direction change made 40 ms faster than the other parameter change conditions, but also these other parameter changes were made with the same RT. Furthermore, these results generalize to both levels of the arm and direction parameters and, more important, cannot be simply explained as resulting from speed-accuracy trade-off differences between the age groups. Last, we should note that for young subjects, no such differences occurred for any of the parameter change conditions across PI. These age effects are specific to RT, reflecting preparation, maintenance, and restructuring processes that operate before the execution (as measured by MT) of the movement plan. In contrast, across trial type and PI levels, the MT data corroborate the finding of qualitative similarity for movement plan execution for the two age groups reported by Stelmach et al. (1988) concerning these movement parameters.

We take these findings to suggest distinct age differences in the maintenance of a movement plan with regard to performance on a movement restructuring task. Unlike young subjects, who exhibited a constant relative latency to change direction compared with the other parameter change conditions with increases in PI, elderly subjects exhibited a relative latency decrease. The equivalence of the arm and arm and direction change conditions at a PI of 1,000 ms suggests something more: Preparation for direction is lost to such an extent that changing arm and direction is reduced to a case of changing arm alone. That is, for both these parameter change conditions, only arm needs to be altered; preparation for direction is initiated as if it had not taken place earlier. The convergence of the direction change and CRT latencies at a PI of 1,000 ms underscores this suggestion; the preparation for direction is lost to the degree that a direction change trial is similar to a trial on the CRT task, a task where no prior movement preparation occurs. Last, the overall similarity of the pattern of latencies across PI for all trial types except direction change indicates that it is primarily the direction parameter rather than the arm parameter that is exhibiting change for the elderly subjects (at least for the range of PI values used in Experiment 1).

Finally, one curious finding concerning elderly subjects is the lack of increase with increases in PI for SRT and valid precue latencies relative to CRT task latency Here, it appears that no preparation loss is occurring. However, one explanation that retains the claim of preparation loss is possible: Given the substantially greater number of valid precue and SRT task trials, well-practiced orienting to the precued target stimulus allows earlier repreparation of the initial movement plan. The point is that attentional processes may act to compensate for movement preparation loss by exploiting the spatial redundancy of precue and target stimuli in the valid precue and SRT task trials (for a related discussion, see Posner, 1978). Given the similarity of the valid precue trial RT and SRT task difference for both age groups previously reported, it seems likely that the potential for compensation is present, regardless of age. However, because of the loss of direction preparation, elderly subjects may be especially likely to benefit from this orienting redundancy. Although beyond the scope of the current report, this attentional compensation clearly deserves further investigation. The explanation above does not compromise the interpretation of the parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials, because any orienting practice for the target stimuli was equally distributed across the three change conditions.

Experiment 2

One of the basic characteristics of the research paradigms that have been used in the study of response preparation in elderly individuals has been the experimental control of the precue display interval and PI (e.g., Experiment 1; Larish & Stelmach, 1982; Stelmach et al., 1988). At issue is whether the loss of response preparation for the parameter of direction seen in Experiment 1 is due to an inability to optimize preparation given the temporal demand characteristics of the task or to an inability to maintain preparation, per se. Generally speaking, in a RT task using an experimenter-determined precue display interval or PI (variable or fixed), elderly subjects may have difficulty maximizing the use of response preparation (for any or all parameters) because of an inability to anticipate the onset of the target stimulus (Gottsdanker, 1982).

Alternative methods such as using nonaging foreperiods (Naatanen, 1971) and the transient signal methodology of Gottsdanker (1980a, 1980b, 1982) have been proposed as remedies for problems associated with using a fixed interstimulus interval or a fixed set of interstimulus intervals. Another, seemingly more straightforward approach to the study of movement plan restructuring is to give subjects active control of their preparation by allowing them to determine the duration of the precue stimulus. Dixon and Just (1986) used such a paradigm to study strategic response preparation. In Experiment 2, an adaptation of this paradigm was used. In this paradigm, three contiguous responses were made on a given trial. As in Experiment 1, on a given trial a precue stimulus was presented, followed by the target stimulus. However, subjects in Experiment 2 were allowed to view this precue until they felt ready to respond to the target stimulus. After making a response indicating attainment of this prepared state, subjects were presented, shortly thereafter, with the target stimulus. The time taken to study the precue stimulus constituted the precue viewing time (PT). The two remaining responses to the target stimulus determined the RT and MT intervals as defined earlier for Experiment 1.

