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# ROYAL SOCIETY OPEN SCIENCE

# Recalibration of perceived agency transfers across modalities

Belkis Ezgi Arikan<sup>1,2</sup>, Kielan Yarrow<sup>3</sup>, Katja Fiehler<sup>1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Experimental Psychology, Justus Liebig University Giessen, Otto-Behaghel Str. 10F, D-35394 Giessen, Germany <sup>2</sup>Center for Mind, Brain and Behavior (CMBB), Philipps University Marburg and Justus Liebig University

Giessen, Germany

<sup>3</sup>Department of Psychology, City University of London, Northampton Square, London EC1V 0HB, United

Kingdom

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## 1. Summary

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We experience our actions and their sensory consequences as synchronous despite small sensorimotor delays. This is attained by an adaptation process in which the sensorimotor system recalibrates temporal discrepancies between actions and their feedback, as long as causality is maintained (i.e., feedback follows action). Predictive motor mechanisms boost action-feedback binding, aiding in adaptation. Sensorimotor temporal recalibration is therefore closely linked with perceived control over the action and its sensory feedback (sense of agency, SoA). Interestingly, recalibration can also transfer to another sense, indicating a generalized mechanism that adjusts the timing of action-feedback events. It is unclear whether recalibration of perceived agency is driven by a similar mechanism. Here, we investigated cross-modal transfer of perceived agency and simultaneity in a sensorimotor recalibration task. In an adaptation phase, participants executed button presses leading to an immediate or lagged (150ms) occurrence of a Gabor patch. Subsequently, they were asked to make simultaneity or agency judgments for action-feedback pairs (Gabor patch or tone) with variable response-stimulus asynchronies (RSAs). We found adaptation of synchrony and agency judgments with transfer of recalibration for agency judgments. Our findings suggest flexible recalibration of perceived agency, suggesting SoA is not inferred solely on a match with modality-specific motor predictions.

## 2. Introduction

1 Our actions and their sensory consequences are perceived to be temporally coherent, despite the existence of variable delays 2 3 4 5 6 of neurophysiological and physical origin [1,2]. Although the auditory feedback when typing on the keyboard arrives some milliseconds later to the ears, the typing action and the associated auditory feedback is perceived as synchronous. Sensorimotor temporal recalibration describes the result of a compensatory process (i.e., a form of adaptation) in which actions and their sensory feedback become perceptually aligned in time when systematic temporal delays are present. Recalibrating the time of action-feedback events is crucial to maintain a coherent temporal perception of related events [3– 7 6], as well as to feel in control of the sensory feedback generated by one's own actions [7–9]. A multitude of studies suggest 8 a related tendency to perceive one's own actions and their sensory feedback closer in time than when similar sensory 9 feedback is initiated externally [10–15]. It appears that voluntary actions may possess an advantage in structuring time [but 10 see 16-18].

Temporal recalibration is an established finding, but the fact that we can sometimes still experience asynchrony between our actions and their feedback, as in a badly synchronized video game, suggests that certain criteria need to be met to elicit recalibration. The presence and extent of sensorimotor temporal recalibration depends on causality; i.e., whether the two events are inferred to have a causal relation [19–21]. In the real world, effects follow their causes. Existing research indicates that the inferred causality between events influences how they are perceived in time, even when the physical temporal order is at odds with the inferred order [22,23]. In the case of voluntary actions, causality is established with greater ease: an action can only precede its effect [9,21]. Consequently, asynchronies between actions and accompanying sensations are more tolerated when the action precedes the sensory effect than when the action-effect order is reversed [20]. Once recalibration takes place, it is compelling, even leading to an illusory reversal of perceived action-feedback order, in

†Present address: Experimental Psychology, Justus Liebig University Giessen, Otto-Behaghel Str. 10F, D-35394 Giessen, Germany

<sup>10</sup> which an immediate effect appears to precede its cause [6].

<sup>\*</sup>Author for correspondence (arikan.ezgi@gmail.com).

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11 In addition to causality, existing work on sensorimotor temporal recalibration highlights the role of sense of agency (SoA), 12 defined as the subjective experience of being in control of sensory events through one's own action [9]. SoA involves both

13 the attribution of authorship to a sensory event and the subjective experience of being in control of the sensory event [9,24].

14 It has been proposed that SoA operates at two distinct levels: a lower, pre-reflective level highlighted by an implicit sense 15

of being in control (feeling of agency), and a higher, belief-like level underlined by an explicit sense of being in control 16 (judgment of agency) [25]. The perception of synchrony between an action and a sensory event has been found to be

17 stronger (i.e., to extend over a wider temporal window) when action-event order facilitates the SoA than when the sensory

18 event precedes the action [21,26]. This highlights an elevated tendency to adapt perceived timing of actions to the

19 subsequent sensory effects when one perceives authorship or control over the effect. [27-31]. Relatedly, the perceived time

20 of intentional actions and subsequent effects are attracted towards one another, known as intentional or temporal binding, 21

which has sometimes been considered as an implicit measure of SoA [30, but see 16–18]. A comparator model has been

proposed to account for SoA in which estimated sensory states associated with an action are compared with the actual sensory states resulting from the action. This is carried out by an internal forward model in which an efference copy of the

22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 motor command predicts the sensory states linked with the action [32]. In the case of a match, SoA over the sensory effect is inferred [33]. Multiple studies have provided evidence for the role of forward models in inferring SoA [6,10,14,30,34]. Recent work, however, challenges the role of the comparator model in inferring SoA and questions the assumption that temporal binding is an implicit measure of SoA. For example, audiovisual simultaneity around intentional actions is observed for passive movements of the limb [35] or even in the absence of an action (passive viewing) [36]. These results

are rather in line with the notion that SoA results from multisensory cue integration in which actions and accompanying sensations are integrated into a single percept whenever a common cause can be established [18,37]. Additionally, some

31 studies have demonstrated that implicit and explicit measures of SoA, such as temporal binding and agency judgments, are 32

not correlated [38,39, but see 40]. Yet other studies point to potential confounds in experimental conditions used to asses 33

SoA in conventional paradigms [16,17]; for example, differences in attentional load between experimental conditions 34 involving actions and sensory stimuli, and baseline conditions involving only one of these events [17,41].

