

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23

# **Feedback Dynamics Determine the Structure of Spike-Count Correlation in Visual Cortex**

Adrian G. Bondy<sup>1</sup> & Bruce G. Cumming<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Laboratory of Sensorimotor Research, National Eye Institute, NIH  
49 Convent Drive, Rm. 2A50  
Bethesda, MD 20892

*Correspondence:*

Adrian Bondy  
49 Convent Drive, Room 2A50  
Bethesda, MD 20892  
[adrian.bondy@gmail.com](mailto:adrian.bondy@gmail.com)  
301-451-4926

24           **The variable spiking discharge of sensory neurons in response to a fixed stimulus tends to be**  
25 **weakly correlated (spike-count correlation,  $r_{sc}$ ), an observation with profound implications for**  
26 **neural coding of sensory information. However, the source of  $r_{sc}$  is unclear. It is widely thought to**  
27 **reflect “bottom up” stochastic noise in shared sensory afferents. However, it may also be generated**  
28 **by changes over time in feedback from higher-order brain regions. Here we test this alternative**  
29 **directly by measuring spiking activity in populations of primary visual cortical (V1) neurons in**  
30 **rhesus monkeys while the animals performed different visual discrimination tasks on the same set**  
31 **of visual inputs. We found that the structure of  $r_{sc}$  (the way  $r_{sc}$  varied with neuronal stimulus**  
32 **preference) changed dramatically with task instruction despite identical retinal input, directly**  
33 **implying that  $r_{sc}$  structure primarily reflects feedback dynamics engaged by the task, not noise in**  
34 **sensory afferents. These results fundamentally alter our view of the origin and function of  $r_{sc}$  in**  
35 **sensory neurons, suggesting that correlated variability may be best described as a signature of**  
36 **neural computation rather than stochastic sensory encoding.**

37           Neurons in sensory cortices fire at a rate that is highly dependent on sensory input. However, they  
38 also display pronounced response variability that tends to be weakly correlated between pairs of sensory  
39 neurons<sup>1</sup>. Because perceptual states are thought to be generated by pooling responses of many sensory  
40 neurons, correlated variability can have a profound effect on the reliability of sensory processing: while  
41 independent variability can be averaged away by pooling enough neurons, correlated variability cannot  
42 necessarily. As a result, correlated variability is thought to profoundly influence the fidelity of sensory  
43 information in the brain<sup>2-6</sup> and, relatedly, to generate trial-to-trial correlations between single-neuron  
44 variability and perceptual reports in psychophysical tasks (choice-related activity)<sup>7-9</sup>.

45           Unfortunately, little is currently known about the origin of  $r_{sc}$ . Presumably  $r_{sc}$  is derived from  
46 variability in common inputs. The predominant view is that stochastic noise in the afferent pathway is the  
47 primary source of this common variable input<sup>10-12</sup>. Consistent with this,  $r_{sc}$  correlates with physical  
48 proximity and similarity in stimulus preference, both of which are predictive of greater shared afferent

49 input<sup>2,10,11,13–15</sup>. However, sensory cortical areas receive only a minority of their inputs from the upstream  
50 brain regions conveying sensory information from the periphery<sup>16,17</sup>. Consequently, variation over time in  
51 shared inputs from downstream areas (i.e. “top-down”; “feedback”), for instance in signals related to  
52 attention, reward, arousal, or decision-making, may make a significant contribution to  $r_{sc}$ . It would not  
53 necessarily follow that this source of correlated variability impacts downstream sensory decoding, since  
54 downstream areas may have access to the state of these other inputs. Rather, correlated variability in a  
55 sensory area may best be seen as an effect of downstream computation rather than noise in the brain’s  
56 sensory representations.

57       Here, we directly investigate the relative contribution of feedforward and feedback sources of  
58 correlated variability in sensory neurons. We recorded spiking activity in populations of primary visual  
59 cortical (V1) neurons in macaque monkeys performing different orientation discrimination tasks using  
60 the same set of stimuli. The only difference between the tasks was the pair of orientations being  
61 discriminated. If  $r_{sc}$  primarily reflects noise in sensory afferents, it should be invariant to changes in the  
62 task given fixed retinal input. Instead, we hypothesized a task-dependent pattern of correlated variability  
63 across the V1 population generated by feedback specifically targeting neurons tuned to the orientations  
64 being discriminated. To test this, we measured the  $r_{sc}$  structure (how  $r_{sc}$  varies as a function of pairwise  
65 orientation preference) of V1 under the different task contexts. We found that this structure was highly  
66 task-dependent, in precisely the manner predicted by our hypothesis. Strikingly, we were unable to  
67 identify any  $r_{sc}$  structure that did not change with the task, entirely inconsistent with noise in sensory  
68 afferents as a major source.

69       We go on to show how these results fundamentally change our view of the role of  $r_{sc}$  in decision  
70 making and information coding. First, we show that the feedback dynamics introduce a pattern of  
71 correlated variability that degrades the accuracy of pooled sensory signals that can be extracted from V1  
72 by a traditional linear decoder. However, our discovery of its feedback origin points to the possibility that  
73 the brain can, in principle, outperform such a decoder by exploiting knowledge of the changing state of

74 downstream brain areas when decoding V1 activity. Next, we show quantitatively that these feedback  
75 dynamics are the primary source of the choice-related activity we observe in V1, clarifying an ongoing  
76 debate about the origin of choice-related signals in sensory neurons.

77

## 78 **Results**

79 We trained two rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*) to perform different versions of a two-  
80 alternative forced choice (2AFC) coarse orientation discrimination task (Fig. 1), used previously<sup>18</sup>. On a  
81 given trial, the subject was shown a dynamic, 2D filtered noise stimulus for a fixed duration of 2 seconds,  
82 after which it had to make a saccade to one of two choice targets to report the stimulus orientation. The  
83 discriminanda were always an orthogonal pair of orientations (for instance, horizontal and vertical). This  
84 pair defined the “task context” and was explicitly cued using two oriented Gabor patches as the choice  
85 targets. The stimuli were bandpass filtered in the Fourier domain to include only orientations within a  
86 predetermined range. On a given trial, the stimulus filter was centered on one of the two discriminandum  
87 orientations and its orientation bandwidth was varied to modulate task difficulty. The stimulus was  
88 placed over the joint receptive field of the population of V1 neurons being recorded. We included 0%-  
89 signal trials for which the stimuli were unfiltered for orientation. These were statistically identical across  
90 task contexts, allowing us to examine the effect of task context on  $r_{sc}$  in the presence of a fixed retinal  
91 input.

92 Our approach relied on being able to detect changes in  $r_{sc}$  structure that depended on the task  
93 context. Thus it was critical that the subjects in fact based their choices on the presence of the cued set of  
94 orientations. To ensure this, we used psychophysical reverse correlation<sup>18–20</sup> (PRC; see Methods) to  
95 directly measure the influence of different stimulus orientations on the subject’s choices (the  
96 “psychophysical kernel”). We found that subjects required multiple days of retraining after a change in  
97 the task context to fully update their psychophysical kernel. For this reason, we kept the task context

98 fixed for the duration of each recording session, and excluded sessions from the analysis if subjects failed  
99 to demonstrate an appropriate kernel (Supplementary Fig. 1).

100 We hypothesized that the pattern of correlated variability in V1 is generated by task-related  
101 feedback dynamics. We specifically considered the possibility that a feedback signal is alternatingly  
102 targeted towards neurons that represent the two orientations the animal must choose between, introducing  
103 a particular pattern of correlated fluctuations in V1 that depends on orientation preference. A key  
104 motivation for this hypothesis is the observation of correlations between neuronal variability and choice  
105 in V1 neurons during performance of this task. While the initial interpretation of choice-related activity  
106 was that it reflects the feedforward influence of neuronal variability on choice<sup>21–26</sup>, several recent studies  
107 suggest choice-related activity may be an effect of choice on sensory neurons via feedback<sup>27,28</sup>. A  
108 feedback origin of choice-related activity necessarily implies the presence of task-related feedback  
109 signals, such that on trials when the subject reports orientation 1, feedback excites V1 neurons preferring  
110 orientation 1, and so forth. However, similar predictions also arise from considering the effect of  
111 fluctuations across trials in the allocation of feature-based attention<sup>27</sup> or Bayesian priors<sup>29</sup> during a 2AFC  
112 task. Therefore the presence of task-dependent  $r_{sc}$  structure would, on its own, be consistent with a range  
113 of feedback mechanisms with potentially diverse functional roles, as we discuss later.

114 To make quantitative predictions for the effect of task-related feedback on correlated fluctuations  
115 in V1, we parameterize the hypothesized feedback in V1 as a sinusoidal function of preferred orientation  
116 with a peak and trough at the discriminandum orientations, such that the effect on V1 firing rates at a  
117 given instant is simply a scalar multiple of this function<sup>30</sup>. Examples for two task contexts (cardinal and  
118 oblique discrimination) are shown in Fig. 2d,e. This parameterization makes a specific, testable  
119 prediction for the way  $r_{sc}$  will vary as a function of pairwise preferred orientation (i.e. the “ $r_{sc}$  matrix”). In  
120 particular it defines a mode of covariability in V1 which is equivalent to an eigenvector of the  $r_{sc}$  matrix.  
121 Assuming it is the only eigenvector, the predicted  $r_{sc}$  matrix exhibits a lattice-like pattern (Fig. 2b,c)  
122 characterized by high  $r_{sc}$  values for pairs preferring the same discriminandum orientation (within-pool

123 pairs), low values for pairs preferring opposite discriminandum orientations (between-pool pairs), and  
124 average values for pairs that are not task-relevant. Because any additional source of global V1  
125 fluctuations (such as arousal) would introduce positive correlations amongst all neurons, the average  
126 magnitude of  $r_{sc}$  is unconstrained. Crucially, the predicted pattern changes systematically with the task,  
127 such that the peaks and troughs in correlation are always aligned to the discriminandum orientations. This  
128 amounts to a shift in the  $r_{sc}$  structure between the two matrices along the diagonal by an amount matching  
129 the change in the task context.

130         The predominant view that the structure of  $r_{sc}$  in a sensory area is primarily determined by noise  
131 in common afferent inputs yields a different prediction for the  $r_{sc}$  matrix: a diagonal banded structure (X),  
132 in which  $r_{sc}$  depends only on the similarity in orientation preference between a given pair. This pattern  
133 (known as a “limited-range” correlation structure) is thought to be due to the anatomical convergence of  
134 afferent inputs to neurons with similar stimulus preferences<sup>10–12</sup> and has been postulated as the critical  
135 organizational logic of  $r_{sc}$  in sensory neurons<sup>3–5,31</sup>. Crucially, limited-range correlations should be  
136 invariant to the changes in task context since they depend only on noise in the afferent pathway. A main  
137 motivation for belief in limited-range correlations is the positive correlation between  $r_{sc}$  and similarity in  
138 stimulus tuning of neuronal pairs, including in V1<sup>2,10,11,13–15</sup>. However, this observation is also consistent  
139 with the pattern predicted by task-dependent feedback—on average, neurons with more similar  
140 orientation preference produce higher  $r_{sc}$  values under that prediction, as well (Fig. 2f). Therefore, only  
141 by measuring the full  $r_{sc}$  matrix across multiple task contexts, as the present study is the first to do, can  
142 these two hypotheses be distinguished.

143         We recorded extracellular spiking activity from populations of single V1 neurons using multi-  
144 electrode arrays. Neurons were excluded from analysis if they were not well orientation tuned, as  
145 determined in separate blocks of trials (see Methods). Yields varied across sessions, with a mean of 20  
146 simultaneously recorded pairs (from 5 cells) per session. The final dataset includes 811 simultaneously  
147 recorded pairs from 200 cells. For each pair, we calculated its  $r_{sc}$  value as the Pearson correlation

148 between trial-length spike counts in response to identical stimuli. Measuring  $r_{sc}$  using 0%-signal trials  
149 isolates any changes due to the task context. In practice, we found that measuring  $r_{sc}$  across all trials  
150 (after normalizing spike counts to remove rate changes due to the stimulus) did not qualitatively alter our  
151 main results (Supplementary Fig. 2) and increased statistical power, so this is what we report.

