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Cortical and subcortical coordination of visual spatial attention revealed by simultaneous EEG-fMRI recording

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1 Running Head: CORTICAL-SUBCORTICAL COORDINATION OF ATTENTION

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7 fMRI recording

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Abstract

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44 Visual spatial attention has been studied in humans with both electroencephalography (EEG)
45 and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) individually. However, due to the intrinsic
46 limitations of each of these methods used alone, our understanding of the systems-level
47 mechanisms underlying attentional control remains limited. Here, we examined trial-to-trial
48 covariations of concurrently recorded EEG and fMRI in a cued visual spatial-attention task in
49 humans, which allowed delineation of both the generators and modulators of the cue-triggered
50 event-related oscillatory brain activity underlying attentional-control function. The fMRI activity in
51 visual cortical regions contralateral to the cued direction of attention covaried positively with
52 occipital gamma-band EEG, consistent with activation of cortical regions representing attended
53 locations in space. In contrast, fMRI activity in ipsilateral visual cortical regions covaried
54 inversely with occipital alpha-band oscillations, consistent with attention-related suppression of
55 the irrelevant hemispace. Moreover, the pulvinar nucleus of the thalamus covaried with both of
56 these spatially specific, attention-related, oscillatory EEG modulations. As the pulvinar's
57 neuroanatomical geometry makes it unlikely to be a direct generator of the scalp-recorded EEG,
58 these covariational patterns appear to reflect the pulvinar's role as a regulatory control structure,
59 sending spatially specific signals to proactively modulate visual cortex excitability. Together,
60 these combined EEG/fMRI results illuminate the dynamically interacting cortical and subcortical
61 processes underlying spatial attention, providing important insight not realizable using either
62 method alone.

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64 Keywords: attentional control; pulvinar; visual cortex; EEG; fMRI.

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Significance Statement

Non-invasive recordings of changes in the brain's blood flow (fMRI) and electrical activity (EEG) in humans have individually shown that shifting attention to a location in space produces spatially-specific changes in visual-cortex activity in anticipation of a stimulus. The mechanisms controlling these attention-related modulations of sensory cortex, however, are poorly understood. Here, we recorded these two complementary measures of brain activity simultaneously and examined their trial-to-trial covariations to gain insight into these attentional control mechanisms. This multi-methodological approach revealed the attention-related coordination of visual-cortex modulation by the subcortical pulvinar nucleus of the thalamus, while also disentangling the mechanisms underlying the attentional enhancement of relevant stimulus input and those underlying the concurrent suppression of irrelevant input.

86 A key function of spatial attention is to select for further scrutiny the most relevant
87 parts of the vast sensory input we experience continuously in life, thereby enhancing
88 detection and discrimination of items occurring at an attended location (Posner, 1980).
89 This enhanced processing is thought to rely on top-down signals from frontal and
90 parietal cortex, which bias and, ultimately, amplify sensory processing of stimuli
91 presented at the attended location relative to those at unattended locations (Corbetta
92 and Shulman, 2002). To understand the neural mechanisms underlying spatial attention,
93 human electrophysiology and neuroimaging have largely focused on cortical regions;
94 however animal electrophysiology, clinical observations, and theoretical models have
95 implicated the involvement of subcortical areas such as the superior colliculus and the
96 pulvinar nucleus of the thalamus in the orienting of visual-spatial attention (LaBerge &
97 Buchsbaum, 1990; Petersen et al., 1987; Karnath et al., 2002; Shipp, 2004; Saalmann
98 and Kastner, 2011).

99 Here, we examined the cortical and subcortical mechanisms of anticipatory
100 modulation of sensory cortex during voluntarily directed spatial attention. During cue-
101 triggered visuospatial shifts of attention, spatially specific modulations are observed in
102 occipital cortex; in particular, the effects in the two hemispheres depend on where in
103 space one is attending. Studies utilizing fMRI have consistently shown relative blood-
104 oxygenation-level-dependent (BOLD) signal increases in visual cortex contralateral to
105 the direction of attention, interpreted as the enhancement of processing for the attended
106 location of space. Likewise, event-related potential (ERP) (Harter et al., 1989; Hopf and
107 Mangun, 2000) and event-related gamma-band (> 30 Hz) EEG oscillations (Ward, 2003;
108 Jensen et al., 2007; Doesburg et al., 2008) over occipital scalp have been linked to

109 anticipatory enhancement in the contralateral visual cortex. In contrast, alpha-band EEG
110 (~8-12 Hz) has a negative relationship with the BOLD signal, with increased alpha being
111 linked to decreased BOLD activity and decreased cortical excitability (Goldman et al.,
112 2002; Laufs et al., 2003; Scheeringa et al., 2012). Although earlier studies suggested
113 that alpha-power decreases contralateral to the attended location lead to enhanced
114 processing at that location (Yamagishi et al., 2005), subsequent studies have linked the
115 underlying hemispheric asymmetry to alpha-power *increases* contralateral to the *to-be-*
116 *ignored* location of space (Kelly et al., 2006; Rihs et al., 2007), supporting a role of
117 alpha oscillations in relative suppression of irrelevant information in the environment.

