

1 Temporal evolution from retinal image size to 2 perceived size in human visual cortex

3 Juan Chen^{1,2*}, Irene Sperandio^{3*}, Molly J. Henry², Melvyn A Goodale^{2,4},

4 ¹Center for the Study of Applied Psychology, Guangdong Key Laboratory of Mental Health and
5 Cognitive Science, and the School of Psychology, South China Normal University, Guangzhou
6 510631, China

7 ²The Brain and Mind Institute, The University of Western Ontario, London, ON, N6A 5B7,
8 Canada

9 ³The School of Psychology, University of East Anglia, Norwich, NR4 7TJ, United Kingdom

10 ⁴Department of Psychology, The University of Western Ontario, London, ON, N6A 5C2, Canada

11 **Short title:** Temporal evolution of size constancy

12 **Correspondence**

13 *Correspondence should be addressed to Juan Chen or Irene Sperandio

14 Juan Chen, email: jchen737@uwo.ca or juanchen@m.scnu.edu.cn

15 Irene Sperandio, email: ISperandio@uea.ac.uk Phone: +44(0)160359 1396

16 **Key words (<10)**

17 EEG, size constancy, real distance, retinal size, physical size, perceived size, representational
18 similarity analysis

19 **Author contributions**

20 J.C., I.S., and M.A.G. designed the study. J.C. performed the research. J.C. and M.J.H. analyzed
21 the data. All authors contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

22 **Competing financial interests**

23 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32 Abstract

33 Our visual system affords a distance-invariant percept of object size by integrating retinal image
34 size with viewing distance (size constancy). Single-unit studies with animals have shown that
35 real changes in distance can modulate the firing rate of neurons in primary visual cortex and even
36 subcortical structures, which raises an intriguing possibility that the required integration for size
37 constancy may occur in the initial visual processing in V1 or even earlier. In humans, however,
38 EEG and brain imaging studies have typically manipulated the apparent (not real) distance of
39 stimuli using pictorial illusions, in which the cues to distance are sparse and not congruent. Here,
40 we physically moved the monitor to different distances from the observer, a more ecologically
41 valid paradigm that emulates what happens in everyday life. Using this paradigm in combination
42 with electroencephalography (EEG), we were able for the first time to examine how the
43 computation of size constancy unfolds in real time under real-world viewing conditions. We
44 showed that even when all distance cues were available and congruent, size constancy took about
45 150 ms to emerge in the activity of visual cortex. The 150-ms interval exceeds the time required
46 for the visual signals to reach V1, but is consistent with the time typically associated with later
47 processing within V1 or recurrent processing from higher-level visual areas. Therefore, this
48 finding provides unequivocal evidence that size constancy does not occur during the initial signal
49 processing in V1 or earlier, but requires subsequent processing, just like any other feature
50 binding mechanisms.

51 Main text

52 Our visual perception of the world is not a simple reflection of incoming retinal inputs, but
53 involves complex integration of spatial and/or temporal contextual information. One clear
54 example of this integration is size constancy, in which we tend to perceive the size of an object at
55 different distances as constant, even though the image it subtends on the retina (retinal image
56 size) changes with viewing distance. Size constancy requires that we integrate retinal image size
57 with information about viewing distance. When (and where) the computations underlying size
58 constancy take place in the visual brain is an important question as it speaks to when (and where)
59 our brain can infer the physical property of objects in the outside world based on sensory input.
60 A long history of neuropsychological studies has shown that lesions in occipitotemporal,
61 inferotemporal, and parietal cortices interfere with size constancy judgements (Humphrey &
62 Weiskrantz, 1969; Ungerleider, Ganz, & Pribram, 1977; Wyke, 1960). Yet, single-cell recording
63 studies suggest that the required neural components for the computation of size constancy could
64 be present as early as in the primary visual cortex V1 (Dobbins, Jeo, Fiser, & Allman, 1998;
65 Marg & Adams, 1970; Ni, Murray, & Horwitz, 2014; Smith & Marg, 1975) – even though
66 traditionally this visual area has been thought to faithfully code the retinal input. Along these
67 lines, a growing body of evidence from human fMRI studies showed that V1 actually represents
68 perceived size (Fang, Boyaci, Kersten, & Murray, 2008; He, Mo, Wang, & Fang, 2015; Murray,
69 Boyaci, & Kersten, 2006; Pooresmaeli, Arrighi, Biagi, & Morrone, 2013; Sperandio, Chouinard,
70 & Goodale, 2012), which requires the integration of retinal image size and viewing distance.

71 Although V1 can represent perceived size, there are two possibilities with respect to when (and
72 where) the integration itself might occur. On the one hand, it is possible that the integration of
73 retinal signals and viewing distance (as signaled by a range of possible visual and oculomotor

74 cues) would begin in the initial stages of signal processing in V1 (Pooresmaeli et al., 2013) or
75 even earlier in the thalamus before any signals have even reached the cortex (Richards, 1968;
76 Richards, 1971). Such an early integration is an intriguing possibility because a rapid
77 computation of the real-world size of objects is not only critical for stabilized perception, but is
78 also important for accurate motor planning, where size and distance information have to be
79 integrated for the execution of skilled actions, such as reaching and grasping. In fact, previous
80 neurophysiological studies have shown that ocular vergence, accommodation, gaze direction,
81 and viewing distance (i.e., eye position) could influence the spiking rate of neurons in the lateral
82 geniculate nucleus (LGN) (Lal & Friedlander, 1990; Weyand & Malpeli, 1993) and/or V1
83 (Dobbins et al., 1998; Marg & Adams, 1970; Masson, Busettini, & Miles, 1997; Rosenbluth &
84 Allman, 2002; Trotter & Celebrini, 1999; Trotter, Celebrini, Stricanne, Thorpe, & Imbert, 1992;
85 Weyand & Malpeli, 1993), and some of the influence could be present at the beginning of the
86 visual response in V1 (Trotter & Celebrini, 1999). On the other hand, it is also possible that the
87 initial signals in V1 represent purely retinal input and any modulation of those signals by
88 viewing distance occurs later (Blakemore, Garner, & Sweet, 1972; Fang et al., 2008; Humphrey
89 & Weiskrantz, 1969; Liu et al., 2009; Ni et al., 2014; Sperandio et al., 2012). Due to the low
90 temporal resolution of blood-oxygen-level dependent (BOLD) signals, functional imaging
91 studies cannot directly address which of these possibilities discussed above is the most likely.

92 Here, by using high-temporal resolution EEG together with a multivariate pattern analysis of the
93 signals as they unfolded, we focused on the time course of any integration that reflected the
94 operation of size constancy. Recent electrophysiological studies in monkeys (Ni et al., 2014) and
95 humans (Liu et al., 2009) have investigated the timing of the modulation of the representation of
96 size by perceived distance. However, these studies did not systematically explore the effects of
97 changing the *real* distance of the stimulus, but manipulated apparent distance by using the Ponzo
98 illusion instead. In such illusion, the pictorial cues signal that objects are located at different
99 distances from the observer but the binocular and oculomotor cues (vergence and
100 accommodation) always signal a fixed distance, i.e., the real distance of the monitor on which
101 the pictorial illusion is displayed. This incongruence in the distance cues could potentially delay
102 and even interfere with the integration of distance and retinal image size (Sperandio et al., 2012).
103 Thus, to investigate the time course of size-distance integration using EEG, we devised a natural
104 viewing paradigm in which the cues to distance were entirely congruent. To this end, we
105 physically moved the entire visual display to different distances from the observer. Thus,
106 compared to the pictorial illusions that have been used in previous studies (Fang et al., 2008; He
107 et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2009; Murray et al., 2006; Ni et al., 2014; Schwarzkopf, Song, & Rees,
108 2011), our experiments were much more ecologically valid because they emulated what happens
109 in everyday life when people look at objects located at different distances. We measured EEG
110 activity when size constancy was essentially perfect (Experiments 1 and 2) and when it was
111 disrupted by removing most of the cues to distance (Experiment 3).

112 **Results**

113 To investigate the temporal evolution of the representation of stimulus size (i.e., retinal image
114 size versus perceived size), the physical size and viewing distance of the visual stimulus were
115 manipulated to create four conditions: near-small (NS), near-large (NL), far-small (FS), and far-
116 large (FL) (**Fig. 1A**). Crucially, the stimuli in the NS and FL conditions had the same retinal size,

117 while those in the NS and FS conditions had the same physical size, as did those in the NL and
118 FL conditions. These relationships between the different conditions in retinal image size and in
119 physical size are reflected in the two “similarity matrices”, shown in **Fig. 1B**, which by definition
120 were the same for all participants. Unlike retinal size or physical size, however, the perceived
121 size of each stimulus depends on the availability and weighting of distance cues (Chen,
122 Sperandio, & Goodale, 2018; Holway & Boring, 1941; Sperandio & Chouinard, 2015) and could
123 vary between individuals [see **Fig. 1B, right column** for an example of the “similarity” in
124 perceived size from one participant in Experiment 3 in which distance cues were restricted (**Fig.**
125 **2B left**)].

126 The display monitor was placed on a movable track mounted on a table. Viewing distance was
127 manipulated by moving the display monitor to two different positions manually (**Figs. 2A left**
128 and **2B left**). To minimize the influence of any dynamic visual or oculomotor adjustments that
129 would occur during the actual movement of the monitor on the visually evoked response induced
130 by the test stimulus, the stimulus was not triggered by the experimenter until 1.5~2.5 s after the
131 monitor had been moved and set in place at the far or near position. Thus, the long interval
132 between the placement of the monitor and the onset of the stimulus ensured that all the distance
133 cues were processed and any event-related visual and oculomotor signals evoked by the
134 movement of the monitor had stabilized well before the stimulus was presented.

135 **Experiment 1.** In this experiment, the stimulus was a black solid circle on a white background,
136 and therefore its contrast and brightness changed minimally with viewing distance. Participants
137 viewed the stimuli binocularly with the room lights on (full-viewing condition, **Fig. 2A left**).
138 Because we manipulated the real distance of the stimulus display, many different cues to
139 distance were available, including oculomotor adjustments (vergence, accommodation), pictorial
140 cues, and binocular disparity, and were congruent with one another.

141 Participants were asked to identify whether the stimulus was the small one or the large one by
142 pushing one of two keys. They all reported stimuli in both NS and FS as “small” (mean
143 percentage of “small” response: NS, 99.11%; FS, 98.67%) and in both NL and FL as “large”
144 (mean percentage of “small” response: NL, 98.28%; FL, 98.89%), suggesting that participants
145 had size constancy in the full-viewing condition.

