

1 Investigation of layer specific BOLD 2 in the human visual cortex during 3 visual attention

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10 **Abstract** Directing spatial attention towards a particular stimulus location enhances cortical
11 responses at corresponding regions in cortex. How attention modulates the laminar response
12 profile within the attended region, however, remains unclear. In this paper, we use high field (7T)
13 fMRI to investigate the effects of attention on laminar activity profiles in areas V1-V3; both when a
14 stimulus was presented to the observer, and in the absence of visual stimulation. Replicating
15 previous findings, we find robust increases in the overall BOLD response for attended regions in
16 cortex, both with and without visual stimulation. When analyzing the BOLD response across the
17 individual layers in visual cortex, we observed no evidence for laminar-specific differentiation with
18 attention. We offer several potential explanations for these results, including theoretical,
19 methodological and technical reasons. Additionally, we provide all data and pipelines openly, in
20 order to promote analytic consistency across layer-specific studies, improve reproducibility, and
21 decrease the false positive rate as a result of analytical flexibility.

23 Introduction

24 Directing visual attention to a location in the visual field typically improves behavioral sensitivity
25 to stimuli presented at that location (*Posner, 1980; Lee et al., 1997a; Yeshurun and Carrasco, 1998;*
26 *Carrasco et al., 2004; Baldassi and Verghese, 2005; Ling et al., 2009*). It is well known that these
27 attentional benefits in behavior are accompanied by increases in BOLD response in early visual
28 areas (e.g. *Brefczynski and DeYoe (1999); Gandhi et al. (1999); Kastner et al. (1999)*), but how
29 top-down processes modulate cortical responses at the laminar level remains unknown.

30 It is known from anatomical studies that the human cerebral cortex can be subdivided into
31 histological layers with different cell types. The cytoarchitectonic structure varies across the brain
32 and forms the basis of the Brodmann atlas (*Brodmann, 1909*). While the precise function of each
33 cortical layer remains unclear, their connectivity profile suggests a division in terms of bottom-up
34 and top-down processing (*Felleman and Van Essen, 1991; Barone et al., 2000; Shipp, 2016*). Most
35 brain areas have six different histological layers. Specifically, Layer IV and to a lesser extent Layer
36 V/VI are commonly associated with receiving feedforward drive from Layer III of lower cortical areas
37 or from the thalamus (*Jones, 1998; Constantinople and Bruno, 2013*). Layers I-II and VI, in contrast,
38 are typically implicated in receiving downward information flow (feedback), which often originates
39 from layer V (*Alitto and Usrey, 2003*). This bottom-up versus top-down connectivity profile of each
40 of the layers is to some degree also paralleled in functional data. That is, from neurophysiological

41 and neuroimaging work, it is known that various visual stimuli and tasks can exert differential effects
42 on the various layers (*Maier et al., 2010; Xing et al., 2012; Self et al., 2013; Vélez-Fort et al., 2014;*
43 *O'Herron et al., 2016*). Intracranial work in monkeys, for instance, shows that for selective attention
44 and working memory (two functions that are commonly associated with top-down processes),
45 current source density is increased in deep and superficial compared to middle layers in primary
46 visual cortex (*van Kerkoerle et al., 2017*). Similar layer specific patterns have been shown in animal
47 functional MRI. For instance, whisker stimulation led to an increase in BOLD response in Layer IV of
48 rat barrel cortex, before such an enhancement was observed in any of the other layers, suggesting
49 that layer IV was the first to receive feed forward drive from upstream areas (*Yu et al., 2014*). In
50 contrast, subsequent cortico-cortical connections in the same task appeared to activate Layers
51 II-III and V in the motor cortex and contralateral barrel cortex before this affected any of the other
52 layers, suggesting that these layers were the first to receive feedback signals. To what extent these
53 results generalize to human cortex, however, remains to be investigated.

54 Recent advancements in fMRI have made it possible to also investigate the functional role
55 of cortical layers in humans (e.g. *Polimeni et al. (2010); Maass et al. (2014); Kok et al. (2016);*
56 *Lawrence et al. (2018); Sharoh et al. (2019)*). The human in vivo resolution with fMRI has increased
57 to submillimetre voxel size. The thickness of the cerebral cortex varies between 1 and 4.5 millimetres
58 (*Zilles, 1990; Fischl and Dale, 2000*), giving sufficient resolution to characterise activity across the
59 individual layers. fMRI is now often used to try and measure layer specific activation in, for example,
60 the visual system (*Muckli et al., 2015; Kok et al., 2016; Lawrence et al., 2018; de Hollander et al.,*
61 *2020*), the motor system (*Huber et al., 2018*), working memory tasks (*Finn et al., 2019*), and to
62 find directional connectivity between language areas (*Sharoh et al., 2019*). If layer specific analysis
63 can make good on its promise of reliably discerning layer specific signals, it can be useful for
64 answering questions in a wide range of cognitive domains (*Lawrence et al., 2019*) and for questions
65 of directional connectivity and cognitive network neuroscience (*Huber et al., 2020*), including
66 research questions involving spatial attention.

67 While some neurophysiological evidence suggests a differential involvement of the cortical
68 layers in top-down attention (*Nandy et al., 2017; van Kerkoerle et al., 2017*), the effects of attention
69 on the different layers in human visual cortex has remained unclear. Here, we examine with fMRI
70 the potential influence of spatial attention on BOLD activity in the deep, middle and superficial
71 layers in human visual areas V1, V2, and V3. Participants directed their attention to a cued location,
72 and performed an attention-demanding task using an orientation stimulus that was shown at
73 this location, while an unattended grating appeared at a different location of equal eccentricity.
74 On some of the trials, subjects directed their attention to the cued location in anticipation of the
75 stimulus, but no stimulus appeared at this location. We took care to optimise the experimental
76 paradigm, the acquisition, the preprocessing pipeline, the number of subjects, and the statistical
77 analysis to all be state of the art and tailored for an fMRI investigation at laminar resolution. Our
78 expectation was to find deep layer activation in a top-down (attention) condition and middle layer
79 activation in the bottom-up (stimulus) condition, in line with a substantial body of aforementioned
80 histological, electrophysiological, and fMRI literature. Interestingly, although we observed a reliable
81 increase of the overall BOLD response with attention across all layers, both with and without a
82 stimulus present, we observed no differences in activation level between the layers due to attention.
83 We provide several reasons for these findings in the Discussion.

84 To facilitate reproducibility of our results, we further include a reproducible and openly ac-
85 cessible processing pipeline for layer-specific analyses (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3428603>
86 (*Van Mourik et al., 2018*)). The toolbox includes benchmark tests for interactive visualisation of high
87 resolution coregistration, cortical lamination, and cardiac and respiratory noise filtering. To enhance
88 transparency, the data analysis pipeline is furthermore presented as an online visual workflow
89 that can be easily inspected, shared, and adapted to fit any laminar study's needs. As a result of
90 the relative novelty of fMRI investigations into individual cortical layers, previous work has used a
91 large variety of high-resolution toolboxes and analysis pathways (LAYNII in *Huber et al. (2017, 2018)*;

92 OpenFmriAnalysis in *Lawrence et al. (2018)*; Nighres in *Huntenburg et al. (2018)*; BrainVoyager in
93 *Goebel (2012)*), which has made direct comparison between studies difficult. We hope our analysis
94 pipeline will help ameliorate this issue, although we readily recognize that other toolboxes and
95 solutions could similarly achieve such goals.

96 Results

97 We first describe the overall task effects that form the basis for our laminar specific fMRI analysis.
98 Our experimental paradigm is depicted in *Figure 4* and described in detail in Methods and Materials.
99 In brief, we used an orientation discrimination task in order to investigate the (laminar specific)
100 effects of a visual stimulus and directed spatial attention. Analysis of the behavioural results showed
101 that subjects generally performed well on the task. The mean orientation discrimination threshold
102 across participants was 6.6°.

103 Spatial attention increases fMRI response amplitudes

104 The experiment consisted of four experimental conditions: a two-by-two design in which we
105 manipulated the effect of bottom-up visual stimulation combined with an attentional manipulation
106 across the two hemifields. The stimulus consisted of two orientation gratings presented to the left
107 and right side of fixation. Participants were cued to attend to one location at either side of fixation.
108 They performed a two-alternative-forced-choice task on the stimulus at the attended location,
109 indicating whether its orientation was rotated clockwise or counter clockwise with respect to the
110 nearest diagonal orientation. They maintained fixation on a central bull's-eye stimulus throughout
111 the experiment. The design is described in detail in the Methods and Materials and in *Figure 4*.

112 To benchmark the data, we first determined whether directing attention to a spatial location
113 led to a stronger overall response in the visual cortex. Regions of interest consisted of voxels that
114 were significantly activated by the stimulus in all layers of areas V1, V2, and V3 (see Methods). We
115 compared the amplitude of the BOLD response with and without attention, for trials in which a
116 stimulus was presented and those in which no stimulus appeared on the screen (see *Figure 3*). Data
117 were analyzed using a General Linear Model (GLM) with area, attention (attended vs. unattended),
118 and stimulus (present vs. absent) as factors (see Methods).

