

29 **Summary**

30 Our brain integrates information from multiple modalities in the control of behavior. When
31 information from one sensory source is compromised, information from another source can
32 compensate for the loss. What is not clear is whether the nature of this multisensory integration
33 and the re-weighting of different sources of sensory information is the same across different
34 control systems. Here, we investigated whether proprioceptive distance information (position
35 sense of body parts) can compensate for the loss of visual distance cues that support size
36 constancy in perception (mediated by the ventral visual stream) [1, 2] vs. size constancy in
37 grasping (mediated by the dorsal visual stream) [3-6], in which the real-world size of an object is
38 computed despite changes in viewing distance. We found that there was perfect size constancy in
39 both perception and grasping in a full-viewing condition (lights on, binocular viewing) and that
40 size constancy in both tasks was dramatically disrupted in the restricted-viewing condition (lights
41 off, monocular viewing of the same but luminescent object through a 1-mm pinhole).
42 Importantly, in the restricted-viewing condition, proprioceptive cues about viewing distance
43 originating from the non-grasping limb (Experiment 1) or the inclination of torso and/or the
44 elbow angle of grasping limb (Experiment 2) compensated for the loss of visual distance cues to
45 enable a complete restoration of size constancy in grasping but only a modest improvement of
46 size constancy in perception. This suggests that the weighting of different sources of sensory
47 information varies as a function of the control system being used.

48 **Results and Discussion**

49 **Experiment 1: Proprioceptive distance cues originating from the non-grasping** 50 **limb**

51 We first measured size constancy (**Figures 1A and 1B**) in perception and in grasping in a full-
52 viewing condition (**Figures 1C and 1D**) in which there were ample visual cues to object distance
53 and in a restricted-viewing condition (**Figures 1C and 1D**) in which visual cues to distance were
54 extremely limited. The target sphere was resting on top of a pedestal. The sphere but not the
55 pedestal varied in diameter from trial to trial. The spheres were painted with luminescent paint so
56 that they were visible in the dark. No proprioceptive cues to object distance were available (full-
57 noPro or restricted-noPro).
58

59 Participants were asked to indicate the perceived size of the target sphere manually by opening
60 their thumb and index finger a matching amount or to reach out and grasp the target sphere in
61 ‘natural manner’ with their thumb and index finger. Although both the manual estimation and the
62 grasping tasks involved the same effectors and similar movements, they are mediated by
63 different control systems. Grasping is a visually-guided action that is mediated by visuomotor
64 systems in the dorsal visual stream. The manual estimation task is essentially a magnitude
65 estimation measure, which provides a readout of the visually perceived size of an object – and is
66 mediated by the visual perceptual system in the ventral visual stream [7]. These two tasks have
67 been used in many previous studies to reveal the double dissociation between perception and
68 action in patients [8, 9] and in healthy participants [10-13]. The manual estimate of perceived

69 size, rather than a two–alternative–forced choice task or a match-to-sample task, has typically
70 been used to ensure that the same effectors are involved in both perceptual report and grasping
71 [14]. The manual estimate (ME) was used as a perceptual report of the target’s size on the
72 perceptual trials, and the maximum grip aperture (MGA), which was achieved well before
73 contact was made with the target, was used as a measure of grip scaling on the grasping trials
74 (**Figure S1**). In both tasks, participants were unable to see their hand or the target during the
75 execution of the movement, and therefore no online-adjustment based on visual feedback was
76 possible (i.e., MGAs depended only on the programming of grasping). On manual estimation
77 trials, the experimenter placed the sphere between participant’s thumb and index finger at the
78 end of each trial so that participants had the same haptic feedback about the size of the target on
79 manual estimation trials as they did on grasping trials.

80 Consistent with previous studies [3, 6, 15], we found that, in the full-viewing condition,
81 participants showed perfect size constancy in both the perceptual (manual estimation) task and
82 the grasping task (main effect of distance, both $F(1,13) < 2.11, p > 0.17$; **Figure 2A, full-**
83 **noPro**). This suggests that vision is sufficient to support perfect size constancy in both
84 perception and grasping. In the restricted-viewing condition, size constancy in both perceptual
85 and grasping tasks was largely disrupted (main effect of distance, both $F(1,13) > 46.80, p < 0.01$;
86 **Figure 2A, restricted-noPro**) although both MEs and MGAs still scaled with the size of the
87 object (main effect of object size, both $F(1,13) > 52.88; p < 0.01$), suggesting that size
88 constancy in both tasks relies on distance information.