Of interest in this study was whether a subject-selected precue stimulus display interval would allow elderly subjects to maximize response preparation control and thus mitigate the apparent loss etfect for the parameter of direction observed in Experiment 1. Given sufficient control over the planning of a response, preparation for direction might be better preserved up to the time of response. Of further interest was the influence of the degree of precue stimulus validity on PT. In the CRT task used in Experiments 1 and 2, the precue was never valid, whereas it was valid 75% of the time in the movement plan restructuring task and valid 100% of the time in the SRT task. It was expected that increases in the level of the validity of a precue would increase its pertinence in the making of a movement plan, and consequently would induce longer PT. Furthermore, this prediction was made for both age groups, given the findings of aging studies investigating precue validity by means of related tasks (e.g., Larish & Stelmach, 1982; Nissen & Corkin, 1985; Stelmach et al, 1988).

Method

Subjects

Two age groups of 12 subjects each, one elderly (70-77 years; *M -* 72.3 years) and one young (20-24 years; $M = 21.8$ years) participated. The elderly group consisted of seven women and five men; the young group consisted of eight women and four men. Subjects in both groups were in good mental, neurological, and physiological health (subjects were screened by using a self-report questionnaire for instances of stroke, dementia, or Parkinson's disease) and equivalent on years of education: elderly, 14.5 years; young, 15.8 years, 1(22) = 1.96, *p>* .05. All but one elderly and two young subjects were right-handed. None of these subjects participated in Experiment 1.

As in Experiment 1, subjects performed the DSST task before their participation. Mean DSST scores were 44.8 (49% of maximum) and 71.3 (79% of maximum) for elderly and young groups, respectively. These scores are consistent with those found in Experiment I. Finally, DSST scores were again negatively correlated with age, $r(22) = -.88$, $p < .01$, indicating that the scores declined with increasing age.

Apparatus

The apparatus was the same as that used in Experiment 1 with the addition of a foot pedal device. The foot pedal, when depressed, activated a momentary switch. Responses made with the foot pedal were recorded by the LSI 11/03 minicomputer that controlled the experiment.

Design and Procedure

The design and procedure were identical to those of Experiment 1, with the following exceptions. In Experiment 2, the manipulation of the precue stimulus duration (measured as PT) was under subject control. Subjects were instructed to depress the foot pedal, study the precue stimulus, and release the foot pedal when they felt ready to respond to the target stimulus. As in Experiment I, subjects were instructed to subsequently respond to the target stimulus by releasing the appropriate home key and pressing the target key corresponding to the position of the target stimulus as quickly and as accurately as possible. The target stimulus always appeared after a PI of 250 ms following the foot pedal release.

Results

Errors

We removed data from trials on which errors were committed from analysts. Errors consisted of failures to perform the

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task in the proper response sequence (i.e., releasing home key before releasing the foot pedal, responding to the precue or target stimulus before onset, or failure to depress the foot pedal before precue stimulus onset) and making an incorrect response to the target stimulus. Across all three tasks, elderly and young subjects made 21.7% and 11.5% errors on their respective trials, $F(1, 22) = 6.47$, $p < .02$. The elderly error rate was inflated by 3 subjects who exhibited a substantially higher error rate ($M = 37.3\%$); the error rate for the remaining elderly subjects was 16.5% and not significantly different from that for the young subjects, $F(1, 19) = 2.18$, $p > .15$. Because of the large number of condition replications per subject in this experiment, sufficient error-free trial data were available to allow the data for these 3 subjects to be retained. There were significant differences among the error rates across trial types: valid precue, 11.2%; arm change, 24%; direction change, 14.5%; arm and direction change, 21.9%; SRT, 14.3%; and CRT, 13.5%; *F(S,* 110) = 7.91, *p <* .0001, due to elevated arm and arm and direction change trials. With these trial types removed, the differences among the remaining trial types were nonsignificant $(F < 1)$. Importantly, further analysis of these error rates indicated no significant Age Group \times Trial Type interaction $(F < 1)$. Also removed from analysis were MT and corresponding RT and PT latencies for trials where MT was either less than 50 ms (representing cases where subjects accidently pressed the target key with their thumbs rather than moving their index finger to press the target key) or greater than 1,000 ms (representing cases where subjects failed to exert sufficient force to press the target button on initial contact). These cases constituted .2% and .3% of the elderly and young subject data sets, respectively.