119 We first focused on the effects of attention per se. Attention significantly enhanced the BOLD
120 response at the attended location in areas V1-V3 (effect of attention, $F(1, 16) = 121.3, p = 7.07 \cdot 10^{-9}$).
121 The mean effect sizes (in percent signal change) were 1.01%, 1.09% and 0.96% for V1, V2, and V3
122 respectively, and slightly stronger to those reported before (e.g., *Murray (2008)*; *Jehee et al. (2011)*;
123 *Sprague and Serences (2013)*). To account for potential variation in baseline response between
124 visual areas, and facilitate direct comparison with previous studies, we computed an Attentional
125 Modulation Index (AMI; *Kastner et al., 1999*). The AMI is defined as attentional effects normalised
126 by the summed activity of both attended and unattended conditions. We found AMIs ($\mu \pm \sigma$) of 0.18
127 ± 0.05 for V1, 0.24 ± 0.07 for V2, and 0.24 ± 0.09 for V3. Direct comparison between areas revealed
128 that although the absolute contribution of attention did not change, the relative contribution
129 of attention differed significantly between regions (AMI: $F(2,32)=10.53, p = 3.07 \cdot 10^{-4}$. Post-hoc
130 comparison showed significant differences in V1 compared to V2: $T(16) = -4.69, p = 2.44 \cdot 10^{-3}$ and
131 in V1 compared to V3 $T(16) = -3.17, p = 5.89 \cdot 10^{-3}$, but not in V2 compared to V3: $T(16) = -0.14,$
132 $p = 0.89$). Altogether, these results are in line with previously reported effects of attention on
133 coarse-level BOLD activity in visual cortex (*Somers et al., 1999*; *Gandhi et al., 1999*), and show that
134 the cortical response for a spatial location is enhanced when attention is directed to that location.

135 Next, we investigated whether the effects of attention depended on the presence of a visual
136 stimulus. Also in the absence of visual stimulation, there was a significant attention effect ($T(16) =$
137 $9.80, p = 3.64 \cdot 10^{-8}$), with mean effect sizes of 0.93%. We furthermore observed a slight negative BOLD
138 response in the absence of visual stimulation and when the location was ignored ($T(16) = -3.12,$
139 $p = 0.0066$). This result should be interpreted with caution, however, as the experiment did not
140 include an attention-neutral condition and responses were computed with respect to an implicit

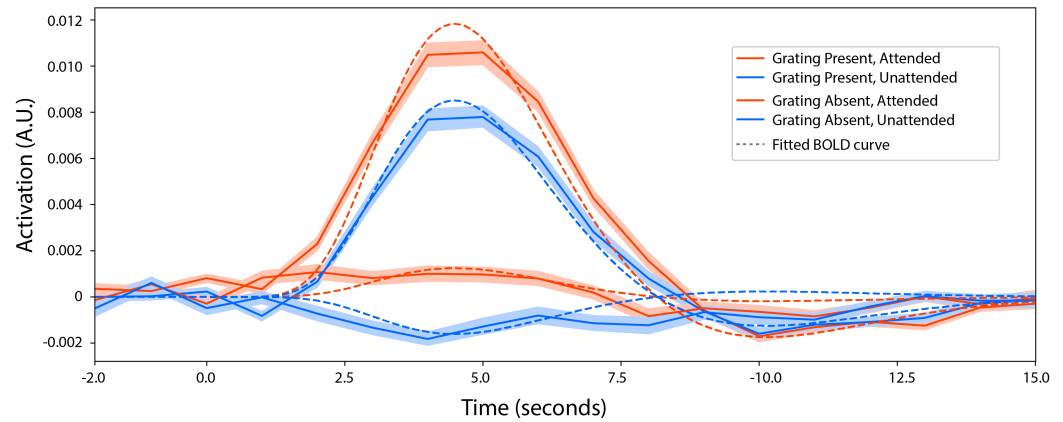


Figure 1. The fitted BOLD response for each experimental condition. The shaded area represents the standard error of the mean over subjects. Results were obtained by fitting a Finite Impulse Response function of 18 time points to the BOLD data, starting at 2 seconds before and running until 15 seconds after stimulus onset. The dashed line indicates an HRF that was fitted to the FIR results of a pilot session. The obtained parameter values were used in the modelled HRF across layers in our GLM analyses (see Methods). These results are collapsed over hemisphere.

Figure 1-Figure supplement 1. The results for the left and right hemisphere separately are displayed in the supplementary figures

141 baseline response. We next compared attentional effects between trials in which observers were
142 expecting a stimulus but none was presented, and trials in which the stimulus did appear on
143 the screen. We found that the effect of attention in areas V1-V3 was significantly different in the
144 presence compared to absence of visual stimulation (two-way interaction between attention and
145 stimulus, $F(1, 16) = 6.63$, $p = 0.0204$). Specifically, in the presence of a stimulus, the attentional effect
146 was slightly higher ($T(16) = 2.87$, $p = 0.0060$), with no reliable difference between areas (three-way
147 interaction between stimulus, attention and area, $F(2, 32) = 0.324$, $p = 0.726$). Thus, attending to a
148 spatial location clearly enhances the BOLD response at that location, even in the absence of visual
149 stimulation, albeit that attentional effects were slightly reduced when no stimulus was presented to
150 the observer.

151 To qualitatively assess the shape of the BOLD response over time and confirm the param-
152 eters of our GLM approach, we additionally conducted a Finite Impulse Response (FIR) anal-
153 ysis. The FIR analysis can be inspected and reproduced online in a Jupyter Notebook (<https://github.com/TimVanMourik/LayerAttention/blob/master/Notebooks/LayerFir.ipynb>). We extracted
154 BOLD response curves for each experimental condition (see **Figure 1**), and observed clear and reli-
155 able effects of attention on the BOLD response that were fully consistent with our previous analyses.
156 Because of the left-right modulation of attention, attentional effects were reversed in the left and
157 right hemisphere, as observed before and further illustrated in **Figure Supplement 1**. Moreover,
158 the cortical response over time for each condition was very well described by the canonical Hemo-
159 dynamic Response Function (HRF) ($r^2 = 0.982$ with attention and $r^2 = 0.985$ without attention). Thus,
160 the HRF model presented a fair description of the cortical responses observed in our experiment.
161

162 **Spatial attention increases responses across the layers**

163 Next, we asked whether attention led to changes in the pattern of activity across cortical layers.
164 For each attention and stimulus condition, we first characterized the BOLD response over time for
165 each of three distinct cortical layers in areas V1-V3 combined. Specifically, we used a FIR analysis to
166 obtain the temporal laminar BOLD response profiles shown in **Figure 2**. The analysis revealed clear
167 hemodynamic response profiles that were well captured by the canonical HRF. In the presence of
168 a stimulus, there appeared to be a progressive increase in response from the deep to the middle
169 to the top layers, for both the stimulus and attention. In the absence of a stimulus, however, the

170 layer-specific hemodynamic responses did not appear to show noticeable differences.

171 To assess the significance of these effects, data were analyzed using a temporal general linear
172 model with attention, stimulus, area, and layer as factors (see Methods). We found a reliable
173 increase in BOLD response from white matter to pial surface (see **Figure 3**, overall effect of cortical
174 depth, $F(2, 32) = 87.5$, $p = 1.07 \cdot 10^{-13}$). This increase in BOLD response with decreasing distance
175 to the pial surface was reliably larger in the presence of a stimulus (two-way interaction between
176 layer and stimulus, $F(2, 32) = 85.6$, $p = 1.43 \cdot 10^{-13}$). Attention also led to reliable increases in BOLD
177 response with decreasing distance to the pial surface (two-way interaction between layer and
178 attention, $F(2, 32) = 43.10$, $p = 8.34 \cdot 10^{-10}$). This increase in BOLD response from lower to higher
179 layers has been observed (e.g. *Koopmans et al. (2010)*; *Polimeni et al. (2010)*; *Koopmans et al.*
180 *(2011)*; *Olman et al. (2012)*; *Huber et al. (2018)*) and modeled (*Markuerkiaga et al., 2016*; *Havlicek*
181 *and Uludağ, 2020*) previously, and is consistent with the blood flow from the gray-white matter
182 boundary to the pial surface. That is, any change in BOLD response that arises in the deep layers
183 will automatically affect responses in downstream layers, simply because blood flows from deeper
184 to more superficial layers. The accumulation of blood in downstream layers can result in a larger
185 slope of BOLD activation across the layers, even when there is no change in neural activity in these
186 layers.

187 Next, we determined whether the layer-specific increase in BOLD signal was different for
188 attention-based effects compared to those of the visual stimulus. If so, then this would be consistent
189 with a targeted effect of attention on one of the layers. Interestingly, the attention-based increase in
190 activity was reliably different from stimulus-driven changes in layer response (post hoc comparison
191 between layer by stimulus effect and layer by attention effect; $T(16) = 9.28$, $p = 7.64 \cdot 10^{-8}$). This
192 could potentially reflect a specific effect of attention on one of the layers. However, there is also an
193 alternative interpretation, as the magnitude of an interaction effect is tightly coupled to the strength
194 of its main effects in layer-specific analyses. This is because the interaction effect can be interpreted
195 as a difference in slope (signal by depths) between two lines. Due to cortical signal leakage as a
196 result of physiological (blood flow) and methodological reasons (errors in depth measurement), a
197 higher visual stimulus response than an attentional response will be visible in *both* the main effect
198 *and* the cortical slope of the response (see also above). Any reliable difference in slope is picked up
199 as a significant difference between layer by stimulus effect and layer by attention effect. However,
200 this difference in slope would also arise if there was no layer-specific change in neural activity, so
201 this finding alone does not indicate conclusive layer specific activation. Such conclusions might be
202 made if a reliable three-way difference between the effects of attention and stimulus between any
203 of the three layers would be present. However, we did not find a significant three-way interaction
204 (three-way interaction between layer, stimulus and attention, $F(2, 32) = 0.96$, $p = 0.393$), making it
205 difficult to draw any firm conclusions regarding the layer-specific effects of the stimulus versus
206 attention.