152

### 153 **$R_{sc}$ Structure Changes Systematically with the Task Context**

154 The results were striking:  $r_{sc}$  structure changed dramatically with task context, closely matching  
155 the prediction based on task-related feedback and inconsistent with  $r_{sc}$  structure primarily driven by  
156 afferent noise. To show this, we first divided the recording sessions into two groups based on the task  
157 context used (Fig. 3a). To estimate the  $r_{sc}$  matrix for a given subset of sessions, we combined data from  
158 pairs recorded across sessions. The location of a given  $r_{sc}$  value in the matrix was determined by the  
159 preferred orientations of the pair. We then applied a von Mises smoothing kernel to obtain a continuous,  
160 smooth measure of the rsc matrix.

161 We predicted that both matrices would contain a similar lattice-like pattern with peaks and  
162 troughs in  $r_{sc}$  that matched the within- and between-pool regions of the matrix. However, because the  
163 task context was different, this predicts patterns of  $r_{sc}$  shifted along the diagonal by an offset matching  
164 the change in the discriminandum orientations (Fig. 3b,c). Furthermore, the largest eigenvector of the two  
165 predicted matrices should resemble sinusoids with a peak and trough matching the two discriminandum  
166 orientations (Fig. 3d,e). The observed data matched both of these predictions. Peaks and troughs in  $r_{sc}$   
167 were markedly different among the two subsets of data, with both patterns resembling the prediction  
168 based on task-dependent feedback (Fig. 3f,g). Furthermore, the largest eigenvector of the two matrices  
169 resembled a sinusoid with a circular mean orientation that was not significantly deviated from the  
170 discriminanda (Fig. 3h,i).

171 The task-dependent  $r_{sc}$  structure in the data is most clearly evident by combining  $r_{sc}$  values from  
172 all 811 simultaneously recorded pairs. To illustrate this, we generated a task-aligned average  $r_{sc}$  matrix by  
173 expressing each neuron's preferred orientation relative to the two discriminandum orientations on its  
174 respective recording session. In this task-aligned coordinate frame,  $0^\circ$  and  $90^\circ$  always index the  
175 discriminandum orientations. We found that this task-aligned matrix contained a lattice pattern that  
176 almost precisely replicated the prediction based on the task-related feedback hypothesis (Fig. 4a,b).  
177 Furthermore, the first eigenvector (Fig. 4d) resembled a sinusoid with a peak not significantly different  
178 from  $0^\circ$ , demonstrating a striking degree of alignment across sessions between the structure of correlated  
179 variability in V1 and the subject's task. These features were also present in the task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix  
180 when computed separately for each subject (Supplementary Fig. 3), so we performed further analyses on  
181 the combined dataset. We found that the first eigenvalue of the task-aligned matrix was much greater  
182 than chance, suggesting the  $r_{sc}$  matrix is largely explained by its first eigenvector, again consistent with a  
183 single source of covariability that depended on the task (Fig. 4e). The chance distribution was obtained  
184 by randomly translating each individual  $r_{sc}$  measurement along the diagonal, ruling out the possibility  
185 that we observed a lattice pattern simply due to a diagonal ridge and sampling error ( $p < 0.005$ ,  
186 permutation test). Taken together, these results show that the V1  $r_{sc}$  matrix closely matched the prediction  
187 based on task-related feedback and does not primarily reflect limited-range correlations introduced by a  
188 fixed source of noise in shared sensory afferents.

189 We observed a different result during separate blocks of trials interleaved in the same recording  
190 sessions, during which the subject fixated passively for reward but the same set of stimuli was shown.  
191 During these blocks, the  $r_{sc}$  matrix could not be distinguished from a diagonal ridge (Fig. 5). This  
192 demonstrates that the dynamic changes observed during task performance depended on active task  
193 engagement, and could not be explained, for instance, simply as an effect of recent task experience. This  
194 is further evidence that trial-by-trial variation in feedback is responsible for the  $r_{sc}$  structure, rather than,  
195 for instance, slow time scale changes in local V1 circuitry. We also ruled out a number of potential

196 confounds related to the retinal input that could in principle have produced a task-dependent  $r_{sc}$  matrix,  
197 such as fixational eye movements and the effect of trial history, strengthening our interpretation that  
198 centrally-generated signals reflecting task engagement are responsible (see Supplementary Discussion §1  
199 and Supplementary Figs. 4-7).

## 200 **Segregating Fixed and Task-Aligned Components of $R_{sc}$ Structure**

201 The preceding analysis established that a substantial component of  $r_{sc}$  structure changes with task  
202 context. To better quantify this, and to determine if there is also a component that remains fixed, we  
203 turned to a statistical model. The model contained two components: a fixed component (an  $r_{sc}$  matrix for  
204 orientation that did not change with the task), and a task-aligned component (an  $r_{sc}$  matrix that did  
205 change). Each  $r_{sc}$  measurement was described as the sum of values at the appropriate points in the two  
206 matrices. For the fixed component, this location was determined by the raw orientation preferences of  
207 each pair. For the task-aligned component, it was determined using the preferences expressed relative to  
208 the discriminandum orientations. By construction, if  $r_{sc}$  depends only on the raw orientation preferences  
209 of neuronal pairs, with no effect of task context, then the model assigns large coefficients to the fixed  
210 component and coefficients of zero to the task-aligned component. If  $r_{sc}$  is entirely task-dependent, the  
211 reverse is true.

212 When fitted to the observed  $r_{sc}$  measurements, the task-aligned component of the model explained  
213 most of the explainable variance in the data (79%. Fig. 6a). Not surprisingly, its shape recapitulated the  
214 task-dependent lattice pattern in the observed data. The fixed component had a markedly smaller  
215 amplitude, with a less organized structure that did not clearly resemble a diagonal ridge (Fig. 6b).  
216 Removing the fixed component from the model altogether had little effect, while removing the task-  
217 aligned component dramatically impaired model performance (Fig. 6c). (We were able to reproduce these  
218 model results individually for data from one subject). This demonstrates that the majority of  $r_{sc}$  structure

219 in V1 changes dynamically with task instruction. We failed to reliably identify a fixed source of  $r_{sc}$   
220 structure, such as the limited-range correlations postulated in prior studies, during task performance.

221

## 222 **Effect of Task-Dependent $R_{sc}$ Structure on Neural Coding**

223 Spike-count correlations in sensory neurons are typically studied with the view that they are a  
224 source of noise that impacts the ability of a downstream brain area to decode a sensory input. Our results  
225 show that the predominant source of  $r_{sc}$  structure in V1 is top-down in origin V1, at least during  
226 performance of a discrimination task. Therefore, the impact on decoding depends crucially on whether  
227 the spikes in V1 generated by feedback act as an additional source of sensory noise or can in some way  
228 be taken into account by the decoder. To clarify this distinction, consider two decoding schemes. The  
229 first (“purely sensory decoder”) is applied to the activity of V1 neurons only, and so cannot differentiate  
230 different sources of correlation. The second (“extended decoder”) is applied to the activity of V1 neurons  
231 and the activity of the feedback connections arriving in V1. If there are variations in the activity of  
232 feedback connections, the extended decoder can perform much better than a purely sensory decoder by  
233 effectively discounting the spikes in V1 that are generated by feedback. Since our results imply that that  
234 there is variation in the activity of feedback connections during psychophysical tasks, it follows that  
235 current analyses, almost exclusively based on the assumption of purely sensory decoders, may be  
236 misleading.

237 Since we do not know whether the brain has access to extended decoders, we investigated the  
238 impact of the observed  $r_{sc}$  structure under the assumption that extended decoding is not used. Assuming  
239 the brain uses “purely sensory” decoders and optimal linear readout weights, it is known<sup>32</sup> that a  
240 particular  $r_{sc}$  structure places a strict upper bound on decoding accuracy. These so-called “differential”  
241 correlations are those that resemble the correlations produced by changes in the stimulus along the axis  
242 defining the task. When stimulus-independent correlations share this structure, they are indistinguishable

243 from task-relevant stimulus changes and hence confound subjects' judgments. We examined the structure  
244 of differential correlations in our data set by comparing the mean responses of each neuronal pair to the  
245 various stimuli used in the task. Specifically the differential correlation for a pair is given by the product  
246 of the slopes of the mean responses as a function of signal strength (Fig. 7a)<sup>32</sup>. We then plotted these  
247 values as a matrix indexed by task-aligned preferred orientation (Fig. 7b). This showed a lattice-like  
248 pattern strikingly similar to the observed  $r_{sc}$  matrix (Fig. 4b). Confirming this similarity, the task-aligned  
249 component of  $r_{sc}$  structure identified by the regression model was highly correlated on a pair-by-pair  
250 basis with the differential correlations ( $r=0.62$ , Fig. 7c). In other words, the structure of stimulus-  
251 independent covariability in the V1 population was closely similar to the structure of covariability  
252 introduced by stimulus variation. In a sense this is not surprising since the  $r_{sc}$  structure reflects feedback  
253 that is matched to the task. However, this implies that task-related feedback may have the consequence of  
254 contaminating the sensory representation in V1. Critically, this implication depends on the assumption  
255 that the decoder knows nothing about the feedback (a "purely sensory" decoder). While this assumption  
256 is currently widespread, our results suggest it may be highly misleading.

257

## 258 **Relationship between $R_{sc}$ Structure and Perceptual Choice**

259 We found significant choice-related activity in the V1 population during performance of the task,  
260 similar to a recent study. For each neuron, we calculated its Choice Probability (CP), a metric which  
261 quantifies the probability with which an ideal observer could correctly predict the subject's choice from  
262 that neuron's trial-by-trial variability<sup>33,34</sup>. Across the population, we found an average CP of 0.54 for  
263 task-relevant neurons, significantly above chance level (Fig. 8a), and similar in magnitude to reports from  
264 another study using the same task<sup>18</sup>.

265 Currently, the source of CP in sensory neurons is not well understood, despite its ubiquity. The  
266 traditional view is that it reflects the influence of neuronal variability on choice<sup>21-26</sup>. However, recent

267 studies suggest that at least some of CP is due to a feedback effect of choice on sensory neurons<sup>27,28</sup>.  
268 Theoretical studies have emphasized that CP in a population of sensory neurons is closely related to the  
269 structure of spike-count correlation<sup>8,9,34,35</sup>. Simply put, if many sensory neurons have variability that is  
270 correlated with choice, then this implies the variability of individual neurons is also correlated. It follows  
271 that there exist correlated fluctuations in the V1 population that relate to the subject's choices in our task.  
272 However, the relationship to choice could reflect one or both of two directions of causality: 1) correlated  
273 fluctuations directly affect the choices a subject makes trial to trial (a feedforward source of CP); or 2)  
274 the correlated fluctuations reflect variation across trials in a feedback signal related to the upcoming  
275 choice (a feedback source).

276 Our detailed measures of  $r_{sc}$  structure during performance of a discrimination task allow us to  
277 make significant progress in addressing the origin of choice-related activity. We reasoned that a feedback  
278 effect of CP would predict an attenuated  $r_{sc}$  structure across trial in which the subject made the same  
279 choice. We found a significant, but very modest, attenuation (about 3%). Similarly, the  $r_{sc}$  structure was  
280 also attenuated on high-signal trials relative to 0% signal trials, in a manner which depended weakly, but  
281 systematically, with the strength of the signal (Supplementary Fig. 2). This is also consistent with a  
282 feedback source of CP, since there is naturally less variability in choice on trials with high signal. These  
283 data suggest an involvement of feedback related to choice in generating the  $r_{sc}$  structure in V1, but also  
284 rule out a simple post-decisional mechanism in which the state of feedback is perfectly correlated with  
285 the final report. Consistent with this interpretation, we found that the rsc structure, when calculated using  
286 spikes from 200-ms bins during the trial, showed a relatively stable timecourse that did not grow in  
287 amplitude with decision formation (Supplementary Fig. 8). We conclude that the task-related feedback  
288 relays information related to but not determined by the final report, such as biases, the decision variable,  
289 or attention to orientation.

