

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Higher Neural Functions and Behavior

Dynamic neural reconstructions of attended object location and features using EEG

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Abstract

Attention allows us to select relevant and ignore irrelevant information from our complex environments. What happens when attention shifts from one item to another? To answer this question, it is critical to have tools that accurately recover neural representations of both feature and location information with high temporal resolution. In the present study, we used human electroencephalography (EEG) and machine learning to explore how neural representations of object features and locations update across dynamic shifts of attention. We demonstrate that EEG can be used to create simultaneous time courses of neural representations of attended features (time point-by-time point inverted encoding model reconstructions) and attended location (time point-by-time point decoding) during both stable periods and across dynamic shifts of attention. Each trial presented two oriented gratings that flickered at the same frequency but had different orientations; participants were cued to attend one of them and on half of trials received a shift cue midtrial. We trained models on a stable period from Hold attention trials and then reconstructed/decoded the attended orientation/location at each time point on Shift attention trials. Our results showed that both feature reconstruction and location decoding dynamically track the shift of attention and that there may be time points during the shifting of attention when η feature and location representations become uncoupled and 2) both the previously attended and currently attended orientations are represented with roughly equal strength. The results offer insight into our understanding of attentional shifts, and the noninvasive techniques developed in the present study lend themselves well to a wide variety of future applications.

NEW & NOTEWORTHY We used human EEG and machine learning to reconstruct neural response profiles during dynamic shifts of attention. Specifically, we demonstrated that we could simultaneously read out both location and feature information from an attended item in a multistimulus display. Moreover, we examined how that readout evolves over time during the dynamic process of attentional shifts. These results provide insight into our understanding of attention, and this technique carries substantial potential for versatile extensions and applications.

feature binding; inverted encoding model; neural reconstructions; spatial attention shift; SSVEP

INTRODUCTION

The visual environment contains so much information, and given that we have limited cognitive resources visual attention plays an essential role in selecting the important information (1–3). Spatial attention is one way we can focus on the most relevant objects and locations for behavior and filter out the irrelevant information. Spatial attention can accelerate target information accrual across eccentricity (4) and may speed the transition between sensory input and the formation of object representations (5–7). In our daily lives,

however, spatial attention is rarely static: when there are multiple objects or locations of interest, we may shift spatial attention frequently between them. Numerous studies have investigated the neural mechanisms of shifts of attention with various neuroscience tools (see reviews in Refs. 8–10), and exploring the behavioral consequences of shifts of attention has become an important topic in the cognitive psychology literature (1, 11–14).

At the whole brain network level, neuroimaging studies have established two separate fronto-parietal systems involved in different attentional operations: the dorsal attention network,



Submitted 26 April 2022 / Revised 10 May 2023 / Accepted 2 June 2023

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which is related to top-down goal-directed attention, responsible for the voluntary deployment of attention to stay focused on current goals, and the ventral attention network, which is related to bottom-up, stimulus-driven attention, responsible for the reorientation to salient or unexpected events in the environment (9, 15). Neurophysiological evidence is consistent with top-down and bottom-up attention signals in frontal and parietal cortices (16), and it has been well documented that fronto-parietal activation is associated with the control of orienting (17–22). Specifically, the superior parietal lobule (SPL) and medial regions of the prefrontal cortex show transient increases in neural activity when attention is disengaged from fixation and shifts to new peripheral locations (19, 22). SPL is also shown to engage in covert shifts of attention between spatial locations (19, 23–25), features (24), objects (26), and visual/auditory modalities (27). Human electroencephalography (EEG) studies have further identified certain event-related potential (ERP) components linked to spatial shifts of attention (7, 28-30), thought to be localized to extrastriate and parietal cortices (5, 31). Other studies have focused on neural time courses of attentional shifts, using electrophysiological signatures of EEG and single-unit recording (32, 33).

At the same time, human behavioral studies have revealed behavioral costs associated with shifts of attention. For example, reaction times are slower when attention must be shifted to a new location to perform a task rather than holding attention at the same location (34, 35). Similar behavioral costs are found when a distracting stimulus captures attention away from a target location (36). Furthermore, more recent studies have revealed that these dynamic shifts of attention bring additional challenges to our visual system to correctly bind location and features (11, 37-39). Identifying visual objects requires our brain to process both location and feature information (40-47), and a common theory of feature integration suggests that attention serves as a glue to bind objects' features together (45, 48, 49). During rapid shifts of attention, and when spatial attention is otherwise disrupted or spread across different locations, different types of feature binding errors can occur (11, 37-39, 50).

To study dynamic shifts of attention and understand how these behavioral consequences link to shifts of attention at a neural level, it is essential to have tools that can accurately recover neural representations of both feature and location information and do so across a shift of attention with high temporal resolution. On the rise of machine learning and multivariate pattern analyses in recent years, many functional (f)MRI studies have made efforts to decode or reconstruct location- and/or feature-selective responses in the human visual cortex (see Refs. 51-53 for reviews). By making prior assumptions of organization of feature space, encoding models have advantages in reconstructing population-level response profiles of the sensory cortex (54). The inverted encoding model (IEM), one example of an advanced encoding model of neural representation, has been successfully utilized to reconstruct location- or feature-selective response profiles in both visual perception and visual working memory (55-60).

Despite these recent advances, fMRI has inherently poor temporal resolution because of the lag of hemodynamic response. This makes fMRI a suboptimal tool to study the dynamic process of neural representations across attention shifts. Electroencephalography (EEG) and magnetoencephalography (MEG) have millisecond-level temporal resolution and make better candidates to reveal the dynamics of neural information processing. Previous studies have found that EEG and IEM could be exploited to reconstruct visual perceptual information and working memory content (6, 57, 61, 62), but to our knowledge this has never been attempted across dynamic shifts of attention.

In the present study, we used EEG and IEM to reconstruct the neural response profiles during dynamic shifts of attention. Our design has multiple unique advances over prior studies. First and foremost, we focus on simultaneous readout of location and feature information from an attended stimulus and how that readout evolves over time. To do so, we used a multistimulus design, where two stimuli were presented but only one was attended at any given moment. This is important because if only one stimulus was presented and the algorithm was run to reconstruct its location or feature (e.g., Ref. 61), the decoded information could come from two sources: the signal could be directly driven by the sensory information and/or by the attended information. Therefore, to better understand shifts of attention and recover the content of attended information specifically, we presented two stimuli simultaneously and deliberately maintained the same visual information while manipulating spatial attention. Finally, we make use of a variation on the steady-state visual evoked potential (SSVEP) approach to access both attended location and feature information from a common neural signal; as described more below, our approach incorporates aspects from both frequency tagging (33, 63) and alpha band decoding (57, 64–69) to produce a neural measure with both theoretical and practical advantages.