207 While we observed no clear and unambiguous laminar differences across visual areas, could
208 there be a change within a given area? When analyzing stimulus activity, the pattern of activity
209 across the layers was, indeed, significantly different between the three areas (three-way interaction
210 between layer, stimulus, area: $F(4, 64) = 3.10$, $p = 0.021$). Post hoc analyses revealed that the stimulus
211 response across layers was slightly steeper in V1 than V2 (stimulus by layer effect in area V1
212 compared to V2, $T(16) = 2.26$, $p = 0.038$), while no significant difference was observed for area V1
213 compared to area V3 ($T(16) = 1.35$, $p = 0.196$), or V2 compared to V3 ($T(16) = -1.43$, $p = 0.172$). This
214 might reflect a slightly higher top layer activation in V1 compared to V2. On the other hand, it could
215 also reflect the stronger main effect of stimulus in V1, leading to an increased slope of activation
216 over layers, in line with expectations based on blood flow. We then focused on the layer-specific
217 effects of attention in each individual area. Attention does not vary layer specifically per region
218 (attention by layer by region effect $F(64, 4) = 0.998$, $p = 0.416$).

219 Thus, while the overall effects on BOLD activity of both visual stimuli and attention were robust
220 and similar to previously reported values for visual cortex (e.g. *Kastner et al., 1999*; *Jehee et al.,*

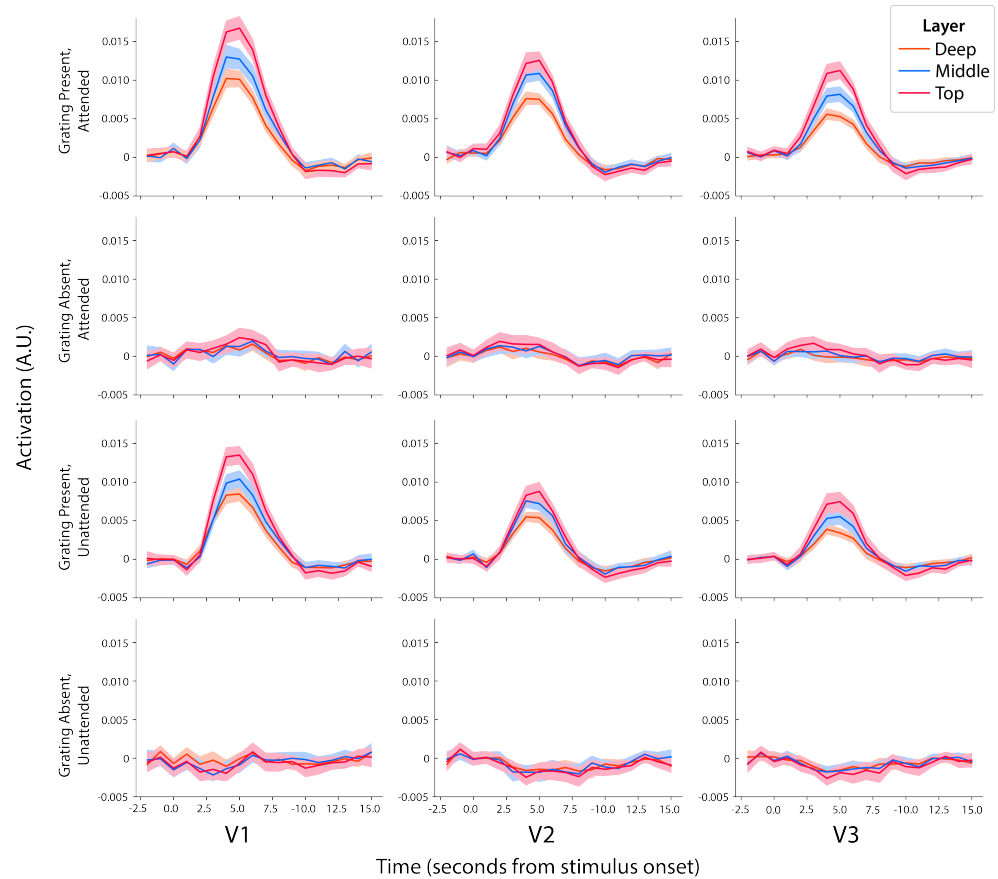


Figure 2. The fitted BOLD response for each experimental condition for three cortical layers. The shaded area represents the standard error of the mean over subjects. The horizontal axis represents time (in seconds) from stimulus onset.

221 **2011; Koopmans et al., 2010**)), both across and within layers, it proved more difficult to interpret
222 the layer-specific pattern of activity for the two conditions. Although at first sight, it may appear
223 that the stimulus affected the layers in a manner different from attention (when analyzed across
224 areas), the effect should be interpreted with caution because the stimulus also led to a stronger
225 coarse-level cortical response than attention. We wanted to rule out that some important parameter
226 choices obscured true effects. We verified robustness of our main results by changing the size
227 of the region of interest and by varying the most important parameters of our layer extraction
228 technique. We reprocessed the data and recomputed our layer and region specific statistical
229 analysis for the experimental conditions. The control analyses established that the results were
230 not strongly affected by the number of voxels included in the analyses (**Figure Supplement 1** and
231 **Figure Supplement 2**), nor by the number of layers analyzed (**Figure Supplement 3**). In addition,
232 the results did not qualitatively change when layer activation profiles were defined using volume
233 interpolation (**Figure Supplement 4**) as opposed to using a laminar spatial GLM as we did in the
234 main analyses (see Methods). The control analyses and their comparison with the main analysis is
235 further described in the supplemental materials.

236 All figures and reported statistics are available as Jupyter Notebooks (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3428603>). The (fully anonymised) BOLD time courses are included such that all results can
237 be readily reproduced.
238

239 Discussion

240 This study investigated the effects of spatial attention on the BOLD signal measured from individual
241 layers in early visual cortex. Focusing first on the overall amplitude of the BOLD response in
242 all layers combined, we found that attending to a stimulus reliably and substantially increased
243 the BOLD signal in early visual areas, both when a stimulus was presented to the observer and
244 in the absence of physical stimulation (cf. (**Kastner et al., 1999; Murray, 2008; Li et al., 2008**)).
245 Moreover, and much in line with earlier results on layer-specific activation patterns in visual cortex
246 (**Koopmans et al., 2010; Polimeni et al., 2010**), we observed a general increase in activation towards
247 the superficial layers, which is likely caused by greater susceptibility to draining veins on the pial
248 surface (**Koopmans et al., 2011**). Interestingly, and much to our surprise, we observed no forthright
249 differential activity in the individual layers when comparing between top-down (attention-driven)
250 and bottom-up (stimulus-driven) activity - a finding that stands in notable contrast to some previous
251 observations. We discuss several potential reasons for the discrepancy in findings below, and
252 suggest a more standardized approach to laminar fMRI analysis as a potential solution that could
253 boost agreement in research findings.

254 Why did we not find a targeted effect of attention on one of the layers? One possibility is that
255 our data are simply insufficiently robust to show a significant difference in activity across depth
256 between the two conditions. It is well known that the BOLD signal includes multiple sources of noise
257 related to both MRI scanner and participant, and this holds especially true for signals recorded
258 at the sub-millimeter scale. For example, at a resolution this high, even the smallest movement
259 of the participant may cause additional blurring of the data, with potentially detrimental effects
260 on the signal-to-noise ratio. For this reason, we collected data from 17 participants - a sample
261 size much larger than typical in attention-based fMRI studies at standard spatial resolution (cf.
262 N=4-6 in **Kastner et al. (1999); Kamitani and Tong (2005); Jehee et al. (2011)**), and on the high end
263 compared to layer-based fMRI studies at high resolution (cf. N=6 in **Polimeni et al. (2010)**, N=4 in
264 **Muckli et al. (2015)**, N=10 in **Kok et al. (2016)**, N=12 in **Klein et al., 2018**), N=21 in **(Lawrence et al.,
265 2018)**, N=22 in **(Sharoh et al., 2019)**). To minimize the effects of various sources of noise, we took
266 great care in measuring and removing physiological artifacts, and further improved existing layer
267 extraction techniques by developing a novel technique to separate laminar signal from different
268 layers (**Van Mourik et al., 2019**). Indeed, the combined success of these procedures is well illustrated
269 by the effect sizes observed in the current study for both stimulus presentation (4.5%, 3.3%, 2.8% in
270 V1, V2 and V3) and attention (0.41%, 0.64%, 0.59% in V1, V2 and V3), which are comparable or higher