146 EEG signals were recorded from six electrodes (P3, P4, PZ, CP3, CP4 and CPZ) at the back of
147 the head which typically yield the strongest visually evoked potentials (Chen et al., 2014; Chen,
148 Yu, Zhu, Peng, & Fang, 2016). **Fig. 3A** shows the event-related potentials averaged across all six
149 electrodes for each of the four conditions. The first visually evoked component C1, especially the
150 initial portion of C1 between 56-70 ms after stimulus onset, is thought to be generated mainly by
151 feedforward signals in V1 (Bao, Yang, Rios, He, & Engel, 2010; Clark, Fan, & Hillyard, 1994;
152 Di Russo, Martínez, Sereno, Pitzalis, & Hillyard, 2002; Foxe & Simpson, 2002). Any feedback
153 from higher-level visual areas will appear later in the event-related potentials (ERPs). The C1
154 component in the current experiment had a peak latency of 56 ms on average, which should have
155 reflected the initial processing in V1 without trial-specific top-down influences being involved.
156 If size constancy occurs at the initial stages of visual processing in V1, then stimuli of the same
157 perceived size (i.e., stimuli with the same physical size but viewed at different distances) would
158 evoke similar C1 amplitude. This was not the case, however. Instead, we found that only the NL
159 stimulus, which had the largest retinal image size, evoked a significant C1 ($t(1,15) = -3.86$; $p =$
160 0.002), and the amplitude of C1 evoked by the NL stimulus was significantly larger than the one

161 evoked by the FL stimulus, which had the same physical and perceived (but not retinal) size as
162 the NL stimulus ($t(1,16) = -3.08$, $p = 0.008$), suggesting that C1 reflected the retinal image size,
163 but not the physical size, of the stimulus.

164 As the ERP continued to unfold, the waveforms clustered in a way that reflected the physical
165 size of the stimuli rather than their retinal image size [see **Fig. 3A**; note that the waveforms for
166 the NL and the FL conditions (blue lines) overlap one another as do the waveforms for the NS
167 and FS (pink lines)]. In short, the later components of the ERP appeared to show evidence of the
168 operation of size constancy mechanisms.

169 To examine exactly when the transition from the representation of retinal image size to the
170 representation of physical size occurred, we calculated the difference in the amplitude of the
171 ERPs between conditions that had the same retinal image size (FL-NS) and conditions that had
172 the same physical size (FS-NS and FL-NL). These difference scores, which are illustrated in **Fig. 3B**,
173 revealed that waveforms for the stimuli with the same retinal image size (FL and NS)
174 overlapped completely until 148 ms after stimulus onset at which point they began to separate,
175 suggesting that before this time point the activity in visual cortex reflected only the size of the
176 retinal image subtended by the stimulus [$p_{\text{corrected}} < 0.05$, corrected using a cluster-based test
177 statistic (Monte Carlo) method embedded in Fieldtrip toolbox (Oostenveld, Fries, Maris, &
178 Schoffelen, 2011); the same criterion was used for all time-course-related comparisons
179 thereafter]. In contrast, the difference scores calculated for the ERPs in which the stimuli had the
180 same physical size showed that the waveforms for the two small stimuli (FS and NS) began to
181 overlap at 150 ms after stimulus onset and the waveforms for the two large stimuli (FL and NL)
182 at 144 ms, suggesting that after these time points, the activity in visual cortex began to reflect the
183 physical size of the visual stimuli. Taken together, these findings indicate that the activity in
184 visual cortex reflected the retinal image size of visual stimuli until about 150 ms after stimulus
185 onset but after that, began to represent the physical size of the stimuli.

186 The results reported above are all based on the amplitude difference averaged across all
187 electrodes between each pair of conditions (i.e., pairs of conditions that had the same retinal
188 image size or the same physical size). To further explore the temporal dynamics of processing
189 associated with retinal image vs. physical size, we also performed a representational similarity
190 analysis (RSA) based on the *patterns* of signals from all six electrodes within a 20-ms sliding
191 time window. Each element of the similarity matrix for neural signals was the Pearson's
192 correlation between the EEG signal patterns of each pair of conditions (see Methods for details).
193 If the visual signals were representing retinal image size, then the similarity matrix for the neural
194 signals (neural model) should have a higher correlation with the similarity matrix for the retinal
195 image size (retinal model, **Fig. 1B left**) than with the similarity matrix for the physical size
196 (physical model, **Fig. 1B middle**). Consistent with our prediction, the RSA revealed that the
197 neural model was significantly correlated with the retinal model before about 150 ms (**Fig. 3C**,
198 see **Table 2** for details. Note: numbers in **Table 2** shows the *start* point of the 20-ms sliding
199 window), and was significantly correlated with the physical model after about 124 ms.
200 Importantly, the neural model was correlated more with the retinal model at 50~150 ms and
201 correlated more with the physical model at a later window, although this difference did not
202 survive correction for multiple comparisons (**Fig. 3C, Table 2**). Taken together, these results
203 provide converging evidence that during the early stages of visual processing (within the first

204 ~150 ms) the observed activity is locked to retinal image size but later on begins to reflect the
205 real-world size of a visual stimulus.

206 **Experiment 2.** In Experiment 1, participants indicated whether the stimulus was large or small
207 during EEG recording. One might argue that if they had not been asked to do a size-relevant
208 task, the coding of physical size would emerge much later – or never. In other words, the post-
209 150 ms overlap in the waveforms for the same physical size conditions might be due to nothing
210 more than the fact that participants had only two choices in their behavioral response: small or
211 large. To rule out these possibilities, we replicated the EEG protocol of Experiment 1, but asked
212 participants to detect the onset of a non-stimulus visual target (an open circle) that was randomly
213 interleaved with the experimental stimuli (solid circles) during the EEG recording. In addition,
214 after the EEG recording, we also carried out a separate psychophysical test in which we asked
215 participants to indicate the perceived size of each stimulus at each viewing distance by opening
216 their thumb and index finger a matching amount (manual estimation task) (Chen, Jayawardena,
217 & Goodale, 2015; Chen, Sperandio, & Goodale, 2015; Chen et al., 2018). The addition of the
218 manual estimation task made it possible to measure any subtle differences in perceived size (i.e.,
219 size constancy) between participants, allowing us to calculate a perceived-size similarity matrix
220 (**Fig. 1B right**, perceived model) for each participant and to then calculate the correlation
221 between the perceived model and the neural model in a representational similarity analysis
222 (RSA). Note that such an analysis was not possible in Experiment 1 because participants had
223 been asked to categorize the stimuli as either large or small.

224 The manual estimation data confirmed that the participants on average showed size constancy
225 (i.e. main effect of distance was not significant, $F(1,13) = 0.002$ $p = 0.969$; **Fig. 2A right**).
226 Consistent with Experiment 1, only the NL condition, which had the largest retinal size,
227 generated a significant C1 component ($t(11) = -4.02$, $p = 0.002$; **Fig. 4A**) and the C1 induced by
228 the NL condition was significantly larger than that one induced by the FL condition ($t(11) =$
229 3.73 , $p = 0.003$). The difference in amplitude between conditions that had the same retinal image
230 size but different physical sizes (NS and FL) did not emerge until 138 ms after stimulus onset
231 (**Fig. 4B**). The difference between conditions that had the same physical size (NL and FL) did
232 not disappear until 144 ms for the large stimulus and 162 ms for the small stimulus (FS and FS)
233 (**Fig. 4B**), which confirms the observation from **Fig. 4A** that after about 150 ms, the waveforms
234 for conditions that had the same physical size started to overlap.

235 The RSA also revealed a pattern of results that was similar to that seen in Experiment 1. First,
236 the neural model was significantly correlated with the retinal model at an early stage, and was
237 significantly correlated with the perceived and the physical model at a relatively later stage (see
238 **Table 2** for the *start* time point of the sliding windows that showed significant difference
239 between conditions; the correlation of the neural model with the physical-size model and the
240 correlation of the neural model with the perceived-size model almost perfectly overlapped
241 because almost all the participants showed size constancy, **Fig. 2A right**). Second and most
242 importantly, the neural signals were correlated more with the retinal model than with the
243 physical or the perceived size model before about 150 ms (**Table 2**, the start point of the 20-ms
244 sliding window was from 66 ms to 124 ms after stimulus onset). All these results agree well with
245 those in Experiment 1 and suggest that retinal image size, not perceived size, was encoded at the
246 initial stage of visual processing and only later did the activity reflect the perception of stimulus

247 size. The fact that the same timing was observed even when participants were performing a size-
248 irrelevant task suggests that size-distance integration is to some extent automatic and
249 independent of the task the participants were performing.

250 **Experiment 3.** In the previous experiments, participants on average showed perfect size
251 constancy in the full-viewing condition. We found strong and converging evidence that 150 ms
252 after stimulus onset is the critical time point when the transition from coding retinal size to
253 coding perceived size happens. In Experiment 3, we removed most of the cues to viewing
254 distance, which we expected would disrupt size constancy and affect the perceived size of the
255 stimulus. We then explored whether individual differences in the degree of disruption would be
256 reflected in the grouping of the EEG components that unfolds after 150 ms.

257 Specifically, in Experiment 3, participants were asked to view the stimulus (a *white* solid circle
258 on black screen, see Methods for more information) with their non-dominant eye through a 1-
259 mm pinhole in an otherwise completely dark room (Chen et al., 2018; Holway & Boring, 1941)
260 (i.e. restricted-viewing condition, **Fig. 2B left**), while performing a size-irrelevant detection task
261 (the same task as in Experiment 2) during the EEG recording. In this case, no binocular distance
262 cues were available. Pictorial cues were dramatically reduced as participants were able to see
263 only a little bit of the background. In addition, the small pinhole prevented participants from
264 using accommodation as a reliable cue to distance (Hennessy, Iida, Shiina, & Leibowitz, 1976).
265 With such a restricted viewing condition, participants would have to rely mainly on retinal image
266 size to judge object size; thus, a stimulus at the near distance would be perceived as larger than
267 the same stimulus at the far distance because the stimulus would subtend a larger retinal image
268 size at the near distance (Chen et al., 2018). This was confirmed by the manual estimates that
269 participants provided in a separate behavioral test (without EEG recording) in the same pinhole
270 viewing condition (**Fig. 2B right**, the main effect of distance, $F = 91.344$, $p < 0.001$).
271 Nevertheless, it is important to point out that all the participants still knew whether the monitor
272 was at the near or the far position, presumably on the basis of cues from the moving monitor
273 when its position was changing – and from other cues, such as brightness and perhaps
274 differences in the amount of background that was visible. As a result, the extent to which size
275 constancy was disrupted would have depended on how well each individual could exploit the
276 remaining distance cues. Indeed, there was considerable variability in size constancy across
277 participants as shown in **Fig. 2B right**.