Some prior studies have used EEG steady-state visual evoked potentials (SSVEPs) to access which of multiple items is being attended via a frequency tagging approach, where each stimulus is tagged by presenting it repeatedly at a certain temporal frequency, which entrains the neural signal (63). In these studies, the EEG signal is decomposed into power at different frequencies, and the attended item can be tracked based on which of the tagged frequencies has greater power (33) or increased reconstruction quality (62). In the present study, however, we are not interested in tracking which of the two items is being attended; rather, we are interested in reconstructing what is being attended, i.e., how do the contents of attention (feature representations) evolve across shifts of covert spatial attention? Thus, rather than using frequency tagging, we presented the two stimuli at the same frequency, such that the generated SSVEP signal reflects both stimuli. In this sense, our approach is more similar to studies that try to reconstruct the focus of attention from a common, stimulus-independent alpha band signal (65, 69). Critically, however, we aim to independently reconstruct both attended spatial and attended feature information. For this purpose, we hypothesized that SSVEP power at the stimulus-entrained frequency may be more beneficial, especially given prior evidence that location information is robustly decodable from alpha band activity but location-independent orientation information is not (64). We conducted machine learning analyses to test whether we can reconstruct the attended location and feature information

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from this common signal. We are particularly interested in tracking how this recovered information updates with a shift of attention. Our goals were thus to establish *1*) whether this technique can produce reliable reconstructions of attended location and feature information from multistimulus displays and *2*) whether we can track how these reconstructions change over time across dynamic shifts of attention.

METHODS

Participants

Twenty-five subjects (8 male, 17 female; mean age = 21.56 yr) participated in the experiment for monetary compensation (\$15/h). All participants reported having normal color vision and normal or corrected-to-normal visual acuity. Three additional participants were excluded because of poor behavioral performance (change detection accuracy in Hold trials < 10%; the rest of participants >70%, see *Behavioral Task*). All participants provided written informed consent, and study protocols were approved by The Ohio State University Behavioral and Social Sciences Institutional Review Board.

Behavioral Task

The stimuli consisted of one black fixation cross and two colored flickering, square-waved gratings presented on a solid gray background with luminance of 37.5 cd/m². The size of the fixation cross was 1° , and it was displayed at 2°

visual angle below the center of the screen. The size of each grating was 8° visual angle in diameter, and it was displayed at 2° above and 6° left or right of the screen center (Fig. 1). The spatial frequency of the gratings was 4 cycle/degree visual angle (dva). The orientations were chosen from a set of nine orientations (0°, 20°, 40°, 60°, 80°, 100°, 120°, 140°, 160°), such that the two gratings displayed were always 60° apart (clockwise or counterclockwise), resulting in 18 different stimulus pair combinations. An independent jitter ranging from -5° to 5° was then added to each orientation.

One grating was colored purple (L = 70, $a^* = 28.4$, $b^* =$ -21.4), and the other one was colored gold (L = 70, a* = 11.6, $b^* = 97.4$; the two colors were equiluminant. To generate SSVEPs, the contrast of the gratings was reversed (e.g., purple to white to purple) at 40 Hz (i.e., the stimuli changed 40 times per second). Participants were asked to always covertly attend to either the purple grating or the gold grating (color balanced across participants), all while keeping their eyes fixated on the fixation cross. The to-be-attended color was determined on a participant-wise basis: 13 participants always attended the purple grating during their session, and 12 always attended the gold grating. The purple and gold gratings were equally likely to appear in the left or right position at the start of the trial, and participants were instructed to covertly shift their attention if the colors switched positions (described below).

Before each trial, participants were shown a screen with a fixation cross and a black arrow above it that pointed left or right, indicating where the to-be-attended target grating



Gratings flicker at 40Hz for 3000ms Shift cue occurs between 1300ms to 1700ms

Figure 1. Example trial sequences for Hold attention and Shift attention trials. Example here shows sequences for a participant asked to covertly attend the purple grating (half of the participants attended the gold grating instead). Dashed circles (not actually shown to participants) indicate the to-be-attended item over time. On switch trials (randomly intermixed with Hold trials), the colors of the gratings switched in the middle of the trial and participants had to shift attention to track the purple (or gold) one. Participants were instructed to monitor the attended item for subtle orientation changes and press a button when one was detected. At the end of trial. participants were asked to rotate an orientation bar to match the orientation of the most recently attended grating.

would appear at the beginning of the trial. We included this additional spatial cue to avoid visual search and/or attention shift effects at the beginning of the trial. When they were ready to begin the trial, participants pressed the space bar. The two colored, flickering gratings appeared on the screen and were displayed for 3,000 ms.

There were two spatial attention conditions: In half of the trials, the colors of the two gratings remained the same throughout the trial, so participants attended to the same item/location the entire trial ("Hold condition"). In the other half of trials, the two gratings switched colors midway through the trial (i.e., the purple grating turned gold, and the gold grating turned purple). Once the two gratings switched their colors, participants needed to immediately shift their spatial attention to the other grating ("Shift condition"). On Shift trials the two gratings swapped colors but preserved their original orientations, so the spatial shift resulted in attending a new grating whose orientation was 60° different from the original one. Hold and Shift trials were intermixed and randomized in each block, such that participants could not predict whether a shift would take place at the beginning of the trial. The onset of the shift cue was randomly picked for each trial from a uniform distribution ranging from 1,300 ms to 1,700 ms after the stimulus onset.