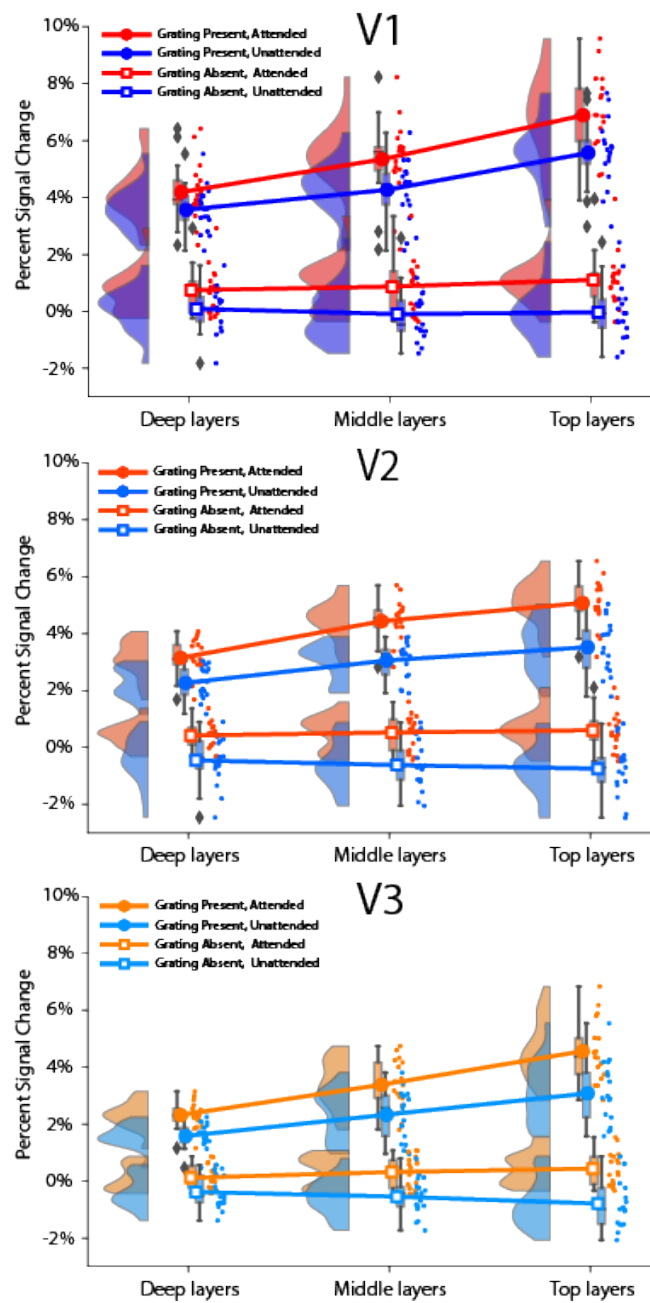


Figure 3. Layer-specific amplitude of the BOLD response in areas V1-V3, for stimuli and locations that were either attended or ignored. Circles indicate when a grating was presented, squares depict when no grating was presented, at either the attended (red) or unattended (blue) location. When a stimulus was presented, activation reliably increased across all layers. Also attention significantly enhanced the BOLD response across all layers.

271 to those reported in previous work (*Murray, 2008; Jehee et al., 2011*). We also ensured that similar
272 results were obtained using more conventional layer-extraction procedures, and that the results
273 were robust to changes in signal extraction method or number of layers. There are, however, some
274 differences in experimental design between our study and previous laminar investigations that
275 could potentially account for the incongruity in results. Because we were interested in the degree to
276 which top-down processes could be dissociated from feed forward stimulation with fMRI, we directly
277 contrasted between these two conditions in our analyses. Previous studies, on the other hand,
278 have focused on top-down activity in isolation (e.g. *Muckli et al. (2015), Kok et al. (2016), Lawrence*
279 *et al. (2018)*). Two-by-two experimental designs are surprisingly rare in layer-specific analysis and
280 have only been recently employed by *de Hollander et al. (2020)*. We emphasise that a multifactorial
281 design is important to account for changes due to, for example, cortical depth and signal leakage
282 per se, as opposed to true layer-based changes in activity due to the experimental manipulations.
283 Alternate strategies are to compare between layers and conditions in terms of information content
284 (*Muckli et al., 2015*), retinotopic preference (*Klein et al., 2018*), or by focusing on inter-regional
285 laminar communication (*Sharoh et al., 2019*). For example, *Klein et al. (2018)* recently observed
286 a cortical depth-dependent shift in population receptive fields with spatial attention. This raises
287 the intriguing possibility that, in our study, spatial attention led to a depth-dependent shift in the
288 strength of relatively fine-grained orientation-selective responses – indeed, previous coarse-scale
289 fMRI studies have observed that orientation selectivity can change even when there is no change in
290 amplitude across the population (*Jehee et al., 2011, 2012*).

291 We initially hypothesised that attention provides additional information about the stimulus
292 (e.g. knowledge about its location). This information would come from higher level areas, and
293 would presumably affect the deep or superficial layers. This was suggested by previous work using
294 high-resolution fMRI focussing not on spatial attention, but rather figure-ground segmentation (*Kok*
295 *et al., 2016*), and other extra-classical receptive field effects in cortex (*Muckli et al., 2015*). However,
296 our results are incongruent (insofar that they are comparable) and do not find similar effects for
297 spatial attention. It is conceivable, however, that processes of perceptual grouping operate on the
298 individual cortical layers in a manner different from the spatial attentional mechanisms studied
299 here. It is known from primate studies, for example, that attention increases the response gain
300 of neurons in visual cortex (*Treue and Trujillo, 1999; Martinez-Trujillo and Treue, 2004a*) - such an
301 increase in attentional gain could lead to general enhancements in neural activity irrespective of
302 cortical layer, as we have observed here.

303 Regardless of the potential reasons for the disparity between current and previous results,
304 we believe our study presents an important message to a field that is currently in its nascent
305 stages of development. We hope that the results and procedures detailed here will help move the
306 field forward and resolve which experimental parameters are paramount to detecting differential
307 activity between individual layers in human visual cortex with high-resolution fMRI. To facilitate
308 comparison between results, and provide loose analysis guidelines for future laminar studies, we
309 have furthermore provided all our analysis code and data online (see Data Availability section), in
310 a format that is visually insightful and analytically meaningful. We hope that our software and
311 analysis pathways will prove to be a useful resource, and boost the comparability and replicability
312 of future results.

313 **Methods and Materials**

314 **Participants**

315 Nineteen healthy adults (aged 22-27, eight female), with normal or corrected-to-normal vision,
316 participated in this study. All participants provided written informed consent in accordance with the
317 guidelines of the local ethics committee (CMO region Arnhem-Nijmegen, the Netherlands, and ethics
318 committee of the University Duisburg-Essen, Germany). Two subjects were excluded from analysis;
319 one subject was excluded due to insufficient performance on the orientation discrimination task

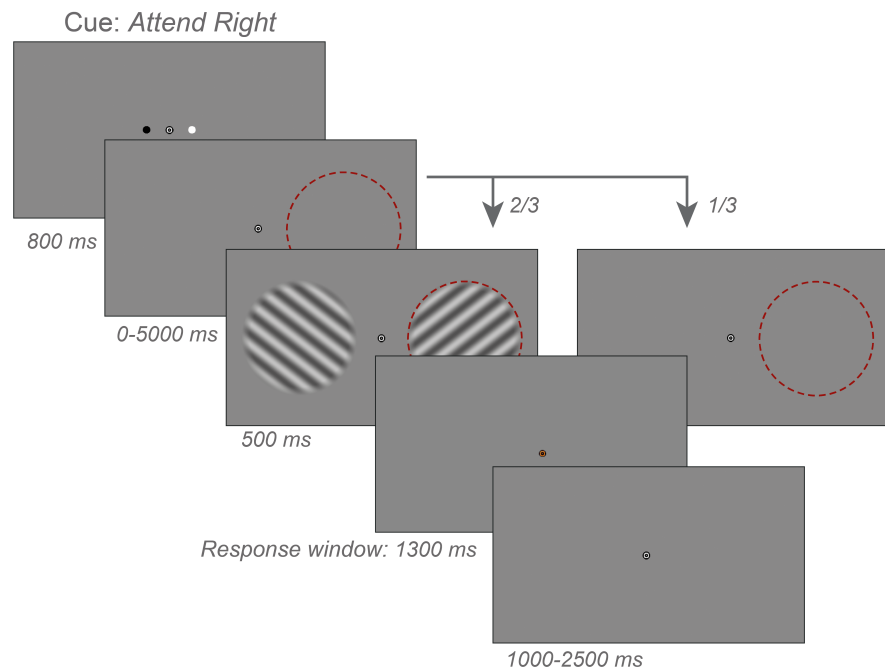


Figure 4. Stimuli and experimental procedure. Example of a trial sequence from the experiment. Subjects fixated a central bull's eye target while gratings of independent orientation ($\pm 45^\circ$) appeared in each hemifield. A compound black/white cue indicated whether subjects should attend to the left or right stimuli; in this example, the white circle indicates 'attend right.' Subjects had to discriminate near-threshold changes in orientation of the attended grating with respect to the closest diagonal. In one-third of trials, no stimuli appeared at either location. Red circles depict the attended location and were not present in the actual display.

320 (their behavioral performance was at chance-level), and another due to weak retinotopic maps. The
321 remaining data from 17 subjects were analyzed.

