

1 **A causal test of affect processing bias in response to affect regulation.**

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27 **Abstract**

28 In this study we merged methods from machine learning and human neuroimaging to causally  
29 test the role of self-induced affect processing states in biasing the affect processing of subsequent  
30 image stimuli. To test this causal relationship we developed a novel paradigm in which (n=40)  
31 healthy adult participants observed affective neural decodings of their real-time functional  
32 magnetic resonance image (rtfMRI) responses as feedback to guide explicit regulation of their  
33 brain (and corollary affect processing) state towards a positive valence goal state. By this method  
34 individual differences in affect regulation ability were controlled. Attaining this brain-affect goal  
35 state triggered the presentation of pseudo-randomly selected affectively congruent (positive  
36 valence) or incongruent (negative valence) image stimuli drawn from the International Affective  
37 Picture Set. Separately, subjects passively viewed randomly triggered positively and negatively  
38 valent image stimuli during fMRI acquisition. Multivariate neural decodings of the affect  
39 processing induced by these stimuli were modeled using the task trial type (state- versus  
40 randomly-triggered) as the fixed-effect of a general linear mixed-effects model. Random effects  
41 were modeled subject-wise. We found that self-induction of a positive valence brain state  
42 significantly positively biased valence processing of subsequent stimuli. As a manipulation check,  
43 we validated affect processing state induction achieved by the image stimuli using independent  
44 psychophysiological response measures of hedonic valence and autonomic arousal. We also  
45 validated the predictive fidelity of the trained neural decoding models using brain states induced  
46 by an out-of-sample set of image stimuli. Beyond its contribution to our understanding of the  
47 neural mechanisms that bias affect processing this work demonstrated the viability of novel  
48 experimental paradigms triggered by pre-defined cognitive states. This line of individual  
49 differences research potentially provides neuroimaging scientists with a valuable tool for causal  
50 exploration of the roles and identities of intrinsic cognitive processing mechanisms that shape our  
51 perceptual processing of sensory stimuli.

52

## 53 **Introduction**

54 Our capacity to process and regulate emotions is central to our ability to optimize psychosocial  
55 functioning and quality of life[1]. As a corollary, disruptions in emotion processing and regulation  
56 are broadly ascribed to psychiatric illnesses including borderline personality disorder, depression,  
57 anxiety disorders, PTSD, and substance-use disorders[2] which negatively impact quality of life  
58 and functioning[3,4]. In light of this, a primary focus of cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT), an  
59 efficacious treatment for disorders involving emotion dysregulation[5], is the development of  
60 mental strategies for identifying and volitionally reducing negatively biased emotional states that  
61 are the product of maladaptive emotion processing and regulation. Neuroimaging has provided  
62 insight into the functional neurocircuits involved in CBT-based emotion regulation strategies[6];  
63 however, the causal neurobiological mechanisms by which these strategies induce adaptive  
64 emotion processing over time remain elusive.

65 Research into the effects of temporal context on affect and emotion processing may have  
66 implications for increasing our understanding of the neural bases of emotion regulation. Prior work  
67 has demonstrated that changing affective context prior to an emotional target shapes the  
68 processing of that target. Such priming effects both accelerate and weaken the emotional  
69 response to affectively congruent target stimuli[7]. Manipulations of affect processing state impact  
70 the temporal structure of the neural responses to subsequent affective image stimuli[8] as well as  
71 the corollary psychophysiological responses to those stimuli[9,10]. Further, stimulus-cued  
72 emotion processing states bias the self-reported perception of successive emotional stimuli[11].

73 These findings are consistent with effects that would be predicted by the deployment of  
74 situational and attentional modification strategies according to the process model of emotion  
75 regulation[12] and point to potential underlying mechanisms driving CBT-related changes to  
76 emotion processing and thus its therapeutic efficacy. However, the neural representation of the  
77 observed ability of affective cognitions related to these strategies to bias subsequent emotional  
78 responses has not yet been causally tested. Thus, the primary aim of this work was to contribute

79 to our knowledge of the mechanisms underlying emotion regulation (operationalized as affect  
80 regulation) by experimentally demonstrating that self-induced and verified affect processing  
81 states causally bias the affect processing of subsequent image stimuli.

82 Real-time functional magnetic resonance imaging (rtfMRI), when used to generate brain  
83 activation feedback[13] (i.e., rtfMRI-guided neuromodulation or neurofeedback), reflects a  
84 promising methodology that has not to our knowledge been applied for mechanistic testing of how  
85 the neural correlates of such feedback-induced affect processing states causally bias subsequent  
86 affect processing. Here, the applied advantage of rtfMRI is that self-induced neurocognitive states  
87 (achieved via rtfMRI guidance) can be verified and used as independent experimental variables  
88 to trigger subsequent affective stimulus-response characterizations. Yet, a challenge to rtfMRI-  
89 guided neuromodulation studies, and brain computer interface (BCI) research in general, is the  
90 large individual variation observed in subjects' ability to volitionally modulate their cognitive states  
91 – the well-known “BCI-illiteracy phenomenon”[14].

92 Within BCI studies, neurophysiological and psychological variables (e.g., self-confidence  
93 and concentration) were shown to significantly predict performance variation[15–17]. However,  
94 very little is known about the source of individual differences in the ability to volitionally regulate  
95 affective states. Therefore, the secondary aim of this project was to characterize individual  
96 variation in the ability to self-induce affective states using neurofeedback according to the  
97 subjects' unguided self-induction ability. This research has direct clinical relevance to informing  
98 our understanding of the neuroregulation capabilities of psychiatric patients to identify those most  
99 or least capable of guided affect regulation.

100 To explore our aims, we developed a novel task in which healthy adult participants utilized  
101 rtfMRI feedback to explicitly regulate their brain response and corollary affect processing states  
102 toward a goal of extreme pleasantness (i.e., positive valence). Attaining this brain-affect state  
103 triggered the presentation of an affectively congruent (positive valence) or incongruent (negative  
104 valence) image stimulus drawn from the International Affective Picture Set[18] (IAPS). Between

105 regulation trials participants passively viewed (without regulation) IAPS stimuli associated with  
106 either positive or negative valence. We then compared image stimulus-cued brain and affective  
107 responses arising from explicitly self-induced feedback-facilitated positive valence states versus  
108 random affective states (passive viewing) and causally tested the ability of self-induced positive  
109 valence states to bias the affect processing of subsequent image stimuli.

110 Our results reveal that self-induction of a positive affective state causally biases  
111 subsequent affect processing responses to image stimuli, suggesting a potential mechanism by  
112 which CBT-based treatment strategies work to reduce negatively biased affect processing states.  
113 We also found that individual differences in the intrinsic ability to self-induce affective arousal  
114 without guidance informed the attainment of self-induced positive valence in the presence rtfMRI  
115 guidance, further supporting the established role of attentional deployment in explaining BCI  
116 performance.