To confirm that participants maintained their attention on the correct grating, each grating had zero, one, or two subtle orientation changes (10°) during the trial. For each grating independently, there was a 50% probability of a change in the first part of the trial (0-1,300 ms) and a 50% probability of a change in the second part of the trial (1,700– 3,000 ms). The probabilities were independent, so overall on each trial there was a 25% likelihood of no changes, a 50% likelihood of a single change, and a 25% likelihood of two changes. Participants were instructed to immediately press the "s" key when they detected an orientation change in the attended grating. They were also told to disregard any changes in the nonattended grating. In particular, if the current trial was a shift trial, once the color switch happened participants needed to monitor and report the subtle orientation change in the newly attended grating and ignore the previously attended grating. At the end of trial, participants were also asked to rotate an orientation bar (appearing on the screen center) to match the orientation of the most recently attended grating and press the space bar to confirm their answer.

To confirm that participants maintained fixation on the fixation cross while covertly attending the grating, we performed gaze-contingent eye tracking. If a participant's eye position deviated >1.5 dva from the fixation cross during the period while the flickering gratings appeared on the screen, the trial was aborted immediately and repeated at a random time later in the block.

The study was scheduled in two sessions. In the first session, participants completed two blocks of the main behavioral task without EEG, to familiarize themselves with the task. The second session (scheduled at a later time) was the official EEG session. During this 2-h session, participants completed up to 12 blocks of the task (each containing 48 trials, 24 per condition) while EEG data were collected. We decided in advance that participants who completed at least 10 blocks (480 trials) would be included in the analyses; all 25 participants met this criteria (M = 11.72 blocks).

Experimental Setup

All stimuli were presented with MATLAB (MathWorks, Natick, MA) and the Psychophysics Toolbox (70–72) on an Apple Mac Mini. Participants were seated 80 cm away from a 27-in. CRT monitor with a resolution of 1,280 \times 1,024 and a refresh rate of 120 Hz. The CRT monitor was color calibrated with a Minolta CS-100 (Minolta, Osaka, Japan) colorimeter.

Eye tracking.

Participants' eye position was monitored with an EyeLink 1000 system (SR Research, Ottawa, ON, Canada) recording pupil and corneal reflection in real time to ensure that participants were fixating the central fixation cross (trials on which participants broke fixation were aborted, as described above). A chin rest was used to stabilize participants' head position.

EEG.

Scalp EEG activity was recorded while subjects performed the behavioral task in a shielded testing room. Each subject was fitted with an elastic cap containing 64 active Ag/AgCl electrodes arranged in an extended 10-20 layout, recorded via a Brain Products actiCHamp Amplifier at a sampling rate of 1,000 Hz. Two additional electrodes (TP9, TP10) were attached to the left and right mastoids via electrode stickers. Electrode impedances were reduced to <25 k Ω before the commencement of each experiment session.

EEG Preprocessing

EEG data preprocessing was done with EEGLAB (73) and custom MATLAB scripts. We first downsampled the EEG data to 250 Hz and rereferenced to the mean activity of all electrodes offline. Then we applied a band-pass filter from 0.1 to 58 Hz (using "pop_eegfilternew.m" in EEGLAB). The data were segmented into epochs corresponding to each trial by taking EEG activity for each electrode from -500 ms to 3,500 ms relative to the start of that trial. (The time period when the stimuli were presented on the screen was 0 ms to 3,000 ms.) We removed epochs in which the peak-to-peak range of any electrode was larger than 50 µV during the stimulus display (from 0 ms to 3,000 ms relative to the start of each trial). Each epoch was then visually inspected to confirm that there were no further artifacts. On average, 12.81% of trials (SD: 2.52%) were discarded for each participant after the preprocessing.

Our experimental design (described below) perfectly balanced trial counts across conditions, but after noisy trials were excluded the counts may not be fully balanced within each participant. Because an imbalance in the initially attended location (left vs. right) could influence training of the models, we rebalanced the attended target location to equate the number of trials on which the target was on the left side of the screen in the beginning or on the right side of the screen by randomly selecting a subset of trials from the larger group. Because each random selection caused a small number of trials to not be included in the final analyses, we repeated the selection process 100 times and applied all

J Neurophysiol • doi:10.1152/jn.00180.2022 • www.jn.org

analyses for each selected dataset. We report the final averaged results to minimize the random selection effects.

Behavioral Analyses

Change detection task.

We calculated the d' for the change detection task. Each trial may have zero, one, or two orientation changes. Because two orientation changes in one trial could be displayed very close to each other, participants may respond by pressing the response key longer but not pressing twice. Because this change detection task was primarily intended to encourage and verify participant compliance, to simplify our analyses we combined trials with one and two orientation changes. Hit trials were defined as trials where participants successfully detected any changes when there was at least one change. False alarm trials were defined as participants reporting one or two changes when the trial had zero changes. d' was calculated as

d' = z(hit rate) - z(false alarm rate)

To avoid infinite values, we manually defined the minimum and maximum probability of each rate as 1/N and (N - 1)/N, where N is the number of trials of that condition.

Posttrial orientation report.

For the posttrial continuous report task, the difference between the correct orientation and the reported orientation was calculated as the "report error" for each trial. The report error range is from -90° to 90° . We realigned the direction of report error in the shift condition so that a positively signed report error means that the reported orientation was attracted toward the orientation of the initially attended item $(+60^{\circ})$ and a negatively signed report error means that the reported orientation was repulsed away from the initially attended item's orientation. On Hold trials, the report error was mock aligned to match the shift condition (and eliminate any systematic clockwise/counterclockwise bias). We then fit the distribution of report error with a probabilistic mixture model (74, 75). The model assumes that the distribution of report error comes from two sources (Formula 1): one von Mises distribution (ϕ) accounting for the probability to correctly report the target orientation, with a flexible mean (μ) allowing the model to capture any systematic bias from the target orientation and a flexible concentration parameter (κ) to capture precision, and one uniform distribution accounting for the probability (γ) of random guessing. Note: because we did not observe any large "swap" errors (see Fig. 3), we chose this simpler mixture model without a swap error distribution.

$$P(\theta) = (1 - \gamma) \varphi_{\mu,\kappa} + \gamma \left(\frac{1}{\pi}\right)$$

For each participant and each condition, we fit the model by applying Markov chain Monte Carlo with MemToolbox (76). The best-fitting parameters (maximum likelihood estimate) were compared between conditions. We also tested whether there were feature distortions in each condition by comparing the mean shift parameter (μ) to zero. We additionally calculated the mean signed error (without mixture modeling) for each participant and each condition as a nonmodeling measure to determine whether the mean of the report error distribution for each condition was significantly shifted from zero.