Response Latencies

Main ANOYAs conducted on the RT and MT data concern the effects of age group (young or elderly); trial type—four restructuring task trials (valid precue trials and the three parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials, arm, direction and arm and direction) and the SRT and CRT tasks—collapsed over specific levels of the two movement parameters, arm (left or right) and direction (toward or away from body), and trial blocks. We also conducted secondary analyses to assess age group effects and interactions found in the main analyses with respect to the specific levels of the arm and direction parameters. The complete RT and MT data set, collapsed over subjects, is given in Appendix B. Last, we conducted separate analyses on PT, task and precue validity, and the relationship between PT and RT and between PT and MT with respect to task and parameter change conditions.

RT RT data are plotted in Figure 3, collapsed over subjects within each age group. Overall, there was a large effect for age group, $F(1, 22) = 14.3$, $p = .001$, with elderly subjects (377 ms) responding 95 ms slower than the young subjects (282 ms). Further analysis indicated that this effect was independent of the specific levels of the parameters (all $ps > .05$). There were also significant differences among the various types of trials, $F(5,110) = 68.9$, $p < .001$. Across age group, mean latency for the SRT task was shortest (229 ms), followed by the valid precue trials (276 ms), the CRT task (332 ms), and the three parameter

Elderly 450 CZ3 Young 400 E p 350- / 2 ∎p O 300- SRT STATES $\sum_{k=1}^{n}$ 0 250- / $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}$ 200-/ / \ / § 150- / ž 100 Valid Arm Direction Both CRT Trial Type

Figure 3. Mean reaction time for Experiment 2 plotted as a function of age group and trial type. $(SRT = simple$ reaction time; $CRT = choice$ reaction time)

change conditions of the invalid precue trials: direction (336 ms), arm (402 ms), and arm and direction (403 ms).

There was also an important interaction between age group and trial type, $F(5,110) = 3.37$, $p < .01$, which occurred independent of specific parameter levels (all *ps >* .38). As in Experiment 1, subsequent analysis of this interaction was carried out with respect to three specific comparisons:

1. Analysis of the differences among the three parameter change conditions yielded a significant Age \times Parameter Change Condition interaction, $F(2, 44) = 12.6$, $p < .0001$. For elderly subjects, a direction change (357 ms) occurred on average 107 ms faster than arm (466 ms) and arm and direction (462 ms) changes; however, for young subjects, a direction change (314 ms) occurred on average only 27 ms faster than arm (338 ms) and arm and direction (344 ms) changes. Furthermore, the direction change effect for young subjects was completely compensated by their MT data; in a total time analysis, the effect was not found $(M = -10 \text{ ms}; F < 1)$, indicating that young subjects' direction change effect was due to initiating the response before complete movement plan preparation had occurred. By contrast, this effect for elderly subjects was minimally compensated by their MT data in this regard; the effect persisted in a total time analysis ($M = 67$ ms), $F(1, 11) = 11.3$, p < 0.01 . As these age group differences suggest, the Age \times Parameter Change Condition interaction reported for the RT data was also found for the total time data, $F(2, 44) = 6.04$, $p < .005$.

2. Across age groups, latency for the CRT task was 49 ms shorter than latency for the invalid precue trials (collapsed over parameter change conditions), $F(1, 22) = 13.8$, $p = .001$. However, as can be seen in Figure 3, latency differences for the CRT task and specific parameter change conditions vary as a function of age group and trial type, $F(3, 66) = 5.10$, $p < .005$. This interaction can be described as follows: For elderly subjects, the latency of the direction change condition was 30 ms less than CRT task latency, although this difference was not significant, $F(1,11) = 2.39, p > 15$. The latencies of the remaining parameter change conditions, however, were each greater than CRT task latency. This difference from CRT task latency was significant for arm change (79 ms), $F(1, 11) = 12.0$, $p = .005$, and arm and direction change (75 ms). *F(l,* 11) = 7.92, *p <* .02. For young subjects, all three parameter change conditions had longer latencies when compared with the CRT task. Differences from CRT task latency were significant for direction change, 38 ms, $F(1, 11) = 5.03$, $p < .05$; arm change, 62 ms, $F(1, 11) = 17.7$, $p <$.002; and arm and direction change, 68 ms , $F(1, 11) = 17.4$, $p < .002$.