278 The peak of C1 in Experiment 3 occurred approximately 20 ms later than it did in experiments 1
279 and 2, probably because only one eye was being stimulated in this experiment (Mirzajani &
280 Jafari, 2014). Nevertheless, consistent with Experiments 1 and 2, the NL stimulus, which had
281 the largest retinal size, evoked the strongest C1 component (compared with the amplitude of the
282 other three conditions, paired t-test, all $t < 3.129$, $p < 0.006$; **Fig. 5A**), again suggesting that
283 retinal image size, not physical size, was driving the activity of the early ERP components. The
284 waveforms for those conditions in which the stimulus subtended the same retinal image size (NS
285 and FL) in Experiment 3 began to depart from each other around 144 ms after stimulus onset
286 (**Fig. 5B**), just as they did in Experiments 1 and 2, but overall the waveforms did not show the
287 same clear groupings according to physical size as they did in the two previous experiments.
288 Instead, the waveform evoked by the NL stimulus began to separate from the FL stimulus
289 approximately 154 ms after stimulus onset and never showed any overlap with FL, even though
290 they had the same physical size. This pattern agrees with the fact that, under restricted viewing

291 condition, the NL stimulus was perceived on average as being the largest stimulus of the four
292 (**Fig. 2B, right**).

293 Despite the evident disruption in size constancy on average across participants in the restricted-
294 viewing paradigm, as was mentioned already, some participants did better than others in
295 reporting the real size of the stimuli. Visual inspection revealed that, for participants whose size
296 constancy was not disrupted or only slightly disrupted, the ERPs for the four conditions appeared
297 to group according to the physical size as observed in both Experiments 1 and 2 (**Figs. 3A and**
298 **4A**). In contrast, for those participants whose size constancy was strongly disrupted, the
299 waveform for the NL stimulus showed an increasingly large deviation from the waveform for the
300 FL stimulus (and the other three conditions) after 150 ms. To quantify this, we calculated the
301 correlation between behavioral reports and the waveforms of the ERP across participants.
302 Specifically, we calculated a behavioral index (BI) of disruption in size constancy [$(BI = ME_{NL} -$
303 $ME_{FL}) / ME_{FL}$, where ME indicates the manual estimate of perceived size]. We also calculated an
304 EEG index (EI) of disruption in size constancy for the late component of the ERPs [$(EI = (A_{NL} -$
305 $A_{FL}) / A_{FL}$, where A is the area separating the waveform and the x axis (i.e., amplitude = 0) where
306 the waveforms for the stimuli in the NL and FL conditions are significantly different from one
307 another (blue shaded area from 154 ms to 350 ms in **Fig. 5A, middle**)]. We found that there was
308 indeed a significant correlation between BI and EI across participants ($r = 0.55$, $p = 0.03$; **Fig. 5A,**
309 **right**). We also calculated a similar correlation between BI and EI for the early C1 component
310 (the orange shaded area in **Fig. 5A, middle**) but the correlation was not significant ($r = -0.30$, $p =$
311 0.28 ; **Fig. 5A, left**), again suggesting that the variability in perceived size across participants is
312 reflected in the later ERP components but not in C1.

313 Similar to Experiments 1 and 2, we also performed an RSA for Experiment 3. The correlation
314 between the neural model and the physical model (**Fig. 5C**) was close to 0 throughout the whole
315 post-stimulus interval, which is not surprising given that size constancy was disrupted to some
316 degree for almost all the participants. In contrast, the retinal model and the perceived model were
317 both highly correlated with the neural model from about 80 ms after stimulus onset (see **Table 2**
318 for details). Although the perceived size was biased towards the retinal size in the restricted-
319 viewing condition as shown in the behavioral data (**Fig. 2B right**), we found a trend in favor of
320 the retinal model at the early stage (**Fig. 5C**, orange is above green) and a trend in favor of the
321 perceived model at the later stage (**Fig. 5C**, green is above orange, see **Table 2** for statistical
322 results). This again provides convincing evidence that retinal-size was being coded at the early
323 stages of the ERP, whereas perceived size was represented at later stages.

324 **Discussion**

325 The three experiments provide converging evidence that the computations underlying size
326 constancy do not take place in the initial stages of visual processing in V1, or earlier. In other
327 words, although the distance cues might modulate the spiking rate of a subset of neurons in LGN
328 (Lal & Friedlander, 1990; Weyand & Malpeli, 1993), SC (Batini & Horcholle-Bossavit, 1979)
329 and V1 (Rosenbluth & Allman, 2002; Trotter & Celebrini, 1999; Trotter et al., 1992; Weyand &
330 Malpeli, 1993) at single-unit level, the integration with retinal image size still takes at least 150
331 ms to show perceived-size related activity at the neural population level (as revealed in our ERP
332 results) in human participants.

333 It is important to note that unlike previous studies which used pictorial illusions (Fang et al.,
334 2008; He et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2009; Murray et al., 2006; Ni et al., 2014) (e.g., the Ponzo
335 illusion) projected on a screen at a fixed distance as stimuli, we changed the physical distance of
336 the stimulus display from trial to trial, so that in the full-viewing condition in Experiments 1 and
337 2 there was a large range of distance cues, including oculomotor, binocular, and monocular cues,
338 which were entirely congruent with one another. More importantly, the long interval after the
339 monitor had been set in place provided enough time for the distance cues to be well processed
340 before the stimulus onset, so that the distance information could theoretically be integrated with
341 retinal information about the test stimulus as soon as the stimulus was presented. For all these
342 reasons, the time we identified as the transition point from the coding of retinal image size to the
343 coding of perceived size, which occurred at approximately 150 ms after stimulus onset, is
344 probably the earliest possible time point at which the integration of retinal image size and
345 viewing distance information can take place. Interestingly, the same time interval was required
346 to compute perceived size in Experiment 3 when visual cues to distance were degraded (but still
347 congruent) and participants showed large individual differences in size constancy judgments.
348 Taken together, these results suggest that 150 ms is an interval that may be required for the
349 integration of distance information with retinal image size no matter what (congruent) visual or
350 oculomotor cues are available.

351 Two other studies have also examined the timing of activity in visual areas related to the
352 computation of perceived size. Ni et al. (2014) found that the position of receptive fields of
353 neurons in V1 in the monkey were influenced by the position of a visual stimulus on a Ponzo
354 illusion background – and that this effect was evident extremely early (about 30 ms after
355 stimulus onset). Of course, conductance times in the monkey brain will always be much shorter
356 than those in the human brain because of the large difference in brain size. Moreover, the
357 modulation of activity that was observed in a subset of neurons using single-unit recording does
358 not necessarily represent the population level coding of perceived size in V1. Indeed, an ERP
359 study by Liu et al. (2009), which also used the same illusory display in human participants,
360 found that the modulation of the signal occurred much later, around 240-260 ms, a time that is
361 even later than the 150 ms we observed here. This difference may be related to the fact that all
362 the distance cues in our study were congruent, whereas in Liu et al.’s study the pictorial cues
363 were in conflict with the vergence, accommodation, and binocular disparity cues, perhaps
364 leading to a delay in the integration of the pictorial cues with retinal image size. In other words,
365 by eliminating the conflict between distance cues, we revealed the real timing of the transition
366 from the coding of retinal image size to coding of perceived size.

367 Because the 150 ms required for the size-distance integration is consistent with the time that is
368 typically required (80 to 150 ms after stimulus onset) for the recurrent feedback from higher-
369 order visual areas to V1 (Wyatte, Jilk, & O'Reilly, 2014), it is possible that the representation of
370 perceived size in V1 observed in previous fMRI studies (Fang et al., 2008; He et al., 2015;
371 Murray et al., 2006; Sperandio et al., 2012) also reflected recurrent processing. Recurrent
372 feedback to V1 has been shown to be critical for feature binding (Bouvier & Treisman, 2010;
373 Koivisto & Silvanto, 2011). In a similar fashion, such feedback could be used to integrate
374 distance information with retinal image size to calculate the real-world size of objects, and
375 subsequently, integrate real-world size with other object features, such as shape, colour, and
376 visual texture. Indeed, it is worth noting that accounts of feature integration have almost entirely

377 ignored object size, perhaps because only images presented on a display at a fixed distance rather
378 than real objects presented at different distances have been employed in these studies.

379 Interestingly, size constancy is not only observed in perceptual judgments, but is also observed in
380 grasping movements – that is, within a comfortable reaching space, people typically use the same
381 grip aperture to grasp an object regardless of viewing distance. Here, we found that size
382 constancy does not happen in the initial stage of V1 (or even earlier) even when real distance
383 was changed. This finding agrees with the observation that proprioceptive distance cues make a
384 larger contribution to size constancy in grasping than to size constancy in perception when visual
385 cues are limited (Chen et al., 2018), which also suggests that size-distance integration does not
386 happen early in V1 or even before, but may happen in the dorsal visual stream and the
387 motor/premotor cortex for grasping and in the ventral visual cortex for perception. Moreover, it
388 has been suggested that efference copy information from vergence (and theoretically
389 accommodation) is conveyed from the superior colliculus (via thalamic nuclei) to the frontal eye
390 fields and to visuomotor areas in the posterior parietal cortex, completely bypassing the
391 geniculostriate pathway altogether (Sommer & Wurtz, 2008). Therefore, it is likely that
392 although the integration of retinal image size and distance information takes at least 150 ms for
393 perception, some distance information could be conveyed to visuomotor networks in the dorsal
394 stream quickly (Chen et al., 2007; Foxe & Simpson, 2002) to mediate size constancy for
395 grasping. Additional support for this idea comes from studies showing that patients with lesions
396 of V1 can scale the opening of their grasping hand to the size and orientation of goal objects
397 (Carey, Dijkerman, & Milner, 1998; Carey, Harvey, & Milner, 1996; Prentiss, Schneider,
398 Williams, Sahin, & Mahon, 2018; Whitwell, Striemer, Nicolle, & Goodale, 2011), even though
399 they do not perceive those objects.

