

1 **Response modality-dependent abstract choice representations for vibrotactile**

2 **comparisons**

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19 **Abstract**

20 Previous electrophysiological studies in monkeys and humans suggest that premotor
21 regions are the primary loci for the encoding of perceptual choices during vibrotactile
22 comparisons. However, these studies employed paradigms wherein choices were
23 inextricably linked with the physical properties of the stimuli and action selection. It
24 raises the question what brain regions represent choices at a more abstract level,
25 independent of the sensorimotor components of the task. To address this question,
26 we used fMRI-MVPA and a variant of the vibrotactile frequency discrimination task
27 which enabled the isolation of choice-related signals from those related to stimulus
28 properties and selection of the manual decision reports. We identified the left,
29 contralateral dorsal premotor cortex (PMd) and intraparietal sulcus (IPS) as carrying
30 information about abstract choices. Notably, our previous work using an oculomotor
31 variant of the task also reported abstract choice representation in intraparietal and
32 premotor regions. However, the informative premotor cluster was centered in the
33 frontal eye fields rather than in the PMd, providing empirical support for a response
34 effector-dependent organization of abstract choice representation in the context of
35 vibrotactile comparisons. Considering our results together with findings from recent
36 studies in animals, we speculate that the premotor region likely serves as a
37 temporary storage site for information necessary for the specification of concrete
38 manual movements, while the IPS might be more directly involved in the computation
39 of choice.

40

41 **Keywords**

42 Vibrotactile comparison, perceptual decision making, categorical choice, fMRI,
43 multivariate pattern analysis

44 **Introduction**

45 In everyday life, we are continuously encountering situations wherein we need to
46 make decisions based on comparisons between stimuli occurring at different times.
47 Imagine choosing an avocado at a grocery store: one squeezes two or more
48 avocados sequentially and decides for one based on their firmness. The neural
49 processes underlying this type of decision have been extensively studied in the
50 somatosensory domain using the vibrotactile frequency discrimination task (reviewed
51 in Romo & de Lafuente, 2013). In their seminal work, Romo and colleagues trained
52 monkeys to compare frequencies of two sequentially presented vibrotactile stimuli
53 and report with a manual response whether the second frequency (f_2) was higher or
54 lower than the first (f_1). Crucially, firing rates in premotor regions implicated in the
55 planning and execution of manual movements, such as the supplementary motor
56 area (SMA), ventral (PMv), and dorsal premotor cortices (PMd), have been
57 consistently found to reflect perceptual choices (Hernández et al., 2002, 2010; Romo
58 et al., 2004).

59 The involvement of motor-related regions during vibrotactile comparisons also agrees
60 well with findings from an influential line of decision-making research in the visual
61 domain. Monkey neurophysiological experiments employing random motion dot tasks
62 with saccade responses consistently reported decision-related signals in regions
63 implicated in saccadic movement (reviewed in Gold & Shadlen, 2007), such as the
64 lateral intraparietal area (LIP, Shadlen & Newsome, 2001; Roitman & Shadlen, 2002),
65 the frontal eye fields (FEF, Kim & Shadlen, 1999; Ding & Gold, 2012), and the
66 superior colliculus (Horwitz & Newsome, 1999; Ratcliff et al., 2003). Findings from
67 these two lines of work have converged to the view that decisions are directly
68 implemented in regions involved in the planning and execution of the resultant action

69 (Gold & Shadlen, 2007; Cisek & Kalaska, 2010). In other words, decisions are
70 implemented in a response modality-dependent manner. Moreover, the posited
71 response modality-specific implementation appears to translate to human vibrotactile
72 comparisons. Herding and colleagues (2016, 2017) reported premotor regions as the
73 most likely source of choice-selective beta oscillatory activity in the EEG signal. The
74 choice-related modulation was localized in the medial part of the premotor cortex
75 when human observers used button presses to indicate their choices (Herding et al.,
76 2016). However, when they reported their choices with saccades, the source of the
77 choice-related modulation shifted to the FEF (Herding et al., 2017).

78 Of importance, the majority of findings in the context of vibrotactile comparisons were
79 yielded from experimental settings wherein perceptual choices were inextricably
80 linked to the sensory and motor components of the task. In such settings, f_1 typically
81 serves as the reference stimulus against which f_2 (the comparison stimulus) is
82 compared. Thus, observers will mostly decide for the percept “higher” if frequencies
83 were presented in an increasing order ($f_1 < f_2$), and “lower” if presented in a
84 decreasing order ($f_1 > f_2$). The abstract contents of perceptual choices are directly
85 bound with the physical properties of the stimulus presentation. Moreover, decisions
86 are typically implemented as choices between two hand or saccade movements so
87 that choosing a particular percept is the same as choosing a specific hand or
88 saccade movement. Due to these dependencies, the presumed choice-related
89 signals may reflect a multiplicity of choice and sensorimotor aspects, rather than the
90 choice per se (Park et al, 2014, see also Huk et al., 2016 for a review). This limitation
91 leaves open the question of whether choices are represented in a more abstract,
92 internal cognitive format, uncontaminated by stimulus order and action selection. For

93 succinctness, we refer to this more abstract type of choice representation as an
94 abstract choice representation throughout the rest of this article.

95 Our previous work (Wu et al., 2019) addressed this question by means of human
96 fMRI-MVPA and a novel variant of the vibrotactile frequency discrimination task.
97 Intriguingly, although participants' choices were decoupled from the preceding
98 stimulus orders and ensuing saccade movements used for reporting the decisions,
99 regions implicated in saccade planning and selection such as the FEF and
100 intraparietal sulci (IPS) were identified as representing abstract choices. The finding
101 suggests that activities in these human brain regions are not confined to the sensory
102 and motor aspects of perceptual decisions, but involved in more abstract cognitive
103 computation. Moreover, it hints at the possibility that abstract choices may also be
104 represented in an effector-specific manner.

105 In the present fMRI study, we sought to further explore the interplay between the
106 topographic organization of abstract choice representations and response modality
107 during vibrotactile comparisons. We asked participants to perform an analogous
108 version of the vibrotactile frequency discrimination task as in our previous work, with
109 saccade responses replaced by manual button presses. Further, the same whole-
110 brain searchlight multivariate analysis routines (Kriegeskorte et al., 2006) as
111 implemented in the previous work was employed to identify brain regions that carry
112 information about abstract choices. Following the interpretation drawn from our
113 previous study, we expected abstract choice representations in premotor regions
114 implicated in the selection of manual responses such as the PMd, PMv, or SMA.