89 **Proprioception restored perfect size constancy in grasping but not in perception when** 90 **vision was limited**

91 To investigate if proprioceptive information about object distance can compensate for the loss of
92 visual distance cues and thus restore size constancy in perception or in grasping, we moved
93 participants’ left hand to the position of the pedestal before each trial and asked them to hold the
94 pedestal throughout that trial while estimating the size of the sphere or grasping it with their right
95 hand (withPro, **Figure 1C**). Thus, the left hand could provide static proprioceptive information
96 about the distance of the sphere which was positioned on top of the pedestal. The same pedestal
97 was used throughout the experiment so that participants could not predict the size of the objects
98 from its diameter. Note that the right hand could provide proprioceptive distance feedback on
99 grasping trials after contact was made with the sphere (**Figure S1**) but because the distance (and
100 size) of the sphere varied from trial to trial, that information could not be used for the
101 programming of the grasping movement on the next trial.

102 On restricted-viewing trials, the availability of reliable proprioceptive distance cues [16, 17]
103 resulted in only a modest improvement in size constancy on manual estimation trials (interaction
104 between proprioceptive condition (withPro vs. noPro) and distance: $F(1, 13) = 6.30; p = 0.03$,
105 **Figure 2A**). Nevertheless, this improvement was far from perfect and participants continued to
106 give larger manual estimations for closer objects (main effect of Distance: $F(1, 13) = 49.89; p <$
107 0.01 ; **Figure 2A, restricted-withPro**), suggesting that proprioceptive cues are not sufficient to
108 fully restore perceptual size constancy when vision is restricted.

109 In striking contrast to what happened with manual estimation, size constancy for grasping was
110 completely restored in the restricted-viewing condition when participants held the pedestal
111 (interaction between proprioceptive condition and distance condition: $F(1, 13) = 22.79; p <$

112 0.01; **Figure 2A, restricted-withPro**), and there was no longer an effect of distance on grip
113 aperture; $F(1, 13) = 2.32$; $p = 0.15$). In other words, the proprioceptive cues from the limb
114 holding the pedestal under the sphere were sufficient to scale the grasping hand to the physical
115 size of the object regardless of viewing distance. Further analysis showed that size constancy
116 was restored immediately after proprioceptive distance cues became available during grasping
117 (**Figure S2**). This suggests that the difference in performance between grasping and perception
118 cannot be attributed to the possibility that participants learned more quickly to incorporate
119 proprioceptive cues into the computation of size constancy for grasping than they did for
120 perceptual judgements.

121 **Comparison between the contribution of proprioception to size constancy in perception** 122 **and size constancy in grasping when vision was limited**

123 To measure the contribution of proprioception directly, we first calculated a size constancy
124 disruption index (DI) for each task in each condition, which was defined as the difference in ME
125 or MGA between the near and far distance conditions averaged across object sizes. To compare
126 the DIs between the two tasks, we had taken into account the fact that the slopes for MGAs as a
127 function of object size are typically shallower than those for MEs. In other words, a “1 mm”
128 difference in MGA is actually a “larger” difference than a “1 mm” difference in ME. Thus, DI
129 was corrected for the difference in the slopes [18].

130 **Figure 2B** shows the corrected DI for each task. The DI in grasping was smaller than the DI in
131 estimation in the restricted-noPro condition ($t(13) = 3.10$, $p < 0.01$). But what is more important
132 is that the reduction in the DI by the availability of proprioceptive distance cues (restricted-
133 withPro vs. restricted-noPro) was larger for grasping than for estimation. This is reflected in
134 **Figure 2C** in which we defined the contribution of proprioception in the restricted viewing
135 condition as the difference in DI between the restricted-noPro and the restricted-withPro
136 conditions. The contribution of proprioception was significant for both the estimation and the
137 grasping tasks (both $t(13) > 3.75$, $p < 0.01$), but was significantly greater for grasping than for
138 manual estimations ($t(13) = 2.69$, $p = 0.02$).

139 We also examined the contribution of vision to size constancy in perception and action when no
140 proprioceptive distance information was available. The contribution of vision was defined as the
141 difference in DI between the full-noPro and the restricted-noPro conditions. We found that vision
142 made a large contribution to both tasks (both $t(13) > 7.52$, $p < 0.001$; **Figure 2D**) and there was
143 no significant difference between the contribution of vision to these two tasks ($t(1, 13) = 0.61$, p
144 $= 0.55$).