400 In sum, our study provides accurate temporal information about how representation of size
401 changes with real distance in natural circumstances. The finding clarifies the role of V1 in size
402 constancy and has implications in any cognitive processing and motor controls that involve size-
403 distance integration.

404 **Materials and Methods**

405 *Participants*

406 Seventeen participants (7 males, 10 females) took part in Experiment 1. One participant's (male)
407 data was discarded because of strong noise in his EEG signals. Sixteen participants (5 males, 11
408 females) took part in the EEG portion of Experiment 2, but only 14 of them took part in the
409 behavioral portion of the experiment. Two participants were unable to complete the behavioral
410 portion due to lack of time in the testing session. Sixteen participants (6 males, 10 females) took
411 part in both the EEG and the behavioral size estimation portions of Experiment 3. All were right
412 handed and had no history of neurological impairments. Most of participants aged between 18
413 and 30 years old except for two participants in Experiment 3, who were 45 and 52 years old,
414 respectively. Participants in Experiments 1 and 2 had either normal or corrected-to-normal visual
415 acuity. All participants in Experiment 3 had normal visual acuity. Informed consent was obtained
416 from all subjects according to procedures and protocols approved by the Health Sciences
417 Research Ethics Board at The University of Western Ontario.
418

419 *Stimuli and setup*

420 In Experiments 1 and 2, the stimuli were black solid circles with a diameter of 4 cm (i.e. 'Small'
421 or 'S') or 8 cm (i.e. 'Large' or 'L'). They were presented in the center of a screen with a white
422 background (**Fig 2A**). The screen was mounted on a movable track so that the experimenter
423 could move it to a near (28.5 cm, 'N') or a far viewing distance (57 cm, 'F'). In these two
424 experiments, the near-small (NS) and far-large (FL) stimuli had the same retinal size; the near-
425 small ('NS') and far-small ('FS') stimuli had the same physical size, so did the near-large ('NL')
426 and far-large ('FL') stimuli. We used black circles on a white background, instead of white
427 circles on a black background as stimuli, so that the brightness and perceived contrast would not
428 vary with the viewing distance. We used solid circles, instead of gratings or other complex
429 objects as stimuli, to avoid any confound of differences in spatial frequency at different viewing
430 distances. There was a fixation point (a red dot) on the center of the screen throughout the
431 experiments. Participants were seated in front of the screen with their chin on a chinrest. These
432 two experiments were performed with the room lights on and under binocular viewing conditions
433 (i.e., full-viewing condition).

434 In Experiment 3, the same design (2 sizes \times 2 distances) was adopted. The room was completely
435 dark and participants looked at the stimuli through a 1 mm hole on the pin-hole glasses with their
436 non-dominant eye (i.e., restricted-viewing condition). Unlike Experiments 1 and 2, in which
437 black solid circles were presented on a white screen, in Experiment 3, the stimuli were *white*
438 solid circles presented on a *black* background. The reason for introducing this change was that if
439 we used black circles as stimuli and white screen as background in Experiment 3, participant
440 would be able to see the boundary of the circular field of view clearly when they wore pin-hole
441 glasses. The relative size between the circular stimuli and the area they could see through the
442 pin-hole would have provided them with information regarding the size of the stimuli, which
443 would have made it impossible to disrupt size constancy. Because white circles, instead of black
444 circles, were used as stimuli to make sure that size constancy could be disrupted in the restricted-
445 viewing condition (see Method for details), the brightness and contrast of the stimulus would
446 have varied with viewing distance, which might explain why the waveforms of conditions were
447 not as well organized as those in Experiments 1 and 2 at the second ERP component (peak at
448 about 150 ms after stimulus onset). When a white stimulus was presented on a black screen and
449 was viewed through a 1 mm hole with one eye in darkness, all the binocular cues and most of the
450 contextual cues were not available anymore. They could not see the frame of the monitor. The
451 blur was removed and accommodation could not provide valid distance information (Hennessy et
452 al., 1976). Previous studies have shown that size constancy could be disrupted effectively with
453 these stimuli and setup (Holway & Boring, 1941). Nevertheless, because participants could still
454 indicate the distance based on the movement of the monitor, the extent to which size constancy
455 was disrupted would depend on how well each individual could use the remaining distance cues.

456 *Procedure*

457 In Experiment 1, participants were asked to indicate whether a solid circle was small or large
458 regardless of distance by pressing two keys ("1" for small and "2" for large) during EEG
459 recording. At the beginning of each trial, the experimenter was cued with a letter, either 'N' or
460 'F', that appeared at the corner of the screen to indicate whether the viewing distance of a
461 specific trial would be near or far (note: the participants could not see the letter). The
462 experimenter who sat beside the monitor would move the monitor to the near or far position,

463 accordingly. 1.5 ~2.5 s after the screen was moved to the right position, the experimenter pushed
464 a key to trigger the presentation of the stimulus. The stimulus was presented on the screen for 0.2
465 s. Participants were asked to maintain fixation at the fixation point throughout the experiment.
466 There were 100 trials in each run, with 25 trials for each condition.

467 In Experiment 2, the protocol of the EEG trials was the same as that described for Experiment 1
468 with two exceptions. First, during EEG recording in each run, there were 10 additional trials in
469 which the stimulus was an open circle, rather than a solid circle. Participants were asked to push
470 a key (“0”) as soon as they saw the open circle (i.e., target-detection task). Second, in addition to
471 the EEG trials, 14 out of the 16 participants also performed a behavioral task in which they were
472 asked to open their thumb and index finger to indicate the *perceived* size of the stimulus (manual
473 estimation task) (Chen, Jayawardena, et al., 2015; Chen, Sperandio, et al., 2015; J. Chen et al.,
474 2018). The distance between the finger and thumb was then measured with a measuring tape.
475 This psychophysical measure was taken after the EEG session. Participants completed 4-5
476 psychophysical blocks depending on the time available, with 2 manual estimates for each of the
477 four conditions in each block.

478 In Experiment 3, the same EEG protocol was used as reported above. Participants also performed
479 a detection task during EEG recording and also performed a separate behavioral testing session.
480 As mentioned above, the key difference between this experiment and Experiment 2 was that the
481 stimulus was a white solid circle on a black background and participants viewed the stimulus
482 monocularly with their non-dominant eye through a 1 mm hole in the dark (i.e., restricted-
483 viewing condition). In addition, unlike Experiment 2, the psychophysical blocks were performed
484 before any EEG recordings and after every four EEG runs, in case the perceptual experience of
485 size changed over EEG runs.

486 In all experiments, the order of the four conditions was randomized on a trial-by-trial basis.
487 Participants completed between 8 and 14 runs of EEG recording depending on the time available,
488 for a total of 200-300 repetitions for each condition. Each experiment lasted between 3 and 4
489 hours.

490 It should be noted that size constancy was not affected by the restricted-viewing condition to the
491 same extent across participants, probably because of individual differences in their ability to use
492 residual depth cues (e.g. vibration or auditory cues provided by the movement of the monitor, or
493 changes in the brightness of the white stimulus) to enable size constancy. [In another study from
494 our lab in which we moved a sphere, rather than a monitor to different location on a table, we
495 were able to successfully disrupt size constancy in all participants using the same restricted-
496 viewing condition (Chen et al., 2018)]. We noticed this issue after we completed the EEG
497 recording and behavioral testing of the first participant. Because the purpose of this investigation
498 was to explore the neural correlates of perceived size when size constancy was disrupted, we
499 performed additional psychophysical tests to exclude those participants whose size constancy
500 was not affected at all by the restricted viewing conditions. Thirty-one participants took part in
501 these additional tests in which they were required to manually estimate the size of the circle
502 under the restricted-view condition. The size constancy of 15 out of the 31 participants originally
503 tested was affected to some extent, and therefore only these 15 participants were included in
504 Experiment 3 together with the first tested participant.

505 *EEG measurements*

506 Scalp EEG was collected using NeuroScan Acquire 4.3 recording system (Compumedics) from
507 32 Ag/AgCl electrodes positioned according to the extended international 10 – 20 EEG system.
508 Vertical electro-oculogram (VEOG) was recorded from two electrodes placed above or below
509 the left eye. Horizontal EOG (HEOG) was recorded from two electrodes placed at the outer
510 canthus of the left and the right eyes. Because we were interested in the six electrodes at the
511 parietal and occipital part of the scalp (i.e., CP3, CPZ, CP4, P3, PZ, and P4) that have been
512 reported to reflect visual processing (Luck, 2005), we always kept the impedance of these six
513 electrodes below 10 kΩ. We also tried to keep the impedance of the other electrodes as low as
514 possible, but this revealed to be impossible for all participants due to the long duration of the
515 EEG session (> 3 hours). EEG was amplified with a gain of 500 K, band pass filtered at 0.05 –
516 100 Hz, and digitized at a sampling rate of 500 Hz. The signals on these electrodes were
517 referenced online to the electrode on the nose.

518 *Data Analysis*

519 *ERP data Preprocessing*

520 Offline data analysis was performed with NeuroScan Edit 4.3 (Compumedics) and MATLAB
521 R2014 (Mathwork). The EEG data was first low-pass filtered at 30 Hz, and then epoched starting
522 at 100 ms before the stimulus onset and ending 400 ms after stimulus onset. Each epoch was
523 baseline-corrected against the mean voltage of the 100 ms pre-stimulus interval. The epochs
524 contaminated by eye blinks, eye movements, or muscle potentials exceeding $\pm 50 \mu\text{V}$ at any
525 electrode were excluded from the average.

526 *Amplitude and latency analyses of ERP components*

527 For the event-related potential (ERP) analysis, the remaining epochs after artifact rejection were
528 averaged for each condition. Preliminary analyses revealed that the activity pattern of the four
529 conditions in all 6 electrodes (i.e., CP3, CPZ, CP4, P3, PZ, and P4) were similar. Therefore, only
530 the ERP amplitude and latency results that were averaged across these six electrodes were
531 reported. The peak amplitude and latency of each component were acquired for each condition
532 and each participant.