290 Next, we considered the possibility that CP partially reflects the feedforward influence of  
291 correlated fluctuations on choice. We made use of the known, but untested, relationship between the

292 spike-count correlations for a pool of sensory neurons, their (linear) readout weights, and their CPs that  
293 follows from assuming a feedforward “purely sensory” decoder<sup>8</sup>. Our novel approach of measuring the  
294 entire  $r_{sc}$  matrix during task performance allows us to test these predictions for the first time.  
295 Furthermore, our separation of the  $r_{sc}$  structure into putatively feedforward and feedback components  
296 allows us to distinguish components of CP due to the influence on choice of each of these potential  
297 sources of correlated variability. If the fixed component alone could explain CP, this would be  
298 compatible with the standard view that CP arises via the influence of sensory afferent noise on choice. If  
299 a task-aligned component is necessary, it indicates that CP requires the presence of task-related feedback.

300 To perform this analysis, we made the assumption that choices are based on a V1 population of  
301 infinite size and that neurons are defined only by their preferred orientation. We can then define neuronal  
302 CP as a continuous function of task-aligned preferred orientation (Fig. 8b), similar to how we define the  
303  $r_{sc}$  matrix in Fig. 4e. To obtain this full CP profile for the V1 population, we again combine measures  
304 across sessions. We found that the relationship between CP and preferred orientation followed a  
305 predictable pattern: CPs were highest for task-relevant neurons (those with preferred orientation close to  
306 one of the discriminandum orientations) and were at chance level for neurons that were not task-relevant.

307 We then made a quantitative prediction for the CP profile that would be observed given a linear  
308 readout of the V1 population characterized by the  $r_{sc}$  matrix observed during task performance (Fig. 8b).  
309 We found that the predicted profile closely matched what we observed empirically, the first quantitative  
310 demonstration that feedforward pooling is consistent with experimentally observed measurements of  $r_{sc}$   
311 structure and CP. There were two sets of free parameters: the readout weights applied to neurons at each  
312 preferred orientation and a uniform scaling factor reflecting the possibility of decision noise after the  
313 pooling stage. The readout weights were unobserved, but all results we report were insensitive to the  
314 readout weights. The pooling noise term was fit to the data. (see Method, Supplementary Discussion and  
315 Supplementary Fig. 10).

316           Next, we repeated these predictions using each component of the  $r_{sc}$  structure (“fixed” and “task-  
317 aligned”) independently, keeping the pooling noise term fixed. We found that we could predict most of  
318 the observed CP (82% of its overall magnitude) using only the task-aligned component, while the fixed  
319 component alone could explain only a small fraction (Fig. 8c,d). (This does not follow necessarily from  
320 the larger amplitude of the task-aligned component, but depends crucially on the pattern of correlation.)  
321 This finding rules out the possibility that CP is primarily generated by the feedforward effect of noise in  
322 sensory afferents on perceptual decisions. Instead, CP is primarily generated by the task-related feedback  
323 signals that generate the dynamic pattern of  $r_{sc}$  in the population. The success of the feedforward  
324 predictions for explaining the observed CP shows that we cannot exclude the possibility that CP arises  
325 partially through the feedforward effect on choice of the correlated fluctuations introduced by feedback,  
326 although the dependence of the  $r_{sc}$  structure on variability in choice suggests that feedback already  
327 contains information about the upcoming report. Thus our results shed new light on the origin of choice-  
328 related activity while also, in a sense, muddying the distinction between feedforward and feedback  
329 pathways that are causally responsible. One possible interpretation of the data, consistent with other  
330 reports<sup>29,36</sup>, is that CP reflects a self-reinforcing loop in which decision-related feedback generates  
331 correlated fluctuations in V1 that in turn influence the decision. Assessing this possibility will require  
332 future experiments to better understand the information conveyed by task-related feedback signals and  
333 may require knowing whether the brain in fact has access to “extended” decoders.

334

## 335 **Discussion**

336           Correlations in the variability of sensory neurons may have profound implications for the way  
337 sensory information is encoded in the brain. However, attempts to study this typically take the view that  
338 correlated variability reflects stochastic noise accumulating in afferent pathways. In the present study, we  
339 show that the pattern of correlated variability in V1 is almost entirely dependent on the task context,

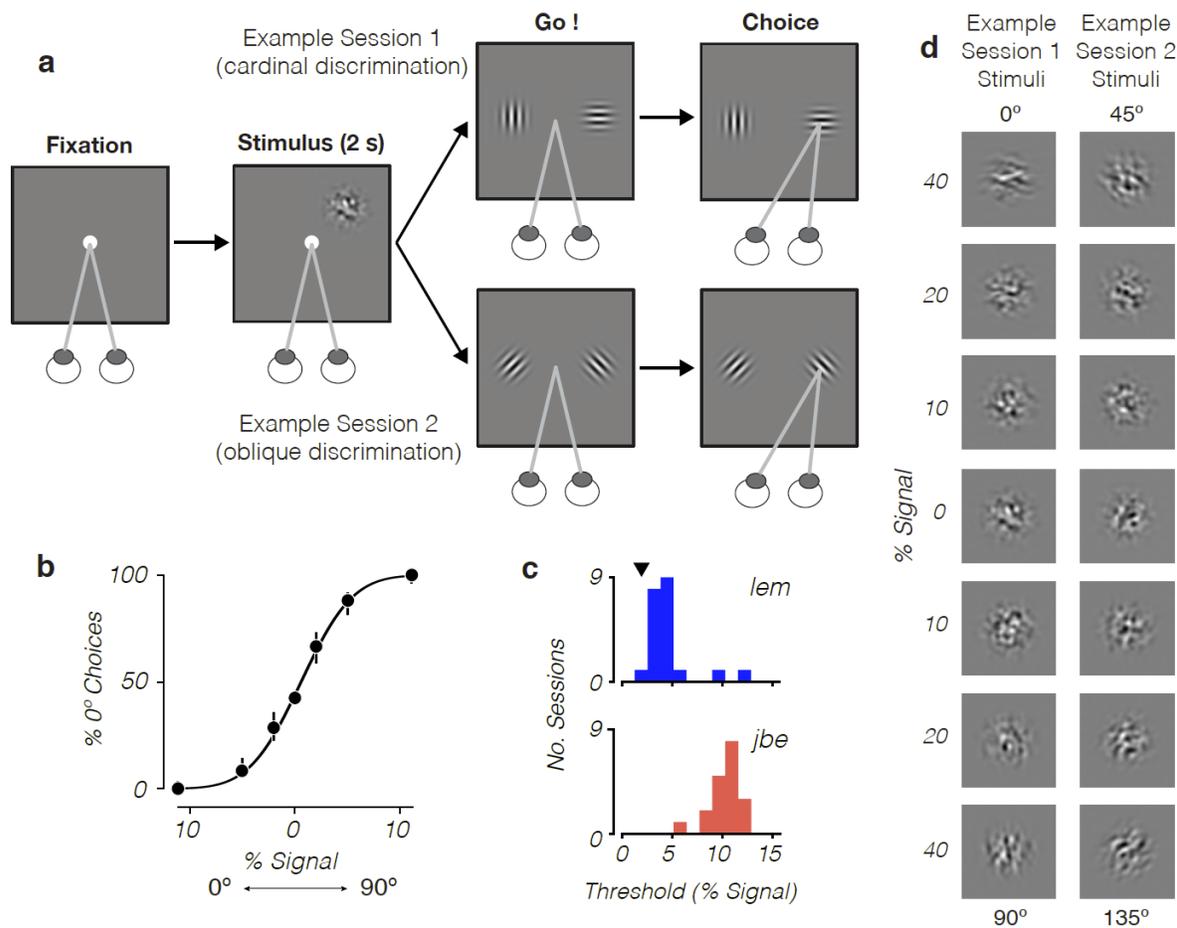
340 independent of any changes in retinal input. This demonstrates that  $r_{sc}$  structure reflects an important  
341 source of feedback that is not well characterized as “noise”. This finding has profound implications for  
342 the way we think about sensory processing in the brain. First, it points to the importance of considering  
343 the interconnectedness of cortical areas as a crucial aspect of the way sensory information is encoded and  
344 decoded by the brain. As a result, strict hierarchical notions of “feedforward” and “feedback” do not  
345 adequately capture how sensory input is processed. Strikingly, this appears to be the case even at the  
346 earliest stage of cortical processing for vision in the primate.

347         Furthermore, studies examining the impact of correlated variability on the fidelity of the brain’s  
348 sensory representations have typically assumed that the brain applies decoders in a purely feedforward  
349 fashion: sensory input is encoded in the activity of a given population of neurons and subsequently read  
350 out downstream. However, this approach is ill-posed if  $r_{sc}$  is generated by variation in feedback signals,  
351 as the decoder may take into account the activity of neurons carrying the feedback signals (an “extended”  
352 decoder) to improve its performance. Our results demonstrate that such feedback modulation is a primary  
353 source of  $r_{sc}$  structure in V1, and therefore that the brain may benefit from “extended” decoding. In  
354 principle, this could be straightforward to implement: since we observed that the effect of feedback  
355 variability on V1 resembled the effect of changing the stimulus along the task axis (“differential  
356 correlations”), the subject could simply adjust its criterion trial-by-trial to remove the impact of the  
357 correlated variability on performance.

358         Our results may at first appear to contrast with reports about the influence of spatial attention on  
359  $r_{sc}$ <sup>37–39</sup>. In those studies, context-dependent changes in  $r_{sc}$  appeared to improve the accuracy with which a  
360 model (“purely sensory”) decoder could reconstruct the stimulus, suggesting that top-down input can act  
361 as a control signal that modulates  $r_{sc}$  in a sensory brain area specifically to improve the signal-to-noise  
362 ratio of relevant sensory signals. By contrast, the data presented here suggest that  $r_{sc}$  can be, in the first  
363 place, a consequence of variation in feedback inputs that change with a subject’s task. Bridging this  
364 apparent gap, a recent reanalysis<sup>40</sup> of neuronal data from one of those studies<sup>38</sup> suggests this may also be

365 the mechanism by which spatial attention operates. The new study revealed that the reduction in  $r_{sc}$  under  
366 spatial attention could be explained by an attenuation of the ongoing variability of a small number of  
367 common gain-modulating inputs, presumably feedback in origin. This is consistent with the view that  
368 spatial attention defines a condition under which downstream computation changes, and therefore may  
369 not be aimed at improving the sensory representation in sensory cortex.

370 Finally, we ask: what function do the task-dependent changes in  $r_{sc}$  reported here serve,  
371 particularly as they appear not to provide any improvement in the sensory representation contained in  
372 V1? While the form of these modulations is consistent with known feedback mechanisms—e.g.  
373 fluctuations in the allocation of feature-based attention and/or choice-related feedback—the potentially  
374 problematic effect of the correlated fluctuations they introduce speaks to the need for a principled,  
375 normative explanation, beyond reference simply to “downstream computation”. We argue that taking the  
376 view of perception as probabilistic inference may provide such an explanation. A companion paper in  
377 this issue<sup>41</sup> lays out the proposal that this computation is implemented in sensory neurons themselves,  
378 such that activation of a sensory neuron reflects both sensory input and prior beliefs about the presence of  
379 its preferred feature in the scene. In the context of our 2AFC task, a subject’s prior belief of a particular  
380 orientation being presented is concentrated bimodally around the two discriminandum orientations. It  
381 follows that trial-to-trial fluctuations in the prior will introduce task-dependent patterns of correlated  
382 variability in V1 similar to what we have reported. Impressively, this framework succeeds both in  
383 generating quantitative predictions that match many of the results reported here with few free parameters,  
384 and in providing a normative account for these data. Thus, we conclude that an intriguing interpretation  
385 of our findings deserving further study is that the structure of correlated variability in sensory cortex  
386 reflects an adaptive integration of incoming sensory input with prior knowledge about the structure of the  
387 world.