3. Latency for the SRT task was 47 ms shorter than latency for the valid precue trials, $F(1, 22) = 20.8$, $p < .0005$, an effect that did not interact with age group $(F < 1)$.

PT, task, and precue validity. In Figure 4, mean PT latencies are plotted as a function of precue validity for the CRT, movement plan restructuring, and SRT tasks and age group, collapsed over subjects within each group. We analyzed mean group latencies by means of multiple regression with these variables as factors. As can be seen, there is a large (113 ms) increase in PT for elderly (652 ms) over young (539 ms) subjects, $t(3) =$ 24.2, $p < .001$. In addition, there were equivalent increases in PT, for elderly and young subjects, with increases in precue validity, $t(3) = 7.61$, $p < .003$. For elderly subjects, mean PT latencies for the CRT, movement plan restructuring, and SRT tasks were 627 ms, 654 ms, and 676 ms, respectively. For young subjects, mean PT latencies for these three tasks were, respectively, 516 ms, 549 ms, and 552 ms. Finally, best-fitting lines computed conjointly for both groups, using these two variables, accounted for over 99.5% of the group mean variance, $F(2,3) =$ 322.0, $p < .001$.

PT, RT, and parameter change conditions. An analysis was also carried out to determine the relationship between PT and RT for the parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials. This analysis provided a measure of the ability of both age groups to optimize preparation of the precue stimulus for the response to the target stimulus. We analyzed these data by means of linear regression; subject mean PT (pooled over all trials of the movement plan restructuring task) and subject

Figure 4. Mean precue viewing time and best-fitting lines for Experiment 2 plotted according to age group and precue validity for the choice reaction time (CRT), movement restructuring, and simple reaction time (SRT) tasks.

Figure 5. Scatter plot for Experiment 2 of elderly subject mean precue viewing time and reaction time for the three parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials. (Best-fitting lines were computed for each change condition.)

mean RT. for each of the parameter change conditions (arm, direction, arm and direction) were treated as variables. Separate best-fitting lines were computed for each age group and are plotted in Figures 5 and 6. For the elderly group (see Figure 5), across increasingly slower subject PT, there is a slower rate of increase in direction change RT relative to the other change conditions, which have the same rate of increase. The slopes for these best-fitting lines were .265, .469, and .457 for direction, arm, and arm and direction change conditions, respectively. Correlations for these lines were highly significant: For direction change, $r(10) = .87$, $p < .001$; for arm change, $r(10) = .93$, $p < .001$; and for arm and direction change, $r(10) = .90$, $p <$.001.

Analysis of the young group data for the parameter change conditions yielded equivalent, though negligible, rates of increase in RT with increasing subject PT (see Figure 6). The slopes for these best-fitting lines were .031, .085, and .075 for direction, arm, and arm and direction change conditions, respectively. Furthermore, correlations for all three lines failed to reach statistical significance: For direction change, $r(10) = .52$, *p >* .05; for arm change, r(IO) = .18, *p >* .10; and for arm and direction change, $r(10) = .48$, $p > .05$.

MTandPT. MT analysis yielded a large effect for age group, *F(\ ,* 22) = 4 1 .0, *p <* .000 1 , with elderly subjects (405 ms) 205 ms slower in completing their responses than young subjects (200 ms). Further analysis indicated that this effect did not vary as a function of specific parameter level (all *ps* > .05). There were also small but significant differences among the various types of trials, *F(5,* 1 10) = 3.96, *p <* .005. Overall mean MTs for the valid precue trials, three parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials (arm, direction, and arm and direction) and the SRT and CRT tasks were 293 ms, 293 ms, 333 ms, 299 ms, 303 ms, and 293 ms, respectively. This effect is due to an elevated MT for direction change trials; with these trials excluded, the effect is nonsignificant $(F < 1)$. Importantly, this effect did not interact with age group $(F < 1)$. All remaining effects and interactions were nonsignificant (all *ps* > .05). Last, we conducted a parallel set of regression analyses concerning

Figure 6. Scatter plot for Experiment 2 of young subject mean precue viewing time and reaction time for the three parameter change conditions of the invalid precue trials. (Best-fitting lines were computed for each change condition.)

MT and PT; no significant correlations were found (all $ps > .05$).

