A Source for Feature-Based Attention in the Prefrontal Cortex

Highlights

- Prefrontal cortex plays a key role in finding objects based on visual features
- Neurons in the VPA region of PFC exhibit the earliest times of feature selection
- Deactivation of VPA impairs the ability to find objects based on their features
- VPA appears to be the source of feature selection in FEF, but not spatial selection

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In Brief
Bichot et al. identified a region in prefrontal cortex where neurons compute the similarity between objects in their receptive fields and objects that we are searching for, and send this information to the frontal eye fields for targeting eye movements.
A Source for Feature-Based Attention in the Prefrontal Cortex

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SUMMARY

In cluttered scenes, we can use feature-based attention to quickly locate a target object. To understand how feature attention is used to find and select objects for action, we focused on the ventral prearcuate (VPA) region of prefrontal cortex. In a visual search task, VPA neurons responded selectively to search cues, maintained their feature selectivity throughout the delay and subsequent saccades, and discriminated the search target in their receptive fields with a time course earlier than in FEF or IT cortex. Inactivation of VPA impaired the animals’ ability to find targets, and simultaneous recordings in FEF revealed that the effects of feature attention were eliminated while leaving the effects of spatial attention in FEF intact. Altogether, the results suggest that VPA neurons compute the locations of objects with the features sought and send this information to FEF to guide eye movements to those relevant stimuli.

INTRODUCTION

In scanning a complex scene, we often know what we are looking for, but not necessarily where it is. The ability to quickly find an object based on a memory of its features is normally attributed to feature-based attention, which shares some properties with memory recall and visual imagery. For simplicity, we will not distinguish between attention to features of an object versus attention to objects as configurations of multiple nonspatial features. The memory of the searched-for object has been described as the “attentional template” for search (Desimone and Duncan, 1995; Duncan and Humphreys, 1989; Wolfe et al., 1989). FEF, area LIP, and the superior colliculus have all been described as containing “priority maps,” in which responses to a stimulus in a given location in the retinotopic map are scaled according to the similarity of the stimulus to the searched-for target feature (Basso and Wurtz, 1998; Kusunoki et al., 2000; Thompson and Bichot, 2005). For example, if a monkey is searching for a yellow banana in a scene, the locations of all yellow stimuli in the priority maps might be signaled by enhanced neural activity. Cells in those areas respond as though they have received information about the similarity between the stimulus features in their receptive fields (RFs) and the features of the searched-for target, ultimately resulting in the selection of a single stimulus for a saccade target or further visual processing (Findlay and Walker, 1999; Hamker, 2005; Itti and Koch, 2001; Olshausen et al., 1993; Wolfe et al., 1989). However, cells in those structures show little or no selectivity for features such as yellow or activity related to the memory of these features. Thus, it seems unlikely that these areas compute the similarity between the features of the attentional template and the features of a stimulus. How is the match computed between the feature at a given location and those of the search object?

One possibility is that the match is computed in early visual areas, such as V4, where the responses of cells are feature selective and are also influenced by feature attention, i.e., the features of the target the animal is searching for (Chelazzi et al., 2001; Hayden and Gallant, 2005; Martinez-Trujillo and Treue, 2004; McAdams and Maunsell, 2000; Motter, 1994). In particular, we have previously shown that, during free-viewing visual search, the responses of V4 neurons are maximally enhanced when there is a preferred feature in their RF, and that feature matches some or all of the target features, independently of the locus of spatial attention (Bichot et al., 2005; Zhou and Desimone, 2011), as predicted by parallel search models (Desimone and Duncan, 1995; Wolfe et al., 1989).

However, recent studies with paired recordings in FEF and V4 have shown that the onset of feature-based selection in a free-viewing visual search task (Zhou and Desimone, 2011) occurs earlier in FEF than in V4, and the same relative timing difference has been found in a color-cueing spatial attention task (Gregoriou et al., 2009). If the effects of feature and spatial attention occur later in V4 than in FEF, it seems very unlikely that V4 is the source of the selection signals observed in FEF.

Instead, parts of prefrontal cortex (PFC) outside of FEF seem more likely to be a major source of computations for feature-based object selection. PFC has traditionally been associated with executive control (for review, see Miller and Cohen, 2001) and working memory for locations and objects (Everling et al., 2006; Funahashi et al., 1989; Fuster and Alexander, 1971; Mendoza-Halliday et al., 2014; Miller et al., 1996; Rainer et al., 1998; Rao et al., 1997). Human imaging studies show that parts of PFC are active during both spatial and feature attention (Bressler et al., 2008; Egner et al., 2008; Gazzaley and Nobre, 2012; Giesbrecht et al., 2003), and a recent human MEG and fMRI study has reported that a particular region in PFC, the inferior frontal junction (IFJ), played an important

role in the top-down control of feature-based attention (Baldauf and Desimone, 2014).

In the monkey, we focused on the portion of ventral PFC that extends forward from FEF onto the prearcuate gyrus and ventral bank of the principal sulcus. This region has interconnections with IT, TEO, and possibly V4 on the one hand, and connections with FEF and other parts of PFC on the other (Barbas and Pandya, 1989; Webster et al., 1994). A monkey imaging study has shown that this region, along with FEF and a posterior portion of area 46, is differentially activated during search for a salient target (Wardak et al., 2010). Because the physiological properties of the cells in the ventral bank of the principal sulcus (which we will term “VPS”) and cells on the ventral prearcuate gyrus (which we will term “VPA”) appeared to be somewhat different, we have presented the results from the two subregions of PFC separately, using strictly anatomical designations.

We also recorded from the central portion of the inferior temporal (IT) cortex, which plays an important role in object recognition (for review, see DiCarlo et al., 2012) to test the alternative possibility that a stage of visual processing later than V4 is the source of feature-based attention, consistent with known feedback of attentional modulation from higher-order to lower-order visual areas (Buffalo et al., 2010). The distinctive properties of cells in VPA and the effects of VPA deactivation on behavior and FEF responses suggest that this region could be the equivalent of the IFJ in humans and thereby play a key role in feature based attention.

