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Structural connectivity and functional properties of the macaque superior parietal lobule

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Title: Structural connectivity and functional properties of the macaque superior parietal lobule

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Abstract

Despite the consolidated belief that the macaque superior parietal lobule (SPL) is **entirely** occupied by Brodmann's area 5, recent data show that macaque SPL also hosts a large cortical region with structural and functional features **similar to that** of Brodmann's area 7. According to these data, the anterior part of SPL **is occupied by a somatosensory-dominated cortical region that** hosts three architectural and functional distinct regions (PE, PEci, PEip), **and the caudal half of SPL by a bimodal somato-visual region** that hosts four areas: PEc, MIP, PGm, V6A.

To date, the most studied areas **of SPL** are PE, PEc, and V6A. PE is essentially a high-order somatomotor area, while PEc and V6A are bimodal somatomotor-visuomotor areas, the former with predominant somatosensory input, the latter with predominant visual input. The functional properties of these areas and their anatomical connectivity strongly suggest their involvement in the control of limb movements. PE is suggested to be involved in the preparation/execution of limb movements, in particular the movements of the upper limb; PEc in the control of movements of both upper and lower limbs, as well as in their interaction with the visual environment; V6A in the control of reach-to-grasp movements performed with the upper limb.

In humans, SPL is traditionally considered to have a different organization with respect to macaques. Here, we review several lines of evidence suggesting that this is not the case, showing a similar structure for human and non-human primate SPLs.

Introduction

The parietal **lobe of the Old World monkeys** can be **subdivided into** anterior and posterior **parts**. The anterior part occupies the postcentral cortex (yellow region in Fig. 1A), where the somatosensory Brodmann's areas 3, 1, 2 are located (Brodmann 1909). The posterior **part (posterior** parietal cortex; PPC) **can** in turn **be subdivided** into superior (SPL; green region in Fig. 1A) and inferior (IPL; red region in Fig. 1A) parietal lobules, separated by the intraparietal sulcus. According to Brodmann (1909), the SPL is almost entirely occupied by area 5 (**see blue region in the close-up of Fig. 1A**), while area 7 occupies only a restricted **cortical** region in its caudalmost part (see **orange region in the** close-up **of Fig. 1A**). **Starting from Vogt and Vogt (1919), most** studies in the last century claimed that **although the architectural pattern changed moving rostro-caudally, the SPL** was entirely occupied by area 5 (Fig. 1B). In agreement with this view Pandya and Seltzer (1982), using the nomenclature previously proposed in humans by von Economo and Koskinas (1925), proposed the subdivision of macaque SPL in an area named PE, anteriorly, and another one named PEc, where 'c' stands for 'caudal', posteriorly (Fig. 1C), both described as **variants** of Brodmann's area 5. Other **variants** of area 5 adjoining PE laterally and medially were named by Pandya and Seltzer (1982) with the same prefix (areas PEa, PEci; Fig. 1C) to indicate a common structural organization. **The** thin stripe of area 7 that delimited the caudal **part** of area 5 in the original Brodmann's **description (orange region in the close-up of Fig. 1A)** was not reported by Pandya and Seltzer.

Fig. 1 near here

Nowadays, it is evident that the SPL hosts a large number of cytoarchitectonic areas distributed along the exposed surface of SPL, the intraparietal and parieto-occipital sulci, and the precuneate cortex in the mesial surface of the hemisphere (see Fig. 2A). Moving in antero-posterior fashion across SPL, areas PE, PEip, PEci are located anteriorly and PEc, MIP, PGm, V6A posteriorly. The caudalmost part of SPL hosts, in the fundus of parieto-occipital sulcus, area V6. However, since V6 shows an occipital cytoarchitectural pattern (Fig. 2B; see details below), it is not considered as part of the parietal lobe, hence of SPL.

The presence in SPL of different cytoarchitectonic areas with different functional properties suggests that they have

somewhat different functional roles. In the following sections we review the **anatomical** subdivisions of macaque SPL, together with **their cortical** connections and functional properties to **examine** their possible functional roles. **Finally**, we present a brief comparison with the human SPL.

Structural subdivision of macaque SPL

As mentioned above, the macaque SPL is composed of a mosaic of areas (Fig. 2A) with different architecture, functional properties, and patterns of anatomical connections. The anterior bank of the parieto-occipital sulcus, which is the caudalmost part of the SPL, hosts two areas, V6 ventrally and V6A dorsally (Galletti et al. 1996, 1999a, b, 2005). Area V6 shows a clear occipital cytoarchitectural pattern, as shown in Fig. 2B (Luppino et al. 2005), with a homogeneous layer III, a compact layer IV, a light layer V, and a clear subdivision of layer VI into two sublayers. **Differently**, area V6A shows a typical partier with well developed layers III and V, a large, but relatively dense, layer IV, and a layer VI with a poorly evident subdivision into sublayers. Although Brodmann (1909) did not examine the cytoarchitectural pattern of the cortex buried in the parieto-occipital sulcus, the parietal pattern of V6A strongly suggests that it represents an extension of Brodmann's area 7, that from the exposed cortical surface of SPL (the thin stripe of area 7 originally reported by Brodmann; see close-up in Fig. 1A) extends into the dorsal two third of the anterior wall of the parieto-occipital sulcus. Since according to Brodmann (1909) the parietal area 7 abuts posteriorly the occipital area 19 (see Fig. 1A), it is logical to assume that area V6, which abuts posteriorly area V6A (Fig. 2A) and shows a clear occipital pattern (Fig. 2B; Luppino et al. 2005), is part of the Brodmann's area 19. The mesial surface of the hemisphere at the level of SPL (the precuneate cortex) hosts the mesial sectors of areas V6A and PEc, as well as areas PGm and 31 (Fig. 2A; Pandya and Seltzer 1982; Cavada and Goldman-Rakic 1989; Morecraft et al. 2004; Passarelli et al. 2018). Anterior to the precuneate cortex, area PEci occupies the fundus of the caudal tip of the cingulate sulcus, while the mesial extension of area PE occupies the cortical region above and anterior to it (Fig. 2A; Pandya and Seltzer 1982; Morecraft et al. 2004). Notice that PGm shows a cytoarchitectural pattern similar to Brodmann's area 7, and in line with this Pandya and Seltzer (1982) maintained for this area the prefix 'PG' that they used for area 7 in IPL, and other authors called this region area '7m', where 'm' stands for medial (Cavada and Goldman-Rakic 1989). Area PEci, instead, shows a cytoarchitectural pattern similar to that of Brodmann's area 5 (Pandya and Seltzer 1982), and area 31 a pattern intermediate between those of PGm and 23c (Morecraft et al. 2004).