118 Although it is clear that attending to a location in space produces spatially
119 specific modulations of activity in visual cortex, it remains unclear whether the effects
120 observed with fMRI and those observed with EEG reflect the same underlying neural
121 mechanisms. Moreover, activity in subcortical structures is generally inaccessible with
122 scalp EEG, due to their neuroanatomical structure (Nunez and Srinivasan, 2006). The
123 modulatory effects of subcortical structures on cortical EEG, however, can be
124 ascertained when EEG is recorded concurrently with fMRI (Huster et al., 2012) by
125 examining the trial-to-trial covariations of the activity measured with the two methods.
126 Here, we simultaneously recorded EEG and fMRI during a cued spatial attention task to
127 link these EEG and fMRI modulations.

128 On each trial, a centrally presented directional cue predicted where a pair of to-
129 be-discriminated target stimuli would appear (**Fig. 1**). Periods of cue-elicited spatially-
130 specific modulations of occipital scalp EEG were identified and extracted in the alpha
131 (8-12 Hz) and gamma (38-42 Hz) frequency bands on each trial. These single-trial

132 amplitudes were then covaried with the fMRI responses for the corresponding trials,
133 revealing coordinated interactions between cortical and subcortical brain regions for the
134 control of visual spatial attention.

135 --- Insert **Fig. 1** about here ---

136

137 **Materials and Methods**

138 **Participants**

139 Twenty-five participants took part in the study after providing informed consent.
140 Data from 8 participants were unusable due to excessive movement artifacts in the fMRI
141 (3 participants) or ocular artifacts in the EEG (5 participants). Data from the remaining
142 17 participants (12 female, mean age = 24.4 ± 3.5 years, all right handed with normal or
143 corrected-to-normal vision) were used for analysis. All experimental protocols were
144 approved by the Duke University Institutional Review Board.

145

146 **Stimuli & Paradigm**

147 Throughout the task a small fixation spot remained on the screen, along with
148 rectangular box outlines in the left and right visual fields, approximately 7° from fixation,
149 that served as attentional landmarks within which the target stimuli could be presented
150 (**Fig. 1**). Participants were instructed to maintain fixation, and eye-movements were
151 monitored to ensure proper fixation. Each trial started with an arrow cue presented at
152 fixation for 250 ms. Left and right arrows served as attention-directing cues (Attend
153 Cues) and were 100% predictive of the potential target location. On two-thirds of Attend-
154 Cue trials a target display was presented for 50 ms, either at 750 ms (short-SOA) or

155 1500 ms (long-SOA) after cue onset. On one-third of trials no target display was
156 presented (cue-only condition (Woldorff et al., 2004)). Target displays consisted of two
157 shapes selected from a stimulus set of five shapes (box outlines of a “+”, a “C”, a “Z”,
158 and a mirror-reversed “C” and “Z”; see (Boehler et al., 2011)), presented within the cued
159 landmark box. Participants indicated if the two shapes were identical (50% of target
160 trials) or different (50% of target trials) by pressing a button with the right index or
161 middle finger, respectively. An upward pointing arrow cue indicated that no target would
162 appear on that trial (Interpret-Cue trial), thus serving as a control cue requiring the same
163 sensory and meaning-interpretation as the Attend Cues but not engaging attentional
164 orienting.

165 A total of 360 Attend Cue trials (60 for each of short-SOA, long-SOA, and cue-
166 only for each of left and right cues) and 132 Interpret-Cue trials were presented. These
167 trials were separated into three functional runs of 15 min each, with three 10-sec breaks
168 within each run. The sequence of conditions was varied pseudo-randomly with discrete
169 inter-trial intervals that varied between 4, 6, and 8 sec, with a mean of 5 sec. An
170 additional 0-200 ms jitter was added to each trial to de-correlate the cue onsets from the
171 onsets of the fMRI volume acquisitions.