533 *Representational similarity analysis (RSA)*

534 To examine at what time the brain activity was representing the retinal size, physical size or
535 perceived size, we calculated the correlation between the similarity matrix revealed in neural
536 signals (i.e., ERP amplitude) and similarity matrices for the retinal size, physical size and the
537 perceived size, respectively, for each sliding window (10 time points, i.e., 20 ms) with the first
538 point of the window moving from -100 ms to 382 ms. The element of the similarity matrix for
539 the neural model (i.e., EEG signals) was set as the Fisher-Z correlation coefficient between the
540 EEG patterns for each pair of conditions at a specific time window. Each EEG patterns included
541 60 elements (10 time points \times 6 electrodes).

542 The similarity matrices for the retinal size and the physical size are shown in **Fig. 1B**. The
543 similarity between two conditions was set as 1 if the retinal size or the physical size was the
544 same, but was set as 0 if the retinal size or the physical size was different. These matrices were
545 fixed across participants. The similarity matrix for perceived size was calculated for each
546 individual (see **Fig 1B** for an example). Each element of the matrix was obtained by first

547 calculating the perceived size difference between two conditions, and then multiplying the
548 obtained value by -1. For Experiment 1, no perceived size data was collected for each individual,
549 and therefore only retinal-size model and physical size model were tested.

550 To obtain an unbiased measurement of the correlation between the neural model and the size
551 model, we used a procedure similar to the n-folded cross-validation that was commonly used in
552 pattern recognition analysis. Specifically, we first randomly sampled half group of trials from
553 the whole set of ERP trials for each condition, then we averaged the ERPs of the sampled trials.
554 The averaged ERPs were used to calculate the correlation coefficients between the EEG patterns
555 of each pair of conditions (i.e., the elements of the neural model) at a specific time window and
556 to calculate the correlation between the obtained neural model and size model. This procedure
557 was repeated 50 times. The 50 correlation coefficients between the neural model and size model
558 were first converted to Fisher-Z scores, and were then averaged to arrive at the reported
559 correlation results.

560 *Correlation between size constancy disruption index calculated in perceptual judgments and in*
561 *ERP components*

562 In Experiment 3, to test which ERP component reflected the individual variability in size-
563 constancy disruption, we calculated the correlation between the amounts of size-constancy
564 disruption measured behaviourally and the amount of size-constancy disruption measured in the
565 ERP components across individuals.

566 The behavioral size-constancy disruption index (BI) was defined as

567
$$BI = \frac{ME_{NL} - ME_{FL}}{ME_{FL}}, \quad (1)$$

568 where ME indicates manual estimate.

569 To specifically examine whether the disruption of size constancy was reflected in the early visual
570 component C1 or the late ERP component, the size constancy disruption in ERP was calculated
571 separately for C1 and the late ERP component. The EEG size constancy disruption index (EI)
572 was defined as

573
$$EI = -\frac{A_{NL} - A_{FL}}{A_{FL}}, \quad (2)$$

574 where "A" stands for the area under the curve (i.e., between the curve and the x axis) in a
575 specific interval. For C1, this interval was when the C1 amplitudes in the NL condition were
576 significantly higher than the 25% of the peak amplitude of the C1 in the same condition. In the
577 current case, the interval was between 78-90 ms after stimulus onset. For the late EEG
578 component, the interval was when the amplitude of NL was significantly different from the FL
579 condition (154-350 ms). The large size, but not the small size, was used to calculate the
580 behavioral and EEG size-constancy disruption indices because the size constancy disruption (i.e.,
581 the difference in perceived size or in ERP amplitude between near and far distances) was more
582 evident and reliable in the large size condition than in the small size condition in both behavioral
583 and EEG results. Pearson correlation was calculated to test whether or not the correlation
584 between behavioral performance and neural signals were significant. For C1, one outlier (beyond
585 +/-5 SD) was excluded.

586 *Statistical Analysis*

587 To examine whether or not there was size constancy, repeated ANOVAs with size and distance
588 as main factors were carried out to reveal whether or not the main effect of distance was
589 significant. To compare the amplitude of C1 component evoked by different conditions, paired t-
590 tests were performed on the peak value of the C1 amplitude. To search intervals when there were
591 significant differences between each time course and 0 or between two time courses, paired t-
592 tests were conducted point-by-point, and then were corrected for multiple comparisons using the
593 cluster-based test statistic embedded in Fieldtrip toolbox (Monte Carlo method, $p < 0.05$). For
594 the RSA results and the correlation between BI and EI results, all statistical comparison were
595 conducted on the Fisher Z scores of the Pearson correlation coefficients.

596 **Acknowledgements**

597 We are grateful to Amratha Chandrakumar and Jason Kim for their help with data collection.
598 This research was supported by a Discovery Grant from the Natural Sciences and Engineering
599 Research Council of Canada (MAG) and a Canadian Institute for Advanced Research Grant
600 (MAG).

601 **References**

602 Bao, M., Yang, L., Rios, C., He, B., & Engel, S. A. (2010). Perceptual Learning Increases the
603 Strength of the Earliest Signals in Visual Cortex. *Journal of Neuroscience*, 30(45),
604 15080-15084.

605 Batini, C., & Horcholle-Bossavit, G. (1979). Extraocular muscle afferents and visual input
606 interactions in the superior colliculus of the cat. In *Progress in Brain Research* (Vol. 50,
607 pp. 335-344): Elsevier.

608 Blakemore, C., Garner, E. T., & Sweet, J. A. (1972). The site of size constancy. *Perception*, 1(1),
609 111-119. doi:10.1068/p010111

610 Bouvier, S., & Treisman, A. (2010). Visual Feature Binding Requires Reentry. *Psychological
611 Science*, 21(2), 200-204. doi:10.1177/0956797609357858

612 Carey, D. P., Dijkerman, H. C., & Milner, A. D. (1998). Perception and action in depth.
613 *Consciousness and cognition*, 7(3), 438-453.

614 Carey, D. P., Harvey, M., & Milner, A. D. (1996). Visuomotor sensitivity for shape and
615 orientation in a patient with visual form agnosia. *Neuropsychologia*, 34(5), 329-337.
616 doi:[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0028-3932\(95\)00169-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0028-3932(95)00169-7)

617 Chen, C.-M., Lakatos, P., Shah, A. S., Mehta, A. D., Givre, S. J., Javitt, D. C., & Schroeder, C. E.
618 (2007). Functional Anatomy and Interaction of Fast and Slow Visual Pathways in
619 Macaque Monkeys. *Cerebral Cortex*, 17(7), 1561-1569. doi:10.1093/cercor/bhl067

620 Chen, J., He, Y., Zhu, Z., Zhou, T., Peng, Y., Zhang, X., & Fang, F. (2014). Attention-
621 Dependent Early Cortical Suppression Contributes to Crowding. *The Journal of
622 Neuroscience*, 34(32), 10465-10474. doi:10.1523/jneurosci.1140-14.2014

623 Chen, J., Jayawardena, S., & Goodale, M. A. (2015). The effects of shape crowding on grasping.
624 *Journal of Vision*, 15(3), 1-9. doi:10.1167/15.3.6

625 Chen, J., Sperandio, I., & Goodale, M. A. (2015). Differences in the effects of crowding on size
626 perception and grip scaling in densely cluttered 3-D scenes. *Psychological Science*, 26(1),
627 58-69. doi:10.1177/0956797614556776

628 Chen, J., Sperandio, I., & Goodale, M. A. (2018). Proprioceptive Distance Cues Restore Perfect
629 Size Constancy in Grasping, but Not Perception, When Vision Is Limited. *Current
630 Biology*, 28, 1-6. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2018.01.076

631 Chen, J., Yu, Q., Zhu, Z., Peng, Y., & Fang, F. (2016). Spatial summation revealed in the earliest
632 visual evoked component C1 and the effect of attention on its linearity. *Journal of*
633 *Neurophysiology*, 115(1), 500-509. doi:10.1152/jn.00044.2015

634 Clark, V. P., Fan, S., & Hillyard, S. A. (1994). Identification of early visual evoked potential
635 generators by retinotopic and topographic analyses. *Human Brain Mapping*, 2(3), 170-
636 187.

637 Di Russo, F., Martínez, A., Sereno, M. I., Pitzalis, S., & Hillyard, S. A. (2002). Cortical sources
638 of the early components of the visual evoked potential. *Human Brain Mapping*, 15(2),
639 95-111.

640 Dobbins, A. C., Jeo, R. M., Fiser, J., & Allman, J. M. (1998). Distance Modulation of Neural
641 Activity in the Visual Cortex. *Science*, 281(5376), 552-555.
642 doi:10.1126/science.281.5376.552

643 Fang, F., Boyaci, H., Kersten, D., & Murray, S. O. (2008). Attention-Dependent Representation
644 of a Size Illusion in Human V1. *Current Biology*, 18(21), 1707-1712.

645 Foxe, J. J., & Simpson, G. V. (2002). Flow of activation from V1 to frontal cortex in humans.
646 *Experimental Brain Research*, 142(1), 139-150.

647 He, D., Mo, C., Wang, Y., & Fang, F. (2015). Position shifts of fMRI-based population receptive
648 fields in human visual cortex induced by Ponzo illusion. *Experimental Brain Research*,
649 233(12), 3535-3541. doi:10.1007/s00221-015-4425-3

650 Hennessy, R. T., Iida, T., Shiina, K., & Leibowitz, H. (1976). The effect of pupil size on
651 accommodation. *Vision Research*, 16(6), 587-589.

652 Holway, A. H., & Boring, E. G. (1941). Determinants of apparent visual size with distance
653 variant. *The American Journal of Psychology*, 21-37.

654 Humphrey, N. K., & Weiskrantz, L. (1969). Size constancy in monkeys with inferotemporal
655 lesions. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 21(3), 225-238.
656 doi:10.1080/14640746908400217

657 Koivisto, M., & Silvanto, J. (2011). Relationship between visual binding, reentry and awareness.
658 *Consciousness and cognition*, 20(4), 1293-1303.
659 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.concog.2011.02.008>

660 Lal, R., & Friedlander, M. J. (1990). Effect of passive eye position changes on retinogeniculate
661 transmission in the cat. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 63(3), 502-522.

662 Liu, Q., Wu, Y., Yang, Q., Campos, J. L., Zhang, Q., & Sun, H. J. (2009). Neural correlates of
663 size illusions: an event-related potential study. *NeuroReport*, 20(8), 809-814.
664 doi:10.1097/WNR.0b013e32832be7c0

665 Luck, S. J. (2005). *An Introduction to the Event-Related Potential Technique*. Cambridge, MA:
666 Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

667 Marg, E., & Adams, J. (1970). Evidence for a neurological zoom system in vision from angular
668 changes in some receptive fields of single neurons with changes in fixation distance in
669 the human visual cortex. *Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences*, 26(3), 270-271.