35 Despite the controversy regarding temporal binding and SoA, timing between actions and sensory events provides a useful 36 cue to perceived agency [19,21,26,42]. In the case of sensorimotor recalibration, there is an obvious link between time 37 perception and SoA when dealing with temporal discrepancies. Nevertheless, existing work also points to a dissociation 38 between the two [20,43]. Rohde et al. [15] investigated the relationship between time and perceived agency for button 39 presses causing visual flashes in which they asked participants to judge either the simultaneity between the two events or 40 their feeling of control over the flash via the button press. They found that the time window in which the two events are 41 judged as simultaneous is narrower compared to when participants judged control over the flash through their button press. 42 A similar result was observed by Bonnet et al. [44], who found this difference to be enhanced when the sensory event 43 (coherent motion onset) was left/right congruent with the hand used to make the action. In another study, Sugano [43] found 44 differences in the recalibration of timing and perceived agency for button press-tone events. More specifically, systematic 45 temporal delays between button presses and subsequent tones led to both a shift in the point of subjective simultaneity and 46 a widening of the window of perceived simultaneity for the events. Recalibration of agency judgments was weak and 47 associated with a decreased tendency to respond as not being in control of the feedback rather than a decreased sensitivity 48 to delays when judging agency. These results suggest a potential dissociation between time perception and SoA arising 49 from adaptation. More specifically, recalibration of perceived agency seems to be less sensitive to systematic action-50 feedback delays compared to recalibration of synchrony.

51 The differences that emerge when recalibration is measured via judgments about time versus SoA can be scrutinized by 52 examining their proposed underlying mechanisms. Classically, sensorimotor temporal recalibration is measured via timing 53 judgments, and observed following lag adaptation (i.e., use of delayed feedback). Because this recalibration can transfer 54 across sensory modalities [4,26,27; but see 28,29] and different limbs (hand and foot tapping) [49], its origin may be a 55 supramodal time-perception module (i.e., supramodal clock) for actions and their sensory feedback. Such a supramodal 56 recalibration might be beneficial in compensating for delays due to neural transmission or processing demands the nervous 57 system is faced with [1,2,50].

58 It is possible that, like perceived timing, the SoA also depends on an assessment about timing derived from the same 59 supramodal clock, and would thus show similar recalibration following adaptation. However, we have already noted that 60 SoA has been hypothesized to reflect the outcome of a comparator process when an internal forward model is used to 61 compare predicted and actual sensory feedback associated with the movement. Forward models are highly specific; they 62 make specific predictions with regard to the temporal and spatial characteristics of the action-feedback event and about the 63 identity of the action's feedback (e.g., a visual effect of certain intensity and duration) [27,51]. This might thus imply no 64 crossmodal transfer for the recalibration of perceived agency. However, there is also evidence that the SoA is more flexible 65 to mismatches between the predicted and actual feedback [42,52]. For example, Desantis et al. [42] demonstrated that 66 sensory feedback identity does not seem to drive temporal binding of action-feedback events [see also 46]. This finding 67 undermines the importance attributed to the comparator process in establishing SoA and highlights a more flexible 68 mechanism. Similarly, Moore & Haggard [52] suggest that judgments of perceived agency result not only from motor 69 prediction, but also from an inferential mechanism, i.e., when reliability of predictions is low, SoA can be inferred 70 postdictively as long as an action-feedback association can be made. The latter proposal is also in line with the notion that 71 recalibration reflects multisensory integration of cues arising from a common origin [18,19]. Together, these findings 72 indicate both similarities and dissociations between timing and SoA and, in particular, for the stimulus-specificity of their

73 comparative temporal recalibrations. 74 In this study, we aimed to investigate the relationship between temporal recalibration and perceived agency, specifically 75 perceived authorship, for action-feedback events measured by judgments of synchrony or perceived agency. Assuming that 76 the action-feedback identity may be the dissociation point for the temporal recalibration of timing versus agency judgments,

- 77 we asked, to our knowledge for the first time, whether recalibration of perceived agency could generalize to another 78 feedback modality. If the perceived action-outcome association is mainly modulated by their temporal order, due to a
- feedback modality. If the perceived action-outcome association is mainly modulated by their temporal order, due to a common cause assumption [19], we would expect recalibration of agency judgments to transfer to another modality.
- Alternatively, if a comparison with the specific identity of the sensory feedback predicted by a recalibrated forward model
- 81 mainly drives agency judgments, a change of modality would render the recalibrated forward model invalid. The brain
- 82 might then revert to a different (unadapted) model better aligned to the identity of the feedback, and there should be no
- transfer. The latter prediction would indicate a dissociation between perceived timing and agency judgments in terms of the mechanisms involved. A second objective was to investigate crossmodal recalibration using a much larger sample size than previous studies had used (ca. n=10) to obtain more accurate estimates, since crossmodal transfer is weaker than
- 86 within-modality recalibration [6,45,47,48,54].
- 87 To this end, we ran an experiment in which the participants performed button press actions that resulted in visual feedback 88 (a Gabor patch). We investigated crossmodal transfer from vision to audition, since it shows stronger transfer effect than 89 transfer from audition to vision [47]. In order to induce temporal recalibration, we inserted systematic delays (lags) of either 90 0 or 150 ms between button press-visual events (adaptation phase). We then tested for recalibration by presenting button 91 press-visual events with variable response-stimulus asynchronies (RSAs) and asking the participants to judge simultaneity 92 between them (test phase). To examine the transfer effect, we presented button press-auditory events with variable RSAs 93 after an adaptation phase of button press-visual pairs, in a separate block. Regarding recalibration of agency judgments, we 94 repeated both of these blocks in a similar fashion, this time asking whether the participants felt in control over the Gabor 95 patch (or the tone in the transfer block) through their button press. Here, our focus was on the perceived authorship 96 attribution of SoA.
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## 3. Materials and Methods