172

173 **fMRI acquisition and preprocessing**

174 MRI data were acquired on a 3-Tesla GE MR750 system. A 3d spoiled-GRE
175 sequence (EFGRE3D) without inversion-recovery preparation was used to acquire
176 structural T1 images (0.9375 mm in-plane resolution, 1.2 mm slice thickness; field of
177 view: 24cm*24cm*20cm; TR = 5.848, TE = 1.932, flip angle = 12°) for each participant.

178 Functional images were acquired with a customized inward spiral imaging sequence
179 (TR = 2000 ms; TE = 30 ms; flip angle = 60°; slew rate = 120; 40 slices with 3 x 3 x 3
180 mm resolution; AC-PC orientation) that was modified to prevent saturation of the EEG
181 amplifier during simultaneous recording. Each run consisted of 456 functional images,
182 with the first five discarded to allow for reaching steady-state magnetization. No task
183 was presented during the last eight volumes in order to fully sample the hemodynamic
184 response to the last event.

185 All image preprocessing and analysis was performed using SPM8 (RRID:
186 SCR_007037). Functional images were slice-time corrected, spatially realigned, and
187 spatially normalized to the SPM template using the co-registered individual T1 images.
188 Functional images were then resampled to a voxel size of 2x2x2 mm and smoothed
189 with a 6mm full-width half-maximum Gaussian kernel.

190

191 **Concurrent EEG acquisition and preprocessing**

192 EEG data were acquired from 64 electrodes set in a custom electrode cap with
193 extended scalp coverage (Woldorff et al., 2002), including 62 scalp recording sites, an
194 electrode under the left eye for monitoring blinks and vertical eye movements, and an
195 electrode on the upper back for recording the electrocardiogram (BrainAmp MR Plus,
196 Brain Products GmbH, RRID: SCR_009443). Horizontal eye movements were detected
197 using electrodes lateral to the left and right eyes. All signals were recorded with a band-
198 pass of 0.016 – 250 Hz and digitized at 5000 Hz, referenced during recording to scalp-
199 site Cz. Electrode impedances were lowered to below 5 kΩ prior to recording.

200 Removal of the MR gradient artifact and cardiac-pulse detection for
201 ballistocardiogram (BCG) correction were performed in Brain Vision Analyzer 2 (Brain
202 Products GmbH, RRID: SCR_009443). MR gradient artifacts were removed using an
203 average template-subtraction method (Allen et al., 2000). An fMRI slice-based template
204 of the artifact was created from a sliding average of 191 50-ms epochs, which was then
205 subtracted from the EEG segment time-locked to each slice acquisition. The EEG was
206 then low-pass filtered to 100 Hz and downsampled to 500 Hz. Pulse-detection using the
207 ECG channel was then performed using a semi-automatic template-matching procedure.
208 The resulting markers were manually reviewed and adjusted, and the EEG exported for
209 subsequent analysis in MATLAB (RRID: SCR_001622). Removal of the BCG artifact
210 was performed using the Optimal Basis Set procedure implemented in the FMRIB
211 plugin for EEGLAB (Niazy et al., 2005), using the top 4 principal components for
212 correction.

213 The artifact-corrected EEG was then segmented into 3.5 sec epochs (1 sec pre-
214 stimulus to 2.5 sec post stimulus) time-locked to cue onsets and manually inspected to
215 detect any trials containing blinks, eye-movements, or excessive noise. All participants
216 used in the analysis had at least 70% of trials retained after artifact rejection. Data were
217 then digitally re-referenced to the average of all scalp channels.

218

219 **EEG-fMRI covariation**

220 Because low-amplitude ERP components can be difficult to detect in single-trial
221 data (Jung et al., 2001), we focused specifically on time-frequency effects to improve
222 signal-to-noise in our single-trial measurements and home in on the attentional