RESULTS

Monkeys were trained to perform a free-viewing visual search task as described in previous studies (Bichot et al., 2005; Zhou and Desimone, 2011), but with natural images (including those of faces) rather than simple colored shapes in order to increase selective responses in IT (Desimone et al., 1984; Moeller et al., 2008). Briefly, the animals were presented with a central cue object (serving as the search target) at fixation followed by a delay. The monkeys held the memory of the target during the delay. An array of eight stimuli then appeared, containing both distractors they were rewarded for maintaining fixation on the target for 800 ms continuously. Detection trials, in which the search array contained only the target and no distracters, were randomly interleaved among the search trials in order to map neurons’ RFs across the 12 possible stimulus locations, as well as their visual selectivity for the objects used in the experiment.

As described above, we found it useful to distinguish cells recorded in the VPA versus VPS regions, and we therefore report their properties separately. Multunit activity was recorded simultaneously in IT, VPA, and FEF of two monkeys (monkey B, 15 sessions; monkey R, 13 sessions), using multi-contact electrodes with 16 contacts spaced over 2.25 mm. We will refer to the multiunit activity at each site simply as “units.” In two other monkeys, we recorded simultaneously from VPS, VPA, and FEF (monkey F, 19 sessions; monkey M, 11 sessions). Penetrations were made through multiple holes in a grid, and surface reconstructions of the grid hole locations are shown in Figure S1, available online. On two penetrations in the most anterior part of VPA, all units were unresponsive, and the data were not included in any analyses. Given the known topographically organized RF eccentricity representation in FEF (Bruce et al., 1985), recording locations in this area were chosen based on exploratory mapping sessions so that RFs at the recording sites encompassed the fixed stimulus locations used throughout the study. Based on the depths within sulci at which units were recorded at various sites, we sampled a total of approximately 28, 34, 29, and 48 mm² of cortex in IT, VPA, FEF, and VPS, respectively.

Overall, monkeys performed similarly, finding the search target on >95% of trials after an average of 2.9 (±0.2 SEM) saccades with an average saccadic latency of 203.8 ms (±3.8 ms SEM) over those recording sessions. These performance measures show that the animals used object information to efficiently guide their search, as they were significantly smaller than would be expected if the animals had chosen to search the display strictly serially or randomly (i.e., compared to averages of 4.5 saccades or 800 ms fixation durations; one-sample t tests, t = 6.75 and 160.37, respectively; p < 10^-8 for both comparisons). Data from the animals have been combined because they...
were qualitatively similar (one-way ANOVA; number of saccades, $F = 1.12$, $p = 0.35$; saccade latency, $F = 0.43$, $p = 0.73$).

**Stimulus Selectivity**

In our sample, we found significant stimulus selectivity in VPA, VPS, and IT in 35%, 27%, and 48% of the units, respectively, based on an ANOVA (evaluated at $p < 0.05$) computed on the responses to the set of stimuli in the detection trials. Figure 2A shows the ordered responses from best to worst stimulus for those cells. The locations of stimulus-selective units in PFC are shown in Figure S2. In contrast, no units in FEF showed stimulus selectivity based on the same ANOVA, consistent with previous studies of this area (Bichot and Schall, 1999; Bichot et al., 1996; Mohler et al., 1973; Schall et al., 1995). Thus, in terms of feature selectivity, cells in VPA were more similar to the other two areas than to FEF. The time courses of feature selective responses for the cue presented at the fovea and the cued target presented alone in the detection trials in VPA, IT, and VPS are shown in Figures 3A and 3B.

**Spatial Selectivity**

We tested for significant spatial selectivity (RFs), using an ANOVA ($p < 0.05$) computed on the responses to extrafoveal stimuli in the detection trials. In VPA and VPS, about two-thirds (104/154 and 64/108, respectively) of stimulus-selective neurons also had well-defined extrafoveal RFs determined by significant differences in average responses across extrafoveal stimulus locations (Figure S2), while only about half of IT stimulus-selective neurons (61/121) exhibited such extrafoveal spatial selectivity. The remaining neurons in all these regions usually had very large receptive fields responding to all stimulus locations equally (i.e., no statistical difference), including locations in the ipsilateral visual field. As shown in Figure 2B, the RFs of the units with significant spatial tuning were, in our sample, largest on average in VPS, followed by IT cortex, and then VPA and FEF, which were similar to each other. While no neurons in VPA had RF centers in the ipsilateral hemifield, many of the RFs (40/104) extended into the ipsilateral hemifield. It is possible that with longer presentation times, more of the PFC units would have had larger, more bilateral RFs (see Zaksas and Pasternak, 2006), as Kadriu et al. (2015) have shown that large PFC fields develop slowly over time. Thus, both VPA and VPS have spatial and feature selectivity, consistent with previous studies of PFC (Everling et al., 2006; Rainer et al., 1998; Rao et al., 1997), although the spatial selectivity in VPA is more similar to FEF.

Many units in IT and VPS with spatially selective extrafoveal responses also responded significantly to the cue presented foveally (46% and 49%, respectively), whereas this was less frequent in VPA and FEF (37% and 18%, respectively). The median RF center eccentricity of the spatially selective units was 6 degrees (dva) in all areas (Figure S3) and was not significantly different across areas (Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA, $\chi^2 = 1.81$, $p = 0.61$).

**Persistent Stimulus Selective Activity**

Given that VPA, VPS, and IT cortex all showed stimulus-selective cue responses, we asked whether cue-related information persisted throughout the trial. Figure 3 shows the population responses in the three stimulus-selective areas during several phases of the search trials, separately for trials when the preferred versus nonpreferred stimulus was the search cue. It was not possible to perform this analysis for FEF, as the units did not have preferred stimuli. Population responses leading up to the first saccade were analyzed separately from later saccades as they contain the visually evoked response to array onset (Bichot et al., 2005; Zhou and Desimone, 2011).

Cells in all three areas showed stimulus-selective responses to the search cues and the target presented alone in detection trials, as shown in the population average histograms for the preferred and nonpreferred stimulus for each cell in Figures 3A and 3B, respectively. However, cells in VPA differed from cells in the other two areas in that the population activity remained higher throughout the search trial when their preferred stimulus was the cue (i.e., when the animal was searching for the preferred stimulus as the target) than when the nonpreferred stimulus was the cue (Figures 3C–3F and S4; Table S1), and this higher activity persisted through the memory delay and through the response intervals for targets and distractors, on
the first saccade and subsequent saccades. Units in VPS had higher activity during the memory delay following the preferred stimulus as the cue, but, unlike in VPA, this difference was only marginally significant on the first saccade and did not persist for the following saccades to targets or distracters. Thus, unlike VPS, VPA retained information about the sought-after target for the following saccades to targets or distracters. Unlike in VPA, this difference was only marginally significant on the first saccade and did not persist for the following saccades to targets or distracters. The IT response modulation might have been due to spatial attention to the target stimulus.

