1 Contrary neuronal recalibration in different multisensory cortical areas

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11 In Brief:

12	The neural bases of multisensory plasticity are currently unknown. Here, Zeng et al.
13	studied neuronal recalibration to a systematic visual-vestibular cue conflict. In
14	multisensory cortical areas MSTd and PIVC, single-unit responses to visual and vestibular
15	stimuli recalibrated to reduce the cue conflict, along with their respective unisensory
16	perceptual shifts. By contrast, in higher-level VIP, both visual and vestibular neuronal
17	responses recalibrated with vestibular perceptual shifts. This led to a surprising
18	recalibration of visual responses opposite in direction to visual perceptual shifts. This
19	exposes differential aspects of multisensory plasticity across multisensory cortical areas,
20	and reveals a novel hybrid of visual responses within a vestibular reference frame in
21	parietal neurons.
22	Highlights:
23	• In the presence of a systematic heading conflict, visual and vestibular cues recalibrate
24	towards one another to reduce the conflict.
25	• In MSTd, neuronal responses to vestibular and visual cues recalibrated, each
26	according to their respective cues' perceptual shifts.
27	• In PIVC, vestibular responses recalibrated according to vestibular perceptual shifts
28	(cells were not visually tuned).
29	• In VIP, neuronal responses to both vestibular and visual cues recalibrated together
30	with vestibular perceptual shifts (opposite in direction to visual perceptual shifts).
31	• Profound differences in neuronal recalibration expose different functions across
32	multisensory cortical areas.

33 Abstract

The adult brain demonstrates remarkable multisensory plasticity by dynamically 34 35 recalibrating information from multiple sensory sources. When a systematic 36 visual-vestibular heading offset is experienced, the unisensory perceptual estimates 37 recalibrate toward each other (in opposite directions) to reduce the conflict. The neural substrate of this recalibration is unknown. Here, we recorded single-neuron activity 38 from the dorsal medial superior temporal (MSTd), parieto-insular vestibular cortex 39 (PIVC), and ventral intraparietal (VIP) areas in three male rhesus macagues during 40 41 visual-vestibular recalibration. Both visual and vestibular tuning in MSTd recalibrated each according to their respective cues' perceptual shifts. Vestibular tuning in PIVC 42 43 also recalibrated together with corresponding perceptual shifts (cells were not visually 44 tuned). By contrast, VIP neurons demonstrated a unique phenomenon: both vestibular and visual tuning recalibrated according to vestibular perceptual shifts. 45 Such that, visual tuning shifted, surprisingly, contrary to visual perceptual shifts. 46 47 Therefore, while unsupervised recalibration (to reduce cue conflict) occurs in early 48 multisensory cortices, higher-level VIP reflects only a global shift, in vestibular space.

49 Introduction

Our different sensory systems each continuously adapt to changes in the 50 51 environment (Webster, 2012). Thus, to maintain stable and coherent perception in a multisensory and ever-changing world, the brain needs to dynamically adjust for 52 53 sensory discrepancies between the different modalities. This process of multisensory 54 recalibration takes place continually, and is perhaps more fundamental than multisensory integration because integration would not be beneficial when the 55 underlying cues are biased. While the neural bases of multisensory integration have 56 received a lot of attention (Chen et al., 2013a; Ernst and Banks, 2002; Ernst and 57 Bülthoff, 2004; Ernst and Di Luca, 2011; Gu et al., 2008; Stein et al., 2014), the neural 58 bases of multisensory recalibration have been explored to a much lesser degree. 59

60 Cross-modal recalibration has been observed in a variety of multisensory settings. One well-known example is the ventriloguist aftereffect (VAE), in which exposure to a 61 consistent spatial discrepancy between auditory and visual stimuli induces a 62 63 subsequent shift in the perceived location of sounds (Bertelson and De Gelder, 2004; Canon, 1970; Kramer et al., 2020; Radeau and Bertelson, 1974; Recanzone, 1998; 64 65 Watson et al., 2021). Also, the rubber-hand illusion (RHI) leads to an offset in hand proprioception in the direction of the visually observed rubber hand (Abdulkarim et al., 66 2021; Botvinick and Cohen, 1998; Kennett et al., 2001; Thériault et al., 2022; Tsakiris 67 and Haggard, 2005). Although it was initially thought that only the non-visual cues 68 69 recalibrate to vision (visual dominance; (Brainard and Knudsen, 1993; Rock and Victor, 1964), further work in a variety of paradigms has revealed both visual and 70

non-visual recalibration (Atkins et al., 2003; Burge et al., 2010; Lewald, 2002; van
Beers et al., 2002; Zaidel et al., 2011).

73 Most of what we know about multisensory recalibration is described at the behavioral level (Burge et al., 2008; Burge et al., 2010; Lewald, 2002), with little 74 75 known about its neuronal underpinnings. Recent EEG (Park and Kayser, 2021) and fMRI (Zierul et al., 2017) studies in humans have shed some light on this question. 76 However, these methods lack the resolution to probe recalibration at the level of single 77 neurons. A series of classic studies by Eric Knudsen and colleagues investigated 78 79 multisensory plasticity at the neuronal and circuit levels, in the barn owl (Knudsen, 2002; Knudsen and Brainard, 1991; Linkenhoker and Knudsen, 2002). They found 80 81 profound neuronal plasticity in juvenile owls reared with prismatic lenses that 82 systematically displaced their field of view. In that case, the auditory space map in the optic tectum was recalibrated to be aligned with the displaced visual field (Knudsen 83 and Brainard, 1991). However, multisensory plasticity is not limited to the 84 85 development, and the neuronal bases of how multiple sensory systems continuously adapt to one another in the adult brain remain fundamentally missing. 86

Self-motion perception (the subjective feeling of moving through space) relies primarily on visual and vestibular cues (Butler et al., 2015; Butler et al., 2010; de Winkel et al., 2010; Fetsch et al., 2012; Fetsch et al., 2009; Gu et al., 2007; Warren et al., 1988). Multisensory integration of visual and vestibular signals can improve heading perception (Burge *et al.*, 2010; Butler *et al.*, 2015; Dokka et al., 2015; Gu *et al.*, 2008). However, conflicting or inconsistent visual and vestibular information often leads to motion sickness (Oman, 1990; Reason and Brand, 1975). Interestingly, this
subsides after prolonged exposure to the sensory motion conflict, presumably through
brain mechanisms of multisensory recalibration (Held, 1961; Shupak and Gordon,
2006). Thus, self-motion perception – a vital skill for everyday function with intrinsic
plasticity – offers a prime substrate to study cross-sensory recalibration.

We previously investigated and found robust (behavioral) recalibration of both 98 visual and vestibular cues in response to a systematic vestibular-visual heading 99 discrepancy (Zaidel et al., 2011). In that paradigm, no external feedback was given. 100 101 Thus, the need for recalibration arose solely because of the cue discrepancy (we therefore call this condition *unsupervised*). The subjects (humans and monkeys) 102 recalibrated both visual and vestibular perceptual estimates by shifting them toward 103 104 each other, to reduce the conflict. This is in line with the notion that unsupervised recalibration aims to maintain "internal consistency" between the cues (Burge et al., 105 2010). However, the neuronal basis of this everyday multisensory plasticity is 106 107 unknown.

In a complementary behavioral study, we tested *supervised* self-motion recalibration, by providing external feedback regarding cue accuracy (Zaidel et al., 2013). There we found that supervised recalibration is a high-level cognitive process that compares the combined-cue (multisensory) estimate to feedback from the environment. This resulted in 'yoked' recalibration of both cues, in the same direction, to reduce conflict between the combined estimate and external feedback. We subsequently also investigated the neuronal substrate of *supervised* recalibration (Zaidel et al., 2021). We found robust recalibration of both vestibular and visual neuronal tuning in the monkey ventral intraparietal (VIP) cortex, such that tuning for both cues shifted together, in accordance with the behavior. However, because in that paradigm both cues recalibrate in the same direction (yoking), neuronal tuning was also expected to shift in the same direction for both cues. Thus, differential aspects of neuronal recalibration for the individual cues could go undetected.