Manipulation Check: Event-Related Potential Analysis

As another way of confirming that participants were correctly allocating attention to the target orientation, especially on shift trials, we analyzed event-related potential (ERP) data aligned to the shift cue (in the Hold trials, we randomly picked a time point at each trial as the mock "shift cue" time). We averaged the signal amplitude from a subset of posterior and parietal channels (P7/P8, PO7/PO8, P3/P4, and O1/O2) based on the previous literature (77) and subtracted the baseline EEG activity from 400 ms to 0 ms before the shift cue to calculate the ERPs. We sorted trials based on the attended side and calculated the difference waveforms by subtracting signals from contralateral side to ipsilateral side. We hypothesized that if attention was correctly shifted to the new target when the shift cue appeared, we should observe a robust N2pc component on Shift trials but not Hold trials (28). We calculated the mean N2pc amplitude by averaging the difference signals from 200 ms to 300 ms. We also calculated the contralateral delay activity (CDA) by averaging amplitude from 400 ms after shift cue onset to the end of the trial.

Main EEG Analyses: Pipeline for Reconstructing Attended Spatial and Feature Information

Time-frequency analysis.

Our main analyses rely on time-frequency analyses of the preprocessed EEG signal. Below we describe the steps to extract the SSVEP power over time, which is then used for decoding attended location [see *Multivariate classification* (*decoding attended location*)] and attended orientation [see *Inverted encoding models* (*reconstructing attended orienta-tion*)]. This pipeline is visually depicted in Fig. 2. Because our main emphasis is on reconstructing attended feature and location information across shifts of attention, we use the Hold trials as training data and the Shift trials as the testing data for the models.

First, to validate that our design evoked significant SSVEPs, we calculated the EEG power spectrum. Figure 2A shows an example electrode channel (POz) illustrating the increased power in the 40 Hz frequency band (the stimulus frequency), with the spatial topography of the SSVEP signal maximal over the parietal-occipital electrodes.

To extract the time point-by-time point SSVEP power for the main analyses, we first applied a frequency-domain Gaussian-shaped filter to the epoched artifact-free EEG signal for each trial (78). The analysis is done with custom Python and MATLAB scripts. A Fourier transform was applied to the padded signal to convert it from time domain to frequency domain. The frequency-domain EEG signal was point-wise multiplied by a Gaussian-shaped filter with peak frequency at 40 Hz and full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) at 3 Hz. An inversed Fourier transform was then applied to recover the time-domain EEG signal. Finally, to extract the instantaneous power value of SSVEP, we applied a Hilbert transform to the filtered EEG data. To better deal with the edge effect, the signal was padded with 500 ms of blank data in both ends before the time-frequency analysis. The padded data were removed after the analyses to



Figure 2. Overview of EEG analysis procedure. *A*: time-frequency spectrum of example electrode (POz), showing the increased power in the 40 Hz stimulus frequency band. Scalp distribution shows that steady-state visual evoked potential (SSVEP) power in the 40 Hz band was strongest among parietooccipital electrodes, as expected. *B*: overview of EEG analysis pipeline for reconstructing attended feature and spatial information. *C*: schematic for the feature reconstruction (inverted encoding model) process. See METHODS for details.

maintain the same length as the original signal. To maximize our temporal resolution, we tested different wavelets with FWHM ranges from 0.5 Hz to 5 Hz and found that at least 3 Hz was required to achieve a reliable orientation reconstruction.

The above analysis results in a $m \cdot n \cdot t$ matrix for each participant and each condition representing the spatiotemporal pattern of SSVEP power, where m is the number of electrodes, n is the number of trials, and t is the number of time points. The temporal resolution of this matrix is 4 ms (we downsampled the EEG signal to 250 Hz). However, it should be noted that because of the use of the 40 Hz SSVEP and frequency filtering, each data point is not entirely independent. The effective temporal precision ranges from a minimum of

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25 ms (the SSVEP frequency) to \sim 140 ms (estimated time for the filtered signal to achieve 95% maximum power; 75% power takes \sim 50 ms). To avoid overfit and reduce computational demands, the 17 posterior channels (P7, P5, P3, P1, Pz, P2, P4, P6, P8, P07, P03, P0z, P04, P08, O1, Oz, O2) were selected for input to the decoding and encoding model, as previous literature has reported that SSVEP is most commonly observed in these posterior electrodes (Ref. 63; also see Fig. 2*A*).

Inverted encoding models (reconstructing attended orientation).

To reconstruct attended feature information on Shift trials, we used a cross-condition training and test routine. We trained the model based on the patterns of EEG SSVEP power and orientation of the attended items on Hold trials and then inverted the model weights to reconstruct the attended orientation on Shift trials. We first applied this inverted encoding model (IEM) procedure to the stable attention periods of the shift trials, defining the before-shift period as the first second after stimulus onset (*time 0* to *time 1 s*) and the after-shift period as the last second before stimulus offset (*time 2 s to 3 s*). SSVEP power was averaged over each time window for each electrode and participant. For both stable attention periods, as well as the dynamic reconstruction analyses below, we wanted to ensure that we used common training data. The use of common training data ensures that any differences in test results are not due to the differences in the training data. For the stable attention periods, we tested two options for common training data: the two corresponding stable attention periods from Hold trials (first second or final second). Note that we wanted to avoid the middle period of the Hold trials since Hold and Shift trials were intermixed, and participants may have been anticipating or preparing for attention shifts even on Hold trials. For this reason, for the dynamic reconstructions below we selected the final second of Hold trials (rather than the first second) as the training data set, because there was no uncertainty at that point in the trial as to whether or not a shift would occur, so this period was the most pure hold-attention period.

For the dynamic reconstruction of attended feature over time analysis, we trained the model on the final-second time window of Hold trials (i.e., the average power over that training window) and then tested the model on the time pointby-time point Shift data. We alternatively considered using a model with separate training data for each time point [train Hold time(t), test Shift time(t)], but there are both theoretical and practical advantages of using common training data for each reconstruction (79). (Preliminary analyses using the time point-by-time point train and test procedure gave us similar, though noisier, results.)