**Feature Selection/Attention**

Although VPA had distinctive stimulus-selective activity throughout the trial, a key question was whether the cells communicated information about the relationship between the attended target features and the features of the stimulus in the RF, independent of spatial attention. To separate out the effects of feature-based and spatial-based attention, we used a strategy that has been used in previous studies of FEF and V4 (Bichot and Schall, 1999; Gregoriou et al., 2009; Zhou and Desimone, 2011). For feature attention, we examined responses to the stimulus in the RF at times during the trial when the animal was preparing a saccade to a stimulus outside the RF. With spatial attention directed outside the RF, responses to the stimulus in the RF at times during the trial when the animal was preparing a saccade to a stimulus outside the RF. With spatial attention directed outside the RF, responses to the stimulus in the RF at times during the trial when the animal was preparing a saccade to a stimulus outside the RF.

**Figure 3. Neural Correlates of Working Memory in IT, VPA, and VPS during Free-Viewing Visual Search**

Normalized firing rates averaged across the population of recorded neurons are shown when the search target was the neurons’ preferred stimulus (red lines) compared to when the search target was the neurons’ nonpreferred stimulus (blue lines). SEM (±) at each time point is indicated by shading over the lines. Plotted are normalized population responses to the centrally presented cue (A), responses to the target presented alone during detection trials (B), responses during search prior to the first saccade made to the target or to a distractor (C and D, respectively), and responses during visual search on the second and subsequent saccades when they were made to the target or to a distractor (E and F, respectively) with activity aligned to the end of the previous saccade at time zero. Only activity from correct trials and responses during visual search on the second and subsequent saccades when they were made to the target or to a distractor (E and F, respectively) with activity aligned to the end of the previous saccade at time zero. Only activity from correct trials and...
from top to bottom, normalized responses in FEF, VPA, IT, and VPS, aligned to the onset of the search array when the first saccade was made to the target in the RF (green lines), when the target was in the RF but the saccade was made to a distractor outside the RF (red lines), and when the target was outside the RF (blue lines). Responses in VPA, IT, and VPS were from correct trials and when the target was the preferred stimulus. Red vertical lines represent the onset of feature-based selection (difference between red and blue lines), and green vertical lines represent the onset of spatial selection (difference between green and red lines). SEM (±) at each time point is indicated by shading over the lines. Only spikes occurring prior to saccade initiation were used in the analyses. Because sample sizes were different across regions, we computed the time course of regions with more units by sub-sampling their population with the lowest number of units found in any region (i.e., IT) and obtaining an average over 10,000 iterations; shown response SEM for these regions is the average of the SEM calculated for the subsamples.

Figure 4. Time Course of Feature-Based and Spatial Selection
(A) From top to bottom, normalized responses in FEF, VPA, IT, and VPS, aligned to the onset of the search array when the first saccade was made to the target in the RF (green lines), when the target was in the RF but the saccade was made to a distractor outside the RF (red lines), and when the target was outside the RF (blue lines). Responses in VPA, IT, and VPS were from search-based for target (red lines in Figures 4A and S5A) or did not match (i.e., a distractor was in the RF; blue lines in Figures 4A and S5A). For spatial attention, we examined responses to the target stimulus in the RF when the animal was preparing to make a saccade to it (green lines in Figures 4A and S5A) or to a distractor outside the RF (red lines in Figures 4A and S5A). For VPA, IT, and VPS, we analyzed activity on trials in which the animals searched for the preferred target of cells; for FEF, all target conditions were combined, since the neurons did not show selectivity for the different stimuli.

Population responses in VPA and FEF showed substantial effects of feature based attention (100–200 ms after array onset, t test, VPA, t = 9.42, p = 10^-14; FEF, t = 8.96, p = 10^-15), with an increase in response of 21.8% and 8.1% with feature attention in VPA and FEF, respectively. IT cortex and VPS showed smaller effects of feature attention (4.2% and 1.1% increase, respectively), and these effects were not significant during the same time period (IT, t = 1.06, p = 0.29; VPS, t = 0.52, p = 0.60).

We compared the latencies of feature-selective effects in two different ways. We first computed the earliest detectable effect of attention in the population response histograms. The population histograms might reveal very early differences that are not significant at the level of individual units, although very few units may contribute to early effects. The latency for the effects of feature-based attentional selection in VPA (90 ms) was somewhat earlier than in FEF (100 ms), although the difference was not statistically significant (two-sided permutation test, p = 0.62). In contrast to both VPA and FEF, the effects of feature attention in VPS did not meet the criteria for the determination of a feature attention latency (i.e., difference in activity significant at the 0.05 level for at least 10 ms).

The effects of feature attention in IT were smaller than in VPA and FEF, and the time of earliest feature selection in IT (189 ms) was significantly later than in both VPA (p = 0.015) and FEF (p = 0.024).

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Spatial Selection/Attention

The time course of spatial selection revealed a nearly opposite trend compared to feature attention. We first examined the earliest evidence of spatial selection in the population response histograms. In contrast to feature-based selection, spatial selection occurred earlier in the FEF population response than in VPA (105 ms versus 138 ms), although again the VPA-FEF difference was not significant (p = 0.35). The time of spatial selection in VPS (140 ms) was similar to that in VPA (see also Figure S2), while spatial selection did not meet the criteria to determine an onset of discrimination in IT.

As was found with feature-based selection, the analysis of cumulative distributions of spatial selection latencies revealed clear differences among the areas (Figure 4B). Small proportions of cells in VPA and FEF showed early effects of spatial selection, consistent with the analysis of population histograms, but the cumulative distribution in FEF rose more steeply (earlier) than in VPA and the other two areas. At a cumulative distribution of 10% of units, FEF led VPA by 16 ms, and this difference grew to 39 ms by a cumulative distribution of 35%. Overall, FEF had the largest proportion of units (Chi-square test, versus VPA, $\chi^2 = 4.93$, p = 0.026; versus IT, $\chi^2 = 20.17$, p < 10^{-5}; versus VPS, $\chi^2 = 8.29$, p < 0.01) showing spatial-based selection with the earliest onset times (t test, versus VPA, t = 2.91, p < 0.01; versus IT, t = 2.99, p < 0.01; versus VPS, t = 2.26, p = 0.025).