Fig. 2 near here

In the lateral part of SPL, the medial wall of intraparietal sulcus is occupied by two areas, PEip rostrally and MIP caudally (Fig. 2A; Colby et al. 1988; Colby and Duhamel 1991; Matelli et al. 1998; Lewis and Van Essen 2000b, a). PEip occupies a cortical region similar to that originally described by Pandya and Seltzer (1982) as area PEa (compare Fig. 2A with Fig. 1C). Since PEa is cytoarchitecturally similar to Brodmann's area 5 (Pandya and Seltzer, 1982) we suggest that PEip could be part of area 5. Area MIP was originally defined on the basis of myeloarchitecture and cortical connections (Colby et al. 1988), whereas it's cytoarchitectonic pattern has not been studied yet. Interestingly, myeloarchitectonic studies showed that area MIP, like V6A, presents two clearly distinct bands of Baillarger, whereas in PEip the bands of Baillarger are barely visible (Fig. 2C; Bakola et al. 2017). In short, MIP, like V6A, seems to be part of Brodmann's area 7.

On the cortical convexity of SPL, two areas have been described: PE rostrally and PEc caudally (Fig. 2A; Pandya and Seltzer 1982). Both extend for several millimeters into the mesial surface of the hemisphere medially, and the medial wall of the intraparietal sulcus laterally. Both areas show a parietal cytoarchitectural pattern that Pandya and Seltzer (1982) described as **variants** of area 5. However, Luppino et al. (2005) **reported** that the cytoarchitecture of PEc **was**

well developed layers III and V, a bi-laminated layer IV and a layer VI with a relatively blurred border against the white matter. A very recent study supports this view reporting that also the chemoarchitecture of area PEc is more similar to that of area 7 than that of area 5 (Impieri et al. 2019). On the other hand, it is worthwhile to remind that the caudalmost part of SPL dorsal convexity was originally reported as area 7 by Brodmann himself (see orange region in close-up of Fig. 1A; Brodmann 1909). Overall, these data suggest that PEc is indeed part of area 7, instead of area 5 as previously suggested by Pandya and Seltzer (1982).

The above reviewed data support the view that area 7 is wider than originally reported by Brodmann, encompassing a large part of the anterior wall of parieto-occipital sulcus (area V6A), the caudal half of the dorsal surface of SPL (area PEc), area PGm in the precuneate cortex, and the caudal half of the medial wall of the intraparietal sulcus (area MIP). Notice that all these areas are bimodal in nature, being activated by both visual and somatosensory stimulations, a property that is typical of Brodmann's area 7, but not of area 5 (see below for details).

Cortical connections of macaque SPL

Each area of SPL is connected to a set of parietal and premotor areas involved in specific functional roles. Fig. 3 illustrates the cortical connections of the five SPL areas studied by our laboratory, namely PE, PEc, V6A, PGm, MIP. The cortical connections of the other areas of the SPL, taken from literature, will be described only in the text. The major cortical afferents of PE (Fig. 3A; Bakola et al. 2013) are the primary somatosensory and motor cortices, in particular Brodmann's areas 2 and 4 (or F1, according to Matelli and coworkers nomenclature; Matelli et al. 1991). As shown in detail in Fig. 4, PE receives inputs from motor and premotor cortical regions representing upper and lower limbs, particularly from the region of the primary motor area F1 that represents the arm (compare labelling distribution in Fig. 4C with the leg and arm representations in F1 and F2 as shown in Fig. 4D). PE also receives somatosensory/somatomotor inputs from parietal (areas PEc, PEci, MIP, PEip, PGop, PFop, Ri) and cingulate (areas 23, 24) cortices, and premotor inputs from the supplementary motor area (SMA according to Penfield and Welch 1951 or F3 according to Matelli et al. 1991). Area PEc (Fig. 3B; Bakola et al. 2010) shares several cortical connections with PE, but also shows important differences. Regarding somatosensory and motor inputs, PEc receives a weak input from area 2 (but not at all from area 3) and a very week input from F1. PEc also receives a strong input from premotor area F2 and very week input from F3, which is the opposite with respect to PE. Also, PEc receives afferents from somatosensoryrelated areas of parietal (areas PE, MIP, PG, PGop) and mesial (areas PEci, 23, 24, 31) cortices that are quite different from those of area PE. Finally, PEc receives an input from the visuomotor area V6A which is not connected with PE. Interestingly, while both PE and PEc receive motor signals related to limb movements, PEc is more strongly connected with the sectors of motor and premotor cortex representing the lower limb than with those representing the upper limb, as shown in Fig. 4 (compare labelling distribution in Fig. 4C with leg and arm representations in F1 and F2 as shown in Fig. 4D). The overrepresentation of lower limb input to PEc is not the result of a bias in injection site as the whole extent of the area was injected (Fig. 4A). It is also worthwhile to notice that PE receives only somatic information while PEc receives both somatic and visual information (from V6A), in agreement with the somatic and bimodal nature, respectively, of the two areas, and with the functional roles suggested for these two areas by the properties of their neurons (see below).