670 Masson, G. S., Busettoni, C., & Miles, F. A. (1997). Vergence eye movements in response to
671 binocular disparity without depth perception. *Nature*, 389(6648), 283-286.

672 Mirzajani, A., & Jafari, A. (2014). The effect of binocular summation on time domain transient
673 VEP wave's components. *Razi Journal of Medical Sciences*, 21(123), 29-35.

674 Murray, S. O., Boyaci, H., & Kersten, D. (2006). The representation of perceived angular size in
675 human primary visual cortex. *Nature Neuroscience*, 9(3), 429-434.

676 Ni, Amy M., Murray, Scott O., & Horwitz, Gregory D. (2014). Object-Centered Shifts of
677 Receptive Field Positions in Monkey Primary Visual Cortex. *Current Biology*, 24(14),
678 1653-1658. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2014.06.003>

679 Oostenveld, R., Fries, P., Maris, E., & Schoffelen, J.-M. (2011). FieldTrip: Open Source
680 Software for Advanced Analysis of MEG, EEG, and Invasive Electrophysiological Data.
681 *Computational Intelligence and Neuroscience*, 2011, 9. doi:10.1155/2011/156869

682 Pooresmaeli, A., Arrighi, R., Biagi, L., & Morrone, M. C. (2013). Blood oxygen level-
683 dependent activation of the primary visual cortex predicts size adaptation illusion. *The
684 Journal of Neuroscience*, 33(40), 15999-16008. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1770-13.2013

685 Prentiss, E. K., Schneider, C. L., Williams, Z. R., Sahin, B., & Mahon, B. Z. (2018).
686 Spontaneous in-flight accommodation of hand orientation to unseen grasp targets: A case
687 of action blindsight. *Cognitive Neuropsychology*, 1-9.
688 doi:10.1080/02643294.2018.1432584

689 Richards, W. (1968). Spatial remapping in the primate visual system. *Kybernetik*, 4(4), 146-156.

690 Richards, W. (1971). Size-distance transformations. In *Zeichenerkennung durch biologische und
691 technische Systeme/Pattern Recognition in Biological and Technical Systems* (pp. 276-
692 287): Springer.

693 Rosenbluth, D., & Allman, J. M. (2002). The Effect of Gaze Angle and Fixation Distance on the
694 Responses of Neurons in V1, V2, and V4. *Neuron*, 33(1), 143-149.
695 doi:[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273\(01\)00559-1](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(01)00559-1)

696 Schwarzkopf, D. S., Song, C., & Rees, G. (2011). The surface area of human V1 predicts the
697 subjective experience of object size. *Nature Neuroscience*, 14(1), 28-30.

698 Smith, J., & Marg, E. (1975). Zoom neurons in visual cortex: Receptive field enlargements with
699 near fixation in monkeys. *Experientia*, 31(3), 323-326.

700 Sommer, M. A., & Wurtz, R. H. (2008). Brain circuits for the internal monitoring of movements.
701 *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.*, 31, 317-338.

702 Sperandio, I., & Chouinard, P. A. (2015). The mechanisms of size constancy. *Multisensory
703 research*, 28(3-4), 253-283.

704 Sperandio, I., Chouinard, P. A., & Goodale, M. A. (2012). Retinotopic activity in V1 reflects the
705 perceived and not the retinal size of an afterimage. *Nat Neurosci*, 15(4), 540-542.
706 doi:10.1038/nn.3069

707 Trotter, Y., & Celebrini, S. (1999). Gaze direction controls response gain in primary visual-
708 cortex neurons. *Nature*, 398(6724), 239-242.

709 Trotter, Y., Celebrini, S., Stricanne, B., Thorpe, S., & Imbert, M. (1992). Modulation of neural
710 stereoscopic processing in primate area V1 by the viewing distance. *Science*, 257(5074),
711 1279-1281.

712 Ungerleider, L., Ganz, L., & Pribram, K. (1977). Size constancy in rhesus monkeys: effects of
713 pulvinar, prestriate, and inferotemporal lesions. *Experimental Brain Research*, 27(3-4),
714 251-269.

715 Weyand, T. G., & Malpeli, J. G. (1993). Responses of neurons in primary visual cortex are
716 modulated by eye position. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 69(6), 2258-2260.
717 doi:10.1152/jn.1993.69.6.2258

718 Whitwell, R. L., Striemer, C. L., Nicolle, D. A., & Goodale, M. A. (2011). Grasping the non-
719 conscious: Preserved grip scaling to unseen objects for immediate but not delayed
720 grasping following a unilateral lesion to primary visual cortex. *Vision Research*, 51(8),
721 908-924. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.visres.2011.02.005>

722 Wyatte, D., Jilk, D. J., & O'Reilly, R. C. (2014). Early recurrent feedback facilitates visual object
723 recognition under challenging conditions. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 5, 674.
724 Wyke, M. (1960). Alterations of size constancy associated with brain lesions in man. *Journal of*
725 *neurology, neurosurgery, and psychiatry*, 23(3), 253.

726
727

728 Figure Legends

729
730

731 **Fig 1.** Design of all experiments and the “similarity” matrix between conditions. **A**, Solid circles
732 of two sizes (Small = 4 cm and Large = 8 cm) were presented at two distances (Near = 28.5 cm
733 and Far = 57 cm). **B**, The retinal-image size similarity matrix, the physical-size similarity matrix,
734 and the perceived size similarity matrix for all conditions. The retinal-size and physical-size
735 matrices consisted of values of “0” s (i.e. 0s indicate “different” retinal size or physical size) or
736 “1”s (1s indicate the “same” retinal size or the same physical size). The elements of the
737 perceived size similarity matrix were calculated for each participant based on the “similarity” of
738 the reported perceived size between each pair of conditions. The “similarity” was operationally
739 defined as the difference in perceived size between each pair of conditions multiplied by -1.

740

741 **Fig 2.** Viewing conditions and the behavioral results of perceived size in the corresponding
742 viewing conditions. **A**, Left: In both Experiments 1 and 2, participants viewed the stimuli
743 binocularly with room lights on (i.e., full-viewing condition). The stimuli were solid black
744 circles presented on a white screen. The monitor was placed on the table with a movable track
745 under it so that it could be moved to different distances. Right: the perceived size (measured via
746 manual estimation) for each individual (indicated as each kind of symbols connected by gray
747 lines) in Experiment 2. The black lines with symbols show the average across participants. **B**,
748 Left: In Experiment 3, participants viewed the stimuli monocularly through a 1 mm pin-hole in
749 complete dark. The stimuli were solid white circles presented on a black screen. Through the 1
750 mm hole, participants were only able to see part of the monitor but not the borders (blue dashed-
751 line circle). Again, the monitor was moved to different distances. Right: the perceived size
752 (measured via manual estimation) for each individual (shown as each gray line with symbols) in
753 Experiment 3 during restricted viewing and their average results (black lines with symbols).

754

755 **Fig 3.** ERP results of Experiment 1 in which participants were asked to indicate whether the
756 stimulus was large or small in the full-viewing condition. **A**, ERP curves that were first averaged
757 across all six electrodes for each participant and then averaged across participants for each
758 condition. **B**, The difference in amplitude between conditions that had the same retinal size (i.e.,
759 between NS and FL), and between conditions that had the same physical size (i.e., between FS
760 and NS, and between FL and NL). The gray arrow points to approximately when the
761 representation of retinal image size ended and when the signals began to change to represent the
762 perceived size. **C**, The results of the representational similarity analysis (RSA). Each curve
763 shows the time course of correlation between the similarity matrix of the neural model obtained
764 from the ERP amplitude pattern and the similarity matrix of each of the size models (Retinal Size

765 model and Physical Size model). The horizontal axis shows the start point of the 20-ms sliding
766 time window. Shaded regions show standard error of the mean. The colored thick bars show
767 when the values on each curve were significantly different from 0. The gray box shows when the
768 two correlations were significantly different. All statistical point-by-point one sample t-tests or
769 paired t-tests reported in this study were corrected using the cluster-based test statistic embedded
770 in Fieldtrip toolbox (Monte Carlo method, $p < 0.05$).
771

772 **Fig 4.** ERP results of Experiment 2 in which participants performed a size-irrelevant task (i.e.,
773 detect the onset of a non-testing stimulus) in the full-viewing condition. **A**, ERP curves that were
774 first averaged across all six electrodes for each participant and then averaged across participants
775 for each condition. **B**, The difference in ERP amplitude between conditions that had the same
776 retinal size or the same physical size (same as **Fig 3B**). The gray arrow points to roughly when
777 the size representation of retinal size ended and when the ERPs began to change to represent
778 perceived size. **C**, The results of the RSA analysis. Each curve shows the time course of
779 correlation between the similarity matrix of each size model and the similarity matrix of the
780 neural model obtained from the ERP activation pattern. Shaded regions show standard error of
781 the mean. The horizontal axis shows the start point of the 20-ms sliding time window. Again, the
782 colored thick bars show when the difference was significantly different from 0. The gray box
783 shows when the correlations between the Retinal Model and the Physical Model (and the
784 Perceived Model) were significant.
785

786 **Fig 5.** ERP results of Experiment 3 in which participants performed a size-irrelevant task (i.e.
787 non-stimulus detection task) in the restricted-viewing condition. **A**, Middle: ERP curves that
788 were first averaged across all six electrodes for each participant and then averaged across
789 participants for each condition. Left: The scatter plot which shows the correlation between the
790 amount of size-constancy disruption reflected in the behavioral performance (i.e. perceived size)
791 and the amount of size-constancy disruption reflected in the earliest visual-evoked component
792 C1 (i.e., the orange area in the middle figure). Right: The scatter plot showing the correlation
793 between the amount of size-constancy disruption reflected in behavioral performance and the
794 amount of size-constancy disruption reflected in the later ERP components (i.e., the blue area in
795 the middle figure). **B**, The difference in ERP amplitude between conditions that had the same
796 retinal size or the same physical size. **C**, RSA results. Each curve shows the time course of
797 correlation between the similarity matrix of each size model and the similarity matrix of the
798 neural model obtained from the ERP activation pattern. Shaded regions show standard error of
799 the mean. Again, the colored thick bars in **B** and **C** show when the values on each curve were
800 significantly different from 0 and the gray box show when the difference in the correlation of
801 neural model with Retinal Model and with Perceived Model was significantly different.
802
803
804
805
806
807

808 **Tables**

809

810 **Table 1.** Time intervals (ms after stimulus onset) when the amplitude difference was significantly
811 different from 0 with the p values corrected for multiple comparisons in brackets (cluster-based test
812 statistic embedded in Fieldtrip toolbox (Monte Carlo method, $p < 0.05$).