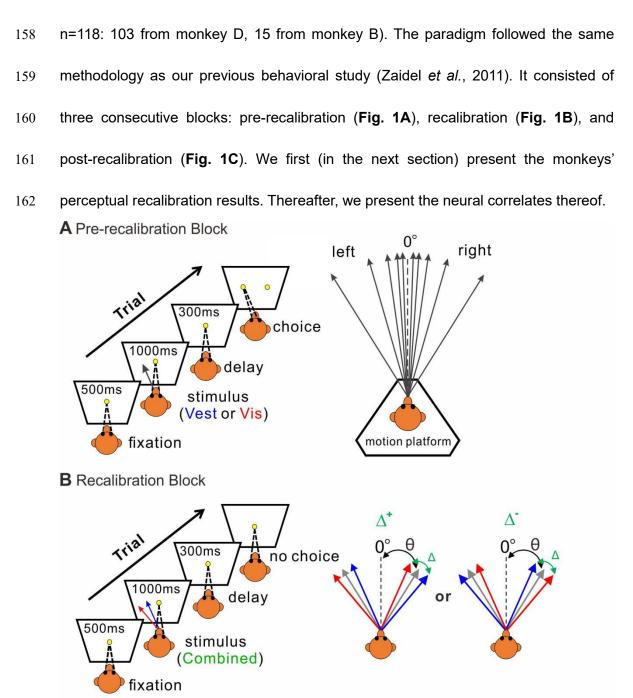
By contrast, in unsupervised recalibration, vestibular and visual cues shift in 121 122 opposite directions (Zaidel et al., 2011). Therefore, the unsupervised paradigm can 123 better expose differences in the way that individual cues recalibrate to one-another in the brain. Because unsupervised recalibration occurs in the absence of external 124 125 feedback, it is presumed to reflect implicit changes in perception. Thus, we expected 126 to see its effects relatively early in the vestibular-visual integration hierarchy, and that these effects would propagate to higher-level areas. Unsupervised recalibration of 127 single neurons in single behavioral sessions, has not been tested before. The 128 129 resulting psychometric shifts are smaller (vs. supervised recalibration). Thus detecting its neuronal correlates is challenging, but imperative, to understand the neural bases 130 131 of adult cross-sensory plasticity. Thus, the aim of this study was to test unsupervised recalibration of visual and vestibular neuronal tuning, and how it may differ across 132 multisensory cortical areas. 133

Two relatively early multisensory cortical areas involved in self-motion perception are the medial superior temporal area (MSTd) and the parietal insular vestibular cortex (PIVC). Neurons in MSTd respond to large optic flow stimuli, conducive to the

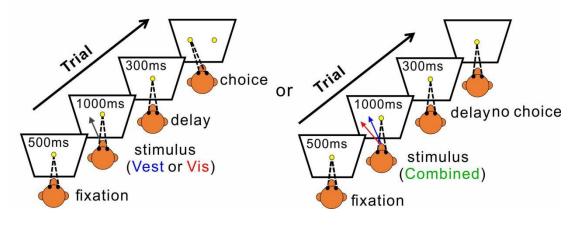
137 visual perception of self-motion (Gu et al., 2006). Vestibular responses are also present in MSTd, however visual self-motion signals dominate (Gu et al., 2008; Gu et 138 139 al., 2012). PIVC has strong vestibular responses, without strong tuning to visual optic flow (Chen et al., 2010). Therefore, we expected to see perceptual shifts resulting 140 from unsupervised calibration in MSTd and PIVC. Area VIP also has robust responses 141 to visual and vestibular self-motion stimuli, however, it is marked by strong choice 142 signals (Chen et al., 2016; Gu, 2018; Zaidel et al., 2017). It is thus considered a 143 144 higher-level multisensory area involved in additional (currently not fully understood) 145 cognitive functions. Different types of multisensory recalibration observed in these different multisensory areas can provide important insights into their differential 146 underlying functions. Thus, in this study, we focused on these three multisensory 147 148 cortical areas. We examined whether and how their visual and vestibular neural tuning changed in accordance with corresponding behavioral shifts during a single session 149 (~1hr) of unsupervised cross-sensory recalibration. 150

151 **Results**

Three monkeys performed a task of heading discrimination in a paradigm that elicits unsupervised cross-sensory (vestibular-visual) recalibration. Simultaneous to behavioral performance, we recorded from single neurons extracellularly in areas MSTd (upper bank of the superior temporal sulcus, n=83: 19 from monkey D, 64 from monkey K), PIVC (upper bank and the tip of the lateral sulcus, n=160: 91 from monkey D, 69 from monkey B), and VIP (lower bank and tip of the intraparietal sulcus,



C Post-recalibration Block



163 Figure 1. Multisensory recalibration paradigm. (A) Pre-recalibration block. The vestibular 164 stimulus was provided by the motion platform (schematic on the right), and the visual stimulus 165 was optic-flow simulation of self-motion (without motion of the platform) presented on a screen 166 in front of the monkey (schematic on the left). The self-motion stimuli comprised linear motions 167 (of either vestibular or visual stimuli) in a primarily forward direction, with slight deviations to 168 the right or left (black arrows, schematic on the right). Monkeys were required to fixate on a 169 central target (yellow circle) presented on the screen during the stimulus and then to report 170 their perceived heading by making a saccade to one of two choice targets (left or right relative 171 to straight ahead). (B) Recalibration block. Vestibular and visual stimuli were presented 172 together ("combined") with a systematic discrepancy (Δ) between the vestibular and visual 173 headings. The blue and red arrows represent the vestibular and visual headings, respectively. 174 The gray arrows represent the combined cue headings (in between the vestibular and visual 175 cues) and the black dashed lines represent straight ahead. (C) Post-recalibration block. The 176 single-cue trials (like in A) were interleaved with combined-cue trials (like in B).

177 Both vestibular and visual cues recalibrate toward each other

Figure 2 shows example psychophysical data from two experimental sessions. Replicating our previous behavioral results (Zaidel *et al.*, 2011), we found that both visual and vestibular psychometric functions shifted in the direction required to reduce the cue conflict. Namely, when the vestibular and visual heading stimuli were systematically offset, such that they consistently deviated to the right and the left, respectively (Δ^+ , **Fig. 2A**), the vestibular post-recalibration curve (blue) was shifted 184 rightward vs. pre-recalibration (black). Note that a rightward shift of the psychometric curve indicates a leftward perceptual shift (identified by a lower propensity for 185 'rightward' choices at 0° heading for the blue curve). Complementarily, the visual 186 post-recalibration psychometric curve (red) shifted leftward vs. pre-recalibration 187 (black), albeit to a lesser degree, indicating a *rightward* perceptual shift. In a reverse 188 manner, when the vestibular and visual heading stimuli were offset to the left and right 189 respectively (Δ^2 , **Fig. 2B**), the vestibular post-recalibration curve (blue) shifted to the 190 191 left, and the visual post-recalibration curve shifted to the right.

192 These behavioral shifts were quantified by the difference between the post- vs. pre-recalibration curves' PSEs (points of subjective equality). Each psychometric 193 curve's PSE was detected by the heading at which it crosses y = 0.5 (marked by 194 195 horizontal dashed lines in Fig. 2). The vestibular and visual psychometric shifts were: 3.40° and -1.01°, respectively in Figure 2A, and -3.68° and 1.00°, respectively, in 196 Figure 2B. Thus, in both cases (Fig. 2A, B), both the vestibular and the visual cues 197 198 shifted in the direction required to reduce the cue conflict (i.e. in opposite directions). Also, the vestibular shifts were larger (vs. visual). 199

These findings were consistent across sessions, as shown by the distributions of the vestibular and visual PSE shifts (solid bars for Δ^+ and striped bars for Δ^-) in **Figure 202 2C**. The vestibular PSEs were shifted significantly to the right for the Δ^+ condition (mean ± SE = 1.12° ± 0.12°; *p* = 2.54 × 10⁻¹⁵, paired t-test). And shifted significantly to the left for the Δ^- condition (mean ± SE = -1.76° ± 0.14°; *p* = 1.77 × 10⁻²⁹, paired t-test). The visual PSEs were shifted significantly to the left for the Δ^+ condition (mean ± SE =

 $-0.73^{\circ} \pm 0.11^{\circ}$; $p = 1.60 \times 10^{-10}$, paired t-test). And shifted significantly to the right for

207 the Δ^- condition (mean ± SE = 1.10° ± 0.10°; $p = 2.94 \times 10^{-21}$, paired t-test). Thus,

208 consistent with our previous study, both cues shifted (in opposite directions) to reduce

the cue conflict.