## 100 3.1 Participants

101 The experiment was approved by the local ethics committee (Lokale Ethik-Kommission des Fachbereichs 06; LEK-FB06) 102 and was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki except for preregistration [55]. Our sample included 52 103 university students (37 females,  $24 \pm 3$  years). They provided written informed consent prior to participation. Data from 104 two participants were excluded due to technical failure. An additional two participants dropped out of the study without 105 completing either of the two tasks (agency or simultaneity), resulting in a final sample of 48 participants (36 females, years, 106  $24 \pm 3$  years), 46 of whom completed all eight blocks (one completed six blocks, one four blocks). Data of four from eight 107 blocks were excluded from one further participant (see Data Analysis). All participants were right-handed as confirmed by 108 the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory (EHI score  $88.08 \pm 21.82$ ) [56]. They reported normal or corrected-to-normal vision, 109 and normal hearing. In addition, none reported having current psychiatric or neurological conditions or taking related 110 medication. Participants received monetary compensation for their participation. 111

## 112 3.2 Sample sizes

Sample size was determined based on our previous study in which we investigated within (t-test, Cohen's d = 0.83) and cross-modal (Cohen's d = 0.57) adaptation effects [47] for motor-visual events. Considering the possibility of higher variability for agency judgments [21], we assumed a minimum effect size of interest of Cohen's d = 0.5. In order to detect a Cohen's d of 0.5 (with alpha = 0.05 and power = 0.90, two-tailed t-test), a minimum sample size of 44 is necessary. We recruited 52 participants in total. Considering the excluded participants and the participants that partially completed the blocks, a final sample size of between 45 and 48 (depending on the exact contrast, as not all participants completed all conditions) was in all cases appropriate to provide >90% power.

## 121 **3.3 Stimuli and apparatus**

- Visual stimuli consisted of Gabor patches  $(1.49^{\circ}, \text{ spatial frequency} = 5 \text{cycles/degree, duration} = ~33.4 \text{ ms})$ , and were presented on a 24" computer monitor (Viewpixx 3D, 1920 x 1080 pixels resolution, 120 Hz frame refresh rate). Auditory stimuli were brief sine-wave tones (frequency = 2000Hz, duration = ~33.4 ms with 2 ms rise/fall slopes), and were presented via headphones. Stimulus presentation and response recording were controlled by Matlab 2019a (The MathWorks Inc.) and Psychtoolbox-3 [57,58]. Participants' yes/no responses were recorded via a keyboard ('V' and 'N' buttons on the keyboard). Prior to the experiment, we measured the internal delay between the keypresses and the auditory/visual stimuli. The internal delay between a keypress and a visual stimulus was  $30.28 \pm 4.39$  ms, and a keypress and tone was  $41.79 \pm 4.14$  ms.
- 129 The experiment was conducted in a dimly lit room. Participants sat at a desk in front of a monitor with a viewing distance 130 of approximately 55 cm. Their right index finger was placed on a left key of a mouse pad (Perixx Peripad-504) that was 131 used to trigger visual and auditory stimuli. The stimuli were presented only when the left key on the mouse pad was pressed 132 down completely. The mouse pad was placed in a custom-made box to prevent the participant from using visual cues from 133 their hand to perform the task. The bottom of the box was covered with a cushion to ensure a comfortable hand/forearm 134 positioning. White noise was presented throughout the experiment to mask any auditory cues. In addition, we used sound 135 attenuating headphones in order to prevent any possible sounds from the outside. Prior to the experimental blocks, we made 136 sure that the participants could hear the tones clearly.
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## 138 **3.4 Experimental design**

The experimental design consisted of three within-subject factors; namely, task, sensory modality and adaptation delay. The first factor *task* corresponded to the type of judgment the participants had to make following adaptation, and consisted of simultaneity and agency judgments. The second factor *sensory modality* comprised the modality of the sensory feedback in the test phase, and could be either visual or auditory. The third factor, *adaptation delay*, described the lag between the action and the sensory feedback at adaptation, and could either be 150 ms or 0 ms (not considering the internal delay of the system).

145 The dependent variables were simultaneity and agency judgments for keypress-stimulus pairs (Gabor or tone) with 15 146 response-stimulus asynchronies (RSAs; -333, -250, -133, -100, -66, -33, 0, 33, 66, 100, 133, 250, 333, 417, 500 ms) inserted 147 between the keypress and the stimulus presented in the test phase. Negative values correspond to trials in which the sensory 148 stimulus was presented before the keypress. The RSA range and step sizes were based on a pilot study in which we aimed 149 to optimized the experimental design (e.g., number of adaptation and test trials, range of RSAs, number of repetitions per 150 RSA) for assessing agency and simultaneity judgments. For trials in which the stimulus preceded the keypress, we presented 151 the stimulus based on an estimation of when the participant would press the key. More specifically, we estimated the 152 keypress time of the participant on a trial-by-trial basis by calculating the median keypress time of the previous five 153 keypresses. Nevertheless, as early sensory stimuli can trigger keypresses [9], we calculated and use the actual RSAs for 154 trials in which the stimulus was presented before the keypress (see Analysis section).

155 Each participant attended four experimental sessions, completed over four days. In each session, they completed two blocks 156 of different experimental conditions, varying the sensory modality at test. Levels of the factor adaptation delay were 157 presented on separate days in order to prevent possible carryover effects between adaptation delays [45,46]. Moreover, the 158 two judgment tasks were introduced on separate days, namely on the first and on the third day, after the completion of the 159 initially assigned judgment task. We decided to introduce these tasks one after the other, because in the pilot experiment 160 participants had difficulties in distinguishing between these judgments, especially if both tasks were presented on the same 161 day. Levels of the factor sensory modality were presented in separate blocks, so were fully predictable. To minimize the 162 potential influence of temporal event order on agency judgments in the stimulus-action trials [9], we told participants that 163 either the computer or their button press could initiate visual or auditory feedback in the SoA condition. The order of 164 conditions was pseudorandomized across participants. 165

### 166 3.5. Procedure

167 A schematic of an experimental block is shown in Figure 1. Each experimental block consisted of an adaptation phase, and 168 a test phase. The adaptation phase consisted of 80 trials of keypress-Gabor patch pairs whereas the test phase consisted 150 169 trials, each of which involved five top-up adaptation pairs consisting of keypress-Gabor pairs as in the adaptation phase 170 and one test pair. Each block began with the adaptation phase. Participants were instructed to perform keypresses at a 171 constant pace, targeting an inter-tap interval of 750 ms. Each keypress led to the occurrence of a Gabor patch in the middle 172of the screen, either immediately (0 ms lag) or after a 150 ms lag. We informed the participants about their keypress pace 173 after every five keypress-Gabor pairs: If the median interval between keypresses was below 700 ms or above 800 ms, they 174 received 'Keypress: slower' and 'Keypress: faster' instruction presented for 750 ms on the computer screen, respectively.