117

## 118 **Methods**

### 119 Ethics Statement

120 All participants provided written informed consent after receiving written and verbal descriptions  
121 of the study procedures, risks, and benefits. We performed all study procedures and analysis with  
122 approval and oversight of the Institutional Review Board at the University of Arkansas for Medical  
123 Sciences (UAMS) in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and relevant institutional  
124 guidelines and policies.

125

### 126 Participants

127 We enrolled healthy adult participants (n=40) having the following demographic characteristics:  
128 age [mean(s.d.)]: 38.8(13.3), range 20–65; sex: 22 (55%) female; race/ethnicity: 28 (70.%) self-  
129 reporting as White or Caucasian, 9 (22.5%) as Black or African-American, 1 (2.5%) as Asian, and  
130 2 (5%) self-reporting as other; education [mean(s.d.)]: 16.8(2.2) years, range 12–23; WAIS-IV IQ

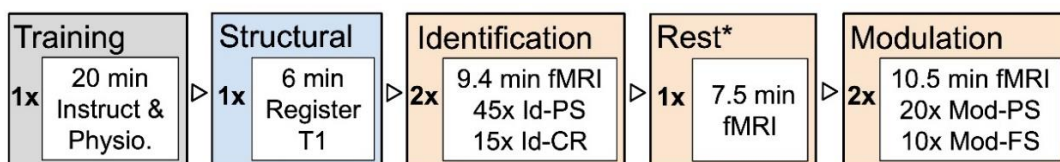
131 [mean(s.d.)]: 102.5(15.3), range 73–129. All of the study’s participants were right-handed  
132 (assessed via Edinburgh Handedness Inventory[19]) native-born United States citizens who were  
133 medically healthy and exhibited no current Axis I psychopathology, including mood disorders, as  
134 assessed by the SCID-IV clinical interview[4]. All participants reported no current use of  
135 psychotropic medications and produced a negative urine screen for drugs of abuse (cocaine,  
136 amphetamines, methamphetamines, marijuana, opiates, and benzodiazepines) immediately prior  
137 to both the clinical interview and MRI scan. When indicated, we corrected participants’ vision to  
138 20/20 using an MRI compatible lens system (MediGoggles™, Oxfordshire, United Kingdom), and  
139 we excluded all participants endorsing color blindness.

140

#### 141 Experiment Design.

142 Following the provision of informed consent, subjects visited the Brain Imaging Research Center  
143 of the University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences on two separate days. On Study Day 1 a  
144 trained research assistant assessed all subjects for major medical and psychiatric disorders as  
145 well as administered instruments to collect the following data to be used as either secondary  
146 variables hypothesized to explain individual variance in affect regulation-related neural activity,  
147 covariates of no interest, or to assess inclusion/exclusion criteria. The participant returned to the  
148 BIRC for Study Day 2 within 30 days after Study Day 1 to complete the MRI acquisition. During  
149 this day, the participant received task training and completed the full MRI acquisition protocol,  
150 depicted in Figure 1.

151



152

153 **Figure 1:** Study Day 2 Experimental tasks: order, number of repetitions, duration, and stimuli.

154 *Tasks are colored by role. Gray depicts task training and application of psychophysiology*  
155 *recording apparatus. Blue depicts brain structural image acquisition. Orange depicts functional*  
156 *image acquisition. Identification and Modulation blocks of the fMRI acquisition summarize the*  
157 *relevant trial types used within that task (see Neuroimaging section for abbreviations). \*Training*  
158 *of real-time multivariate pattern analysis predictive models was performed concurrently with the*  
159 *Resting State task of the fMRI acquisition.*

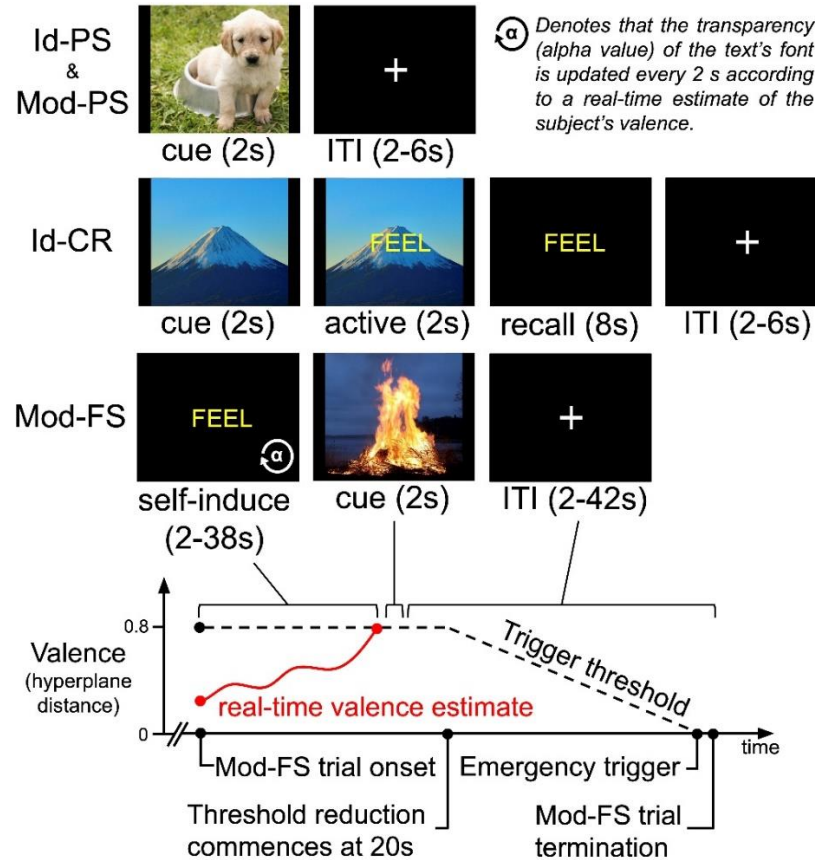
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161 *Training:* Each participant received a video-based overview of the experiment to be  
162 performed on that day as well as training on the study's task variations and trial types. The  
163 participant was offered the opportunity to use the restroom and then was moved to the MRI  
164 scanner room and fully outfitted with psychophysiological recording equipment.

165 *Neuroimaging:* For each subject we captured a registration scan and detailed T1-weighted  
166 structural image. We then acquired functional MRI data for three task variations: identification,  
167 resting state, and modulation. Identification (Id) task acquisition consisted of 2 x 9.4 min fMRI  
168 scans during which the participant was presented with 120 images drawn from the International  
169 Affective Picture System[18] (IAPS) to support one of two trial types (see Figure 2): 90 passive  
170 stimulus (PS) trials and 30 cued-recall (CR) trials. Identification task PS trials (abbreviated Id-PS)  
171 presented an image for 2 s (cue) succeeded by a fixation cross for a random inter-trial interval  
172 (ITI) sampled uniformly from the range 2–6 s. Identification task cued-recall (Id-CR) trials were  
173 multi-part: a cue image was presented for 2 s followed by an active cue response step for 2 s (the  
174 word “FEEL” overlaying the image) followed by the word FEEL alone for 8 s, which signaled the  
175 participant to actively recall and re-experience the affective content of the cue image, followed by  
176 a 2–6 s ITI. During pre-scan training on the Id-CR task's recall condition, subjects were instructed  
177 to “Imagine the last picture you saw as best you can. Try to make yourself feel exactly how you  
178 felt when you saw this picture the first time. Hold that feeling the whole time you see the word  
179 FEEL.” Within each scan, Id-PS and Id-CR trials were pseudo-randomly sequentially ordered to

180 minimize correlations between the hemodynamic response function (HRF)-derived regressors of  
 181 the tasks. This order was fixed for all subjects.

