+RESEARCH ARTICLE

Inter-Hemispheric Desynchronization of the Human MT+ during Visually Induced Motion Sickness

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ABSTRACT

Visually induced motion sickness (VIMS) is triggered in susceptible individuals by stationary viewing of moving visual scenes. VIMS is often preceded by an illusion of self-motion (vection) and/or by inappropriate optokinetic nystagmus (OKN), responses associated with increased activity in the human motion-sensitive middle temporal area (MT+). Neuroimaging studies have reported predominant right hemispheric activation in MT+ during both vection and OKN, suggesting that VIMS may result from desynchronization of activity between left and right MT+ cortices. However, this possibility has not been directly tested. To this end, we presented VIMS-free and VIMS-inducing movies in that order while measuring the temporal correlations between corresponding left and right visual cortices (including MT+) using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). The inter-hemispheric correlation was reduced significantly during the viewing of the VIMS-inducing movie compared to the control VIMS-free movie in the MT+ of subjects reporting VIMS, but not in insusceptible subjects. In contrast, there were no significant inter-hemispheric differences within VIMS-free or VIMS-inducing movie exposure for visual area V1, V2, V3, V3A, or V7. Our findings provide the first evidence for an association between asynchronous bilateral MT+ activation and VIMS. Desynchronization of left and right MT+ regions may reflect hemispheric asymmetry in the activities of functional networks involved in eye movement control, vection perception, and/or postural control.

1 INTRODUCTION

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3 Motion sickness (MS) is a physiological response to certain types of movement, as 4 experienced during sea, air, or space travel. About a third of the population is 5 susceptible to MS (Griffin 1990), although susceptibility varies with gender and age 6 (Golding 2006). The symptoms and signs of MS are classified broadly into the three 7 types: (1) oculomotor disturbances (evestrain, blurred vision, headache), (2) nausea 8 (stomach awareness, increased salivation, cold sweating, pale skin) and (3) 9 disorientation (dizziness, drowsiness, fatigue) (Shupak & Gordon 2006; Kennedy et al. 10 2010). These negative effects can last for hours or longer (Kennedy et al. 1993a).

11 The vestibular system is presumed to play a central role in MS generation since 12 bilateral labyrinthine-defective individuals are immune (Kennedy et al. 1968; Cheung et 13 al. 1991). Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain the physiological basis of 14 MS (see Flanagan et al. 2004 for a review), including the sensory conflict hypothesis 15 (Reason & Brand 1975; Reason 1978; Oman 1990), the eye movement hypothesis 16 (Ebenholtz 1992; Ebenholtz et al. 1994), the subjective vertical conflict theory (Bos & 17 Bles 1998), and the postural instability hypothesis (Riccio & Stoffiregen 1991), all of 18 which include the vestibular system as a key component. However, none of these 19 theories is supported by conclusive evidence.

20 In addition to actual movement, stationary viewing of a moving visual scene can 21 provoke MS in susceptible observers. This visually induced motion sickness (VIMS) 22 has been reported in a variety of virtual environments (Ellis 1991). Virtual reality has 23 important applications in testing, research, and skill development, so future research on 24 the physiological causes of VIMS could allow for the development of useful virtual 25 applications with reduced risk of VIMS. To address this issue, however, we first need to 26 understand the visual processes that encode the motion signals inducing VIMS. The 27 present study was conducted to examine the possible association of VIMS with specific 28 patterns of activity in visual cortices as revealed by functional magnetic resonance 29 imaging (fMRI).

30 The putative visual cues for VIMS are explicitly mentioned in two hypotheses for MS, 31 the sensory conflict hypothesis (Reason & Brand 1975; Reason 1978; Oman 1990) and 32 the eye movement hypothesis (Ebenholtz 1992; Ebenholtz et al. 1994). The sensory 33 conflict hypothesis postulates that VIMS results from a conflict or mismatch between 34 motion signals generated by different sensory systems and/or between actual motion 35 signals and expected motion signals stored in sensory memory. In support of this 36 sensory conflict hypothesis, VIMS is often preceded by a compelling illusion of 37 apparent self-motion called vection (Hettinger et al. 1990), which is generally produced 38 by large-field visual motion. Vection may occur when the motion cues provided by 39 visual input and the stationary cues provided by vestibular and/or proprioceptive inputs 40 conflict. On the other hand, the eye movement hypothesis (Ebenholtz 1992; Ebenholtz 41 et al. 1994) postulates that the stretching and/or traction of extraocular muscles induced

by optokinetic nystagmus (OKN), reflexive eye movements produced by moving visual
scenes, produce afferent signals that ultimately stimulate the brainstem vomiting center
via the vestibular nuclei.

45 The two cues for VIMS, vection and OKN, are both associated with changing activity 46 within the human motion-sensitive middle temporal area (MT+). During vection, early 47 visual areas and parieto-insular vestibular cortex were deactivated (Brandt et al. 1998; 48 Kleinschmidt et al. 2002), whereas MT+ was either broadly activated (Brandt et al. 49 1998) or exhibited transient activation associated with shifts in perception 50 (Kleinschmidt et al. 2002). Similarly, OKN was associated with activity in the MT+ as 51 well as V1, frontal eye field, supplementary eye field, ventrolateral premotor cortex, 52 posterior parietal cortex, and cerebellum (Dieterich et al. 1998, 2003; Konen et al. 2006). 53 Notably, hemispheric laterality during both vection and OKN was reported in MT+. 54 Kovacs et al. (2008) reported that the right MT+ was more active during vection than 55 during true object motion while Dieterich et al. (1998) reported prominent right 56 hemispheric activation in the MT+ during OKN.

57 The close link between these VIMS precursors and right MT+ predominance suggests 58 that divergent activity between left and right MT+ may trigger VIMS. Previous imaging 59 studies could not address this issue because the stimulation periods employed were too 60 short to induce VIMS. Recently, Napadow et al. (2012) measured fMRI activity as subjects viewed translating large stripes for a time sufficient to induce VIMS and found 61 62 that the subjective feeling of nausea was associated with activation of a broad cortical 63 network including insular and anterior cingulate cortices, but this study did not examine 64 hemispheric laterality.

65 We hypothesize that VIMS is associated with asymmetric activity in the left and right 66 MT+. This hypothesis was tested by presenting a motion picture acquired by a rapidly moving camera to induce VIMS while measuring the temporal correlation of brain 67 68 activity in corresponding bilateral cortical regions by fMRI. The present study focused 69 on brain activity directly reflecting visual processing of incoming sensory signals. We 70 isolated this activity component from lower frequency components that reflect 71 functional connectivity between hemispheres by high-pass filtering the fMRI signal (> 72 0.1 Hz). We predicted that the inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ activity evoked by 73 the movie would be reduced selectively when subjects experienced VIMS.

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75 **METHODS**

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77 Subjects

Fourteen healthy adults (12 men, 2 women; mean age 32.9 years, range 25–48 years) with normal or corrected-to-normal vision, including four of the authors, participated in this study. Subjects had no history of psychiatric or neurological disease, and all provided written informed consent to participate. The study protocol was approved by the Human Studies Committee of the Graduate School of Human and Environmental 83 Studies at Kyoto University and the Department of Neurosurgery at Meiji University of84 Oriental Medicine.

