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# **Feedback Determines the Structure of Correlated Variability in Visual Cortex**

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25           **The variable spiking discharge of sensory neurons in response to a fixed stimulus tends to be**  
26 **weakly correlated (spike-count correlation,  $r_{sc}$ ). This is widely thought to reflect stochastic noise in**  
27 **shared sensory afferents, in which case it places strict limits on the fidelity of sensory coding.**  
28 **However, it may also be generated by changes over time in feedback from higher-order brain**  
29 **regions. We tested this alternative directly by measuring spiking activity in populations of primary**  
30 **visual cortical (V1) neurons in rhesus monkeys performing different visual discrimination tasks on**  
31 **the same set of visual inputs. We found that the structure of  $r_{sc}$  (the way  $r_{sc}$  varied with neuronal**  
32 **stimulus preference) changed dramatically with task instruction, despite identical retinal input.**  
33 **This demonstrates that  $r_{sc}$  structure primarily reflects feedback dynamics engaged by the task, not**  
34 **noise in sensory afferents. As a consequence, previous analyses of how  $r_{sc}$  constrains sensory**  
35 **processing need not apply. Furthermore, these results imply that decision-related activity in**  
36 **sensory neurons is a consequence of task-dependent changes in feedback.**

37           The firing rate of neurons in sensory cortex depends on sensory input, but is also variable given a  
38 fixed stimulus. This response variable is weakly correlated between neurons<sup>1</sup>. The origin of these spike-  
39 count correlations ( $r_{sc}$ ) is not well understood. A predominant assumption is that stochastic processes,  
40 such as random fluctuations in shared sensory afferent pathways, are the primary source of  $r_{sc}$ . Consistent  
41 with this proposal,  $r_{sc}$  correlates with physical proximity and similarity in stimulus preference<sup>2-6</sup>, both of  
42 which are predictive of greater shared afferent input.

43           Because perceptual decisions are thought to be generated by pooling responses of many sensory  
44 neurons, correlated “noise” in the sensory pathway could be highly detrimental: while independent  
45 variability can be averaged away by pooling enough neurons, correlated variability cannot. Following  
46 this logic,  $r_{sc}$  is widely thought to constrain the fidelity of sensory information in the brain<sup>2,7-14</sup> and,  
47 relatedly, to influence the choices subjects make on individual trials, yielding choice-related activity in  
48 sensory neurons<sup>15-17</sup>.

49           These two important consequences of  $r_{sc}$  only follow given the widespread view that it arises from  
50 the sensory afferents. However, sensory cortical areas receive only a minority of their inputs from the  
51 upstream brain regions conveying sensory information from the periphery<sup>18,19</sup>. Consequently, variation  
52 over time in shared inputs from downstream areas (i.e. “top-down”; “feedback”), may make a significant  
53 contribution to  $r_{sc}$ . These signals may reflect endogenous processes like attention or arousal. This source  
54 of correlated variability need not confound downstream sensory decoding, since downstream areas may  
55 have knowledge of the state of the feedback inputs responsible.

56           In the present study, we directly investigated the relative contributions of feedforward and feedback  
57 pathways to  $r_{sc}$  in sensory neurons. We recorded spiking activity in populations of primary visual cortical  
58 (V1) neurons in macaque monkeys performing different orientation discrimination tasks using the same  
59 set of stimuli. The only difference between the tasks was the pair of orientations being discriminated. If  
60  $r_{sc}$  primarily reflects noise in sensory afferents, it should be invariant to changes in the task given fixed  
61 retinal input. Alternatively, the pattern of  $r_{sc}$  may change dynamically, reflecting top-down input that  
62 changes with the task. Population-level recordings allowed us to estimate the full  $r_{sc}$  structure of V1 (in  
63 our case, how  $r_{sc}$  varies as a function of all possible combinations of pairwise orientation preference)  
64 under different task contexts. This allowed us to quantitatively compare the contribution of feedforward  
65 and feedback inputs. Strikingly, we observed profound and systematic changes with task context, and  
66 little fixed  $r_{sc}$  structure. Thus,  $r_{sc}$  structure in V1 predominantly reflects the dynamics of feedback  
67 signaling.

68           This result has two important implications. First, we show that the observed  $r_{sc}$  structure would  
69 degrade the task performance of a standard decoder applied to V1. However, our discovery of the  
70 feedback origin of these correlations points to the possibility that the brain can, in principle, outperform  
71 such a decoder by including knowledge of the changing state of downstream brain areas when decoding  
72 V1 activity. Second, we show quantitatively that these feedback dynamics are the primary source of the  
73 choice-related activity we observed in V1, clarifying an ongoing debate<sup>20</sup> about the interpretation of

74 choice-related signals in sensory neurons. Taken together, our results suggest that  $r_{sc}$  in sensory neurons  
75 reveals less than previously thought about the fidelity of sensory information in the brain, but potentially  
76 much more about the interareal computations underlying perceptual processing.

77

## 78 **Results**

79 We trained two rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*) to perform a two-alternative forced choice  
80 (2AFC) coarse orientation discrimination task (Fig. 1), used previously<sup>21</sup>. On a given trial, the subject  
81 was shown a dynamic, 2D filtered noise stimulus for 2 seconds, after which it reported the stimulus  
82 orientation by making a saccade to one of two choice targets (oriented Gabor patches). Different task  
83 contexts were defined by the orientations of the discriminanda. The stimuli were bandpass filtered in the  
84 Fourier domain to include only orientations within a predetermined range. The stimulus filter was  
85 centered on one of the two discriminandum orientations and its orientation bandwidth was used to control  
86 task difficulty. We included 0%-signal trials, for which the stimuli were unfiltered for orientation (and  
87 thus the same regardless of context), to examine the effect of task context on  $r_{sc}$  in the presence of a fixed  
88 retinal input.

89 In order to detect any effect of task context on  $r_{sc}$  structure, it is critical that subjects based their  
90 choices on the presence of the correct orientation signals. To ensure this, we used psychophysical reverse  
91 correlation<sup>21-23</sup> to directly measure the influence of different stimulus orientations on the subject's  
92 choices (the “psychophysical kernel”). We found that subjects required multiple days of retraining after a  
93 change in the task context to fully update their psychophysical kernel. For this reason, we kept the task  
94 context fixed for the duration of each recording session, and only undertook recordings in a new task  
95 context after subjects had updated their kernel (Supplementary Fig. 1). This is a significant advance over  
96 past studies of the effect of task context on neuronal responses, which typically have not quantified the  
97 extent to which behavioral strategy truly matches task instruction.

98           We recorded spiking activity in populations of single V1 neurons using multi-electrode arrays  
99 while the subjects performed the task. We determined the preferred orientation of each neuron by  
100 measuring its response to oriented stimuli (see Methods) in separate blocks of trials during which  
101 subjects passively fixated. Neurons were excluded from analysis if they were not well orientation tuned.  
102 The final dataset includes 811 simultaneously recorded pairs from 200 unique cells across 41 recording  
103 sessions. For each pair, we calculated its  $r_{sc}$  value as the Pearson correlation between the set of trial-  
104 duration spike-counts across trials of the same stimulus condition. While measuring  $r_{sc}$  only across 0%-  
105 signal trials isolated any changes due to the task context, we found similar results within each signal level  
106 (Fig. 7). Therefore, to increase statistical power, we report  $r_{sc}$  values measured across all trials, after  
107 normalizing spike counts to remove the effect of stimulus drive on firing rates (see Methods).

108

### 109 **Predicting the form of $r_{sc}$ structure**

110           If task-dependent feedback contributes to  $r_{sc}$ , the structure observed will depend on how that  
111 feedback affects individual neurons. Consider the simple case in which feedback acts via a single  
112 modulatory factor, increasing the activity of neurons associated with one choice, while suppressing those  
113 favoring the other choice. We illustrate this selective coupling as a function of neuronal orientation  
114 preference for two different task context (cardinal and oblique discrimination) in Fig. 2a,b. Crucially, this  
115 feedback would introduce a source of stimulus-independent variability, with correlations determined by  
116 the product of the coupling weights for a given pair. By taking the outer product of the coupling weight  
117 function, we directly obtain a matrix yielding the  $r_{sc}$  predicted for pairs of all possible pairwise  
118 orientation preferences. The resulting matrices for the two task contexts (Fig. 2c,d) exhibit a lattice-like  
119 pattern that changes its location with the task, yielding high correlation for pairs tuned to the same  
120 discriminandum orientation and low correlations for pairs tuned to opposing discriminanda.

121 We note that observing such a distribution of  $r_{sc}$  would, on its own, be consistent with a number  
122 of functional interpretations. In particular, qualitatively identical predictions have been generated by  
123 considering the effect of fluctuations across trials in the allocation of feature attention<sup>24</sup> or Bayesian  
124 priors<sup>25</sup> in a discrimination task, rather than feedback directly related to choice. This is because these  
125 other effects can also be expressed in terms of a modulatory input to which neurons are selectively  
126 coupled in a task-dependent manner. We return to the issue of functional interpretation later.