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Button press Stimulus (visual/auditory)



#### 176 177

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177 Figure 1. Schematic of an experimental block. Each block consisted of 80 adaptation pairs followed by 150 top-up adaptation + test pairs. Participants were instructed to perform button presses each of which were followed by a Gabor patch with (150 ms) or without (0 ms) a systematic lag between the two. The test phase consisted of five top-up adaptation pairs that involved button press-Gabor pairs plus a test pair. Stimulus modality in the test pair could be visual (Gabor) or auditory (tone), and involved variable RSAs between the button press and the stimulus pair. Immediately after the test pair, participants were asked to judge whether the test pair were synchronous or whether they thought they caused the stimulus through their button press (Respond).

185 After the adaptation phase, the test phase began. An instruction prompted the participants to perform keypresses, for six 186 times on each trial, still keeping the instructed pace. The first five events consisted of keypress-Gabor pairs as in the 187 adaptation phase (top-up adaptation). In separate blocks, the sixth keypress was accompanied by either a Gabor patch or a 188 beep, with variable RSAs between the keypress and the stimulus (selected at random from the set of 15 possible RSAs, 189 with each RSA repeated 10 times). After a 500ms interval, the question 'Synchronous?' or 'Self-initiated?' (i.e., did you 190 initiate the stimulus via your button press?) appeared on the screen depending on the experimental block. Participants used 191 the keys 'V' and 'N' for 'Yes' and 'No' to provide their responses within a response period of 2000ms. Immediately after 192 the response period, an inter-trial interval ranging from 500 to 1500ms followed. At the end of the trial, the participants 193 received feedback about their keypress pace on that trial. If the median keypress interval was below 650 ms or above 850 194 ms, participants received 'Slower' and 'Faster' instructions, respectively. These slow and fast trials were rejected and 195 repeated in a subsequent trial, until it fell within the expected keypress pace. Moreover, for all trials, we allowed a maximum 196 button press interval of 850 ms between the 5<sup>th</sup> and the 6<sup>th</sup> button presses. We rejected and repeated those trials in which 197 these criteria were not met.

198 Prior to the experimental blocks, participants practiced the keypress pace, by tapping in synchrony with a metronome for 3 199 minutes. They were given feedback on their performance, and offered additional training if they felt they needed more 200 practice. All participants were able to tap in accordance with the auditory signal in the initial training. After the tapping 201 practice, the participants received a short training block for the upcoming experimental block. We encouraged participants 202 to take breaks between the blocks, but did not force a fixed break. Each experimental block lasted for ~25 minutes. If the 203 total duration of a given block exceeded 35 minutes due to repetitions, we concluded the block, as this would result in 204 deterioration of time perception [59]. The total duration of the experiment over the four sessions was approximately 4.5 205 hours. 206

## 207 **3.6.** Data analysis

208 At zero and positive RSAs, the stimulus was triggered from the response and therefore matched the intended timing (aside 209 from software delays). Typically, 90 such trials per block were entered into the analysis (across the nine positive RSAs) 210 with a small number of truncated blocks containing substantially fewer trials (5% showing >20% reduction, minimum of 211 19 trials). For the 60 remaining trials per block, with RSAs intended to be negative (based on the expected time or response), 212 we attempted to determine the true RSA (binned to the nearest screen refresh) for use in the analysis. Due to a coding error 213 only a subset of these estimates (median 27%) could be entered into the analysis. We calculated the proportion of "yes" 214 responses at each RSA and in each condition. We removed the agency judgment data from one participant because of too 215 few yes responses (<2% of trials).

216 Traditionally, data from this kind of experiment are fit separately for each condition and each observer (resulting in our 217 case in 2x2x2x48 = 384 separate psychometric function fits). Then, one or more of the derived model parameters from each 218 fit are compared across conditions using a subsequent inferential test such as ANOVA. However, that approach fails to 219 capitalise on all the information in the combined data set. Here, we fit a single Bayesian multilevel model to all participants 220 and conditions at once using the Stan programming language interfaced from R [60] via the RStan package [61,62]. This 221 multilevel approach is (in principle) an all-in-one implementation of the traditional analysis pipeline, using a similar number 222 of parameters to characterise the data and draw inferences. Among other benefits, it allows to incorporate data from the 223 three participants with missing conditions, and to appropriately weight cases with reduced numbers of trials.

224 We first attempted to fit the model using four chains (i.e., four independent parallel samplers evaluating different parameter 225 values) each exploring the likelihood surface via the default Hamiltonian Monte-Carlo no U-turn sampling (HMC NUTS) 226 algorithm. This algorithm is intended to retain samples in proportion to the height of the posterior distribution, and thus 227 estimate it. Regrettably, a complex and presumably multimodal posterior meant that we could not achieve good mixing 228 between chains, precluding the derivation of valid Bayesian credible intervals. We therefore opted to instead obtain a 229 maximum-likelihood fit, searching the parameter space from multiple starting points via Stan's L-BFGS quasi-Newton 230 algorithm. For (non-parametric) statistical inference and estimation of standard errors (used to calculate confidence 231 intervals and effect sizes) we programmed permutation tests and bootstrap procedures, re-fitting the model from each of 232 999 random permutations (across all cells of the design within each participant) or re-samples (re-sampling complete 233 participants with replacement) respectively. With 999 permutations, the 95% confidence interval around p = 0.05 is 0.014, 234 so we report p values in the range 0.036-0.064 as having "marginal" significance.