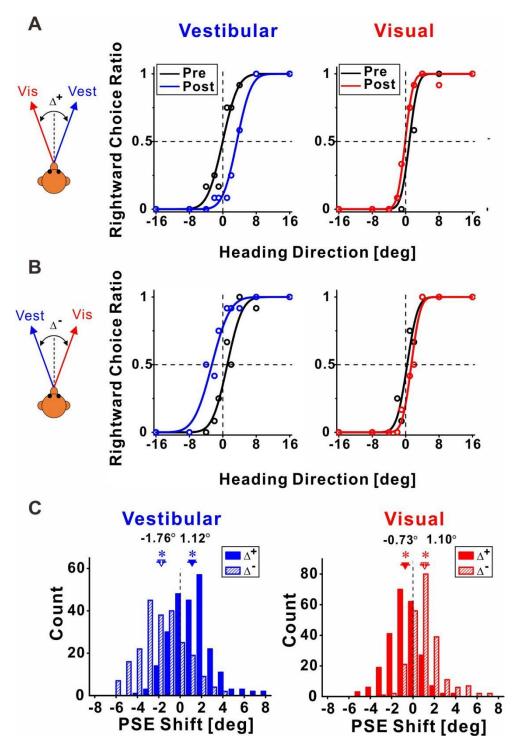


Figure 2. Multisensory recalibration behavior. (A, B) Example psychometric plots represent 210 211 the ratio of the monkeys' rightward choices, as a function of stimulus heading direction. Data 212 (circles) were fitted with cumulative Gaussian functions (solid lines). Pre-recalibration 213 performance is presented for vestibular and visual cues (in the left and right columns, 214 respectively) by the black curves. After recalibration, vestibular and visual cues were shifted 215 (blue and red curves, respectively). Behavior for positive and negative delta (Δ + and Δ -, 216 respectively) are presented in A and B, respectively. (C) Blue and red histograms represent the 217 vestibular and visual PSE shift distributions, respectively. Solid and slash-textured histograms 218 indicate positive and negative Δ , respectively. Inverted triangles ($\mathbf{\nabla}$) and error bars represent mean SEM shifts. The numbers above triangles are the mean PSE shift. Asterisk symbols 219 220 indicate significant shifts (p < 0.05). In vestibular cue, p = 2.54×10^{-15} for Δ + condition, and p = 221 1.77 × 10⁻²⁹ for \triangle - condition, respectively. In visual cue, p = 1.60 × 10⁻¹⁰, n = 241 sessions for 222 \triangle + condition, and p = 2.94 × 10⁻²¹, n = 227 sessions for \triangle - condition, respectively, paired t-test.

223 Comparing the vestibular vs. visual shift magnitudes (using absolute values, 224 pooled across Δ^+ and Δ^- conditions) demonstrated significantly larger vestibular vs. 225 visual shifts (1.43° ± 0.09 and 0.91° ± 0.07°, respectively; $p = 3.40 \times 10^{-5}$, paired t-test). This result is also consistent with our previous study. Thus, the behavioral results from 226 227 the original study (performed in the Angelaki laboratory) were replicated in these experiments (in the Chen laboratory) using a new set of monkeys, with simultaneous 228 229 neuronal recording. In the following sections, we present how neuronal responses in areas MSTd, PIVC, and VIP (Fig. 3, 4, and 5, respectively) recalibrated in comparison 230

to the behavioral shifts.

232 Both vestibular and visual neuronal tuning in MSTd recalibrate with perceptual

233 **shifts**

234 Responses of an example neuron recorded from MSTd during unsupervised recalibration are presented in Figure 3A. Behaviorally, the vestibular PSE shifted 235 rightward and the visual PSE shifted leftward (upper panel, Fig. 3A). Shifts in 236 237 neuronal tuning could be subtle, therefore we used neurometrics to expose and 238 quantify the neuronal shifts. Specifically, we calculated neurometric responses for the heading stimuli using the neuron's firing rates and ROC analysis, and fit these with a 239 cumulative Gaussian function (for method details, see Gu et al., 2007). PSEs were 240 241 then extracted, similar to the psychometric curves. Neurometric curves for this example neuron are presented in the third row of Figure 3A. For this MSTd neuron, 242 the vestibular neurometric shifted to the right, while the visual neurometric shifted to 243 244 the left. Thus, the shifts in vestibular and visual tuning were consistent with the behavioral shifts. 245

Across the population (**Fig. 3B**) MSTd neuronal shifts were significantly correlated with the behavioral shifts, both for vestibular and visual cues (r = 0.44, p =0.038, N = 23, and r = 0.34, $p = 5.2 \times 10^{-3}$, N = 65, respectively; Pearson correlations). Therefore, in area MSTd neuronal recalibration occurs in accordance with perceptual recalibration, both for vestibular and visual cues.

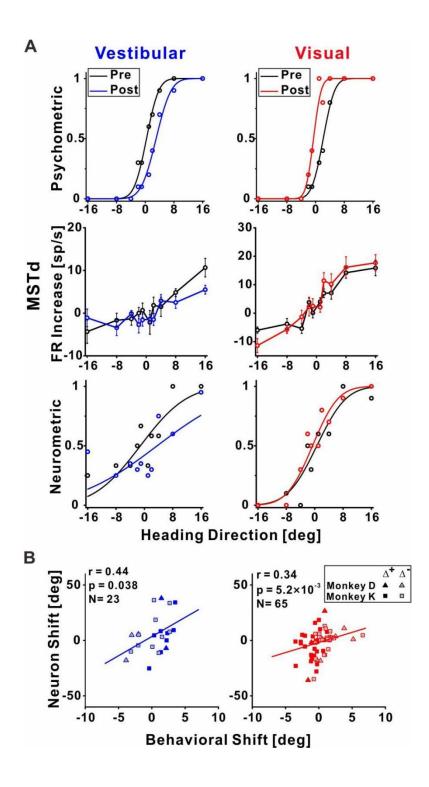


Figure 3. MSTd neuronal recalibration. (A) An example recalibration session (Δ^+) with simultaneous recording from MSTd. The top row depicts the behavioral responses, pre-, and post-recalibration. The vestibular psychometric curve shifted 3.01° (to the right) and the visual curve shifted -2.71° (to the left). Neuronal responses (second row) as a function of heading

255	(pre- and post-recalibration). Circles and error bars represent average firing rates (FRs,
256	baseline subtracted) \pm SEM. The third row shows corresponding neurometric functions with
257	best-fitting cumulative Gaussian functions. The vestibular neuronal shift was 4.73° (to the right)
258	and the visual neuronal shift was -1.22 $^\circ$ (to the left). (B) Correlations between neuronal PSE
259	shifts and behavioral PSE shifts for the vestibular and visual cues (left and right, respectively).
260	Only cells with significant tuning ($p < 0.05$, Pearson correlation between firing rate and heading)
261	in either pre- or post-recalibration blocks were included here. Solid symbols represent Δ + and
262	open symbols represent Δ The solid lines illustrate the regression lines of the data. p = 0.038,
263	n = 23 neurons for vestibular cue, p = 5.2 × 10 ⁻¹⁵ , n = 65 neurons for visual cue, Pearson
264	correlation.

265 Vestibular neuronal tuning in PIVC recalibrates with perceptual shifts

In PIVC, a similar result was observed for vestibular tuning. The example vestibular neurometric curve (**Fig. 4A**, bottom left) shifted to the right, which was consistent with the behavioral shift (**Fig. 4A**, top left). Across the population of PIVC neurons, a significant positive correlation was seen between the neuronal and behavioral shifts for the vestibular cue (r = 0.61, $p = 1.26 \times 10^{-5}$, N = 44, Pearson correlation; **Fig. 4B**, left panel).