85 As described in the Results section, subjects were divided into 2 groups based on their self-reported response to the visual stimuli: a VIMS group (n=8, all men including 86 87 two authors; age: 32.3 ± 7.2 , mean $\pm SD$) who reported motion sickness while viewing a 88 VIMS-inducing movie, and a healthy group (n=6, two women and four men including 89 two authors; age: 33.3 ± 7.2 , mean $\pm SD$) who did not report motion sickness. In 90 addition to group division based on self-reports, a median split criterion, which divided 91 subjects based on the median of the Simulator Sickness Questionnaire (SSQ) score 92 (described below), was employed to separate subjects into groups more objectively.

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94 Visual stimuli

95 Two motion stimuli were used. The first was a 6-min video clip consisting of three 96 2-min scenes separated by a 1-s fade-out and fade-in. The scenes were shot with a 97 moving video camera mounted on a hand cart using a special jig consisting of a camera 98 mount and a stepping motor. During image acquisition, the hand cart meandered 99 through a room as the video camera was rotated 60% around the axis by the stepping 100 motor, resulting in optical flow consisting of both a translational component due to 101 movement of the hand cart and a rotational component due to the roll of the video 102 camera (Fig. 1A and Online Resource 1). The stimulated area (screen size) subtended 103 50° by 36° in visual angle. We call this video clip a global motion stimulus since it 104 contained global rotational and translational motion signals. The second motion 105 stimulus, which we call a local motion stimulus, was edited from the global motion 106 stimulus. It was the same size as the first stimulus (50° by 36°) but consisted of 64 107 panels (in 8 rows and 8 columns), each an identical reduced version of the original 108 video clip (Fig. 1B and Online Resource 2). This movie editing technique was used to 109 equate low-level visual characteristics across stimuli and reduce vection induced by the 110 original global motion stimulus (Wall & Smith 2008), thereby reducing the incidence of 111 VIMS because vection may be a necessary precondition (Hettinger et al. 1990). Thus, 112 the local motion stimulus acted as a control.

The stimuli were projected onto a screen mounted to the top of the subject's head using a digital light processing projector (LVP-HC3800; Mitsubishi, Japan) with a spatial resolution of 1080×720 pixels and refresh rate of 60 Hz. Subjects were supine and viewed the stimuli through a planar total reflection mirror at a distance of around 25 cm from the eyes.

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-----Figure 1 about here-----

119 Experimental procedure

For each fMRI session, a within-subjects design was used with two stimulus conditions (6 min each) and three intervening resting periods (5 min each). During each resting period, subjects maintained fixation on the center of a gray background projected from the digital projector. After the first resting period, the local motion stimulus (Fig.1B) was presented, followed in sequence by the second resting period, then the global motion stimulus (Fig.1A), and finally the third resting period. The order of stimulus presentation was not counterbalanced because a preliminary observation suggested that VIMS-susceptible subjects could still be experiencing symptoms during the local motion condition if preceded by the global motion condition.

129 VIMS severity was assessed before and after each stimulus and resting period (6 130 times in total) using the Simulator Sickness Ouestionnaire (SSO) (Kennedy et al. 131 1993b). The SSQ consists of 16 items rating the severity of specific symptoms (e.g., eye 132 strain, headache, etc.) on a 4-point scale (none, slight, moderate, and severe). Before 133 and after movie presentations and resting periods, the questionnaire was displayed on 134 the screen and the subjects responded using a 4-button response pad (HH-1x4L; Current Design Inc., Philadelphia, PA). All stimulus presentations were controlled and subject 135 responses were recorded by Presentation software (Neurobehavioral Systems Inc., 136 137 Albany, CA) on a personal computer (ThinkPad T500; Lenovo, Morrisville, NC).

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139 **Brain image acquisition**

140 Functional MR images were acquired on a standard clinical 3-T MRI scanner (Trio 141 TIM; Siemens, Germany) using T2*-weighted gradient-echo echo planer sequence 142 (repetition time [TR] = 2000 ms; echo time [TE] = 30 ms; flip angle $[FA] = 90^{\circ}$; voxel size $[VS] = 3 \times 3 \times 4$ mm; field of view $[FOV] = 192 \times 192$ mm; 37 slices; axial 143 144 orientation parallel to the AC-PC plane; interleaved acquisition) with a 20-channel 145 phased-array head coil. The functional volumes were continuously scanned from 10 s 146 before the beginning of the first resting condition until the end of the third resting 147 condition. The total duration of a functional run was about 35 min. To facilitate structural 148 anatomical registration. images were acquired using а 3D 149 magnetization-prepared rapid gradient-echo T1-weighted sequence with following 150 parameters: TR = 1800 ms; TE = 3.03 ms; inversion time [TI] = 650 ms; $FA = 9^{\circ}$; VS =151 $0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.8$ mm; FOV = 205 × 205 mm; 37 slices; axial orientation parallel to the 152 AC-PC plane; interleaved acquisition. All functional volumes were anatomically 153 registered to a standard structural data set recorded in a separate session, which was also 154 used to reconstruct individual cortical surfaces.

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156 Data analysis

We performed region of interest (ROI) analysis on visual areas V1, V2, V3, V3 accessory (V3A), MT+, and V7. All fMRI data were analyzed with AFNI software (Cox 1996) and in-house software (Yamamoto et al. 2008, 2012). Figure 2 schematically illustrates the procedure for ROI analysis.

ROI definition. After reconstructing each individual's cortical surface from the structural brain volume acquired beforehand, the locations of the retinotopic visual areas were identified individually for each subject by fMRI using multiple retinotopic mapping procedures. The procedures comprised two steps. In the first step, areas V1, 165 V2, V3, V3A, and V7 were localized using a standard phase-encoding method (Engel et 166 al. 1994; Sereno et al. 1995; De Yoe et al. 1996) with relatively small and thin stimuli 167 (rotating 24° wedge and 2° expanding ring). At this step, area MT+ was only tentatively 168 defined since the MT+ boundaries are somewhat ambiguous owing to the large neuronal 169 receptive fields. Thus, in the second step, we confirmed that the MT+ region included 170 sub-regions MT and MST (medial superior temporal area) as reported in previous 171 studies (e.g. Huk et al. 2002; Smith et al. 2012). This was confirmed using a new 172 phase-encoding stimulus devoid of central visual fields (T. Yamamoto et al. 2009) in 173 conjunction with a standard motion localizer and an ipsilateral motion localizer (Huk et 174 al. 2002). Further details are described in the Online Resource 3 and elsewhere (H. 175 Yamamoto et al. 2008, 2012).