For the IEMs, we followed similar approaches as previous literature (Refs. 54, 62; Fig. 2*C*). We assumed that the signal at each electrode reflects the linear sum of nine different hypothesized orientation channels (basis set). The response function of each basis channel is modeled as a half sinusoid raised to the eighth power, where the centers of the nine response functions are circularly distributed across feature space (20° , 40° , 60° , ..., 180°). We repeated the process described below 19 times for each model, iteratively shifting the center of each response function 1° each time. Iterative

shifting of basis sets allows for more accurate reconstructions across the full orientation space (80–82).

The IEM model assumes a linear relationship between the EEG signal and channel tuning functions. During the training stage, a weight matrix is estimated as follows:

$$B_1 = WC_1$$

where B_1 (*m* electrodes \times *n* trials) is the observed EEG signal (SSVEP power) at each electrode in the training set, C_1 (*k* channels \times *n* trials) is the response function of the hypothesized orientation basis set channels, and *W*(*m* electrodes \times *k* channels) is the weight matrix that characterizes a linear mapping from channel space to electrode space. The weight matrix *W* is derived via ordinary least-square estimations as

$$\widehat{W} = B_1 C_1^T \left(C_1 C_1^T \right)^{-1}$$

where \hat{W} (*m* electrodes $\times k$ channels) is the least-square solution.

In the test stage, we inverted the model to transform the test data B_2 (*m* electrodes × 1 trial) to the estimated channel response $\widehat{C_2}$ (*k* channels × 1 trial), using the estimated weight matrix \widehat{W} :

$$\widehat{C_2} = \left(\widehat{W}^T \widehat{W}\right)^{-1} \widehat{W}^T B_2$$

The output of the model is the estimated channel response for each test trial (and/or test time point). After iterative shifting, these channel-tuning functions (CTFs; Ref. 69) were circularly shifted to align all trials to a common center for statistics and illustration purposes; for our figures the aligned reconstruction plots were centered on 30° (range -60° to 120°), with 0° indicating the orientation of the initially attended item and $+60^{\circ}$ the orientation of the second attended item (similar to the behavioral mixture model, we flipped reconstructions for trials where the second attended item was actually oriented -60° so that all reconstructions would be aligned in the same way).

Because in the Hold condition the attended orientation stays the same and in the Shift condition the attended orientation changes by 60° in the middle of the trial, if IEM correctly models the attended orientation, we should observe CTFs shift their peak center from the initially attended orientation (0°) to the newly attended orientation (60°) .

To quantify the orientation sensitivity of the CTFs, we calculated linear slope as an index of orientation sensitivity (57, 66, 68, 83). We calculated symmetric slope by reversing the sign of positive orientation channels and collapsing their channel responses with the corresponding negative degrees. Then we fitted a linear regression to obtain the linear slope as the sensitivity measure. Higher slope indicates greater orientation sensitivity. For shift trials, we calculated slope in two ways: relative to the initial attended item's orientation (CTFslope-O1) and relative to the second attended item's orientation (CTFslope-O2). Reliable reconstructions of attended feature information should show a CTFslope-O1 significantly greater than 0 in the first part of the shift trial and a CTFslope-O2 significantly greater than 0 in the second part of the shift trial (see *Statistical significance tests*).

Multivariate classification (decoding attended location). For the attended spatial information analyses, support vector machine (SVM) was applied to determine whether the

attended location (left vs. right) could be decoded from the spatial distribution of SSVEP power over time. Analogous to above, we trained the SVM on the last second of Hold trials, using SSVEP power and the correct attended location for each trial, and then tested at each time point on the Shift trials to predict its attended location. Because there were only two possible locations to attend, the chance level of the prediction is 50% (left vs. right). We used custom Python code and "SVC" function from "sklearn" package, using a linear kernel and regularization parameter set to 1.0.

Additional decoding analyses.

For control and comparison purposes, we conducted additional analyses decoding attended location from *1*) gaze position and *2*) alpha band power. For gaze position, we input the trial-by-trial average horizontal eye position to a simple linear decoder. For the alpha power signal, we applied a twoway least-squares finite impulse response filter to the EEG signal, in the frequency range of alpha range (8–12 Hz). Subsequently, we performed a Hilbert transformation on the filtered signal, as in Foster et al. (69). We then conducted the same analyses as described above to perform attended location decoding on the spatial distribution of alpha band power over time.

Statistical significance tests.

To determine significant time points for the above analyses, we used cluster-based permutation tests to correct for multiple comparisons and identify clusters of time points when the CTF slopes were significantly larger than 0 (significant orientation reconstruction) and/or location decoding performance was significantly better than chance (84, 85). For each analysis, we first did a one-sample t test to detect time points with CTF sensitivity >0 (or location decoding accuracy >0.5). We used 0.05 as the alpha threshold (t = 1.711, 1sided, df = 24) to identify clusters of adjacent points and computed the sum of all the *t* values within each cluster. We then compared the sum of t values against a null distribution empirically specified with the Monte Carlo randomization procedure. The null distribution is calculated by randomizing the training and test labels and repeating the IEM procedure (or multivariate classification procedure in the case of location decoding performance) 1,000 times. We followed the same procedure as described above to compute the sum of t values for the largest cluster for each of the 1,000 iterations, resulting a null distribution with 1,000 sums of t values. We compared the sum of t values of the correctly labeled data with the 95th percentile of the null distribution to determine whether the cluster was above chance (1-tail alpha rate = 0.05).

RESULTS

Behavior and ERP Analyses Confirm That Participants Successfully Performed the Attention Task

Behavioral analyses of the change detection task indicated that participants were able to allocate and maintain their attention to the correct location. Participants detected the orientation changes in the attended item at significantly better than chance level on both Hold trials [d' = 2.258, t(24) = 8.988, P < 0.001] and Shift trials [d' = 1.269, t(24) = 6.562, P < 0.001]

0.001]. Posttrial continuous orientation reports similarly showed that participants reported the target orientation rather accurately, with probabilistic mixture models outputting low guess rates and high precision (small standard deviation) for both Hold and Shift trials (Fig. 3A).