127 Importantly, the predominant view that the structure of  $r_{sc}$  in a sensory area is primarily  
128 determined by noise in sensory afferents makes a very different prediction for the  $r_{sc}$  matrix. This view  
129 requires that the pattern of  $r_{sc}$  stay fixed across tasks. To be consistent with the inverse relationship  
130 observed between  $r_{sc}$  and similarity in stimulus preference<sup>2-6</sup>, the only possible fixed matrix has a  
131 diagonal, banded pattern (Fig. 2e), such that  $r_{sc}$  depends simply on the difference in preferred orientation.  
132 These “limited-range” correlations are widely assumed to be the way  $r_{sc}$  is distributed in sensory  
133 populations<sup>7-9,26</sup>. However, note that the prediction based on task-dependent feedback is also consistent  
134 with the empirical data: on average, pairs closer to the diagonal have higher  $r_{sc}$  values under that  
135 prediction, as well (Fig. 2f). Therefore, only by measuring the full matrix across multiple task contexts,  
136 as the present study is the first to do, can these two divergent predictions be properly tested.

137

### 138 **$R_{sc}$ structure changes systematically with task context**

139 To assess the presence of task-dependent  $r_{sc}$  structure in the data, we first divided the recording  
140 sessions into two groups based on the task context used (Fig. 3a). Within each subset of sessions, the task  
141 context was closely similar. To estimate the  $r_{sc}$  matrix for a given subset of sessions, we used the subset  
142 of recorded  $r_{sc}$  values, along with estimates of their preferred orientations, to populate the matrix. We  
143 applied a smoothing kernel to obtain a continuous, smooth estimate. We observed clearly distinct patterns  
144 in the matrices derived from the two subsets of sessions. The highest values of  $r_{sc}$  tended to occur

145 amongst pairs that both preferred the same discriminandum orientation and the lowest values of  $r_{sc}$   
146 tended to occur amongst pairs preferring opposite discriminanda. Because the task context differed  
147 between the two subsets, this yielded matrices with a similar lattice-like pattern, in each case offset along  
148 the diagonal by an amount reflecting the task context (Fig. 3d,e). In other words,  $r_{sc}$  structure changed  
149 dramatically with task context, consistent with the presence of task-dependent feedback (Fig. 3b,c) and  
150 inconsistent with a fixed  $r_{sc}$  structure primarily driven by sensory afferent noise.

151         Next we generated a single  $r_{sc}$  matrix summarizing the task-dependent structure across the entire  
152 dataset. To do this, we expressed each neuron's preferred orientation relative to the discriminandum  
153 orientations on its respective recording session, such that 0° and 90° always indexed the discriminandum  
154 orientations. This combined matrix even more closely resembled the lattice-like pattern predicted by task-  
155 dependent feedback (Fig. 4a,b). When we analyzed its eigenspectrum (Fig. 4e), we found that its rank-1  
156 eigenvalue was much greater than chance, demonstrating quantitatively that the task-dependent  
157 correlations can be largely explained by a single source of covariability. Because the chance distribution  
158 was obtained by randomly translating each individual  $r_{sc}$  measurement along the diagonal, this also rules  
159 out the possibility that we observed task-dependent structure simply due to noisy sampling of a fixed  
160 diagonal, banded pattern ( $p < 0.005$ , permutation test). Furthermore, the rank-1 eigenvector (Fig. 4d)  
161 closely resembled a sinusoid with peak and trough at 0° and 90°. This can be interpreted as the pattern of  
162 coupling across neuronal preferred orientations to this source of task-dependent covariability. Its shape  
163 implies a feedback input to the V1 population that selectively targets the two task-relevant groups of  
164 neurons, as described in the initial prediction. These features were also present in the task-aligned  $r_{sc}$   
165 matrix when computed separately for each subject (Supplementary Fig. 2).

166         We observed a different result during separate blocks of trials in the same recording sessions,  
167 during which the subject fixated passively for reward but the same set of stimuli was shown. During  
168 these blocks, the task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix could not be distinguished from a diagonal, banded pattern  
169 (Supplementary Fig. 3). This demonstrates that the task-dependent pattern observed during task

170 performance depends on active task engagement, and cannot be explained, for instance, simply as an  
171 effect of recent task experience. We performed a number of additional analyses to rule out any possibility  
172 that our findings could be explained as an effect of changing retinal input across task contexts (see  
173 Supplementary Discussion §1 and Supplementary Figs. 4-7). Taken together, these controls strengthen  
174 our interpretation that centrally-generated signals reflecting task engagement underlie the observed  
175 correlations, rather than, for instance, slow time scale changes in local V1 circuitry with learning or  
176 changes in retinal input with task context.

177

### 178 **Segregating fixed and task-dependent components of $r_{sc}$ structure**

179 To quantify the degree to which  $r_{sc}$  structure changed with task context, and to determine if there  
180 was also a component that remained fixed, we turned to a quantitative model. The model described the  $r_{sc}$   
181 structure across sessions using two components: a fixed component (an  $r_{sc}$  matrix that did not change  
182 with task context), and a task-dependent component (an  $r_{sc}$  matrix whose alignment changed  
183 systematically with task context). The shape of the two components was fit to the data (i.e. the set of 811  
184  $r_{sc}$  measurements). By construction, if  $r_{sc}$  depended only on the raw orientation preferences of neuronal  
185 pairs, with no effect of task context, then the model would assign large coefficients to the fixed  
186 component and coefficients of zero to the task-dependent component. If  $r_{sc}$  was entirely task-dependent,  
187 the reverse would be true.

188 When fitted to the observed  $r_{sc}$  measurements (see Methods), the task-dependent component of  
189 the model explained most of the explainable variance in the data (82%, Fig. 5a). Not surprisingly, its  
190 shape recapitulated the lattice pattern in the task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix (Fig. 4b). The fixed component had a  
191 markedly smaller amplitude, with a less organized structure (Fig. 5b). Removing the fixed component  
192 from the model altogether had little effect, while removing the task-dependent component dramatically  
193 impaired model performance (Fig. 5c). Thus, we failed to reliably identify a fixed source of  $r_{sc}$  structure,



194 such as the limited-range correlations postulated previously<sup>7-9,26</sup>, during task performance. Instead, the  
195 predominant feature was task-dependent changes in  $r_{sc}$  structure. (We were also able to reproduce these  
196 model results individually for one subject).

197

## 198 **Effect of task-dependent $r_{sc}$ structure on neural coding**

199  $R_{sc}$  in sensory neurons is typically studied as a source of noise that impacts the ability of a  
200 downstream brain area to decode a sensory input<sup>2,7-14</sup>. Our results show that the predominant source of  $r_{sc}$   
201 structure in V1 is top-down in origin. It is difficult to say whether this reflects an additional source of  
202 uncertainty in the sensory representation or not. One possibility is that the spikes in V1 introduced by  
203 feedback can be adaptively discounted by the decoder, removing any such uncertainty. Current  
204 approaches for understanding the impact of  $r_{sc}$  on neural coding have not considered this possibility.  
205 Therefore, to gain quantitative insight into the potential impact of the observed  $r_{sc}$  structure on sensory  
206 information coding, we made the assumption of a standard, linear decoder (which is blind to the presence  
207 of feedback) applied to V1. In this case, it has been shown<sup>27</sup> that a particular  $r_{sc}$  structure places a strict  
208 upper bound on decoding accuracy (although assessing the quantitative impact of spike-count  
209 correlations on information coding is an area of active investigation<sup>28</sup>). These so-called “differential”  
210 correlations are those that mimic the correlations produced by changes in the stimulus along the axis  
211 defining the task. For the task we used, the differential correlation for a neuronal pair is given by the  
212 product of the slopes of their mean responses as a function of signal strength (Fig. 6a) – a metric of  
213 similarity in tuning for the task. When we plotted these values as a smooth, task-aligned matrix (Fig. 6b),  
214 we observed a lattice-like pattern strikingly similar to the observed  $r_{sc}$  matrix (Fig. 4b). Confirming this  
215 similarity, the task-dependent component of  $r_{sc}$  structure identified by the regression model was highly  
216 correlated on a pair-by-pair basis with the differential correlations ( $r=0.62$ , Fig. 6c). In other words, the  
217 structure of stimulus-independent covariability in the V1 population (introduced by feedback) was

218 closely similar to the structure of covariability introduced by stimulus variation. Perhaps this is not  
219 surprising, as the  $r_{sc}$  structure was consistent with feedback that alternately targeted the task-relevant  
220 neuronal pools, similar to the effect of varying the stimulus along the axis defining the task. However, the  
221 implication is profound: task-dependent feedback appears to degrade, rather than improve, the sensory  
222 representation in V1.

223         Of course, this is only true if the feedback cannot be taken into account by the decoder – a  
224 decoder that had access to the activity of neurons providing the feedback would not be limited in this way.  
225 As an illustration, we consider a simple algorithm for decoding V1 activity in the presence of task-  
226 dependent feedback that fully eliminates any deleterious effects of the resulting correlations. Because  
227 feedback introduced “differential” correlations, this means it moves the V1 population along the  
228 dimension orthogonal to the optimal decision boundary for the task. This implies that, in principle,  
229 subjects could simply adjust their decision criterion trial-to-trial to eliminate any influence on choice.  
230 Doing so would only require computing the appropriate criterion offset given knowledge of the state of  
231 the feedback input to the sensory population. Whether or not this sort of adaptive decoding is used, this  
232 example illustrates the difficulty of assessing the impact of  $r_{sc}$  in a sensory population on perceptual  
233 performance in light of our results.