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-----Figure 2 about here-----

179 ROI analysis. All fMRI data were first subjected to slice-timing correction and head 180 motion correction. The ROI analysis was then conducted in the following steps: (1) 181 sampling fMRI time series data during each 6-min stimulus condition (180 fMRI 182 volumes per condition), (2) high-pass filtering with a 0.1-Hz cut-off, (3) conversion to 183 percent signal change, (4) removal of outlier voxels showing > 10% signal change, (5) 184 calculation of the average time series for each ROI from non-outlier voxels within the 185 ROI, (6) computation of the inter-hemispheric correlation coefficient between the time-series signals of corresponding left and right ROIs using Pearson's correlation, and 186 187 (7) Fisher z transformation of the inter-hemispheric correlation to improve normality for 188 statistical analyses. Our use of the relatively high 0.1-Hz cut-off (instead of the more 189 common 0.01-Hz cut-off) was motivated by two factors. Firstly, we were interested in 190 sensory-driven neural activity rather than spontaneous activity. Secondly, prior works 191 have shown that spontaneous activity and fMRI noise have 1/f-like power spectra, with 192 most of the power concentrated below 0.1 Hz (Nir et al. 2008; Bulmore et al. 2001). We 193 confirmed through additional analyses that essentially similar results were obtained with 194 cut-off frequencies lower than 0.1 Hz, including 0.01 Hz (Online Resource 4).

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196 Statistical Analyses

197 The R package (R Development Core Team 2013) was used for all analyses. A linear 198 mixed-effects model analysis was performed using the function *lmer()* from the *lme4* 199 package in R (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Wolter 2013) to evaluate the association 200 between VIMS (as determined by subjective reports and SSQ scores) and the 201 inter-hemispheric synchronization of cortical activity measured by fMRI. For the SSQ 202 total score and three SSQ subscores (nausea, oculomotor, and disorientation) measured 203 after local and global motion stimulus conditions, linear mixed-effects model analyses 204 were conducted with a within-subjects fixed effect CONDITION (local vs. global

205 motion stimulus condition) and a between-subjects fixed effect GROUP (VIMS group 206 vs. the non-responsive or healthy group). The model also included by-subject random 207 adjustment for the intercept, allowing us to generalize the conclusions from the sample 208 to the population since we can treat subjects as randomly drawn from a population of all 209 potential subjects. To assess inter-hemispheric correlations during both local and global 210 motion conditions, linear mixed-effects model analyses were conducted separately for 211 each visual area ROI with the fixed effects CONDITION and GROUP and random 212 intercepts of subjects.

213 The significance of the CONDITION × GROUP interaction was assessed by a 214 likelihood-ratio test that compares the models with and without the CONDITION × GROUP interaction term. If there was a significant CONDITION × GROUP interaction, 215 216 p values are reported for only the interaction because the significance of the main effect 217 is uninterpretable (Zar 1999). In these cases, the simple effect of CONDITION is 218 reported instead as yielded by the function testInteractions() from the phia package in R 219 (Rosario-Martinez, Fox, & R Core Team 2013). If there was no significant interaction, 220 the main effect of CONDITION was evaluated by a likelihood-ratio test comparing 221 models with and without the CONDITION term. For each main and simple effect, a pseudo R^2 was calculated in order to quantify the effect size according to (1) 222

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$$R^{2} = 1 - \exp\left\{-\frac{2}{n}\left(L_{m} - L_{0}\right)\right\}$$
(1)

where *n* is the number of observations, and L_m and L_0 are the log-likelihood of the models with and without the target variable, respectively.

For testing the relationship between the inter-hemispheric correlation and SSQ score, Kendall rank correlation coefficient (τ) was calculated and the statistical significance was evaluated by the function *Kendall*() from the *Kendall* package in R.

The significance level for all statistical tests was 0.05. The reported *p* values for the

230 interaction, simple effect, and main effect were Bonferroni-corrected to account for

231 multiple comparisons across SSQ scores, visual area ROIs, and groups.

232

233 RESULTS

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235 Visually induced motion sickness

Eight of the 14 subjects (all men) stated that they felt motion sick while viewing the global motion video (Fig. 1A, the global motion condition) but not while viewing the local motion video (Fig. 1B, the local motion condition). The remaining 6 subjects reported no VIMS under either condition. The 8 subjects reporting VIMS were classified as the VIMS group and the other 6 subjects as the healthy group. The relationships between individual subjective reports and SSQ scores are shown in Figure 3. The rank order of the individual subject total SSQ scores was consistent with the group classification, and the two groups were clearly separated by a cut-off total score around 20, which corresponds to the SSQ score empirically proposed for VIMS diagnosis (Kennedy et al. 1993b).

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-----Figure 3 about here-----

249 Figure 4A compares the total SSO scores between the VIMS and healthy group at the 250 6 SSQ test points during the experimental session. In the VIMS group, the mean SSQ 251 total score was markedly higher after the global motion condition compared to the local 252 motion condition, while the mean total SSQ score of the healthy group remained near 253 baseline throughout the experimental session. Similar results were obtained for the SSQ 254 subscores nausea, oculomotor, and disorientation (Figure 4B). These results were 255 analyzed by a repeated-measures linear mixed-effects model including the fixed effects 256 CONDITION (local vs. global motion condition) and GROUP (VIMS vs. healthy 257 group), and the random effect of subject (Table 1). For the SSQ total score, there was a significant CONDITION × GROUP interaction ($\chi^2(1) = 8.45$, p = 0.015, Bonferroni 258 259 corrected). Post hoc tests for the simple effect of CONDITION showed a significant 260 increase in SSQ total score between local and global motion conditions only for the VIMS group (VIMS: $\chi^2(1) = 28.71$, p < 0.001; healthy: $\chi^2(1) = 0.03$, p > 1, Bonferroni 261 corrected). Similar results were obtained for the SSQ subscores (oculomotor: 262 CONDITION × GROUP interaction: $\chi^2(1) = 7.87$, p = 0.02; the simple effect of 263 264 CONDITION: VIMS: $\chi^2(1) = 29.91$, p < 0.001; healthy: $\chi^2(1) = 0.19$, p > 1; disorientation: CONDITION × GROUP interaction: $\chi^2(1) = 10.46$, p = 0.004; the simple 265 effect of CONDITION: VIMS: $\chi^2(1) = 29.20$, p < 0.001; healthy: $\chi^2(1) = 0$, p > 1, 266 Bonferroni corrected), except nausea (CONDITION × GROUP interaction: $\chi^2(1) = 4.91$, 267 p = 0.107; the main effect of CONDITION: $\chi^2(1) = 5.53$, p = 0.075, Bonferroni 268 269 corrected).

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275 Inter-hemispheric MT+ desynchronization during visually induced motion 276 sickness

-----Figure 4 about here-----

-----Table 1 about here-----

To test our hypothesis that left and right MT+ activities desynchronize during VIMS, we compared the inter-hemispheric correlation of fMRI signals from MT+ and other visual areas (V1, V2, V3, V3A, and V7) between the local and the global motion conditions (Figure 5). For all 8 VIMS subjects, the inter-hemispheric temporal
correlation of MT+ signals decreased from the local to the global motion condition (Fig.
5A) as predicted by the hypothesis, whereas the change in inter-hemispheric correlation
between conditions showed no consistent pattern for the 6 healthy subjects (Fig. 5D). A
decrease in the inter-hemispheric correlation between the local and global motion
condition was also observed in V1 for all VIMS subjects except one (Fig. 5B), but again
there was no consistent change among the healthy subjects (Fig. 5E).