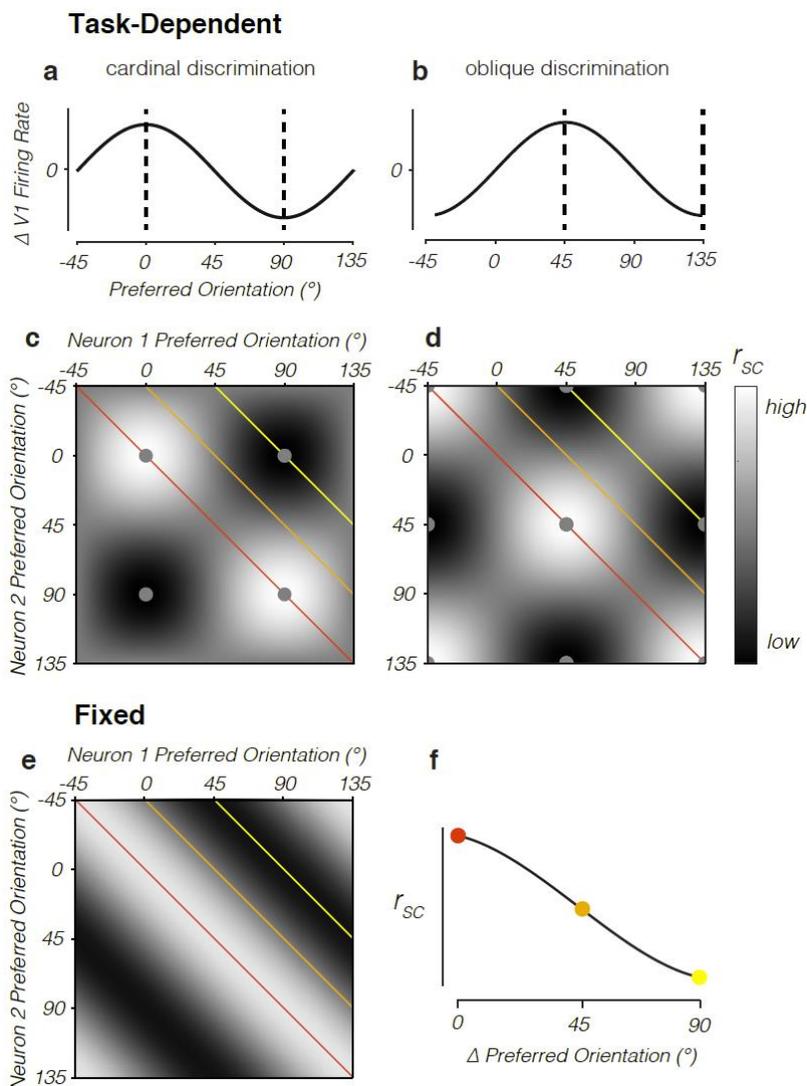


388

389 **Figure 1. Orthogonal orientation discrimination task.** **a.** Schematic illustration of the task. After the  
 390 subject acquired fixation, a dynamic, filtered noise stimulus appeared for a fixed duration of 2 s. Then the  
 391 subject had to saccade to the one of two orthogonal choice targets (Gabor patches) whose orientation  
 392 matched the stimulus. Two example task contexts shown (cardinal and oblique discriminations). The task  
 393 context was fixed in a given recording session, but varied across sessions. **b.** Psychometric function for  
 394 monkey 'lem', example session. Black curve is a probit fit, and error bars are 95% confidence intervals. **c.**  
 395 Histograms showing the distribution of psychometric thresholds across sessions for the two subjects.  
 396 Thresholds were defined as the signal level eliciting 75% correct performance. Black triangle indicates the  
 397 threshold corresponding to the example session in (b). **d.** Example single stimulus frames corresponding  
 398 to the two example task contexts in (a). The stimuli consisted of dynamic, white noise filtered in the Fourier  
 399 domain for orientation (see Methods). The filter was centered on one of the two discriminandum  
 400 orientations and its bandwidth determined signal strength. A given trial consisted of many frames of

401 independent noise with a fixed filter. 0% signal stimuli were unfiltered for orientation and were statistically  
402 identical across task contexts.

403



**Figure 2. Predictions for Task-Dependent and Fixed Sources of  $r_{sc}$  structure. a-b.** We hypothesize the presence of task-related feedback that selectively targets the two subpopulations of neurons tuned for the discriminandum orientations, alternating in its allocation across trials. These feedback dynamics are parameterized using a sinusoidal function of preferred orientation, with a peak and trough at the discriminanda. The effect on V1 firing rates on a given trial is a scalar multiple of this function. Examples for cardinal and oblique discrimination shown.

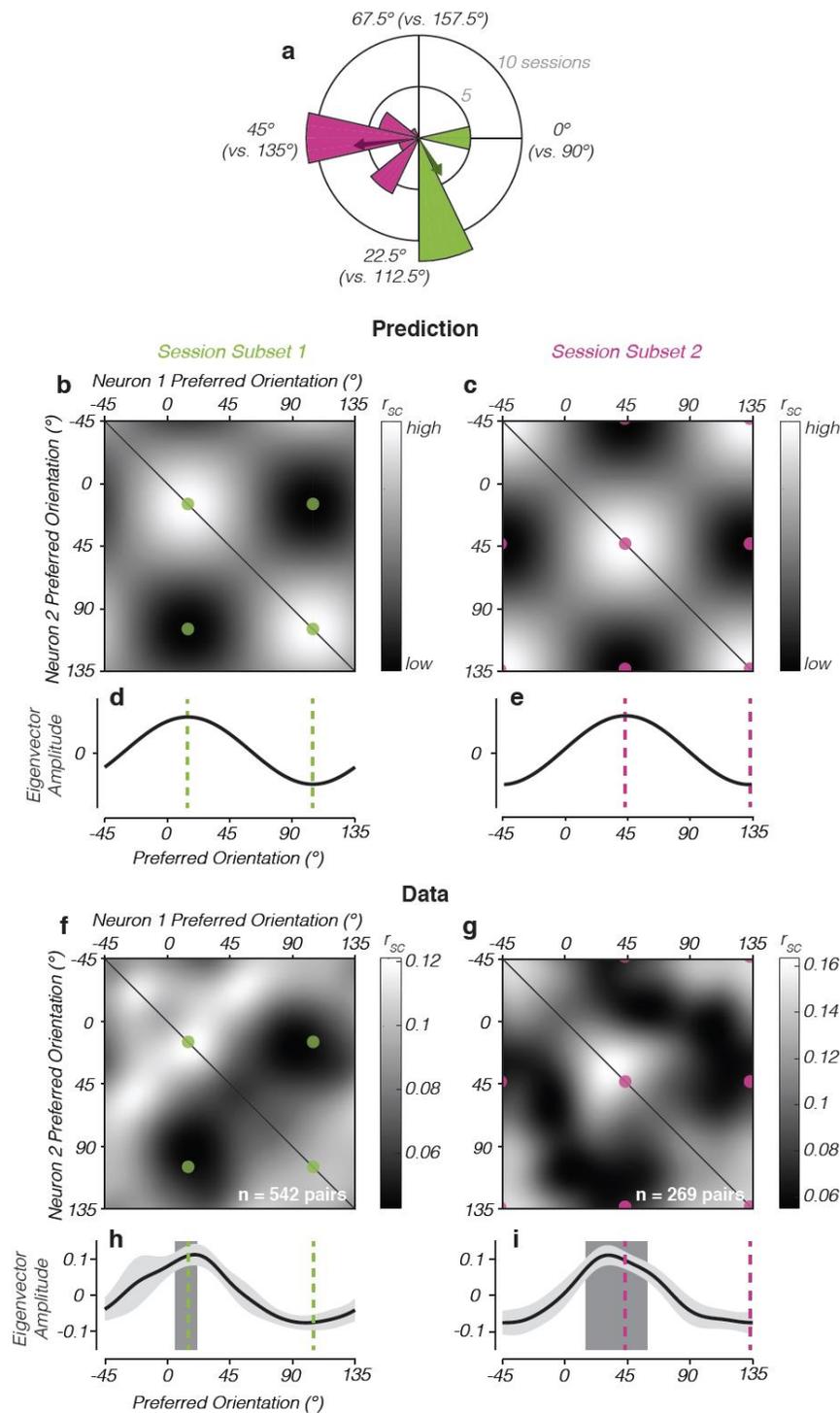
419 Dashed lines indicate the discriminanda. **c-d.** Task-related feedback, as illustrated in (a) and (b), introduces  
 420 correlated fluctuations amongst pairs of V1 neurons that depend on pairwise orientation preference, and  
 421 which change systematically with the task context. We illustrate these dependencies using  $r_{sc}$  matrices  
 422 indexed by neuronal preferred orientation. The structure in the matrices is given simply as the outer product  
 423 of the sinusoidal functions in (a) and (b). In both cases, the result is a lattice-like pattern in the  $r_{sc}$  matrix,  
 424 offset along the diagonal such that peaks and troughs in  $r_{sc}$  are aligned to the regions of the matrix indicating  
 425 pairs preferring the same and opposite discriminandum orientations. These regions are marked by the black  
 426 and white circles, respectively. Colored lines indicate a constant difference in neuronal preferred  
 427 orientation ( $\Delta$  preferred orientation: 0 (red), 45 (orange), and 90 (yellow)). **e.** The traditional view is that  
 428  $r_{sc}$  structure reflects a fixed source of stochastic afferent noise. Given the known anatomy of afferent input,

429 this is thought to generate “limited-range” correlations that decrease as a function of difference in stimulus  
430 preference (in this case for orientation), as illustrated here. Colored lines are as in (c-d). **f.** All predicted  $r_{sc}$   
431 matrices (c-e) contain an identical downward-sloping relationship between  $r_{sc}$  and  $\Delta$  preferred orientation.  
432 Thus, they cannot be distinguished using existing experimental observations relating  $r_{sc}$  and similarity in  
433 stimulus preference.