182



183

184 **Figure 2:** Summary of experimental task trial designs. (Id-PS): Identification task passive stimulus  
 185 trials, which were identical to Modulation task passive stimulus (Mod-PS) trials. (Id-CR):  
 186 Identification task cued-recall trials. (Mod-FS): Modulation task feedback-triggered stimulus trials.  
 187 (Bottom): depiction of a hypothetical Mod-FS trial for the experimental design.

188

189 During resting state acquisition, we acquired 7.5 min of fMRI data in which the subject  
 190 performed mind-wandering with eyes open while observing a fixation cross. During training,  
 191 subjects were instructed to “Keep your eyes open, look at the cross in front of you, and let your  
 192 brain think whatever it wants to.” Concurrently with the resting state task, the real-time variant of



193 the multivoxel pattern analysis (MVPA) prediction model (see below) was fit using data drawn  
194 from the Identification task fMRI data to define individual brain state representations of the affect  
195 processing goal.

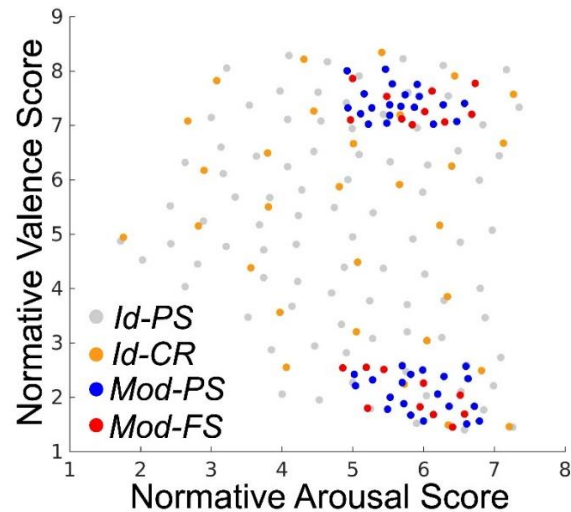
196 Modulation (Mod) task acquisition consisted of 2 x 10.5 min fMRI scans during which the  
197 participant was presented with 60 IAPS images according to two trial types (see Fig 2): 40 passive  
198 stimulus (Mod-PS) trials, which were identically formatted to the Id-PS trials, and 20 feedback-  
199 triggered stimulus (Mod-FS) trials. Mod-FS trials used real-time fMRI feedback of the subject's  
200 decoded affective state to guide them in self-inducing affective brain states associated with their  
201 individualized representation of extreme positive valence. The computer system monitored the  
202 subject's decoded valence processing level at each acquisition volume of fMRI data and if that  
203 decoding met pre-defined criteria (i.e., the goal state, which we defined as hyperplane distance  $\geq$   
204 0.8 for 4 consecutive EPI volumes) then a positively (congruent) or negatively (incongruent) valent  
205 image stimulus was triggered as the test stimulus. The brain state criteria representing the affect  
206 processing goal state were determined by the results of an initial pilot of the experiment to identify  
207 acquisition parameters that were challenging but consistently reachable. Within each scan, Mod-  
208 PS and Mod-FS trials were pseudo-randomly sequentially ordered to minimize correlations  
209 between the hemodynamic response function (HRF)-derived regressors of the tasks. This order  
210 was fixed for all subjects.

211 We provided real-time visual feedback during Mod-FS trials by manipulating the level of  
212 transparency of the word FEEL, which was the cue to volitionally regulate affect to an extreme  
213 positive valence. The transparency of the text was scaled to reflect real-time estimates of subject's  
214 represented valence processing with respect to the desired hyperplane distance threshold. This  
215 was achieved by mapping MVPA prediction model hyperplane distances (see below) from their  
216 base range [-1.25,1.25] to the range of possible transparencies,  $\alpha \in [0,1]$ . Fully transparent text  
217 ( $\alpha=0$ ) appeared as a black screen and denoted poor affect regulation performance, i.e., highly  
218 negative valence. Fully opaque text ( $\alpha=1$ ) appeared bright yellow and denoted good performance.

219 The transparency of the text was reset every 2 s (reflecting the momentary hyperplane distance  
220 prediction based upon each EPI volume, TR=2000 ms). The transparency was adjusted  
221 (approximately 20 frames-per-second) to present smooth transitions toward the brain-affect goal  
222 state. The initial hyperplane distance threshold was fixed for 20 seconds. If the subject had not  
223 attained the threshold (i.e. triggered the test stimulus) by this time then the threshold was linearly  
224 and continuously lowered to 0 over the subsequent 18 s at which point the stimulus was  
225 automatically triggered even if the threshold had not been attained (Fig. 2).

226 *Stimulus Selection:* We sampled 180 IAPS images to use as affect processing induction  
227 stimuli. Identification task stimuli were sampled computationally using a previously published  
228 algorithm[20] that selects images such that the subspace of the valence-arousal plane for  
229 normative scores within the IAPS dataset is maximally spanned (see Fig 3). We performed this  
230 full-range sampling process first for the 90 images used in Id-PS trials. The IAPS identifiers of  
231 these images were previously reported[21]. We then separately (but similarly) sampled an  
232 additional 30 images for use in Id-CR trials. The IAPS identifiers of these images were also  
233 previously reported[22]. Next, we constructed extreme polar subsets of positively and negatively  
234 valenced image stimuli by constructing thresholds of permissible valence and arousal scores.  
235 Valence ( $v$ ) was constrained such that:  $v \geq 7$  or  $v \leq 2.6$ . We then iteratively constrained the  
236 permissible arousal scores until we identified positively and negatively valent image subsets that  
237 did not exhibit a group mean difference in arousal,  $a$ , scores (found to be  $4.6 < a < 6.8$ ) thereby  
238 controlling for arousal response as a stimulus subset variable. We then sampled 30 images each  
239 from these subsets and uniformly randomly assigned these images to Mod-PS trials ( $n=40$ ) and  
240 Mod-FS trials ( $n=20$ ), respectively. The outcome of this sampling and assignment process is  
241 presented in Figure 3. The specific IAPS identities of these images are reported in Supplemental  
242 Table 1.