	Same retinal size (FL-NS)	Same small physical size (FS-NS)	Same large physical size (FL-NL)
Exp 1	148-214 (0.006)	88-150 (0.024)	94-144 (0.002)
Exp 2	138-204 (0.002)	90-162 (0.004)	92-144 (0.01)
Exp 3	144-204 (0.04)	-	154-350 (0.002)

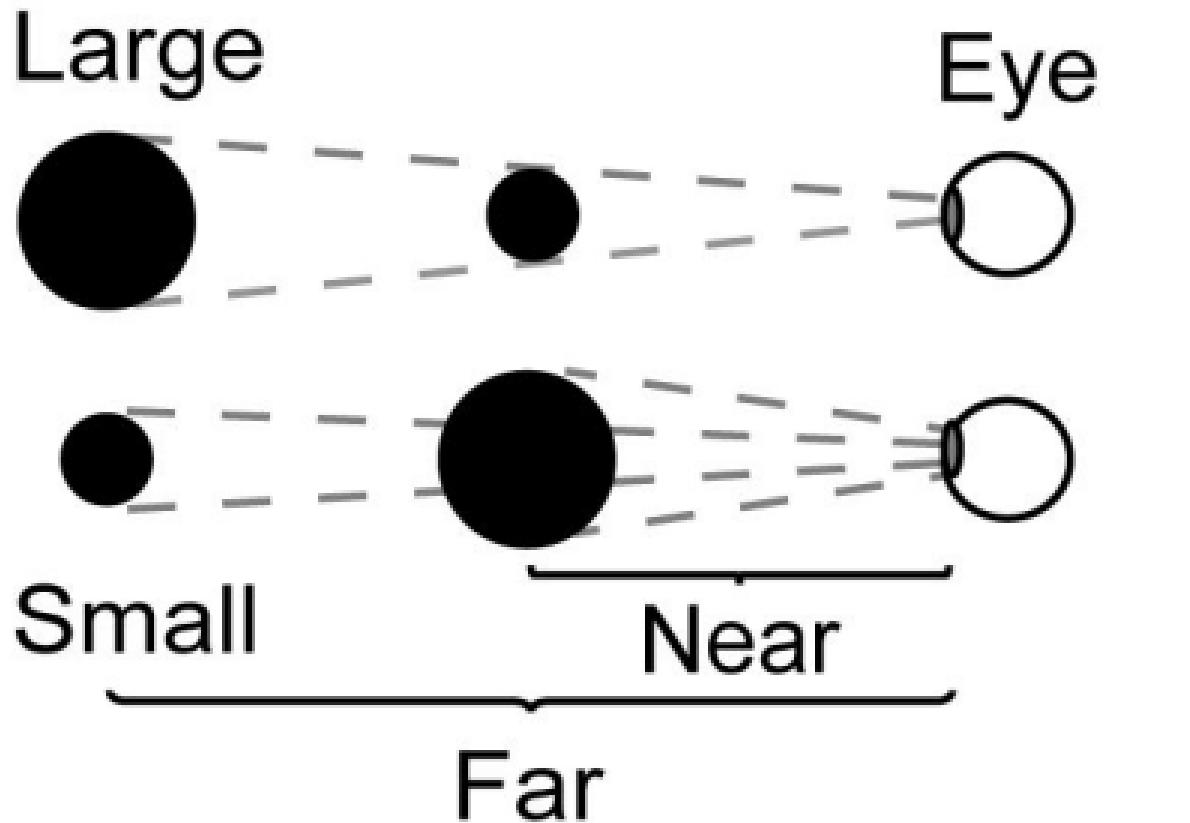
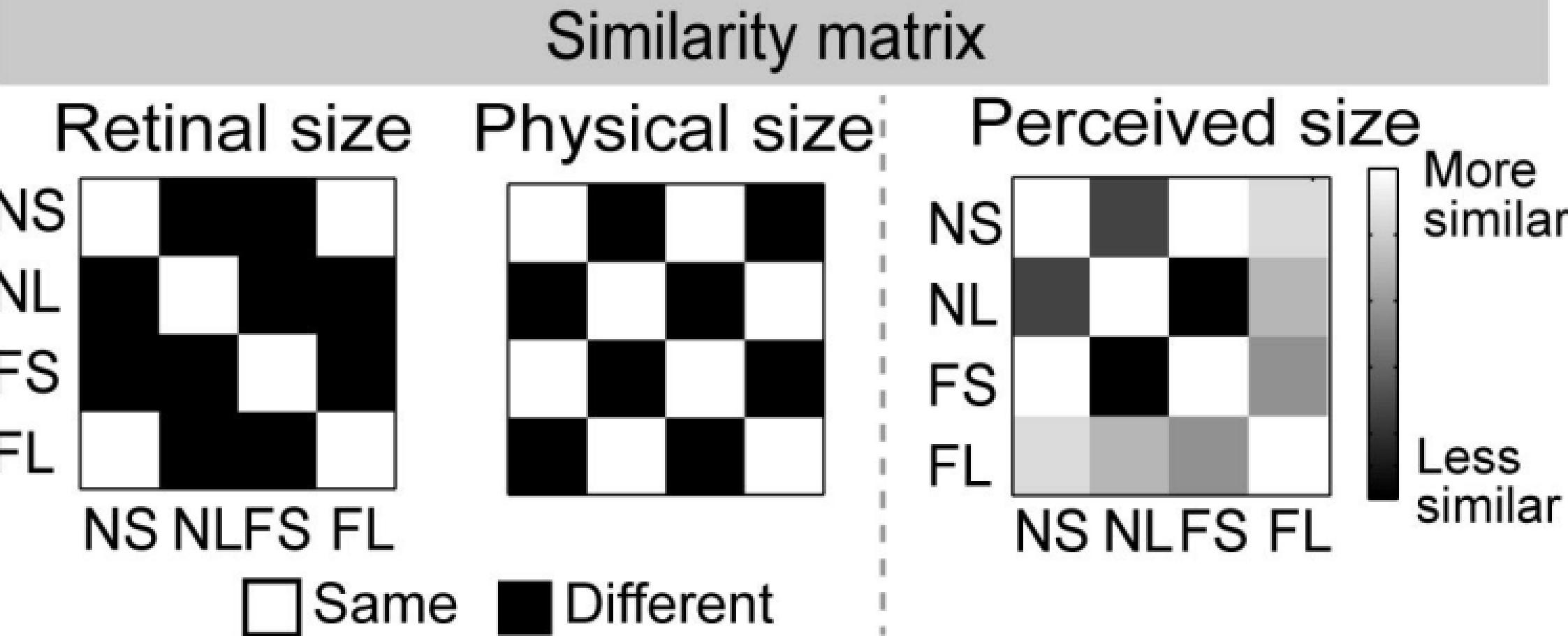
813

814 **Table 2.** The *start* time point of the sliding window (ms after stimulus onset) when the correlation (Fisher
815 Z score) between the neural model and each of the size models was significantly different from 0 or the
816 two correlations were significantly different from each other. The corrected p values (cluster-based test
817 statistic embedded in Fieldtrip toolbox, Monte Carlo method, $p < 0.05$) is reported in brackets.

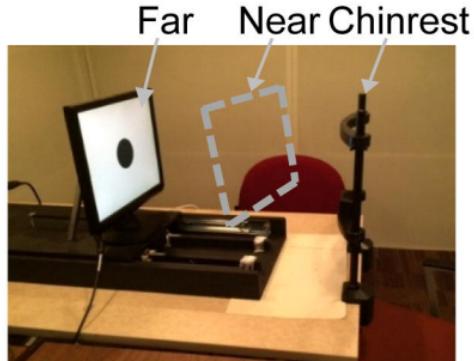
	Retinal >0	Physical >0	Perceived> 0	Retinal >Physical	Physical >Retinal	Retinal >Perceived	Perceived >Retinal
Exp 1	54-136 (0.002)	124-158 (0.046)	-	54-126 (0.002)	-	-	-
		182-238 (0.01)					
Exp 2	52-114 (0.002)	180-246 (0.004)	182-242 (0.002)	66-124 (0.002)	-	68-122 (0.002)	-
		164-216 (0.012)					
Exp 3	86-222 (0.002)	-	82-114 (0.046)	92-188 (0.002)	-	-	236-268 (0.04)
			128-156 (0.042)	192-228 (0.016)			
			222-382 (0.004)				

818

819

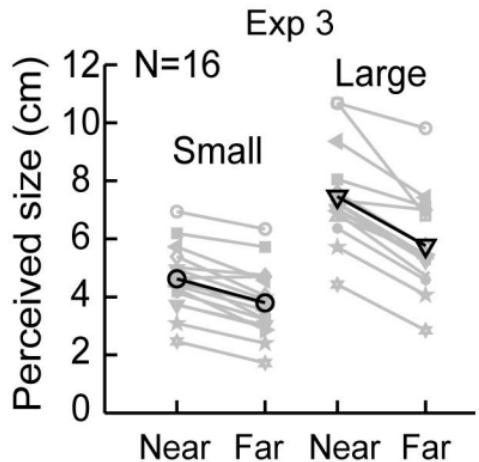
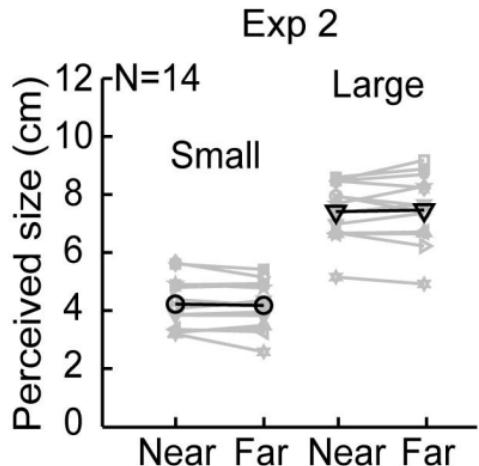
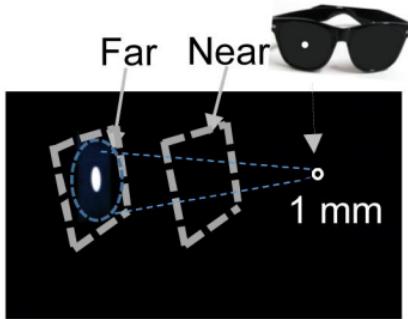
A**B**