322 **Experimental design and stimuli**

323 Observers viewed the visual display through a mirror mounted on the head coil. Visual stimuli were
324 generated by a Macbook Pro computer running MATLAB and the Psychophysics Toolbox software
325 (Brainard, 1997; Pelli, 1997), and displayed on a rear-projection screen using a luminance-calibrated
326 EIKI projector (resolution 1,024 X 768 pixels, refresh rate 60 Hz). Participants were required to
327 maintain fixation on a central bull's-eye target (radius: 0.25°) throughout each experimental run.
328 Each run consisted of an initial fixation period (3000 ms) followed by 32 stimulus trials (average trial
329 duration: 4.7 seconds). Trials were separated by inter-trial intervals of variable duration (1000-2500
330 ms, uniformly distributed across trials). Each trial started with the presentation of a central attention
331 cue (800 ms). This was followed by a delay period of variable duration (0-5000 ms; drawn from an
332 exponential distribution to ensure a constant hazard rate), after which the two orientation stimuli
333 appeared on the screen (500 ms; two-thirds of trials). The orientation stimuli were followed by a
334 response window (1300 ms), in which the fixation target turned orange, and observers indicated
335 their response by pressing a button with their right index or middle finger. On one-third of the
336 trials, no orientation stimuli appeared and the screen remained blank for the remainder of the trial.
337 A single trial of the experiment is illustrated in **Figure 4**.

338 Stimuli were two counterphasing sinusoidal gratings of independent orientation $\sim 45^\circ$ or $\sim 135^\circ$;
339 size: 7° ; spatial frequency: 1 cycle per $^\circ$; randomized spatial phase; contrast: 50%; contrast
340 decreased linearly to 0 towards the edge of the stimulus over the last degree), centered at 5° to
341 the left and right of fixation. We used a compound white/black cue consisting of two dots (dot

342 size 0.25°) that straddled the fixation point (0.8° to the left and right of fixation) to indicate with
343 100% validity which of the two gratings should be attended (*Jehee et al., 2011*). Subjects were
344 instructed to attend to the same side of fixation as either the white or black dot in the compound
345 cue. Participants were instructed to detect a small clockwise or counterclockwise rotation in the
346 orientation of the grating at the attended location with respect to a base orientation at 45° or 135°.
347 The size of rotation offset was adjusted with an adaptive staircase procedure using QUEST (*Watson
348 and Pelli, 1983*), such that participants detected approximately 80% of the offsets correctly.

349 All but one participant completed 18 stimulus runs. The remaining participant completed 12
350 runs due to equipment failure. Retinotopic maps of visual cortex were acquired in a separate scan
351 session at a 3T scanner using conventional retinotopic mapping procedures (*Sereno et al., 1995*;
352 *DeYoe et al., 1996*; *Engel et al., 1997*).

353 **MR data acquisition**

354 Functional images were acquired on a Magnetom Siemens 7T scanner with a 32-channel head coil
355 (Nova Medical, Wilmington, USA) combined with dielectric pads (*Teeuwisse et al., 2012*), using a
356 T_2^* -weighted 3D gradient-echo EPI sequence (*Poser et al., 2010*) (TR/TE/ α =3060 ms/20 ms/14°, 72
357 slices oriented orthogonally to the calcarine sulcus, voxel size [0.8 mm]³, FOV: [192 mm]², GRAPPA
358 factor 8).

359 Gradient maximum amplitude was 40 mT/m (in practice, however, this maximum was not
360 reached) and the maximum slew rate was 200 T/m/s. Shimming was performed using the standard
361 Siemens shimming procedure for 7T. There were 18 runs of 72 ± 4 volumes. As the lengths of the
362 events and the inter trial interval were of unequal length, there was a small variation in the number
363 of volumes per run.

364 Finger pulse was recorded using a pulse oximeter affixed to the index finger of the left hand.
365 Respiration was measured using a respiration belt placed around the participant's abdomen.

366 Anatomical images were acquired using an MP2RAGE sequence (*Marques et al., 2010*) [0.75
367 mm]³, yielding two inversion contrasts (TR/TE/TI1/TI2 = 5000 ms/1.89 ms/900 ms/3200 ms).

368 In a separate session prior to the main experiment, a retinotopy session was conducted at a
369 Siemens 3T Magnetom Trio scanner. A high-resolution T1-weighted anatomical scan was acquired
370 (MPRAGE, FOV 256 X 256, 1 mm isotropic voxels) at the start of the session. Functional images were
371 subsequently collected using T_2^* -weighted gradient echo EPI, in 30 slices oriented perpendicular to
372 the calcarine sulcus (TR/TE/ α = 2000 ms/30 ms/90°, FOV = 64 X 64, [2.2 mm]³ isotropic resolution).

373 **Functional MRI preprocessing**

374 **Data preprocessing**

375 Data were corrected for subject motion using SPM with the mean functional volume across time
376 as a reference (*Friston et al., 1995*). Residual motion-induced fluctuations in the BOLD signal
377 were removed through linear regression, based on the alignment parameters (3 translation and 3
378 rotation parameters, no derivatives) of SPM. Scanner drifts were corrected via linear regression
379 with high-pass filter regressors to filter out frequencies below 1/64 Hz. Pulsating signals as a result
380 of the respiratory and cardiac cycle were removed as follows. The cardiac/respiratory peaks were
381 automatically detected from the physiological recordings using in-house interactive peak-detection
382 software, and manually corrected where needed. With a custom MATLAB implementation of
383 RETROICOR (*Glover et al., 2000*), fifth order Fourier regressors were constructed for heart rate and
384 respiration and subsequently removed from the functional images via linear regression. A small
385 part (10% of respiratory measurements, and 18% of heart rate measurements) was of insufficient
386 quality and could not be used in this analysis. Functional data for these time frames were used in
387 the main analysis but uncorrected for cardiac and respiratory noise.

388 The functional and anatomical scans were brought to the same space by registering the anatomical
389 surface from the retinotopy session to the mean functional volume using boundary based
390 registration (BBR), implemented in FreeSurfer's `bbregister` (*Greve and Fischl, 2009*). All registration

391 results were inspected and manually refined when necessary. Where needed, registration was
392 improved by an additional pass of BBR using an in-house MATLAB implementation. Local distortions
393 in EPI due to field inhomogeneity were corrected by means of recursive boundary registration
394 (*Van Mourik et al., 2019*), which recursively applies BBR to small portions of the cortical surface to
395 correct topology locally by means of optimizing the grey-white matter contrast along the surface.
396 We used 7 layers of recursion and only looked for translations and scalings in the phase encoding
397 direction. Note that this procedure displaces the *surface mesh* and not the volume, so this has no
398 smoothing effect on the (layer) signal.

399 Because of temporal changes in magnetic field inhomogeneity, local topology slightly changed
400 over the course of the entire session. For this reason, the 18 functional runs obtained for each
401 subject were first divided into three groups of each 6 contiguous runs, and then each group was
402 pre-processed separately. Time courses were subsequently concatenated before entering the main
403 analyses.

404 Regions of Interest

405 Regions of interest (areas V1, V2, V3) were defined on the reconstructed cortical surface using
406 standard retinotopic mapping procedures (*Sereno et al., 1995; DeYoe et al., 1996; Engel et al.,*
407 *1997*). After identifying areas V1-V3, data from the main experiment were smoothed along the
408 reconstructed cortical surface with a Gaussian kernel (FWHM: 4 mm). The smoothed version of
409 the data was only used in region of interest selection, and not in the main analysis. In each area,
410 we then selected the 600 vertices that responded most strongly to the stimulus (shown on the
411 cortical surface in *Figure Supplement 1*). The selected vertices were resampled from the cortical
412 surface back to subject space by means of FreeSurfer's `label2vol`. T-values of selected voxels ($\mu \pm \sigma$)
413 were V1: $T=2.989 \pm 0.854$, V2: $T=2.317 \pm 0.689$ and V3: $T=2.117 \pm 0.713$. Note that the selection of
414 voxels based on visual activation per se is orthogonal to the analysis of interest, which addresses
415 the effects of attention on individual layers in cortex. Control analyses verified that our results
416 were not strongly affected by the number of vertices selected for subsequent analysis (See *Figure*
417 *Supplement 1*).

418 Cortical profile extraction

419 Layer specific signals were obtained by means of a layer specific spatial General Linear Model
420 (GLM) as described in detail and proposed by (*Van Mourik et al., 2018*). In brief, we obtained three
421 equivolume layers, following the procedures described in (*Waehnert et al., 2014*). We took the
422 reconstructed cortical surface as determined by FreeSurfer (*Dale et al., 1999*) as a basis for this
423 analysis. We used a custom implementation of *Waehnert et al. (2014)* with mild adaptations: the
424 gradient and the curvature of the cortex were defined as a function of Laplacian streamlines in the
425 grey matter as this more naturally follows the structure of cortical columns (*Leprince et al., 2015*).
426 Partial volume inaccuracies were adjusted for by explicitly taking into account the orientation of the
427 voxel with respect to the cortex (*Van Mourik et al., 2019*).

428 The procedure enabled us to divide the gray matter in three equivolume cortical layers, which
429 amounts to roughly one voxel per layer. We additionally defined a volume on either side of these
430 three cortical layers to capture signals for white matter and cerebrospinal fluid. On the basis
431 of these definitions, we then computed a laminar mixing matrix of layer signal over the voxels
432 (*Van Mourik et al., 2018*). This was used as a *spatial* design matrix to unmix the layer signal. By
433 means of a spatial regression of this matrix against the functional data within the ROIs, we obtained
434 laminar time courses.