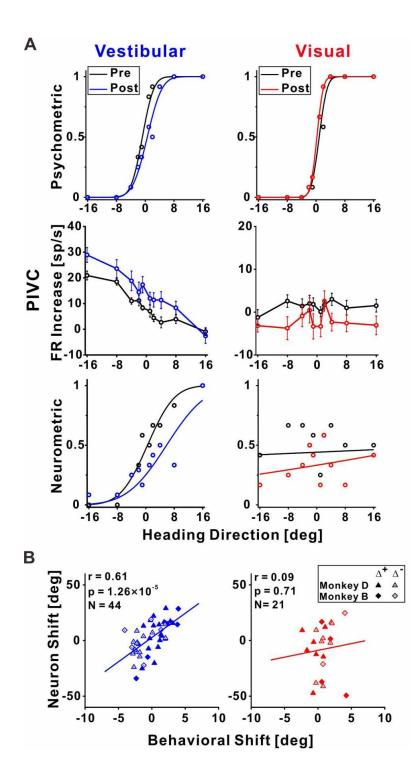


Figure 4. PIVC neuronal recalibration. (A) An example recalibration session (Δ^+) with simultaneous recording from PIVC (conventions are the same as **Figure 3**). The vestibular and visual psychometric curves shifted 1.37 and -0.51 (to the right and left, respectively). The vestibular neurometric curve shifted 5.37° (to the right). (B) Correlations between neuronal

PSE shifts and behavioral PSE shifts for the vestibular and visual cues. $p = 1.26 \times 10^{-5}$, n = 44

277 neurons for vestibular cue, p = 0.71, n = 21 neurons for visual cue, Pearson correlation.

278	In terms of visual tuning, this example neuron (and the other PIVC neurons) did
279	not demonstrate robust visual responses (Fig. 4A, middle right). However, we still
280	applied the same neurometric analysis for visual responses, using PIVC neurons that
281	passed the significance criterion for visual tuning (albeit weak). No significant
282	correlation was seen between the neuronal and behavioral shifts for the visual cue
283	(<i>r</i> =0.09, <i>p</i> =0.71, N=21, Pearson correlation). Thus, in PIVC, the primary cortical
284	region involved in vestibular function, neuronal tuning shifts were consistent with
285	perceptual shifts, for the vestibular cue.

Vestibular and visual neuronal tuning in VIP both follow vestibular perceptual shifts

288 Figure 5A presents an example neuron from VIP. For the vestibular cue, the neuronal tuning curve shifted rightward (Fig. 5A, bottom left), in accordance with the 289 290 vestibular behavioral shift (Fig. 5A, top left). Surprisingly, the visual neurometric curve also shifted rightward (Fig. 5A, bottom right). This was unexpected because the visual 291 psychometric curve shifted leftward (Fig. 5A, top right). Thus, while the vestibular and 292 visual behavioral psychometric curves shifted in opposite directions (toward each 293 other) the vestibular and visual neurometric curves shifted together, in accordance 294 with the vestibular (not visual) behavioral shift. 295

296	Across the population of VIP neurons, the vestibular neurometric shifts were
297	significantly positively correlated with the vestibular behavioral shifts ($r = 0.69$, $p =$
298	1.68× 10 ⁻⁸ , N = 53, Pearson correlation; Fig. 5B , left). Like in MSTd and PIVC, the
299	positive correlation coefficient indicates that neuronal and behavioral curves shifted in
300	the same direction for the vestibular cue. By contrast, the visual neurometrics in VIP
301	shifted in the opposite direction to the visual behavioral shifts. At the population level
302	neuronal and behavioral shifts for the visual cue were negatively correlated ($r = -0.45$,
303	$p = 1.75 \times 10^{-4}$, Pearson correlation, N = 66; Fig. 5B , right). This exposes a striking
304	mismatch between visual neuronal responses in VIP and visual perceptual function. It
305	also exposes a striking mismatch between visual tuning in MSTd (which shifted in the
306	same direction as visual perception) vs. VIP (which shifted contrary to visual
307	perception).

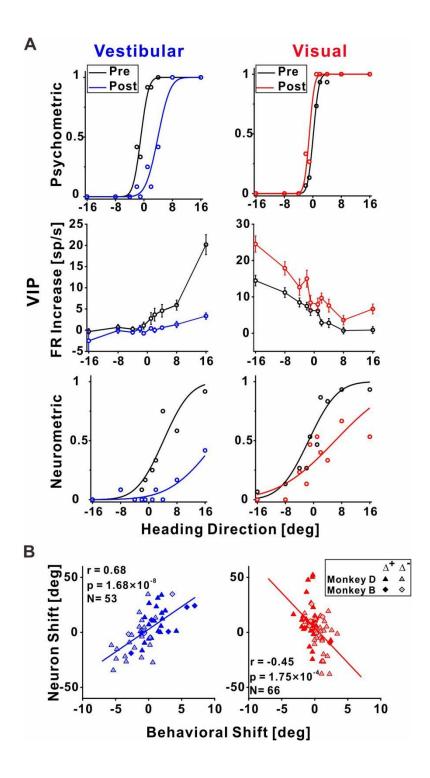


Figure 5. VIP neuronal recalibration. (A) An example recalibration session (Δ^+) with simultaneous recording from VIP (conventions are the same as **Figure 3**). The vestibular and visual psychometric curves shifted 4.81° and -1.13 (to the right and left, respectively). The vestibular and visual neurometric curves shifted 15.18° and 7.58°, respectively (both to the

right). **(B)** Correlations between neuronal PSE shifts and behavioral PSE shifts for the vestibular and visual cues. $p = 1.68 \times 10^{-8}$, n = 53 neurons for vestibular cue, $p = -0.45 \times 10^{-4}$, n = 66 neurons for visual cue, Pearson correlation.

315	To test whether this mismatch between behavior and tuning for visual cues in VIP
316	relates to specific subtypes of neurons, we sorted the VIP data into three subsets:
317	neurons with multisensory (vestibular and visual) responses, and two groups with
318	unisensory (only vestibular or only visual) responses (Supplemental Fig. 1A). Similar
319	results were seen for both multisensory and unisensory neurons (the
320	neuronal-behavioral correlations remained consistently positive and negative for
321	vestibular and visual cues, respectively). We further sorted the multisensory neurons
322	into those with congruent and opposite vestibular and visual heading preferences
323	(Chen et al., 2011b; Gu et al., 2006) with no observable differences (Supplemental
324	Fig. 1B). Therefore, the contrary shifts of visual tuning in VIP seem to reflect a general
325	feature of this cortical area, rather than an anomaly of a subgroup of neurons.

326 **Temporal evolution of the correlation between neuronal and behavioral shifts**

The tuning curves in **Figures 3–5** were calculated using mean firing rates averaged across the stimulus duration. But the self-motion stimuli generated by the platform and optic flow followed a specific dynamical time-course, specifically, a Gaussian velocity profile and correspondingly a biphasic acceleration profile (see bottom row, **Fig. 6**). Therefore, we further examined whether the correlations between

behavioral recalibration and shifts in neuronal tuning depend on the time point withinthe stimulus interval.

334 For MSTd neurons, positive correlations (between behavioral and neuronal shifts) were seen for both vestibular and visual cues during the stimulus (Fig. 6A). The 335 336 profile of correlations followed the velocity profile closely. Namely correlations increased toward the middle of the stimulus, and dropped off rapidly at the end of the 337 stimulus. Significant correlations (blue and red asterisk markers for vestibular and 338 visual cues, respectively) were only seen around the middle of the stimulus. Thus 339 340 neural recalibration in MSTd (is accordance with behavioral recalibration) is seen in velocity responses, which are transient (evident only during the stimulus). 341

For PIVC neurons, positive correlations (between behavioral and neuronal shifts) were seen only for vestibular cues, during the stimulus (**Fig. 6B**). Like MSTd, the correlations seemed to follow the velocity profile of the stimulus, with significant values around the middle of the stimulus (upper panel in **Fig. 6B**). Correlations in the visual condition were very weak and not significant (middle panel in **Fig. 6B**).

A very different profile was seen in VIP. Firstly, as described above, correlations between neuronal and behavioral recalibration were positive for the vestibular cue (upper panel in **Fig. 6C**) and negative for the visual cue (middle panel in **Fig. 6C**). Furthermore, the time-course of these correlations was different in VIP: they increased in size gradually (positively for vestibular and negatively for visual), reaching a maximum around the middle of the stimulus epoch (the velocity peak), but then remained elevated beyond the end of the stimulus (**Fig. 6C**). This pattern is in

line with sustained neuronal activity described previously for VIP. However, here this sustained activity correlated with subsequent vestibular choices, and was contrary to visual choices. Thus the sustained activity is not generically choice related, but rather in accordance with recalibrated vestibular function.