115

116 **Materials and methods**

117 **Participants**

118 Thirty-one volunteers participated in the fMRI experiment. They were right-handed,
119 had no history of neurological or psychiatric impairment, and normal or corrected-to-
120 normal vision. Data of four participants were excluded due to poor behavioral
121 performance (accuracy rate < 0.5 in at least one stimulus pair), leaving the data of 27
122 participants in the analyses (18 females and 9 males; mean age: 25, range: 18–34).
123 All participants provided written informed consent as approved by the ethics
124 committee of the Freie Universität Berlin and received monetary compensation for
125 their time.

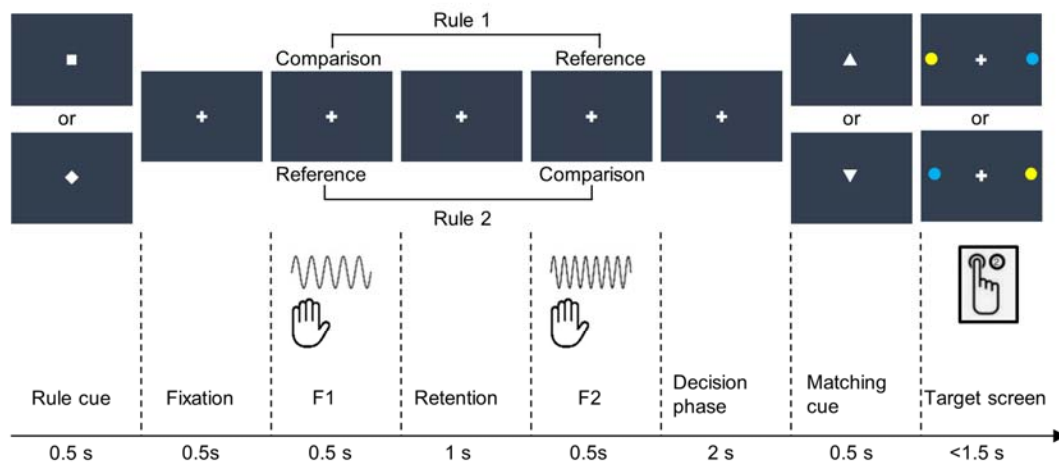
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127 **Task design and stimuli**

128 We asked participants to complete a variant of the vibrotactile frequency
129 discrimination task (Fig. 1). Similar to standard versions of the task, participants
130 compared two sequentially presented vibrotactile frequencies and made a decision
131 on whether the frequency of the comparison stimulus was higher or lower than that of
132 the reference stimulus. It differed from standard versions in two important aspects:
133 First, we introduced task rules that alternately designate f_1 or f_2 as the
134 comparison/reference stimulus across trials so that the perceptual choices were
135 independent of the physical properties of the stimulus order. Second, instead of using
136 a direct choice-motor response mapping, participants reported a match or mismatch
137 between their percept and the proposition of a visual matching cue. After the decision
138 phase, participants selected a color-coded target after a decision phase, from which
139 their perceptual choice was inferred. Hence, participants were not able to plan a

140 specific manual movement or anticipate a target color during the decision phase. As
141 a consequence of these measures, if there were detectable choice-related signals
142 during the decision phase, it would be unlikely to result from the physical properties
143 of the stimulus order or action selection.

144 Each trial was preceded by a variable fixation period (3 – 6 s), during which
145 participants were asked to fixate on a gray cross centrally presented on the screen.
146 The trial started with a switch from the fixation cross to either a square or a diamond
147 for 500 ms, instructing participants which task rule applies in the current trial. In half
148 of the trials, participants used f1 as the comparison stimulus and evaluated whether it
149 was higher or lower than the reference stimulus f2. In the other half, participants
150 made comparisons in the reversed direction. That is, they evaluated f2 relative to f1.
151 The rule cue was followed by two sequentially presented vibrotactile stimuli with
152 different frequencies administered to participants' left index finger (each of 500 ms
153 separated by a 1 s retention). After a decision phase of 2 s, a visual matching cue in
154 the form of either an upward-pointing or a downward-pointing equilateral triangle
155 appeared centrally on the screen for 500 ms, indicating a comparison stimulus of
156 higher or lower frequency, respectively. Following the offset of the visual matching
157 cue, a target screen with a central fixation cross and two color-coded targets (blue
158 and yellow disks) in the periphery along the horizontal meridian was displayed for 1.5
159 s. During this time period, participants reported a match or mismatch between their
160 perceptual choice ('higher' vs. 'lower') and the visual matching cue by selecting one
161 of the color-coded targets corresponding to their report. Depending on the spatial
162 location of the corresponding target, participants pressed the left or right button of a
163 response box held in their right hand with their index or middle finger.



164
165 **Fig. 1.** Trial schematic. A rule cue (square or diamond) indicated whether f1 or f2 served as the
166 comparison stimulus. The stimuli presentation was followed by a decision phase. Thereafter, a
167 matching cue (equilateral triangle) was presented. An upward-pointing triangle represented a
168 comparison stimulus of higher frequency, while a downward-pointing triangle represented a lower
169 comparison frequency. Participants compared their perceptual choice with the matching cue. A match
170 or mismatch was indicated by choosing one of the color-coded disks presented in the periphery via a
171 button press. See Wu et al. (2019) for an oculomotor variant of the task.

172

173 Visual stimuli were generated using MATLAB version 8.2 (The MathWorks, Inc,
174 Natick, MA) and the Psychophysics toolbox version 3 (Brainard, 1997). Except for the
175 two peripheral, color-coded discs on target screens, all other visual symbols were
176 presented centrally in white on a black background. During the fMRI session, visual
177 stimuli were projected with an LCD projector (800 x 600, 60 Hz frame rate) onto a
178 screen on the MR scanner's bore opening. Participants observed the visual stimuli
179 via a mirror attached to the MR head coil from a distance of 110 ± 2 cm.
180 Suprathreshold vibrotactile stimuli with a consistent peak amplitude were applied to
181 participants' distal phalanx of the left index finger using a 16-dot piezoelectric Braille-
182 like display (4 x 4 quadratic matrix, 2.5 mm spacing), controlled by a programmable
183 stimulator (QuaeroSys Medical Devices, Schotten, Germany). Frequencies of the first
184 vibratory stimuli (f1) varied between 16 and 28 Hz in steps of 4 Hz. The second

185 stimulus was either 4 Hz higher or lower than the preceding f1, yielding a total of
186 eight possible stimulus pairs.