234

### 235 **Relationship between $r_{sc}$ structure and perceptual choice**

236         A key motivation for our investigation was the frequent observation throughout sensory cortex of  
237 choice-related activity (correlations between trial-to-trial variability of single neurons and choice)<sup>29,30</sup> as  
238 this has been proposed to reflect the effect of trial-to-trial variability in feedback related to the upcoming  
239 choice<sup>25,31,32</sup>. We also observed significant choice-related activity in our recorded neurons. For each  
240 neuron, we calculated its Choice Probability (CP), a metric which quantifies the probability with which  
241 an ideal observer could correctly predict the subject’s choices from that neuron’s spike count on each

242 trial<sup>29,30</sup>. Across the population, we found an average CP of 0.54 for task-relevant neurons, significantly  
243 above chance level (Fig. 8a) and similar in magnitude to another study using the same task<sup>21</sup>.

244 Theoretical studies have emphasized that widespread CP across a large population of sensory  
245 neurons depends on the presence of spike-count correlation<sup>15–17,30,33</sup>. After all, if many sensory neurons  
246 have variability that is correlated with choice, this implies the variability of individual neurons is also  
247 correlated. However, this could be compatible with either or both of two causal interpretations: 1)  
248 correlated fluctuations directly affect the choices a subject makes trial to trial (a feedforward source of  
249 CP); or 2) the correlated fluctuations reflect variation across trials in a feedback signal related to the  
250 upcoming choice (a feedback source).

251 A feedback source of CP makes the unique prediction of  $r_{sc}$  structure in V1 that is weaker across  
252 trials in which there is less variability in choice. Consistent with this prediction, we found that the  
253 amplitude of the  $r_{sc}$  structure was attenuated on high-signal trials relative to 0% signal trials, in a manner  
254 which depended systematically on signal strength (Fig. 7). However, this attenuation was modest, even at  
255 the highest signal level we analyzed (11% reduction) and despite the highly uneven distribution of  
256 choices. These data suggest that the feedback generating the  $r_{sc}$  structure is correlated with choice, but  
257 also rule out a post-decisional mechanism in which the state of feedback is completely determined by the  
258 final report. We also found that the  $r_{sc}$  structure, when calculated using only spikes from different 200-ms  
259 windows during the trial, showed a stable timecourse and did not grow in amplitude with decision  
260 formation (Supplementary Fig. 8). Taken together, these observations support the conclusion that the  $r_{sc}$   
261 structure reflects variation in feedback signals only partially correlated with the subject's final choices.  
262 These could include bias, attention to orientation, reward history, intertrial dependencies, and/or a  
263 decision variable.

264 Fig. 7 demonstrates at least the presence of a feedback source of CP. Next, we considered the  
265 possibility that some of the observed CP is due to a feedforward effect on choice of correlated

266 fluctuations in V1. Since we were unable to reliably identify any fixed source of  $r_{sc}$  structure, this would  
267 require that CP be generated by the feedforward effect on choice of  $r_{sc}$  structure introduced by feedback.  
268 Such a self-reinforcing loop is plausible given that feedback introduced “differential” correlations,  
269 mimicking the effect of varying the stimulus along the axis of the task and therefore necessarily  
270 influencing choices<sup>34</sup> unless it can somehow be discounted. To probe this possibility quantitatively, we  
271 made use of the known analytical relationship between spike-count correlations, readout weights, and  
272 CPs, under the assumption of a linear decoder applied to a population of sensory neurons<sup>15</sup> (where CP  
273 solely reflects the feedforward influence of neuronal variability). We found that the  $r_{sc}$  structure we  
274 observed would be sufficient to produce a pattern of CP across the population consistent with the data,  
275 across a wide range of possible readout schemes. This result could not be replicated when we considered  
276 only the weak “fixed” component of  $r_{sc}$  structure identified in the model (Fig. 8b,c). Thus, our data rule  
277 out the view that CP reflects the feedforward effect of stochastic noise in the afferent sensory pathway on  
278 perceptual choice. Instead, any feedforward source of CP appears to depend on task-dependent changes  
279 in the structure of interneuronal correlations that subsequently influence perceptual judgments.

280

## 281 **Discussion**

282 The predominant paradigm describes  $r_{sc}$  in populations of sensory neurons as a feature of the  
283 noise corrupting feedforward sensory pathways<sup>2,7-14</sup>. The effect of top-down input has been studied with  
284 the view that it may modify  $r_{sc}$  in a way that adaptively reduces the noise<sup>11,13,35</sup>. The present study  
285 requires a different view. We found that the pattern of correlated variability in V1 is almost entirely  
286 determined by the task context, independent of any changes in retinal input. This demonstrates how  $r_{sc}$   
287 can be, in the first place, driven by variability in top-down inputs whose dynamics change depending on  
288 the context, quite different from purely stochastic noise. Furthermore, the changes we saw in the sensory  
289 population do not appear to be beneficial to task performance (Fig. 6), at least not in the manner this has

290 typically been examined (i.e. assuming a linear decoder of the sensory population alone). These results  
291 reveal the need for a new functional interpretation of stimulus-independent covariability in sensory  
292 populations. They also highlight the importance of considering the interconnectedness of cortical areas as  
293 a crucial aspect of sensory information processing.

294 These data complement recent reports about the influence of spatial attention on  $r_{sc}$  in visual  
295 cortex<sup>11,13,35</sup>. In those studies, changes in  $r_{sc}$  with attention appeared to adaptively improve the accuracy  
296 with which a model observer of visual cortex could perform the task, reinforcing the current thinking  
297 about  $r_{sc}$  as a problematic source of noise. However, a recent reanalysis<sup>36</sup> of neuronal data from a classic  
298 spatial attention study<sup>11</sup> shows how these data may require a different interpretation. The reanalysis  
299 revealed that the reduction in  $r_{sc}$  under spatial attention could be accounted for as an effect of attenuation  
300 of the ongoing variability of a small number of shared gain-modulating inputs, presumably feedback in  
301 origin. This demonstrates that the  $r_{sc}$  attenuated under spatial attention is likely caused, in the first place,  
302 by variation in feedback signals, which are not necessarily noise.

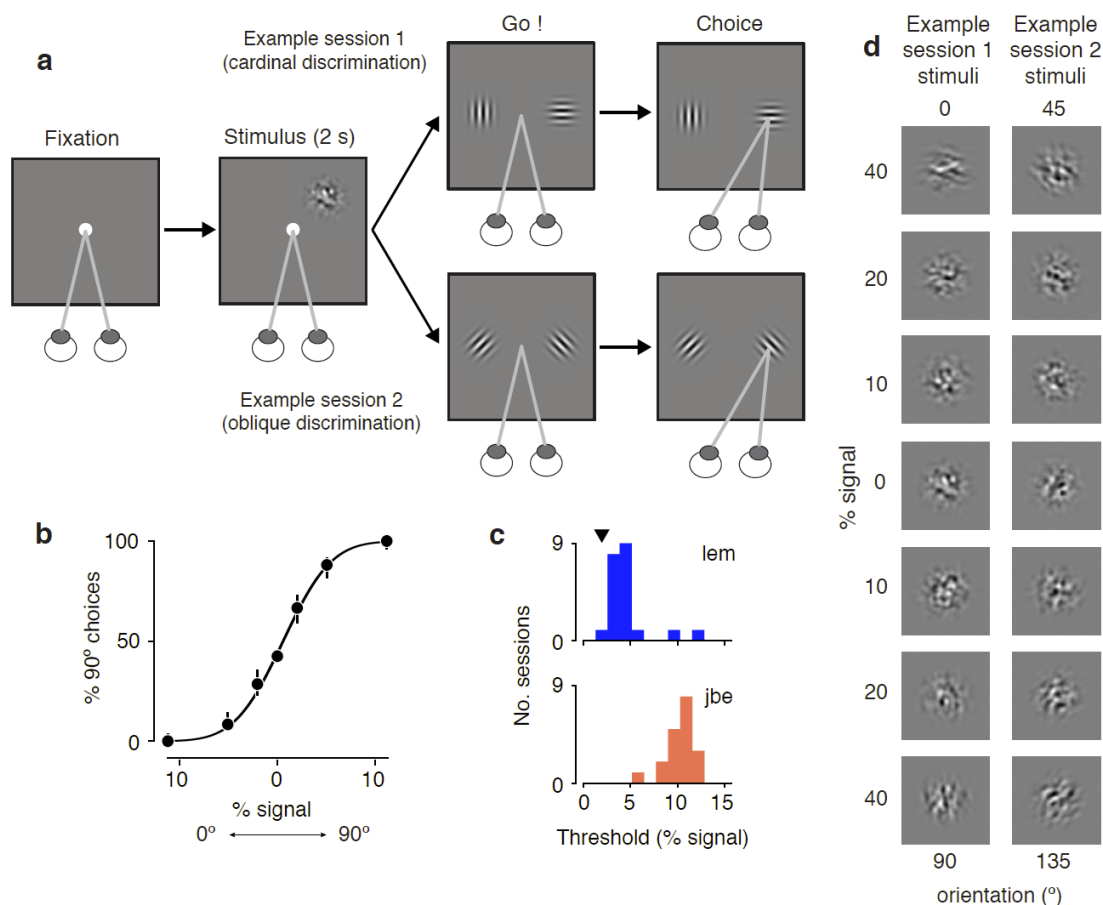
303 An important consequence of this emerging body of data is that the functional implications of  
304 correlated variability for information transmission depend greatly on how downstream brain regions treat  
305 spikes in an upstream population introduced by feedback, a complex question that has received little  
306 consideration. Earlier, we showed how knowledge of feedback inputs to a sensory population could, in  
307 principle, be exploited by a decoder to improve its performance. This example illustrates how past studies  
308 that have simply applied a decoder to a population of neurons without regard to activity elsewhere in the  
309 brain may have led to misleading conclusions about the functional implications of correlated variability.