434

435

436

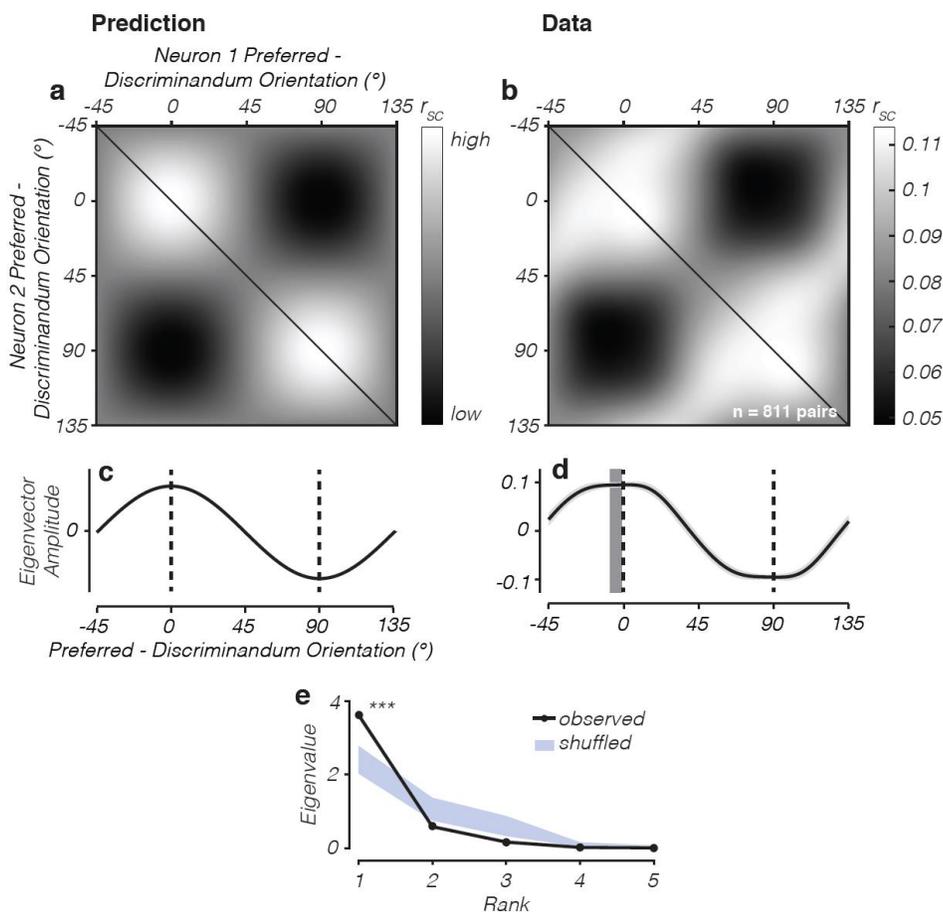


**Figure 3.  $R_{sc}$  structure in V1 depends systematically on task context.** **a.** To test for task-dependent changes in  $r_{sc}$  structure, we divided the set of recording sessions into two groups based on the set of discriminanda (task context) used. Polar histogram shows the distribution of task contexts used across sessions, with color indicating the division into two subsets. Note that the period of these angular variables is  $90^\circ$  because of the inherent orthogonality of the task. Colored arrows indicate the mean task context associated with each subset. **b-c.** The hypothesis that task-related feedback introduces task-dependent  $r_{sc}$  structure predicts a distinct  $r_{sc}$  matrix associated with

457 the two subsets of sessions. The locations in the matrix where peaks and troughs in  $r_{sc}$  are predicted are  
 458 highlighted with colored circles. These correspond to the mean discriminandum orientations indicated with  
 459 arrows in (a). **d-e.** The sole eigenvectors of the matrices in (b) and (c) have peaks and troughs aligned to  
 460 the mean set of discriminandum orientations associated with each subset (vertical lines). **f-g.** Observed  $r_{sc}$   
 461 matrices for the two subsets of sessions. These are obtained by combining  $r_{sc}$  measurements made across

462 the set of sessions in each subset and applying smoothing. The observed structure is distinct across the two  
463 matrices, corresponding to the predictions in (b-c). Peaks and troughs in  $r_{sc}$  closely match the predicted  
464 locations highlighted by the colored dots. **h-i.** The rank-1 eigenvector for the two matrices in (f) and (g) in  
465 each case closely resembled a sinusoid whose phase matches the task context. Light gray shaded region  
466 indicates +/- 1 bootstrap s.e. Dark gray vertical bar indicates the peak in the eigenvector (the angle of its  
467 mean resultant vector) +/- 1 bootstrap s.e. In neither case was the peak significantly different from one of  
468 the discriminandum orientations.

469

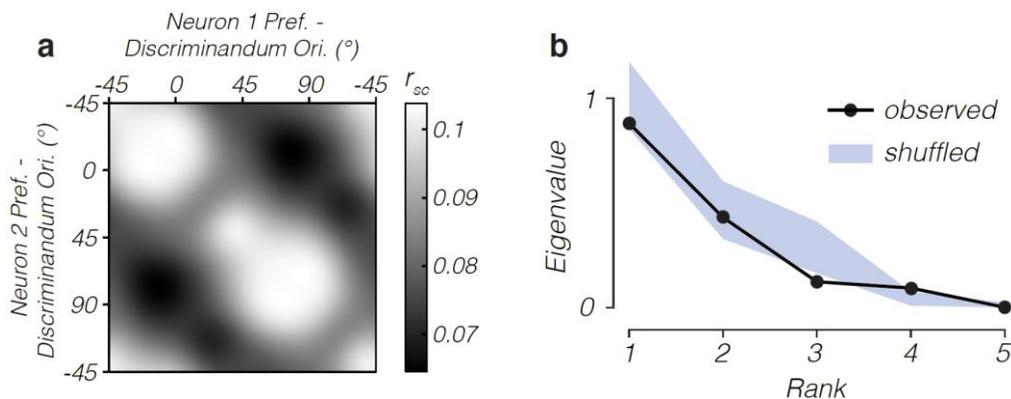


470

471 **Figure 4. Task-Aligned Summary  $R_{sc}$  Matrix.** **a.** To illustrate the task-dependent pattern of  $r_{sc}$   
472 structure, we combined data from all recorded sessions and generated an  $r_{sc}$  matrix in which each pair's  
473 preferred orientations were expressed relative to the discriminandum orientations on the session they  
474 were recorded. In this task-aligned coordinate frame,  $0^\circ$  and  $90^\circ$  always index the discriminandum  
475 orientations. (a) shows the prediction for the form of this task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix based on the hypothesis  
476 of task-related feedback (data identical to Fig. 2c). (b) shows the observed task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix, which  
477 included all recorded pairs, and was smoothed identically to the data in Fig. 3. (c) and (d). The rank-1  
478 eigenvectors of the predicted and observed  $r_{sc}$  matrices in (a) and (b) are closely similar. Shaded regions  
479 in (d) indicate  $\pm 1$  bootstrap s.e. as in Fig. 3. The peak in the eigenvector in (d) was not significantly  
480 different from 0, indicating good alignment between the dynamic pattern of  $r_{sc}$  in V1 and the subject's  
481 task. (e) Eigenspectrum for the observed matrix in (b). Most of the variance in the matrix was explained  
482 by its rank-1 eigenvector (shown in d), significantly more than would be predicted by chance ( $p < 0.001$ ,

483 resampling test). Chance level was determined by randomly permuting the preferred orientations of the  
484 neurons. This demonstrates that the  $r_{sc}$  structure in V1 can be largely explained by a single mode of  
485 covariability that is determined by the task context, confirming the prediction based on task-related  
486 feedback.

487

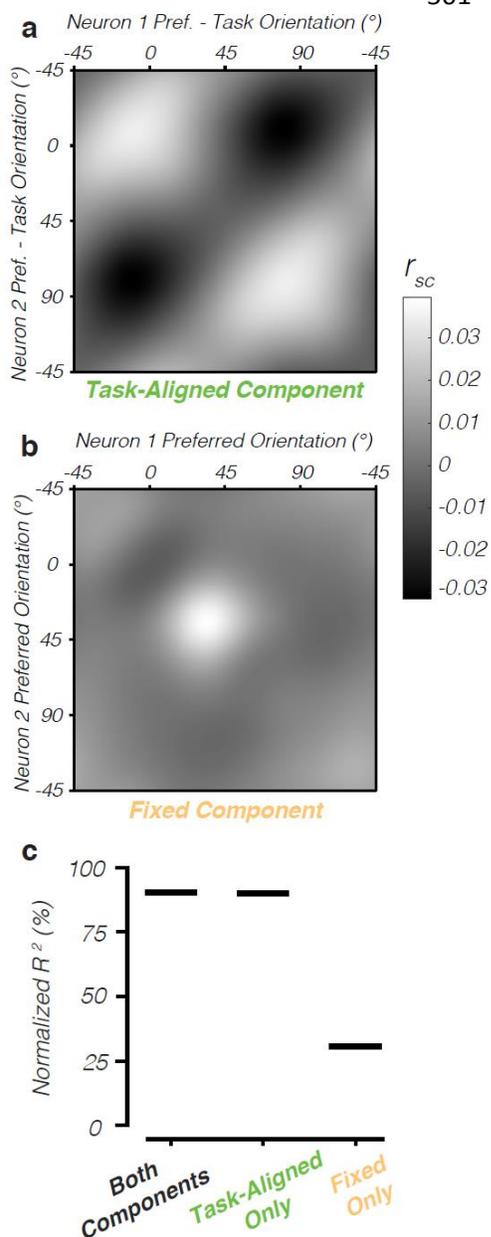


488

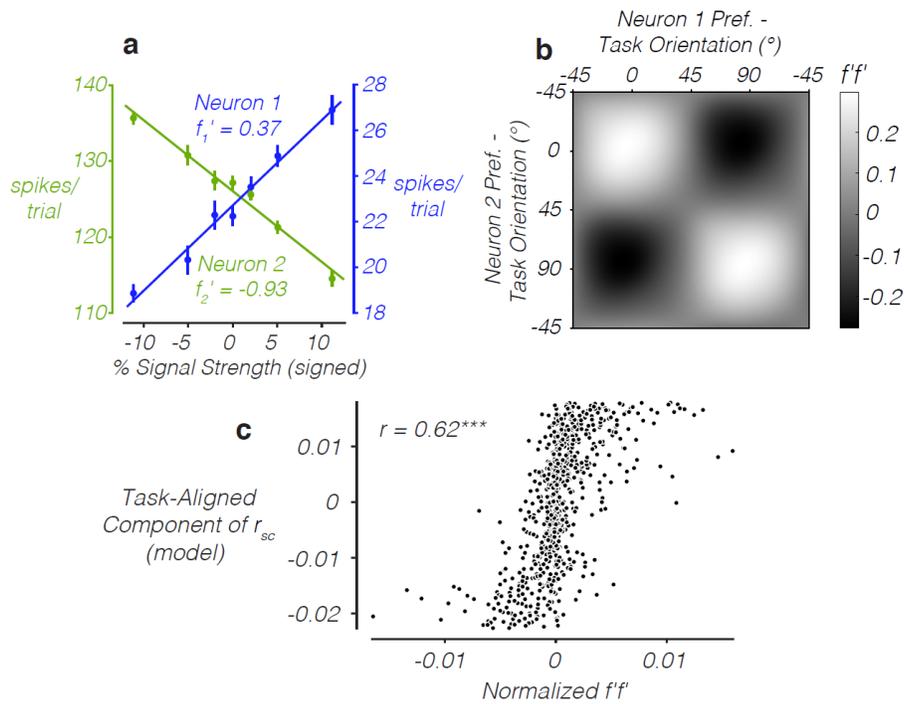
489 **Figure 5. Task-dependent  $r_{sc}$  structure absent during passive fixation.** **a.** Lattice pattern was absent in  
490 the task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix during separate blocks of trials used to measure neuronal orientation tuning,  
491 during which the animal fixated passively for reward (matrix obtained as in Fig. 4b). Instead, the pattern  
492 in the matrix more closely resembled a fixed diagonal ridge, demonstrating that the task-dependent changes  
493 in  $r_{sc}$  structure observed during task performance depend on active task engagement.  $R_{sc}$  values were  
494 calculated only using interleaved presentations of the 0%-signal orientation-filtered noise stimulus, to  
495 facilitate comparison with the  $r_{sc}$  matrix observed during task performance. Data from only 556 pairs are  
496 shown, as not all recording sessions included fixation blocks with the 0%-signal filtered noise stimuli  
497 interleaved. **b.** The first eigenvalue of the  $r_{sc}$  matrix in (a) was not significantly above chance, unlike during  
498 task performance (Fig. 4) and inconsistent with the prediction based on task-dependent feedback. (Note  
499 that the eigenvalues are smaller than in Fig. 4e because the variance within the matrix in (a) is smaller.)