187 Participants performed six experimental runs of the vibrotactile frequency
188 discrimination task, each lasting ~12.5 min. During each run, each stimulus pair was
189 presented eight times, each time with a unique combination between rule cues
190 (diamond vs. square), matching cues (upward-pointing vs. downward-pointing
191 triangles), and target screens (blue-left, yellow-right vs. yellow-left, blue-right). This
192 yielded a total of 64 trials per run, which were presented in a randomized order.
193 Further, the association between visual symbols and task rules as well as between
194 target colors and match reports was counterbalanced across participants.

195

196 **fMRI data acquisition**

197 The fMRI data were obtained with a 3 T Tim Trio MRI scanner (Siemens, Erlangen,
198 Germany) equipped with a 12-channel head coil at the Center for Cognitive
199 Neuroscience Berlin. Functional volumes sensitive to the BOLD signal were acquired
200 using a T2* weighted echo planar imaging sequence (TR = 2000 ms, TE = 30 ms,
201 field of view = 192 mm, flip angle = 70°). Each volume consisted of 37 axial slices
202 and was acquired in an interleaved order (64x64 in-plane, 3 mm isotropic with 0.6
203 mm gaps between slices). 378 functional volumes were obtained in each
204 experimental run. In addition to the six experimental runs, a T1 weighted structural
205 volume was acquired for co-registration and spatial normalization purposes using a
206 3D MPRAGE sequence (TR = 1900 ms, TE = 2.52 ms, 256x256 in-plane, 1mm
207 isotropic).

208

209 **Data preprocessing and analyses**

210 FMRI data preprocessing and general linear model (GLM) were performed with
211 SPM12 version 6685 (www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm) and custom MATLAB scripts
212 (<https://github.com/yuanhaowu/DecodingAbstractChoices>), while multivariate
213 decoding analyses were performed using The Decoding Toolbox version 3.991
214 (Hebart et al. 2017, <https://sites.google.com/site/tdtdecodingtoolbox/>). During the
215 preprocessing, functional volumes were corrected for slice acquisition time
216 differences and spatially realigned to the mean functional volume.

217 *Decoding choices.* The focus of the present study was to identify brain regions that
218 carry information about choice-related information independent of stimulus order and
219 selection of specific manual response. To this end, we used MVPA combined with a
220 whole-brain searchlight routine to pinpoint brain regions that show distinguishable
221 local activity patterns between different choices during the decision phase.

222 We first obtained run-wise beta estimates for choice-related activity during the
223 decision phase for each voxel. We fitted a GLM (192 s high-pass filter) to each
224 participant's data. Separate impulse regressors were defined to model the two
225 choices ('higher' vs. 'lower'), convolved with the canonical hemodynamic function at
226 the onsets of the decision phases. To minimize the number of potential indecisions
227 during decision phases, only correctly answered trials were modelled. Incorrectly
228 answered and missed trials were modelled with a separate regressor of non-interest
229 and not included in the subsequent MVPA. In addition, six movement parameters,
230 the first five principal components explaining variance in the white matter and
231 cerebrospinal fluid signals respectively (Behzadi et al., 2007), and a run constant
232 were added as nuisance regressors, culminating in a total of 120 parameter
233 estimates per participant (20 x 6 runs).

234 To identify brain regions that exhibit choice-selective activity patterns, a searchlight
235 MVPA was performed on each participant's data using linear support vector machine
236 classifiers (SVM) in the implementation of LIBSVM 2.86 (Chang & Lin, 2011) with a
237 fixed cost parameter of $c = 1$. We generated a 4 voxel radius spherical searchlight
238 and moved it voxel-by-voxel through the entire measured volume. The searchlight
239 was centered on each voxel in turn and comprised a maximum of 251 voxels (note
240 that searchlights with 3 and 5 voxel radii yielded similar results). At each voxel, run-
241 wise beta estimates for each of the two choice regressors extracted from voxels
242 within the searchlight formed the 12 response patterns (2 conditions x 6 runs) for the
243 decoding analysis. To avoid overfitting, we estimated the classifier's decoding
244 accuracy using a leave-one-run-out cross-validation routine. That is, we iteratively
245 trained the classifier to distinguish between response patterns between participant's
246 choices with data from five runs and tested how well the classifier predicted
247 participant's choices based on response patterns in the remaining run. This
248 procedure was repeated until all runs were used as the test set. The decoding
249 accuracy of the classifier was estimated as the number of correct predictions divided
250 by the number of all predictions. Decoding accuracy resulting from the searchlight
251 analysis around a given voxel was stored to the corresponding location of a whole-
252 brain volume before the searchlight moved to the next voxel. The searchlight analysis
253 was applied to all voxels in the measured volume so that a continuous whole-brain
254 accuracy map could be obtained. For each voxel in the measured volume, the
255 resulting accuracy map displayed the extent to which the multivariate signal in the
256 local spherical neighborhood was selective to choices. Notably, due to the use of a
257 balanced design, different perceptual choices were expected to have approximately
258 the same number of trials associated with each stimulus order and motor response.
259 That is, each choice regressor contained roughly the same amount of information

260 about stimulus order and button press. Thus, choice-selective activity detected during
261 the decision phase would be unlikely to result from the physical properties of stimulus
262 order or planning of button press responses.

263 For the group inference, each participant's accuracy map was transformed to MNI
264 space, resampled to $2 \times 2 \times 2 \text{ mm}^3$ voxel size, and smoothed with a 3mm full width at
265 half maximum Gaussian filter. The transformed maps were submitted to a group one-
266 tailed, one-sample t-test to assess whether the decoding accuracy at any voxel was
267 significantly higher than the chance level (50%). A voxel with significant above-
268 chance decoding accuracy would indicate that the local activity pattern around that
269 voxel carries information about choices.

270 *Behavioral control analyses.* By virtue of the balanced experimental design, the
271 implemented variant of the vibrotactile frequency discrimination task has proven to be
272 capable of disentangling choice-related activity from that related to sensory and
273 motor task components (Wu et al., 2019). However, it remains possible that the
274 classifier could exploit the subtle difference in the distributions of the two stimulus
275 orders ($f1 > f2$ vs $f1 < f1$) or motor responses (left vs right button press) between
276 choice conditions to achieve above-chance decoding accuracy (Görger et al., 2018;
277 Hebart & Baker, 2018). This is of particular relevance for the present study as the
278 balanced number of trials across conditions might not hold after the exclusion of
279 incorrect answered trials and have a biasing effect on MVPA on fMRI data. To
280 address this concern, we applied the same decoding analysis pipeline used with to
281 behavioral data, which enabled us to directly test whether choices can be predicted
282 based on the number of trials associated with different stimulus orders and motor
283 responses in each choice.