Discussion

Overall, the findings of the present experiment corroborate the results of Experiment 1. Beyond an overall increase in RT and MT response latencies for elderly subjects, both age groups showed similar evidence of preparation of a movement plan; although, for both groups, this plan is not prepared to the same extent as that prepared in the SRT task, it is sufficient to incur additional processing time when it needs to be altered. Furthermore, PT was found to increase with increases in precue validity in the same manner for both age groups. This finding indicates that in a speeded precued response task, the time spent viewing a precue stimulus is determined by the extent to which it validly specifies the movement plan for a response to the target stimulus. Importantly, these results indicate that elderly subjects are indeed as sensitive to precue validity as young subjects. We believe this is particularly important evidence of the use of probability information by elderly individuals because they were given active control over the processing of information that is influenced by the level of precue validity.

However, as was also the case in Experiment 1, this conclusion of similarity between age groups needs to be qualified. For the elderly subjects, evidence was again found for the loss of preparation for the parameter of direction, whereas for young subjects this preparation remains consistent across all movement parameters. The characteristics of the elderly subject RT results replicate those of Experiment 1 at a PI of 1,000 ms: (a) there was a substantially shorter latency to change direction compared with changing arm or both parameters; (b) there was equivalent latency to change arm or both parameters; (c) relative to the CRT task, there was significant additional latency to make an arm or arm and direction change, but no significant difference in latency to make a direction change; (d) these effects occur independent of specific levels of arm and direction parameters; and (e) these effects cannot be explained by a differential speed-accuracy trade-off between the two groups across trial types. Taken together, these characteristics again suggest that elderly subjects are unable to maintain direction preparation to such an extent that changing arm and changing arm and direction become instances of the same case (i.e., both conditions involve only making an arm change). Furthermore, processing on direction change trials becomes similar to that of a CRT task, a task where a movement plan is not typically prepared in advance of target stimulus onset (Klapp et al, 1974).

What the findings from Experiment 2 underscore is that even when given the opportunity to optimally prepare a precued movement, elderly subjects are unable to prevent this loss for direction preparation. This is in stark contrast to young subjects, who fail to show any differences in preparation maintenance for the two parameters when given this opportunity. The differences in PT among elderly (and young) subjects are likely due to individual perceptual, cognitive, and motor execution factors in addition to movement plan preparation factors. However, given the pattern of PT for increasing levels of precue validity, it appears that elderly subjects did indeed use the precue display interval (apparently to the same extent as young subjects) to prepare a movement plan. Why the subject-selected precue stimulus interval did not prevent the loss of direction preparation could be due to (at least) two reasons: (a) Elderly subjects were not aware of the loss and thus made no attempt to prevent it or (b) they were aware of it and tried to prevent it, but to no avail. What is important is that the loss effect is found for all elderly subjects regardless of increases in PT, suggesting that it is not under subject control. The variance in individual latency differences seen in Figure 5 between direction change and the other parameter change conditions is generally consistent with the pattern of mean subject PT; elderly subjects with slower PT exhibit proportional increases in their RT, thus accentuating differences among conditions. Finally, this loss effect appears to be due to an age group difference as opposed to a time-based difference, where direction loss occurs for both groups with increases in time on task: Slower young subjects are no more likely to exhibit it than are faster young subjects.

General Discussion

The findings from these two experiments indicate that there are qualitative similarities and differences in elderly and young individuals' control of movement preparation and execution. The similarities consist of the manner in which a movement plan is initially prepared, with respect to how information about precue probability and stimulus uncertainty influence that preparation. Of course, elderly subjects are much slower in their processing of precue probability and stimulus uncertainty as well as in their execution of a movement plan, but this slowing appears to be proportional and indicative of a general slowing of processes that remain intact with changes in age (see Salthouse, 1985).

What is so compelling about the findings of the present experiments is that elderly and young individuals differ markedly in their maintenance of movement preparation for direction. The results of Experiment 1 indicate that after a PI of only 1,000 ms, elderly subjects have lost direction preparation to the extent that when required to alter the originally prepared movement plan, they prepare the new plan (with respect to direction) as if the original plan had never been prepared. This finding is in contrast to the results of the young subjects, who showed slightly better preparation maintenance for direction than for arm. Furthermore, the results of Experiment 2 suggest that the loss of direction preparation for elderly subjects occurs even when they select the duration of the precue stimulus display and thus determine the effective preparation interval $(PT + 250 \text{ ms } PI)$. The implication of this finding is that preparation loss for direction is due to changes in movement preparation processes concerning this parameter that are not readily available to, or altered by, subject control. Importantly, this profile for preparation loss, as measured by RT, occurs independent of the specific levels of the arm and direction parameters.