243



244

245 **Figure 3:** Normative valence and arousal scores for stimuli selected for each of the four  
246 experimental trial types. Summary statistics for Identification task stimuli are as follows: Id-PS  
247 valence [mean (std. dev)] 5.04 (1.95); Id-PS arousal [mean (std. dev)] 4.95 (1.40); Id-CR valence  
248 [mean (std. dev)] 5.30 (1.95); Id-CR arousal [mean (std. dev)] 4.99 (1.51). There were no  
249 significant differences in affect properties between the Id-PS and Id-CR cue stimuli for either  
250 valence ( $p=.49$ ; signed rank;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ ) or arousal ( $p=.86$ ; rank-sum;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ ).  
251 Summary statistics for the Modulation task stimuli are as follows. Mod-PS (pos. valence cluster)  
252 valence [mean (std. dev)] 7.41 (.30); Mod-PS (neg. valence cluster) valence [mean (std. dev)]  
253 2.08 (.36); Mod-FS (pos. valence cluster) valence [mean (std. dev)] 7.35 (0.32); Mod-FS (neg.  
254 valence cluster) valence [mean (std. dev)] 2.03 (0.41). Between the Mod-PS and Mod-FS stimuli  
255 in the positive valence cluster, there were no significant differences in valence ( $p=.60$ ; rank-sum;  
256  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ ) nor arousal ( $p=.25$ ; rank-sum;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ ). There were also no significant  
257 group differences in affect properties between the Mod-PS and Mod-FS stimuli in the negative  
258 valence cluster, either for valence ( $p=.74$ ; rank-sum;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ ) or arousal ( $p=.54$ ; rank-  
259 sum;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ ).

260

261 MR Image Acquisition

262 We acquired all imaging data using a Philips 3T Achieva X-series MRI scanner (Philips  
263 Healthcare, Eindhoven, The Netherlands) with a 32-channel head coil. We acquired anatomic  
264 images using an MPRAGE sequence (matrix = 256 x 256, 220 sagittal slices, TR/TE/FA =  
265 8.0844/3.7010/8°, final resolution = 0.94 x 0.94 x 1 mm<sup>3</sup>). We acquired functional images using  
266 the following EPI sequence parameters: TR/TE/FA = 2000 ms/30 ms/90°, FOV = 240 x 240 mm,  
267 matrix = 80 x 80, 37 oblique slices, ascending sequential slice acquisition, slice thickness = 2.5  
268 mm with 0.5 mm gap, final resolution 3.0 x 3.0 x 3.0 mm<sup>3</sup>.

269

### 270 Real-time MRI Preprocessing and Multivariate Pattern Classification

271 We implemented custom code that acquired each raw fMRI volume as it was written to disk by  
272 the MRI's computer system (post-reconstruction). Each volume underwent a preprocessing  
273 sequence using AFNI[23] in the following order: motion correction using rigid body alignment  
274 (corrected to the first volume of Identification task Run 1), detrending (re-meanned), spatial  
275 smoothing using a 8 mm FWHM Gaussian filter, and segmentation. To construct a multivariate  
276 pattern classifier to apply to the real-time data we partitioned the Id-PS stimuli into groups of  
277 positive and negative valence (according to the middle Likert normative score) and formed time-  
278 series by convolving the hemodynamic response function with the respective stimuli's onset times  
279 (scaling the HRF amplitude according to the absolute difference between the stimuli's normative  
280 scores and the middle Likert score). We then thresholded these time-series to construct class  
281 labels {-1,+1} (as well as unlabeled) for each volume of the Identification task scans. We then  
282 trained a linear support vector machine[24] (SVM) to classify the valence property of each fMRI  
283 volume. Note, during the Modulation task the classification hyperplane output of the SVM was  
284 linearly detrended in real-time as follows. A hyperplane distance,  $h$ , was computed for each  
285 volume,  $i$ . For  $h_i$ ,  $i \geq 40$ , the sequence of hyperplane distances  $h_1, \dots, h_{i-1}$  was used to compute a  
286 linear trend (via the Matlab detrend function) which was subtracted from the hyperplane distance,

287 hi. In summary, the described system achieved real-time preprocessing and generated affect  
288 state predictions for each EPI volume acquired in the Modulation task of the experiment. Total  
289 processing time of each volume was less than the TR=2 s parameter of the EPI sequence,  
290 allowing the real-time processing to maintain a consistent (reconstruction speed determined)  
291 latency throughout real-time acquisition.

292

### 293 Post-hoc MRI Preprocessing, Multivariate Pattern Classification, and Platt-Scaling

294 We used fmriprep[25] (version 20.0.0) software to conduct skull stripping, spatial normalization to  
295 the MNI152 atlas, and (fMRI only) despiking, slice-time correction, deobliquing, and alignment to  
296 normalized anatomical images. We then used fmriprep's motion parameter outputs to complete  
297 the preprocessing using AFNI, including regression of the mean time courses and temporal  
298 derivatives of the white matter (WM) and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) masks as well as a 24-  
299 parameter motion model[26,27], spatial smoothing (8 mm FWHM), detrending, temporal filtering  
300 (.0078 Hz high-pass), and scaling to percent signal change. For resting state functional images  
301 we took the additional step of global mean signal subtraction prior to smoothing.

302 We then conducted high-accuracy post-hoc multivoxel pattern analysis (MVPA), i.e.,  
303 neural decoding, of affect processing. We first extracted beta-series[28] neural activation maps  
304 associated with Id-PS trials from fully preprocessed fMRI data recorded during Identification task  
305 runs 1 and 2 according to well-documented methods[20]. We indexed these maps according to  
306 their corresponding stimulus,  $x$ . Therefore, the maps,  $\beta(x)$ , were paired with their respective  
307 normative scores  $\{\beta(x), v(x), a(x)\}$  to form training data for multivoxel pattern classification  
308 implemented via linear SVM. For classification training, valence and arousal scores were each  
309 converted into positive (+1) or negative (-1) class labels according to their relation to the middle  
310 Likert score. Classification hyperplane distances were then converted to probabilities (i.e., the  
311 probability of the positive class label) via Platt-scaling[29]. These probabilities served as the  
312 affective decodings of the subjects' brain states for further analysis.

313

#### 314 Affect Processing State Encodings

315 In order to visualize affect processing brain states in neuroanatomical space, we performed a  
316 previously reported encoding transformation of our decoding models[21]. In short, we applied the  
317 Haufe-transform[30] to each subject's classification hyperplane and formed a map of group-level  
318 mean encoding values for each gray matter voxel. Separately, we generated 1,000 mean  
319 encoding permutations by applying the Haufe-transform to the classification hyperplanes fit to  
320 each subject's true beta-series and randomly permuted sets of the true affective labels. Those  
321 voxels exhibiting extreme group-level mean encoding values in comparison to the observed  
322 group-level mean permutation encoding values (2-sided test,  $p < 0.05$ ) were kept for visualization  
323 of the brain state. We performed this encoding process separately for each dimension of affect  
324 processing (valence and arousal).