We fit an adapted version of the multilevel At-A-GLANCE model [63]. This model posits signals of two events (such as an action and its consequence) propagating toward a decision hub, each having Gaussian latency noise. Their subjective difference in arrival times is then categorized using a pair of decision criteria that vary randomly from trial to trial. Multilevel models add a set of group-level parameters to a heterogeneous foundation (essentially, a single-level model fitted to each participant). In this case, the heterogeneous foundation specifies a binomial distribution for the number of yes responses ( $Y_{\Delta tijk}$ ) from each participant in each cell of the design (i.e., at the ith level of task, jth level of sensory modality and kth level of adaptation) and each response-stimulus asynchrony ( $\Delta t$ ):

242 (1) 
$$Y_{\Delta tijk} \sim B(N_{\Delta t}, l + p_{\Delta tijk} - 2lp_{\Delta tijk}),$$

243 Where there are  $N_{\Delta t}$  trials at each RSA (per condition), *l* is a free parameter representing (half) the lapse rate with which a 244 participant is distracted and therefore guesses a response (assumed identical across all conditions) and

245 (2) 
$$p_{\Delta tijk} = \Phi \left[ \frac{\Delta t - \tau_{ijk} - \Delta \delta_{ijk}/2}{\sigma_{\text{Lijk}}} \right] - \Phi \left[ \frac{\Delta t - \tau_{ijk} + \Delta \delta_{ijk}/2}{\exp(m_{ijk})\sigma_{\text{Lijk}}} \right].$$

- 246 In Equation 2, exp is the exponential function and  $\Phi$  is the standard normal cumulative distribution function. The remaining 247 four symbols ( $\tau_{ijk}$ ,  $\Delta \delta_{ijk}$ ,  $\sigma_{Lijk}$ , and  $m_{ijk}$ ) are terms constructed from a set of free parameters as described next:
- 248  $(3) \tau_{ijk} = \bar{\tau} + t_i \beta_{\tau t} + s_j \beta_{\tau s} + a_k \beta_{\tau a} + t_i s_j \beta_{\tau t s} + t_i a_k \beta_{\tau t a} + s_j a_k \beta_{\tau s a} + t_i s_j a_k \beta_{\tau t s a}$
- 249 (4)  $\Delta \delta_{ijk} = \overline{\Delta \delta} \exp(t_i \beta_{\delta t} + s_j \beta_{\delta s} + a_k \beta_{\delta a} + t_i s_j \beta_{\delta ts} + t_i a_k \beta_{\delta ta} + s_j a_k \beta_{\delta sa} + t_i s_j a_k \beta_{\delta tsa})$
- 250 (5)  $\sigma_{\text{Lijk}} = \overline{\sigma_{\text{L}}} \exp(t_i \beta_{\sigma \text{t}} + s_j \beta_{\sigma \text{s}} + a_k \beta_{\sigma \text{a}} + t_i s_j \beta_{\sigma \text{ts}} + t_i a_k \beta_{\sigma \text{ta}} + s_j a_k \beta_{\sigma \text{sa}} + t_i s_j a_k \beta_{\sigma \text{tsa}})$ 251
  - (6)  $m_{ijk} = \overline{m} + t_i \beta_{mt} + s_j \beta_{ms} + a_k \beta_{ma} + t_i s_j \beta_{mts} + t_i a_k \beta_{mta} + s_j a_k \beta_{msa} + t_i s_j a_k \beta_{mtsa}$

252 In Equations 3-6, bar notation (e.g.  $\bar{\tau}$ ) is used to describe grand mean parameters (across conditions), t<sub>i</sub> is the effects-coded 253 value for the ith level of task (and is thus substituted with  $\pm 0.5$  depending on the task), s<sub>i</sub> is the effects-coded value for the 254 jth level of sensory modality,  $a_k$  is the effects-coded value for the kth level of adaptation, and the seven  $\beta$  coefficients 255 256 describe, depending on their subscripts, main effects for task, sensory modality, adaptation, and their two-way (ts, ta, sa) and three-way (tsa) interactions. That makes 33 free parameters for each of 48 participants; a total of 1584 for the group as 257 a whole.

258 In this model, the individual  $\tau$  and  $\Delta\delta$  parameters capture the midpoint and width (respectively) of each participant's 259 psychometric function. They provide an alternative (and mathematically equivalent) way of describing the positions of two 260 decision criteria (because  $\Delta\delta$  is the distance between these criteria, which are centered on  $\tau$ ). The  $\sigma_{\rm L}$  and m parameters 261 describe noise affecting the left flank of the psychometric function, and the noisiness of the right flank relative to the left 262 flank (m of 0 indicating an identical magnitude of noise), respectively.  $\beta$  coefficients describe changes in these parameters 263 across conditions. The multilevel model additionally estimated random variation across the group via group-level 264 distributions from which the individual-level parameters were drawn. This required a further 65 parameters. For example, 265 we estimated, for the Gaussian group-level distribution of individual  $\bar{\tau}$  parameters, a group mean ( $\mu_{\tau}$ ) and standard deviation 266  $(\sigma_{\tau})$ . Similarly, for the group-level distribution of the main effect of task upon  $\tau$  ( $\beta_{\tau t}$ ), we estimated a further group mean 267  $(\mu_{\tau t})$  and standard deviation  $(\sigma_{\tau t})$ . In all, there were 1649 parameters, fitted using 6617 binomial data points.

268 We evaluated the fit of individual participants in a manner akin to calculating a Bayesian P value [64] representing the 269 proportion of posterior samples for which the likelihood of each participant's actual data was lower than that for a random 270 binomial draw conditioned on model parameters. However, we used the MLE fit in place of posterior samples, forming a 271 null distribution via 1000 random draws. If the model is correct for an individual, the resulting overdispersion value should 272 be around 0.5, with higher values indicating overdispersion and therefore a potentially incomplete or erroneous model. The 273 data and analysis scripts are available at https://osf.io/hy7k8/.