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-----Figure 5 about here-----

-----Figure 6 about here-----

The mean inter-hemispheric correlation coefficient for MT+ was significantly lower in the VIMS group while viewing the global motion video compared to the local motion video (Figure 6A). In contrast, the mean inter-hemispheric correlation coefficient did not differ between conditions for the healthy group. The mean inter-hemispheric correlation coefficient for V1 was also lower in the VIMS group while viewing the global motion video compared to the local motion video, but the difference did not reach statistical significance (Fig. 6B).

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300 As in the analysis of SSQ scores (Table 1), a linear mixed-effects model including the 301 fixed effects CONDITION (local vs. global motion condition) and GROUP (VIMS vs. 302 healthy group), and the random effect of subject was used to compare inter-hemispheric 303 activity correlations for corresponding ROIs between conditions and groups (Table 2). For MT+, there was a significant CONDITION × GROUP interaction ($\chi^2(1) = 11.66$, p 304 305 = 0.004, Bonferroni corrected). Post hoc tests for the simple effect of CONDITION 306 showed that the inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ activity decreased significantly in 307 the VIMS group during the global motion condition compared to the local motion condition $(\chi^2(1) = 28.71, p < 0.001, Bonferroni corrected)$, whereas there was no 308 significant change in inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ activity for the healthy 309 group between conditions ($\chi^2(1) = 3.47$, p = 0.751, Bonferroni corrected). For V1, the 310 interaction effect was not significant ($\chi^2(1) = 4.92$, p = 0.159, Bonferroni corrected) and 311 the VIMS-specific decrease in inter-hemispheric correlation was non-significant ($\chi^2(1)$) 312 = 6.59, p = 0.062, Bonferroni corrected). For the other visual areas V2, V3, V3A, and 313 V7, there was no significant interaction between CONDITION and GROUP (V2: $\chi^2(1)$ 314 = 1.74, p > 1; V3: $\chi^2(1) = 2.78$, p = 0.573; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 5.04$, p = 0.573; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p = 0.573; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p = 0.573; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p = 0.573; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p = 0.573; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p = 0.573; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, p = 0.573; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$, $\chi^2(1) = 0.45$ 315 = 0.149, Bonferroni corrected), and no significant change in inter-hemispheric 316

correlation from the local to global motion condition (V2: $\chi^2(1) = 5.19$, p = 0.137; V3: 317 $\chi^{2}(1) = 1.86, p > 1$; V3A: $\chi^{2}(1) = 0.05, p > 1$; V7: $\chi^{2}(1) = 0.02, p > 1$, Bonferroni 318 319 corrected). The above results were replicated using the median split criterion, in which 320 subjects were divided into seven healthy group members and seven VIMS group 321 members based on the median SSO total score (see Online Resource 5). In sum, the 322 inter-hemispheric correlation of left and right MT+ activities decreased during VIMS, 323 whereas other visual areas did not show such inter-hemispheric asymmetry in activity 324 during VIMS.

325 326 -----Table 2 about here-----

327 Correlation analysis

328 Can we predict the degree of motion sickness from the inter-hemispheric correlation? 329 To answer this, we examined whether the severity of motion sickness can be predicted 330 from the degree of inter-hemispheric MT+ activity desynchronization. To this end, we 331 determined the change in inter-hemispheric correlation and the change in SSQ total 332 score from local to global motion conditions (global - local), and then computed the 333 Kendall rank correlation between the two changes for each visual area. The rank 334 correlation showed a non-significant negative trend for MT+ and V1 (MT+: $\tau = -0.54$, p = 0.057; V1: τ = -0.54, p = 0.057, Bonferroni-corrected), indicating that the greater the 335 336 decrease in inter-hemispheric correlation from the local to global motion condition 337 (greater desynchronization), the higher the SSQ total score (Figure 7). For other areas, the rank correlation was not significant (V2: $\tau = -0.33$, p = 0.656; V3: $\tau = -0.50$, p =338 339 0.106; V3A: $\tau = -0.18$, p > 1; V7: $\tau = -0.45$, p = 0.188, Bonferroni-corrected). 340

-----Figure 7 about here-----

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344 **DISCUSSION**

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346 We hypothesized that VIMS would differentially affect the neural responses in left 347 and right MT+, and tested this by acquiring fMRI signal time series from multiple visual cortical regions, including MT+, while subjects viewed VIMS-free and 348 349 VIMS-inducing videos. The inter-hemispheric temporal correlation of MT+ activity 350 decreased significantly during VIMS. A decrease was also observed for V1 but the 351 effect was not as robust as in MT+, and there were no effects of VIMS on 352 inter-hemispheric correlations in the other extrastriate areas examined, V2, V3, V3A, 353 and V7. Moreover, correlation analysis suggested the possibility of predicting the 354 subjective severity of motion sickness from the inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+.

To our knowledge, this is the first report demonstrating an association between VIMS and asymmetric activation of left and right MT+ regions, although the sample-size here was relatively small.

358 Compared to model-based approaches for fMRI analysis, time series correlation 359 analysis of fMRI data offers an unbiased method for revealing unexpected changes in 360 cortical activity associated with various neurological conditions. In contrast to our 361 results, Napadow et al. (2012) identified a VIMS-related network broadly distributed 362 over interoceptive, limbic, and somatosensory regions, but found no association 363 between VIMS and visual cortex. Presumably, the effects of VIMS on the temporal 364 characteristics of activity in visual cortices were more complex than assumed in that 365 Alternatively, inter-hemispheric correlation analysis can detect study. such unpredictable effects since the analysis makes no assumptions about the temporal 366 characteristics of the BOLD signal. Indeed, Hasson et al. (2009) found reduced 367 368 inter-subject correlations among multiple fMRI time series in autistic subjects compared 369 to healthy controls while watching the same popular movie, underscoring the power of 370 inter-hemispheric and inter-subject correlation analyses to detect unpredictable changes 371 in brain activity as may occur in neurological diseases.

372 All subjects in the VIMS-resistant healthy group exhibited high inter-hemispheric 373 correlations in visual cortex during both the local and global motion stimuli. Similar 374 results were also obtained for the VIMS group in most visual cortical regions, except for 375 MT+ during VIMS induced by global motion. High inter-hemispheric correlation is 376 expected from the retinotopic organization of the visual areas and the stimulus 377 configurations. The local motion stimulus would elicit similar responses in left and right 378 visual areas because the right and left halves of the stimulus were comprised of a 379 mosaic of identical frames depicting the same local motion. Similarly, although the two 380 sides of the global motion stimulus were not identical, they had similar local and global 381 motion components, so again it is not surprising that most bilateral visual areas showed 382 relatively high activity correlations.