145 Overall, these results suggest that perceptual size constancy depends mainly on visual distance
146 cues, and proprioceptive cues from holding the pedestal cannot fully replace the role of vision in
147 the computation of size constancy for perception. Size constancy in grasping also depends on
148 visual distance cues, but unlike perceptual size constancy, proprioceptive distance cues can
149 completely restore size constancy for grasping when vision is limited.

150 **Experiment 2: Proprioceptive distance cues originating from the inclination of** 151 **torso and/or the elbow angle of grasping limb**

152 One might argue that the haptic distance feedback on grasping trials from the right hand,
153 unavailable during estimation trials, may play a role in the restoration of size constancy in
154 grasping. This is unlikely, however. First, when participants held the pedestal (i.e., withPro), the
155 proprioceptive information from the left hand could already provide reliable information about
156 object distance [16, 17, 19] at the beginning of each trial before the target sphere was visible.
157 Second, as addressed above, distance feedback on grasping trials was only available at the
158 “contact” stage, which always occurred well after MGA was achieved (**Figure S1**), and therefore
159 could not influence MGA on the current trial. Finally, the distance feedback on the current trial
160 (n) could not provide distance information for the next trial (n+1) because the distance of the
161 target sphere varied randomly from trial to trial.

162 Nevertheless, to rule out any potential contribution of distance feedback on grasping trials, we
163 conducted Experiment 2 in which the position of the target was fixed across viewing distance
164 conditions, and was always at the same distance as the start position of the right hand for both
165 grasping and manual estimation tasks (**Figure 1D**). Therefore, when participants grasped objects,
166 they were always moving their hand straight to the left, and as a result, the grasping hand could
167 not provide any additional distance information. To manipulate the viewing distance,
168 participants were required to lean forward or backward (**Figure 1D**), so that viewing distance
169 information could be derived from the proprioceptive information from the angle of inclination
170 of their torso and/or the angle of the right elbow. The same full- and restricted-viewing
171 conditions were tested (full-withPro and restricted-withPro).

172 Unsurprisingly, we found that, in the full-viewing condition (with proprioception), there was
173 perfect size constancy for both tasks (main effect of distance, both $F(1, 17) < 0.39$, $p > 0.54$;
174 **Figure 3A**). Importantly, and consistent with Experiment 1, in the restricted-viewing condition,
175 only size constancy in grasping was completely restored (main effect of distance, $F(1, 17) =$
176 0.58 ; $p = 0.46$) by the proprioceptive cues from their torso and/or right elbow. In the manual
177 estimation task, participants still perceived objects as larger when they were closer (main effect
178 of distance, $F(1, 17) = 8.40$; $p = 0.01$). These findings suggest that the proprioceptive distance
179 cues originating from the torso and/or right limb, like those from the non-grasping (left) limb in
180 Experiment 1, enable perfect size constancy in grasping but not in perception. In addition,
181 because the position of the target sphere and the position of the start position of the grasping
182 hand did not change with viewing distance, the results cannot be attributed to the additional
183 distance feedback available on grasping trials.

184 As in Experiment 1, we calculated the contribution of vision to both tasks. The contribution of
185 vision was significant for perceptual report ($t(17) = 2.77$, $p = 0.01$; **Figure 3C**), but close to 0 for
186 grasping ($t(17) = 0.18$, $p = 0.86$) when proprioception was available. The contribution of vision
187 to perception was also marginally larger for estimation than it was for grasping ($t(17) = 2.07$, $p =$
188 0.05). These results converge on those from Experiment 1 and show that when proprioceptive
189 distance cues are available, size constancy in perception continues to rely on visual distance
190 cues, while size constancy in grasping no longer needs visual cues.

191 One reason why proprioceptive inputs are not as readily incorporated into the perceptual
192 experience of size is that, in everyday life, the need for accurate perception of size extends to
193 objects well beyond peripersonal space, where proprioception can play no role and visual cues to
194 distance are essential. In contrast, the need to compute the real size of goal objects for grasping,
195 which always takes place in peripersonal space, makes it likely that proprioceptive information
196 would make a significant contribution.