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## 4. Results

#### 276 4.1 A simple decision process could be used to classify response-stimulus asynchronies

277 We derived summary measures of behaviour for both simultaneity and agency judgments by fitting a Bayesian multilevel 278 implementation of an established observer model of the simultaneity-judgement task [63,65]. The model assumes that 279 observers have access to a noisy impression of the asynchrony on each trial (the subjective asynchrony) which they classify 280 using decision criteria (which are also noisy) to form a binary response. Figure 2 shows the mean raw data from the entire 281 group in all eight conditions, along with the (equivalently averaged) psychometric function predicted by the model (separate 282 individual data and predictions for each participant can be found in supplemental Figure S1). Data points lie close to model 283 predictions, indicating a good fit. This observation is supported by considering the magnitude of residual errors relative to 284 what should be expected if data are binomially distributed around model predictions. We quantified this by comparison 285 with the simulated null distribution, with values exceeding 0.95 (indicating significant overdispersion) observed for only 286 1/48 participants. Given that models are always approximations of reality, this is a fairly stringent test for the adequacy of 287 model fit. The distribution of overdispersion values (mean 0.24, sd 0.27) is shown in supplemental Figure S2. 288



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Figure 2. Group-average raw data and model fit. Size of open symbols indicates the average number of trials included in
 the analysis per participant. Opacity of open symbols indicates the number of participants contributing to a data point.
 Each plot contrasts baseline (black circles) with lag-adapted conditions (blue squares). Filled symbols above plots
 illustrate how model parameters describe the midpoint and extent of the psychometric function. (a) Synchrony judgments
 with visual test stimuli. (b) Synchrony judgments with auditory test stimuli, testing transfer of timing recalibration. (c)
 Agency judgments with visual test stimuli. (d) Agency judgments with auditory test stimuli, testing transfer of perceived
 agency recalibration.

## 299 4.2. Recalibration and transfer of recalibration occur, but to different extents

300 It is common to report points of subjective simultaneity (or perceived agency) derived from the central tendency of the 301 relevant psychometric function as the primary measure of temporal recalibration. Our multilevel model captured 302 psychometric central tendency for each individual via a parameter termed  $\tau$ . Formally, this indicates the midpoint between 303 two decision criteria, which together define the region of subjectively perceived asynchrony that gets translated into the 304 categorical response "yes". To model changes across conditions,  $\tau$  was combined with a set of modifying parameters ( $\beta_{\tau}$ 305 coefficients) to generate a separate estimate in each cell of the design. Variation across the group was also modelled, i.e., 306 the model is similar to a generalized linear mixed model, with both fixed and random effects and the use of effects coding 307 for all factors, but predicts a bespoke psychometric function appropriate for the current tasks. The resulting estimates for 308 group-mean central tendency in different conditions are shown above each panel from Figure 2 as the middle one out of 309 three filled symbols. A further model parameter ( $\Delta\delta$ ) describes the width of the psychometric function (formally, the 310 distance between the aforementioned decision criteria). It is represented in Figure 2 by the length of the line connecting the 311 outer two filled symbols above each plot.

Estimates of  $\tau$  for each cell of the design were assessed via a permutation approach, conceptually similar to a 2x2x2 repeated-measures ANOVA. On average (across the two different tasks and two different modalities of test stimuli) the psychometric function shifted rightwards in lag 150 conditions relative to lag 0 conditions (main effect of adaptation of 34 ms, Cohen's d = 1.07, p <= 0.001). This indicates that our participants experienced temporal recalibration. Furthermore, on average (across the two different tasks and two different lags) the psychometric function was centered at more positive values when the test stimulus was auditory rather than visual (main effect of test 51 ms, d = 1.04, p <= 0.001). This indicates that sounds had to lag actions more than lights in order to be perceived as synchronous with, or caused by, those actions,

319 perhaps because propagation latencies are longer for visual compared to auditory stimuli. An average difference was also

marginally evident between simultaneity and agency judgments, with more positive (i.e., test-lagging) estimates of central tendency for agency judgements (main effect of task 11 ms, d = 0.30, p = 0.061). This suggests that a slight addition to the large delay between action and outcome that maximized "yes" responses (see next paragraph) was preferred to infer SoA,

relative to judgments about simultaneity. However, these average differences were tempered by statistically significant

interactions between experimental factors, which are illustrated in Figure 3.





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328 Figure 3. Effects of lag adaptation on summary measures for psychometric-function central tendency and width. (a) 329 Parameter  $\bar{\tau}$ , which describes the average central tendency of the psychometric function across all experimental conditions. 330 Values of  $\mu_{\tau}$  and  $\sigma_{\tau}$  predict variation in  $\tau$  across the population (hourglass plot, left lobe). Within the hourglass plot, 331 individual estimates of  $\bar{\tau}$  are shown as black circles. Their mean appears as a solid horizontal line, and a kernel-density 332 estimate of their distribution completes the hourglass plot as the right-hand lobe. (b) Group-level parameters  $\mu_{\delta}$  and  $\sigma_{\delta}$ 333 which describe the (lognormal) distribution of the participant-level parameter  $\overline{\Delta\delta}$ . This in turn describes the average width 334 of the psychometric function across all experimental conditions. Format otherwise as per part a. (c) Differences in 335 psychometric function central tendency ( $\tau$ ) between lag 150 and lag 0 conditions (i.e., recalibration effects) plotted 336 separately for each combination of task with each test-stimulus modality. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals on 337 these differences. (d) Adaptation-induced differences in psychometric function width ( $\Delta\delta$ ). Format otherwise as per part c. 338

The upper panels of Figure 3 provide a sense of individual variation in the central tendency  $(\tau)$  and width  $(\Delta\delta)$  of the psychometric function. They also illustrate how this variation was modelled by estimating the parameters of appropriate group-level distributions (e.g.,  $\mu_{\tau}$  and  $\sigma_{\tau}$  for the distribution of  $\bar{\tau}$ ). Panel a illustrates that psychometric-function central tendency averaged across all conditions  $(\bar{\tau})$  had a mean of 150 ms. This implies that in general, test stimuli that followed the button press were most likely to be judged simultaneous with, or caused by, the action. Delayed awareness for actions is not uncommon when using category matching tasks with yes/no response options, such as the simultaneity judgement task [44,49] and is also observed in synchronization tapping tasks [46,66].