A signal-detection analysis also showed that FEF exhibited greater spatial-based selection than any other region we sampled, as shown in Figure 5B. For each cell, the magnitude of spatial-based selection was quantified by calculating the AUROC comparing activity (100–200 ms after array onset) when the target was in the RF and monkeys made a saccade to it to activity when the target was in the RF and monkeys made a saccade outside the RF. This measure of spatial-based selection was largest in FEF (one-way ANOVA, $F = 33.56$, p < 10^{-5}; t tests comparing FEF to each of the other regions, p < 10^{-5} for all comparisons). These results suggest that while VPA may be the source of feature-based selection in FEF, the decision to make a saccade to a potential target likely originates in FEF and/or other related oculomotor structures and may be passed on to VPA. VPS is similar to VPA in terms of spatial selection, but clearly differs in feature-based selection.

Deactivation Studies

To test for a causal role of VPA in feature-based selection, we tested the effects of VPA deactivation on both behavioral performance and selection in FEF during the random-design visual search (i.e., target changed randomly from trial to trial). We limited injections to the central portion of the VPA recording region, to avoid spread of muscimol into FEF and VPS. We nonetheless inactivated a substantial portion of this central region, using muscimol injections in six sessions (three each in monkeys F and M). In each session, three injections spaced 700 μm apart in depth were made with cannulas at each of two locations (Figure S1). Because the cannulas were inserted at an angle to the cortex, several square mm of cortex relative to the surface were likely affected.

Behavior before and after inactivation of VPA revealed significant post-inactivation deficits when the target was in the
contralateral hemifield to the injection hemisphere, and to a lesser extent, when it was on the midline (Figures 6A and S6A: Table S2). The number of saccades to find a contralateral target increased, while the opposite was true for an ipsilateral target.

The total time to find the target, saccadic reaction times, and the percentage of trials in which the animals did not find the target all increased for both contralateral and midline targets. There were no effects on behavioral performance as a function of target location relative to the hemisphere in which VPA was activated. Data from the random and blocked visual search sessions are shown in orange and blue, respectively. Across-session averages of behavioral measures are shown before (hashed bars) and after (solid bars) VPA inactivation. Asterisks (*) mark significant effects of inactivation.

Figure 6. Effects of VPA Inactivation on Behavioral Performance and Target Selection in FEF

(A) Effects of VPA inactivation on behavioral performance during search trials as a function of target location relative to the hemisphere in which VPA was inactivated. Data from the random and blocked visual search sessions are shown in orange and blue, respectively. Across-session averages of behavioral measures are shown before (hashed bars) and after (solid bars) VPA inactivation. Midline locations (on the vertical meridian) were neither ipsilateral nor contralateral to the hemisphere of inactivation. Asterisks (*) mark significant effects of inactivation.

(B) Effects of VPA inactivation on behavioral performance during detection trials. Behavioral measures are shown before (hashed bars) and after (solid bars) VPA inactivation. Data from random and blocked design sessions were combined, as search cue frequency had no effect on saccades to targets presented alone. For all analyses, trials in which monkeys broke fixation prior to the presentation of the target alone (detection) or with distractors (search) were not included.

(C and D) Effects of VPA inactivation on selection in FEF during random and blocked visual search, respectively. Population-normalized responses in FEF during detection trials (top panels) and search trials (bottom panels) are shown before (left panels) and after (right panels) VPA inactivation. For detection trials, activity is shown when the target was inside (solid lines) or outside (dashed lines) the RF. For search trials, conventions are as in Figure 4. Only activity from correct trials and before saccade initiation was used in the analyses. See also Figures S6 and S7 and Table S2.
of search block sequence or time during a session as assessed in training sessions a day prior to injection sessions (Figure 6B).

We also found a significant increase in saccades to the target with a following saccade away from it in the contralateral hemifield (pre, 7.5%; post, 10.5%; t test, \( t = 4.56, p < 0.01 \)), and a decrease of such behavior in the ipsilateral hemifield (pre, 7.9%; post, 3.8%; \( t = 7.63, p < 10^{-5} \)). Furthermore, the pattern of distractor fixations in the contralateral hemifield was significantly affected by inactivation compared to the ipsilateral hemifield (correlation between pre- and post-inactivation distractor fixation patterns; mean Fisher z-transform: contralateral, 0.65, ipsilateral, 0.82; t test, \( t = 8.11, p < 10^{-5} \)). In sum, the monkeys had difficulty matching stimuli to the cue in the contralateral hemifield following inactivation of VPA.

The injection sessions were treated as independent across days, to account for day-to-day variations in performance but they were not independent across locations in VPA because of the large size of the injections, as described above. As a conservative test of the deactivation effects on behavior, we summed the trials across all deactivation sessions and simply compared proportions of saccade errors before and during the deactivations using a chi-square test. This test also showed a significant increase in errors post-inactivation for targets in the contralateral hemifield and on the midline (\( \chi^2 = 124.11, p < 10^{-28} \), and \( \chi^2 = 37.77, p < 10^{-9} \), respectively), but not for targets in the ipsilateral hemifield (\( \chi^2 = 3.19, p = 0.07 \)).