223 suppression and enhancement processes previously associated with the alpha and
224 gamma bands, respectively. EEG epochs were transformed into the time-frequency
225 domain in EEGLAB (RRID: SCR_007292) using an FFT approach with Hanning window
226 tapering. Because we were interested in how the change in alpha and gamma power on
227 each trial related to changes in the fMRI BOLD signal, single-trial data were normalized
228 using the 200-ms pre-stimulus baseline period for each epoch. Mean event-related
229 spectral perturbations across all participants were calculated for occipital electrodes
230 (TO1/2, P3i/4i, O1'/2', PO1/2) ipsilateral and contralateral to the to-be-attended direction
231 in two frequency ranges of interest, alpha (8-12 Hz) and gamma (38-42 Hz), and used
232 to identify time windows of interest for further analysis. However, averaging of
233 individually-baselined epochs of power, which are necessarily positive, produces an
234 overall positive shift in mean power (Grandchamp and Delorme, 2011). Although this
235 positive shift changes the overall morphology of the average ERSP waveform, it does
236 not impact the timing or frequency of the significant contralateral vs. ipsilateral
237 differences, which were our main focus here. For display purposes and to facilitate
238 comparison with previous studies (e.g., Kelly et al., 2006; Rihs et al., 2007; Yamagishi
239 et al., 2005), we also calculated mean event-related spectral perturbation (ERSP)
240 responses with baseline correction performed after averaging across trials (see Fig. 3).
241 Three time-frequency windows were chosen for covariational analysis as they showed
242 significant (all p 's < .05) contralateral vs. ipsilateral differences in occipital scalp activity -
243 - 800-1200 ms post-cue for the alpha band, and 400-600 ms and 1200-1400 ms for the
244 gamma band.

245 The single-trial values were then extracted for each time-frequency window for
246 both ipsilateral and contralateral electrode sites and included as parametric modulators
247 in the SPM regression analyses. For each cueing condition (Right Short-SOA, Long-
248 SOA, and Cue-Only; Left Short-SOA, Long-SOA, and Cue-Only; Interpret Cues), fMRI
249 BOLD responses were modeled by a canonical hemodynamic response function with
250 temporal and dispersion derivatives. Parametric modulators were included for Right and
251 Left Long-SOA and Cue-Only trials. The short-SOA trials were included in the design to
252 encourage participants to shift attention to the cued location as quickly as possible but
253 were not included in the covariation analyses. Rest breaks were also modeled as
254 regressors of no interest. These regressors were then entered into a general linear
255 model along with the six realignment parameters for each run.

256 Separate GLMs were constructed to model covariation for each time-frequency
257 component (contralateral and ipsilateral for early gamma, alpha, and late gamma). For
258 each analysis, we created contrasts to examine covariation for leftward and rightward
259 shifts of attention separately in order to evaluate activity that varied with the direction of
260 attention, as well as collapsed across leftward and rightward shifts to evaluate activity
261 common to all attentional shifts. The analyses utilized a voxel-wise threshold of $p < .001$
262 (uncorrected), with an extent threshold of $k > 25$ contiguous voxels. We also examined
263 the results of the combined analyses using a smaller extent threshold of $k > 10$ due to
264 the possibility of observing non-lateralized activations in the small thalamic and midbrain
265 structures that would not be visible with larger extent thresholds, but no additional
266 subcortical activations were identified with this lower threshold.

267 Attention control regions were identified by contrasting Attend Cue vs. Interpret
268 Cue BOLD activity. Spatially-specific activation of occipital cortex was assessed by
269 contrasting BOLD activity on Left-Cue Attend trials with Right-Cue Attend trials (Long-
270 SOA and Cue-Only). For BOLD-only contrasts a threshold of $p < .01$ (FDR corrected)
271 and an extent threshold of $k > 25$ were applied. Significant clusters of activity from the
272 Attend Cue vs. Interpret Cue contrast were used to create functional ROIs in occipital
273 and parietal cortex using MarsBaR (Brett et al., 2002; RRID: SCR_009605)(see Table
274 1).

275 --- Insert Table 1 about here ---

276 **Results**

277 Standard fMRI analysis confirmed greater activation of the typical attention
278 network in response to Attend Cues relative to Interpret Cues (**Fig. 2**), including
279 increased BOLD signal in occipital and parietal cortices, inferior and superior frontal
280 cortex, anterior insula, and the thalamus. Contrasts of responses to the Attend-Left and
281 Attend-Right Cues yielded expected relative increases in BOLD signal in the visual
282 cortex contralateral to the direction of attention.

283 --- Insert **Fig. 2** about here ---

284 Event-related spectral perturbation (ERSP) values for the alpha (8-12 Hz) and
285 gamma (38-42 Hz) activity time-locked to the cue onsets were extracted from four
286 posterior scalp electrodes over each hemisphere. A comparison between electrodes
287 ipsilateral and contralateral to the cued direction was used to identify time windows of
288 the oscillatory EEG for covariation analyses with the BOLD signal. Alpha power was
289 greater ipsilateral to the cued direction beginning ~600 ms after cue onset and lasting

290 until the end of the cue period (i.e., until target onset on trials with long cue-target
291 intervals; **Fig. 3**). Gamma power was greater contralateral to the cued direction in the
292 two time intervals: 400-600 ms and 1200-1400 ms (**Fig. 3**). Thus, for covariation
293 analysis we selected three non-overlapping time-frequency periods: Early Gamma (38-
294 42 Hz; 400-600 ms), Alpha (8-12 Hz; 800-1200 ms), and Late Gamma (38-42 Hz; 1200-
295 1400 ms). Single-trial power values in these windows contralateral and ipsilateral to the
296 direction of attention were then included as parametric modulators in the general-linear-
297 model (GLM) analyses to identify voxels in the brain where the fMRI BOLD signal
298 covaried with the EEG power on a trial-to-trial basis.