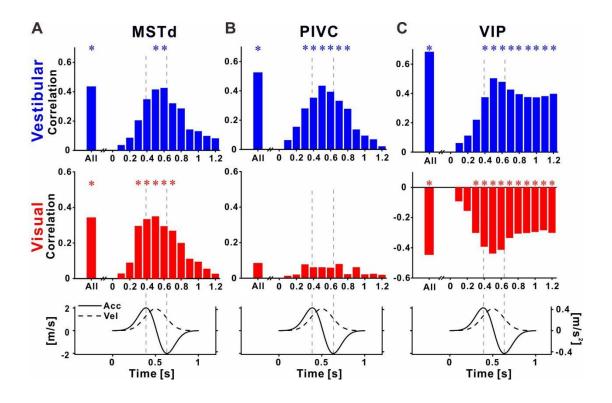


Figure 6. Recalibration of neuronal responses within the stimulus time-course. Correlations between neuronal and behavioral PSE shifts, using the neuronal activity at specific time-points during the stimulus, for (A) MSTd, (B) PIVC, and (C) VIP. Top row: vestibular (blue histograms), second row: visual (red histograms), third row: stimulus (acceleration and velocity) time-course. Vertical dashed lines mark the acceleration peaks, and '*' symbols mark significant correlations. Pearson correlation.

364 VIP choice signals are reduced during cross-sensory recalibration

Previous studies have found that neuronal responses in VIP are strongly 365 366 influenced (perhaps even dominated) by choice signals (Chen et al., 2021; Zaidel et al., 2017). Hence our finding here, that neuronal tuning recalibrated contrary to 367 368 behavioral shifts for the visual cue, was surprising and counterintuitive. We therefore wondered what happened to the strong choice signals for which VIP is renowned, 369 which would predict that neuronal tuning (also for visual cues) would shift with 370 behavior. To visualize choice tuning for an example VIP neuron, we plotted 371 372 'choice-conditioned' tuning curves, namely, neuronal responses as a function of heading, separately for rightward and leftward choices, (Fig. 7). In the 373 pre-recalibration block vestibular responses were strongly choice related (Fig. 7A, left 374 375 plot) - neuronal responses to the same heading stimulus were larger when followed by rightward (\blacktriangleright , dark blue) vs. leftward (\triangleleft , cyan) choices (the dark blue line lies 376 above the cyan line). After recalibration, the choice effect decreased (Fig. 7A, right 377 378 plot) – the choice-conditioned tuning curves were no longer separate. Similarly, visual responses were strongly choice-related pre-recalibration, and this decreased 379 380 post-recalibration (Fig. 7B). To quantify the choice (and sensory) components of neuronal activity, and to observe how these changed after recalibration, we applied a 381 partial correlation analysis (Zaidel et al., 2017). For this example neuron, the partial 382 choice correlation values (R_c, presented on the plots) were reduced both for vestibular 383 384 and visual cues.

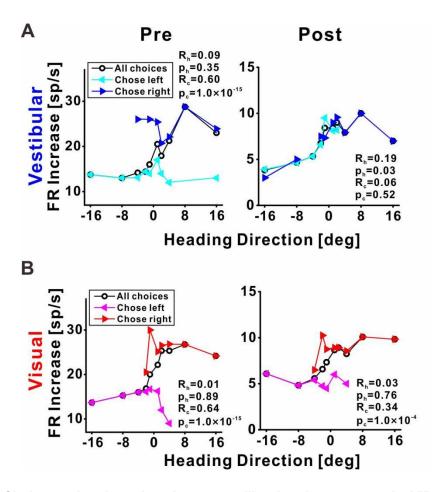


Figure 7. Choice tuning is reduced post-recalibration in an example VIP neuron. 385 386 Neuronal responses for example VIP neuron to (A) vestibular and (B) visual heading stimuli, pre- and post-recalibration (left and right columns, respectively). Blue and cyan curves depict 387 388 choice-conditioned tuning curves (neuronal responses followed by rightward and leftward 389 choices, respectively) for the vestibular cue. Red and magenta curves depict 390 choice-conditioned tuning curves for the visual cue. Black curves (in the corresponding plots) 391 represent all responses (not sorted by choice). Partial heading (R_h) and partial choice (R_c) 392 correlations (with corresponding p-values) are presented on the plots.

Across our sample of VIP neurons, the choice partial correlations in the post-recalibration block were significantly reduced compared to the pre-recalibration

block, for both vestibular ($p = 3.73 \times 10^{-3}$, paired *t*-test) and visual ($p = 4.39 \times 10^{-3}$, 395 paired *t*-test; Fig. 8B) cues. However, the heading partial correlations (R_h) did not 396 differ significantly from pre- to post-recalibration, neither for vestibular (p = 0.36, 397 paired *t*-test) nor visual (p = 0.47, paired *t*-test; **Fig. 8A**) cues. For these statistical 398 comparisons and for plotting we used the squared partial correlations (which quantify 399 the amount of unique variance explained by choice or heading). We did not observe 400 any changes in partial correlations in areas PIVC and MSTd (Supplemental Fig. 2). 401 Lastly, there was no evidence for differences between post- and pre-recalibration 402 403 baseline firing rates in any of the three areas (Supplemental Fig. 3; Bayes Factors (BF₁₀) presented on the corresponding subplots). Thus, shifts in neuronal tuning are 404 not explained by changes in baseline activity. 405

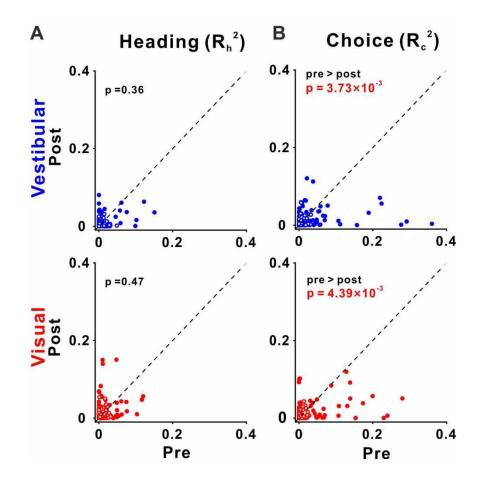


Figure 8. Choice tuning is reduced in VIP post-recalibration. (A) Heading and (B) choice partial correlation coefficients (squared) are depicted post- vs. pre-recalibration. Blue and red dots (top and bottom row) represent vestibular and visual cues, respectively. P-values for the hypothesis of greater pre- vs. post-recalibration values are presented on the corresponding plots. Paired t-test.

411 **Discussion**

412 This study provides the first demonstration of unsupervised (cross-sensory) 413 neuronal recalibration, in conjunction with behavioral recalibration, in single sessions. Single-neurons from MSTd, PIVC, and VIP revealed clear but different patterns of 414 415 recalibration. In MSTd, neuronal responses to vestibular and visual cues recalibrated -416 each according to their respective cues' perceptual shifts. In PIVC, vestibular tuning similarly recalibrated together with the corresponding vestibular perceptual shifts (the 417 418 PIVC cells were not robustly tuned to visual stimuli). However, recalibration in VIP was 419 notably different: both vestibular and visual neuronal tuning recalibrated in the direction of the vestibular perceptual shifts. Thus, visual neuronal tuning shifted, 420 421 surprisingly, contrary to visual perceptual shifts. These results indicate that neuronal 422 recalibration differs profoundly across multisensory cortical areas.

423 Neural correlates of vestibular-visual recalibration

To investigate the neuronal bases of unsupervised cross-sensory recalibration, we first replicated the behavioral results from our previous study (Zaidel *et al.*, 2011). Indeed, in the presence of a systematic vestibular-visual heading offset (with no external feedback) vestibular and visual cues both recalibrated in the direction required to reduce the cue conflict. And, as before, the vestibular shifts were larger compared to the visual shifts. Thus we confirmed robust recalibration of vestibular and visual cues, resulting from a systematic discrepancy between the cues' headings in an unsupervised context (i.e., without external feedback).

Since there was no external feedback regarding which cue was (in)accurate, 432 433 unsupervised recalibration is driven by the cue conflict, presumably through an 434 internal mechanism to maintain consistency between vestibular and visual perceptual estimates (Zaidel et al., 2011). Accordingly, we expected to see neuronal correlates of 435 perceptual recalibration in early multisensory areas related to self-motion perception, 436 437 specifically: MSTd, which primarily responds to visual (but also vestibular) self-motion stimuli, and PIVC, which primarily responds to vestibular stimuli. We further expected 438 that the neuronal recalibration in MSTd and PIVC would propagate to higher-level 439 440 multisensory area VIP.