383 Why then did MT+ not maintain high temporal correlation between hemispheres 384 during VIMS? It seems unlikely that the effect can be explained by side effects of 385 VIMS such as fatigue, reduced arousal, or disrupted attention, effects that would alter 386 activity in many visual areas. Moreover, desynchronization was observed selectively in 387 MT+, a region responsible for encoding visual motion, which is the very cause of VIMS. 388 It is therefore more plausible that inter-hemispheric desynchronization of MT+ activity 389 reflects hemispheric asymmetry within functional networks related to the incidence of 390 VIMS.

The relevant networks and processes are a matter of conjecture. One possibility is the network related to optokinetic nystagmus (OKN), a principal component of the eye movement hypothesis of MS (Ebenholtz 1992; Ebenholtz et al. 1994). As laterality of MT+ activity with right dominance was reported during OKN (Dieterich et al. 1998), right MT+ activity may reflect or cause aberrant behavior of the eye movement control system during the global motion stimulus, leading to unusual stretching and/or traction
of extraocular muscles in both eyes. Consequently, the afferent signals generated by
extraocular muscles may stimulate the area postrema and vagus nerve, resulting in the
symptoms of VIMS.

The second possibility is a network related to vection activated by sensory conflict (Reason & Brand 1975, Reason 1978; Oman 1990). The right MT+ was found to be more active during vection than during real object motion (Kovacs et al. 2008), suggesting that MT+ activation is involved in networks associated with the generation of vection. Although the precise mechanism remains unclear, the right dominance of MT+ suggests distinct roles for right and left MT+ in networks integrating sensory information to detect mismatches.

407 The third possibility is that desynchronization of MT+ activity may be caused by 408 interactions within sensory integration networks. There are at least two possible 409 interactions. One is with the anterior insular cortex, which is thought to play an 410 important role in monitoring activity in the sensory cortex that could lead to 411 disturbances of homeostasis (Sterzer & Kleinschmidt 2010). In the course of VIMS, 412 fMRI activity in right fronto-insular cortex (including the anterior insula) was correlated 413 with the severity of nausea (Napadow et al. 2012), and the white matter tract connecting 414 the right insular cortex and right MT+ was associated with VIMS susceptibility 415 (Napadow et al. 2013). Another possible interaction is with the parieto-insular 416 vestibular cortex. According to sensory conflict theory (Reason & Brand 1975; Reason 1978; Oman 1990), motion sickness can arise from a conflict or mismatch between 417 418 motion signals generated by different sensory systems, including visual-vestibular 419 conflict, suggesting some form of interaction between the visual and vestibular cortices. 420 Brandt et al. (1998) proposed a reciprocal inhibitory interaction between these systems 421 based on observed reciprocal activation-deactivation patterns. We speculate that the 422 right and left MT+ regions are differentially modulated by these visual-vestibular 423 interactions or are uniquely involved in these networks, leading to inter-hemispheric 424 desynchronization.

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Table 1. Summary statistics for linear mixed-effects model analysis of SSQ scores

The results of the linear mixed-effects model analysis with the fixed effects CONDITION (local vs. global motion) and GROUP (VIMS vs. healthy) for Simulator Sickness Questionnaire (SSQ) scores. If there was a significant interaction, a post hoc test was conducted for the simple effect of CONDITION. The effect size for the simple effect is a pseudo R2, indicating the goodness of fit of the model with the CONDITION term. If there was no significant interaction, the main effect of CONDITION was examined. Both the interaction and the main effect p values are Bonferroni-corrected for multiple comparisons among the four SSQ scales (total and three subscores), and the post hoc simple effect p values are corrected for multiple comparisons between the two subject groups (VIMS and healthy).

Parameter	Scale	CONDITION × GROUP interaction			Si	mple effect of COND	Main effect of CONDITION					
		coefficient estimate ± standard error	statistics p value (χ^2)	coefficient estimate \pm standard error		statistics p value (χ^2)		Effect size R^2		coefficient estimate \pm standard error	statistics p value (χ^2)	Effect size R^2
				VIMS	Healthy	VIMS	Healthy	VIMS	Healthy			
SSQ score	Total score	44.88 ± 13.33	.015 (8.43)	46.75 ± 11.45	1.87 ± 1.92	< .001 (28.71)	>1 (0.03)	0.47	0.07	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Nausea	40.15 ± 16.56	.107 (4.91)	N/	N/A		N/A		I/A	24.53 ± 9.77	.075 (5.53)	0.17
	Oculomotor	24.95 ± 7.68	.020 (7.87)	27.48 ± 6.28	2.53 ± 2.92	< .001 (29.91)	> 1 (0.19)	0.46	0.06	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Disorientation	62.64 ± 17.71	.004 (10.46)	62.64 ± 14.87	0.00 ± 3.28	< .001 (29.20)	> 1 (0)	0.53	0	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 2. Summary statistics for linear mixed-effects model analysis of regional inter-hemispheric time series correlations The results of the linear mixed-effects model analysis with the fixed effects CONDITION (local vs. global motion) and GROUP (VIMS vs. healthy groups) for the inter-hemispheric correlation of visual cortical areas MT+, V1, V2, V3, V3A, and V7. Since there was a significant interaction for MT+, a post hoc test was conducted for the simple effect of CONDITION. The effect size for the simple effect is a pseudo R2, indicating the goodness of fit of the model with the CONDITION term. By contrast, there were no significant interactions for other visual areas. The main effect of CONDITION was thus examined. Both the interaction and the main effect p values are Bonferroni-corrected for multiple comparisons between the six pairs of visual areas, and the post hoc simple effect p values are corrected for multiple comparisons between subject groups.

Parameter	Visual area	CONDITION × GROUP interaction		Simple effect of CONDITION						Main effect of CONDITION			
		coefficient estimate ± standard error	statistics p value (χ^2)	coefficient estimate \pm standard error		statistics p value (χ^2)		Effect size R ²		coefficient estimate ± standard error	statistics <i>p</i> value (χ^2)	Effect size R^2	
				VIMS	Healthy	VIMS	Healthy	VIMS	Healthy		F (MARC(X)		
Inter-hemispheric correlation	MT+	-0.30 ± 0.07	.004 (11.66)	-0.20 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.08	<.001 (28.71)	.751 (3.47)	0.77	0.11	N/A	N/A	N/A	
	V 1	-0.32 ± 0.13	.159 (4.92)	N/A		N/A		N/A		-0.22 ± 0.08	.062 (6.59)	0.21	
	V2	-0.16 ± 0.11	> 1 (1.74)	N/A		N/2	N/A		I/A	-0.15 ± 0.06	.137 (5.19)	0.17	
	V3	-0.21 ± 0.12	.573 (2.78)	N/A		N/A		N/A		-0.09 ± 0.07	> 1 (1.86)	0.06	
	V3A	-0.08 ± 0.13	> 1 (0.45)	N/A		N/A		N/A		-0.01 ± 0.06	> 1 (0.05)	< 0.01	
	V7	-0.23 ± 0.09	.149 (5.04)	N/A		N/A		N/A		0.01 ± 0.06	> 1 (0.02)	< 0.01	



Global motion condition Local motion condition

Figure 1. The visual stimuli. (a) A sample frame from the video clip used in the global motion condition. A camera mounted on a cart with a swivel axis is subjected to both translational and rotational motion. (b) A sample frame used in the local motion condition.