299 --- Insert **Fig. 3** about here ---

300 **Pulvinar modulates attention-related changes in occipital EEG**

301 In the early time interval (400-600 ms post cue onset), gamma activity over
302 occipital scalp contralateral to the direction of attention showed a positive covariation
303 with BOLD signal in low-level visual cortex, left insula, and bilateral pulvinar (**Fig. 4**),
304 regardless of the direction of attention. In contrast to the clear contralateral-vs-ipsilateral
305 differences in the early gamma-band occipital EEG on the scalp (**Fig. 3**), no significant
306 lateralizations for the early gamma-band / fMRI covariations with respect to the direction
307 of attention were seen in occipital cortex.

308 The covariation observed in the pulvinar was particularly interesting, as this
309 subcortical structure, due to its anatomical geometry, does not produce an open field
310 that can be picked up at the scalp, thereby making it inaccessible to direct EEG
311 measures (Nunez and Srinivasan, 2006). Thus, the observed covariation in the pulvinar
312 likely results from it modulating cortical activity that is then picked up by EEG. The

313 pulvinar has been previously implicated in shifting spatial attention (Petersen et al.,
314 1987; LaBerge and Buchsbaum, 1990) and the suppression of irrelevant information
315 (Strumpf et al., 2012). Moreover, the pulvinar has been linked to the regulation of alpha
316 oscillations and alpha-gamma cross-frequency coupling in visual cortex in monkeys
317 (Saalman et al., 2012), and to the generation of resting-state occipital alpha
318 oscillations in human EEG-fMRI studies (Liu et al., 2012). Yet, given the lack of a direct
319 scalp-level activity measure, the attentional modulation of occipital alpha is often
320 attributed to frontal and parietal cortical structures without reference to the thalamus at
321 all (Corbetta and Shulman, 2002; but see Shipp, 2004).

322 To further examine the role of the pulvinar in attentional control, we created
323 functional ROIs for the left and right pulvinar derived from the early-latency gamma-
324 covariation results (see **Fig. 4**) and examined the alpha and late-gamma covariations
325 within these ROIs. Unlike early gamma, where covariation was present bilaterally in the
326 pulvinar for both left and right cues, significant cue-direction X hemisphere interactions
327 were found for both ipsilateral alpha ($F = 7.44$, $p = .015$) and late contralateral gamma
328 ($F = 4.51$, $p = .05$) covariations (main effects of cue direction and hemisphere were all
329 non-significant, p 's $> .49$). These alpha and late-gamma covariation effects, however,
330 were in opposite hemispheres. Alpha power over occipital scalp ipsilateral to the
331 direction of attention covaried positively with the BOLD signal in the ipsilateral pulvinar,
332 whereas gamma power over contralateral occipital scalp covaried positively with the
333 BOLD signal in the contralateral pulvinar. Notably, EEG from the opposite scalp sites
334 (contralateral scalp for alpha and ipsilateral scalp for gamma) showed no significant
335 covariation in the pulvinar (all p 's $> .63$).

336

337

--- Insert **Fig. 4** about here ---

338

339 **Alpha and gamma reflect distinct mechanisms for anticipatory modulation of**
340 **visual cortical activity**

341 Alpha and late-Gamma activity covaried with BOLD signal in occipital cortex, but
342 the lateralization with respect to the direction of attention was reversed for the two
343 frequency bands (**Fig. 5**). Ipsilateral increases in alpha power on the scalp were related
344 to decreased BOLD signals in ipsilateral visual and parietal cortices. Conversely,
345 contralateral increases in late gamma power on the scalp were related to increased
346 BOLD signals in contralateral visual cortex. Neither contralateral alpha nor ipsilateral
347 gamma significantly covaried with BOLD responses.

348

349

--- Insert **Fig. 5** about here ---

350

351 These alpha and gamma covariations also appeared to occur in distinct regions
352 of visual cortex, with the alpha covariations occurring in more medial and posterior
353 regions of occipital cortex and the gamma covariations in more lateral and anterior
354 regions. This pattern suggests a hierarchical distinction in attentional suppression vs.
355 enhancement. For example, suppression of irrelevant information could take place at
356 lower levels of processing, reducing processing of information from the to-be-ignored
357 visual field earlier in the processing stream, whereas efficient target enhancement could

358 happen at higher levels of visual processing specific to the relevant features of the
359 target (Slagter et al., 2015).