325

#### 326 Cued-Recall, Passive Stimulus, and Feedback-Triggered Stimulus Modeling

327 We also extracted beta-series for the cue and recall steps of the Id-CR trials, the cue step of the  
328 Mod-PS trials, and the cue step of the Mod-FS trials. We then used our fit SVM models to decode  
329 the valence and arousal properties of the experiment at these steps. For the Mod-PS trials, we  
330 also constructed beta-series for the moment of trial onset as well as 2 s prior to the cue step of  
331 the Mod-FS trials – these allowed us to validate the triggers for affective stimulus test  
332 presentations as well as to measure (post-hoc) the relative change of affect processing achieved  
333 by feedback-facilitated self-induction of positive valence processing.

334

#### 335 Surrogate Cued-Recall Task Modeling

336 Using previously reported methodology[31], we decoded the valence and arousal properties of  
337 each volume of Resting State fMRI data. We then uniformly randomly sampled 30 onset times for

338 surrogate Id-CR trials and extracted the affect properties of the respective cue and recall steps of  
339 these surrogate trials to be used as within-subject controls during analysis of the actual Id-CR  
340 trials.

341

#### 342 Psychophysiology Data Acquisition and Preprocessing

343 All MRI acquisitions included concurrent psychophysiological recordings conducted using the  
344 BIOPAC MP150 Data Acquisition System and AcqKnowledge software combined with the  
345 EDA100C-MRI module (skin conductance), TSD200-MRI pulse plethysmogram (heart rate),  
346 TSD221-MRI belt (respiration), and EMG100C-MRI module (facial electromyography). In line with  
347 prior work[32,33], we measured arousal independently based on skin conductance response  
348 (SCR) and valence based on facial electromyography (fEMG) response, specifically activity in the  
349 corrugator supercilli muscle (cEMG), which was shown in prior work to capture the full affective  
350 valence range of our affect processing induction design[22]. This work did not model the heart  
351 and respiratory rate data. We have extensively reported on our SCR electrode placement and  
352 preprocessing methods[21], and we recently reported our cEMG placement and preprocessing  
353 methods[22].

354

## 355 **Results**

### 356 Psychophysiological Response Validation of Affect Processing Induction via Image Stimuli.

357 We first verified the ability of the Identification task passive stimulus (Id-PS) trials to induce  
358 corollary psychophysiological responses[34] associated with affect processing in order to validate  
359 the inputs used to train our neural decoding models. We modeled the normative scores of the cue  
360 stimuli of Id-PS trials using psychophysiological response measures within a GLMM framework,  
361 respectively, for valence and arousal properties. Normative hedonic valence scores of the stimuli  
362 were modeled according to facial electromyographic responses in the corrugator supercilli as the



363 fixed effects. Normative autonomic arousal scores to the cue stimuli were modeled according to  
364 skin conductance responses as the fixed effects. In both models, we controlled for age and sex  
365 effects. Slope and intercept random-effects were modeled subject-wise. Both validation models  
366 detected significant stimulus-related induction of the anticipated physiological responses.  
367 Moreover, our cEMG-derived model of hedonic valence ( $\beta=.11$ ;  $p=0.001$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ )  
368 was selective for the valence property of affect – a cEMG-derived model of autonomic arousal  
369 was not significant ( $p=0.75$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Similarly, our SCR-derived model was  
370 selective for the autonomic arousal property of affect ( $\beta=.07$ ;  $p=.004$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ) –  
371 applied to hedonic valence the SCR response associations were not significant ( $\beta=0.02$ ;  $p=0.61$ ;  
372 F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). These results are consistent with the prior association of cEMG and SCR  
373 with the processing of the specific affect properties of valence and arousal, respectively, and  
374 support the induction of affect processing during the Id-PS trials.

375

#### 376 Affect Processing Measurement

377 We next demonstrated that our prediction models accurately decoded affect processing within  
378 neural activation patterns associated with Id-PS trials, reproducing the results of earlier work using  
379 similar modeling methodology[20]. Our tabulated prediction accuracy (averaged over 39 subjects  
380 completing the experiment) over the full stimulus set was highly significant for both valence  
381 ( $p<0.001$ ; signed rank;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \mu=.5$ ) and arousal ( $p<0.001$ ; signed rank;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \mu = .5$ ). We  
382 observed prediction performance comparable to the best known demonstrations of neural  
383 decoding of affect processing across the valence and arousal dimensions[20,35] when our  
384 measurements were restricted to those image stimuli exhibiting reliable brain state activations,  
385 i.e., the reliable stimulus set (Table 1), which were determined according to previously published  
386 methods[20]. These results support the validity of our neural decoding models as brain  
387 representations of affective valence and arousal.

388



**Table 1: Multivariate Neural Decoding Performance**

	<b>Valence</b>	<b>Arousal</b>
	Grp. Avg. Acc. (95% CI)	Grp. Avg. Acc. (95% CI)
Full Stimulus Set	.55 (.53,.57)	.61 (.59,.63)
Reliable Stimulus Set	.79 (.76,.82)	.75 (.72,.79)

389

390 Validation of Affect Decoding using Novel Stimuli

391 Prior to applying our decoding models to novel task domains, we first tested whether these models  
392 (originally fit to Id-PS features and labels) generalized to novel image stimuli. To perform this  
393 independent test we modeled, via GLMM, the normative affect scores of cue stimuli in Id-CR and  
394 Mod-PS trials. However, each test was unique. First, we modeled Id-PS task stimuli's normative  
395 scores as a function of decoded affect (separately for valence and arousal) controlling for the age  
396 and sex of the subjects and modeling random effects of affect decoding subject-wise. In Id-CR  
397 trials we found that neurally decoded valence was significantly positively associated with the  
398 valence normative score ( $\beta=.30$ ;  $p<.001$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Similarly, we found for Id-CR  
399 trials that neurally decoded arousal was significantly associated with the arousal normative score  
400 ( $\beta=.17$ ;  $p=.001$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Age and sex effects in both cases were not significant and  
401 random effects did not significantly improve the model's explained variance, which was very small  
402 for both valence ( $R^2_{adj}=.02$ ) and arousal ( $R^2_{adj}=.01$ ), respectively.

403 Next, we modeled the Mod-PS task stimuli's normative scores as a function of decoded  
404 affect (separately for valence and arousal normative scores). However, in this case we controlled  
405 for age and sex effects as well as the decoding of the complementary affective property in order  
406 to control for the bias of the sampling of the stimuli in this task (see Fig 3). In Mod-PS trials we  
407 found that decoded valence was significantly positively associated with the stimuli's normative  
408 valence scores ( $\beta=.58$ ;  $p<0.001$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). However, decoded arousal was

409 significantly negatively associated with normative valence scores ( $\beta=-.20$ ;  $p=0.02$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  
410  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Age and sex effects were not significant but random effects did significantly improve the  
411 model's explained variance ( $R^2_{adj}=.04$ ). In contrast, we found no significant associations between  
412 decoded arousal and the stimuli's normative arousal scores, which confirmed that the restriction  
413 of our sampling of the Mod-PS and Mod-FS stimuli to a narrow range of normative arousal was  
414 essential as a control for this confounding variable.