284 For each of the variables of interest, we performed an independent analysis with the
285 following procedure: For each choice in each run, we generated a two-dimensional
286 vector using the number of trials associated with different variable levels. For
287 instance, if a participant responded 15 times with a left and 17 times with a right
288 button press to indicate a comparison stimulus of higher frequency, it was coded as
289 [15 17]. The remainder of the analysis proceeded in a manner analogous to the fMRI
290 data analysis pipeline. Twelve data vectors (2 choices x 6 runs) were used to predict
291 participant's choices in a decoding analysis with a leave-one-run-out cross-validation
292 routine. For the group inference, we used one-tailed Wilcoxon sign rank tests to
293 probe the statistical significance against chance accuracy (50%). Significant results
294 would imply potential confounds due to the biased distributions of stimulus orders
295 or/and motor responses.

296 *Neuroimaging control analysis.* As informative clusters identified in the main fMRI
297 analysis include brain regions typically implicated in the planning and execution of
298 manual movements (see result), we did an additional analysis on fMRI data to test
299 whether the result might be confounded with motor planning. We repeated the
300 searchlight choice decoding analysis 100 times for each participant. In each
301 repetition, we randomly sampled a subset of trials so that the number of trials
302 associated with the left and right button presses was fully balanced across choices
303 and runs. We then performed the same GLM and searchlight analysis as described
304 above on a subset of data to obtain a decoding accuracy map per repetition, yielding
305 a total of 100 accuracy maps per participant. The within-participant averaged
306 accuracy maps were then forwarded to a group level t-test to identify brain regions
307 which carry choice-related information. Importantly, by keeping the number of left and
308 right button presses balanced across choices and runs, this analysis eliminated

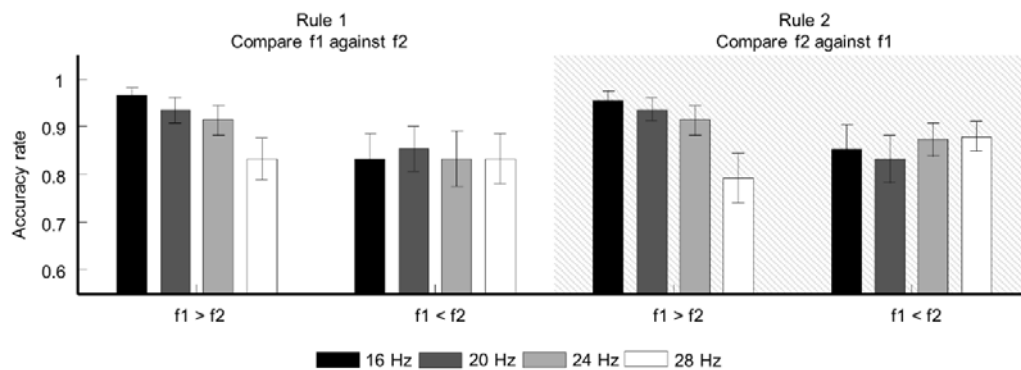
309 potential confounds related to motor planning. If informative clusters reported in the
310 main result were mainly driven by motor planning rather than by choices, we would
311 not expect choice-related information in the reported regions. Reversely, a similar
312 pattern of informative clusters would strengthen the result of the main analysis.

313

314 Results

315 Behavior

316 The overall behavioral performance of participants during the scanning session was
317 highly accurate. The average accuracy rate was 0.881 (SD: 0.057; range: 0.778 -
318 0.99), while the average reaction time (latencies between the onsets of the target
319 screens and button presses) was 0.554 (SD: 0.104, range: 0.359 - 0.77).



320

321 **Fig. 2.** Behavioral performance. The bar plots show the mean accuracy rates across participants over
322 all runs for different stimulus orders, rules, and f1 magnitudes. Error bars represent 95% confidence
323 intervals (CIs) of the means.

324

325 We further examined participants' behavioral accuracies and reaction times with
326 three-way repeated measure ANOVAs with task rule (compare f1 against f2 vs f2
327 against f1), stimulus order (f1 > f2 vs f1 < f2), and f1 magnitude (16Hz, 20Hz, 24Hz,
328 and 28Hz) as within-subject factors, respectively. For the behavioral accuracy, there

329 was no task rule effect observable ($F(1,26) = 1.66, p = 0.209$). The performance
330 remained stable regardless of which particular rule was applied, suggesting that the
331 cognitive demands were equivalent across rules. In addition, we observed a
332 significant effect of stimulus order ($F(1,26) = 7.749, p = 0.001$), with a slightly better
333 performance in $f1 > f2$ trials than in $f1 < f2$ trials ($\text{mean}_{f1>f2} = 0.911, \text{mean}_{f1<f2} = 0.851,$
334 $CI_{95} = [0.0166 \ 0.1035]$). Moreover, there was a significant interaction between
335 stimulus order and $f1$ magnitude ($F(3, 78) = 11.239, p < 0.001$). As indicated by
336 linear trend analyses, participants' performance decreased slightly with an increasing
337 $f1$ in $f1 > f2$ trials (slope = $-0.0113, p < 0.001$), while the performance was unaffected
338 by $f1$ magnitude in $f1 < f2$ trials (slope = $0.003, p = 0.233$). Contrary to the behavioral
339 accuracy, we did not reveal any difference in reaction times between conditions.

340 Considering the possibility that response biases and the exclusion of incorrect trials
341 from fMRI analysis may cause differences in stimulus order and motor response
342 distribution between choices and thereby distort the outcome of the fMRI analysis,
343 we performed Pearson chi-square tests on data included in the fMRI analysis, for
344 each participant respectively. The tests did not reveal significant differences in the
345 distribution of stimulus orders and motor responses between choices in any of the
346 participants (all $p > 0.1$, uncorrected), suggesting that participants' choice behavior
347 included in the fMRI analysis was not biased by the stimulus order or motor response.

348 In addition, the same decoding analysis routine as used for the fMRI data was
349 performed to test whether the numbers of trials associated with different stimulus
350 orders and motor responses were predictive of choices. As the results of one-sided,
351 one-tailed Wilcoxon sign rank tests show, neither stimulus order nor motor response
352 was predictive of choices (all $p > 0.05$, Holm corrected).

353 Collectively, there is no evidence from our behavioral analyses indicating that the
354 fMRI results reported below were confounded by the physical properties of the
355 stimulus order and selection of the ensuing motor responses.