Given prior behavioral reports of feature distortions when attention is split across two locations (11, 37-39), we also measured feature distortions (target orientation report either biased toward or repulsed away from the other item's orientation). There was no evidence for distortion in hold trials: µ was not significantly different from zero [t(24) = 1.017, P =0.318]. However, for Shift trials μ was slightly but significantly negative [t(24) = 2.372, P = 0.025], indicating that participants' posttrial orientation reports were shifted away from the initially attended orientation (repulsion effect). We also assessed this in a model-free analysis by analyzing the mean of the entire error distribution. For Hold trials, we did not observe a response bias [M = 0.140; t(24) = 0.642, P =0.527]. For shift trials, we found that the mean of reporting error was numerically negative and marginally significant [M = -0.526; t(24) = -1.930, P = 0.066], consistent with a weak response bias away from the initially attended orientation.

As a preliminary analysis and sanity check of the EEG data, we also analyzed ERPs with data aligned to the shift cue. Shifts of spatial attention are associated with characteristic ERP components, particularly a contralateral N2pc at the posterior/occipital channels, typically peaking from 200 ms to 250 ms at P7/P8, PO7/PO8, P3/P4, and O1/O2 (113). We observed a robust N2pc on Shift trials (Fig. 3B), peaking at 229 ms after the shift cue [$M = -0.937 \mu$ V, t(24)=3.318, P =0.003]. On Hold trials, no N2pc was present, as expected. Another ERP marker of selective spatial attention and maintaining objects in working memory is the CDA (86, 87), which is apparent in Fig. 3B for Shift trials, peaking at 700 ms after the shift cue $[M = -2.285 \ \mu\text{V}, t(24) = 8.892, P < 0.001]$. Note that a robust CDA on hold trials would have been visible if the data were aligned to the stimulus onset, but it is not visible in Fig. 3B because these ERP plots were aligned and baseline-adjusted to the nonexistent shift cue.

Attended Feature Information Can Be Reliably Reconstructed from Multistimulus Displays

Having confirmed that our behavioral task was successful at manipulating selective attention and evoking covert shifts of attention, we turned to our first main goal: Can the EEG IEM model reliably reconstruct attended feature information from these multistimulus displays? In other words, before attempting to track how neural reconstructions might change dynamically around the time of a shift of attention, we first needed to confirm that we could reconstruct the orientation that was attended in the first half of the trial (before any shift cue) and the orientation attended in the second half of the trial (well after the shift).

Critically, we could reconstruct attended feature information during the static attention periods both before and after the shift cue with this technique (Fig. 4). The reconstructions revealed two peaks: In the before-shift static period, there was a primary peak centered on the orientation of the

J Neurophysiol • doi:10.1152/jn.00180.2022 • www.jn.org

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Figure 3. Behavioral and event-related potential (ERP) results. *A, top*: behavioral orientation report error distributions for Hold and Shift trials. We aligned the directions of the errors for Shift trials so that the initially attended orientation was always represented at $+60^{\circ}$. *Bottom*: parameter estimates from the mixture-modeling analysis: guess rate = probability of random guessing, SD = standard deviation of target distribution, and μ = mean shift of target distribution; bar plots show values averaged across subjects, with individual subjects' values plotted as dots. *B*: ERPs from electrodes P7/P8, PO7/PO8, P3/P4, and O1/O2 aligned to shift cue onset time (for shift trials), calculated for trials with contralateral vs. ipsilateral attended location. Because there were no actual shift cues in Hold trials, we randomly selected time points during the shift cue window to align the Hold trials (control data) accordingly. CDA, contralateral delay activity.

initially to-be-attended item (the current target) as well as a smaller peak centered on the orientation of the other item in the display. In the after-shift static period, there was a primary peak centered on the orientation of the current to-be-attended item as well as a smaller peak centered on the orientation of the other item in the display (the previous target). Thus, our technique is capable of reconstructing the orientations of two different items in the display and of differentiating which one is at the current focus of attention.



Figure 4. Orientation reconstructions during the static attention periods. Inverted encoding models (IEMs) were trained on Hold trials and tested on Shift trials. The before-shift static period (first period) is the first second after stimulus onset (0–1,000 ms; *left*), and the after-shift static period (final period) is the last second before stimulus offset (2,000–3,000 ms; *right*).

We note that, unsurprisingly, the reconstructions for each period are stronger when the training dataset came from the same corresponding time period on Hold trials. However, particularly for the dynamic reconstruction (time course) analyses below, it is critical to use common training data to ensure that any differences in test results are not due to differences in the training data. For all analyses that follow, we selected the final second of Hold trials (rather than the first second) as the training dataset, because there was no uncertainty at that point in the trial as to whether or not a shift would occur, so this period was the most pure hold-attention period.

Decoding of Attended Location from the Same Signal

Based on prior work we expected that attended location would be reliably decoded from the EEG signal during these static attention periods, and indeed that was true: The average location decoding accuracy in the before-shift static period was 0.651 (SD 0.125), significantly above chance [chance level: 0.5; t(24) = 5.906, P < 0.001]. In the after-shift static period, the location decoding accuracy was 0.708 (SD 0.121), also significantly above chance [t(24) = 8.442, P < 0.001].

Importantly, we also found that decoding of attended location with this common-signal SSVEP approach was superior to other potential signals. First, to ensure that the above results were not driven by oculomotor artifacts (e.g., microsaccades or small fixation biases), we asked whether we could decode attended location based on eye position. For the before-shift static period, the decoding accuracy was 50.75%; for the after-shift static period, the decoding accuracy was 51.02%. Neither was significant; the 95% range of error based on permutation tests was [48.75%, 51.31%]. Thus, attended location could not be reliably decoded from eye position. Second, we compared decoding of attended location using alpha-band power instead of the 40 Hz SSVEP signal. Decoding accuracy was significantly above chance with the alpha power signal but was less effective than with our technique, resulting in lower decoding accuracy, increased noise, and slower resolution for detecting the shift in attention (see Supplemental Fig. S1).

Reconstructed Location and Orientation Time Courses Both Track the Shift of Attention

Finally, we tested whether this approach can dynamically track the attended orientation and attended location as covert spatial attention shifts to a different stimulus during the trial. Figure 5A shows the time course of feature reconstructions on Shift trials, plotted as time-by-time channel tuning functions (CTFs) temporally aligned for each trial such that *time 0* is the onset of the shift cue. (Supplemental Fig. S2 shows a comparable CTF plot for Hold trials, though there is some nonindependence between the training and test data for the Hold analysis.)