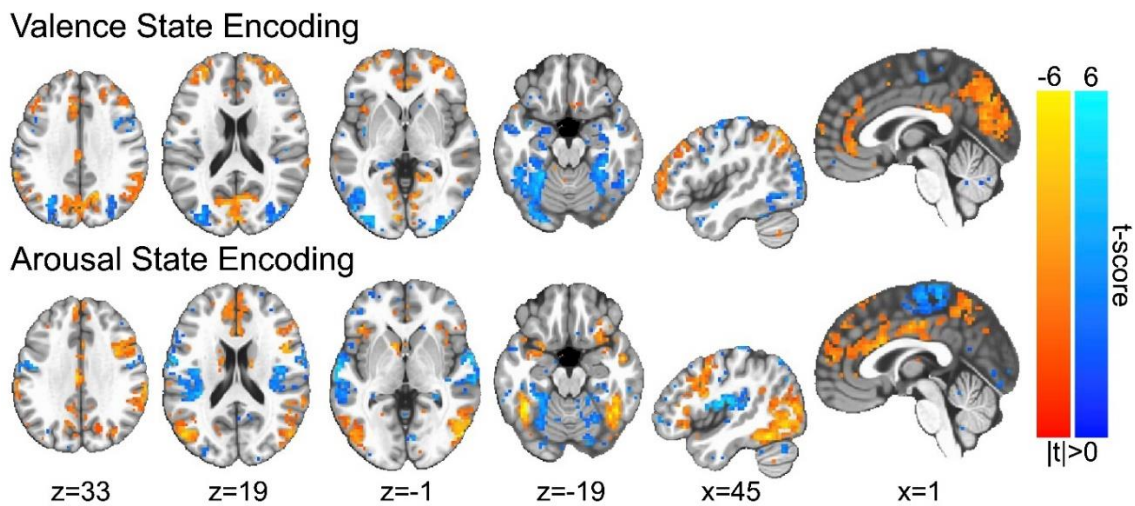
415

#### 416 Validating the Rigor and Reproducibility of Affective Brain States

417 In a final validation step, we sought to provide additional qualitative and quantitative evidence for  
418 the rigor and reproducibility of the affective brain states that we experimentally manipulated in this  
419 study. We computed the group-level encodings of both the arousal and valence brain states that  
420 survive permutation testing, which we present in Figure 4. Encodings of affect processing largely  
421 overlap with earlier multivariate[21] and univariate meta-analyses[36,37] of the neural encoding  
422 of core affect processing. We took the additional step of directly comparing these encodings to  
423 affect processing encodings that were computed for past studies that incorporated similar affect  
424 induction stimuli and used similar fMRI analysis pipelines but that were derived from separate  
425 sets of research subjects. Notably, these past studies found that affect processing predictions  
426 using the machine learning models underlying these encodings were significantly more correlated  
427 to the normative scores of the induction stimuli than predictive measures derived from  
428 psychophysiological responses across the independent dimensions of affective valence  
429 (measured via heart-rate deceleration[38]) and arousal (measured via skin conductance  
430 response[21]). Indeed, we found that the neural encodings computed for this study shared 36.5%  
431 of the variance across prior whole-brain gray-matter voxel-wise encodings of valence as well as  
432 31.1% of the variance across prior whole-brain voxel-wise encodings of arousal (see  
433 Supplemental Figure S1). Of note, the variance shared between these encodings rose to 87.0%  
434 and 85.6%, respectively for valence and arousal, when we restricted the comparison to only those

435 voxels that survived global permutation testing (i.e., the voxels presented in Figure 4).

436



437

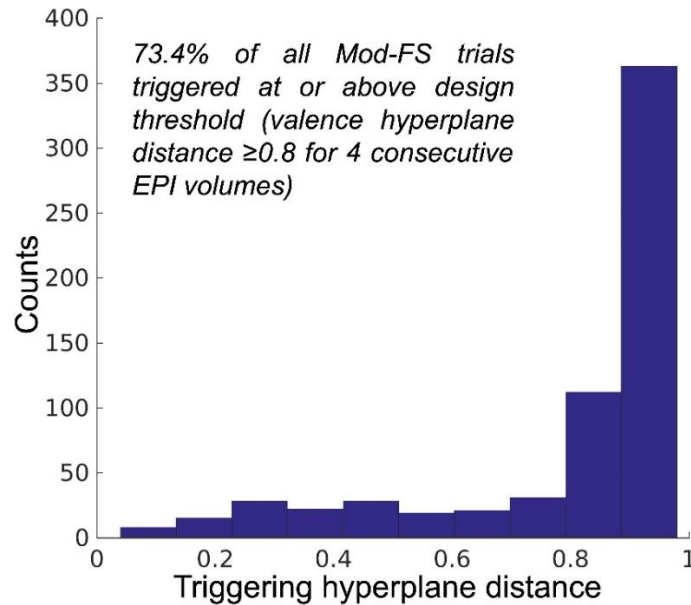
438 **Figure 4:** Group-level encodings of affective state processing. Color gradations indicate the  
439 group-level t-scores of the encoding parameters (red indicating positive valence or high arousal,  
440 blue indicating negative valence or low arousal). T-scores are presented only for those voxels in  
441 which encoding parameters survived global permutation testing ( $p < 0.05$ ). Image slices are  
442 presented in Talairach coordinate space and neurological convention. Maximum voxel intensity  
443 is  $|t| = 6.0$ , i.e., color saturates for t-scores with absolute values falling above this value.

444

#### 445 Real-time Stimulus Triggering

446 We next validated that our real-time feedback and brain-affect state triggering process functioned  
447 as designed. To test this we extracted the feedback signal calculated at the moment of stimulus  
448 trigger (including emergency triggering). The median feedback at the moment of trigger was  $\mu =$   
449  $.93$  ( $p < .001$ ; signed rank;  $\alpha = .05$ ;  $h_0: \mu = 0$ ). Nearly three-quarters (see Figure 5) of all trials  
450 triggered at or above the design threshold.

451



452

453 **Figure 5:** Distribution of average feedback scores at the moment of FT-PO trial stimulus trigger.

454

#### 455 Real-time fMRI-Guided Self-Induction of Positive Valence States

456 We next demonstrated that our primary experimental manipulation, volitionally-induced positive  
457 valence, was truly achieved at the moment of stimulus triggering. As a reminder, the Mod-FS trials  
458 were triggered using lower quality real-time affect decoding models. Here we applied post-hoc  
459 high-accuracy models to decode affect processing within the fMRI volume immediately prior to  
460 the stimulus trigger as a best possible measure of the experimental condition. To test this  
461 measure, we bootstrapped random variants of the trigger predictions (randomly sampling within  
462 each subject before pooling predictions to incorporate random effects). From these neural  
463 decodings, we found that the mean predicted valence was significantly elevated ( $\mu=.515$ ;  $p=.02$ ;  
464 1-sided bootstrap [ $n=10000$ ];  $h_0: \mu < .5$ ) at the time of triggering of the test stimuli.