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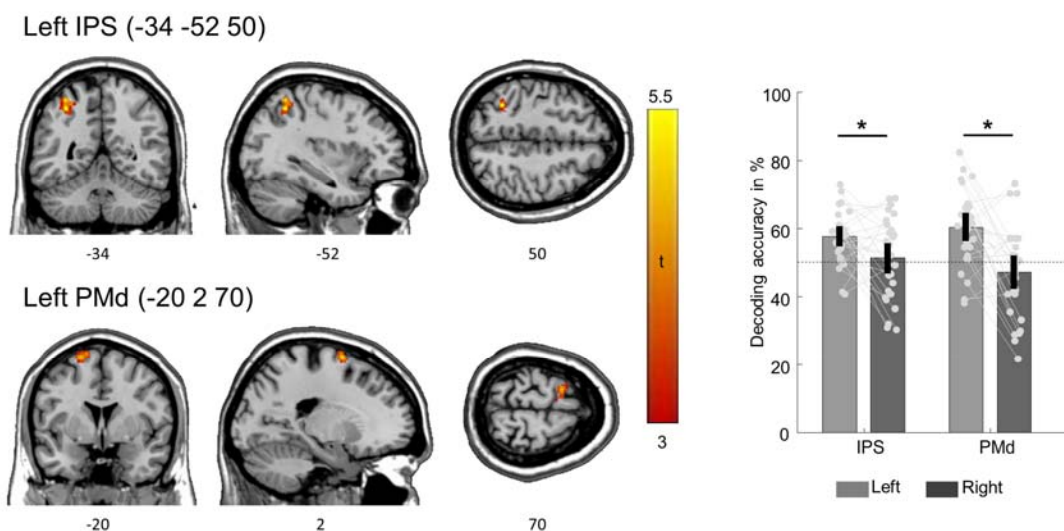
357 **Neuroimaging results**

358 The main objective of the present study was to identify brain regions that carry
359 information about perceptual choice independent of the physical properties of
360 stimulus orders and selection of the ensuing manual responses. Using whole-brain
361 searchlight MVPA, we tested for brain regions exhibiting distinguishable local activity
362 patterns between choices during the 2 s decision phase. The result of the whole-
363 brain searchlight analysis is shown in Fig. 3 (displayed at $p < 0.05$, FDR corrected for
364 multiple comparisons at the cluster level with a cluster-defining voxel-wise threshold
365 of $p < 0.001$). We were able to decode perceptual choices from the intraparietal
366 sulcus (IPS, mainly in area hIP3; cluster size = 130, peak voxel: [-34 -52 50], $t_{[26]} =$
367 5.115, mean decoding accuracy at the peak = 57.737%, $CI_{95} = [4.628\% 10.847\%]$)
368 and the dorsal premotor cortex (PMd, BA 6) in the left hemisphere, contralateral
369 hemisphere to the response effector (cluster size = 109, peak voxel: [-20 2 70], $t_{[26]} =$
370 4.864, mean decoding accuracy = 60.504%, $CI_{95} = [6.066\% 14.943\%]$). To test
371 whether choices are indeed represented in a lateralized manner, we conducted two-
372 sided paired t-tests between decoding accuracies extracted from the identified peak
373 voxels and those extracted from the corresponding locations in the right hemisphere
374 (right panel in Fig. 3). These tests show that decoding accuracies extracted from the
375 identified peak voxels were significantly higher than those in the right hemisphere,
376 ipsilateral to the response effector (IPS: $t_{[26]} = 2.413$, $p = 0.002$, $CI_{95} = [0.928\%$

377 11.619%]; PMd: $t_{[26]} = 4.43$, $p < 0.001$, $CI_{95} = [7.137\% 19.467\%]$), corroborating the
378 lateralized representation of choice-related information.

379 We were further interested in whether decoding accuracies in the reported regions
380 were explanatory to the behavioral performance. To this end, we estimated the
381 Pearson correlation between the decoding accuracy and behavioral performance.
382 We were not able to find statistical evidence for such a linkage between them in any
383 of the reported regions (IPS: $\rho = 0.089$, $p = 0.659$; PMd: $\rho = -0.016$, $p = 0.938$).

384

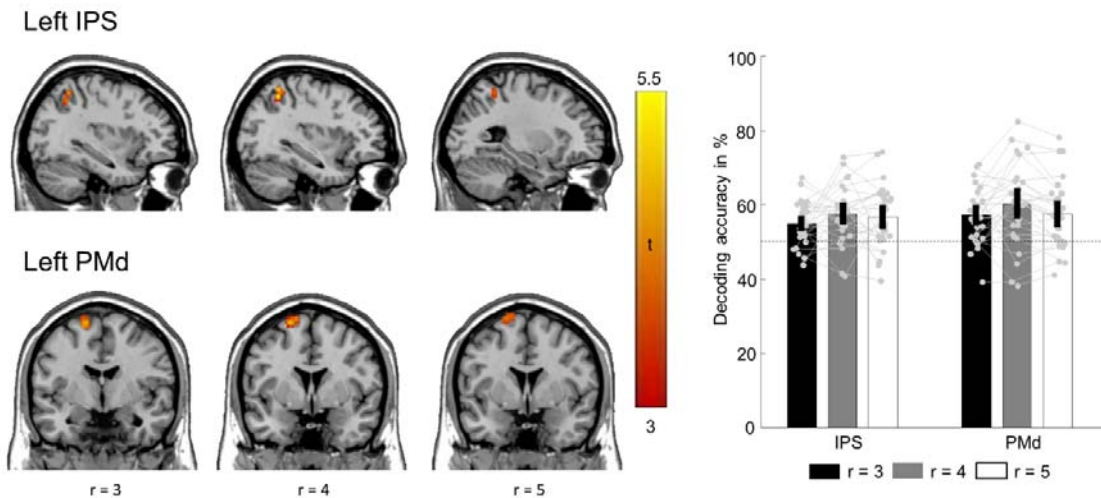


385 **Fig. 3.** fMRI decoding results. The left IPS and the PMd were found to carry choice-related information
386 independent of stimulus order and ensuing button press, contralateral to the response effector ($P_{FDR} <$
387 0.05 , cluster corrected for multiple comparisons). Coordinates refer to MNI space and indicate the
388 peak voxel of each region respectively. The unthresholded statistical map can be inspected at
389 <https://www.neurovault.org/images/256861/> The bar plot shows decoding accuracies at the reported
390 peak voxels and at the equivalent positions in the right hemisphere, ipsilateral to the response effector.
391 Error bars represent 95% CIs of the means, while dots indicate individual participants' decoding
392 accuracies in each brain region. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences between
393 hemispheres at $p < 0.05$, Holm corrected for multiple comparisons. Participant-specific decoding
394 accuracy maps are available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.9920111.v2>
395

396

397 Importantly, the pattern of informative clusters at the group level remains similar
398 across different searchlight radiuses. We performed the same MVPA with searchlight
399 radii of 3-5 voxels and found that locations of significant informative clusters remain
400 centered in the left IPS and PMd (Fig. 4). Moreover, results of two-sided paired t-

401 tests between all possible pairs show that decoding accuracies do not differ across
402 searchlight radii (all $p > 0.05$, Holm corrected).