The dynamic CTF nicely captures the updating of the attended feature on Shift trials. Consistent with the static reconstructions, dynamic CTFs accurately reconstructed the orientation of the initially attended stimulus during the first half of the trial. Immediately after the shift, a period of poorer/ambiguous reconstruction was visible, followed by a settling of the reconstructions on the orientation of the newly attended stimulus (aligned at 60°). Figure 5B plots these feature reconstructions another way, using CTF slope as a quantitative measure to assess reconstruction quality at each time point. We calculated CTF slope in two ways for each time point: centered on the orientation of the initially attended item (CTFslope-O1) and centered on the orientation of the newly attended item (CTFslope-O2). During the first half of the trial, the orientation of the initially attended item was significantly reconstructed (CTFslope-O1 > 0, P < 0.05, clusterbased permutation test) at all time points. After the shift cue there was a transient period (\sim 170–400 ms after cue) where both the initially and newly attended orientations were significantly reconstructed, and then eventually only the orientation of the newly attended item was recoverable. We note that slope is just one of several possible measures to quantify reconstruction quality [for example, we found a similar pattern using the mean absolute error metric of Scotti et al. (82)], but it appears to reasonably well capture the fluctuations of attended orientation in the CTFs in Fig. 5A.

These results indicate that our dynamic IEM approach successfully tracked the attended orientation(s) across the





shift of attention. Moreover, the period where both orientations seemed to be represented, with overlapping time points where both CTFslope-O1 and CTFslope-O2 were significant, is particularly intriguing. Such a pattern is consistent with prior findings of temporal overlap in attentional facilitation during shifts of attention (11, 32, 88, 89), as we speculate on in DISCUSSION.

We also examined the time course of attended location decoding (Fig. 5*C*). This analysis was quantified as a simple decoding accuracy (attending left vs. right location). Before the shift cue, we could decode the attended location (left vs. right) consistently above chance (chance = 0.5; P < 0.05, cluster-based permutation test). After the shift cue, the decoded location gradually shifted to the other side and became significantly above chance after 260 ms, peaking around 600 ms.

Cluster-based permutation tests were performed for both the dynamic feature reconstruction and dynamic location

decoding analyses. Although it is important to keep in mind that these are quantified by different measures and location is a two-way decoding whereas orientation is a continuous reconstruction, there are some intriguing comparisons between the two time courses that may be interesting to speculate on. Comparing the attended feature and location time courses revealed what could be characterized as multiple distinct periods: a stable precue period, potentially three distinct transition stages, and a stable postcue period. Note that although we include time points corresponding to these stages in our descriptive summary below, this is primarily for ease of linking to Fig. 5; we are not aiming to make specific claims about the precise temporal extents of these time periods and emphasize caution in interpreting the specific time points, since cluster-based permutation tests are designed to correct for false positives at the cluster level, not the point level (90).

During the stable period before the shift cue, the correct currently attended location and orientation could both be significantly and robustly recovered from the EEG SSVEP signal. For the first 150 ms after the shift cue, spatial attention appeared to still be primarily lingering at the initial location, though the signal was rapidly decaying to chance. During this time, neither orientation could be reconstructed above baseline. From ~150-250 ms after cue, location decoding was not significantly different from chance, suggesting that spatial attention was truly in transition. Strikingly, during this ambiguous spatial attention period, both the initial and the newly attended orientations could be significantly reconstructed. Since the location decoding analysis was simply a two-way decoder, we cannot resolve whether spatial attention was simultaneously at both locations or neither (or highly variable across trials), but we are clearly capturing a transitory period of ambiguous spatial attention, during which both items' orientations were represented. Starting \sim 280 ms after shift, the location decoding became significant for the newly attended location, yet, interestingly, both orientations could still be significantly reconstructed for another 100 ms. Finally, starting \sim 400 ms after cue, only the correct newly attended orientation and location were significantly represented. Reconstruction slope and location decoding accuracy both continued to increase for another 100 ms or so, plateauing into the postshift stable period. As another interesting point of comparison, it is also potentially notable that the location decoding time courses remained at a relatively constant and stable accuracy over the duration of the static-attention periods, whereas the orientation reconstruction slopes seemed to oscillate throughout the trial; one possibility is that the feature reconstruction technique is more sensitive to oscillations of attention and/or divided attention, a speculation we revisit in DISCUSSION.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we used EEG and IEM to reconstruct the neural response profiles during dynamic shifts of attention in high temporal resolution. Specifically, we demonstrated that we could simultaneously read out both location and feature information from an attended stimulus to produce reliable reconstructions of attended location and feature information from multistimulus displays. Moreover, we examined how that readout evolves over time during the dynamic process of attentional shifts.

Our study offers several methodological and theoretical contributions. In terms of methodological contributions, our study can be thought of as a proof of concept that EEG can be used to construct time courses of the neural representations of attended features (time point-by-time point IEM reconstructions) and attended location (time point-by-time point decoding) during both stable periods and across dynamic spatial shifts of attention. Our approach builds off of prior studies using machine learning and IEM to decode/ reconstruct the locations or features of a stimulus, either visually presented or in memory, from neuroimaging data (6, 51-58, 60-62). However, unlike most of the previous studies, we focused on *1*) both the location and feature information *2*) for an attended stimulus in a multistimulus display; *3*) explored how the readout information evolved over time;

and 4) showed that a model trained on Hold attention trials could be used to reliably track the updating of neural representations on Shift attention trials. To our knowledge this is the first study to successfully attempt this combination of goals. Our approach also carries advantages because it uses the same exact neural signal for both location and orientation reconstructions, giving us an unbiased window into the contents of attention. Moreover, our supplemental results comparing an alternative EEG signal commonly used for location decoding, alpha power, suggest that our approach offers practical benefits in terms of quality as well. Of course, as we discuss more below, with all new approaches there is room for improvement and refinement, but the present results demonstrate that this approach both is feasible and carries substantial potential for versatile extensions and applications.