We recorded the activity of 42 FEF units during visual search before and after VPA inactivations (Figures 6C and S7). While neural activity during detection trials (100–200 ms following stimulus onset) was not affected by VPA inactivation (repeated-measures two-way ANOVA; target in RF versus out RF, \( F = 2057.1, p < 10^{-18} \); pre- versus post inactivation, \( F = 3.83, p = 0.06 \); interaction, \( F = 0.06, p = 0.80 \)), activity during search was significantly altered (two-way ANOVA; target in RF and saccade to target versus target in RF and saccade outside RF versus target outside RF and saccade outside RF, \( F = 85.27, p < 10^{-16} \); pre-versus post inactivation, \( F = 8.55, p < 0.01 \); interaction, \( F = 12.45, p < 10^{-5} \)). Most strikingly, feature selection in FEF (difference between red and blue lines) was completely abolished post-inactivation (t test, pre-inactivation, \( t = 6.27, p < 10^{-4} \); post-inactivation, \( t = 0.64, p = 0.53 \)). By contrast, even though neural activity when the saccade was made to the target in the RF was modestly lower post-inactivation, the effect of spatial attention (difference between green and red lines) was still present (\( t = 6.05, p < 10^{-5} \)), and it was not significantly affected by the inactivation (pre- versus post-inactivation, \( t = 1.29, p = 0.21 \)). The differential effect of VPA inactivation on feature and spatial attention was confirmed by a signal-detection analysis. AUROC computed on a cell-by-cell basis in the 100–200 ms period after array onset showed that feature attention information significantly decreased (pre, 0.672; post, 0.559; t test, \( t = 12.22, p < 10^{-18} \)), while spatial enhancement was again unchanged after inactivation compared to before (pre/spatial, \( t = 3.08, p < 0.01 \); post/spatial, \( t = 2.99, p < 0.01 \); pre versus post, \( t = 0.41, p = 0.68 \)). The differential effect of VPA inactivation on feature and spatial attention was again confirmed by a signal-detection analysis. AUROC computed on a cell-by-cell basis in the 100–200 ms period after array onset showed that feature attention information significantly decreased (pre, 0.672; post, 0.559; t test, \( t = 12.22, p < 10^{-18} \)), while spatial enhancement was again unchanged after inactivation compared to before (pre/spatial, \( t = 3.08, p < 0.01 \); post/spatial, \( t = 2.99, p < 0.01 \); pre versus post, \( t = 0.41, p = 0.68 \)). The differential effect of VPA inactivation on feature and spatial attention was again confirmed by a signal-detection analysis. AUROC computed on a cell-by-cell basis in the 100–200 ms period after array onset showed that feature attention information significantly decreased (pre, 0.672; post, 0.559; t test, \( t = 12.22, p < 10^{-18} \)), while spatial enhancement was again unchanged after inactivation compared to before (pre/spatial, \( t = 3.08, p < 0.01 \); post/spatial, \( t = 2.99, p < 0.01 \); pre versus post, \( t = 0.41, p = 0.68 \)). The differential effect of VPA inactivation on feature and spatial attention was again confirmed by a signal-detection analysis. AUROC computed on a cell-by-cell basis in the 100–200 ms period after array onset showed that feature attention information significantly decreased (pre, 0.672; post, 0.559; t test, \( t = 12.22, p < 10^{-18} \)), while spatial enhancement was again unchanged after inactivation compared to before (pre/spatial, \( t = 3.08, p < 0.01 \); post/spatial, \( t = 2.99, p < 0.01 \); pre versus post, \( t = 0.41, p = 0.68 \)). The differential effect of VPA inactivation on feature and spatial attention was again confirmed by a signal-detection analysis. AUROC computed on a cell-by-cell basis in the 100–200 ms period after array onset showed that feature attention information significantly decreased (pre, 0.672; post, 0.559; t test, \( t = 12.22, p < 10^{-18} \)), while spatial enhancement was again unchanged after inactivation compared to before (pre/spatial, \( t = 3.08, p < 0.01 \); post/spatial, \( t = 2.99, p < 0.01 \); pre versus post, \( t = 0.41, p = 0.68 \)). The differential effect of VPA inactivation on feature and spatial attention was again confirmed by a signal-detection analysis. AUROC computed on a cell-by-cell basis in the 100–200 ms period after array onset showed that feature attention information significantly decreased (pre, 0.672; post, 0.559; t test, \( t = 12.22, p < 10^{-18} \)), while spatial enhancement was again unchanged after inactivation compared to before (pre/spatial, \( t = 3.08, p < 0.01 \); post/spatial, \( t = 2.99, p < 0.01 \); pre versus post, \( t = 0.41, p = 0.68 \)).
behavioral deficits during blocked-design search. Performance during detection trials was not affected by VPS inactivation in either type of session (Figure 7B; Table S3). Thus, unlike VPA, VPS seems to play an important role in feature-based selection only when attention switches frequently.

**DISCUSSION**

Although much is known about the sources of top-down signals for visual spatial attention in monkey cortex, much less has been known about the sources of signals important for feature attention. A previous study found that feature-based target selection in area V4 occurs later than in FEF (Zhou and Desimone, 2011), suggesting that the earliest site of feature-based selection may be outside of visual cortex. Here we found that neurons in the VPA region of prefrontal cortex exhibit feature-based attentional modulation with a time course early enough to be a major cause of feature-based selection in FEF and possibly all other ventral stream areas. Combining our results with the earlier study of V4 and FEF by Zhou and Desimone (2011), feature-based selection also occurs earlier in VPA than in area V4. Spatially selective VPA units also had RFSs similar to those in FEF but, unlike FEF, many also showed selectivity for the objects used in our task. This selectivity could reflect an underlying selectivity for the component features of the objects, or selectivity for the objects acquired through learning to search for them (i.e., based on task demands) (e.g., Freedman et al., 2001; Kadohisa et al., 2015; McKee et al., 2014). Thus, VPA units seem to combine information about object features with their spatial location (see also Kadohisa et al., 2015; Rainer et al., 1998; Rao et al., 1997), and may provide information about both the identity and location of targets with behavioral relevance in the visual field.

We recorded from cells in IT cortex because it seemed possible that IT cortex might contain early feature-based signals for target selection even though area V4 does not. However, we found relatively late selection signals in IT, consistent with the findings of earlier studies of IT responses during search tasks (Chelazzi et al., 1998; Monosov et al., 2010; Sheinberg and Logothetis, 2001). Our results extend those previous findings by providing the first direct comparison of the time course of feature-based attention in IT and FEF distinguishable from the effects of spatial selection in a task with an attentional template.

VPA as a source of feature-based selection is supported by our finding that feature-based, but not spatial, selection in FEF is impaired by VPA inactivation. Following VPA inactivation, FEF cells respond as though they no longer have access to information about the location of objects with target features. We do not yet know whether VPA also sends direct feedback to other visual areas to support feature-based attention in these areas. Consistent with the differential effects of VPA inactivation on feature and spatial attention in FEF, our analysis of the time course of attentional modulation suggests that, within PFC, spatial selection originates in FEF, and feedback from FEF is likely a major (but not sole) source of feedback to visual cortex during spatial attention (Gregoriou et al., 2014; Moore and Armstrong, 2003; Moore and Fallah, 2001).