197 The observation that proprioceptive signals to distance contribute more to size constancy in
198 grasping than to size constancy in perception is probably related to differences in the neural
199 circuits mediating the two tasks. The neural circuits mediating grasping, which include the
200 anterior intraparietal sulcus (AIP) and premotor cortex [20, 21], not only receive inputs from the
201 visual cortex but are also densely interconnected with the somatosensory cortex. The premotor
202 cortex has been shown to code limb position on the basis of both proprioceptive and visual
203 signals [22]. Moreover, monkey neurophysiology suggests that AIP processes size, shape, and
204 orientation information about the goal object for grasping [23]. All of these properties make the
205 premotor-parietal circuitry mediating grasping well-poised for combining proprioceptive and
206 visual cues. In contrast, there is no clear evidence for strong direct connections between the
207 premotor cortex and visual areas in the occipito-temporal cortex nor is there any evidence for
208 bimodal neurons coding both visual and proprioceptive information in this region. Nevertheless,
209 there was some improvement in perceptual size constancy when proprioceptive distance
210 information was available suggesting that the computations carried out by ventral-stream visual
211 structures can be modulated by proprioceptive input.

212 We found that the role of visual distance cues in the computation of size constancy in grasping
213 can be fully compensated by proprioceptive distance cues; but this does not mean that
214 proprioceptive distance cues can replace the role of visual cues in all aspects. For example, the
215 MGAs in general were still larger in the restricted-withPro condition than they were in the full-
216 noPro condition probably because there was more uncertainty when vision was limited.

217 Although proprioception did not restore perfect size constancy in perception, it did result in a
218 moderate improvement, which is consistent with earlier work showing size constancy in
219 perception was enhanced by an observer's movement [24], and previous work showing
220 perceived size was influenced by the position of the hand on which the stimulus was projected
221 [25, 26]. Gosselin-Kessiby et al., [27, 28] showed that proprioceptive information from one
222 hand can be used by the other hand in both an orientation-matching task and a letter-posting task,
223 with a result that is consistent with our observation that proprioceptive information can be
224 transferred between hands.

225 Previous studies examining the integration of visual and proprioceptive position information
226 have shown that the weighting of each sensory cue depends on its reliability [29-31]. Our finding
227 that, even though the same visual and proprioceptive distance cues were theoretically available
228 for grasping and perceptual report, these cues were incorporated differently in the two tasks
229 reveals an important caveat for current models of multisensory integration: the nature of the task
230 and its underlying neural substrate have to be taken into account when determining the relative
231 weighting of different cues.

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234 **Acknowledgments**

235 We thank Raven Rinas for her help in collecting the data and Jason Kim for his help with the
236 figures. We also thank Jody Culham, Andrew Pruszynski, and Simona Monaco for their helpful
237 comments. This work was supported by a discovery grant from the Natural Sciences and
238 Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) to M.A.G (grant number RGPIN-2017-04088).
239 and the "Brain in Action" training initiative sponsored by the NSERC Collaborative Research and
240 Training Experience Program (CREATE) and the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG)
241 International Research Training Group (IRTG).

242 **Author Contributions**

243 J.C., I.S., and M.A.G. designed the study. J.C. collected and analyzed the data. J.C., I.S., and
244 M.A.G. wrote the paper.

245 **Declaration of Interests**

246 The authors declare no competing interests.

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328 **Figure legends**

329 **Figure 1. The setup and design of Experiments 1 and 2.** **A.** To measure size constancy, the
330 main experimental conditions included two object sizes and two viewing distances. Other sizes
331 and distance conditions were also introduced to increase the unpredictability of size and distance
332 (see STAR methods for details). **B.** Predicted patterns of results for Perfect and Disrupted size
333 constancy (not actual data). If there is perfect size constancy, the perceived size or the grip
334 aperture should be constant regardless of viewing distance (PERFECT). But if size constancy is
335 disrupted due to the lack of distance information, people will tend to report the size of the sphere
336 or scale their grasp according to the visual angle the object subtends on the retina. Thus, the
337 perceived size or the grip aperture should be larger for the near than for the far viewing distance
338 [3, 32] (DISRUPTED). **C.** The design and setup of Experiment 1 in which distance was
339 manipulated by moving the sphere and pedestal together to different positions. Participants
340 viewed the target sphere and the workspace in a full-viewing and a restricted-viewing condition
341 while placing their left hand on the table or on their lap throughout the experiment so that no
342 proprioceptive cues about the distance of the object were provided (full-noPro and restricted-
343 noPro). Only the target sphere, which was glowing in the dark, was visible in the restricted-
344 viewing condition. In the withPro condition, participant's left hand held the pedestal on which
345 the target sphere was resting so that proprioceptive information about object distance was
346 provided from the left hand. Full-withPro, rather than restricted-withPro, is shown for
347 demonstration purposes. **D.** The design of Experiment 2 in which the viewing distance was
348 manipulated by moving the chinrest and hence the observer's head to different positions. The
349 positions of the target sphere, the start position of the grasping hand, and the participants' chair
350 were fixed across viewing distance conditions. Therefore, the inclination of torso and/or the
351 elbow angle of grasping limb provided proprioceptive information about the viewing distance of
352 the object. Experiment 2 also included the full-viewing and restricted-viewing conditions but
353 proprioceptive information was always available (full-withPro and restricted-withPro). In both
354 experiments, the grasping distances were constant (distance from the start position of the hand to
355 the target object) despite the changes in viewing distance, to minimize the influence of
356 biomechanical constraints that would differ as a function of grasping distance [33-35]. In each
357 distance condition, participants' head position was fixed with a chinrest as shown by the smiling
358 persons in **C** and **D**.