360 It is possible, however, that BOLD-EEG covariation in the occipital lobes actually
361 does occur in the same locations for both the alpha and gamma frequencies, but
362 appears distinct in the whole-brain analyses due to individual variability, along with
363 sensitivity limitations in such analyses. Thus, we examined covariational activity for
364 early contralateral gamma, ipsilateral alpha, and late contralateral gamma within
365 functional ROIs constructed from significant clusters observed in the alpha covariation
366 analysis, and in occipital and parietal ROIs delineated in the Attend Cue vs. Interpret
367 Cue fMRI BOLD contrast (**Fig. 6**). If the distinct alpha and gamma covariations are the
368 result of poor sensitivity in the whole-brain analysis, then spatially-specific covariations
369 should be observed for both the alpha and late gamma within the two sets of occipital
370 ROIs. In contrast, if alpha and gamma activity recorded at the scalp indeed reflects the
371 targeting of distinct visual areas for attentional suppression versus for attentional
372 enhancement, respectively, then spatially-specific alpha and gamma covariations
373 should occur in distinct ROIs.

374 As can be seen in **Fig 6**, no spatially specific activity (i.e., no cue-direction X
375 hemisphere interaction) was apparent for either the early or late gamma covariation
376 within the alpha-derived ROIs. Within the occipital BOLD ROIs, however, spatially-
377 specific activity was observed, but only for the late contralateral gamma covariation.
378 Within the parietal BOLD ROIs, significant covariations with early gamma were
379 observed in both hemispheres for both left and right cues, but the activity was not
380 spatially specific, mirroring the spatially non-specific activity observed in the pulvinar

381 during this same time-frequency window. Together, these results demonstrate that
382 spatially-specific attentional modulations in the alpha and late gamma EEG are related
383 to distinct BOLD modulations in different areas of visual cortex. More specifically, scalp-
384 measured changes in contralateral gamma are most closely related to the increased
385 BOLD observed contralateral to the to-be-attended location in space. Alpha, on the
386 other hand, shows an inverse relationship with BOLD signal in early visual cortex
387 ipsilateral to the to-be-attended location in space, providing further evidence that
388 increases in alpha specifically reflect a mechanism for suppressing neural activity for to-
389 be-ignored locations.

390 --- Insert **Fig. 6** about here ---

391

392 **Discussion**

393 For both the alpha-band and late gamma-band EEG observed on the scalp,
394 spatially-specific modulations of activity in anticipation of an upcoming stimulus were
395 related to modulations of the BOLD signal in the pulvinar and occipital cortex.
396 The fact that the pulvinar does not have the neuroanatomical geometry to be a primary
397 generator of the scalp EEG activity itself (Nunez and Srinivasan, 2006) suggests that
398 the covariational activity pattern in this subcortical structure reflects its possible role as a
399 regulatory control structure, sending spatially specific signals to modulate the excitability
400 of visual cortex. It is possible that these covariations arise due to the pulvinar
401 maintaining a condensed representation of visual cortex activity (Shipp, 2001). However,
402 given recent evidence that the pulvinar is involved in filtering distracting information
403 (Fischer & Whitney, 2012; Strumpf et al., 2012) and regulates cortical alpha oscillations

404 as well as alpha-gamma cross-frequency coupling in visual cortex (Saalman et al.,
405 2012), we suggest it is more likely that the pulvinar is involved in directly modulating
406 visual cortical activity.

407 The covariations in the pulvinar were all positive, but occurred in opposite
408 hemispheres relative to the direction of attention for the different frequency bands:
409 Increased alpha over ipsilateral scalp was linked to increased fMRI activity in the
410 ipsilateral pulvinar as well as to decreased fMRI activity in ipsilateral occipital cortex.
411 Such a pattern is consistent with the hypothesis that increased alpha indexes
412 suppression of activity in the hemisphere that processes the to-be-ignored region of
413 space, and that this suppression is orchestrated, at least in part, by thalamocortical
414 connections from the pulvinar (Saalman et al., 2012). In contrast, in the hemisphere
415 processing the to-be-attended location, increased gamma late in the cue-target interval
416 was linked to increased fMRI activity in the contralateral pulvinar and occipital cortex,
417 suggesting that the thalamocortical connections between the pulvinar and occipital
418 cortex can both suppress and enhance processing.