In MSTd, we indeed found that both visual and vestibular neuronal signals recalibrated, each in accordance with their corresponding cue's behavioral shifts. Hence, recalibration of visual self-motion responses was observed at least at the level of MSTd, which is the primary area in the visual hierarchy to respond to large field optic flow stimuli (Britten, 2008; Britten and van Wezel, 1998; 2002; Duffy and Wurtz, 1995; Gu *et al.*, 2008; Gu *et al.*, 2012; Gu *et al.*, 2006; Wurtz and Duffy, 1992). We cannot ascertain whether recalibration to visual responses occurred already in earlier

448 visual regions, such as the middle temporal visual area (MT), which projects to MSTd (Maunsell and van Essen, 1983; Ungerleider and Desimone, 1986), or whether it 449 450 occurred only at the level of MSTd. Because MSTd is mainly a visual area, the 451 recalibration of vestibular signals observed in MSTd likely occurred in upstream 452 vestibular areas that project to MSTd, such as PIVC (Chen et al., 2010; 2011a). Indeed, robust vestibular recalibration (that was in line with the vestibular behavioral 453 shifts) was observed in PIVC. Hence, neuronal correlates of perceptual recalibration 454 455 were observed in relatively early multisensory areas related to self-motion perception 456 (MSTd and PIVC).

457 Individualized recalibration of vestibular and visual cues

Results from this experiment exposed individualized (sensory-specific) neuronal recalibration (in MSTd and PIVC). Namely, visual and vestibular tuning curves shifted differently (in opposite directions). This provides neuronal evidence against 'visual dominance', even for short-term recalibration (in single sessions). Rather, it supports the idea that cross-sensory neuronal recalibration occurs also for visual (and not only for non-visual) cues.

Furthermore, sensory-specific recalibration of visual and vestibular tuning implies that the brain has mechanisms to separately monitor and recalibrate individual cues. Cue-specific shifts in neuronal tuning were not seen during supervised recalibration, because the cues largely shift together, in response to external feedback (Zaidel *et al.*, 2021). Even though in the supervised condition both unsupervised and supervised

469 shifts are in operation (superimposed, Zaidel et al. 2013), the supervised (yoked) component is large and dominates, thereby obscuring the individualized 470 471 (unsupervised) shifts. Here, without external feedback, we were able to detect individualized shifts of the different cues, not previously observed. This exposes 472 473 neuronal mechanisms to maintain internal consistency between vestibular and visual cues. This dynamic cross-sensory plasticity may underlie our adept ability to adapt to 474 sensory conflict commonly experienced in many modes of transport (on land, at sea, 475 476 or in flight).

477 Contrary recalibration in higher-level area VIP

VIP is a higher-level multisensory area (Bremmer et al., 2002; Colby et al., 1993; 478 479 Duhamel et al., 1998; Schlack et al., 2002; Schlack et al., 2005; Schroeder and Foxe, 2002) with clear vestibular and visual heading selectivity (Chen et al., 2011a; b). But 480 the nature of these self-motion signals in VIP is not fully understood. In contrast to our 481 482 prediction that recalibrated signals in MSTd and PIVC would simply propagate to VIP, we found a different and unexpected pattern of recalibration in VIP. While vestibular 483 484 tuning recalibrated in line with vestibular perceptual shifts (like MSTd and PIVC), visual tuning recalibrated opposite in direction to the visual perceptual shifts (and 485 opposite in direction to MSTd visual recalibration). These findings indicate that visual 486 responses in VIP do not reflect a simple feed-forward projection from MSTd. They 487 also suggest that visual responses in VIP are not decoded for heading perception 488 (otherwise these would not recalibrate in opposite directions). This interpretation is in 489

line with findings that inactivation (Chen *et al.*, 2016) and microstimulation (Yu and Gu,
2018) in VIP do not affect perceptual decisions. Thus, the convergence of visual and
vestibular signals in VIP likely serves purposes other than cue integration.

The results here also shed new light on the neuronal shifts observed in VIP during supervised recalibration (Zaidel *et al.*, 2017). There, because behavioral responses shifted in the same direction for both cues, it was reasonable to interpret visual and vestibular tuning shifts in accordance with their corresponding cue shifts. However, the results here indicate that yoking of visual and vestibular tuning is observed in VIP irrespective of the paradigm (supervised or unsupervised). Hence yoked recalibration is a feature of VIP, not just supervised recalibration.

We previously found strong choice-related activity in VIP neurons (Zaidel et al., 500 501 2017). Accordingly, we considered that shifts in VIP neuronal tuning (during supervised calibration) might simply reflect the altered choices (Zaidel et al., 2021). 502 However, choice-related activity cannot explain the results here, because the 503 predicted shifts in neuronal tuning would be in the same direction as the altered 504 choices (behavioral shifts), whereas we found contrary visual recalibration. To 505 506 understand contrary shifts that could arise despite strong choice-related activity in VIP, we investigated choice tuning in VIP neurons. We found that choice tuning in VIP 507 decreased during unsupervised calibration. This allowed contrary shifts to be exposed. 508 It also opens up new and fascinating questions regarding the purpose of contrary 509 510 visual recalibration in VIP.

511 Because visual and vestibular tuning in VIP both shifted in the same direction (in

512 accordance with vestibular behavioral shifts) we speculate that VIP recalibration reflects a global shift in the reference frame, following vestibular recalibration. This 513 514 notion is consistent with suggestions that VIP encodes self-motion in head or body-centered coordinates (Chen et al., 2013b; 2018; Zhang et al., 2004). Accordingly, 515 516 visual responses in VIP are transformed into a vestibular-recalibrated space. This leads to a remarkable dissociation between visual tuning in VIP and MSTd. 517 Interestingly, visual self-motion perception follows the MSTd (not VIP) recalibration. 518 This is in line with a causal connection between MSTd and visual heading 519 520 discrimination (Britten and van Wezel, 1998; Gu et al., 2012). What purpose might such visual signals in VIP serve? One possible idea is that they might reflect an 521 expectation signal – e.g., predicted vestibular or somatosensory sensation, based on 522 523 the current visual signal. During combined stimuli (in the recalibration and post-calibration blocks), the visual signal always appeared together with the vestibular 524 sensory input. Thus, if visual responses in VIP reflect vestibular expectations, then 525 526 these would shift together with vestibular (rather than visual) recalibration.

527 Limitations and future directions

528 Our results revealed correlations between neuronal recalibration and 529 cross-sensory behavioral recalibration. However, they do not implicate any causal 530 connections. Therefore, whether these cortical areas are actively involved in 531 cross-sensory recalibration, vs. simply reflecting the recalibrated signals, requires 532 further research. To probe more directly for causal links, direct manipulation of

533 neuronal activity might be required. For example, would reversible inactivation or microstimulation (of one or a combination of these multisensory areas) eliminate (or 534 535 bias) unsupervised recalibration? In addition, future studies are needed to examine 536 how the systematic error between vestibular and visual heading signals is detected. 537 This likely involves additional brain areas, for example, the cerebellum, implicated in internal-model-based error monitoring (Markov et al., 2021; Rondi-Reig et al., 2014), 538 and/or the Anterior Cingulate Cortex (ACC), implicated in conflict monitoring (Bush et 539 540 al., 2000; Holroyd and Coles, 2002). Thus, a wide-ranging effort to record and 541 manipulate neural activity across a variety of brain regions will be necessary to tease apart the circuitry underlying this complex and important function. 542

543 The most surprising and intriguing finding in this study was the contrary 544 recalibration of visual tuning in VIP. We propose that yoked recalibration of visual and vestibular responses in VIP (despite differential behavioral recalibration) might reflect 545 a global shift in vestibular space. Accordingly, we suggest that visual responses in VIP 546 547 might reflect an expectation signal (in vestibular space), e.g., a simulation of the expected corresponding vestibular response (or integrated position, because VIP 548 549 responses are sustained beyond the stimulus period). However, this idea is speculative, and the data from this study cannot address this question. Hence, further 550 551 research is needed to investigate this idea, for example, by conditioning expectations for vestibular motion on other (non-motion) cues, and investigating whether these 552 553 cues can induce simulated vestibular responses. If this hypothesis turns out to be true, it could greatly contribute to our understanding regarding the functions of the parietal 554

555 cortex, and the brain mechanisms of perceptual inference.