We do not believe a spatial attention shift account of these data is tenable for two reasons: (a) Concerning the corresponding stimulus displays for precue and target stimuli, an arm and direction change would seem to be more complex because it involves a diagonal spatial shift (e.g., upper left-lower right) as compared with an arm change or a direction change that involves horizontal (e.g, upper left-upper right) and vertical (e.g, upper left-lower left) spatial shifts, respectively. However, arm and arm and direction changes had equivalent response latencies where the difference between them and a direction change occurred in these studies; (b) Hartley (1987) reported finding no apparent qualitative differences between elderly and young individuals in their allocation or reallocation of attention in precuing tasks. Hartley's finding supports earlier research (e.g, Nisscn & Corkin, 1985) and argues against the age differences found in the current experiments for the restructuring of direction as being due to qualitative differences in the way that elderly and young individuals shift spatial attention.

That elderly preparation loss effects were not found to the same degree for the parameter of arm in these studies may be due to the effective preparation intervals chosen. Given that the RT difference (at least the magnitude) in restructuring arm and direction parameters reported here was not found by Stelmach et al. (1988) when using an effective preparation interval of 2,000 ms suggests that arm preparation loss does ultimately occur: indeed, the findings from Experiment 1 indicate that it does occur to some degree. However, to observe it occurring to the same extent as it does for direction would appear to require an effective preparation interval longer than 1,200 ms (from Experiment 1: 200 ms precue stimulus display + 1,000 ms PI) when that interval is experimenter controlled or longer than 902 ms (from Experiment 2:652 ms mean elderly PT + 250 ms PI) when it is subject controlled. In this regard, the important finding here is that for elderly subjects, direction loss at least precedes arm loss (if extensive arm loss does in fact occur).

Why there are substantial age differences for direction preparation maintenance but not for arm, given the time frame of preparation maintenance used in the present studies, is an intriguing question. One possibility is that it is a matter of the complexity of the direction parameter. Whereas arm is inherently a binary parameter (i.e., left or right), direction is a (potentially) continuous parameter (i.e., 0°-360°). This difference in complexity may explain the findings reported in the present

experiments: For an elderly individual, the more complex the. parameter structure, the more likely that its preparation will not be maintained over time. Corroborative support for such a claim is provided by a study of age and movement parameter specification by Stelmach et al. (1987). In that study it was found that especially for elderly subjects across age, specification of direction (away from or toward the body) required the most time, followed by arm (left or right) and extent (short or long distance).

Direction also appears to be a relatively complex parameter with respect to neurological functioning. There is evidence that direction is coded at some of the highest cognitive regions of the brain, such as the prefrontal cortex (Kubota, 1978; Niki. 1974a, 1974b; Niki & Watanabe, 1976). Furthermore, there is evidence of sizable neuronal loss in the prefrontal cortex for elderl) individuals when compared with young individuals (Haug et al., 1983). Taken together, these findings suggest that direction is a parameter particularly likely to undergo age-related change with respect to motor preparation processes. The findings from the present studies, therefore, provide further insight inlo the functional aspects and age-related changes in the cognitivemotor system with respect to specific movement parameters involved in the control and execution of simple movements. Finally; these findings also suggest possible directions for research concerning performance differences on the movement plan restructuring task due to various types of elderly dementias that affect higher level cognitive processes (e.g., Alzheimer's disease).

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(Appendix A follows on next page)

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Appendix A

Mean Response Latencies (in Milliseconds) for Experiment 1

462

P. AMRHEIN, G. STELMACH, AND N. GOGGIN

(Appendix A continues on next page)

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Elderly subjects: $PI = 750$ ms

463

Appendix A (continued)

464

P. AMRHEIN, G. STELMACH, AND N. GOGGIN

Note. $PI = preparation$ interval; SRT = simple reaction time; CRT = choice reaction time; RT = reaction time; and MT = movement time.

AGE DIFFERENCES

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Appendix B

Mean Response Latencies (in Milliseconds) for Experiment 2

466

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