435 In separate control analyses, we verified that our laminar results did not qualitatively depend
436 on the specific methods that were used to extract the laminar activation profile. We varied several
437 parameters: the number of layers that we extracted and the method of obtaining laminar signal. For
438 the former, we computed the cortical layers with the spatial GLM for four layers instead of three. For

439 the latter, we computed the laminar signal based on a more conventional interpolation approach:
440 by means of interpolating the fMRI volumes at three points in between the cortical surfaces we
441 obtained laminar signal. This may contain contamination from other layers, but is impervious to
442 potential estimation errors as a result of the laminar spatial regression. The difference between
443 approaches is described in detail in *Van Mourik et al. (2018)*.

444 **Temporal analysis**

445 Temporal linear regression was used to compare between the experimental conditions. Regressors
446 were created as follows. The stimuli appeared during the stimulus window on 2/3rds of trials, which
447 were modeled with a single regressor (stimulus on). The remaining stimulus windows were also
448 modeled with a regressor (stimulus off). In addition, attention could either be directed to the left
449 or right visual field; these conditions were each modeled with a regressor. We so obtained four
450 regressors for each of the conditions of interest. Thus, for a given retinotopic region of interest,
451 the four different conditions were: stimulus, no stimulus, attended, and unattended. We used
452 a double-gamma function, as defined by SPM (parameters: time-to-peak first gamma: 5 second,
453 time-to-peak second gamma: 10 seconds, amplitude ratio: 2:1), to model the fMRI responses. These
454 parameters were established based on an initial finite impulse response (FIR) analysis (*Friston et al.,*
455 *1998*) using the visual stimulus response from four pilot subjects (not included in the current study).
456 Based on the observed fMRI response in this pilot data set, temporal or dispersion derivatives were
457 not included into the statistical model of the main experiment. The baseline signal of each run
458 was captured by adding a regressor column of ones for each run separately. As described above,
459 the data were pre-processed by means of nuisance regression. This was performed by adding the
460 nuisance regressors to the design matrix, effectively adjusting for the statistical loss in degrees of
461 freedom as a result of nuisance regression. The reference of one percent signal change was the
462 height of a peak of a two-second-long isolated event (*Mumford, 2007*).

463 We additionally performed a Finite Impulse Response (FIR) analysis to qualitatively assess the
464 BOLD response over time for each of the four conditions. This was used to confirm that the used
465 HRF would accurately describe the true BOLD response. To visualize the cortical response over
466 time for each of the four conditions, we analyzed the data using FIR filters (*Friston et al., 1998*),
467 applied to each layer. Specifically, we constructed FIR regressors for each of the four experimental
468 conditions, each containing 18 time points that represented a time window of 1 second, starting 2
469 seconds before stimulus onset and running until 15 seconds thereafter.

470 We started at the level of the cortical region, initially with no further specification into layers.
471 The temporal regressions were performed on the previously extracted time course of V1, V2, and
472 V3. The obtained parameter estimates were divided by their baseline estimates, in order to convert
473 them to percent signal change. The values in percent signal were compared at the group level
474 by means of ANOVAs and t-tests as appropriate. As the experiment was left-right symmetric and
475 we found no differences between hemispheres in the analyses of interest, the hemispheres were
476 treated as two measurements per participant.

477 We subsequently focused on the laminar level. For a qualitative assessment of the layer specific
478 BOLD response, we repeated the FIR analysis for each experimental condition and each layer. These
479 qualitative results are shown in *Figure 2*. The BOLD responses do not seem to vary per layer beyond
480 a general intensity increase towards the pial surface. To further investigate this quantitatively, we
481 repeated the region specific analysis with the addition of the 'layer' factor. By means of an ANOVA,
482 we ascertained layer specific effects and their interactions with the stimulus and the region effects.
483 These were followed by t-tests where appropriate, to further inspect significant results. As the
484 experiment was left-right symmetric and we found no differences between hemispheres in the
485 analyses of interest, we took the hemisphere data as two measurements per participant.

486 **Code and data availability**

487 All code and data can be found online: <https://doi.org/10.34973/bf42-rx14> for a full data set for
488 a single subject and all raw files from the scanner <https://doi.org/10.34973/eb4d-md15>. Layer-
489 specific analysis were performed using custom-written software available online <https://github.com/TimVanMourik/OpenFmriAnalysis>. This pipeline can be inspected graphically (*Van Mourik*
490 *et al., 2018*) (<https://giraffe.tools/workflow/TimVanMourik/LayerAttention>). Moreover, it can readily
491 be applied to custom data; we prepared data from a representative subject to be used as a template
492 pipeline.

493
494 Preprocessing of the data and construction of design matrices was performed in MATLAB. The
495 FIR analysis, the region of interest analysis, and the layer specific analyses were performed in an
496 openly available Jupyter notebook (available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3428603>).

497 **Author Contributions**

498 PJK and JFMJ designed the experiment. TvM and LJB collected the data. TvM and DGN developed the
499 laminar analysis techniques. TvM and JFMJ analysed the data. TvM, DGN, and JFMJ wrote the paper.

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852 Appendix 1

853 Layer specific HRF for all conditions and layers

854 To assess the degree to which the results are robust to different analysis choices, we
855 additionally analysed the data using a variety of alternative methodological parameters. This
856 section discusses the obtained results. Our main analysis was done on a region of interest
857 of 600 vertices. The method of extracting cortical signal was the spatial GLM (*Van Mourik
858 et al., 2019*) with three cortical layers. We redid the main analysis with a smaller region of
859 interest (300 vertices) and a larger one (900 vertices), other factors remaining equal. We
860 further wanted to make sure that changing the number of layers did not qualitatively change
861 our interpretation and recomputed the main analysis with four instead of three cortical
862 layers. For comparison with traditional studies that use signal interpolation for obtaining
863 laminar signal, we also employed this technique in an additional control analysis. All results
864 (p-values) of the main analysis, the ANOVA of the factors stimulus, attention, layer, and
865 region, are included in one table (1).

866 For further inspection, the results are also included as figures, analogous to *Figure 3* in
867 the main text. *Figure Supplement 1* and *Figure Supplement 2* show stimulus and attention-
868 based effects across layers after selecting, respectively, the 300 and 900 most activated
869 vertices (cf. *Figure 3* in the main text, based on 600 vertices). Note that, per this selection,
870 these results should (and do) show higher and lower activation values for the top 300 and
871 900 vertices, respectively. *Figure Supplement 3* shows results after defining four cortical
872 layers, rather than three, and *Figure Supplement 4* depicts results obtained from
873 interpolation instead of a laminar spatial GLM. Error bars indicate ± 1 SEM. In all Figures,
874 presenting a stimulus (circles) resulted in a reliable increase in BOLD response from deep
875 to superficial layers. The BOLD response was significantly enhanced for the attended (red)
876 compared to unattended location (blue) across layers, both when a stimulus was presented,
877 and in the absence of visual stimulation (see Table 1 for statistics).

878 We repeated the main analysis four additional times. Thus, it is to be expected that some
879 p-values that are around the significance threshold in the main analysis, fall slightly below or
880 rise slightly above it in some of the control analyses. There were only two instances where
881 significance ($p < 0.05$) changed compared to the layer analyses that are presented in the
882 main text.

883 While we observed a trending effect for the stimulus by attention interaction in the main
884 laminar analysis (trending, with $p = 0.0733$), it was significant for the analysis with a larger ROI
885 ($p = 0.0272$) and with four extracted layers ($p = 0.0118$), but not for the smaller ROI ($p = 0.271$)
886 and trending for the signal extraction by means of interpolation ($p = 0.0552$). These results
887 are all close together and hovering around the significance threshold of $p = 0.05$. A stimulus
888 by attention effect ought to be interpreted as a multiplicative effect of stimulus and attention,
889 i.e. an additional signal increase when the presented stimulus is attended compared to
890 when the location per se (i.e. no stimulus) is attended. However, this trending effect does not
891 affect any of our conclusions regarding the layer-specific effects of stimulus and attention.

892 While the Stimulus by Layer by Area interaction was significant in the main analysis ($p =$
893 0.0214), this interaction was not significant after selecting the 300 most activated vertices (p
894 $= 0.2056$). However, in the three other control analyses, the effect became more pronounced
895 (larger ROI: $p = 8.89 \cdot 10^{-3}$, interpolation: $p = 2.78 \cdot 10^{-5}$, and four layers: $p = 6.19 \cdot 10^{-4}$).

Appendix 1 Table 1. The p-values for the ANOVA as described in the body of the paper. The five columns are the main analysis (first column, bold face), and four control analyses: an analysis based on a smaller ROI (300 vertices); on a larger ROI (900 vertices); the same ROI but laminar signal extracted by means of interpolation instead of a GLM; and a GLM but with four layers instead of three. P-values above 0.05 are marked in black. P-values between 0.05 and 0.01 are marked in red. P-values below 0.01 are marked in green.