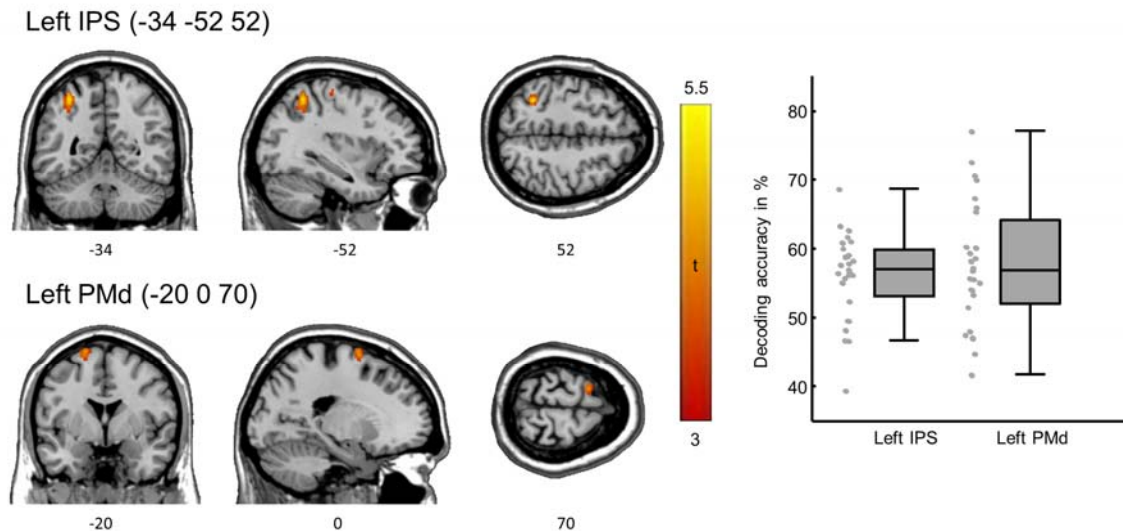
403
404 **Fig. 4.** fMRI decoding results using three different searchlight radii. The left panel depicts the
405 informative clusters (one column for each radius, indicated by r). Bar plot in the right panel displays
406 decoding accuracies at peak voxels of the IPS and PMd clusters for each radius respectively. The
407 unthresholded statistical maps are available at <https://www.neurovault.org/collections/5936/>. Error bars
408 indicate 95% CIs of the means. Grey dots and lines represent individual participants' decoding
409 accuracies.

410

411 We performed an additional decoding analysis to explore whether the identified brain
412 regions with significant above-chance decoding accuracies may result from a bias
413 toward a particular choice-response association. We repeated the searchlight choice
414 decoding analysis and eliminated the potential motor-related confound by keeping
415 the left and right button presses balanced across choices and runs. This analysis
416 yielded a highly similar pattern of brain regions carrying choice-related information as
417 in the main analysis. As shown in Fig. 5 (reported at $p < 0.001$ uncorrected due to
418 significant reduced amount of data compared to the main analysis), choice-related
419 information was again found in the left IPS ($[-34 -52 52]$, $t_{[26]} = 5.173$, cluster size =
420 128, mean = 56.157%, $CI_{95} = [3.711\% 8.603\%]$) and in the left PMd ($[-20 0 72]$, $t_{[26]} =$
421 4.443, cluster size = 76, mean = 57.662%; $CI_{95} = [4.117\% 11.207\%]$). Altogether, the

422 results of both behavioral and neuroimaging control analyses suggest that the main
423 results were not driven by motor-related confounds.

424



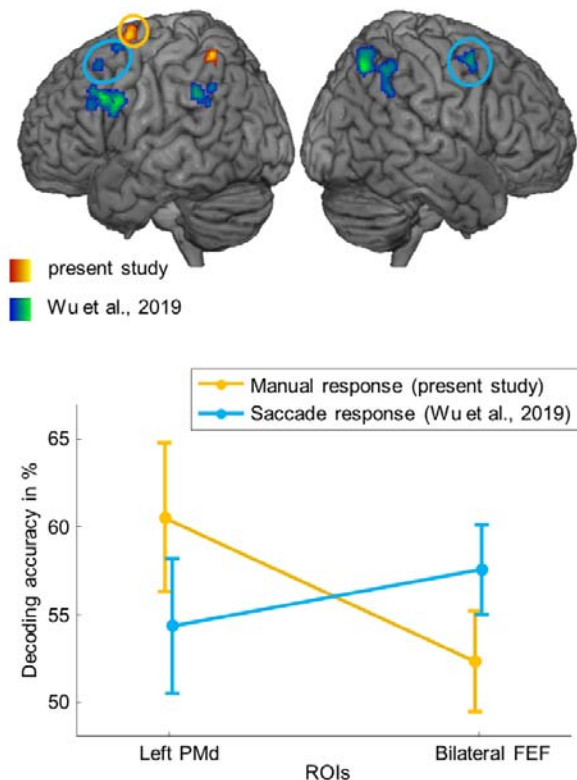
425

426 **Fig 5.** fMRI control analysis result. The left panel displays significant clusters detected by the analysis
427 controlling for motor-related confounds (displayed at $p < 0.001$, uncorrected). The unthresholded
428 statistical map is available at <https://www.neurovault.org/images/256864/>. The right panel shows box
429 plots for IPS and PMd separately. Box edges indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles, central horizontal
430 lines correspond to the median. Grey dots represent individual participants' decoding accuracies.