500

501

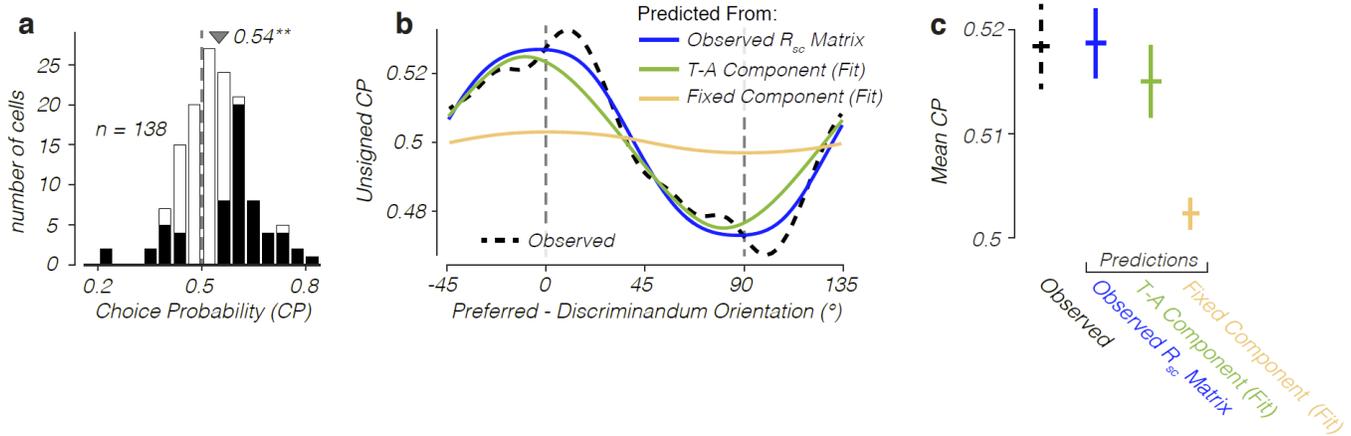


**Figure 6. Segregating “fixed” and “task-aligned” components of  $r_{sc}$  structure. a-b.** The two components of observed  $r_{sc}$  structure, jointly estimated using multilinear regression. The amplitude of the “task-aligned” component is larger than the “fixed” component, showing the majority of  $r_{sc}$  structure changes with the subject’s task. Note that preferences for the task-aligned component, but not the fixed component, are expressed relative to the discriminandum orientations. Mean values are close to 0 due to the inclusion of a model constant. **c.** Goodness-of-fit for the joint model and two reduced models that included only one of the two components. Values are expressed relative to an estimate of the explainable variance in the data (see Methods). Removing the “task-aligned” component (but not the “fixed” component) dramatically reduced goodness-of-fit.



518

519 **Figure 7. Task-Related Feedback Introduces Differential Correlations.** **a.** Responses (mean  $\pm$  1  
520 s.e.) to the stimuli used in the task at various signal strengths for two example neurons. Calling these  
521 response functions  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ , the differential correlation for this pair is proportional to the product of the  
522 derivatives  $(f_1'f_2')^2$ . This product can be viewed as a metric of similarity in tuning for the task. Therefore,  
523 differential correlations are those that resemble the effect of changes in the stimulus along the axis  
524 defining the task. **b.** The matrix of  $ff'$  values, as a function of task-aligned pairwise orientation  
525 preference, obtained using kernel smoothing as in Fig. 4b. The lattice pattern is extremely similar to the  
526 structure of task-dependent  $r_{sc}$  we observed during task performance (Fig. 4b), suggesting task-related  
527 feedback introduces a source of differential correlation to the V1 population. **c.** Scatter plot of the task-  
528 aligned (putatively top-down) component of  $r_{sc}$  (Fig. 6a) against  $ff'$  values (normalized; see Methods) for  
529 each recorded neuronal pair. The two were highly correlated across the population ( $r=0.62$ ,  $p<10^{-5}$ ).



530

531 **Figure 8. The task-dependent component of  $r_{sc}$  structure accounts for choice-related activity. a.**

532 Histogram of observed CPs, from neurons significantly preferring one of the two discriminandum

533 orientations ( $d' > 0.9$  at highest signal level). The mean of 0.54 was significantly above chance (bootstrap

534 test, cell resampling,  $p < 0.01$ ). CPs that were individually significant ( $p < 0.05$ ; bootstrap test, trial

535 resampling) are shown in black. **b.** Observed (dashed) and predicted (solid) CP profiles, signed arbitrarily

536 with respect to the  $0^\circ$  choice. ( $CP > 0.5$  indicates greater firing on  $0^\circ$ -choice trials, and  $CP < 0.5$  indicates

537 greater firing on  $90^\circ$ -choice trials). The observed profile was obtained using data from all recorded neurons

538 and smoothed with a von Mises kernel that approximated a wrapped Gaussian with  $10^\circ$  s.d. The predicted

539 profiles were generated by applying a linear readout to V1 assuming different  $r_{sc}$  structures, as labeled (see

540 Methods). The profiles shown are averages of a large set generated from different assumed readout weight

541 profiles (see Supplementary Fig. 10), which introduced relatively little variability. The prediction using the

542 observed  $r_{sc}$  matrix (Fig. 4b) closely match the observed CP profile. This could be replicated with

543 predictions using only the task-aligned component (Fig. 6a), but not the fixed component (Fig. 6b),

544 demonstrating that the feedforward effect of fixed sources of  $r_{sc}$  structure was insufficient to explain the

545 observed magnitude of CP. **c.** Mean (rectified) CPs associated with the profiles in (b),  $\pm 1$  bootstrap s.e.

546 obtained by resampling from the data (gray bars). Note that the mean observed CP is lower here than in (a)

547 because all neurons are included, regardless of their orientation preference.

548

## 549 **Methods**

### 550 **Electrophysiology**

551 We recorded extracellular spiking activity from populations of V1 neurons in two awake, head-  
552 fixed rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*). Both monkeys were implanted with a head post and scleral  
553 search coils under general anaesthesia<sup>42</sup>. In monkey ‘*lem*’, a recording chamber was implanted over a  
554 craniotomy above the right occipital operculum, as described previously<sup>43</sup>, by which we introduced linear  
555 microelectrode arrays (U- and V-probes, Plexon; 24-contacts, 50 or 60  $\mu\text{m}$  spacing) at an angle  
556 approximately perpendicular to the cortical surface with a custom micro-drive. We positioned the linear  
557 arrays so that we roughly spanned the cortical sheet, as confirmed with current-source density analysis,  
558 and removed them after each recording session. In monkey ‘*jbe*’, a planar “Utah” array (Blackrock  
559 Microsystems; 96 electrodes 1mm in length inserted to target supragranular layers, 400  $\mu\text{m}$  spacing) was  
560 chronically implanted, also over the right occipital operculum. All procedures were performed in  
561 accordance with the U.S. Public Health Service Policy on the humane care and use of laboratory animals  
562 and all protocols were approved by the National Eye Institute Animal Care and Use Committee.

563 Broadband signals were digitized at 30 or 40 kHz and stored to disk. Spike sorting was performed  
564 offline using custom software in MATLAB<sup>®</sup>. First, spikes were detected using a voltage threshold  
565 applied to high-pass filtered signals. Next, triggered waveforms were projected into spaces defined either  
566 by principal components or similarity to a template. Clusters boundaries were finally estimated with a  
567 Gaussian mixture model, and then rigorously verified and adjusted by hand when needed. In the linear  
568 array recordings, spike sorting yield and quality was substantially improved by treating sets of three or  
569 four neighboring contacts as “n-trodes”. As this was not possible with the Utah array due to the greater  
570 interelectrode spacing, we excluded pairs of neurons recorded on the same electrode to avoid  
571 contamination by misclassification. Neurons from separate recording sessions were treated as  
572 independent. To reduce the possibility that a single neuron from the Utah array contributed to two  
573 datasets, we included only sessions that were separated by at least 48 hours (with a median separation of

574 5 days). We excluded from analysis those neurons whose mean evoked firing rate did not exceed 7  
575 spikes/second.

## 576 **Visual Stimuli**

577 All stimuli were presented binocularly on two gamma-corrected cathode ray tube (CRT) monitors  
578 viewed through a mirror haploscope, at 85 or 100Hz. The monitors subtended  $24.1^\circ \times 19.3^\circ$  of visual  
579 angle (1280 x 1024 pixels). The stimuli presented during performance of the discrimination task  
580 consisted of bandpass filtered dynamic white noise, as described previously<sup>18</sup>. Briefly, stimuli were  
581 filtered in the Fourier domain with a polar-separable Gaussian. The peak spatial frequency was  
582 optimized for the recorded neuronal population (1 and 4 cpd medians for '*lem*' and '*jbe*', respectively)  
583 while the peak orientation could take one of two orthogonal values the animal had to discriminate in a  
584 given session. The angular s.d. of the filter modulated the orientation bandwidth and was varied trial to  
585 trial. A 2D Gaussian contrast envelope was applied to the stimulus so that its spatial extent was as small  
586 as possible while still covering the minimum response fields of the neuronal populations being recorded.  
587 The median envelope s.d. was 0.6 degrees for both animals. The median stimulus eccentricity was 5.4  
588 degrees for '*lem*' and 0.5 degrees for '*jbe*'. In Fig. 1, we quantify orientation bandwidth as % signal  
589 strength. This was calculated as  $100 * R$ , where  $R$  is the length of the resultant vector associated with the  
590 angular component of the stimulus filter.

591 We estimated neuronal orientation preferences in separate blocks of trials, using 420-ms  
592 presentations of the following types of stimuli, presented at a range of orientations: 1) an orientation  
593 narrowband version of the stimulus described above ( $10^\circ$  angular s.d.); 2) sinusoidal gratings; and 3)  
594 circular patches of dynamic 1D noise patterns (random lines). The preferred orientation of a neuron was  
595 calculated as the circular mean of its orientation tuning curve. For each neuron, from among the set of  
596 tuning curves elicited by the different stimulus types described above, we chose as the final estimate of  
597 preferred orientation the one with the smallest standard error, obtained by resampling trials. We excluded

598 from further analysis all neurons where this exceeded  $5^\circ$ . On a subset of sessions, we also used these  
599 orientation-tuning blocks to present examples of the 0%-signal orientation-filtered noise stimuli. These  
600 were presented at the same location and size as during task performance, allowing us to calculate  $r_{sc}$   
601 structure in the absence of task engagement but with identical retinal input.

## 602 **Orientation Discrimination Task**

603 The animals performed a coarse orientation discrimination task using the orientation-filtered noise  
604 stimuli, as described previously<sup>18</sup>. To initiate a trial, the subject had to acquire a central fixation square.  
605 After a delay of 50 ms, the stimulus appeared for a fixed duration of 2 seconds. The trial was aborted if  
606 the subject broke fixation at any point during the stimulus presentation, defined as either 1) making a  
607 microsaccade covering a distance greater than a predefined threshold (typically  $0.5^\circ$ ) or 2) a deviation in  
608 mean eye position from the center of the fixation point of more than a predefined threshold, typically  
609  $0.7^\circ$ . At the end of the stimulus presentation, two choice targets appeared. These were Gabor patches of  
610  $2\text{-}3^\circ$  in spatial extent, oriented at each of the two discriminandum orientations. The locations of the  
611 choice targets depended on the task. For discriminandum pairs near horizontal and vertical ( $-22.5^\circ -$   
612  $+22.5^\circ$  and  $67.5^\circ - 112.5^\circ$ ), the choice targets were positioned along the vertical meridian, at an  
613 eccentricity of about  $3^\circ$ , with the more vertically-oriented target appearing always in the upper hemifield.  
614 For orientation pairs near the obliques ( $22.5^\circ - 67.5^\circ$  and  $112.5^\circ - 157.5^\circ$ ), the choice targets were  
615 positioned along the horizontal meridian, at the same range of eccentricities, with the smaller of the two  
616 orientations always appearing in the left hemifield. (We use the convention that horizontal is  $0^\circ$  and that  
617 orientation increases with clockwise rotation.) To penalize random guessing, the volume of liquid reward  
618 delivered after correct choices was doubled with each consecutive correct choice, up to a maximum of  
619 four times the initial amount. Since we were primarily interested in the effect of task engagement on  
620 neuronal activity, we applied a behavioral criterion to our data, excluding sessions where the subject's  
621 psychophysical threshold (defined as the signal level eliciting 75% correct performance) exceeded 14%  
622 signal. A two-pass presentation procedure was used. Each instance of a stimulus (generated with a given

623 noise seed) was shown twice per experimental block. This allowed us to account for any effect of  
624 fluctuations in the stimulus on  $r_{sc}$  (see Supplementary Discussion §1.1 and Supplementary Fig. 4).