359 **Figure 2. Results from Experiment 1.** **A.** The manual estimates (ME) of the perceived size and
360 the maximum grip aperture (MGA) of the small and large objects at the near or far distances in
361 three conditions: full-noPro, restricted-noPro and restricted-withPro. *** indicate that the main
362 effect of distance was significant at $p < 0.001$. Error bars represent within-subjects 95%
363 confidence intervals [36]. Note: differences in the slopes between near and far distances for ME
364 in the restricted-noPro and restricted-withPro conditions probably arose because of a floor effect
365 for the small object; that is, participants may have been reluctant to give estimates of the size of
366 the sphere that were smaller than smallest sphere in the set. This account may also apply to the
367 slopes of the MEs in **Figure 3**. **B.** Size constancy disruption index (DI) for each task corrected
368 for the different slopes of MEs and MGAs as a function of object size to allow for comparisons
369 across tasks. A positive index indicates disruption of size constancy, and thus ME or MGA of the
370 same object was larger at the near than at the far viewing distance. An index of 0 indicates
371 perfect size constancy (i.e., $ME_{near} = ME_{far}$ or $MGA_{near} = MGA_{far}$). **C.** Contribution of
372 proprioceptive distance cues in the restricted-viewing condition, which was defined by the

373 difference in DI between the restricted-noPro and the restricted-withPro conditions. **D.**
 374 Contribution of vision in the noPro condition, which was defined by the difference in DI between
 375 the restricted-noPro and the full-noPro conditions. In **B**, **C** and **D**, ** or *** above a vertical bar
 376 indicate the value was significantly different from 0 at $p < 0.01$ or $p < 0.001$, respectively. *, **, or
 377 *** above a horizontal line indicate the difference between two bars was significantly different
 378 at $p < 0.05$ $p < 0.01$ or $p < 0.001$ levels. Error bars in **B**, **C** and **D** represent 95% confidence
 379 intervals.

380 **Figure 3. Results from Experiment 2. A.** The manual estimates (MEs) and the maximum grip
 381 apertures (MGAs) of the small and large objects at the near or far distances in the full-withPro
 382 and restricted-withPro conditions. In this Experiment, participants always had proprioceptive
 383 distance cues from the inclination of the body and the angle of right elbow. ** indicate that the
 384 main effect of distance was significant at $p < 0.01$. Error bars represent within-subjects 95%
 385 confidence intervals [36]. **B.** Size constancy disruption index (DI) corrected for the different
 386 slopes of MEs and MGAs as a function of object size for each condition and each task. **C.**
 387 Contribution of vision. Note that unlike **Figure 2D**, here the contribution of vision was estimated
 388 when proprioceptive information was available (i.e., withPro condition) because proprioception
 389 was always provided in Experiment 2. In **B** and **C**, * or ** above a vertical bar indicate the value
 390 was significantly different from 0 at $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$ level, respectively. Error bars in **B** and
 391 **C** represent 95% confidence intervals.

392
 393 **STAR★Methods**

394 **Key Resources Table**

REAGENT or	SOURCE	IDENTIF
Software and Algorithms		
MATLAB R2014a	https://www.mathworks.com/products/matlab.html	N/A
Psychtoolbox 3	http://psychtoolbox.org/	N/A
IBM SPSS 24	https://www.ibm.com/analytics/us/en/technology/spss/	N/A

395
 396 **Contact for Reagent and Resource Sharing**

397 Further information and requests for resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the
 398 Lead Contact Juan Chen (jchen737@uwo.ca).