346 More importantly for current purposes, the lower panels of Figure 3 show the effects of lag adaptation in different 347 conditions, again focusing on the central tendency ( $\tau$ , panel c) and width ( $\Delta\delta$ , panel d) of the psychometric function. For 348 central tendency (Figure 3c), recalibration was significant for most combinations of task and test stimulus (pairwise 349 contrasts: Visual synchrony, d = 0.86, p <= 0.001; auditory synchrony, d = 0.15, p = 0.391; visual agency, d = 0.73, p <= 350 0.001; auditory agency, d = 0.38, p = 0.015). This result addresses one of our core aims, which was to determine for the 351 first time whether recalibration would show any cross-modal transfer when measured using agency judgments - it does. 352 However, recalibration was greater (on average) with visual test stimuli (left-hand bars) than for auditory transfer stimuli 353 (right-hand bars; two-way interaction, d = 0.52, p = 0.002), so transfer was incomplete. Hence, overall, changes in the 354 central tendency of the psychometric function imply the presence and partial transfer of recalibration, to a reliable extent

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- for SoA (and also reliably on average across both tasks; simple main effect d = 0.38, p = 0.017). All other interactions were not significant for central tendency ( $\tau$ ).
- 357 The pattern was different for the width of the psychometric function, which had a group-mean average across all conditions 358 of 311 ms (Figure 3b; interquartile range 124 ms) suggesting that participants translated a fairly broad range of subjectively 359 experienced asynchronies into "yes" responses. As illustrated in Figure 3d, lag adaptation affected the width of the 360 psychometric function marginally differently depending on the task (two-way interaction d = 0.25, p = 0.053). There was 361 a non-significant reduction for the SJ task (orange bars; simple main effect -20 ms, d = 0.22, p = 0.094) switching to a non-362 significant increase when SoA was being assessed (purple bars; +13 ms, d = 0.11, p = 0.297). Auditory tests yielded 363 generally wider windows compared to visual ones (main effect of test +36 ms, d = 0.40, p <= 0.001). Further main effects 364 and interactions were not significant.

365 Because our model-fitting procedure revealed evidence for a challenging posterior likelihood surface, we explored how 366 sensitive our findings were to a possible local (as opposed to global) maximum likelihood fit, and present this analysis in 367 the Supplementary Materials (Validation of approach to parameter recovery). This analysis suggests that the adaptation 368 effects we can be most confident about are the main effect of adaptation on central tendency  $(\tau)$ , extending to three of four 369 combinations of task and sensory modality, and the interaction of adaptation with sensory modality (Figure 3c). These are 370 also the most critical effects for testing our hypotheses. We therefore focus our discussion on these effects. Slopes of the 371 left and right flanks of the psychometric functions, which are not typically presented as dependent variables in studies of 372 recalibration, are also presented in the Supplementary Materials (Additional analyses). 373

## 5. Discussion

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375 We investigated possible differences in the sensorimotor temporal recalibration of time and perceived agency. We assumed 376 that temporal recalibration of perceived agency results from one or a combination of two mechanisms. The first relies on a 377 comparator process that compares the predicted sensory feedback of the action with the actual feedback. The second is 378 driven by a supramodal mechanism in which recalibration of perceived agency occurs for action-feedback events 379 independent of the sensory feedback's identity, i.e., an action's learned sensory effect, as long as causality can be 380 established. Here, we asked to what extent prediction of action-feedback identity plays a role in the recalibration of 381 perceived agency. To this end, participants performed button presses that led to the occurrence of a Gabor patch, either 382 immediately after the button press or following a 150 ms lag, inducing adaptation. After the adaptation phase, we presented 383 button press-Gabor patch pairs with variable RSAs and asked participants to judge either the synchrony of the two events 384 or the SoA, or more precisely, authorship over the occurrence of the Gabor patch via the button press. Importantly, we 385 examined whether this recalibration would transfer to another sense by replacing visual stimuli with auditory tones on test 386 trials in a separate block. Overall, we found recalibration of synchrony as well as perceived agency when a systematic lag 387 was introduced between the action-feedback pair, and transfer of this recalibration from vision to audition for agency 388 judgments. However, adaptation delay interacted with the sensory feedback modality at test, suggesting transfer was 389 incomplete. We discuss the findings in detail below.

390 Considering adaptation effects within the visual modality, we observed a shift in the central tendency for synchrony 391 judgments with adaptation delay, indicating recalibration of perceived synchrony towards more stimulus-lagging RSIs 392 under systematic exposure to a lag (which appears as a rightward shift in our figures). Under our model, central tendency 393 represents the midpoint between two decision criteria for 'synchronous' responses, the first when action follows and the 394 second when action leads the sensory feedback. This kind of dependent variable is accepted as a primary measure of 395 temporal recalibration [67]. A similar pattern was observed for agency judgments in which the central tendency of the 396 perceived agency curve shifted towards the right, consistent with the adaptation delay. These results indicate recalibration 397 of synchrony as well as SoA in the presence of systematic action-feedback delays, and are in line with previous work on 398 temporal recalibration of action-feedback events [3,4,6,45–47] and SoA [43].

399 Our findings also demonstrate transfer of recalibration from vision to audition for agency judgments. Crossmodal 400 recalibration of synchrony between action-feedback pairs has been shown [4,6,45–47,49]. These studies also indicate 401 weaker crossmodal recalibration compared to recalibration within the same sensory modality, and therefore, potentially 402 smaller effect sizes for this effect. For this reason, we recruited a larger number of participants than has been previously 403 implemented, aiming for better estimates for crossmodal transfer effects. Despite a trend towards partial transfer, we did 404 not find evidence for crossmodal transfer of synchrony in a sample size larger than those used in previous studies [6,45,47]. 405 Importantly, we showed for the first time that recalibration of perceived agency can also transfer across senses. In order to 406 determine whether SoA is inferred either as a result of a supramodal clock that recalibrates agency judgments based on 407 timing or via action-feedback identity derived from a comparator process, we asked which of these mechanisms contributes 408 to perceived agency recalibration. For this, we specifically looked for crossmodal transfer of recalibration for judgments of 409 agency. Transfer of perceived agency recalibration from vision to audition supports the former mechanism, namely the 410 supramodal clock in accordance with the causal relationship between actions and their sensory feedback reflected in their 411 temporal order. The transfer effect also speaks in favour of multisensory integration of related signals originating from a 412 common cause [19]. Our results point to the role of a generalized temporal clock rather than exact sensory feedback-identity in inferring and adapting SoA. They are therefore in line with previous work emphasizing causality, potentially via 413 414 multisensory cue integration processes, as the mechanism driving perceived agency [19,42,52]. Our findings highlight the 415 role of temporal order on recalibration of agency and support the existence of a supramodal clock that is independent of 416 sensory feedback modality. Similar to subjective timing of action-feedback events, recalibration of perceived agency can 417 help to compensate sensorimotor delays and/or integrate multisensory inputs arising from one's own action.