	GLM, 600 vertices	GLM, 300 vertices	GLM, 900 vertices	Interpolation	GLM, 4 Layers
Stimulus	1.648436e-12	5.954187e-13	1.290311e-11	3.726032e-12	2.496749e-13
Attention	1.032463e-08	3.833341e-08	4.175371e-09	9.482100e-09	9.216548e-09
Layer	1.067460e-13	2.851381e-11	7.013292e-13	1.890989e-15	3.237563e-15
Area	1.134083e-08	2.712885e-08	1.114299e-07	1.019932e-08	4.101310e-09
Hemisphere	9.914955e-01	9.461482e-01	9.101537e-01	9.177039e-01	9.029095e-01
Stimulus:Attention	7.331790e-02	2.710442e-01	2.720432e-02	5.523979e-02	1.179676e-02
Stimulus:Layer	1.433143e-13	6.233730e-12	7.235421e-14	8.002511e-15	2.812629e-18
Attention:Layer	8.335165e-10	3.172532e-08	1.934224e-10	7.100456e-12	2.061512e-11
Stimulus:Area	9.424679e-10	2.786488e-08	7.976153e-09	7.472970e-10	1.449285e-10
Attention:Area	7.253885e-02	1.208362e-01	7.744268e-02	1.406810e-01	8.801709e-02
Layer:Area	8.137692e-04	3.749919e-03	7.251511e-03	1.577094e-05	9.033174e-02
Stimulus:Attention:Layer	3.936910e-01	7.659098e-01	1.507279e-01	7.908435e-02	5.661013e-01
Stimulus:Attention:Area	7.370581e-01	6.246065e-01	7.617405e-01	7.980477e-01	7.956297e-01
Stimulus:Layer:Area	2.136465e-02	2.055745e-01	8.894002e-03	2.779890e-05	6.190268e-04
Attention:Layer:Area	4.155126e-01	2.893327e-01	3.384936e-01	2.462276e-01	3.289884e-01
Stimulus:Attention:Layer:Area	8.124587e-01	8.742156e-01	7.084470e-01	9.209281e-01	1.570871e-01

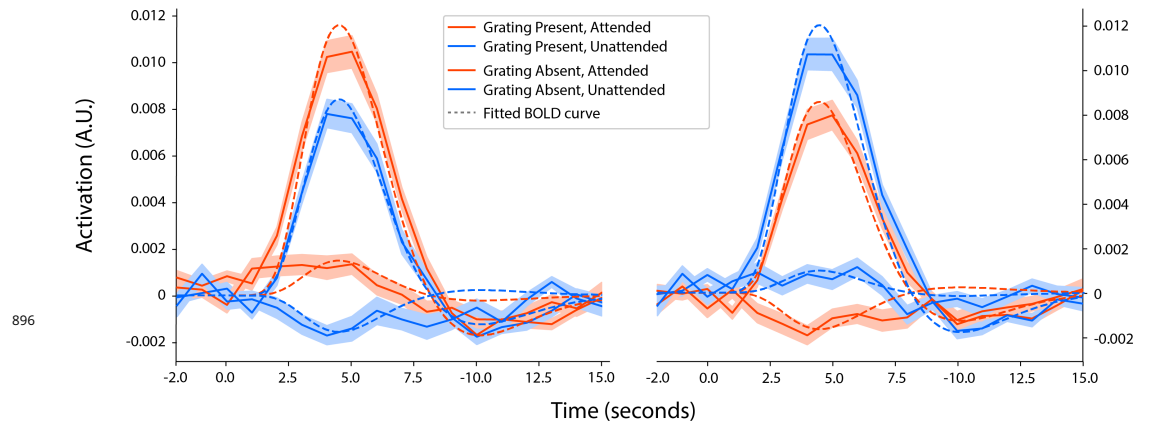


Figure 1-Figure supplement 1. The fitted BOLD response for each experimental condition, separated by hemisphere. The shaded area represents the standard error of the mean over subjects. Results were obtained by fitting a Finite Impulse Response function of 18 time points, starting at 2 seconds before and running until 15 seconds after stimulus onset. The dashed line indicates an HRF that was fitted to the responses in a pilot session (see Methods). The same HRF parameter values were used in other statistical analysis.

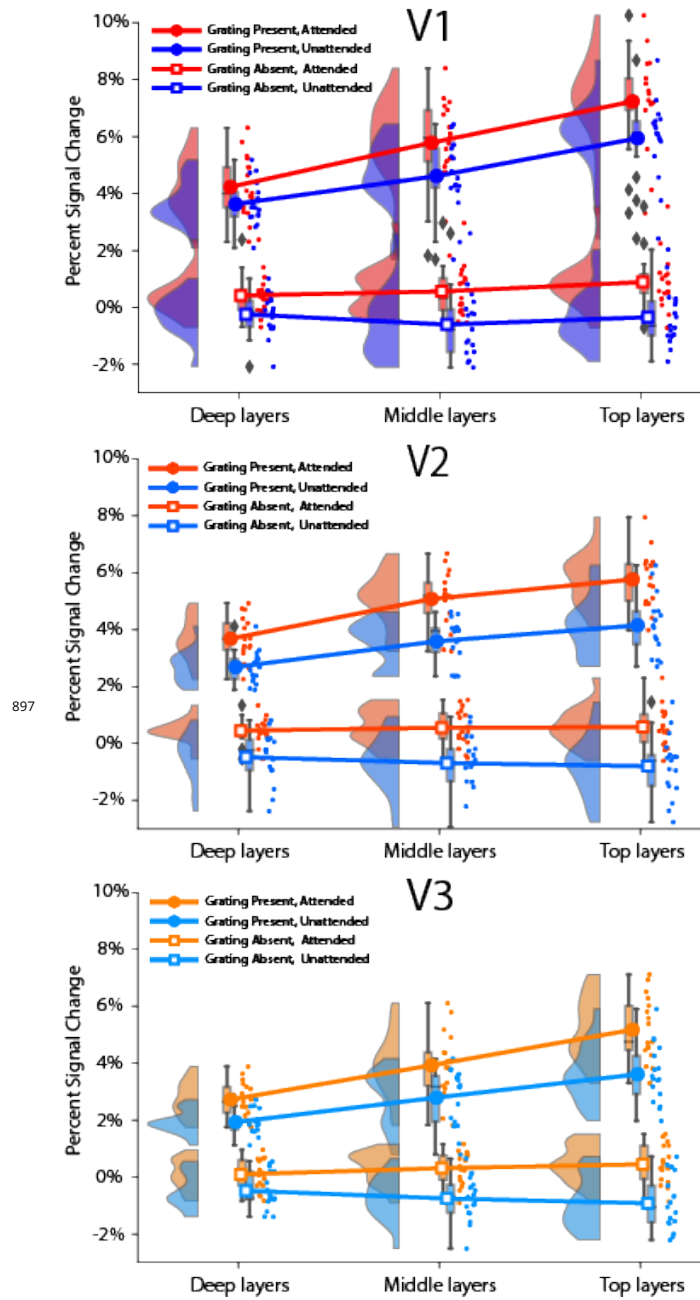


Figure 3-Figure supplement 1. A control analysis that is identical to the main analysis, but repeated with a smaller region of interest. Only the 300 highest activated vertices were included in the analysis.

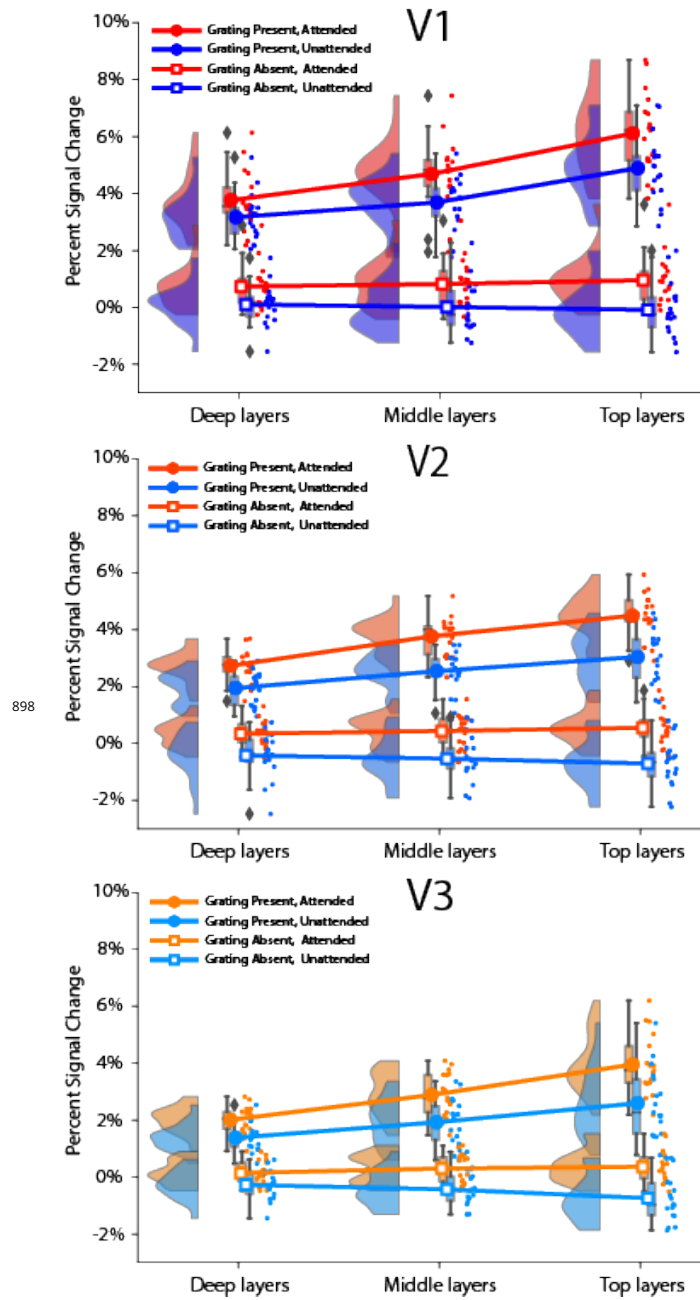


Figure 3-Figure supplement 2. A control analysis that is identical to the main analysis, but repeated with a larger region of interest. Only the 900 highest activated vertices were included in the analysis.