399 **Experimental Model and Subject Details**

400 *Participants*

401 Fourteen participants (five males, nine females) took part in Experiment 1. Eighteen new
 402 participants (eight males, ten females) took part in Experiment 2. All were right-handed and had
 403 normal or corrected-to-normal vision with contact lenses. Their ages ranged between 18 and 25

404 years ($M = 21.4$, $SD = 2.2$). Participants gave informed consent and the experiments were
405 approved by the University of Western Ontario Ethics Review Board.

406 **Method Details**

407 *Stimuli, Apparatus*

408 The stimuli in both experiments were white 3D-printed hollow spheres with diameters of 12.5
409 mm, 25 mm, 37.5 mm, 50 mm, and 62.5 mm. Only trials with the 25 mm and 50 mm spheres
410 were included in the analysis. The other diameters were occasionally presented to increase the
411 variability of the sizes so that participants kept adjusting their grip aperture according to the size
412 of the sphere. The spheres were painted with white luminescent paint and therefore were visible
413 in the dark (although they appeared to be slightly green). Each sphere rested on a small moveable
414 black stand, which varied with the size of the sphere (30 mm height at most), to ensure that the
415 center of all spheres was always along the same line of fixation. The stands were black and
416 therefore participants could not see them in the dark. The stand itself was placed on top of a
417 black pedestal (115 mm height; the same pedestal was used in all conditions) in Experiment 1
418 and directly on the table in Experiment 2 (**Figures 1C and 1D**).

419 In both experiments, participants wore liquid crystal goggles (PLATO goggles; Translucent
420 Technologies, Toronto, ON, Canada) throughout the experiments to control for the visibility of
421 the display and their moving hand. In the restricted-viewing condition (see below), they also
422 wore a pair of glasses with a 1-mm hole in the center of the right lens. The PLATO goggles were
423 worn over the pinhole glasses. A start button was located at 15 cm from the edge of the tabletop
424 facing the participants. The 3D positions of the thumb and index finger of the right hand were
425 tracked with an OPTOTRAK system (Northern Digital, Waterloo, ON, Canada) in which the
426 infrared light emitting diodes (IREDs) were attached to the right corner of the thumbnail and the
427 left corner of the index finger. The sample rate was 200 Hz. The OPTOTRAK was calibrated at
428 the beginning of each testing session.

429 *Procedure and design*

430 In Experiment 1, participants were seated in front of a black table with their chin on a chinrest.
431 The target spheres, together with the pedestal underneath it, were placed at 20 cm (i.e., near), 30
432 cm (i.e., middle) or 40 cm (i.e., far) of viewing distance (**Figure 1C**). The 30-cm viewing
433 condition was used on only a small number of trials to make target position less predictable.
434 Data from this condition were not used in the analysis. Previous studies [33-35] which
435 manipulated the grasping distance (the distance from the start position of the grasping hand to
436 the target) have observed that the grip aperture decreased or increased with the increase of
437 grasping distance even in the full-viewing condition. To eliminate the confound of
438 biomechanical effects, we kept grasping distance constant (the distance on the table was 17.3
439 cm) despite of changes in viewing distances.

440 At the beginning of each trial, the goggles were closed. Participants held down the start button
441 with their thumb and index fingers pinched together. The experimenter placed the target sphere,
442 together with the pedestal, at a specific location and then turned on the goggles. On grasping
443 trials, they were required to reach out and pick up the target sphere in a 'natural manner' with
444 their thumb and index finger as soon as the goggles were opened. The OPTOTRAK was
445 triggered when the goggles were opened to record the movement for 3 s. On perceptual trials,

446 participants were required to indicate as accurately as they could the *perceived* size of the target
447 sphere by opening their thumb and index finger a matching amount (no time limitation). When
448 participants signalled that they were satisfied with their manual estimate of the sphere's size, the
449 experimenter triggered the OPTOTRAK to record the data for 800 ms. In both tasks the goggles
450 closed as soon as the participants released the start button (i.e., open loop) so that they were not
451 able to see the target or their hand during the execution of the grasping or estimation task,
452 preventing any online adjustment based on visual feedback. In other words, the grip aperture (or
453 manual estimate) was determined only by the programming of the grasp (or manual estimate)
454 based on size and distance information that was available before the hand was moved. In
455 addition, in the manual estimation task, the target sphere was placed in their right hand right after
456 they had made their estimate so that they received the same haptic feedback about the size of the
457 sphere as they did on grasping trials. Therefore, any difference in results between MEs and
458 MGAs could not be attributed to the difference in haptic size feedback between the two tasks.