Figure 2. A schematic of the analyses used to investigate inter-hemispheric temporal activity correlations in the human visual cortex. Left and right panels are posterior views of the left and right inflated cortical surfaces, respectively. The six visual areas investigated (V1, V2, V3, V3A, V7, and MT+) are colored (blue: left areas, red: right areas). For each visual area, the functional magnetic resonance imaging time series was averaged across all non-outlier voxels within the area and Pearson correlation coefficients calculated for corresponding time series (blue and red lines in the middle panel).



Figure 3. Individual Simulator Sickness Questionnaire (SSQ) total scores measured after the global motion condition. Gray bars indicate the scores of the subjects who self-reported motion sickness after the experimental session (visually induced motion sickness [VIMS] group) and white bars indicate scores of subjects who did not (healthy group).



Figure 4. SSQ scores and subscores over the time course of the experimental session. The scores were averaged among subjects in the VIMS group (solid lines) and in the healthy group (dotted lines). The left gray bar indicates the presentation period of the local motion stimulus and the right bar the period of the global motion stimulus (as denoted by the image icons above the bars). (a) SSQ total score. (b) SSQ subscores for nausea, oculomotor, and disorientation.



Figure 5. Comparison of individual inter-hemispheric correlations and SSQ scores between the local and the global motion conditions for the VIMS group (a-c) and the healthy group (d-f). Time series are from MT+ (a, d) and V1 (b, e).



Figure 6. Average inter-hemispheric correlations between the local and global motion conditions. (a) Inter-hemispheric correlations of MT+ during the local (open bars) and the global (gray bars) conditions for the VIMS group (left) and healthy group (right). (b) Results for area V1. Error bars indicate mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM).



Figure 7. The relationship between inter-hemispheric correlation and SSQ score. A scatter plot of the change in inter-hemispheric correlation vs. change in SSQ total score for each subject between the local and global motion conditions (global - local). Each point represents the data of one subject (n = 14). Kend-all's correlation coefficient (τ) and Bonferroni-corrected p value are shown. (a) for MT+ and (b) for V1.

Experimental Brain Research, Online Resource 3

Inter-Hemispheric Desynchronization of the Human MT+ during Visually Induced Motion Sickness

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Localization of visual areas based on retinotopy measurements

Visual areas, V1, V2, V3, V3A, and V7

After reconstructing each individual's cortical surface, locations of the retinotopic visual areas were identified by fMRI and standard retinotopic mapping procedures. The surface regions delimiting areas V1, V2, V3, V3A, and V7 were determined by phase-encoded retinotopic mapping methods (Engel et al. 1994; Sereno et al. 1995; DeYoe et al. 1996), allowing visualization of the polar angle and eccentricity components of the retinotopic map. The retinotopic map was constructed using a phase-encoding technique where the receptive field centers were temporally coded using polar coordinates (Engel et al. 1994). The polar angle component of the map was measured by performing fMRI while the subject viewed a small wedge-shaped checkered pattern (24° center angle) that rotated counterclockwise around the fixation point, making one rotation in 60 s. The eccentricity component was measured while the subject viewed a thin checkered annulus (2° width) that expanded from the fovea to 16° peripherally over 50 s and then disappeared for 10 s. Each stimulus underwent color (black/white, red/green, or blue/yellow) pattern reversal (1 Hz) and was presented in six cycles, evoking a periodic response at a given point on the retinotopy map, where the corresponding position in the visual field was encoded in the phase of the response. The response phase for each of the polar angles or eccentricity components was computed using Fourier analysis and mapped onto the cortical surface. More details of the surface reconstruction, the retinotopy mapping, and the parcellation schema are described elsewhere (H. Yamamoto et al. 2008, 2012).

Visual area MT+

It is often difficult to localize MT+ with retinotopy measurements alone since MT+



Figure S1 Visual stimuli used to localize MT and MST separately. In all stimuli, dots were 0.25° in diameter and maintained at a 15% areal density. (A) A fan-shaped phase-encoded stimulus rotating in the far peripheral visual field. The fan shape (24° center angle) was defined by moving dots on a background filled with stationary dots. Dots in the fan shape moved toward and away from fixation (8°/s), alternating direction once per second. The stimulus was rotated counterclockwise around a fixation point at 12° every 2 s (for a full rotation every 60 s) and confined in an eccentricity of 15°–16°. (B) A motion localizer stimulus. The stimulus alternated in time between moving and stationary dot fields (16° eccentricity) every 16 s and 12 times in a run. Dots moved in a way similar to those in A. (C) An ipsilateral localizer stimulus. The stimulus was positioned 10° away from a fixation point in either the left or right visual field and alternated between moving and stationary dot fields (15° diameter) every 16 s and 12 times in a run. Dots moved in a way from a fixation point in either the left or right visual field and alternated between moving and stationary dot fields (15° diameter) every 16 s and 12 times in a run. Dots moved in a way from the center of the field, alternating direction once per second.

has large receptive fields (RFs). This difficulty was alleviated by our small and thin phase-encoding stimuli described above. Nevertheless, there remained ambiguities and uncertainties about the exact localization. To remove this uncertainty, MT+ was carefully delineated in two steps. In the first step, MT+ was tentatively localized using the phase-encoding method described above. We noted that MT+ is presumed to include at least two sub-regions, MT and MST, the latter of which contains neurons with very large receptive fields that extend into the ipsilateral visual field (Huk et al., 2002). So, in the second step, we confirmed MT+ localization by additional measurements that allowed us to localize MT and MST separately using a new phase encoding stimulus (T. Yamamoto et al. 2009) in conjunction with an ipsilateral motion localizer (Huk et al. 2002). This confirmation step was performed for most of the subjects (12 of 14). The details of this method are described below.

In the second step, in place of a conventional rotating wedge, we used a rotating fan-shaped stimulus localized in the far peripheral visual field (Figure S1A). This new stimulus is advantageous for mapping the locations of large RFs such as those of ipsilateral-responsive neurons (IRNs) in MST because it does not stimulate central visual fields covered by the RFs of any IRNs, thereby evoking a periodic response from IRNs. This is not possible with the standard wedge that always stimulates central visual

fields. The fan shape (24° center angle) was defined by moving dots on a background filled with stationary dots (Figure S1A). The dots moved toward and away from the fixation point at a speed of 8° per second and alternated direction once per second. All dots maintained a 15% density in area. The stimulus was rotated counterclockwise about the fixation point at 12° every 2 s (1 rotation per minute, 6 rotations in a run) and confined in an eccentricity of 15° – 16° .

To check the validity of the new method, we also employed two kinds of localizer experiments, one to determine motion-sensitive regions generally and the other to determine ipsilateral-responsive motion-sensitive regions. In these experiments, subjects alternately viewed dynamic and stationary dot stimuli (an eccentricity of 16 visual degrees in radius; Figure S1B). In the ipsilateral stimulation, as in Huk et al. (2002), a peripheral dot patch was presented in either the left or right visual field (Figure S1C). The 15° diameter field of dots was alternated between moving and stationary, while subjects maintained fixation on a colored point 10° from the nearest edge of the dot patch. The statistical significance and phase of fMRI activation were computed and mapped by the standard Fourier method described above.