Fig. 3 near here

Fig. 4 near here

The caudalmost part of SPL is occupied by the visuomotor area V6A (Fig. 2A). V6A is a relatively wide parietal area that extends medially into the mesial surface of the hemisphere, where it abuts area PGm, and laterally into the most lateral end of parieto-occipital sulcus, where it abuts area MIP at the limit of the caudalmost part of intraparietal sulcus (Fig. 2A). Area V6A (Fig. 3C; Gamberini et al. 2009; Passarelli et al. 2011) (see also Shipp et al. 1998; Matelli et al. 1998) shows reciprocal connections with the dorsal premotor areas F2 and F7, as well as with several visual and parietal visuomotor areas. V6A receives visual information from the extrastriate areas of the occipital lobe (V2, V3, V4, MST, V6) and from the visual and visuomotor areas of posterior parietal cortex (including AIP and LIP), and could receive somatosensory and somatomotor inputs from PEc and MIP (Bakola et al. 2010, 2017). While both V6A and PEc receive projections from premotor area F2, the rest of their connections shows a clear complementary pattern: PEc is mainly connected with somatically-dominated cortical areas, whereas V6A is mainly connected with visuallydominated areas (see Fig. 3B, C). Finally, in agreement with the reaching/grasping activity and the primarily upperlimb representation in V6A (see below), this area is strongly connected with the sectors of premotor area F2 representing the upper limb, but not with those representing the lower limb (compare labelling distribution in Fig. 4C with leg and arm representations in F2 as shown in Fig. 4D). Area PGm, located on the mesial surface of the hemisphere (Fig. 2A), shows a pattern of cortical connections similar to that of V6A, with which it is reciprocally connected, but with some quantitative and qualitative differences (Fig. 3D; Passarelli et al. 2018) (see also Morecraft et al. 2004). In fact, PGm receives afferents from the lateral intraparietal cortex (area LIP) and inferior parietal lobule (areas Opt and PG) that are similar to those of V6A, whereas the visual input from the extrastriate areas to PGm is much weaker. The major difference between the two areas regards the connections of PGm with the visual areas of the ventral part of the precuneus (VIS, RSC), the cingulate cortex (area 23), and the prefrontal cortex (PFC, that includes the 'frontal eye fields'), which are absent in V6A. Besides PGm, the mesial surface of SPL also hosts areas PEci and 31 (Fig. 2A). According to Pandya and Seltzer (1982) and Morecraft et al. (2004), area PEci (also called SSA - supplementary somatosensory area - by Murray and Coulter 1981a) is connected with the supplementary motor area F3, cingulate areas 23 and 24, the transitional sensory area, the medial portion of the primary motor (F1) and of somatosensory (areas 3, 1, 2) cortex, and with superior parietal areas PE, PEc, 31 and PGm. On the lateral surface of the brain, PEci is directly connected with SII, insula, areas PGop, PG and MST. Finally, the frontal lobe connections of PEci, besides with the medial part of F1, are with the premotor cortices F2 and F7. Interestingly, PEci shares many connections with PE, but not with PEc. Like PE, PEci is strongly connected with motor and premotor cortical regions and does not receive visual inputs, whereas PEc receives somatomotor and visual inputs, as reported above. PEci and PE are directly connected with the spinal cord, while PEc does not (Murray and Coulter 1981b). These sets of connections are in line with the view that PEci could be part of Brodmann's area 5, whereas areas PEc, V6A and PGm could be classified as sectors of Brodmann's area 7. Area 31, located anterior to PGm on the mesial surface of the brain (Fig. 2A), is strongly connected with premotor (F2) and parietal sensorimotor (V6A, PEci, PE) areas, and with cingulate cortex (areas 23 and 24). The connections of area 31 are quite similar to those of PGm, but the analysis of the laminar patterns of these connections suggests that area PGm represents a higher level of processing in comparison with area 31 (see Passarelli et al. 2018). As far as the SPL areas buried within the intraparietal sulcus are concerned, area PEip is located in the anterior part of the medial wall of intraparietal sulcus (Fig. 2A) and was identified on the basis of cortico-spinal projections (Matelli et al. 1998). **PEip** is target of motor and premotor areas, including the PMd, PMv, the mesial motor areas like SMA, CMAd and CMAv (Matelli et al. 1998; Riehle and Vaadia 2004), and of parietal areas PE, MIP, and VIP (Bakola et al. 2013, 2017). Area MIP, located posterior to PEip in the caudal part of the medial wall of intraparietal sulcus (Fig. 2A),

is strongly connected with dorsal premotor area F2 and less with the primary motor area F1 (**Fig. 3E**). MIP is also strongly connected with visual areas VIP and V6A, with PEc and PE, and with PEip and PEci (Bakola et al. 2017). The stronger connections of PEip with F1 compared to F2 and the reverse behaviour of MIP, combined with the direct connection of PEip (but not of MIP) with the spinal cord and the much weaker visual afferents to PEip relative to MIP, are in line with the view that PEip is part of the somatosensory Brodmann's area 5 and MIP of the bimodal visual/somatosensory area 7.

Functional properties of macaque SPL

In the past, the PPC was classically defined an 'association cortex' and viewed as a structure mainly dedicated to the integration of different sensory information. Starting from the seminal studies by Mountcastle et al. (1975) and Hyvaarinen and collaborators (Leinonen et al. 1979; Hyvärinen 1982), a great deal of research showed that PPC was not only involved in the integration of different sensory modalities, somatic and visual in particular, but it was also involved in the control of somatomotor, visuomotor, oculomotor activities, as well as in the guidance of visuospatial attention (Kalaska 1996; Andersen et al. 1997; Galletti et al. 2003, 2010; Gottlieb 2007; Filimon 2010; Sereno and Huang 2014; Caminiti et al. 2015; Pisella et al. 2017; Hadjidimitrakis et al. 2019). In particular, it was demonstrated that most SPL neurons discharged in association with active arm movements performed by monkeys to reach and grasp objects in the peripersonal space, thus suggesting that the SPL was selectively involved in processes related to arm movement planning, execution, and online control (Andersen et al. 1997; Kalaska et al. 1997; Ferraina et al. 1997a; Galletti et al. 1997, 2003; Battaglia-Mayer et al. 2000; Batista and Andersen 2001; Fattori et al. 2001, 2004, 2005, 2009, 2017; see for a review Andersen and Cui 2009; Galletti and Fattori 2018). Till a decade ago, IPL was considered to be specifically involved in the distal phase of prehension, i.e. in grasping movements, and SPL in the proximal phase of prehension, i.e in arm reaching movements (Jeannerod et al. 1995; Wise et al. 1997; Culham et al. 2006; Gallivan et al. 2009; Grafton 2010; Vesia and Crawford 2012). However, several lines of evidence have demonstrated that the activity of SPL neurons is also modulated by the features of the distal phase of prehension, like wrist orientation and grip formation (Fattori et al. 2004, 2009, 2010; Breveglieri et al. 2016, 2018). The involvement of SPL in the distal phase of prehension has been also recently demonstrated in humans (Verhagen et al. 2013; Begliomini et al. 2014; Vesia et al. 2017). At present, it is clear that the act of prehension is controlled by two parieto-frontal circuits, a lateral one that includes IPL and ventral premotor cortex and is mainly involved in the control of grasping and manipulation, and a medial one including SPL and dorsal premotor cortex that is involved in the control of the entire reach-to-grasp action, particularly when rapid control is required, as when the action is time constrained (Galletti et al. 2003; Rizzolatti and Matelli 2003; Borra et al. 2017; Galletti and Fattori 2018).