556 Concluding remarks

This study exposed individualized (sensory-specific) recalibration of neuronal signals, resulting from a cross-sensory (visual-vestibular) cue conflict. It further revealed profound differences in neuronal recalibration across multisensory cortical areas MSTd, PIVC and VIP. The results therefore provide novel insights into adult multisensory plasticity, and deepen our understanding regarding the different functions of these multisensory cortical areas.

563 Methods

564 Subjects and surgery.

565 Three male rhesus monkeys (Macaca mulatta, monkeys D, B, and K) weighing 566 8–10 kg participated in the experiment. Monkeys were first trained to sit in a custom 567 primate chair and gradually exposed to the laboratory environment. Then they chronically implanted a head-restraint cap and a sclera coil for measuring eye 568 movement. After full recovery, monkeys were trained to perform experimental tasks. 569 All animal surgeries and experimental procedures were approved by the Institutional 570 Animal Care and Use Committee at East China Normal University (IACUC protocol 571 number: Mo20200101). 572

573 Equipment setup and motion stimuli

During the experiments, monkeys were head-fixed and seated in a primate chair which was secured to a six-degree of freedom motion platform (Moog, East Aurora, NY, USA; MB-E-6DOF/12/1000Kg). The chair was also inside the magnetic field coil frame (Crist Instrument Co., Inc., Hagerstown, MD, USA) mounted on the platform for measuring eye movement with the sclera coil technique (for details, see Zhao et al., 2021).

580 Vestibular stimuli were delivered by the motion platform (for details, see Gu et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2021). Visual stimuli were presented on a large 581 computer screen (Philips BDL4225E, Royal Philips, Amsterdam, Netherlands), 582 583 attached to the field coil frame. The display (62.5 cm \times 51.5 cm) was viewed from a distance of 43 cm, thus subtending a visual angle of $72^{\circ} \times 62^{\circ}$. The sides of the coil 584 frame were covered with a black enclosure, so the monkey could only see the visual 585 586 stimuli on the screen (Gu et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2021). The display had a pixel resolution of 1920 x 1080 and was updated at 60 Hz. Visual stimuli were programmed 587 588 in OpenGL to simulate self-motion through a 3D cloud of "stars" that occupied a virtual cube space 80 cm wide, 80 cm tall, and 80 cm deep centered on the central point on 589 the screen. The random-dot density was 0.01/cm³ (each "star" comprised a triangle 590 with base by height: 0.15 cm \times 0.15 cm). Monkeys wore custom stereo glasses made 591 from Wratten filters (red #29 and green #61; Barrington, NJ, USA), such that the optic 592 flow stimuli could be rendered in three dimensions as red-green anaglyphs. 593

594 The self-motion stimulus was either vestibular-only, visual-only, or combined (visual and vestibular stimuli). In the vestibular-only condition, there was no optical 595 596 flow on the screen and the monkey was translated by the motion platform. In the visual-only condition, the motion platform remained stationary while the optic flow was 597 598 presented on the screen. For the combined condition, the monkey experienced both translation motion and optic flow simultaneously. Each stimulus motion followed a 599 Gaussian profile with a duration of 1 s, and an amplitude of 13 cm (bottom row, Fig. 6). 600 The peak velocity was 0.41 m/s, and the peak acceleration was 2.0 m/s². 601

602 Task and recalibration protocol

The monkeys were trained to report their direction of translation with a 603 604 two-alternative forced-choice (2AFC) heading discrimination task (for details, see Gu et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2013). In each trial, the monkey experienced a primarily 605 forward motion with a small leftward or rightward component. During stimulation, the 606 animal was required to maintain fixation on a central point within a 3° × 3° window. At 607 the end of the trial (after a 300ms delay period beyond the end of the stimulus), the 608 609 monkeys needed to make a saccade to one of two choice targets (located 5° to the left and right of the central fixation point) to report their perceived motion as leftward or 610 611 rightward relative to straight ahead. The saccade endpoint had to remain within 2.5° of the target for at least 150 ms to be considered a valid choice. Correct responses were 612 613 rewarded with a drop of liquid.

To elicit recalibration, we used a similar unsupervised cue-conflict recalibration

615 protocol previously tested behaviorally in humans and monkeys (Zaidel *et al.*, 2011).

616 Each experimental session consisted of three consecutive blocks, as described here617 below.

Pre-recalibration block. This block was used to deduce the baseline 618 619 performance (psychometric curve) of each modality for the monkeys, thus only a single cue (vestibular-only or visual-only) stimulus was presented (Fig. 1A). Across 620 trials, the heading angle was varied in small steps around straight ahead. Ten 621 logarithmically spaced heading angles were tested for each monkey $(\pm 16^\circ, \pm 8^\circ, \pm 4^\circ)$. 622 623 $\pm 2^{\circ}$, and $\pm 1^{\circ}$). To get monkeys accustomed to not getting a reward for all the trials, we rewarded the monkeys with a 95% probability for correct choices and didn't reward 624 them for incorrect choices. 625

626 Recalibration block. Only combined vestibular-visual cues were presented in this block (**Fig. 1B**). There was a discrepancy (Δ) between the vestibular and visual 627 cues, which was introduced gradually from $\pm 2^{\circ}$ to $\pm 10^{\circ}$ with steps of 2°, and then 628 629 held at $\pm 10^{\circ}$ for the rest of the block. This gradual introduction was designed to prevent monkeys from realizing the discrepancy. The sign of Δ represents the 630 631 orientation of discrepancy: positive Δ (i.e. Δ^+) indicates vestibular cue to the right and visual cue to the left, and vice versa for negative Δ (i.e. Δ). Every session used only 632 one sign, positive or negative. The combined cue heading was defined as the 633 midpoint between the vestibular and visual headings, such that each (vestibular/visual) 634 heading was offset to the right and left (or left and right) in relation to the combined 635 heading. The same ten heading angles as in the pre-recalibration block were used. 636

637 Unlike the pre-recalibration block, monkeys only needed to maintain fixation on the 638 central point during the stimulus presentation and didn't need to make choices at the 639 end of trials. They were rewarded for all the trials for which they maintained fixation. 640 7~10 repetitions were run for each Δ increment, and an additional 10~16 repetitions 641 were run for maximum Δ (±10°).

Post-recalibration block. During this block, performance of the individual 642 (visual/vestibular) modalities was once again tested using single modality trials (as in 643 644 the pre-recalibration block). Responses to these trials were used to measure 645 recalibration. The single cue trials were interleaved with combined-cue trials (with a 10° discrepancy, like the end of the recalibration block, **Fig. 1C**). The combined cue 646 trials were interleaved to maintain the recalibration while it was measured (for details, 647 648 see Zaidel et al., 2011). To avoid perturbing the recalibrated behavior, we adjusted the reward probability for single-cue trials as follows: if the single cue heading was of 649 650 relatively large magnitude, such that, if it were part of a combined cue trial also the 651 other cue would lie to the same side (right or left), monkeys were rewarded as in the 652 pre-recalibration block (95% probability reward for correct choices; no reward for 653 incorrect choices). If, however, the heading for other modality would have been to the opposite side, the monkeys were rewarded stochastically (70% reward probability, 654 655 regardless of their choices).

656 Electrophysiological recordings

657 We recorded extracellular activity from isolated single neurons in areas MSTd,

658 PIVC, and VIP using tungsten microelectrodes (Frederick Haer Company, Bowdoin, ME, USA; tip diameter ~3 μ m; impedance, 1~2 M Ω at 1 kHz). The microelectrode was 659 660 advanced into the cortex through a transdural guide tube, using a hydraulic microdrive (Frederick Haer Company). Raw neural signals were amplified, band-pass filtered 661 (400–5000 Hz), and digitized at 25 kHz using the AlphaOmega system (AlphaOmega 662 Instruments, Nazareth Illit, Israel). The spike times sorted online along with all 663 behavioral events were collected with 1 ms resolution using the Tempo system for 664 665 offline analysis. If the online sorting was not adequate, offline spike sorting was 666 performed.

The target areas (VIP, PIVC, and MSTd) were identified based on the patterns of gray and white matter transitions, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans, stereotaxic coordinates, and physiological response properties as described previously (MSTd: Gu et al., 2006; PIVC: Chen et al., 2010; VIP: Chen et al., 2011).