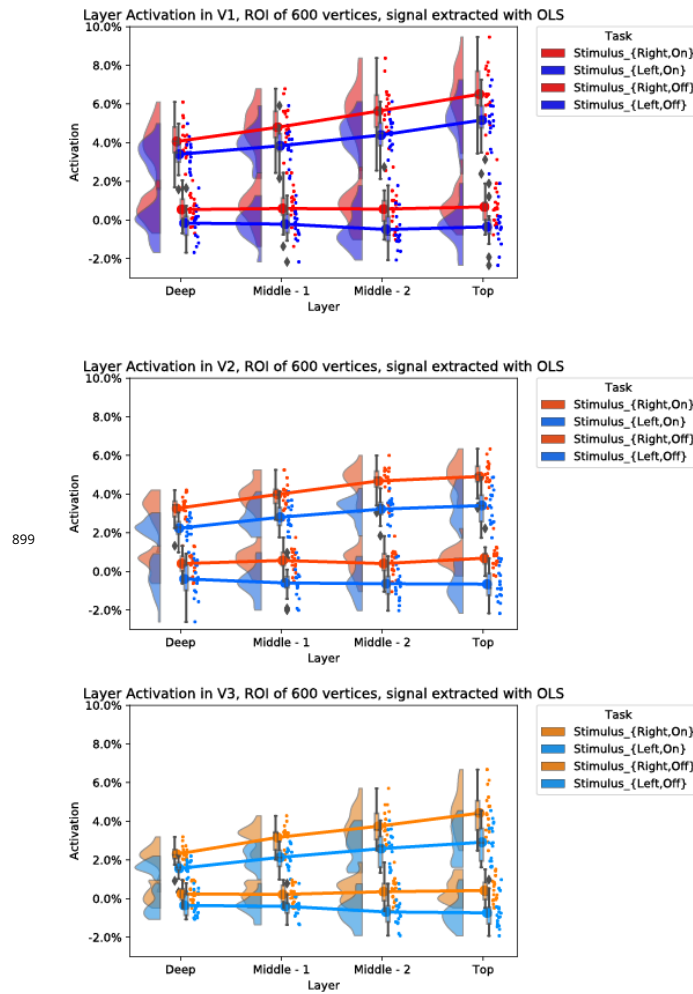


Figure 3-Figure supplement 3. A control analysis that is identical to the main analysis, but repeated with four extracted layers instead of three.

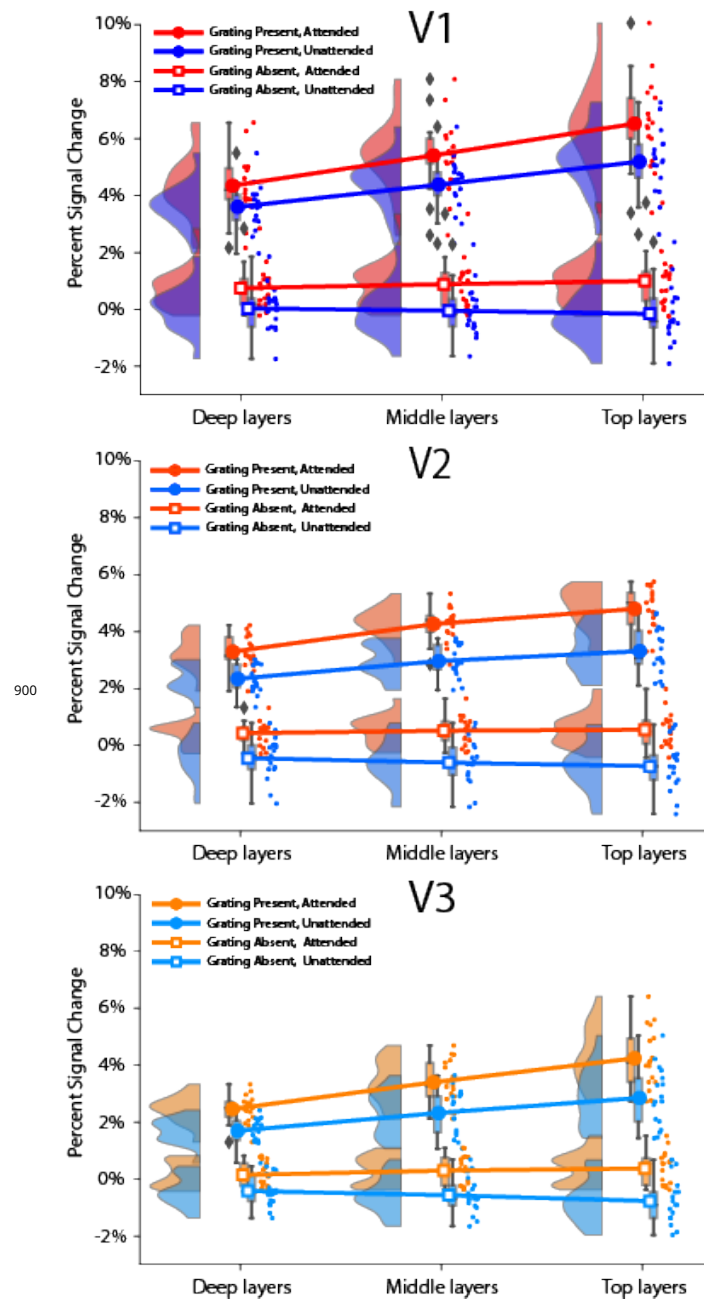


Figure 3-Figure supplement 4. A control analysis that is identical to the main analysis, but repeated with a different way of obtaining laminar signal.

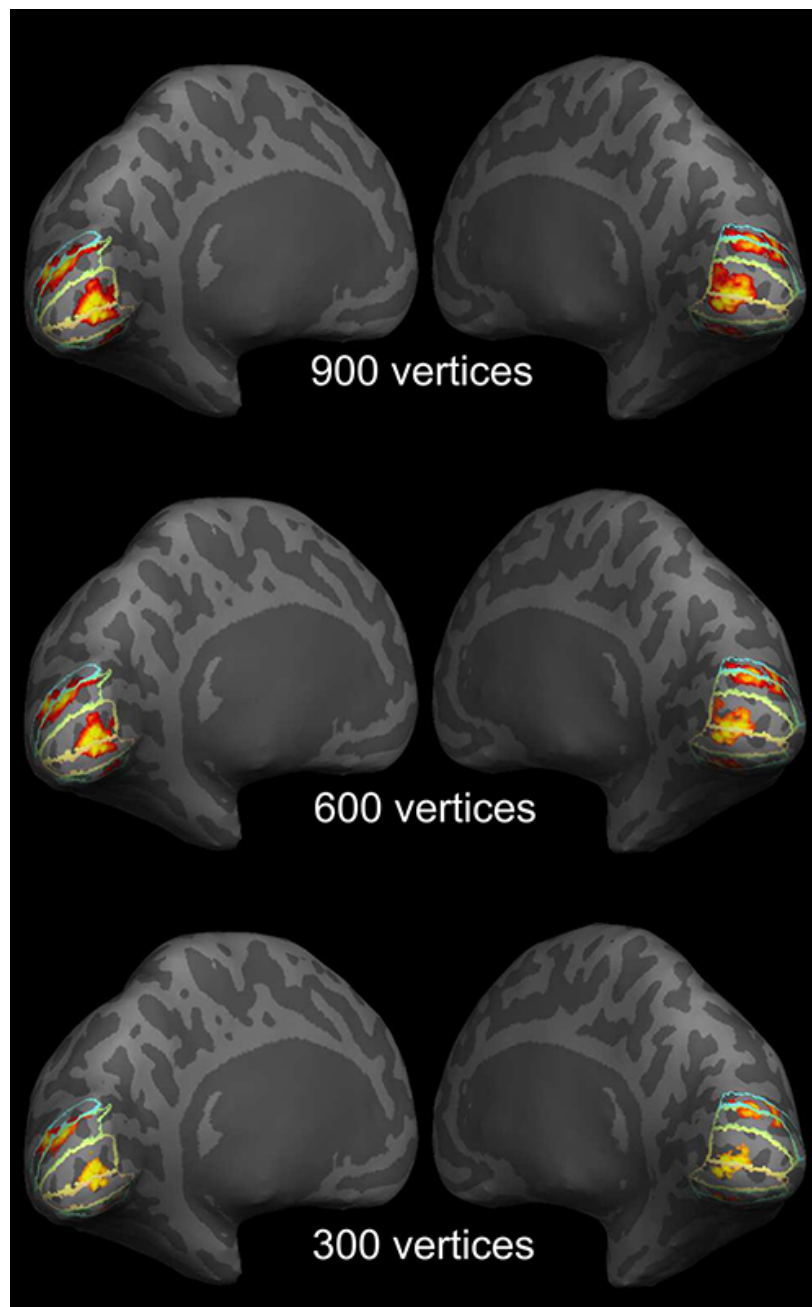


Figure 4-Figure supplement 1. Example of Regions of Interest on the inflated cortical surface for a representative subject. The label contours from top to bottom show dorsal V3, V2, and V1 and ventral V1, V2, and V3, in both hemispheres. The 600 most activated vertices (coloured area) per region were selected for the main analysis. The 300 and 900 vertices were used for control analyses in order to show that the effects are independent of size of region of interest.