431

432 Next, we compared the result of the present study with that of our previous study, in
433 which decisions were communicated with saccades, instead of button presses (Wu et
434 al., 2019, $n = 30$). Similar to the present study, choice-selective activity was found in
435 premotor and intraparietal regions, with the difference that it was evident in both
436 hemispheres. The previous study also reported choice-selective activity in the left
437 prefrontal cortex (PFC), while it was absent in the current study. Notably, although
438 both studies identified premotor and intraparietal regions as carrying choice-related
439 information, there were no overlapping clusters. In particular, the premotor clusters
440 identified in the previous study were located in the junction of precentral gyri and the
441 caudal-most part of the superior frontal sulci (peak_{left}: [-32 10 62], peak_{right}: [34 4 52]),

442 commonly referred to as the FEF (determined with the probabilistic maps by Wang et
443 al., 2015; www.princeton.edu/~napl/vtprm.htm). In contrast, the premotor cluster
444 detected in the current study lies in the adjacent PMd (-20 0 72), dorsocaudal to the
445 FEF (determined with the SPM Anatomy toolbox version 3; Eickhoff et al., 2005),
446 hinting that the location of choice-related information might shift between regions
447 specialized for eye and hand movements depending on what response effector is
448 used.



449 **Fig.6.** Comparison with results from the saccade version of the task (Wu et al., 2019, n = 30). The
450 upper panel displays brain regions carrying choice-related information as identified in the present
451 study (in red-orange) and those detected in our previous work using saccades as decision reports (in
452 blue-green, unthresholded statistical map available at <https://www.neurovault.org/images/63793/>),
453 both displayed at $p_{FDR} < 0.05$, cluster corrected. The circles indicate the premotor and intraparietal
454 clusters used for ROI analysis. The lower panel depicts mean decoding accuracies across participants
455 collapsed across response modalities and effector-specific regions. Error bars indicate 95% CIs of the
456 means.
457

458

459 To further assess this possibility, we ran a set of regions of interest (ROI) analyses.

460 First, we took the peak voxels in the bilateral FEF from the previous study as the ROI

461 for the current data. For each participant, we extracted decoding accuracies from
462 these voxels and averaged them. The averaged decoding accuracies were then
463 submitted to a two-tailed, one-sample t-test against the chance level. Likewise, we
464 used the peak voxel of the PMd cluster from the present study as the ROI for the
465 previous study and tested whether choices could be reliably decoded from the PMd.
466 The results of these ROI analyses support the interpretation of an effector-dependent
467 shift of choice representation within the premotor cortex (Fig. 6). Despite the higher
468 sensitivity of ROI approach, the mean decoding accuracy computed from the bilateral
469 FEF in the present study did not surpass the chance level ($t_{[26]} = 1.534$, mean =
470 52.272%; $CI_{95} = [-0.772\% \ 5.315\%]$, $p = 0.137$). Likewise, the mean decoding
471 accuracy in the left PMd derived from the previous study did not differ significantly
472 from the chance level ($t_{[29]} = 2.172$, mean = 54.301%; $CI_{95} = [0.250\% \ 8.352\%]$, $p =$
473 0.076, Holm corrected). That is, when manual response was used, choice could only
474 be reliably decoded from the left PMd, but not from the FEF. Conversely, choice
475 could only be read out from the FEF, but not from the PMd, when saccadic response
476 was required (Fig. 6).

477

478 **Discussion**

479 In the present study, we sought to identify human brain regions that represent
480 abstract choices in the context of vibrotactile frequency comparisons. We used fMRI
481 combined with a variant of the vibrotactile frequency discrimination task which
482 allowed us to dissociate choice-selective BOLD signals from those related to the
483 physical properties of stimulus orders and the selection of manual responses. We
484 identified the left IPS and PMd, contralateral to the response effector, as carrying
485 choice-related information. Notably, using the same task, but saccades as response

486 effector, our previous study (Wu et al., 2019) also reported choice-related information
487 in intraparietal and premotor regions. Interestingly, the informative premotor cluster
488 was centered in the FEF rather than in the PMd. Evidence from these two studies
489 suggests a response modality-specific organization of abstract choice
490 representations in the context of vibrotactile comparisons.

491 The pivotal role of the premotor cortex in decision formation during vibrotactile
492 comparisons has been established by the seminal work of Romo and colleagues
493 using neurophysiological recordings in monkeys (reviewed in Romo and de Lafuente,
494 2013). The premotor cortex is strongly implicated in the computation of comparisons
495 between the two sequentially presented stimuli, based on the consistent observation
496 of choice-predictive signals before the initiation of manual responses (Hernández et
497 al., 2002; 2010). In line with these reports, we identified the dorsal part of the
498 premotor cortex as carrying choice-related information, with the crucial difference that
499 choices in the present study were independent of sensorimotor components, while
500 choices in the above-mentioned monkey neurophysiological studies were inextricably
501 linked with them. Taking this into account, the finding of such abstract choice
502 representations in a region that is primarily associated with the planning and
503 preparation of manual actions may not appear straightforward. Indeed, results from
504 few human fMRI studies in the visual domain, wherein perceptual choices were
505 disentangled from specific actions, are inconsistent. On the one hand, several
506 studies failed to find evidence for decision-related BOLD signals in the premotor
507 cortex when choices were decoupled from actions (e.g., Hebart et al., 2012; Filimon
508 et al., 2013). On the other hand, premotor activity reflecting categorical choices
509 regarding the stimulus identity independent of motor planning has been shown in
510 other human fMRI studies (e.g., Hebart et al., 2014). With this study, we provide

511 additional fMRI evidence for a premotor involvement in the representation of choices
512 in a more abstract, internal cognitive format.

513 Hereof, it is important to note that the analysis we used in the present study does not
514 permit an inference about whether abstract choices are indeed encoded in the PMd
515 or generated elsewhere. Independent of this issue, one possible explanation for our
516 premotor finding is that the PMd serves as a node for short-term storage of abstract
517 choice representations and the transformation into commands for concrete manual
518 movement once all information required for the execution of specific actions are
519 known. This interpretation agrees with a recent study showing a causal role of the
520 premotor cortex in the flexible stimulus-response mapping in mice (Wu Z. et al., 2019)
521 and monkey neurophysiological studies implicating the PMd in the retrieval and
522 integration of task-relevant information necessary for specification of particular
523 actions (e.g., Nakayama et al., 2008; Yamagata, 2009, 2012).