How do VPA cells compute the similarity between the features of the stimulus in their RF and the features of the target that the animal is searching for, or what has been referred to as the attentional template? One clue is that VPA seems to be unique among the regions we studied in having an explicit representation of the attentional template (the “cue”) throughout the delay and the search trial, even persisting across saccades. VPA cells have higher firing rates throughout the trial when their preferred stimulus is the cue/target, compared to nonpreferred stimuli. This persistence of the attentional template in VPA may be used to directly compute stimulus similarity during search.

**Figure 7. Effects of VPS Inactivation on Behavioral Performance**

Conventions as in Figure 6. See also Table S3.
The combined feature and spatial information we observed in VPA is consistent with previous recordings in overlapping parts of PFC. However, because we recorded multunit activity, we cannot be certain that feature and spatial selectivity was combined at the level of individual VPA cells. Other studies have shown that individual PFC neurons can encode a working memory of both objects and locations during the delay period (Kadohisa et al., 2015; Rainer et al., 1998; Rao et al., 1997). Furthermore, the sustained representation of the attentional template we found is similar to the robust memory trace observed in PFC, but not IT, during a nonspatial match-to-sample task (Miller et al., 1996). Similarly, the discrimination of target objects (even when nonpreferred) in VPA is consistent with the selective representation of task-relevant objects at preferred locations previously found in PFC (Everling et al., 2006).

We have also shown that such feature-based modulation of neural activity throughout the search trial is not ubiquitous in PFC, with nearby neurons in VPS exhibiting little to no such effects. The time of feature selection effects in VPS for units that showed any such effect was also significantly later than those in VPA and FEF. Furthermore, while the effects of VPS inactivation during visual search were mitigated by repetition of the target cue, deficits persisted with cue repetition after VPA inactivation, suggesting that VPS may be more important for attention switching or working memory while VPA may be more important for feature attention across the board. It is possible that while neurons in VPS are more involved in encoding the cue or the ability to adapt to changes in the cue, neurons in VPA process the stimuli of the search display as potential matches to the cue (i.e., a spatial “match-to-sample”). Neither region appears to play a role in saccade production per se; their inactivation does not cause any deficits in making a visually-guided saccade to a target presented alone, unlike the impairments observed following FEF inactivation (Dias and Segreaves, 1989).

Our goal was to determine whether activity in PFC beyond FEF can be the source of feature-based selection signals found in FEF, and we have found units consistent with this hypothesis in VPA. Anatomical studies have shown that this region has connections with TEO, IT cortex and possibly area V4 (Barbas and Pandya, 1989; Webster et al., 1994). Although our recordings in VPA showed clear differences with cells recorded in adjacent areas VPS and FEF, we do not claim that VPA is a functionally defined area with clear boundaries. We did not study all of VPS and other parts of PFC to be sure whether there are other regions with properties similar to those in VPA. Several other studies have reported substantial regional overlap for coding of different types of information in dorsolateral PFC (e.g., Kadohisa et al., 2015; Wallis et al., 2001; Watanabe, 1986; White and Wise, 1999). One possible explanation could be that many complex neuronal properties are shared across PFC subregions but signals for top-down feature based attention are more concentrated in VPA. The adjacency of VPA to FEF suggests it could have a special relationship to this area. Another possible explanation could be that many studies of PFC tested across different subregions for the presence or absence of various types of information at any time in the trial (e.g., the delay period following the sample during a match-to-sample paradigm). We also found feature-based attentional effects on responses in V4, IT, FEF, and VPA at some time point during the trial, and would likely find them throughout the visual cortex, PFC, and regions of the parietal cortex through feedforward and feedback connectivity. However, the critical question for this study was where the feature selection effects emerged the earliest, and that appears to be VPA. Consistent with our findings, a recent study in which monkeys reported the color or motion of foveally presented stimuli found that choice signals developed in lateral prefrontal cortex and parietal regions and were fed back to FEF and sensory cortex (Siegel et al., 2015).

We have referred to our recording region as VPA simply as a description of its anatomical location. Our recording sites likely encompass multiple cytoarchitectonic areas such as areas 45A and 12, and even possibly area 46v. In future studies, it will be necessary to functionally map much more of the PFC, including more dorsal and anterior portions, to determine whether VPA is unique, or whether it might even be considered a separate, functionally defined “region.” An imaging study in monkeys searching for a salient target found activation only within a restricted portion of PFC, including the region we termed VPA, FEF, and a posterior part of area 46 (Wardak et al., 2010).

We did not find evidence for the early selection of targets defined by feature in IT cortex, consistent with the results of other studies in IT during visual search (Chelazzi et al., 1998; Monosov et al., 2010; Steinberg and Logothetis, 2001). However, we did not record throughout the entire IT region, and therefore we cannot be sure that some IT cells with properties similar to those in VPA do not exist. Likewise, there could be other cortical sources for signals important for feature attention outside of PFC, including the parietal cortex, for example. At this stage, we can only be confident that VPA has the necessary signals at an early enough time to support feature based selection, and that VPA deactivation leads to behavioral impairments and a loss of feature-based selection in FEF.

Altogether, our results suggest a prefrontal, rather than visual cortical, source of feature-based attention, culminating in the priority maps in FEF from which a target is chosen for overt or covert orienting. FEF may, in turn, send feedback to topographically organized visual areas, enhancing activity at locations in the visual field representations containing stimuli that share target features. In that case, some of the effects of feature-based attention found in extrastriate areas (Bichot et al., 2005; Chelazzi et al., 2001; Hayden and Gallant, 2005; Ipati et al., 2012; Martinez-Trujillo and Treue, 2004; McD Adams and Maunsell, 2000; Motter, 1994) may have been caused by FEF feedback targeted strictly to the visual field locations, rather than the representation of stimulus features, of potential targets.

Studies examining the relationship between PFC and visual cortex during working memory for motion signals in match-to-sample tasks have found that, while robust template encoding is indeed present in PFC, MST may be the source of the delay activity seen in PFC (Mendoza-Halliday et al., 2014). MT may also play an important role in the comparison between sample and test stimuli (Zaksas and Pasternak, 2006). Our analyses have focused on the search period to determine the source of feature attention and thus it is difficult to make direct comparisons with match-to-sample tasks in which distracting information is not
present with the target. It is also possible that synchrony measures (Gregoriou et al., 2009) or dynamic population coding (Mante et al., 2013; Stokes et al., 2013) beyond the scope of this study will reveal more complex interactions between different subregions of PFC and visual cortex in different phases of the search task.