Regarding the specific functional role of the different areas of SPL, the most studied areas to date are PE, PEc, and V6A. Area PE is a somatic area that abuts anteriorly the primary somatosensory cortex SI (Fig. 5A; Brodmann's areas 3, 1, 2). While SI and in particular areas 3a and 1 mainly process tactile stimuli and host a detailed map of the entire body (Fig. 5A; Pons et al. 1985; Padberg et al. 2007; Krubitzer and Disbrow 2008; Seelke et al. 2012), PE is dominated by proprioceptive representation and hosts a rough topographical map of the body with an over-representation of the arm, particularly of the hand (Fig. 5A; Duffy and Burchfiel 1971; Sakata et al. 1973; Mountcastle et al. 1975; Padberg et al. 2007; Seelke et al. 2012; Baldwin et al. 2018; see also the strong connection with the arm region of F1 in Fig. 4C). Notably, however, only the antero-lateral part of area PE has been studied in detail to date (yellow region in the close-up of Fig. 5B), whereas the medial part of the area is still quite unexplored. Therefore, it is possible that the lower limb is represented in this part of PE, given also the fact that the leg is represented in the adjoining medial part of SI (see

Fig. 5A). In line with this hypothesis, a very recent report (De Vitis et al. 2019) has shown that in the postero-medial part of PE (orange region in the close-up of Fig. 5B) the lower limb is actually over-represented (Fig. 6 E), although both upper and lower limb representations were found (Fig. 6C, E), and not only the lower limb as it could be expected. In sum, a rough topographical map of the body is present in PE, with an over-representation of the limbs, the upper ones in the antero-lateral part (Fig. 5A) and the lower ones in the postero-medial part (Fig. 6E) of the area.

Fig. 5 near here

It has been known since a long time that the visual stimulation is ineffective in activating PE neurons (Mountcastle et al. 1975). PE neurons are generally sensitive to multi-joint stimulations and to the posture of limbs (Duffy and Burchfiel 1971; Sakata et al. 1973; Mountcastle et al. 1975; Georgopoulos et al. 1984; Kalaska et al. 1990). According to De Vitis and coworkers (2019), about 90% of PE neurons are sensitive to somatosensory stimulation (Fig. 6A), in particular the joint stimulation of both upper and lower limbs (Fig. 6B, E). Neuronal responses in PE are mainly evoked by somatic stimulation of the contralateral side of the body, or of both sides (Fig. 6D). During arm reaching movements, different populations of cells encode depth and direction of movement, showing an independent processing of these two parameters (Hadjidimitrakis et al. 2015). It has been demonstrated that PE neurons are involved in preparation and control of limb movements, and become active during skilled actions (Kalaska 1996). All these data strongly suggest that PE is a somatomotor area that hosts motor and somatosensory signals from the limbs and that is likely involved in the somatomotor guidance of limb actions.

Differently from PE, area PEc is an area that hosts a representation of the visual field, together with an incomplete somatosensory map of the body (Gamberini et al. 2018). The visual receptive fields of PEc neurons are quite large and are often sensitive to optic flow (Ferraina et al. 2001; Breveglieri et al. 2008; Raffi et al. 2010, 2011, 2014). About 65% of PEc neurons are sensitive to somatosensory stimulation (Fig. 6A), in particular the joint stimulation of both upper and lower limbs (Fig. 6B, E). The map of body is more focused on the proximal part of the limbs (Fig. 6E) and, differently from PE, does not show any sign of topographical organization: upper and lower limb representations are intermixed all over the area (Breveglieri et al. 2006, 2008; Gamberini et al. 2018). Somatic PEc neurons respond mostly to single-joint rotations, but also to tactile stimulations of trunk and limbs (Fig. 6B, E). The incidence of joint versus tactile sensitivity is similar to that of PE (Fig. 6B; Breveglieri et al. 2008; Gamberini et al. 2018; De Vitis et al. 2019), whereas the contralateral sensitivity is more accentuated than in PE (Fig. 6D). Contrary to PE, several PEc neurons show bimodal somato-visual responses (Breveglieri et al. 2008; Gamberini et al. 2018). Most PEc neurons show arm and/or eye movement-related activity (Ferraina et al. 2001; Battaglia-Mayer et al. 2001; Piserchia et al. 2017), and many PEc neurons are able to encode the direction and depth of arm movements (Hadjidimitrakis et al. 2015). All these data suggest that PEc contributes to the visual guidance of motor behavior and eye-hand coordination (Battaglia-Mayer et al. 2000, 2001; Gamberini et al. 2018). Since area PEc is sensitive to optic flow, receives visual information mostly from the lower visual field, and is more strongly connected with cortical motor/premotor regions that represent the lower limbs, it has been suggested that it is involved in the visual guidance of locomotion (Breveglieri et al. 2008; Bakola et al. 2010; Raffi et al. 2014; Gamberini et al. 2018).

Fig. 6 near here

Area V6A, like PEc, hosts both visual and somatic neurons. However, contrary to PEc, visual neurons represent the majority of V6A neurons (about 65%; Gamberini et al. 2011). Visual neurons mainly represent the contralateral lower part of visual field, partially including also the ipsilateral one. The central part of visual field is more represented

in the dorsal part of V6A while the peripheral part, particularly the lower quadrant, in the ventral one (Gamberini et al. 2011). Somatic neurons are about 40% of V6A cells (Fig. 6A). They represent almost exclusively the upper limb, and in particular the contralateral arm (Fig. 6C, D, E). Most of these neurons are modulated by passive stimulation of proximal joints (shoulder, elbow) and some of them by passive stimulation of distal (mainly wrist) joints (Fig. 6B, E; Gamberini et al. 2011, 2018). It is worth noticing that the active arm movements are always more effective than passive movements in activating V6A neurons. During active arm movements, about 70% of V6A neurons are modulated by the direction (Fig. 7A; Fattori et al. 2005) and/or depth (Hadjidimitrakis et al. 2014, 2017) of reaching movement, and approximately 60% by wrist orientation (Fig. 7B; Fattori et al. 2009) and grip formation (Fig. 7C; Fattori et al. 2010; Breveglieri et al. 2016, 2018). The presence in V6A of cells modulated by grip formation is in contrast with the common view that this part of the brain is only involved in the control of reaching, and strongly supports our view that V6A is also involved in the control of distal aspects of arm movements (Galletti et al. 2003; Fattori et al. 2004; see Fattori et al. 2017 for a thorough discussion of this **issue**). Most V6A cells are responsive to both reaching and grasping movements, with some cells more responsive for reaching and others for grasping (Fig. 7D). About 60% of V6A neurons discharge to object presentation, with about half of them displaying object selectivity (Fattori et al. 2012). Finally, the activity of many V6A cells is also modulated by the preparation of prehension action (see for instance the ramp-like activity shown before the onset of grasping, but not of reaching, by the cell in Fig. 7D; Santandrea et al. 2018). Overall, the functional properties of V6A cells suggest that this medial posterior parietal area is involved in the analysis of vision for action and in the control of all phases of prehension during reach-to-grasp actions (Fattori et al. 2012, 2017), particularly when actions are time-constrained (see Galletti and Fattori 2018). Interestingly, other properties of V6A neurons supporting these roles are the tuning of activity by eye position (Galletti et al. 1995; Hadjidimitrakis et al. 2011, 2012; Breveglieri et al. 2012) and the modulation of visual response according to gaze direction (Fig. 8A), a property that allows neurons to encode spatial locations of visual stimuli (Galletti et al. 1995). Further support to the above suggested functional roles comes from the presence in V6A of neurons that respond during saccadic eye movements and encode their direction (Fig. 8B; Kutz et al. 2003), are modulated by spatial shifts of covert attention (Fig. 8C; Galletti et al. 2010) and by the affordance of graspable objects (Fig. 8D; Breveglieri et al. 2015).