419 One question that arises from these results, however, is why activity in the
420 pulvinar is rarely observed in fMRI studies of spatial orienting, despite some early PET
421 (LaBerge and Buchsbaum, 1990) and animal (Petersen et al., 1987; Saalman et al.,
422 2012) studies that have suggested the pulvinar plays a key role in shifting attention.
423 Many fMRI studies of voluntary spatial attention have not reported thalamic activity in
424 response to attention-directing cues, focusing instead on activations observed in
425 attentional control regions in the frontal and parietal cortices, and for those that have
426 reported thalamic activity the attentional modulations were either not limited to the

427 pulvinar part of the thalamus or did not show any spatial specificity (Kastner et al., 2004;
428 Woldorff et al., 2004). As a result, anticipatory modulation of visual cortex is typically
429 attributed to direct cortical input from these frontal and parietal regions (Liu et al., 2014;
430 Marshall et al., 2015), whereas the pulvinar tends not to be included in many of the
431 most commonly cited models of attention control (Corbetta and Shulman, 2002;
432 Capotosto et al., 2009).

433 Our results provide evidence that the pulvinar does in fact play a role in the
434 shifting of spatial attention, while also providing possible explanations for why this
435 activity is typically not observed in traditional fMRI studies. First, the covariations with
436 alpha occurred in the pulvinar ipsilateral to the direction of attention, while covariations
437 with gamma occurred in the contralateral pulvinar, with both of these cortical EEG
438 measures covarying with increases in the pulvinar BOLD signal. Without the ability to
439 separate the signals in the two hemispheres based on EEG frequency, any pulvinar
440 activity would thus appear to be bilateral for both leftward- and rightward-directing cues,
441 rather than being spatially-specific (e.g., Kastner et al., 2004). Second, the covariations
442 between the EEG and the pulvinar BOLD were time- and frequency-limited, as
443 evidenced by the lack of spatially-specific covariations in the early gamma time window.
444 Activity in the pulvinar may be too short-lived to produce a strong event-related BOLD
445 signal, or activity related to different time-frequency effects could cancel each other out
446 in the slow event-related fMRI response. Finally, it is possible that the BOLD activity in
447 the pulvinar varies from trial-to-trial with respect to attention, but that this variation
448 simply averages out to a near-zero (or near baseline) value and thus is not observed in
449 the average BOLD signal difference between conditions.

450 These considerations point to the value of combining multiple methods to
451 investigate the role of thalamocortical communication in controlling attention. fMRI
452 alone has not heretofore been able to delineate the contributions of the pulvinar in this
453 type of top-down attentional control, and scalp-recorded EEG cannot be used to directly
454 measure neural activity in this subcortical structure (Nunez and Srinivasan, 2006). By
455 recording the EEG concurrently with fMRI we were able to implicate the pulvinar as a
456 control structure involved in the modulation of spatially-specific occipital oscillatory EEG
457 and cortical activation observed during visuospatial shifts of attention, presumably in
458 conjunction with the attentional control regions in the frontal and parietal cortices.

459 A second important finding from this covariational analysis is that the attentional
460 suppression (alpha) and enhancement (gamma) effects were observed in distinct
461 regions of visual cortex, rather than simply in homologous regions of the two
462 hemispheres. Positive covariations between BOLD signal and occipital gamma-band
463 EEG most closely corresponded to the task-related changes in the average BOLD
464 signal observed with fMRI alone, consistent with previous studies relating BOLD signals
465 and gamma-band EEG (Logothetis et al., 2001; Foucher et al., 2003; Lachaux et al.,
466 2007). These gamma covariations occurred contralateral to the attended location,
467 consistent with increased neuronal excitability in visual cortical regions that will process
468 the upcoming targets. In contrast, the BOLD signal covaried inversely with occipital
469 alpha-band EEG ipsilateral to the attended direction, representing decreased excitability
470 in visual cortex processing of to-be-ignored locations, but these alpha covariational
471 effects occurred in distinct regions from those observed in the average BOLD and

472 occurred earlier in time than the gamma-related enhancement of to-be-attended
473 locations.