418 Despite a somewhat similar adaptation profile for synchrony and agency judgments, we found a significant shift in central 419 tendency with adaptation delay in the auditory modality only for agency. This might indicate higher flexibility in adapting 420 perceived control over the events associated with one's own action than merely their timing. Alternatively, perceived 421 control may boost the temporal integration of action-feedback events. Either way, this result is in line with previous work 422 highlighting the importance of SoA over learned action-feedback associations [13,42]. A general mechanism that transfers 423 across modalities might have functional advantages over more specific forms of adaptation if the perturbations that require 424 compensation tend to effect multiple types of actions and their associated sensations. One example of such a perturbation 425 would be bodily growth. On the other hand, sensory feedback modality can still play a role in recalibrating SoA, similar to 426 temporal recalibration of action-feedback events and its transfer [46-48]. For example, Arikan et al. [47] showed 427 crossmodal transfer from motor-visual to motor-auditory temporal recalibration, but not the other way around. They explain 428 these findings by pointing to the dominant role of audition in temporal recalibration as well as the intrinsic connection 429 between motor-auditory processing in judging time [68–71]. Although we failed to replicate transfer of synchrony in our 430 study, one open question is whether agency judgments in the temporal domain exists for motor-visual events (transfer from 431 vision to audition), and not for motor-auditory events (transfer from audition to vision). Future studies should therefore 432 investigate whether sensory feedback modality influences recalibration of perceived agency.

433 Our study has some limitations. For example, we fitted all of our data with a model of the synchrony-judgment task, which 434 somewhat presupposes that agency is inferred in broadly the same way as synchrony. Clearly, a model based on categorizing 435 the perceived timing between events does not model all potential inputs into a decision about perceived agency. Indeed, we 436 rejected SoA data from a single participant who almost never reported a SoA (while often reporting a sensation of 437 synchrony) so was likely influenced by a non-temporal cue or belief. The mechanisms involved in both synchrony and SoA 438 decisions are doubtless more complex than our simple model has assumed. However, while the exact model parameters we 439 estimated (and their meaning in underlying cognitive terms) are debatable, we suspect that different approaches used to 440 summarize our data would have given rise to a substantially identical interpretation, i.e., that recalibration occurred for SJs 441 and SoA and transferred to button press-auditory feedback conditions, at least for SoA.

442 A second limitation concerns the potential involvement of auditory imagery in judging synchrony and SoA. In our study, 443 both adaptation and test phases involved pressing the button at a certain rate which was established with a metronome prior 444 to the experimental blocks. In this sense, our experimental paradigm resembles tapping paradigms in which the action of 445 tapping is synchronized with a metronome, although our task did not require finger flexion/extension and the auditory 446 feedback from the button press was masked by the white noise [70]. Still, the participants may have been encouraged to 447 use some form of auditory imagery throughout the experiment. This could induce neural entrainment to the imagined 448 sequence, modulating attention and affecting the judgments in turn [72,73]. We have no reason to assume that any such 449 auditory imagery can account for differences across conditions as it was present in both baseline and lagged blocks. 450 Nevertheless, the role of auditory imagery on time perception cannot be entirely discounted. One way to eliminate auditory 451 imagery is to utilize experimental paradigms that do not require rhythmic movements such as rapid recalibration paradigms 452 in which recalibration is induced on a trial-by-trial basis without a dedicated adaptation phase [74]. Rapid recalibration 453 paradigms can also address whether adaptation is modulated by previous exposure, i.e., temporal distance between actions 454 and feedback in previous trials, and whether its transfer takes places rather automatically for synchrony and agency 455 judgments.

456 Some studies have suggested a crucial role for comparator processes in establishing SoA [27-29], whereas others have 457 indicated a complex interplay between sensorimotor and cognitive mechanisms giving rise to perceived agency [52,75,76]. 458 A well-known account by Synofzik et al. [25] proposes two distinct levels of SoA: a lower, pre-reflective level highlighted 459 by an implicit sense of being in control (feeling of agency), and a higher, belief-like level underlined by an explicit sense 460 of being in control (judgment of agency). Judgments of agency are found to be less sensitive to action-feedback mismatches, 461 and are thought to rely on a combination of sensorimotor cues and cognitive processes such as prior beliefs and postdictive 462 inferences [75,77,78]. On the other hand, feeling of agency may be less susceptible to learned action-feedback relations, 463 and can rely more on higher-order processes [13,42]. Nevertheless, it should be kept in mind that we measured explicit 464 SoA. Thus, our findings can provide evidence for explicit agency judgments contributing to the recalibration of perceived 465 agency. Future studies should investigate the exact contribution of the comparator process and the supramodal clock on 466 recalibration of both implicit and explicit SoA.

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# 6. Conclusion

In summary, this study has provided a large-sample replication of sensorimotor temporal recalibration of perceived synchrony, but not of its crossmodal transfer from vision to audition. Moreover, we additionally replicated temporal recalibration of the SoA, and demonstrated for the first time partial crossmodal transfer. This novel result implies that recalibration of perceived agency is derived from a supramodal clock that that adapts the perceived action-event temporal order, rather than the match between the sensory feedback and the predictions of a modality specific and temporally tuned forward model.

## 476 Ethical Statement

477 Ethical approval was obtained from the local ethics committee (Lokale Ethik-Kommission des Fachbereichs 06; LEK-FB06) and the
 478 study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki except for preregistration. Informed consent was obtained from all
 479 participants prior to participation.

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### 485 Data Accessibility

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486 The data and analysis scripts are available at <u>https://osf.io/hy7k8/</u>.

487 Additional analyses supporting this article have been uploaded as part of the Supplementary Material. 488

#### 489 **Competing Interests** 490 The authors have no

The authors have no competing interests.

## 492 Authors' Contributions

BEA: Conceptualization, methodology, investigation, software, data curation, formal analysis, visualization, writing—original draft, reviewing and editing. KY: Formal analysis, software, visualization, writing—reviewing and editing, supervision. KF:
 Conceptualization, methodology, writing—reviewing and editing, funding acquisition, supervision, project administration.

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