310 On a more constructive note, our results also show how  $r_{sc}$  can reveal important aspects of the  
311 interareal computations underlying perceptual processing. In particular, our results significantly further  
312 our understanding of choice-related signals in the brain. Initial findings of choice-related activity were  
313 viewed as evidence for a feedforward effect of neuronal variability on choice<sup>37</sup>. Subsequent work has

314 emphasized the relationship between choice-related activity and correlated fluctuations amongst sensory  
315 neurons<sup>15–17,30,33</sup>, as well as the possibility of choice-related feedback<sup>25,31,32</sup>. Our work shows  
316 quantitatively that choice-related activity is a consequence of task-dependent changes in rsc structure  
317 introduced by feedback. We found that correlated fluctuations in V1 are more pronounced on trials where  
318 the subject's choices were more variable (Fig. 7), indicating they reflect information related to (although  
319 not completely determined by) the upcoming choice. Importantly, correlated fluctuations may  
320 subsequently act as an input to the decision through feedforward pathways. If they do, this would imply  
321 choice-related activity comes about through self-reinforcing loops of reciprocal connectivity between  
322 cortical areas, an intriguing possibility that has also been suggested by other studies<sup>25,32,38</sup>.

323 We currently lack an established, normative account for our central finding: the introduction of  $r_{sc}$   
324 structure in a sensory area by feedback. However, one emerging body of theoretical work<sup>25,39,40</sup>,  
325 influenced by the longstanding idea of perception as probabilistic inference<sup>41,42</sup>, does offer an  
326 explanation. This work starts with the premise that the goal of a perceptual system is to generate valid  
327 inferences about the structure of the outside world. Given the highly impoverished nature of sensory  
328 input, the task is impossible without bringing substantial prior knowledge to bear. The novel proposal is  
329 that this computation takes place directly in sensory cortical neurons, such that their activity reflects a  
330 posterior belief about the presence of a particular sensory feature, requiring both sensory input and prior  
331 beliefs conveyed by feedback. Fluctuations in prior beliefs therefore introduce correlated variability. As a  
332 consequence, the theory provides a powerful, normative framework for predicting the form this  
333 covariability will take in the laboratory, where experimenters can directly manipulate prior beliefs with a  
334 psychophysical task. With few free parameters, this framework succeeds in predicting the novel results  
335 reported here in the context of an orientation discrimination task<sup>25,39</sup>. While more empirical tests are  
336 needed, this novel theory does provide a principled account of data like ours, which are otherwise  
337 puzzling.

338



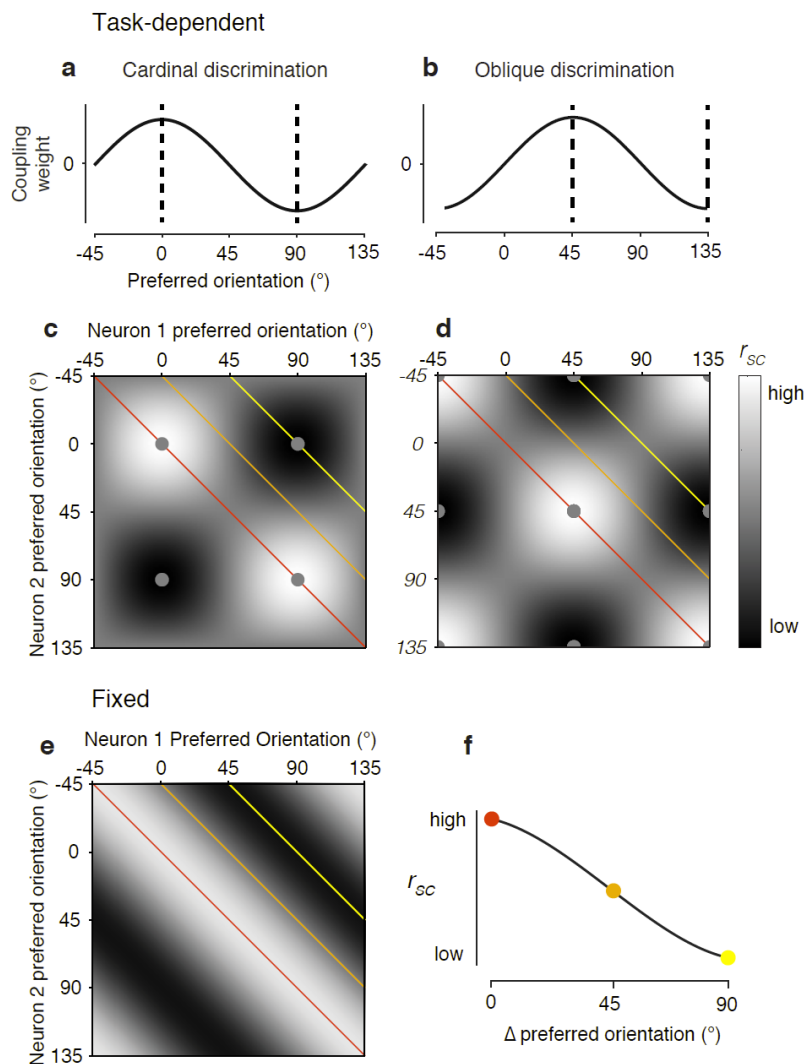
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340 **Figure 1. Orthogonal orientation discrimination task.** **a.** Schematic illustration of the task. After the  
 341 subject acquired fixation, a dynamic, filtered noise stimulus appeared for a fixed duration of 2 s. Then the  
 342 subject had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

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

354



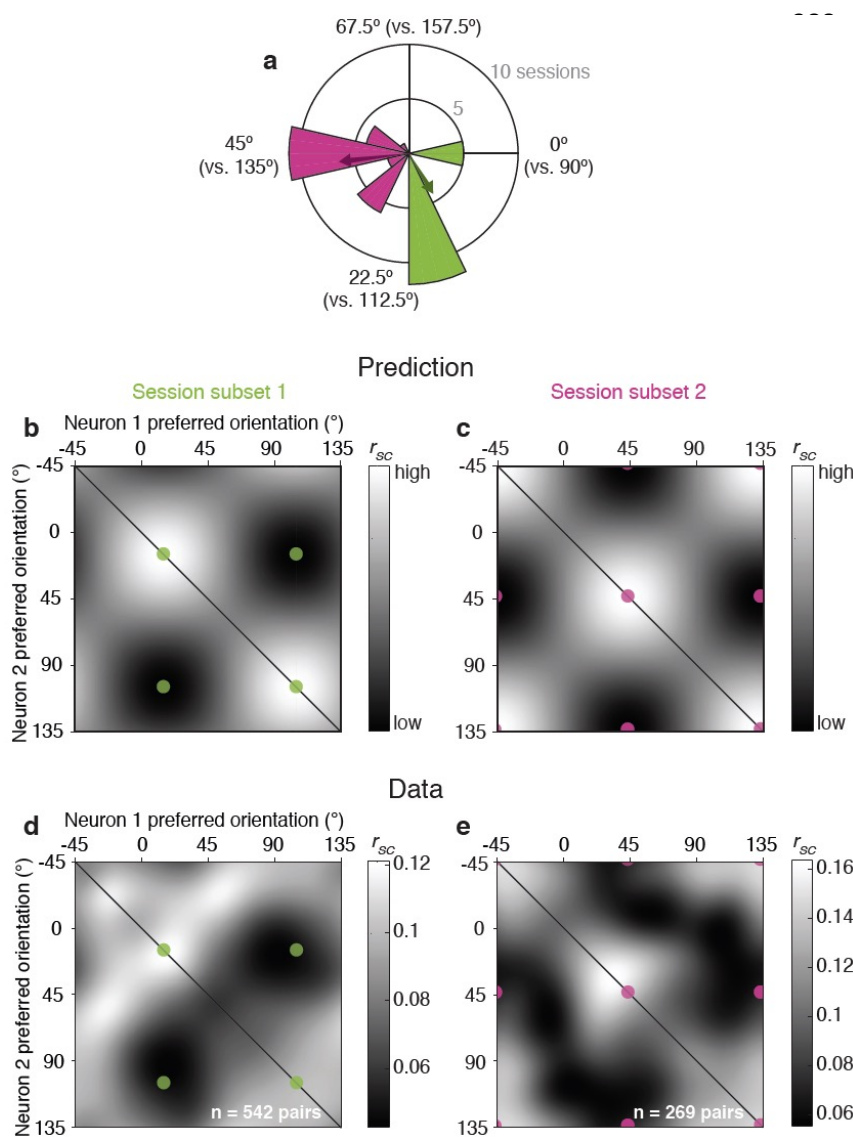


**Figure 2. Predictions for task-dependent and fixed sources of  $r_{sc}$  structure.** Schematic illustration of potential sources of  $r_{sc}$  structure during performance of the orientation discrimination task. **a-b.** The effect on  $r_{sc}$  structure of feedback selectively (and alternately) targeting the two subpopulations of task-relevant neurons. This was assumed to act via a single modulatory factor, to which neurons are coupled with a strength and sign that varies with orientation preference. Coupling weight functions for two task context (cardinal and oblique