459 Participants performed the two tasks described above in either a full-viewing condition (light on,
460 binocular viewing, **Figure 1C**) or a restricted-viewing condition (light off, monocular viewing
461 through a 1-mm hole with their right eye [32]; only the glowing target sphere was visible in this
462 condition). In the full-viewing condition, a number of distance cues to size constancy were
463 available, including binocular disparity, pictorial cues, vergence, and accommodation. In the
464 restricted-viewing condition, all binocular cues, most pictorial cues, and blur were removed;
465 moreover, accommodation could not provide valid distance information in this condition [32]. In
466 the full-viewing condition, the procedure of grasping and estimation trials was exactly the same
467 as described above. In the restricted-viewing condition, in addition to the general procedure, the
468 experimenter briefly turned on the light to position the target sphere for that trial, placed the
469 sphere that had just been used into a light-filled box (covered with black cloth so that participants
470 could not see it) to re-charge the luminescent paint on the sphere, and then turned off all lights
471 (including the computer monitor) before turning on the goggles for the participant. Only the
472 glowing target sphere was visible in the restricted-viewing condition.

473 To test whether or not proprioceptive information about object distance would restore size
474 constancy in the restricted-viewing condition, at the beginning of each trial in Experiment 1, we
475 moved participants' left hand to the position of the pedestal on which the sphere was resting, and
476 asked them to hold the pedestal with that hand throughout the trial (the full-withPro condition is
477 illustrated in **Figure 1C**. But note that in the restricted-withPro condition, only the glowing
478 sphere was visible. In noPro conditions (full-noPro or restricted-noPro), participants' left hand
479 was placed on the table or on their lap (i.e. not at the same position as the target sphere), and
480 therefore could not provide information about the distance of the object) while they were
481 performing the same estimation and grasping tasks.

482 To rule out any potential contribution of the distance feedback from the grasping hand on
483 grasping trials and to test the contribution of another source of proprioceptive distance
484 information, we conducted Experiment 2 in which the position of the target was fixed across
485 viewing distance conditions, and was always at the same distance as the start position of the right
486 hand for both the grasping and the manual estimation tasks (**Figure 1D**). Therefore, when
487 participants grasped objects, they were always moving their hand straight to the left (grasping
488 distance: 14.5 cm), orthogonal to the plane between the target object and the eyes, and as a
489 result, grasping the object could not provide any additional distance information.

490 To manipulate viewing distance, the chinrest, which was fixed on the drawer of the table, was
491 moved to different distances (20 cm or 40 cm) from the target object for both tasks. The chair
492 where participants were seated was fixed in position so that participants had to lean forward
493 (Near, **Figure 1D**) or backward (Far, **Figure 1D**) to ensure that their head was stabilized on the
494 chinrest. As a result, viewing distance information could be derived from the proprioceptive
495 information from the angle of inclination of their torso and/or the angle of the right elbow.
496 Participants' left hand was placed on their lap. The same full- and restricted-viewing conditions
497 (full-withPro and restricted-withPro) were tested. No "noPro" conditions were tested because
498 Experiment 1 has already shown clearly that both size constancy in grasping and in estimation
499 would be disrupted in the restricted viewing condition when no proprioception was available.

500 In Experiment 1, task (grasping or manual estimation and sensory conditions (full-noPro,
501 restricted-noPro, and restricted-withPro) were manipulated in separate blocks. There were 6
502 blocks in total, one block for each combination of task and sensory condition. The order of the
503 blocks was randomized across participants. In each block, distance and size were randomized on
504 a trial-by-trial basis so they were unpredictable. Each of the four size-distance combinations
505 (**Figure 1A**) included in the analysis had 8 repetitions. The remaining sizes were presented once
506 at each of the 2 main distance conditions, and all five sizes was presented once at the middle
507 distance.

508 In Experiment 2, task (grasping or manual estimation) and sensory condition (full-withPro and
509 restricted-withPro) were manipulated in separate blocks. There were four blocks in total, one
510 block for each combination of task and sensory condition. The order of the blocks was
511 randomized across participants. Within each of these 4 blocks, the trials with the same viewing
512 distance was blocked to avoid dizziness induced by frequent movements of their body and head.
513 The order of the two viewing distances was randomized across participants. The size was also
514 randomized but on a trial-by-trial basis. There were 8 repetitions for each of the 25-mm and 50-
515 mm sizes, and 2 repetitions for the remaining 3 sizes in each distance block.