465

#### 466 Causal Effect of Positive Valence Self-Induction on Affect Processing of Subsequent Stimuli

467 We next tested the study's primary hypothesis – that self-induced valence states bias the affect  
468 processing of subsequent image stimuli. Using a GLMM, we tested decoded affect processing as

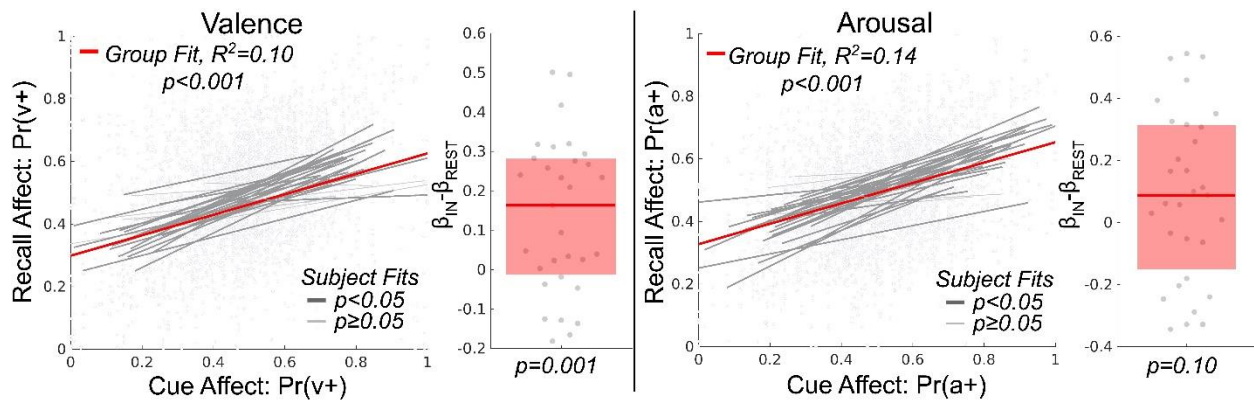
469 a function of trial type, Mod-PS or Mod-FS, while controlling for image stimuli associated  
470 normative valence and arousal properties as well as the subject's age and sex. We modeled  
471 random slope and intercept effects of the trial type subject-wise. Indeed, we found that successful  
472 volitional self-induction of positive valence prior to an affective stimulus significantly positively  
473 biased its induced valence processing ( $\beta=.024$ ;  $p=.007$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Normative valence  
474 score was also a significant positive predictor ( $\beta=.06$ ;  $p<.001$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Sex effects  
475 were not significant but age effects were found to have a small but significant negative bias effect  
476 on perceived affective valence ( $\beta=-.001$ ;  $p=.03$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Finally, the stimuli's  
477 normative arousal scores were found not to be a significant predictor of valence ( $\beta=-.06$ ;  $p=.09$ ;  
478 F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Overall model performance was  $R^2_{adj}=.065$  and random effects  
479 significantly impacted the model's explained variance.

480

#### 481 Measurement of Unguided Explicit Affect Regulation

482 We next sought to confirm affect self-induction via unguided explicit (i.e. effortful) affect regulation  
483 within the Id-CR trials. We first decoded the valence and arousal responses from acquired fMRI  
484 data for both the cue and recall steps of the Id-CR trials. We then tested for group effects of  
485 explicit affect regulation toward a known goal by modeling via GLMM, separately for valence and  
486 arousal, the neurally decoded affect processing of the four recall steps of the Id-CR trials (4  
487 volumes, 2 seconds each) as a function of the neurally decoded affect processing associated with  
488 the cue stimuli (i.e. the affect regulation goal) as well as the control duration and the age and sex  
489 of the subject (see Figure 6). We found that the subjects significantly regulated brain  
490 representations of valence processing ( $\beta=.33$ ;  $p<.001$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ). Random effects  
491 significantly improved the model's effect-size ( $p<.05$ ; likelihood ratio test;  $h_0$ : observed responses  
492 generated by fixed-effects only) and cued-recall affect regulation effects were significantly greater  
493 than that of surrogate (control) effects ( $p=.001$ ; signed rank;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta_{IN}-\beta_{RST}=0$ ). The fixed-  
494 effect of control duration was also significant ( $\beta=.01$ ;  $p<.001$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ) and the overall

495 model prediction performance was good ( $R^2_{adj}=0.10$ ). Further, we found that subjects significantly  
 496 regulated the neural correlates of arousal responses and that random effects significantly  
 497 improved effect-size ( $\beta=.33$ ;  $p<0.05$ ; likelihood ratio test;  $h_0$ : observed responses generated by  
 498 fixed-effects only); however, these cued-recall affect regulation effects were not significantly  
 499 greater than that of surrogate effects ( $p=.10$ ; signed rank;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta_{IN} - \beta_{RST}=0$ ).  
 500



501  
 502 **Figure 6:** Estimation and validation of explicit intrinsic affect regulation effects within the cued-  
 503 recall task. The figure depicts the effect size of cue affect processing in explaining affect  
 504 processing occurring during recall (controlling for time lag in the 4 repeated measures of recall  
 505 per each measure of cue). Here affect processing measurements are Platt-scaled hyperplane  
 506 distance predictions,  $Pr(\cdot)$ , of our fitted support vector machine models. Valence and arousal  
 507 dimensions of affect are predicted by separate models. The figure's scatterplots depict the group-  
 508 level effects computed using linear mixed-effects models which model random effects subject-  
 509 wise. Bold red lines depict group-level fixed-effects of the cue affect. Bold gray lines depict  
 510 significant subject-level effects whereas light gray lines depict subject-level effects that were not  
 511 significant. The figure's boxplots depict the group-level difference between each subject's affect  
 512 regulation measured during the cued-recall trials in comparison to surrogate affect regulation  
 513 constructed from the resting state task. The bold red line depicts the group median difference in



514 *effect size between task and surrogate. The red box depicts the 25-75th percentiles of effect size*  
515 *difference.*

516

#### 517 Unguided Explicit Affect Regulation Performance as a Predictor of rtfMRI-Guided Self-Induction

518 Finally, we tested whether unguided explicit affect regulation performance explained the level of  
519 rtfMRI-guided self-induced valence responses (measured immediately prior to presentation of the  
520 Mod-FS cue image). We modeled the neurally decoded valence of the final volume of the self-  
521 induce step of Mod-FS trials (see Fig 2) as a function of the individual subjects' explicit affect  
522 regulation performance parameters (slope and intercept, respectively, for the valence and arousal  
523 properties of affect processing – see Fig 6) controlling for the subjects' age and sex. We included  
524 all 2-way interactions in this model to control for potential trade-offs that the subjects may be  
525 making during explicit regulation, e.g., focusing on only one affective property. We found that self-  
526 induced arousal properties, both slope ( $\beta=.828$ ;  $p=.003$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ) and intercept  
527 ( $\beta=1.14$ ;  $p=.006$ ; F-test;  $\alpha=.05$ ;  $h_0: \beta=0$ ), were significantly associated with rtfMRI-guided self-  
528 induced valence responses. However, the total explained variance by this model was very low  
529 ( $R^2_{adj}=.006$ ).