474 Lastly, an additional factor to consider here is that, given that visual placeholders
475 were present throughout the task, it is possible that participants were specifically
476 suppressing the placeholder as a distractor object, akin to the distractor suppression by
477 the pulvinar that has been observed in visual search (e.g., Fischer & Whitney, 2012;
478 Strumpf et al., 2013). Cue-elicited anticipatory modulations of alpha-band EEG are still
479 observed in the absence of spatial landmarks (e.g., when suppressing an entire sensory
480 modality; Fu et al., 2001), suggesting that visual landmarks may help one home in on
481 the spatial location to be suppressed (i.e., increase precision), but are not necessary for
482 suppression to occur. Further studies without placeholders would be required to
483 determine if having a visible object to suppress is necessary to observe this ipsilateral
484 pulvinar activity.

485 The spatial and time-frequency separation of these effects suggests that
486 attentional suppression and enhancement happen at different points in time in the
487 processing cascade and operate at different levels of visual processing. We suggest
488 that these two attentional mechanisms are deployed in a flexible and adaptive manner
489 based on the demands of the task. In the present study, the entire uncued hemifield
490 was always task-irrelevant (i.e., a target would never appear at the uncued location),
491 such that early visual processing for that region of space, or at least from within that
492 visual placeholder, could be rapidly suppressed to limit any distraction from that side.
493 Rather, our task required participants to perform a difficult discrimination of two objects
494 at the cued location, and thus the effects may have included attentional enhancement

495 specifically in areas necessary for optimal target-discrimination performance. Variations
 496 in the task demands would likely lead to other patterns of modulation in occipital cortex,
 497 with the coordination of suppression and enhancement involving the thalamocortical
 498 connections from the pulvinar to the relevant occipital regions. Future studies using
 499 multimethodological approaches will be helpful for further delineation of the subcortical-
 500 cortical coordination of attentional control and influence in humans.

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Figure Legends

608 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of a target-present trial (see text for details).

609 **Figure 2.** Average BOLD signal ($p < .01$, FDR corrected, $k=25$). Attentional control
610 regions identified from the Attend Cue vs. Interpret Cue BOLD contrast (top row) and
611 spatially-specific occipital activations identified from contrasting activity for leftward-
612 directing versus rightward-directing cues.

613 **Figure 3.** Average event-related responses and scalp topographies of contralateral-
614 minus-ipsilateral differences for alpha-band (top) and gamma-band (bottom) EEG. Light
615 grey boxes denote time windows with significant ($p < .05$) differences between
616 ipsilateral and contralateral electrodes that were used for covariational analyses.

617 **Figure 4.** Covariations in the Pulvinar. Early gamma for attend cues (left and right)
618 positively covaried with BOLD signal in the pulvinar and early visual cortex ($p < .001$
619 uncorrected, $k > 25$; top panel). This contrast was then used to create functional ROIs in
620 the left and right pulvinar (bottom panel). Both ipsilateral alpha and late contralateral
621 gamma showed spatially specific positive covariations in the pulvinar ROIs (significant

622 cue direction X hemisphere interaction). Early gamma covariations are shown for
623 comparative purposes only, as these regions were defined by having significant early
624 gamma covariation activity. *= $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$

625 **Figure 5.** Covariation between BOLD and ipsilateral alpha (top) and contralateral late
626 gamma (bottom). Alpha was negatively correlated with occipital and parietal BOLD
627 activity in the hemisphere ipsilateral to the cued location, whereas late gamma was
628 positively correlated with occipital BOLD signal contralateral to the cued location. (p
629 $< .001$ uncorrected, $k = 25$).

630 **Figure 6.** Covariations within functional ROIs based on the alpha covariation (cyan and
631 blue bars) and occipital (red and orange bars) and parietal (purple and magenta bars)
632 BOLD responses. Spatially-specific alpha and late-gamma covariations (significant
633 hemisphere X cue direction interaction) occurred in distinct regions of visual cortex.
634 Alpha covariations within the alpha-defined ROIs are shown for comparative purposes
635 only, as these regions were defined by having significant alpha covariation activity.
636 Some evidence of spatially-specific covariations was also seen in the parietal regions
637 for alpha and late gamma, but these interactions did not reach significance. *= $p < .05$,
638 ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$

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Tables

Table 1. Locations of functional ROIs

Region	Peak Voxel Location (MNI)			Cluster Size (voxels)
	x	y	z	
<i>BOLD: Attend Cue – Interpret Cue</i>				
Left Occipital	-42	-60	-8	493
Right Occipital	34	-66	-12	520
Left Parietal	-24	-58	46	282
Right Parietal	26	-54	52	108
<i>Covariation: Ipsilateral Alpha</i>				
Left Occipital	-26	-86	0	128
Right Occipital	38	-80	-4	290
<i>Covariation: Early Contralateral Gamma</i>				
Left Pulvinar	-14	-30	4	60
Right Pulvinar	14	-34	6	79

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