Figure S2 and S3 show the results of these experiments for MT+ localization from two representative subjects. The results obtained with the conventional wedge stimulus are shown in Figures S2A and S3A for angular maps and Figures S2B and S3B for eccentricity maps. These maps reveal relatively clear retinotopic organization in the posterior ascending limb of the inferior temporal sulcus (ITS). It can be seen that the eccentricity maps show gradual changes from inferior to superior in this ITS region. However, the angular maps show ambiguities, particularly in the anterior part. Area MT+ was thus tentatively delineated using these maps, but with emphasis on consistency in the eccentricity representation (solid white lines in Figures S2A and S3A).

Figures S2C and S3C show the results obtained using our new phase-encoding stimulus. The new stimulus revealed clear contralateral hemifield retinotopic maps within the MT+ region. Notably, there are two mirror-symmetric angular maps in the posterior and the anterior regions, respectively, which share the upper vertical meridian (UVM) of the visual field as their border. The posterior and anterior regions are presumed to correspond to areas MT and MST, respectively. This was confirmed by the two types of motion localizers. While the general motion localizer activated the two regions together (Figures S2D and S3D), the ipsilateral localizer activated the anterior region alone (Figures S2E and S3E), as predicted from previous studies on MT and MST (e.g. Huk et al. 2002; Smith et al. 2012).



Figure S2 Locations of retinotopic areas MT and MST on the occipito-temporal cortex of a representative subject's (S1) hemisphere and their relations to retinotopic maps and loci activated by motion localizers. Areas surrounded by colored borders on inflated cortical surfaces are MT (blue) and MST (yellow). (A) Angular retinotopic maps acquired with a conventional rotating wedge stimulus. The color overlay on the cortex indicates the preferred stimulus angle at each cortical point, in accordance with the color code to the right. The more saturated the color, the higher the statistical significance of retinotopic activity, as shown in the rainbow-like color bar. (B) Eccentricity retinotopic maps acquired with a conventional expanding ring stimulus. Data are shown in the same format as in A. (C) Angular retinotopic maps acquired with a far peripheral rotating fan-shaped stimulus. (D) Motion-sensitive regions. The yellow region indicates fMRI activity evoked by a motion localizer. (E) Ipsilateral-responsive regions. The yellow region indicates fMRI activity evoked by an ipsilateral motion localizer.



Figure S3 Locations of retinotopic areas MT and MST of another representative subject (S2) and their relations to retinotopic maps and loci activated by motion localizers, shown in the same format as in Figure S2.

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Experimental Brain Research, Online Resource 4

Inter-Hemispheric Desynchronization of the Human MT+ during Visually Induced Motion Sickness

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To confirm whether the choice of cut-off frequency can affect our results, we performed analysis on the relationship between the cut-off frequency and the inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+, as well as a linear mixed-effects model analysis on the correlation data obtained for high-pass filtered fMRI signals with a 0.01-Hz cut-off. Furthermore, we conducted a simulation of the dependency of fMRI signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) on cut-off frequency.

Taken together, these analyses suggested that our findings were not meaningfully affected by the choice of cut-off frequency, and also suggested the possibility that the use of the 0.1-Hz cut-off would lead to comparable or even higher SNR in our experimental conditions. The inter-hemispheric correlation again decreased for the range of cut-off frequencies between 0.01 Hz and 0.1 Hz, and the statistical analysis using the typical 0.01-Hz cut-off again found a decrease in inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ for only the VIMS group; however, the statistical significance did not remain after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. To understand why this was the case, we performed a simulation that took account of the actual stimulus movie, the MT neurons' receptive fields, and sources of noise. The simulation showed that it would be possible to obtain an adequate, and potentially better, SNR with a 0.1-Hz cut-off. More details of these analyses are presented below.

Analysis on the relationship between cut-off frequency and decrease in inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+

As shown in Fig.S4, the inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ was found to be

decreased for the lower cut-off frequencies than 0.1 Hz. The magnitude of the decrease was 0.16 (*mean*) \pm 0.09 (*SD*), 0.12 \pm 0.08, and 0.20 \pm 0.05 for 0. 01 Hz, 0.032 Hz, and 0.1 Hz, respectively.



Figure S4. Decrease in inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ for the VIMS group. The horizontal axis indicates the cut-off frequency of high-pass filtering.

Linear mixed-effects model analysis on inter-hemispheric correlations when a 0.01-Hz cut-off was used

The table S1 shows the results of statistical analysis before the Bonferroni correction for the 6 visual areas. The results were essentially similar to those obtained using the 0.1-Hz cut-off, in that the most remarkable effect of VIMS was observed for MT+. A significant CONDITION (global/local motion) × GROUP (VIMS/healthy) interaction was found only for MT+. However, the interaction was not significant after Bonferroni correction (p = 0.168). As evidenced by post hoc tests, the inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ activity decreased significantly for only the VIMS group during the global motion condition, and for the other visual areas, such a VIMS-specific decrease in inter-hemispheric correlation was not observed.

Table S1 Summary statistics for linear mixed-effects model analysis on inter-hemispheric correlation when a 0.01-Hz cut-off was used

Visual area	CONDITION × GROUP interaction			Simple	Main effect of CONDITION						
	coefficient estimate ± standard error	statistics p value (χ^2)	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{coefficient} \\ \text{estimate} \pm \text{standard error} \end{array}$		statist p value	Effect size R^2		coefficient estimate ±	statistics	Effect size	
			VIMS	Healthy	VIMS	Healthy	VIMS	Health y	error	p value (χ^2)	R^2
MT+	-0.17 ± 0.07	.028 (4.83)	-0.17 ± 0.03	0.01 ± 0.07	.001 (11.99)	> 1 (0.03)	0.48	< 0.01	-0.09 ± 0.04	.050 (3.85)	0.13
V1	-0.02 ± 0.11	.840 (0.04)	-0.25 ± 0.07	-0.23 ± 0.05	<.001 (13.26)	.008 (8.33)	0.47	0.50	-0.24 ± 0.05	< .001 (13.02)	0.37
V2	-0.01 ± 0.09	.930 (< 0.01)	-0.13 ± 0.06	-0.12 ± 0.07	.069 (4.48)	.172 (2.95)	0.21	0.17	-0.12 ± 0.05	.015 (5.95)	0.19
V3	-0.07 ± 0.06	.260 (1.27)	-0.08 ± 0.03	-0.02 ± 0.05	.049 (5.05)	> 1 (0.18)	0.25	0.01	-0.06 ± 0.03	.075 (3.17)	0.11
V3A	0.07 ± 0.08	.425 (0.64)	0.02 ± 0.05	-0.04 ± 0.07	> 1 (0.15)	.932 (0.53)	0.01	0.03	-0.01 ± 0.04	.859 (0.03)	< 0.01
V7	-0.05 ± 0.08	.478 (0.50)	-0.07 ± 0.06	-0.02 ± 0.04	.315 (2.00)	>1 (0.07)	0.08	0.01	-0.05 ± 0.04	.232 (1.43)	0.05

Simulation analysis of fMRI SNR

We estimated SNR as a function of cut-off frequencies by a simulation, in which the signal component was synthesized as the fMRI responses of motion-sensitive neurons to the video stimulus, using a motion-energy encoding model (Nishimoto et al. 2011), whereas noise components were synthesized as cardiac-related noise and pink (1/f) noise, with various proportions (see the Methods below for more details). The simulation showed that, as expected, the SNR with 0.1-Hz cut-off was not so bad. The SNR for a 0.1-Hz cut-off was approximately 80% on average as compared to that for 0.01-Hz cut-off (Figure S5). The simulation also showed that the higher the proportion of cardiac noise, the greater the SNR (Figure S6). This may be a reason for the somewhat pronounced effect with the 0.1-Hz cut-off.