530

#### 531 **Discussion**

532 This work made two novel contributions to our current and future understanding of the  
533 mechanisms of emotion processing and regulation. First, we found significant support for the utility  
534 of self-induced positively valent affect processing as a mechanism for positively biasing the  
535 subsequent valence processing of environmental stimuli. This finding causally and  
536 mechanistically supports the common notion of “positive thinking” and provides insight into how  
537 and why attentional re-deployment strategies used in CBT benefit those suffering from deficits of  
538 emotion regulation and dispositional negatively biased affect. Second, we demonstrated a novel

539 application of real-time brain state decoding in which we guided subjects' explicit emotion  
540 regulation toward a pre-defined affective goal state (positive valence) and then triggered  
541 experimental stimuli when the subjects' affective states fell within designed criteria representing  
542 that goal state. This new technology, while still in its infancy, may provide scientists with a much  
543 needed tool for causal exploration of intrinsic emotion processing mechanisms and their  
544 relationships with other cognitive processes and environmental factors.

545         A secondary goal of this work was to explain individual differences observed in real-time  
546 fMRI guided explicit emotion regulation toward a defined goal. Explicit affect regulation can be  
547 achieved volitionally, without the use of neurofeedback technology. Therefore, our use of real-  
548 time fMRI-based affective decodings to guide (or focus) this innate process enabled us to test  
549 (using unguided explicit affect regulation ability as a baseline) the association between innate  
550 affect regulation performance and the performance achievable using our real-time fMRI feedback  
551 approach. We observed a small but significant relationship between both the overall ability to self-  
552 induce states of arousal as well as the ability to match one's arousal to a pre-defined target level  
553 with the ability to self-induce positive valence via rtfMRI-guidance. These findings suggest that  
554 subjects with greater control over their state of arousal exhibit improved ability to incorporate real-  
555 time feedback. Given the well-established link between arousal and attention[39,40], these  
556 findings may in turn reflect improved deployment of attention, either self-directed or with respect  
557 to the feedback signal, in subjects exhibiting superior rtfMRI-guided self-induced valence, which  
558 agrees with earlier work in identifying psychological predictors of BCI performance [16,41].

559         Our application of neural decodings (derived from normative affective scores of IAPS  
560 image stimuli) as markers of affect processing has well-known limitations, which we have noted  
561 in earlier reports[20,21,38]. Indeed, our validation process detected a significant negative effect  
562 of decoded arousal associated with decoded valence, suggesting that our cohort of subjects  
563 perceived the affective content of Mod-PS image stimuli differently than that which was captured  
564 by the IAPS normative scores. However, the nature of our investigation – real-time moment-to-



565 moment affect processing, regulation, and stimulus-triggering – did not, unfortunately, permit the  
566 use of subject self-report measures of affect, thereby precluding a full concordance of our findings  
567 across cognitive, physiological, and behavioral domains. We also acknowledge technical  
568 limitations in our real-time fMRI approach. Despite significant findings of an overall effect, we  
569 believe that our implementation was suboptimal due both to response-measurement latency as  
570 well as perhaps insufficient optimization of parameters within our real-time pipeline. A limitation  
571 of real-time approaches is that parametric choices in the processing pipeline (e.g., trigger  
572 threshold) interact with experimental outcomes; therefore, it is difficult to use batch-wise  
573 optimization to inform the design criteria *a priori*. Moreover, our small study sample did not permit  
574 sufficient piloting of parameters prior to selecting the processing design and testing. Further, our  
575 analysis included all rtfMRI-guided self-induction trials, even those that required emergency  
576 triggering due to a failure to meet the design criteria of the goal state. This was intentional in order  
577 to put forth the most conservative, and therefore reproducible, estimate of the valence self-  
578 induction effect sizes possible using this new technological approach. Therefore, we believe the  
579 performance of the system, and its effect sizes, are understated, which suggests the potential to  
580 further refine this technology for larger-scaled deployment of brain-state driven experiment  
581 designs to causally test interactions between internal cognitions and external stimuli.

582

### 583 **Conclusion**

584 We combined established neural decoding methods with real-time fMRI to construct a dynamic  
585 experimental design in which the brain representation of a subject's self-induced positive affect  
586 state triggered the randomized presentation of affectively congruent or incongruent image stimuli.  
587 We first validated the experiment's ability to induce affect processing with independent measures  
588 of psychophysiology as well as the decoding models' ability to predict affect processing in novel  
589 task domains. We then demonstrated that self-induced positive affective states positively bias  
590 the affect processing of subsequent image stimuli and thereby furnish a causal mechanism by

591 which positive thinking influences how we perceive our environment.

592

### 593 **Acknowledgements**

594 This study was funded by Brain and Behavior Research Foundation NARSAD Young Investigator  
595 Award #26079 sponsored by the Families for Borderline Personality Disorder Research (K.A.B).  
596 Elements of the real-time fMRI infrastructure deployed in this work were supported by National  
597 Science Foundation grant BCS-1735820 (K.A.B). Additional personnel support was provided by  
598 National Institute on Drug Abuse grant 1T32DA022981 (C.D.K). Subject recruitment for the  
599 project was supported by the UAMS Translational Research Institute (TRI) through the National  
600 Center for Advancing Translational Sciences (1U54TR001629-01A1). The authors thank Kevin  
601 Fialkowski and Ivan Messias for their help in curating project data and Maegan Calvert for her  
602 thoughtful comments on the manuscript. The authors would also like to thank Kayla A. Wilson,  
603 Anthony A. Privratsky, Bradford S. Martins, Jennifer Payne, Emily Hahn, Natalie Morris, Nathan  
604 Jones, and Laura Spell for their assistance in recruiting and assessing research subjects and  
605 acquiring subject data as well as Stephen LaConte and Jonathan Lisinski for their assistance in  
606 developing our real-time fMRI capability. Finally, the authors thank Favrin Smith for her efforts in  
607 gaining the study's IRB protocol approval and maintaining human subject research compliance  
608 throughout the study's duration.

609

### 610 **Authorship Contributions**

611 Conception: K.A.B. Design, implementation, and testing: K.A.B.; Analysis: K.A.B; Interpretation  
612 of results, manuscript preparation, and revisions: K.A.B, C.D.K.

613

### 614 **Competing Interests**

615 The authors declare no competing interests.

616

## 617 **Source Code and Data Availability**

618 The authors have made the full source code used in this analysis publicly available:  
619 <https://github.com/kabush/CTER>. The authors have also made a Brain Imaging Data  
620 Structure[42] (BIDS) formatted variant of the full study dataset publicly available (as well as raw  
621 real-time log files and training materials) via the Open Science Framework: <https://osf.io/yn4vq/>.  
622 The source code used to convert raw data files to BIDS format has also been made publicly  
623 available: <https://github.com/kabush/CTER2bids>.

624

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