### 625 **Psychophysical Reverse Correlation (PRC)**

626 We performed PRC to objectively measure the weights subjects applied to different stimulus  
627 orientations when making their choices. To do this, we first summarized the stimulus on each trial as the  
628 radial sum of its 2D Fourier amplitude spectrum, averaged across frames. This isolates the orientation  
629 content while removing any information about spatial frequency and phase. Psychophysical kernels were  
630 calculated as the difference between the two choice-conditioned radial sums. This was performed  
631 separately for each signal level and the resulting kernels were averaged.

### 632 **Spike-Count Correlation Measurements**

633 Spike-count correlations were calculated as the Pearson correlation between spike counts, counted  
634 over the entire duration of the stimulus, with a 50-ms delay to account for the typical V1 response  
635 latency. Spike counts were first z-scored separately within each experimental block (typically a set of  
636 100-200 trials lasting about 10 minutes) and each stimulus condition. This removed correlations related  
637 to long-term firing rate nonstationarities and allowed us to combine trials at different signal levels  
638 without introducing correlations related to similarity in stimulus preference. We used a balanced z-  
639 scoring method proposed recently to prevent bias related to differences in choice distributions across  
640 signal levels<sup>44</sup>. We excluded pairs that were not simultaneously isolated for at least 25 trials total. The  
641 median number of trials per pair during task performance was 752. For the analysis of  $r_{sc}$  during passive  
642 fixation blocks (Fig. 5), the median was 120.

643 A main goal of the study was to measure how spike-count correlation varies with pairwise  
644 orientation. We describe this relationship as a smoothed function estimated from measures of  $r_{sc}$   
645 combined across multiple recording sessions, which we then sampled discretely with  $1^\circ$  resolution. The

646 smoothed estimates were obtained using a bivariate von Mises smoothing kernel. A point in the  
647 correlation matrix  $\mathbf{C}$  was given as:

$$648 \quad \mathbf{C}(x, y) = \tanh \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n z_i K(x, y, \theta_i, \phi_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K(x, y, \theta_i, \phi_i)}, \text{ where } K(x, y, \theta_i, \phi_i) = e^{\kappa (\cos(\theta_i - x) + \cos(\phi_i - y))}, \quad (1)$$

649  $z_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  (Fisher z-transformed)  $r_{sc}$  measurement,  $\theta_i$  and  $\phi_i$  are the preferred orientations of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  pair,  
650 and  $\kappa$  is the von Mises dispersion parameter. We set  $\kappa = 1.3\pi$ , yielding a smoothing kernel closely  
651 approximating a bivariate wrapped Gaussian with  $15^\circ$  s.d. In some cases, we expressed the  $r_{sc}$  matrix in a  
652 task-aligned coordinate frame (e.g. Fig. 4e), for which the preferred orientations of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  pair relative to  
653 the task orientation were used for  $\theta_i$  and  $\phi_i$ . Since there were always two orthogonal task orientations,  
654 we averaged across both possible alignments, such that  $\mathbf{C}(x, y) = \mathbf{C}(x + 90^\circ, y + 90^\circ)$ . All angular  
655 quantities were doubled for the calculations, as orientation has a period of  $180^\circ$ . To generate the kernel-  
656 smoothed profile of CP (Fig. X), we used a one-dimensional equivalent of the procedure above, in which  
657 preferred orientations were parameterized only by a single parameter.

## 658 **Regression Model**

659 We used a multilinear regression model to identify “fixed” and “task-aligned” components of the  
660 structured correlations we observed. Our approach was to describe the set of observations (811 individual  
661 pairwise  $r_{sc}$  measurements, Fisher z-transformed to produce normal error) in terms of a set of two  
662 underlying correlation structures: one defining  $r_{sc}$  as a function of pairwise preferred orientation alone  
663 (“fixed”) and the other defining  $r_{sc}$  as a function of pairwise preferred orientation relative to the task  
664 (“task-aligned”). In order to provide a continuous and smooth description of the data, each component  
665 was parameterized as the sum of an array of  $n \times n$  evenly spaced basis functions. Each observation,  $y_i$ ,  
666 was expressed as:

$$667 \quad y_i = x_i^{\text{fixed}} \cdot \beta^{\text{fixed}} + x_i^{\text{task}} \cdot \beta^{\text{task}} + \beta_0 + \varepsilon_i \quad (2)$$

668  $x_i^{fixed}$  and  $x_i^{task}$  are length- $n^2$  vectors of loadings onto the basis functions, which were given by  
 669 evaluating the basis functions at the location corresponding to the pairwise orientation preference of the  
 670  $i^{th}$  pair.  $\beta^{fixed}$  and  $\beta^{task}$  are the length- $n^2$  vectors of amplitudes of the basis functions (coefficients to be  
 671 fit),  $\beta_0$  is a model constant, and  $\cdot$  is the element-wise product. For the basis functions, we used bivariate  
 672 von Mises functions, with no correlation and equal dispersion in both dimensions. Thus the  $k^{th}$  loading  
 673 ( $x_i^{fixed}(k)$  or  $x_i^{task}(k)$ ) was given by:

$$674 \quad x_i(k) = \frac{e^{\kappa(\cos(\theta_i - \mu_k^1) + \cos(\phi_i - \mu_k^2))}}{Z} \quad (3)$$

675 where  $\theta_i$  and  $\phi_i$  are the preferred orientations of the  $i^{th}$  pair (relative to the task orientation in the case of  
 676 the task-aligned loadings),  $\mu_k$  is a pair of orientations defining the location of the  $k^{th}$  basis function,  $Z$  is a  
 677 normalization constant such that the sum of all loadings for observation  $i$  ( $x_i^{fixed} + x_i^{task}$ ) is 1, and  $\kappa$  is  
 678 the von Mises dispersion parameter. Again, angular quantities were doubled and  $\kappa$  was set to  $1.3\pi$ . We  
 679 found that arrays of  $8 \times 8$  were sufficient to describe the structure of the two components. Because the  
 680 observations were pairwise correlations, it was sufficient only to fit the upper triangular portion of the  
 681 array of basis functions. Thus, the two-component model contained 73 parameters (36 for each  
 682 component, plus the model constant).

683 We fit the model by finding the parameters ( $\beta^{fixed}$ ,  $\beta^{task}$  &  $\beta_0$ ) that minimized the L1 error (to  
 684 encourage sparseness) plus two additional terms that encouraged smoothness and symmetric positive  
 685 semi-definiteness, as the two components were meant to represent correlation matrices. The solution was  
 686 obtained as:

$$687 \quad \hat{\beta}^{fixed}, \hat{\beta}^{task}, \hat{\beta}_0 = \underset{\beta^{fixed}, \beta^{task}, \beta_0}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_i |\varepsilon_i| + \alpha_1 \Gamma(\beta^{fixed} + \beta^{task}) + \alpha_2 D_{SPD}(\beta^{fixed} + \beta^{task}) \quad (4)$$

688 where  $\Gamma$  is the discrete 2D Laplace operator, corresponding to circular convolution with the kernel:

689  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $D_{SPD}(X)$  is the 2-norm between  $X$  and the nearest symmetric positive semidefinite

690 matrix  $\hat{X}$ , which is given by  $(B + H)/2$  where  $H$  is the symmetric polar factor of  $B = \frac{(A+A')}{2}$ <sup>45</sup>. The  $\alpha$ 's  
691 controlled the strength of regularization and were chosen to produce the best fit (as measured with  $R^2$   
692 under 50-fold cross-validation). The solution was obtained by gradient descent using the MATLAB  
693 function *fminunc*.

694 While this model did not explain more than a small percentage (3.2%) of the variance of the raw  
695 observed  $r_{sc}$  values, this is not surprising as the raw correlation data do not vary smoothly with preferred  
696 orientation (reflecting both noise, and the fact that  $r_{sc}$  is known to depend on parameters other than  
697 orientation.<sup>1,14,15</sup>). For this reason, we measured goodness-of-fit relative to the variance explained simply  
698 by a smoothed version of the raw data (sum of values in fixed and task-aligned matrices was 3.6%).

## 699 Choice Probability Predictions

700 Choice Probability was calculated in the standard way<sup>33</sup>. We only used 0%-signal trials, as the  
701 uneven choice distributions elicited by signal trials yield noisier CP measurements. Assuming  
702 feedforward pooling with linear pooling weights, the relationship between the covariance matrix for a  
703 population of neurons, the pooling weight of each neuron, and the Choice Probability ( $CP$ ) of each  
704 neuron is:

$$705 \quad CP_k = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \operatorname{sgn}(\xi_k) \arctan \sqrt{2\xi_k^{-2} - 1}^{-1} \quad \text{with} \quad \xi_k = \frac{(\mathbf{C}\beta)_k}{\sqrt{C_{kk}\beta^T \mathbf{C}\beta}} \quad (5)$$

706 where  $CP_k$  is the CP of neuron  $k$  with respect to choice 1,  $\beta$  is the vector of pooling weights and  $\mathbf{C}$  is the  
707 covariance matrix<sup>8</sup>. We used this equation to quantify the CPs that would be associated with the  
708 correlation structure we observed and the fixed and task-aligned components we identified. CPs,  
709 correlations, and pooling weights were described as functions of preferred orientation, relative to the task.  
710 (For the fixed component of  $r_{sc}$ , which was indexed relative to raw orientation preferences, we generated

711 a task-aligned version by substituting the observed  $r_{sc}$  values with model fits, using only the fixed  
712 component of the model, and then generating a smoothed task-aligned matrix as in Fig. 4e). We assumed  
713 a population of infinite size spanning this space, that was homogeneous at a given orientation, and that  
714 we sampled discretely with  $1^\circ$  resolution. Since the pooling weights were unknown, we generated a  
715 random distribution of plausible pooling weights that could support task performance. To do this, we  
716 started with a vector of randomly assigned weights (drawn from a normal distribution) and applied the  
717  $90^\circ$  symmetry inherent in the task, such that  $\beta_\theta = -\beta_{\theta+90}$ , where  $\beta_\theta$  is the weight assigned to neurons  
718 with task-relative preferred orientation  $\theta$ . Then, we smoothed the pooling weight profiles with a  
719 wrapped Gaussian kernel with  $15^\circ$  s.d. and excluded profiles which did not have a circular mean within  
720  $22.5^\circ$  of choice 1 ( $0^\circ$ ). To guarantee real-valued CPs on  $[0,1]$ , we performed the calculations using a  
721 symmetric positive definite approximation<sup>45</sup> of the correlation matrices, which introduced negligible  
722 error.

723 Estimating mean covariance for a population of neurons is necessarily more error-prone than  
724 estimating mean correlation, as the former is sensitive to sampling error in measurements of average  
725 spike-count variance (and therefore firing rate), so for this reason we preferred to perform the  
726 calculations using correlations (see Supplemental Discussion §3). We can use correlations  
727 interchangeably with covariances in equation 1, under the simplifying assumption that the variance is  
728 uniform as a function of preferred orientation. If  $\Sigma$  is the correlation matrix for a population with uniform  
729 variance  $\alpha$ , then it follows that:

730 
$$\xi_k = \frac{\alpha(\Sigma\beta)_k}{\sqrt{\alpha\Sigma_{kk}\beta^T(\alpha\Sigma)\beta}} = \frac{(\Sigma\beta)_k}{\sqrt{\Sigma_{kk}\beta^T\Sigma\beta}} \quad (6)$$

731 where  $\Sigma_{kk} \equiv 1$  for all  $k$ . We felt that spike-count variance that depended systematically on preferred  
732 orientation was unlikely to be a feature of the V1 representation, and thus that the advantages of using  
733 correlations outweighed the cost.