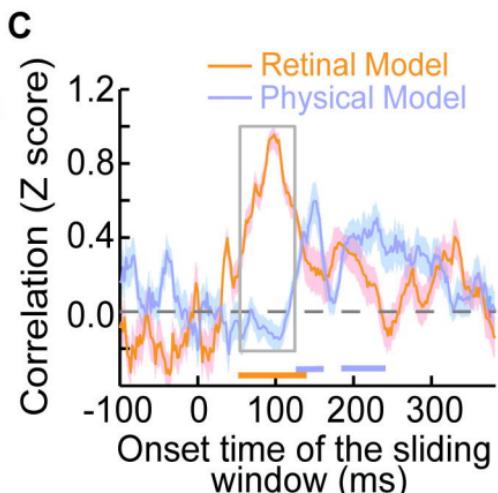
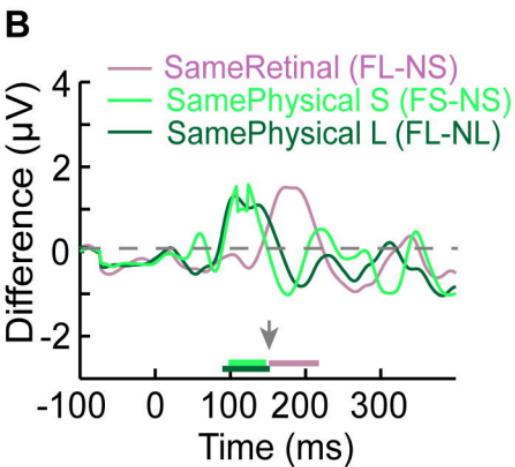
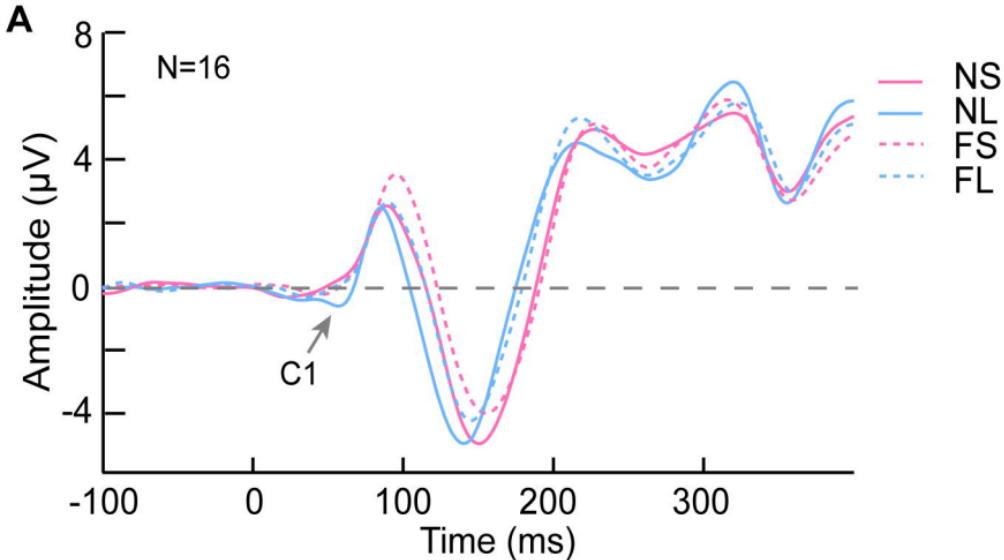
A Full-viewing condition (Exps 1 and 2)



B Restricted-viewing condition (Exp 3)

Pinhole Glasses



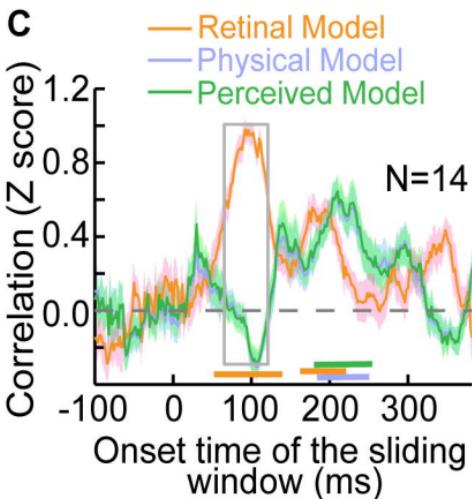
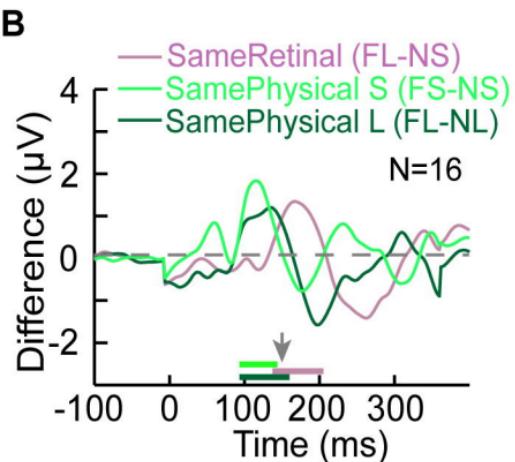
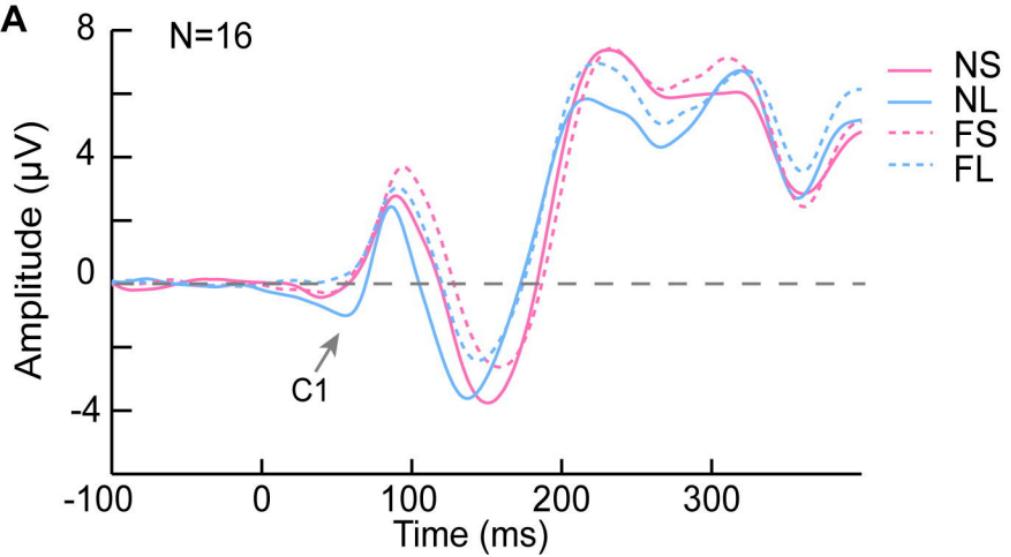


— > 0
— > 0
— > 0

All $P_{\text{corrected}} < 0.05$

— > 0
— > 0

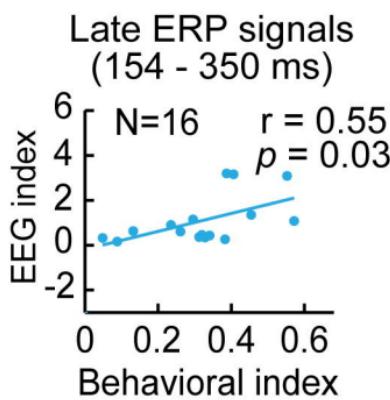
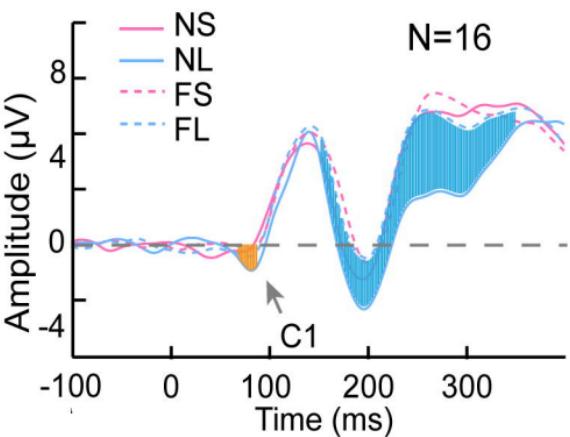
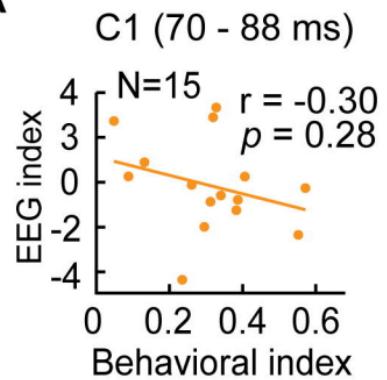
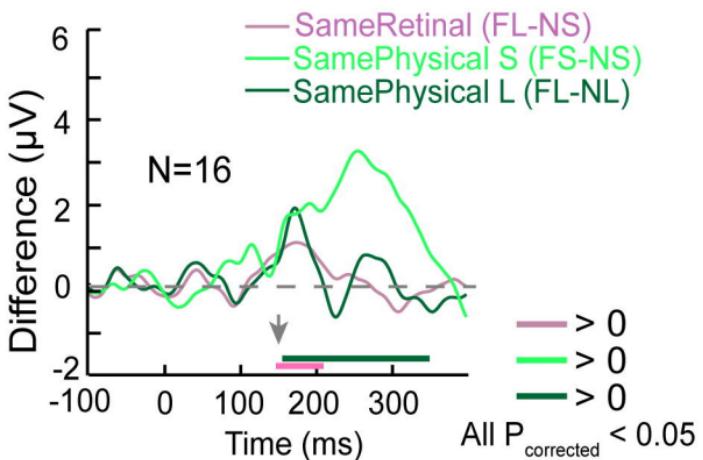
— > 0



— > 0
— > 0
— > 0

All $P_{\text{corrected}} < 0.05$

— > 0
— > 0
— > 0

A**B****C**