In addition to the methodological contributions of this study, our results reveal some intriguing aspects of attentional updating that contribute to various theoretical issues in the attention literature. One aspect is how attended and unattended items are represented in a multi-item display. A number of prior studies have demonstrated that neural reconstructions of object features are more precise for attended than unattended items (91, 92) and that the attended orientation can be decoded from ambiguous stimuli (93). In the present study, we similarly found that we could reliably reconstruct the attended orientation during the static attention periods. We also found some evidence for a weaker but detectable reconstruction of the other orientation in the display. It is unclear whether this secondary peak was due to participants also allocating some attention to the other item in the display or it simply reflects the visual stimulus representation. A supplemental analysis in which we trained the IEM on the unattended orientation did not produce reliable reconstructions (Supplemental Fig. S3), suggesting that the secondary peak may indeed reflect an attentional effect, though this is not a definitive test. If the secondary peak does reflect attentional sampling, this could potentially be driven by intrinsic rhythmic sampling (94-97)and/or anticipatory sampling before expected attentional shifts (50). In the first half of the trial, participants did not know whether they would be holding attention or shifting attention, so there may have been some incentive to represent both items in the display. However, we note that it is unlikely that participants were simply distributing their attention across both items, as the behavioral task required sustained focused attention on the attended item for the unpredictable and challenging change-detection task, and the results showed that participants were indeed focusing their attention on the current target item, as both the attended feature and attended location could be reliably extracted from the neural signal. These questions also bear similarities to the working memory literature, where studies have examined how representations change when items are added to or dropped from working memory (83, 98-101), except that in the present study only one orientation needed to be attended and held in working memory at a time.

Another finding of the present study is that there appeared to be a transitional period following the shift cue during which both the previously attended and the currently attended orientations could be significantly reconstructed. In other words, after the spatial shift of attention, the previously relevant orientation was not immediately discarded but was still temporarily represented in the neural signals. Because these reconstructions averaged across trials, it is difficult to say whether this effect was due to variable timing of attentional updating across trials or simultaneous representations of both items. However, a prior study in primate V1 found that during spatial shifts of attention attentional enhancement is found for the item that is newly attended (distractor to target status) faster than attention is withdrawn from the initially attended item (target to distractor status) (32). ERP evidence has also suggested that attention can be maintained at its previous location while it is simultaneously allocated to a new target object (102). Similar temporal overlap of attentional facilitation has been found when attention is updated across eye movements, resulting in a dual spotlight (88) or soft handoff (103, 104) of attention, and soft handoffs of attention are also found across hemispheres during multiple object tracking (105).

Indeed, the time course of attentional shifting has been debated over the years across behavioral (89, 106, 107), monkey neurophysiological (32), and human EEG (33, 108) studies. The present study offers a unique addition of providing several simultaneous measures that can track the time course of attentional shifts, including the N2pc, decoding of attended location, and reconstruction of attended orientation. The reconstruction time course for attended orientation revealed that the newly attended orientation first became significant around 170 ms after cue, similar to Khavat et al.'s (32) distractor-to-target latency of 144 ms after switch. Meanwhile, the previously attended orientation was still significantly reconstructed at 400 ms (substantially after Khayat et al.'s targetto-distractor latency of 210 ms). The location decoding time course crossed the chance point around 150 ms and then became significant for the new location at 250 ms, and the N2pc peaked 229 ms after the shift cue. Meanwhile, both the location decoding and orientation reconstructions did not reach their peaks until 500-600 ms after the cue. One takeaway from these data is that attentional shifting is perhaps better thought of as a more nuanced set of multiple processes or steps that unfold over an extended time window rather than a single unitary switch.

Moreover, other previous literature has suggested that location plays a vital role in the process of binding features into cohesive objects (44, 109). When we talk about attention shifting from one object to another object, we generally do not separate the attended location and attended feature. But in fact, during the shift of attention both the attended location and feature representations are updated, and location and feature representations may involve different brain regions (110). An important question that this paradigm opens up is whether these two processes are temporally linked such that the timing of location updates is correlated with the timing of feature updates. The data presented here suggest some intriguing links, but an exciting future direction of this paradigm would be investigating correlations between the feature and location time courses across subjects and/or trials. Because we only collected a single session of EEG data per subject the present experiment was not powered to get reliable measures of transition time points in individual subjects, but future studies employing more extensive sampling may be better powered to investigate individual differences.

Another appealing direction for future applications of this technique would be to try to link individual or trial-wise behavior with the attended location and feature reconstruction measures. We did not find significant correlations between behavioral report measures and location or feature reconstructions in the present study, but we note that the behavioral tasks were not optimized to detect subtle variations in attentional state but rather primarily meant to ensure that participants were attending to the correct item. As such, performance in the posttrial behavioral task (orientation report) was essentially at ceiling, exhibiting very low variability, and the frequency of the probes in the ongoing change detection task was too low to use for this purpose. That said, this paradigm may carry even more enticing potential for investigating attentional contexts that produce more behavioral errors and variability, such as divided attention (11), attentional capture by salient distractors (37), remapping across eye movements (39), vigilance/distraction (111, 112), and rhythmic oscillations of attention (94, 95).

One limitation of the present study is that the measures we used for assessing the attended feature and attended location representations are not directly comparable in terms of quality. We chose to focus on a single shift of attention between two fixed locations in the present study for a well-powered and clean proof of concept, and thus our attended location measure was limited to two-way decoding. In principle, future tasks could be designed such that a continuous reconstruction measure (IEM or other model-based technique) could be used to evaluate both attended location and attended orientation on the same scale, though likely multiple sessions of EEG data would be needed per subject.

In conclusion, by applying IEM and machine learning methods to EEG data we simultaneously reconstructed feature representations and the location of spatial attention over the shift of attention in a multistimulus design. Our results showed that both feature reconstructions and location decoding dynamically track the shift of attention and that there may be time points during the shifting of attention when 1) feature and location representations become uncoupled and 2) both the previously attended and currently attended orientations are represented with roughly equal strength. The results offer insight into our understanding of attentional shifts, and the techniques developed in the present study lend themselves well to a wide variety of future applications.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data and analysis code are publicly available on the Open Science Framework (https://osf.io/reb28/).

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental Figs. S1–S3: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare. 22791005.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Maurryce Starks for assistance with data collection and helpful discussion.

GRANTS

This work was supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health (R01-EY025648) and from the National Science Foundation (NSF 1848939) to J. D. G.

DISCLOSURES

No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.C. and J.D.G. conceived and designed research; J.C. performed experiments; J.C. analyzed data; J.C. and J.D.G. interpreted results of experiments; J.C. prepared figures; J.C. and J.D.G. drafted manuscript; J.C. and J.D.G. edited and revised manuscript; J.C. and J.D.G. approved final version of manuscript.

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