370 discrimination) shown. The effect on V1 firing rates on a given trial is simply a scalar multiple of these  
 371 functions. **c-d.** Task-dependent feedback introduces variability in neuronal activity whose correlations  
 372 depend on pairwise orientation preference and which change systematically with task context. We illustrate  
 373 this using  $r_{sc}$  matrices indexed by neuronal preferred orientation. Ignoring any differences in spike-count  
 374 variance across orientations, the pattern in the matrices is simply the outer product of the coupling weight  
 375 functions in (a) and (b). (In other words, (a) and (b) are their sole eigenvectors). In both cases, the result is  
 376 a lattice-like pattern in the  $r_{sc}$  matrix, offset along the diagonal by an amount reflecting the task context.  
 377 Colored lines indicate constant differences in neuronal preferred orientation (0°, red; 45°, orange; 90°,  
 378 yellow). Gray dots indicate regions of high and low correlation corresponding to pairs preferring the same  
 379 or opposite discriminandum orientations. Note that exact values of  $r_{sc}$  will also depend on other sources of

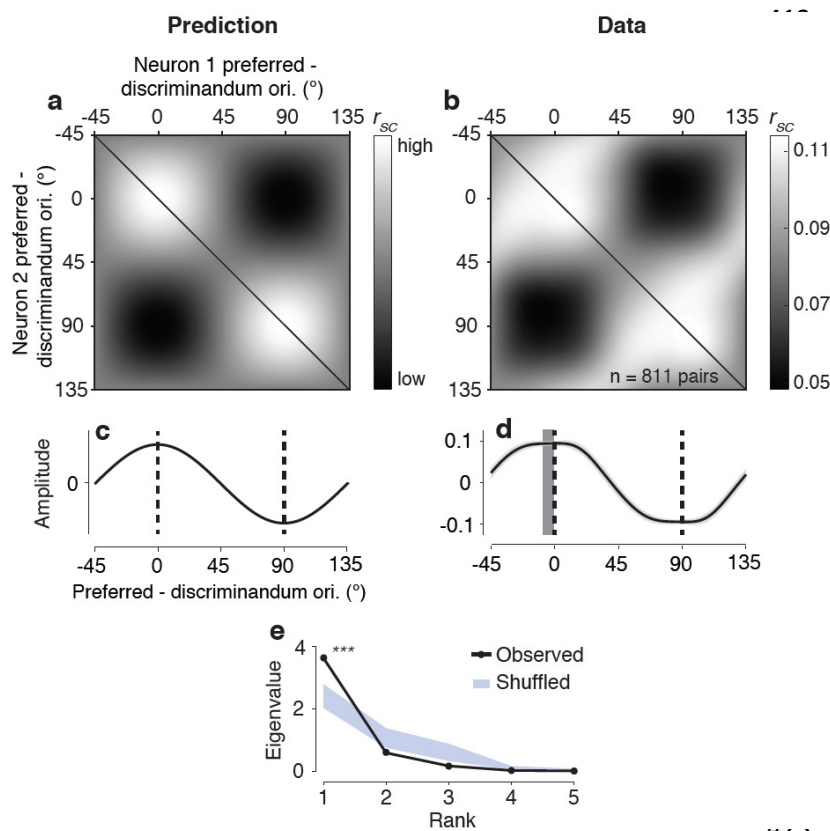
380 covariability so are not well constrained by this prediction. **e.** Alternatively,  $r_{sc}$  structure could reflect a  
381 fixed source of stochastic afferent noise. To be consistent with the observed inverse relationship between  
382  $r_{sc}$  and similarity in stimulus preference<sup>2-6</sup>, this would imply a diagonal, banded pattern such that  $r_{sc}$   
383 depends only on  $\Delta$  preferred orientation. Colored lines are as in (c-d). **f.** All predicted  $r_{sc}$  matrices (c-e)  
384 contain an identical relationship between  $r_{sc}$  and  $\Delta$  preferred orientation. Thus, they cannot be readily  
385 distinguished using existing experimental observations, but require measuring the full  $r_{sc}$  matrix under  
386 different task contexts.

387



**Figure 3.  $R_{sc}$  structure in V1 depends systematically on task context.** **a.** We divided the set of recording sessions into two groups based on the 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 is 90° because of the orthogonality of the discriminanda. Colored arrows indicate the mean task context associated with each subset. **b-c.** The presence of task-dependent feedback would predict distinct  $r_{sc}$  matrices associated with the two subsets of

404 sessions. The locations in the matrix where peaks and troughs in  $r_{sc}$  are predicted are highlighted with  
 405 colored circles. These correspond to the mean discriminandum orientations indicated with arrows in (a). **d-**  
 406 **e.** Observed  $r_{sc}$  matrices for the two subsets of sessions. These are obtained by populating the matrices with  
 407 the set of  $r_{sc}$  measurements made within each subset, at locations determined by the orientation preferences  
 408 of the pairs. We applied a von Mises smoothing kernel (approximating a 2D wrapped Gaussian with 15°  
 409 s.d.). The observed pattern is distinct across the two matrices, closely matching the predictions in (b-c).  
 410 Note that the smoothed matrices contain only positive values, even amongst pairs that would be  
 411 decorrelated by task-dependent feedback, suggesting unknown sources of global correlation.



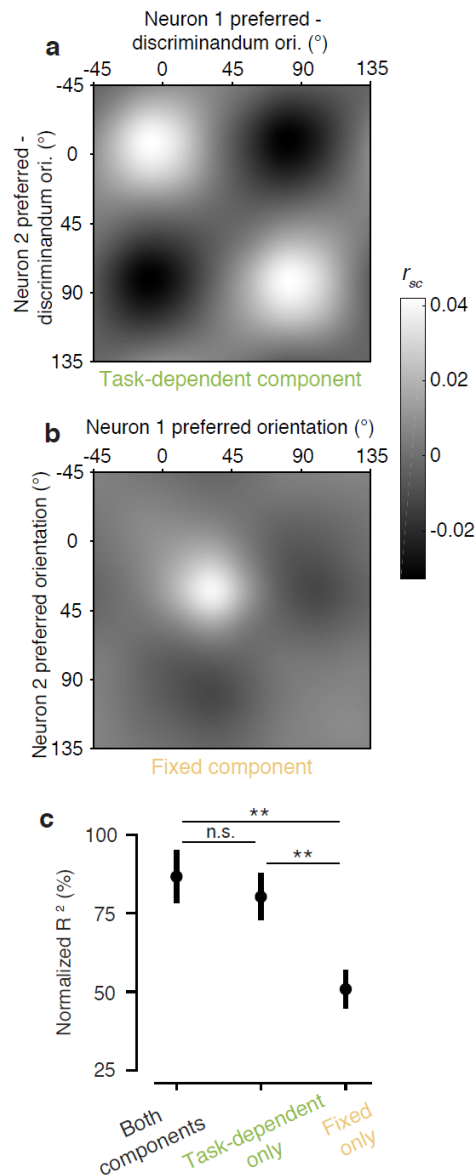
**Figure 4. Task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix. a.**

Predicted  $r_{sc}$  matrix based on the hypothesis of task-dependent feedback, shown in a task-aligned coordinate frame. Each pair's preferred orientations are expressed relative to the discriminandum orientations, so this prediction is the same across all tasks. 0° and 90° therefore index the discriminandum orientations. **b.**

Observed  $r_{sc}$  matrix in the task-aligned coordinate frame, combining data

424 recorded across all sessions and smoothed identically to the data in Fig. 3c,d. Note the striking similarity  
 425 to the prediction in (a). **c,d.** The rank-1 eigenvectors of the predicted and observed  $r_{sc}$  matrices in (a) and  
 426 (b) are closely similar. (We first removed the mean  $r_{sc}$  value from the matrices to ignore any flat  
 427 eigenvectors). The eigenvector corresponding to the observed data is shown with an error bar of 1 s.e.  
 428 The dark gray vertical bar indicates the peak in the eigenvector +/- 1 bootstrap s.e. This was not  
 429 significantly different from 0°, indicating close alignment between the dynamic pattern of  $r_{sc}$  in V1 and  
 430 the subject's task. **e.** Eigenspectrum for the observed matrix in (b). Most of the variance in the matrix was  
 431 explained by its rank-1 eigenvector, significantly more than would be predicted by chance ( $p < 0.001$ ,  
 432 permutation test). Chance level was determined by adding a random offset to the preferred orientations of  
 433 each pair (i.e. permuting each included  $r_{sc}$  value along the diagonal).