671 Data analysis

Data analysis was performed with custom scripts in Matlab R2016a (The MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA). Psychometric function plots were constructed by plotting the proportion of "rightward" choices as a function of heading angle and then fitted with a cumulative Gaussian distribution function using the *psignifit* toolbox for MATLAB (version 2.5.6). For each experimental session, separate psychometric functions were constructed for visual and vestibular conditions before and after recalibration. The psychophysical threshold and point of subjective equality (PSE) were defined as the SD (σ) and mean (μ), respectively, deduced from the best-fitting function. The PSE represents the heading angle of equal right/left choice proportion, i.e., perceived straight ahead, also known as the bias. The vestibular/visual recalibration effect was calculated for each session by subtracting the PSE value of the pre-recalibration from that of the post-recalibration PSE.

Neuronal heading tuning curves were constructed (pre/post recalibration block 684 and vestibular/visual cue) by computing the average FR (in units of spikes/s, the 685 baseline FRs subtracted) for each heading over the stimulus presentation (t=0-1s). A 686 687 neuron was considered tuned to vestibular or visual cue if the linear regression of FR vs. heading (over the narrow range -16° to 16°) had a significant slope (p < 0.05, 688 Pearson's correlation). When calculating the group effects of recalibration for a 689 690 vestibular or visual cue, we only considered cells with significant tuning either pre- or post-recalibration. This resulted in 49 and 66 (of 118 recorded) VIP neurons tuned to 691 vestibular and visual cues, respectively (31 of which were tuned to both); 60 (of 160 692 693 recorded) PIVC neurons tuned to vestibular cues; 23 and 65 (of 83 recorded) MSTd neurons tuned to vestibular and visual cues, respectively. 694

To estimate neural recalibration (for comparison to behavioral recalibration) we constructed neurometric functions (Chen *et al.*, 2013a; Fetsch *et al.*, 2012; Gu *et al.*, 2008; Gu *et al.*, 2007) for the pre-recalibration and post-recalibration data (each calculated after subtracting the mean baseline firing rate respectively). Specifically, both the pre-recalibration and post-recalibration data were normalized (z-scored) by subtracting the pre-recalibration mean response and dividing by the pre-recalibration SD across stimulus repetitions. Then ROC (receiver operating characteristic) analysis was used to compute the ability of an ideal observer to discriminate between the z-scored responses (for each heading) and 0° (straight ahead). These ROC values were fitted with a cumulative Gaussian function (like for behavioral psychometrics), and neuronal recalibration was measured by the difference in PSE (as done for behavior).

To assess neuronal recalibration at different time points during the stimulus, we calculated response metrics in 200 ms time windows, starting at stimulus onset, and shifted in steps of 100 ms. The time index (the center of the window) ranged from t =0.1 s to t = 1.2 s (relative to stimulus onset). This range did not include the saccade, which could only take place after t = 1.3 s because of the delay period (300ms) that was at the end of the stimulus.

713 Partial correlation analysis

714 To disassociate the unique contributions of heading stimuli and choices to the neural responses (FRs), we computed Pearson partial correlations between these 715 716 variables (for details, see Zaidel et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2021). This produced a heading partial correlation, R_h, that captured the linear relationship between firing rate 717 (FR) and heading (H) given the monkey's choice (C), as well as a choice partial 718 correlation, R_c, that captured the relationship between firing rate and choice given the 719 720 stimulus heading. Partial correlations were calculated over the entire 1 s stimulus duration. Positive heading partial correlations indicate that firing rates were greater for 721

rightward than leftward headings (given the choices). Likewise, positive choice partial
correlations indicate that firing rates were greater for choices made to the right than
choices made to the left (given the stimulus headings).

725 Statistical Analysis

To evaluate differences in monkeys' behavior (PSE), heading, or choice partial correlations, between pre- and post-recalibration, we used paired t-tests. Possible differences in spontaneous (baseline) firing rates between pre- and post-recalibration were evaluated using Bayesian paired-samples t-tests (BF₁₀ values). Statistical analysis was conducted using the open-source statistical software program JASP (Version 0.16.3).

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738 Competing interests

Authors declare no competing interests.

740 Data and Code availability statement

- The data and analysis code for this study have been uploaded to github and can be
- 742 found at https://github.com/FuZengBio/Recalibration.

743 Additional files

744 Supplementary files

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Supplementary Material

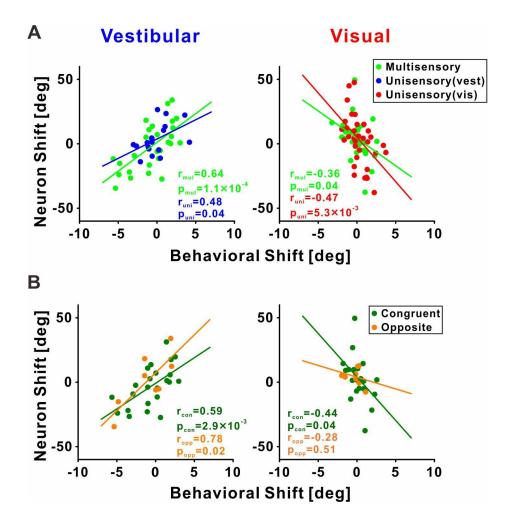
Contrary neuronal recalibration in different multisensory

cortical areas

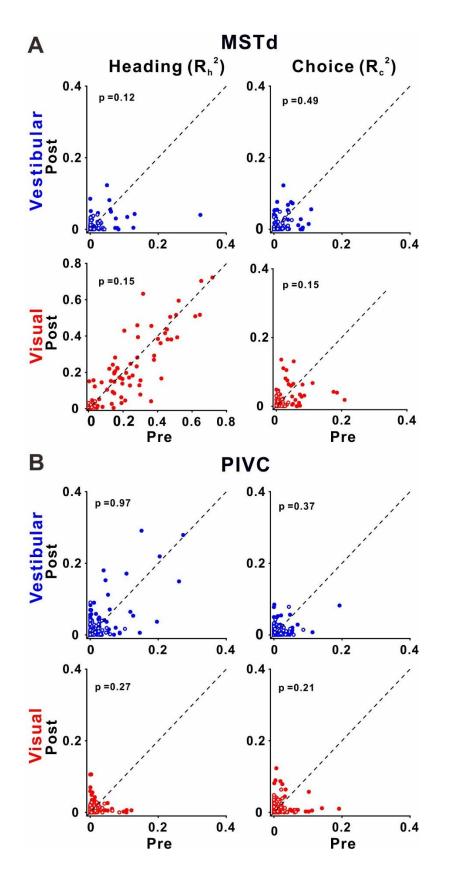
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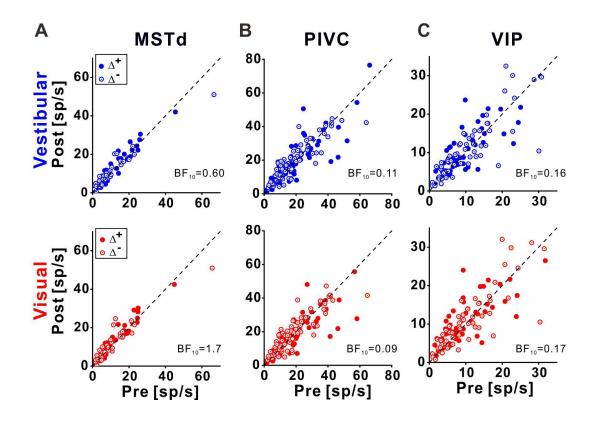
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Supplemental Figure 1. Neuronal vs. behavioral shifts by neuron type in area VIP. (A) Neurons with multisensory (green) and unisensory (blue and red, for vestibular and visual, respectively) tuning. (B) Multisensory neurons with congruent, or opposite, vestibular and visual tuning. The neuronal shifts were positively correlated with the behavioral shifts for the vestibular cue (left column), and negatively correlated with the behavioral shifts for the visual cue (right column). Pearson correlation coefficients are presented on the corresponding plots.



Supplemental Figure 2. Choice and heading partial correlations in areas MSTd and PIVC. Plotting conventions are the same as in Figure 8.



Supplemental Figure 3. **Baseline firing rates in areas MSTd, PIVC and VIP.** The baseline firing rates post- vs. pre-recalibration are plotted for vestibular (upper panel) and visual (bottom panel) cues. Solid symbols represent Δ^+ and open symbols represent Δ^- . Bayes factors (BF₁₀) < $\frac{1}{3}$ (as for PIVC and VIP) provide substantial evidence against a change in baseline firing rates. Bayes factors between $\frac{1}{3}$ and 3 (as for MSTd) are inconclusive (provide no substantial evidence for, or against, changes).