Fig. 7 near here Fig. 8 near here

Areas PEip and MIP, hidden into the intraparietal sulcus, and PEci, 31, and PGm located on the mesial surface of the hemisphere (Fig. 2A) are areas less intensively studied than those described above. Although specific studies on the functional properties of PEip neurons are lacking, their properties can be partially inferred by data collected in deep electrophysiological penetrations performed in the lateral part of area 5, since this type of penetrations could reach area PEip in depth. According to these data, deep area 5 neurons (likely located in PEip) were found to respond to somatosensory stimulations of the upper limb (Mountcastle et al. 1975; Iwamura and Tanaka 1996), often in association with arm movements (Kalaska et al. 1990). Neurons in area MIP, instead, responded not only to somatosensory, but also to visual stimuli (Colby and Duhamel 1991), a bimodal sensitivity that suggests a similarity with the typical neurons of Brodmann's area 7 in the IPL (Leinonen et al. 1979; Hyvärinen 1982). Apart from the study of Colby and Duhamel (1991), specific investigations on the functional properties of MIP neurons are still lacking. However, Richard Andersen and his coworkers in the last two decades collected a huge amount of data on the functional properties of neurons of a PPC region, referred to as parietal reach region (PRR; Snyder et al. 1997, 1998; Andersen et al. 2014), that most likely included area MIP. According to these studies, the activity of PRR (MIP) neurons was strongly modulated by arm movement preparation and execution. In particular, PRR neurons were implicated in the sensory-to-motor

transformation required for reaching toward visually defined targets (Buneo and Andersen 2006; Chang and Snyder 2010). Single PRR cells integrated target and limb position information across the reaching workspace and seemed to be more involved in encoding the intention to make arm movements rather than the execution of these movements (Andersen et al. 2014).

On the mesial surface of the hemisphere, area PGm codes information related to visually guided navigation and object localization in space (Sato et al. 2006, 2010; Baumann and Mattingley 2010), information useful during planning and execution of arm and/or eye movements (Ferraina et al. 1997a, b). Area 31, anterior to PGm, is likely involved in monitoring eye **position and** movement (Olson et al. 1996), as well as in sensory cognition for the guidance of head and limb movements (Passarelli et al. 2018). Lastly, PEci, anterior to area 31, hosts a somatosensory map of the body (supplementary sensory area; Murray and Coulter 1981a) like area PE, in agreement with our view that PEci and PE are both parts of Brodmann's area 5, **but to our knowledge the functional properties of PEci neurons during active movements have not been explored yet**.

Overall, the functional properties of SPL summarized in this chapter show that PE, PEip, and PEci are somatomotor areas that are not influenced by visual signals, while PEc, MIP, PGm, and V6A are areas influenced by both somatomotor and visuomotor signals. Since single cell recordings in macaque monkeys have shown that Brodmann's area 5 is a somatomotor cortical region not influenced by visual stimulation (Mountcastle et al. 1975) and Brodmann's area 7 a bimodal somatomotor/visuomotor region (Leinonen et al. 1979; Hyvärinen 1982), we suggest that in SPL the somatomotor areas are parts of Brodmann's area 5 and the bimodal areas of Brodmann's area 7.

Comparison with human SPL

Since Brodmann's parcellation of the cerebral cortex more than one century ago (Fig. 9A, B; Brodmann 1909), the human SPL has been considered to be organized differently with respect to monkey SPL: in humans, SPL was viewed as hosting both areas 5 and 7, whereas in monkey it seemed to host only area 5 (see Sakata et al. 1973; Mountcastle et al. 1975; Pandya and Seltzer 1982; Battaglia-Mayer et al. 2001). The data reviewed here suggest that this is not the case, and monkey SPL seems likely to have a similar structure with human SPL.

According to Brodmann (1909), area 5 is just posterior to areas 3, 1, 2 in both monkey and human brains (Fig. 9A, B). However, while in monkeys area 5 extends in the lateral part of the brain (Fig. 9A, C), in human it is confined in a more medial region of the brain (Fig. 9B, D). Since it has been demonstrated that during evolution there has been a high degree of expansion in the associative cortex (Chaplin et al. 2013), particularly in humans (Hill et al. 2010; Gregory et al. 2017), it is plausible that human area 5 was confined within more medial brain locations because it has been 'pushed' upwards and medially by the growing associative inferior parietal cortex (Brodmann's areas 39, 40, Fig. 9B; yellow IPL region in Fig. 9D). It is worthwhile to notice that the cortex occupying area 5 in humans is a region of low evolutionary expansion (blue stripe under the white dashed oval in Fig. 9D, right). It is therefore reasonable to assume that the functional properties and role of the human area 5 are not significantly different from those of area 5 of the non-human primates.

Fig. 9 near here

Strong support to the view that human and non-human primates have SPL organized in a similar way also comes from recent neuroimaging data. Sereno and coworkers (see for review Huang and Sereno 2018) have found in humans the presence of a second somatosensory homunculus (Parietal Body Area, PBA) in the SPL besides that in the primary somatosensory cortex, **located** at the level of the medial end of the postcentral sulcus, just posterior to the SI (Fig. 10A,

B; Huang et al. 2012). This is the classic location of Brodmann's area 5 in humans (see **Figs. 9D, 10A, B**), and the PBA is reminiscent of the rough topographical map of the body observed in macaque area **PE** (see Fig. 5A; Seelke et al. 2012).