434

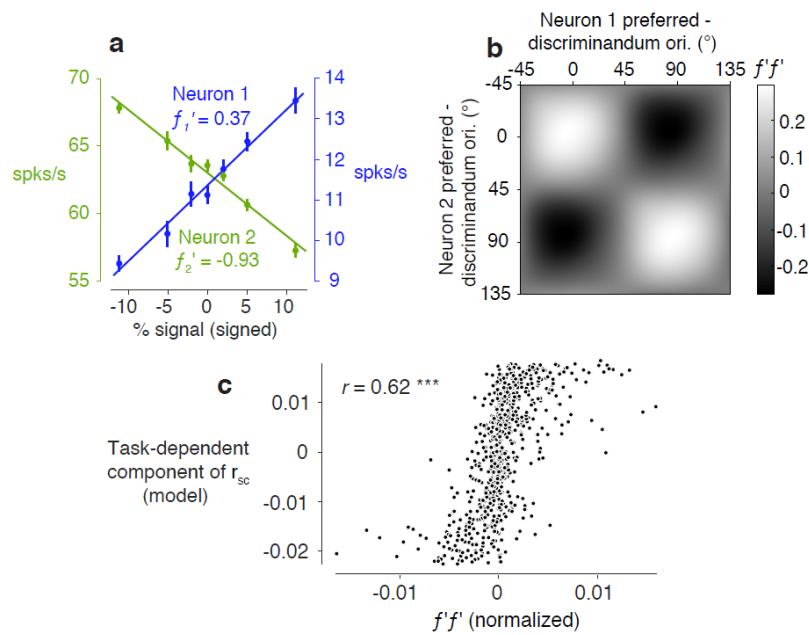


**Figure 5. Segregating fixed and task-dependent components of**

**$r_{sc}$  structure. a-b.** We used a quantitative model that described the  $r_{sc}$  structure across sessions using two components: a fixed component (an  $r_{sc}$  matrix for orientation that did not change with task context), and a task-dependent component (one whose alignment changed systematically with the task). The shape of the two components was fit to the data (i.e. the set of 811  $r_{sc}$  measurements; see Methods). We found the amplitude of the task-dependent component (a) was considerably larger than the fixed component (b), showing the majority of  $r_{sc}$  structure changes with the subject's task. Not surprisingly, the form of the task-dependent component closely resembled the form of the task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix (Fig. 4b). The fixed component had a less organized structure. Note that preferences for the task-dependent component, but not the fixed component, are expressed relative to the discriminandum orientations. Mean  $r_{sc}$  values are close to 0 due to the inclusion of a

451 model constant. **c.** Goodness-of-fit for the joint model and two reduced models that included only one of  
452 the two components. Values are expressed relative to an estimate of the explainable variance in the data  
453 (see Methods). Removing the task-dependent component (but not the fixed component) significantly  
454 reduced goodness-of-fit. Error bars are +/- 1 s.e. obtained from repeated 10-fold cross-validation, and \*\*  
455 indicates goodness-of-fit values that are significantly different at the  $p < 0.01$  level.

456

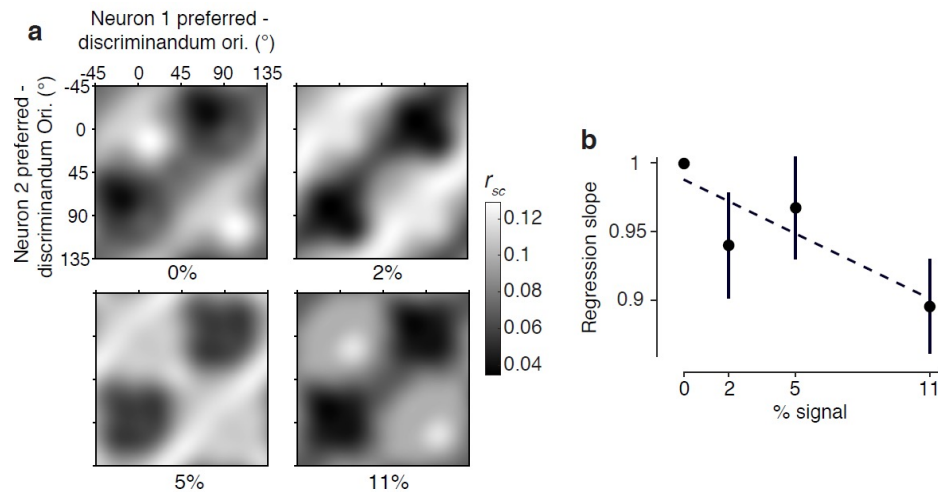


457

458

459 **Figure 6. Task-dependent feedback introduces differential correlations.** **a.** Responses (mean  $\pm$  1  
 460 s.e.) to the stimuli used in the task at various signal strengths for two example neurons. For the purposes  
 461 of illustration, the two discriminanda orientations are simply labeled positive and negative. Calling these  
 462 response functions  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ , the differential correlation for this pair is proportional to the product of the  
 463 derivatives  $f_1'f_2'$ <sup>27</sup>. This product can be viewed as a metric of similarity in tuning for the task. Therefore,  
 464 differential correlations are those that resemble the effect of changes in the stimulus along the axis  
 465 defining the task. **b.** The matrix of  $f'f'$  values, as a function of task-aligned pairwise orientation  
 466 preference, obtained using kernel smoothing as in Fig. 4b. We observed a lattice-like pattern that was  
 467 extremely similar to the structure of task-dependent  $r_{sc}$  we observed during task performance (Fig. 4b),  
 468 suggesting task-dependent feedback introduces a source of differential correlation to the V1 population.  
 469 **c.** Scatter plot of the task-dependent (putatively top-down) component of  $r_{sc}$  (Fig. 5a) against  $f'f'$  values  
 470 (normalized; see Methods) for each recorded neuronal pair. The two were highly correlated across the  
 471 population ( $r=0.62$ ,  $p<10^{-5}$ ).

472

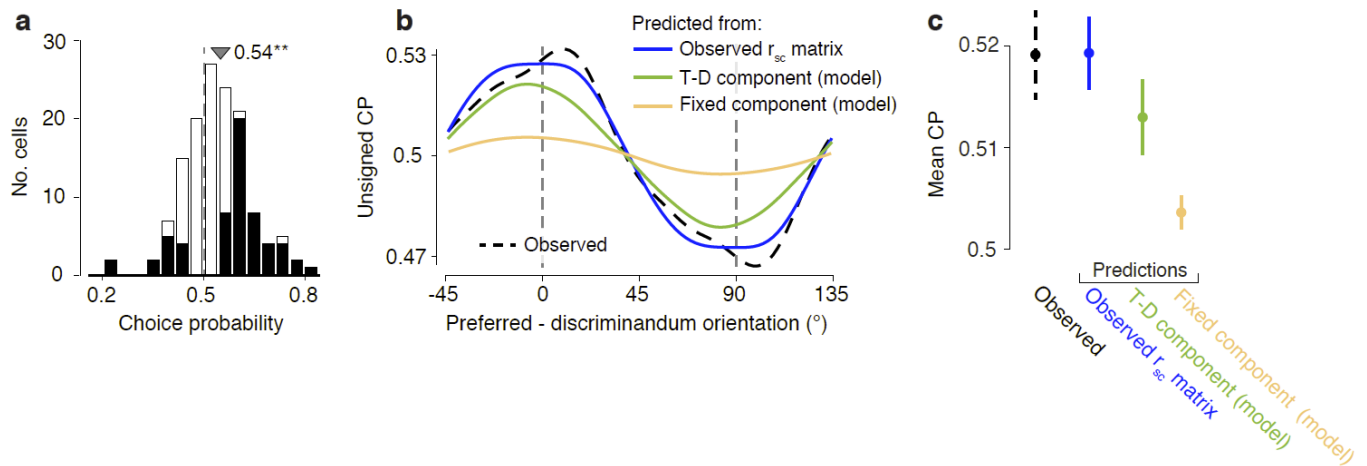


473

474 **Figure 7.  $R_{sc}$  structure depends on variability in choice. a.** The average, task-aligned  $r_{sc}$  matrix, shown  
475 separately for each stimulus strength. The matrix associated with the 0% signal trials reflects dynamic  
476 changes in  $r_{sc}$  structure across task contexts despite identical retinal input. A qualitatively similar  
477 structure was apparent at non-zero signal levels, even though the retinal input was not strictly identical  
478 across sessions (although spike counts were z-scored to eliminate the effect of stimulus drive). **b.** We  
479 quantified the slope of a regression line comparing the  $r_{sc}$  values measured at each signal level against the  
480  $r_{sc}$  values measured at the 0% signal level. The magnitude of the slope indicates the degree of attenuation  
481 of the  $r_{sc}$  structure at a given signal level. We observed a weak but significant negative correlation  
482 ( $p < 0.05$ , bootstrap test) between this slope value and signal strength (error bars are  $\pm 1$  bootstrap s.e.),  
483 suggesting the feedback variability generating the  $r_{sc}$  structure is attenuated on high-signal trials, when  
484 there was also less variability in choice.