524 While there is a vast amount of neurophysiological evidence for the premotor
525 involvement during vibrotactile comparisons, neural activities in the posterior parietal
526 cortex (PPC) has remained largely unexplored in this context. Nevertheless, our
527 finding of intraparietal choice representation was not surprising. Similar to the
528 premotor area, posterior parietal regions are thought to be crucially involved in
529 various decision-making tasks, most prominently when decisions are communicated
530 by saccades (Gold & Shadlen, 2007). In particular, activity in the monkey LIP
531 (homologous to the intraparietal subregions in humans) has been shown to mimic the
532 presumed evidence accumulation toward one or the other saccade choices and
533 thereupon regarded as the explicit neural representation of the evolving decisions
534 (Shadlen & Kiani, 2013, but see Huk et al., 2017 for a critical review). Moreover,
535 evidence from recent studies on a wide range of decision-making tasks suggests that

536 PPC's involvement is not confined to motor decisions but pertains to decisions at
537 different levels of abstraction. For instance, both monkey and human PPC have been
538 shown to represent choices that were independent of the planning of saccade
539 responses (Bennur & Gold, 2011; Hebart et al., 2012). Among studies in the broader
540 context of decision making, findings from monkey neurophysiological recordings
541 using visual categorization tasks are particularly revealing (reviewed in Freedman &
542 Assad, 2016). In these studies, monkeys were trained to perform delayed match-to-
543 category tasks in which they decide whether the motion direction of the sample
544 stimulus and the test stimulus belong to the same category based on a previously
545 learned, arbitrarily defined boundary. After the test stimulus, monkeys indicated their
546 decision on a match or mismatch with manual or saccadic responses. Using this task,
547 LIP has been shown to exhibit signals reflecting the categorical choice which cannot
548 be attributed to specific sensory stimulus properties nor action selection (Freedman &
549 Assad, 2006; Swaminathan & Freedman, 2012; Swaminathan et al., 2013). Such
550 categorical information is reminiscent of the choice-related information observed in
551 our study as both are dissociated from sensory and motor components of the task
552 and are thus, represented at a similar level of abstraction. The similarity between
553 them opens the possibility of a common mechanism and thereby boosts the notion of
554 the PPC, and IPS more specifically, as a central node mediating abstract cognitive
555 computations (Freedman & Assad, 2016).

556 Given the above-mentioned functions ascribed to the PPC, one question which
557 naturally emerges from our results is whether the reported choice-related information
558 is directly computed in the PPC via the evidence accumulation process or other
559 mechanisms. We are not able to answer this question with our experimental design.
560 In this study, we only used stimulus pairs with supra-threshold differences to facilitate

561 the decodability of choice-related information. This is, however, problematic for
562 assessing neural correlates of evidence accumulation as they would, according to
563 the accumulation-to-bound model (Ratcliff et al., 2016), provide strong momentary
564 evidence signals which are difficult to distinguish as such. Similar to the premotor
565 cortex, it is possible that the IPS merely receives choice-related signals from
566 elsewhere in the brain and thus, is not actively involved in the decision formation.
567 However, there is evidence from several lines of research that warrants the IPS
568 being a promising candidate region for decision formation during vibrotactile
569 comparisons.

570 First, vibrotactile comparisons as implemented in the present study can be regarded
571 as a process in which a choice is made based on the relation between two
572 magnitudes. Combined evidence from monkey neurophysiology and human
573 neuroimaging suggest that magnitudes and the relation between them are encoded
574 by a network comprising the IPS and lateral PFC (reviewed in Jakobs et al., 2013).
575 Moreover, the IPS appears to be the first region within this network to process
576 magnitude information (reviewed in Nieder, 2016). Second, Herding and colleagues
577 (2019) showed that the centro-parietal positivity (CPP) in EEG signal, which has
578 been suggested as a proxy for accumulated evidence across a variety of decision-
579 making tasks (O'Connell et al., 2012; Kelly & O'Connell, 2013), also indexes the
580 amount of sensory evidence during vibrotactile comparisons. More specifically, they
581 identified the left IPS as the likely source of the CPP component reflecting the signed
582 subjectively perceived difference between two frequencies. Notably, in this study,
583 participants always compared f_2 against f_1 . It would be interesting to explore whether
584 and how this effect is modulated by comparisons in the reversed direction. Finally,
585 using a reversible inactivation approach to investigate PPC's contribution to sensory

586 evaluation and action selection. Zhou and Freedman (2019) revealed that monkeys'
587 decisions were more severely affected when visual stimuli, rather than motor targets,
588 were placed in the inactivated receptive fields of LIP neurons under investigation,
589 providing compelling evidence for the causal role of the PPC in the sensory aspect of
590 visual decisions. Given that the IPS is thought to have a similar role as a mediating
591 node in the sensorimotor transformation across multiple sensory domains, it is
592 intriguing to see whether a causal effect could also be demonstrated during
593 vibrotactile comparisons.

594 With the present finding of premotor and intraparietal choice-selectivity, we have also
595 replicated the finding of our previous study using the same task but with saccades as
596 the response modality (Wu et al., 2019). When comparing both studies more closely,
597 two differences are apparent. First, choice-related information was found in bilateral
598 premotor and intraparietal regions when saccades were used. However, when
599 manual responses were required, the premotor and intraparietal selectivity was only
600 evident in the contralateral hemisphere. Moreover, we observed a relocation of
601 choice-related information within the premotor area from the FEF to the PMd.
602 Importantly, we did not assign these functional labels merely based on the required
603 response modalities tasks. Both the FEF and the PMd were determined by means of
604 well-established functional probability maps. In addition, the spatial arrangement of
605 the FEF and the PMd clusters as identified by the spatially unbiased whole-brain
606 searchlight routines in these two studies corresponds well to that reported in
607 monkeys (e.g. Petrides, 1982; Halsband & Passingham, 1982; Bruce & Goldberg,
608 1985) and humans (Amiez, 2006), with saccade-related premotor region lying more
609 anterior and rostral to premotor region exhibiting activities related to manual
610 movements. Thus, it is unlikely that these differences were merely a by-product of

611 idiosyncratic differences between samples. Altogether, the results from these two
612 studies suggest a response modality-dependent organization of abstract choice
613 representations. One question emerged from this interpretation concerns whether the
614 posited response modality-dependent organization of abstract choice information is
615 confined to a specific level of abstraction. For instance, the dependency observed in
616 our studies might result from the explicit foreknowledge of the required response
617 modality. Evidence from other fMRI studies suggests that decision-related activities
618 may occur elsewhere when the required response modality is not known (Ho et al.,
619 2009; Liu and Pleskac, 2011; Filimon et al., 2013). In this light, future studies
620 combining the present task with a wide range of response modalities, target locations,
621 and task difficulties will provide essential insights into how vibrotactile choices are
622 evolved and transformed into internal cognitive states in humans.

623

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628

629 **Author contributions**

630 Y.W. and F.B. designed the experiment and interpreted the results. Y.W. and L.A.V.
631 conducted the experiment, Y.W. analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. L.A.V.
632 and F.B. reviewed and edited the manuscript.

633

634 **Competing interests**

635 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

636

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