As shown in Fig. 10C, the parietal cortex *posterior* to PBA is activated by **goal-directed** limb movements (in particular by reaching), but it is not organized topographically (Fig. 10B), similarly to what has been observed in macaque in the **postero-medial part of PE (De Vitis et al. 2019) and in** PEc (Gamberini et al. 2018). Huang et al. (2012) found that the part of PBA representing leg and toe and the cortical region that abuts posteriorly PBA overlap with a region representing the lower visual field (Fig. 10A, B). This suggested to the authors that this parietal region could be involved in the control of **locomotion** (Fig. 10C), similarly to macaque area PEc (Breveglieri et al. 2008; Bakola et al. 2010; Raffi et al. 2014; Gamberini et al. 2018).

Overall, the activation by reaching movements, the representation of both lower- and upper-limb movements, the lacking of somatotopic organization, and the lower field representation of the parietal region abutting posteriorly PBA are reminiscent of the functional properties of the homologous SPL region (postero-medial part of PE and area PEc) in the macaque.

Fig. 10 near here

Further support to the view of a strict homology between human and non-human primate SPLs comes from a very recent neuroimaging study (Pitzalis et al. 2019) reporting that the medial SPL cortex in humans hosts the same areas described in macaque SPL, that is V6A, PEc, and PE (compare Fig. 11B and 11E). As shown in Fig. 11E, human (h) V6A is located in the posterior portion of SPL, anterior to the parieto-occipital sulcus, in a cortical territory that includes the caudalmost portion of the precuneate cortex; hV6A is anterior to hV6 (Pitzalis et al. 2006) and posterior to hPEc, which occupies the dorsalmost portion of the anterior precuneus, just behind the dorsal tip of the cingulate sulcus; area hPE is anterior to hPEc and occupies the dorsomedial portion of the post-central gyrus, just over the tip of the cingulate sulcus. It is worthwhile noticing that while hV6 is part of Brodmann's area 19 (compare Fig. 11C and 11E), areas hV6Ad and hPEc are parts of area 7, and hPE part of area 5 (compare Fig. 11C and 11E). Quite recently, Scheperians and coworkers (2008) reported the presence of several cytoarchitectonic fields within the limits of Brodmann's areas 7 and 5 in human. A comparison of this anatomical parcellation (Fig. 11D) with the functional parcellation by Pitzalis and colleagues (Fig. 11E) strongly suggest that hV6A is within the limits of Scheperians' area 7P, hPEc within the limits of area 7A, and hPE within those of areas 5L-5M. Tab.1 provides a comparison between present suggestions and existing nomenclatures in macaque and human SPL.

Fig. 11 near here Tab 1

Conclusions

Most studies in the last century claimed that macaque SPL was entirely occupied by Brodmann's area 5. Recent data, however, show that in the caudal part of SPL a cortical region larger than that originally indicated as area 7 by Brodmann (1909) has structural and functional features typical of area 7. Within this region that occupies roughly the caudal half of SPL, four cytoarchitecturally and functionally distinct areas have been identified: PEc, V6A, PGm, and MIP (see orange region in Fig. 11A). In the anterior half of SPL, within the cortical region indicated by Brodmann as area 5, three cytoarchitecturally and functionally distinct areas have been recognized: PE, PEip, PEci (see blue region in Fig. 11A). The comparison of macaque with human SPL presented here (Fig. 11) strongly

supports the view that they have similar structural organization, with a somatosensory-dominated anterior sector and a bimodal, visual-somatosensory caudal part.

The here suggested macaque-human homology could address future neuroimaging experiments in humans aimed at understanding the largely unknown functional role of the various sectors lying within the wide sheet of cortex indicated as area 7 in humans. Furthermore, if human SPL, like macaque SPL, is involved in the control of arm reaching and reach-to-grasp movements, as suggested by many brain imaging studies (e.g. Astafiev et al. 2003; Connolly et al. 2003; Filimon et al. 2009; Cavina-Pratesi et al. 2010; Galati et al. 2011; Gallivan et al. 2011; Fabbri et al. 2014; Tosoni et al. 2015; Heed et al. 2016) and by the effects of caudal SPL lesions (Optic ataxia: Perenin and Vighetto 1988; Karnath and Perenin 2005), we could use the huge amount of data collected from single cells in different areas of macaque SPL to verify their efficacy in encoding reach-to-grasp actions (e.g., see Filippini et al. 2017, 2018), so to decide whether and how to use neural signals from human SPL to guide artificial arms in tetraplegic patients.

Ethical approval: This article does not contain any new, previously unpublished study with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

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Legends

Fig. 1 Parietal cortex in Old World monkey.

(A) Lateral view of the **left** hemisphere **of an Old World monkey brain**. Top: **the** anterior parietal cortex **is** colored in yellow; superior and inferior parietal lobules in **the** posterior parietal cortex in green and red, respectively. Bottom: close-up showing, enlarged, **a brain** region **including** SPL, **with the original Brodmann's parcellation (Brodmann 1909);** area 5 **is colored** in blue, area 7 in orange. (B) Vogt and Vogt's parcellation of posterior parietal cortex (modified from Vogt and Vogt 1919). Top: drawings of medial and lateral surfaces of **left** cerebral hemisphere. Bottom: close-up showing, enlarged, the SPL in color, with areas 5a and 5b colored in blue being indicated by Vogt and Vogt as parts of area 5. (C) Pandya and Seltzer's parcellation of posterior parietal cortex (modified from Pandya and Seltzer 1982). Top: drawings of medial and lateral surfaces of **left** cerebral hemisphere, with cingulate and intraparietal sulci open to show the areas hidden inside (see close-up on the bottom). Bottom: close-up showing, enlarged, the region of areas PE, PEc, PEci and PEa, all colored in blue being indicated by Pandya and Seltzer as parts of area 5.

Abbreviations: as, arcuate sulcus; cgs, cingulate sulcus; cs, central sulcus; lf, lateral fissure; ls, lunate sulcus; sts, superior temporal sulcus; ips, intraparietal sulcus; pcd, post-central dimple; pos, parieto-occipital sulcus; cc, corpus callosum; PGm, PEc, PE, PEci, PEa, 5a, 5b, 7a, 7b: areas PGm, PEc, PE, PEci, PEa, 5a, 5b, 7a, 7b.