485





486

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

488 Histogram of observed CPs, from the subset of neurons ( $n=138$ ) significantly preferring one of the two  
 489 discriminandum orientations ( $d' > 0.9$  at highest signal level). The mean of 0.54 was significantly above  
 490 chance (bootstrap test, cell resampling,  $p < 0.01$ ). CPs that were individually significant ( $p < 0.05$ ; bootstrap  
 491 test, trial resampling) are shown in black. **b.** To quantitatively assess the possibility of a feedforward source  
 492 of CP, we made use of the known analytical relationship between spike-count correlations, readout weights,  
 493 and CPs, under the assumption of a linear decoder applied to a population of sensory neurons<sup>15</sup> (see  
 494 Methods). This allowed us to determine whether this framework could account for the observed CP simply  
 495 as a consequence of reading out a population of neurons with the observed  $r_{sc}$  structure, without any  
 496 reference to feedback. To perform this analysis, we defined CP as a continuous function of task-aligned  
 497 preferred orientation, analogous to our description of the  $r_{sc}$  matrix in Fig. 4b. The dashed black line shows  
 498 the profile of CP observed across preferred orientations, after smoothing with a wrapped Gaussian with  
 499  $10^\circ$  s.d. We applied a fixed sign convention to the CP values across all neurons, equivalent to arbitrarily  
 500 calling the  $0^\circ$ -choice the preferred one. The predicted CP profiles (solid lines) show the CP elicited by  
 501 reading out a sensory population with different  $r_{sc}$  structures. The readout weights across orientations were  
 502 unobserved and had to be assumed. The profiles shown are averages of a large set generated from different  
 503 assumed readout weight profiles. Strikingly, the results were highly insensitive to the readout weights (see  
 504 Supplementary Fig. 10). The prediction using the observed  $r_{sc}$  matrix (Fig. 4b) closely match the observed



505 CP profile. This could be nearly replicated using only the task-dependent component (Fig. 5a) of  $r_{sc}$   
506 structure we identified. However, using only the fixed component (Fig. 5b) produced a much smaller  
507 magnitude of CP than observed. **c.** Mean CP (using the traditional sign convention) associated with the  
508 profiles in (b), +/- 1 bootstrap s.e. obtained by resampling from the data. Note that the mean observed CP  
509 is lower here than in (a) because all neurons are included, regardless of their orientation preference.

510

## 511 **Methods**

### 512 **Electrophysiology**

513 We recorded extracellular spiking activity from populations of V1 neurons in two awake, head-  
514 fixed rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*). Both monkeys were implanted with a head post and scleral  
515 search coils under general anaesthesia<sup>43</sup>. In monkey ‘*lem*’, a recording chamber was implanted over a  
516 craniotomy above the right occipital operculum, as described previously<sup>44</sup>, by which we introduced linear  
517 microelectrode arrays (U- and V-probes, Plexon; 24-contacts, 50 or 60  $\mu\text{m}$  spacing) at an angle  
518 approximately perpendicular to the cortical surface with a custom micro-drive. We positioned the linear  
519 arrays so that we roughly spanned the cortical sheet, as confirmed with current-source density analysis,  
520 and removed them after each recording session. In monkey ‘*jbe*’, a planar “Utah” array (Blackrock  
521 Microsystems; 96 electrodes 1mm in length inserted to target supragranular layers, 400  $\mu\text{m}$  spacing) was  
522 chronically implanted, also over the right occipital operculum. All procedures were performed in  
523 accordance with the U.S. Public Health Service Policy on the humane care and use of laboratory animals  
524 and all protocols were approved by the National Eye Institute Animal Care and Use Committee.

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

536 5 days). We excluded from analysis those neurons whose mean evoked firing rate did not exceed 7  
537 spikes/second.

### 538 **Visual stimuli**

539 All stimuli were presented binocularly on two gamma-corrected cathode ray tube (CRT) monitors  
540 viewed through a mirror haploscope, at 85 or 100Hz. The monitors subtended  $24.1^\circ \times 19.3^\circ$  of visual  
541 angle (1280 x 1024 pixels). The stimuli presented during performance of the discrimination task  
542 consisted of bandpass filtered dynamic white noise, as described previously<sup>21</sup>. Briefly, stimuli were  
543 filtered in the Fourier domain with a polar-separable Gaussian. The peak spatial frequency was  
544 optimized for the recorded neuronal population (1 and 4 cpd medians for '*lem*' and '*jbe*', respectively)  
545 while the peak orientation could take one of two orthogonal values the animal had to discriminate in a  
546 given session. The angular s.d. of the filter modulated the orientation bandwidth and was varied trial to  
547 trial. A 2D Gaussian contrast envelope was applied to the stimulus so that its spatial extent was as small  
548 as possible while still covering the minimum response fields of the neuronal populations being recorded.  
549 The median envelope s.d. was 0.6 degrees for both animals. The median stimulus eccentricity was 5.4  
550 degrees for '*lem*' and 0.5 degrees for '*jbe*'. In Fig. 1, we quantify orientation bandwidth as % signal  
551 strength. This was calculated as  $100 * R$ , where  $R$  is the length of the resultant vector associated with the  
552 angular component of the stimulus filter.

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

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

#### 564 **Orthogonal orientation discrimination task**

565 The animals performed a coarse orientation discrimination task using the orientation-filtered noise  
566 stimuli, as described previously<sup>21</sup>. To initiate a trial, the subject had to acquire a central fixation square.  
567 After a delay of 50 ms, the stimulus appeared for a fixed duration of 2 seconds. The trial was aborted if  
568 the subject broke fixation at any point during the stimulus presentation, defined as either 1) making a  
569 microsaccade covering a distance greater than a predefined threshold (typically  $0.5^\circ$ ) or 2) a deviation in  
570 mean eye position from the center of the fixation point of more than a predefined threshold, typically  
571  $0.7^\circ$ . At the end of the stimulus presentation, two choice targets appeared. These were Gabor patches of  
572  $2\text{-}3^\circ$  in spatial extent, oriented at each of the two discriminandum orientations. The locations of the  
573 choice targets depended on the task. For discriminandum pairs near horizontal and vertical ( $-22.5^\circ -$   
574  $+22.5^\circ$  and  $67.5^\circ - 112.5^\circ$ ), the choice targets were positioned along the vertical meridian, at an  
575 eccentricity of about  $3^\circ$ , with the more vertically-oriented target appearing always in the upper hemifield.  
576 For orientation pairs near the obliques ( $22.5^\circ - 67.5^\circ$  and  $112.5^\circ - 157.5^\circ$ ), the choice targets were  
577 positioned along the horizontal meridian, at the same range of eccentricities, with the smaller of the two  
578 orientations always appearing in the left hemifield. (We use the convention that horizontal is  $0^\circ$  and that  
579 orientation increases with clockwise rotation.) To penalize random guessing, the volume of liquid reward  
580 delivered after correct choices was doubled with each consecutive correct choice, up to a maximum of  
581 four times the initial amount. Since we were primarily interested in the effect of task engagement on  
582 neuronal activity, we applied a behavioral criterion to our data, excluding sessions where the subject's  
583 psychophysical threshold (defined as the signal level eliciting 75% correct performance) exceeded 14%  
584 signal. A two-pass presentation procedure was used. Each instance of a stimulus (generated with a given

585 noise seed) was shown twice per experimental block. This allowed us to account for any effect of  
586 fluctuations in the stimulus on  $r_{sc}$  (see Supplementary Discussion §1.1 and Supplementary Fig. 5).

### 587 **Spike-count correlation measurements**

588 Spike-count correlations were calculated as the Pearson correlation between spike counts, counted  
589 over the entire duration of the stimulus, with a 50-ms delay to account for the typical V1 response  
590 latency. Spike counts were first z-scored separately within each experimental block (typically a set of  
591 100-200 trials lasting about 10 minutes) and each stimulus condition. This removed correlations related  
592 to long-term firing rate nonstationarities and allowed us to combine trials at different signal levels  
593 without introducing correlations related to similarity in stimulus preference. We used a balanced z-  
594 scoring method proposed recently to prevent bias related to differences in choice distributions across  
595 signal levels<sup>45</sup>. We excluded pairs that were not simultaneously isolated for at least 25 trials total. The  
596 median number of trials per pair during task performance was 752.

597 A main goal of the study was to measure how spike-count correlation varies with pairwise  
598 orientation. We describe this relationship as a smoothed function estimated from measures of  $r_{sc}$   
599 combined across multiple recording sessions, which we then sampled discretely with  $1^\circ$  resolution. The  
600 smoothed estimates were obtained using a bivariate von Mises smoothing kernel. A point in the  
601 correlation matrix  $\mathbf{C}$  was given as:

$$602 \quad \mathbf{C}(x, y) = \tanh \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n z_i K(x, y, \theta_i, \phi_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K(x, y, \theta_i, \phi_i)}, \text{ where } K(x, y, \theta_i, \phi_i) = e^{\kappa (\cos(\theta_i - x) + \cos(\phi_i - y))}, \quad (1)$$

603  $z_i$  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,  
604 and  $\kappa$  is the von Mises dispersion parameter. We set  $\kappa = 1.3\pi$ , yielding a smoothing kernel closely  
605 approximating a bivariate wrapped Gaussian with  $15^\circ$  s.d. In some cases, we expressed the  $r_{sc}$  matrix in a  
606 task-aligned coordinate frame (e.g. Fig. 4b), for which the preferred orientations of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  pair relative to  
607 the discriminandum orientations were used for  $\theta_i$  and  $\phi_i$ . Since there were always two orthogonal task

608 orientations, we averaged across both possible alignments, such that  $\mathbf{C}(x, y) = \mathbf{C}(x + 90^\circ, y + 90^\circ)$ . All  
609 angular quantities were doubled for the calculations, as orientation has a period of  $180^\circ$ . To generate the  
610 kernel-smoothed profile of CP (Fig. 8), we used a one-dimensional equivalent of the procedure above, in  
611 which preferred orientations were parameterized only by a single parameter.