Figure S5. Relative SNR as a function of the cut-off frequency as compared to that for 0.01-Hz cut-off. The gray region shows the interquartile range (25–75th percentile, 56% and 135%, respectively, at 0.1Hz). The dashed vertical lines indicate the cut-off of 0.01 and 0.1 Hz.



Figure S6. The relationship between the relative SNR for 0.1-Hz cut-off and the power of the cardiac noise relative to overall noise power. The black thick line indicates median SNR of 200,000 simulations, and the gray region indicates the 5th to 95th percentile range. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (ρ) and *P*-value are shown.

Methods

The simulation consisted of signal generation and noise generation. Signals were generated using the video stimulus processed with motion energy filters (MEFs) (Nishimoto et al. 2011). The MEF model was a bank of 3D spatiotemporal Gabor wavelet filters, with 8 spatial frequencies (0.625, 1.25, 2.5, 5, 10, 20, 40, and 80 cycles/image), 6 temporal frequencies (0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, and 8 Hz), and 8 motion directions (0°, 45°, 90°, 135°, 180°, 225°, 270°, and 315°). For simplicity, quadrature pair filters (0° and 90° phase) were used. The movie was submitted to one of the MEFs and the outputs of the quadrature pair were squared, summed, and log-transformed to generate local motion energy signals. The motion energy signal was z-transformed, clipped at 3 (i.e. 3 sigma), and convolved with hemodynamic impulse response function (HIRF) (Boynton et al. 1996), yielding local fMRI signal time-series. The fMRI signals from all of the filters were averaged in the frequency domain to obtain a signal power spectrum.

Secondly, noise composed of two components—pink noise (1/f noise) and cardiac noise—were generated. The proportions of the power of these components were randomly generated and scaled by their sum so that the sum was 1 (100 combinations for each iteration). The pink noise component was randomly generated so that the power spectral density was inversely proportional to the frequency of itself. The cardiac noise component was generated by convolving HIRF to a cardiac pulse time-course that was

randomly sampled for a continuous 360 s from those measured in two pilot experiments by pulse oximeter, each of which lasted for 840 s. Finally, the noise power spectrum was computed via the weighted average of the power spectrum of each component, which was z-transformed beforehand. This procedure was repeated 2000 times, yielding 200,000 (100×2000) samples.

The SNR was computed as a ratio of the power of the signal to that of the noise, where the powers for the signal and noise were the sum of the spectra above the cut-off frequency. In Figure S5, the relative SNR was calculated as the ratio of the SNR for each cut-off frequency to that for 0.01 Hz. In Figure S6, the relative SNR for 0.1-Hz cut-off is shown as a function of the relative power of cardiac noise (the ratio of the power of cardiac noise to that of overall noise). Such conversions into the relative SNR allow us to cancel out the differences in absolute powers of the signal and noise, enabling the direct comparison of SNRs for various cut-off frequencies.

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Experimental Brain Research, Online Resource 5 Inter-Hemispheric Desynchronization of the Human MT+ during Visually Induced Motion Sickness

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Results using a median-split criterion to define subject group

For more objective group division, we also employed a median-split criterion to divide subjects into VIMS and healthy groups based on the median SSQ total score. As two subjects (S7, S8 in Figure 3) had the same score, we considered the two kinds of separation and applied the mixed-effect model analysis for each case, as described below. In these new analyses, 13 of 14 subjects were placed in the same group as defined by self-report. Both analyses again showed desynchronization of MT+.

(1) In the case of changing S7 alone to the healthy group

For MT+ and V1, there was a significant CONDITION × GROUP interaction (MT+: $\chi^2(1) = 9.10$, p = 0.015; V1: $\chi^2(1) = 10.59$, p = 0.006; Bonferroni corrected). Post hoc tests for the simple effect of CONDITION showed that the inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ and V1 activity decreased significantly in the VIMS group during the global motion condition compared to the local motion condition (MT+: $\chi^2(1) = 15.00$, p = 0.001; V1: $\chi^2(1) = 33.71$, p < 0.001, Bonferroni corrected), whereas there was no significant change in inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ and V1 activities for the healthy group between conditions (MT+: $\chi^2(1) = 1.41$, p > 1; V1: $\chi^2(1) = 0.03$, p > 1, Bonferroni corrected). For the other visual areas V2, V3, V3A and V7, the interaction effect was not significant (V2: $\chi^2(1) = 3.76$, p = 0.315; V3: $\chi^2(1) = 3.71$, p = 0.325; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.37$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 5.19$, p = 0.136, Bonferroni corrected) and the main effect of CONDITION was non-significant (V2: $\chi^2(1) = 5.19$, p = 0.137; V3: $\chi^2(1) = 1.86$, p > 1; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.05$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 0.02$, p > 1, Bonferroni corrected). In sum, the results were similar to those reported in the manuscript except for V1.

(2) In the case of changing S8 alone to healthy group

For MT+, there was a significant CONDITION × GROUP interaction ($\chi^2(1) = 9.15$, p < 0.015, Bonferroni corrected). Post hoc tests for the simple effect of CONDITION showed that the inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ activity decreased significantly in the VIMS group during the global motion condition compared to the local motion condition ($\chi^2(1) = 15.10$, p = 0.001, Bonferroni corrected), whereas there was no significant change in inter-hemispheric correlation of MT+ activity for the healthy group between conditions ($\chi^2(1) = 1.43$, p > 1, Bonferroni corrected). For the other visual areas, the interaction effect was not significant (V1: $\chi^2(1) = 5.43$, p = 0.119; V2: $\chi^2(1) = 1.69$, p > 1; V3: $\chi^2(1) = 3.65$, p = 0.337; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.38$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 4.36$, p = 0.221, Bonferroni corrected) and the main effect of CONDITION was non-significant (V1: $\chi^2(1) = 6.59$, p = 0.062; V2: $\chi^2(1) = 5.19$, p = 0.137; V3: $\chi^2(1) = 1.86$, p > 1; V3A: $\chi^2(1) = 0.05$, p > 1; V7: $\chi^2(1) = 0.02$, p > 1, Bonferroni corrected). In sum, the results were similar to those reported in the manuscript.