Nonetheless, our findings in VPA are consistent with a recent study showing the prefrontal gating of object-based attention in humans (Baldauf and Desimone, 2014), and VPA may be the study showing the prefrontal gating of object-based attention different subregions of PFC and visual cortex in different phases of different trials. This study will reveal more complex interactions between (Mante et al., 2013; Stokes et al., 2013) beyond the scope of this study. Thus, the majority of the data are from small clusters of cells, or multinしい activity, and are presented as such. To address the possibility that overlapping neural activity was recorded on adjacent contacts, we compared the zero-shift crosscorrelation during the fixation period of signals on adjacent contacts to those at least three contacts away. There was only a very small increase of 1.2% of coincident spikes on adjacent contacts (2.9% versus 4.1%), which may be partly due to an increased probability of common input connectivity of units on nearby contacts. A grid system with holes 1 mm apart was used inside all the recording chambers to guide electrode penetrations and localize them relative to structural MRI images (see Figure S1 for recording sites). Penetration locations were confirmed with gray to white matter transition depths. FEF recording sites were in the rostral bank of the arcuate sulcus. VPS recording sites were in the ventral bank of the principal sulcus. VPA recording sites were on the pre-arcuate gyrus, anterior to the arcuate sulcus and ventral to the principal sulcus, and the penetrations did not enter either the arcuate sulcus or the principal sulcus (i.e., white matter was reached by the expected depth).

Neural Inactivation
Muscimol (5 μg/μl) was injected in either VPA or VPS. The locations and depths were chosen based on the basis of exploratory recordings (Figure S1). In a given session, we made injections of 1 μl at three different depths and two locations within the selected area. The injections started at the deepest location where neurons were found, and subsequent injections were made by retracting the cannulas by steps of 700 μm in VPA and 1 mm in VPS. The injections were made at a rate of 0.05 μl/min with a 5 min wait between injections, and data collection began 35 min after the last injection. When concomitant recordings were made in FEF, the electrode was not moved or adjusted after the injection relative to its location before the injection.

Data Analysis
Spike density functions were generated by convolving spikes with an asymmetric, forward-only filter designed to represent the postsynaptic consequences of cell activity (Thompson et al., 1996). The spike density function of each neuron was normalized by its maximum firing rate. The object and spatial selectivity of each site was determined using a two-way ANOVA with stimulus object and stimulus location during detection trials as the two main effects. If significant effects of object or location were found, post hoc contrasts (t tests) were used to determine preferred and nonpreferred stimuli or locations within and outside the RF of the units, respectively. Just as neurons can have RFs encompassing more than one stimulus location, they can also respond preferentially to more than one stimulus. The use of post hoc contrasts to identify the preferred and nonpreferred stimuli or locations, rather than just using best and worst ones, was necessary in order to maximize the number of useable trials for the analyses. Object selectivity at the fovea was
determined separately with a one-way ANOVA of responses to the different objects presented as the cue. Overall, a median of two stimuli were selected as preferred in VPA, VPS, and IT; medians of four, three, and five stimuli were selected as nonpreferred in VPA, VPS, and IT, respectively.

The time courses of feature-based and spatial selection were determined with a t test at each millisecond following the time of search array presentation. The onset of selection was defined as the first millisecond when the difference between conditions became significant (p < 0.05) and remained significant for the next 10 ms.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes seven figures and three tables and can be found with this article at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2015.10.001.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

N.P.B. and R.D. designed the experiments, analyzed the data, and wrote the paper. N.P.B., E.M.D., and M.T.H conducted the experiments.

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REFERENCES


Supplemental Information

A Source for Feature-Based Attention in the Prefrontal Cortex

Narcisse P. Bichot, Matthew T. Heard, Ellen M. DeGennaro, and Robert Desimone
**Figure S1, Related to Experimental Procedures.**  

**A.** From left to right, examples of penetration trajectories for FEF, VPS, and VPA recordings, respectively (asu: arcuate sulcus upper, asl: arcuate sulcus lower, ps: principal sulcus). Structural MRI images were acquired with a 3T scanner (MP-RAGE sequence, 500 μm isotropic).  

**B.** Anatomical reconstruction of recording (red shapes) and muscimol injection (blue circles) sites for each monkey. FEF sites (upright triangles) were in the anterior bank of the arcuate sulcus, VPS sites (inverted triangles) were in the ventral bank of the principal sulcus, and VPA sites (circles) were ~2.5-4 mm from the ventral branch of the arcuate sulcus on the gyrus between the arcuate and principal sulci. Multiple recording sessions were conducted at the majority of sites. Furthermore, for regions in a sulcus (i.e., FEF and VPS), the depth of the sulcus at each site was explored over multiple sessions. Also shown is a composite reconstruction of recording and injection sites across all monkeys.
Feature selectivity

Spatial selectivity

Feature selection/attention

Spatial selection/attention

Figure S2, Related to Figure 2 and 4. Recording locations in PFC showing the percentage of units with the following attributes: stimulus selectivity as a percentage of total recorded units, spatial selectivity as a percentage of stimulus-selective units, feature-based selection/attention (i.e., units contributing to the cumulative distribution of Fig. 4B, left panel) as a percentage of units with both stimulus and spatial selectivity, and spatial-based selection/attention as a percentage of units with both stimulus and spatial selectivity (i.e., units contributing to the cumulative distribution of Fig. 4B, right panel).
Figure S3, Related to Figure 2. Distribution of RF center eccentricities in the regions we recorded.
Figure S4, Related to Figure 3. Effects of target preference and saccade decision on neural activity in IT, VPA, and VPS during visual search. For each unit, the mean normalized response difference between search for the preferred stimulus and the non-preferred stimulus is plotted when the saccade was made to the target as a function of when the saccade was made to a distractor. The analysis was conducted on the first saccade (top two rows) and subsequent saccades (bottom two rows) during two time periods: 0 to 100 ms before array onset (for the first saccade) or previous fixation (subsequent saccades), and 100 to 200 ms after those events. For IT, data from monkey B are plotted with circles (n = 64) and those from monkey R with squares (n = 57). For VPA, data from monkeys B and R are plotted with circles (n = 48) and squares (n = 42), respectively, and those from monkeys F and M are plotted with triangles (n = 44) and inverted triangles (n = 20), respectively. For VPS, circles represent data from monkey F (n = 70) and squares represent data from monkey M (n = 38).
**Figure S5, Related to Figure 4.**  
A. Feature and spatial selection in VPA and FEF with cell data shown separately for the pair of monkeys in which IT recordings were also made (monkeys B and R) and the pair of monkeys in which VPS recordings were also made (monkeys F and M). SEM (±) at each time point is indicated by shading over the lines. To equate for statistical power, monkey pair and region combinations with more units were subsampled by the minimum number of units for any combination (i.e., n = 40); discrimination onset times for subsampled analyses are the average of 10,000 permutations. Shown response SEM for these monkey pair and region combinations with more units is the average of the SEM calculated for the subsamples. The magnitude of modulation and the timecourse of discrimination was similar between monkey pairs. 