Fig. 2 Areal parcellation of macaque superior parietal lobule.

(A) Posterolateral view of macaque brain. The right hemisphere has been partially dissected at the level of the fundus of intraparietal, parieto-occipital, and lunate sulci to show the hidden cortex of SPL. The medial surface of the left hemisphere is also visible, with the cingulate sulcus open to show area PEci hidden inside. **Dashed lines delimit different cortical areas of SPL. Labels 'B' and 'C' indicate the regions of the brain whose cyto- and myeloarchitectures are illustrated below in panels B and C, respectively.** (B) High power photomicrographs of the cytoarchitectonic organization of V6 and V6A (modified from Luppino et al. 2005). Pictures show the major features that distinguish the occipital pattern of V6 from the parietal pattern of V6A (see text for details). Scale bar, 200 µm. (C) High power photomicrographs of representative myeloarchitectonic fields of areas MIP and PEip (modified from Bakola et al. 2017), showing the well-separated bands of Baillarger of area MIP, and the relatively light myelination of area PEip (Scale bar, 1 mm).

Abbreviations: cal, calcarine sulcus; ios, inferior occipital sulcus; ots, occipito-temporal sulcus; ps, principal sulcus; pre-cd, precentral dimple; V6, V6A, 31, MIP, PEip: areas V6, V6A, 31, MIP, PEip. Other abbreviations as in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3 Summary of the main cortico-cortical connections of areas PE, PEc, V6A, PGm, MIP.

(A-E) Cortical connections of areas PE, PEc, V6A, PGm, and MIP, respectively. For each area, only projections representing more than 1% of the total cortical connections of that area are reported. The thickness of connecting lines is proportional to the strength of connections, as indicated in the legend within the figure, averaged across all cases with injections in the same area (data obtained from Gamberini et al. 2009; Bakola et al. 2010, 2013, 2017; Passarelli et al. 2011, 2018).

Abbreviations: D, dorsal; P, posterior; F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, F7, FEF, 23, 24, PFop, PGop, PG, Opt, Ri, 46, AIP, LIP, VIP, V2, V3, V4, MST: areas F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, F7, FEF, 23, 24, PFop, PGop, PG, Opt, Ri, 46, AIP, LIP, VIP, V2, V3, V4, MST; PFC, prefrontal cortex areas 8, 9, 10 and 12; RSC, retrosplenial cortex (areas 29, 30); 23i, 23v, **posterior cingulate cortex**; Vis, visual cortex ventral to area PGm; cST, caudal superior temporal areas MST and TPO; EXT, extrastriate areas V2, V3, V4, MST, V6, PIP, and TEO; ParOp, parietal operculum. Other abbreviations as in Figs. 1 and 2.

Fig. 4 Frontal connections of areas PE, PEc, V6A.

(A) Posterolateral view of left hemisphere of macaque brain partially dissected as in Figure 2 to show the cortex hidden into parieto-occipital and intraparietal sulci. Colored zones represent the injected areas PE (red), PEc (green), V6A (yellow). (B) Lateral view of macaque's left hemisphere, with highlighed the frontal lobe enlarged in (C). (C) Frontal lobe

with cells (colored dots) labeled after **retrograde** tracer injection in areas PE (red; three injections), PEc (green; three injections), V6A (yellow; five injections) (data obtained from Gamberini et al. 2009; Bakola et al. 2010, 2013; Passarelli et al. 2011). (D) Parcellation of agranular frontal cortex showing, overimposed, the representations of various body parts (modified from Matelli et al. 1991; Luppino and Rizzolatti 2000). Other details and abbreviations as in Figs. 1-3.

Fig. 5 Functional organization of Brodmann's areas 1, 2, 3, 5 in macaque monkey.

(A) Summary of the functional subdivisions of anterior parietal areas 3a, 3b, 1, 2, and of posterior parietal area 5 (area PE). Notice that the medial part of area 5 has not been studied (modified from Seelke et al. 2012). (B) Dorsolateral view of macaque's left hemisphere. The enlarged close-up on the bottom shows in yellow the part of area 5 recorded from, in the whole, by the following studies (Kalaska et al. 1983, 1990; Mackay et al. 1994; Lacquaniti et al. 1995; Scott et al. 1997; Ferraina et al. 2009; McGuire and Sabes 2011; Bremner and Andersen 2012; Seelke et al. 2012; Menzer et al. 2014; Brunamonti et al. 2016; Padberg et al. 2019). In orange, it is reported the recording site of a recent study focused on the medial part of PE (De Vitis et al. 2019).

Abbreviations: IPS, intraparietal sulcus; PCS, post-central sulcus. Other details and abbreviations as in Figs. 1-3.

Fig. 6 Somatic representations in areas PE, PEc, V6A.

A posterolateral view of the left hemisphere of a macaque brain, partially dissected as in Figure 2, is shown on the top left of the figure to show the cortex hidden into parieto-occipital and intraparietal sulci. Dashed lines delimit different cortical areas of SPL. Areas PE, PEc, and V6A are indicated in red, green, and yellow, respectively.

(A-D) Column plots reporting the incidence of somatosensory cells (A), different submodalities of somatosensory responses ("more" are cells driven by more than one type of stimulation, as for instance joint and deep stimulations) (B), body part representation (C), and laterality of somatosensory responses (D), in areas PE, PEc, V6A; the results of $\chi 2$ test are indicated by asterisks, ***p < 0.005; *p < 0.05. (E) Body locations of somatosensory (patches) and joints (circles) RFs in PE (red), PEc (green) and V6A (yellow). All RFs have been reported on the animal's right side. RFs reported on the left arm represent RFs located on the internal part of the arm (not visible if drawn on the right arm). Boxes to the right of monkey's silhouettes report close-up view of the hand in V6A and foot in PEc.

Data for PE have been obtained by De Vitis and coworkers (De Vitis et al. 2019), for PEc and V6A by Gamberini and coworkers (Gamberini et al. 2018).

Fig. 7 Reaching and grasping properties of area V6A neurons.

(A) Cell tuned by the direction of arm movement. (B) Cell modulated by wrist orientation. (C) Cell modulated by the grip type. (D) Cell modulated by both reaching and grasping activities (notice that it is the same cell shown in (A)). Cell responses are shown as peri-event time histograms and raster displays of impulse activity, aligned at the arm movement onset (black triangle). Below cell responses, recordings of X and Y components of eye positions are reported. Reach-to-grasp arm movements were performed in the dark during foveal reach-to-grasp tasks. To the left and right of cell responses, the sketches of hand actions performed by monkey are shown.