734 Noise in the decision process after pooling (pooling noise) has the effect of uniformly scaling  
735 down CPs, such that  $\xi_k$  in Eq. 5 is substituted with:  $\frac{(C\beta)_k}{\sqrt{C_{kk}(\beta^T C \beta + \sigma_{pool}^2)}}$ , where  $\sigma_{pool}^2$  is the variance of the  
736 pooling noise<sup>6</sup>. We found that non-zero pooling noise was needed to avoid overestimating the magnitude  
737 of CP from the observed correlation structure. We used a fixed value of pooling noise in our predictions  
738 such that the average squared difference between the CP profile predicted from the observed correlation  
739 matrix and the observed CP profile was minimized. Empirically, we found that pooling noise variance of  
740 0.6 was optimal. Since our spike counts were normalized to have unit variance, this implies pooling noise  
741 whose variance is 60% of the average spike-count variance of single neurons. This should be interpreted  
742 with care, as overestimation of CPs may also be an artefact related to the assumption of a homogeneous  
743 population<sup>8</sup>. Alternatively, the need to invoke pooling noise may be due to nonuniform sensory  
744 integration across the trial, which is distinct but which would also have an attenuating effect on CP when  
745 measured over the entire trial.

#### 746 **Calculating Differential Correlations**

747 The information capacity of a sensory population, assuming a linear read out, is bounded when  
748 the spike-count covariances sufficiently match the differential correlations<sup>32</sup>. Since we made use of spike-  
749 count correlations, rather than covariances, in the present study, we normalized the measurements of  
750 differential correlations by the product of the standard deviations of the stimulus-independent variability  
751 of each pair.

752

- 753 1. Cohen, M. R. & Kohn, A. Measuring and interpreting neuronal correlations. *Nat. Neurosci.* **14**,  
754 811–9 (2011).
- 755 2. Zohary, E., Shadlen, M. N. & Newsome, W. T. Correlated neuronal discharge rate and its  
756 implications for psychophysical performance. *Nature* **370**, 140–143 (1994).
- 757 3. Abbott, L. F. & Dayan, P. The effect of correlated variability on the accuracy of a population code.  
758 *Neural Comput.* **11**, 91–101 (1999).
- 759 4. Sompolinsky, H., Yoon, H., Kang, K. & Shamir, M. Population coding in neuronal systems with  
760 correlated noise. *Phys. Rev. E* **64**, 51904 (2001).
- 761 5. Snippe, H. & Koenderink, J. Information in channel-coded systems: correlated receivers. *Biol.*  
762 *Cybern.* **190**, 183–190 (1992).
- 763 6. Averbeck, B. B., Latham, P. E. & Pouget, A. Neural correlations, population coding and  
764 computation. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **7**, 358–66 (2006).
- 765 7. Shadlen, M. N., Britten, K. H., Newsome, W. T. & Movshon, J. A. A computational analysis of  
766 the relationship between neuronal and behavioral responses to visual motion. *J. Neurosci.* **16**,  
767 1486–510 (1996).
- 768 8. Haefner, R. M., Gerwinn, S., Macke, J. H. & Bethge, M. Inferring decoding strategies from choice  
769 probabilities in the presence of correlated variability. *Nat. Neurosci.* **16**, 235–42 (2013).
- 770 9. Nienborg, H. & Cumming, B. G. Correlations between the activity of sensory neurons and  
771 behavior: how much do they tell us about a neuron’s causality? *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.* **20**, 376–  
772 381 (2010).
- 773 10. Bair, W., Zohary, E. & Newsome, W. T. Correlated firing in macaque visual area MT: time scales  
774 and relationship to behavior. *J. Neurosci.* **21**, 1676–97 (2001).
- 775 11. Mastrorarde, D. N. Correlated firing of cat retinal ganglion cells. I. Spontaneously active inputs to  
776 X- and Y-cells. *J. Neurophysiol.* **49**, 303–24 (1983).
- 777 12. Shadlen, M. N. & Newsome, W. T. The variable discharge of cortical neurons: implications for  
778 connectivity, computation, and information coding. *J. Neurosci.* **18**, 3870–3896 (1998).
- 779 13. Lee, D., Port, N. L., Kruse, W. & Georgopoulos, a P. Variability and correlated noise in the  
780 discharge of neurons in motor and parietal areas of the primate cortex. *J. Neurosci.* **18**, 1161–70  
781 (1998).
- 782 14. Smith, M. A. & Kohn, A. Spatial and temporal scales of neuronal correlation in primary visual  
783 cortex. *J. Neurosci.* **28**, 12591–603 (2008).
- 784 15. Kohn, A. & Smith, M. a. Stimulus dependence of neuronal correlation in primary visual cortex of  
785 the macaque. *J. Neurosci.* **25**, 3661–73 (2005).
- 786 16. Callaway, E. M. Feedforward, feedback and inhibitory connections in primate visual cortex.  
787 *Neural Netw.* **17**, 625–32 (2004).
- 788 17. Sillito, A. M., Cudeiro, J. & Jones, H. E. Always returning: feedback and sensory processing in  
789 visual cortex and thalamus. *Trends Neurosci.* **29**, 307–16 (2006).
- 790 18. Nienborg, H. & Cumming, B. G. Decision-Related Activity in Sensory Neurons May Depend on  
791 the Columnar Architecture of Cerebral Cortex. *J. Neurosci.* **34**, 3579–3585 (2014).
- 792 19. Nienborg, H. & Cumming, B. G. Psychophysically measured task strategy for disparity

- 793 discrimination is reflected in V2 neurons. *Nat. Neurosci.* **10**, 1608–1614 (2007).
- 794 20. Ahumada Jr, A. J. Perceptual classification images from Vernier acuity masked by noise. in  
795 *Perception ECVP abstract* **25**, 0 (Pion Ltd, 1996).
- 796 21. Newsome, W. T., Britten, K. H., Movshon, J. A. & Shadlen, M. N. in *Neural Mechanism of Visual*  
797 *Perception* 171–197 (1989).
- 798 22. Uka, T. & DeAngelis, G. C. Contribution of Area MT to Stereoscopic Depth Perception. *Neuron*  
799 **42**, 297–310 (2004).
- 800 23. Cook, E. P. & Maunsell, J. H. R. Dynamics of neuronal responses in macaque MT and VIP during  
801 motion detection. *Nat. Neurosci.* **5**, 985–94 (2002).
- 802 24. de Lafuente, V. & Romo, R. Neuronal correlates of subjective sensory experience. *Nat. Neurosci.*  
803 **8**, 1698–1703 (2005).
- 804 25. Gu, Y., Angelaki, D. E. & DeAngelis, G. C. Neural correlates of multisensory cue integration in  
805 macaque MSTd. *Nat. Neurosci.* **11**, 1201–1210 (2008).
- 806 26. Price, N. S. C. & Born, R. T. Timescales of sensory- and decision-related activity in the middle  
807 temporal and medial superior temporal areas. *J. Neurosci.* **30**, 14036–14045 (2010).
- 808 27. Nienborg, H. & Cumming, B. G. Decision-related activity in sensory neurons reflects more than a  
809 neuron’s causal effect. *Nature* **459**, 89–92 (2009).
- 810 28. Wimmer, K. *et al.* Sensory integration dynamics in a hierarchical network explains choice  
811 probabilities in cortical area MT. *Nat. Commun.* **6**, 6177 (2015).
- 812 29. Haefner, R. M., Berkes, P. & Fiser, J. Perceptual Decision-Making as Probabilistic Inference by  
813 Neural Sampling. *Neuron* **90**, 649–660 (2016).
- 814 30. Ecker, A. S., Denfield, G. H., Bethge, M. & Tolias, A. S. On the Structure of Neuronal Population  
815 Activity under Fluctuations in Attentional State. *J. Neurosci.* **36**, 1775–1789 (2016).
- 816 31. Shamir, M. & Sompolinsky, H. Implications of neuronal diversity on population coding. *Neural*  
817 *Comput.* **18**, 1951–1986 (2006).
- 818 32. Moreno-Bote, R. *et al.* Information-limiting correlations. *Nat. Neurosci.* **17**, 1410–1417 (2014).
- 819 33. Britten, K. H., Newsome, W. T., Shadlen, M. N., Celebrini, S. & Movshon, J. A. A relationship  
820 between behavioral choice and the visual responses of neurons in macaque MT. *Vis. Neurosci.* **13**,  
821 87 (1996).
- 822 34. Crapse, T. B. & Basso, M. A. Insights into decision making using choice probability. *J.*  
823 *Neurophysiol.* **114**, 3039–3049 (2015).
- 824 35. Nienborg, H., Cohen, M. R. & Cumming, B. G. Decision-Related Activity in Sensory Neurons:  
825 Correlations Among Neurons and with Behavior. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.* **35**, 463–483 (2012).
- 826 36. Kwon, S. E., Yang, H., Minamisawa, G. & O’Connor, D. H. Sensory and decision-related activity  
827 propagate in a cortical feedback loop during touch perception. *Nat. Neurosci.* **19**, (2016).
- 828 37. Mitchell, J. F., Sundberg, K. a & Reynolds, J. H. Spatial attention decorrelates intrinsic activity  
829 fluctuations in macaque area V4. *Neuron* **63**, 879–88 (2009).
- 830 38. Cohen, M. R. & Maunsell, J. H. R. Attention improves performance primarily by reducing  
831 interneuronal correlations. *Nat. Neurosci.* **12**, 1594–600 (2009).

- 832 39. Ruff, D. A. & Cohen, M. R. Attention can either increase or decrease spike count correlations in  
833 visual cortex. *Nat. Neurosci.* **17**, 1591–7 (2014).
- 834 40. Rabinowitz, N. C., Goris, R. L., Cohen, M. & Simoncelli, E. Attention stabilizes the shared gain of  
835 V4 populations. *Elife* **4**, e08998 (2015).
- 836 41. Lange, R. D. & Haefner, R. M. Inferring the brain’s internal model from sensory responses in a  
837 probabilistic inference framework. (2016). doi:10.1101/081661
- 838 42. Judge, S. J., Richmond, B. J. & Chu, F. C. Implantation of magnetic search coils for measurement  
839 of eye position: An improved method. *Vision Res.* **20**, 535–538 (1980).
- 840 43. Cumming, B. G. & Parker, A. J. Binocular neurons in V1 of awake monkeys are selective for  
841 absolute, not relative, disparity. *J. Neurosci.* **19**, 5602–18 (1999).
- 842 44. Kang, I. & Maunsell, J. H. R. Potential confounds in estimating trial-to-trial correlations between  
843 neuronal response and behavior using choice probabilities. *J. Neurophysiol.* **108**, 3403–15 (2012).
- 844 45. Higham, N. J. Computing a nearest symmetric positive semidefinite matrix. *Linear Algebra Appl.*  
845 **103**, 103–118 (1988).
- 846
- 847

848 **Supplemental Information** available online.

849

850 **Acknowledgements** We thank Michael Shadlen and James McFarland for useful discussions; Ralf  
851 Haefner for advice about the analysis; Beth Nagy, Irina Bunea, and Denise Parker for veterinary care; and  
852 Richard Krauzlis, Bevil Conway, and Ali Ghazizadeh for comments on an earlier version of the  
853 manuscript.

854

855 **Author Contribution** A.G.B. and B.G.C. conceived and designed the experiments. A.G.B. performed  
856 the experiments and all aspects of the analysis. A.G.B. and B.G.C. wrote the paper. B.G.C. advised at all  
857 stages.

858

859 **Author Information** Reprints and permissions information is available at [www.nature.com/reprints](http://www.nature.com/reprints). The  
860 authors declare no competing financial interests. Correspondence and requests for materials should be  
861 addressed to A.G.B. ([adrian.bondy@gmail.com](mailto:adrian.bondy@gmail.com)).