## 612 **Regression model**

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

$$621 \quad y_i = x_i^{fixed} \cdot \beta^{fixed} + x_i^{task} \cdot \beta^{task} + \beta_0 + \varepsilon_i \quad (2)$$

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

$$628 \quad x_i(k) = \frac{e^{\kappa(\cos(\theta_i - \mu_k^1) + \cos(\phi_i - \mu_k^2))}}{Z} \quad (3)$$

629 where  $\theta_i$  and  $\phi_i$  are the preferred orientations of the  $i^{th}$  pair (relative to the discriminandum orientations  
 630 in the case of the task-dependent loadings),  $\mu_k$  is a pair of orientations defining the location of the  $k^{th}$   
 631 basis function,  $Z$  is a normalization constant such that the sum of all loadings for observation  $i$  ( $x_i^{fixed} +$   
 632  $x_i^{task}$ ) is 1, and  $\kappa$  is the von Mises dispersion parameter. Again, angular quantities were doubled and  $\kappa$   
 633 was set to  $1.3\pi$ . We found that arrays of 8x8 were sufficient to describe the structure of the two  
 634 components. Because the observations were pairwise correlations, it was sufficient only to fit the upper  
 635 triangular portion of the array of basis functions. Thus, the two-component model contained 73  
 636 parameters (36 for each component, plus the model constant).

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

$$641 \quad \hat{\beta}^{fixed}, \hat{\beta}^{task}, \hat{\beta}_0 = \underset{\beta^{fixed}, \beta^{task}, \beta_0}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_i |\varepsilon_i| + \alpha_1 \Gamma(\beta^{fixed} + \beta^{task}) + \alpha_2 D_{SPD}(\beta^{fixed} + \beta^{task}) \quad (4)$$

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

$$643 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } D_{SPD}(X) \text{ is the 2-norm between } X \text{ and the nearest symmetric positive semidefinite}$$

644 matrix  $\hat{X}$ , which is given by  $(B + H)/2$  where  $H$  is the symmetric polar factor of  $B = \frac{(X+X')}{2}$ <sup>46</sup>. The  $\alpha$ 's  
 645 controlled the strength of regularization and were chosen to produce the best fit (as measured with  $R^2$   
 646 under 10-fold cross-validation). The solution was obtained by gradient descent using the MATLAB  
 647 function *fminsearch*.

648 While this model did not explain more than a small percentage of the variance of the raw  
 649 observed  $r_{sc}$  values, this is not surprising as the raw correlation data do not vary smoothly with preferred  
 650 orientation (reflecting both noise, and the fact that  $r_{sc}$  is known to depend on parameters other than

651 orientation.<sup>1,5,6</sup>). For this reason, we measured goodness-of-fit relative to an estimate of the explainable  
652 variance, which we took as the variance explained simply by a smoothed version of the raw data (sum of  
653 values in fixed and task-aligned matrices was 3.6%).

## 654 **Choice probability predictions**

655 Choice Probability was calculated in the standard way<sup>29</sup>. We only used 0%-signal trials, as the  
656 uneven choice distributions elicited by signal trials yield noisier CP measurements. Assuming  
657 feedforward pooling with linear readout weights, the relationship between the covariance matrix for a  
658 population of neurons, the readout weight of each neuron, and the Choice Probability (*CP*) of each  
659 neuron is:

$$660 \quad CP_k = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \operatorname{sgn}(\xi_k) \arctan \sqrt{2\xi_k^{-2} - 1}^{-1} \quad \text{with} \quad \xi_k = \frac{(\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta})_k}{\sqrt{C_{kk}\boldsymbol{\beta}^T\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\beta}}} \quad (5)$$

661 where  $CP_k$  is the CP of neuron  $k$  with respect to choice 1,  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is the vector of readout weights and  $\mathbf{C}$  is the  
662 covariance matrix<sup>15</sup>. We used this known relationship to quantify the CPs that would be associated with  
663 the  $r_{sc}$  structure we observed and the fixed and task-dependent components we identified, assuming only  
664 a feedforward source of CP (Fig. 8). CPs,  $r_{sc}$  structure, and readout weights were described as task-  
665 aligned functions of preferred orientation (i.e. with orientation expressed relative to the discriminandum  
666 orientations). This is equivalent to assuming a population of infinite size that is homogeneous at a given  
667 orientation. For the fixed component of  $r_{sc}$ , which was indexed relative to raw orientation preferences, we  
668 generated a task-aligned version by substituting the observed  $r_{sc}$  values with model fits (using only a  
669 fixed component of the model) and then generating a smoothed task-aligned matrix as in Fig. 4b, using  
670 these substituted values. To guarantee real-valued CPs on  $[0,1]$ , we performed the calculations using a  
671 symmetric positive definite approximation<sup>46</sup> of the  $r_{sc}$  matrices, which introduced negligible error.

672 Since the readout weights were unknown, we generated a random distribution of plausible readout  
673 weights that could support task performance. To do this, we started with a vector of random weights



674 (drawn from a normal distribution) and applied the  $90^\circ$  symmetry inherent in the task, such that  $\beta_\theta =$   
 675  $-\beta_{\theta+90}$ , where  $\beta_\theta$  is the weight assigned to neurons with task-relative preferred orientation  $\theta$ . Then, we  
 676 smoothed the readout weight profiles with a wrapped Gaussian kernel with  $15^\circ$  s.d. and excluded profiles  
 677 which did not have a circular mean within  $22.5^\circ$  of choice 1 ( $0^\circ$ ). In practice, we found the CP  
 678 predictions to be remarkably insensitive to the readout weights (Supplementary Fig. 10). This may be due  
 679 to the use of a smoothed estimate of the  $r_{sc}$  matrix, which necessarily limits the effect of varying the  
 680 readout weights. If we had enough data to reliably detect sharp discontinuities in the  $r_{sc}$  matrix, then the  
 681 exact assumptions of readout could have a larger influence on predicted CP<sup>15</sup>.

682 Estimating mean covariance for a population of neurons is necessarily more error-prone than  
 683 estimating mean correlation, as the former is sensitive to sampling error in measurements of average  
 684 spike-count variance (and therefore firing rate), so for this reason we chose to perform the calculations  
 685 using correlations (see Supplemental Discussion §2). We can use correlations interchangeably with  
 686 covariances in equation 1, under the simplifying assumption that the variance is uniform as a function of  
 687 preferred orientation. If  $\Sigma$  is the correlation matrix for a population with uniform variance  $\alpha$ , then it  
 688 follows that:

$$689 \quad \xi_k = \frac{\alpha(\Sigma\beta)_k}{\sqrt{\alpha\Sigma_{kk}\beta^T(\alpha\Sigma)\beta}} = \frac{(\Sigma\beta)_k}{\sqrt{\Sigma_{kk}\beta^T\Sigma\beta}} \quad (6)$$

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

693 Noise in the decision process after pooling (pooling noise) has the effect of uniformly scaling  
 694 down CPs, such that  $\xi_k$  in Eq. 5 is substituted with:  $\frac{(\mathbf{C}\beta)_k}{\sqrt{c_{kk}(\beta^T\mathbf{C}\beta + \sigma_{pool}^2)}}$ , where  $\sigma_{pool}^2$  is the variance of the  
 695 pooling noise<sup>6</sup>. We found that non-zero pooling noise was needed to avoid overestimating the magnitude  
 696 of CP from the observed correlation structure. We used a fixed value of pooling noise in our predictions

697 such that the average squared difference between the CP profile predicted from the observed correlation  
698 matrix and the observed CP profile was minimized. Empirically, we found that pooling noise variance of  
699 0.6 was optimal. Since our spike counts were normalized to have unit variance, this implies pooling noise  
700 whose variance is 60% of the average spike-count variance of single neurons. This should be interpreted  
701 with care, as overestimation of CPs may also be an artefact related to the assumption of a homogeneous  
702 population<sup>15</sup>. Alternatively, the need to invoke pooling noise may be due to nonuniform sensory  
703 integration across the trial, which is distinct but which would also have an attenuating effect on CP when  
704 measured over the entire trial.

### 705 **Calculating differential correlations**

706 The information capacity of a sensory population, assuming a linear read out, is bounded when  
707 the spike-count covariances sufficiently match the differential correlations<sup>27</sup>. Since we made use of spike-  
708 count correlations, rather than covariances, in the present study, we normalized the measurements of  
709 differential correlations by the product of the standard deviations of the stimulus-independent variability  
710 of each pair.

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811

812 **Author Contribution**

813 A.G.B. and B.G.C. conceived and designed the experiments. A.G.B. performed the experiments and all  
814 aspects of the analysis. A.G.B. and B.G.C. wrote the paper. B.G.C. advised at all stages.

815

816 **Competing Financial Interests**

817 The authors declare no competing financial interests.