516 All participants were given about 30 min of training on both tasks before taking part in the real
517 experiment. At the beginning of the restricted-viewing block, participants were asked to adjust
518 the pinhole glasses to make sure that they could see the largest sphere in its entirety in darkness
519 and to keep still throughout the block.

520 **Quantification and statistical analysis**

521 The distance between the two IREDs was calculated. The maximum grip aperture (MGA), which
522 is a commonly used kinematic measure of how well participants scale their grip to the size of the
523 object [5, 15, 21], was extracted for each grasping trial. The manual estimate (ME) was the first
524 value of distance between the two fingers on each trial when participants informed the
525 experimenter that they were indicating the perceived size of the sphere. The distance between the
526 IREDs when participants' fingers were pinched together (**Figure S1**) was subtracted from the
527 extracted MGAs or MEs. There was occasional signal loss during grasping or manual estimation
528 because the target object might have occluded the IREDs or the IREDs were rotated so that they
529 were out of view. Overall, 11.6% of grasping trials and 3.35% of estimation trials were
530 discarded because of signal loss.

531 In the restricted-viewing condition, when participants were not holding the pedestal of the target
532 sphere (i.e., restricted-noPro condition), they failed to reach the correct position on

533 approximately half the trials (i.e., incorrect trials) due to the lack of distance information.
534 Nonetheless, a preliminary analysis showed that the MGAs on incorrect trials were also scaled to
535 object size at each distance ($F(1, 13) = 22.52, p < 0.01$), and whether or not the participant
536 reached correctly towards the sphere did not have a significant main effect on MGAs ($F(1, 13) =$
537 $0.31, p = 0.59$). This is not surprising given that the size information of the object was evident
538 (the target object was glowing in the dark) although the distance information was extremely
539 limited. Indeed, it was reported that even a patient with complete loss of proprioceptive sensation
540 in the fingers and wrist of both arms could scale her grip aperture to the size of the object [6]
541 suggesting that people can scale their grip aperture to the size of the object no matter whether
542 they could “feel” the object at the “contact” stage (**Figure S1**). For this reason, we included both
543 correct and incorrect trials in the analysis.

544 Repeated-measures ANOVAs with size (25 mm vs. 50 mm) and distance (near vs. far) as main
545 factors were conducted to test the main effect of distance separately for each combination of task
546 and sensory condition (full-noPro, restricted-noPro and restricted-withPro in Experiment 1, and
547 full-withPro and restricted-withPro in Experiment 2) to examine if there was perfect size
548 constancy (i.e., main effect of distance is NOT significant; **Figure 1B**) or the size constancy was
549 disrupted (i.e., main effect of distance is significant; **Figure 1B**).

550 The size constancy disruption index (i.e., DI) was defined as $(ME_{near} - ME_{far})_{\text{Averaged Across Sizes}}$ for
551 manual estimation and $(PGA_{near} - PGA_{far})_{\text{Averaged Across Sizes}}$ for grasping. The disruption was then
552 divided by the slope for PGA or ME as a function of physical size (the slope was averaged across
553 distances) to correct the effect of slopes. The corrected DI was used to calculate the contribution
554 of vision and proprioception to size constancy in each task. These calculations were performed
555 individually and were then subjected to one-sample t-test (compare with 0) or paired t-tests for
556 group analysis.

557 **Data and software availability**

558 Individual datasets are available upon request.

559 **Legends for supplementary figures**

560 **Figure S1. The profile of grip aperture for objects of different sizes (blue, small; red, large).**
561 The thin lines show profiles of individual trials. The thick lines show the average of trials from
562 the same size condition. At the beginning of grasping trials, the fingers were pinched together.
563 The fingers then began to open, reaching maximum grip aperture (MGA), and then closed down
564 on the object (Contact), lifted it up, and finally put it down (Release). Note that the MGA always
565 occurs well before participants contact the target.

566 **Figure S2. The results of the first 2 trials and last 2 trials in the restricted-noPro and**
567 **restricted-withPro conditions for both the estimation (A) and grasping (B) tasks in**
568 **Experiment 1.** S means small and L means large. In both the restricted-noPro and restricted-
569 withPro conditions for both tasks, the main effect of order (i.e., first 2 trial versus last 2 trials)
570 was not significant (in all cases, $F(1,13) < 0.32, p > 0.581$). This suggests that differences in
571 performance between grasping and manual estimation when proprioceptive cues were available
572 cannot be attributed to differences in learning over the course of the experiment.