Scale: vertical bar on histograms, 113 spikes/s; eye traces, 60°/ per vertical division. Modified from Fattori et al. (2009, 2010, 2017).

Fig. 8 Functional properties of V6A neurons.

(A) Cell modulated by eye position. The figure shows the visual responses of a cell evoked by receptive field stimulation (peri-event time histograms, raster-plots of cell activity) while animal gazed at nine different positions on a frontal screen, in darkness (modified from Galletti et al. 1995). (B) Cell modulated by saccadic eye movements performed in different directions (towards 8 different positions on a frontal screen, in darkness). For each saccade direction, the peri-saccade time histogram, raster-plot of cell activity, and eye-traces aligned to saccade onset are reported. The central polar plot shows the entity of cell activity for saccades performed in the different tested directions (modified from Kutz et al. 2003). (C) Cell modulated by covert spatial attention: the animal gazed at a stationary fixation point in the central part of a frontal screen (cross) while attending to one of 8 different screen positions (spots), in darkness; the grey level of the 8 spots indicates the entity of cell activity while the animal covertly attended to that spatial location (attending to the bottom parts of the screen increased cell activity). On the bottom of the figure, spike density functions of cell activity for each of the 8 cued positions are superimposed and aligned at the cue onset: cell discharge was strongly modulated by the covertly attended spatial position (modified from Galletti et al. 2010). (D) Cell sensitive to the object affordance. The cell strongly discharged when the animal grasped a handle, but not when it grasped a plate (bottom part of the figure), despite the similarity of the two objects from the animal point of view (see top left). Cell response was about the same no matter whether the grasped object was thin or thick (see the bottom part of the panel). In other words, since from the point of view of the animal the handle and plate looked very similar when of the same thickness, this cell discharged according to the affordance (graspability) of the object, not according to the visual features of it. Neural activity is shown as peri-stimulus time histograms aligned at the onset of object illumination (dark bars under peri-stimulus time histograms; modified from Breveglieri et al. 2015).

Scale: (A) 12 spikes/s per vertical division, 400 ms per horizontal division. (B-D) 75, 70, 45, spikes/s, respectively, per vertical division; eye traces in B, 60°/ per vertical division.

Fig. 9 Brodmann's parcellation of the cerebral cortex and postnatal cortical expansion in the human brain. (A-B) Brodmann's parcellation of the cerebral cortex in monkey and human (Brodmann 1909). Red outlines enclose area 5 in monkey and human brains. (C) Lateral and dorsal views of the left hemisphere of the F99 macaque atlas with a number of typical ROIs labeled. (D) Lateral and dorsal views of the left hemisphere of a human brain showing with different colors the postnatal surface expansion of brain cortex, overlaid with the same ROIs showed in (C) for macaque brain. Yellow areas indicate the regions of maximum postnatal cortical expansion. The approximate location of Brodmann's area 5 is indicated in the dorsolateral cortical surface of the brain by dashed red outlines in macaque (C) and dashed oval white outline in human (D) brains (modified from Hill et al. 2010).

Abbreviations: BA5, Brodmann area 5; 10, 21, Brodmann area 10, 21; FEF, frontal eye fields; HG, Heschl's gyrus; IPL, inferior parietal lobule; LIPv, ventral part of lateral intraparietal cortex; 7a and 7b, parietal areas 7a and 7b; MFG, anterior third of the middle frontal gyrus; MT, medial temporal visual region; PFC, prefrontal cortex; STPp, visual region on anterior bank of superior temporal sulcus; TEa, visual region on the posterior bank of the superior temporal sulcus; TEpd, visual region on the inferior temporal gyrus; V1, primary visual cortex; V2, secondary visual cortex.

Fig. 10 Somatotopic and visuotopic representations in human frontal, parietal, and occipital cortex.

(A) Group-average somatotopic ROIs overlaid on group-average retinotopic maps displayed on single subject cortical surface (left hemisphere). Colored contours and areas indicate somatotopic and visual representations, respectively, as indicated in the legend within the figure (modified from Huang et al. 2012). (B) Group-average map of somatotopic areas activated by passive tactile stimulation, superimposed on a faded retinotopic map. (C) Map of action representations in parietal and frontal cortices. Yellow labels indicate specific actions activating that part of cortex (according to the abbreviations reported here below). Data shown in B-C are from Huang & Sereno (2018). Abbreviations: PBA, parietal body area; VIP+, human parietal face area; M, medial; A, anterior; IFS and SFS, inferior and superior frontal sulci; LH, left hemisphere; LIP+, human homolog of macaque lateral intraparietal area; LoVF, lower visual field; OPA, occipital place area; UpVF, upper visual field; D, defense; E, eye movements; F, feeding; G, grasping; P, pointing; R, reaching; T, touching; W, walking.

Fig. 11 The SPL in human and non-human primates.

(A) Posterolateral view of a partially dissected macaque brain, showing the different SPL areas as in Fig. 2A. The region colored in light blue (area V6) is a visual cortex that is likely part of Brodmann's area 19; the region colored in orange (areas V6A, MIP, PEc, PGm) is responsive to both visual and somatosensory stimulations and according to the present data is likely part of Brodmann's area 7; the region colored in blue (areas PE, PEip, PEci) is responsive to somatosensory stimulations but not to visual stimulations, and is likely part of Brodmann's area 5. (B) Dorsal view of macaque brain showing the location and extent of a number of SPL areas and of part of Brodmann's area 19 in the fundus of the parieto-occipital sulcus. (C) Dorsal view of human brain showing the location and extent of Brodmann's areas 5 (blue), 7 (orange), and 19 (light blue). (D) Maximum probability map of areas of the human superior parietal cortex according to Scheperjans et al. (2008). The point of view is posterior with an elevation of 45° from the horizontal plane, as shown by the arrow in the inset in the left upper corner. Modified from Scheperjans et al. (2008). (E) Dorsal view of the inflated representation of the left hemisphere of Conte69 surface-based atlas showing the location and extent in the human brain of areas hPE, hPEc, hV6A (data obtained from Pitzalis et al. 2019), and V6 (data obtained from Pitzalis et al. 2006).

Abbreviations: 5L and 5M, lateral and medial subdivision of area 5; 7PC, 7A, 7P, 7M, postero-caudal, anterior, posterior and medial subdivision of area 7. **Other details and abbreviations as in Figs. 1-2.**