B. Target selection in VPA when monkeys searched for neurons’ non-preferred stimulus. The condition in which the non-preferred target was in the RF and monkeys made a saccade outside the RF is represented by the blue line, while the condition in which the non-preferred target was outside the RF and the saccade was made to a distractor outside the RF is represented by the red line (i.e., opposite of the convention in Fig. 4). All other conventions as in Fig. 4.
Figure S6, Related to Figure 6.  

A. Effect of VPA inactivation on behavioral performance during random visual search for targets in the hemifield contralateral to the injection hemisphere.  For each inactivation session, the averages of the number of saccades to find the target, the error rate, and the saccade latencies in the post-inactivation search block are plotted as a function of the averages pre-injection search block in that session.  Points above the diagonal line reflect behavioral deficits (i.e., increased number of saccades to find the target, error rate, and saccade latency) in the contralateral hemifield.  Data from monkey F are represented by circles and data from monkey M by squares.  

B. Effect of block sequence on behavioral performance during random visual search.  Behavioral performance measures are plotted for the first and second search block during training sessions the day before the VPA inactivation sessions when monkeys performed the random design visual search.  For training purposes, the length of the blocks and the time between the blocks were the same as during the inactivation sessions.  The clear lack of block sequence effects on any of the performance measures is also reflected in the shown table of the repeated-measures two-way ANOVA test with block number (1st vs. 2nd) and target location (ipsilateral vs. contralateral vs. midline) as main effects, as well as their interaction.  The degrees of freedom (df), F values (F), and statistical significance probabilities (P) are tabulated.
Figure S7, Related to Figure 6. Effect of VPA inactivation on spatial and feature selection in FEF during visual search. Data from the random visual search sessions are plotted on the left (panels A and C, orange symbols) and data from the blocked visual search sessions are plotted on the right (panels B and D, blue symbols).  

**A, B.** For each neuron, the average of the response when the target was in the RF and the saccade was made to the target (i.e., green lines in Fig. 6C,D) is plotted as a function of the average of the response when the target was in the RF but the saccade was made to a distractor outside the RF (i.e., red lines in Fig. 6C,D). This comparison reflects the magnitude of spatial selection since the target stimulus is in the RF in both conditions and the difference between the two conditions is the selection of the RF location for a saccade. Points above the diagonal line reflect neurons that showed enhanced responses when the RF stimulus was the goal of the saccade. The scatterplots are shown before and after VPA inactivation.  

**C, D.** For each neuron, the average of the response when the target was in the RF but the saccade was made to a distractor outside the RF (i.e., red lines in Fig. 6C,D) is plotted as a function of the average of the response when the target was outside the RF and the saccade was made to a distractor outside the RF (i.e., blue lines in Fig. 6C,D). This comparison reflects the magnitude of feature selection since RF stimulus is not the saccade target in both conditions and the difference between the two conditions is the presence of the target stimulus in the RF. Points above the diagonal line reflect neurons that showed enhanced responses when the RF stimulus was the search target despite a saccade being made to a distractor outside the RF. The scatterplots are shown before and after VPA inactivation.  

Neural activity was averaged in the 100-200 ms interval after array onset for all conditions. Data from monkey F are represented by circles (n = 22 and 19 for random and blocked search, respectively) and data from monkey M by squares (n = 20 and 19 for random and blocked search, respectively).
Table S1, Related to Figure 3. Influence of the cue (target template) on persistent activity in IT, VPA and VPS during different phases of the task. The time periods of analysis, highlighted in gray and labeled (A, B, C, and D), are superimposed on the population activity of VPA neurons shown in Fig. 3. We tested effects with a repeated-measures two-way ANOVA with cue/target preference (preferred vs. non-preferred) and target choice (saccade to target vs. distractor) as main effects, as well as their interaction. The degrees of freedom (df), F values (F), and statistical significance probabilities (P) are tabulated.
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<tr>
<td>Pre-inactivation / Post-inactivation</td>
<td>(1, 5)</td>
<td>(1, 5)</td>
<td>(1, 11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ipsilateral / Contralateral / Midline</td>
<td>(2, 10)</td>
<td>(2, 10)</td>
<td>(2, 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>(2, 10)</td>
<td>(2, 10)</td>
<td>(2, 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast: Pre/Post, Ipsilateral</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast: Pre/Post, Contralateral</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast: Pre/Post, Midline</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table S2**, Related to Figure 6. Effects of VPA inactivation on behavioral performance. We tested the significance of effects with a repeated-measures two-way ANOVA with inactivation (pre- vs. post-inactivation) and target location (ipsilateral vs. contralateral vs. midline) as main effects, as well as their interaction. When a significant effect of inactivation or interaction between inactivation and target location was found, effects of inactivation at the different target locations were tested separately with post-hoc contrasts (paired T-tests). The analyses were conducted for sessions in which the target changed randomly from trial to trial (random search) and those in which the target remained the same in blocks of 20 correct trials (blocked search). Effects of VPA inactivation were also tested during the detection trials interleaved with search trials in either type of search. The degrees of freedom (df), F values (F) for the ANOVAs and t values (t) for the contrasts, and statistical significance probabilities (P) are tabulated.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Random search</th>
<th>Blocked search</th>
<th>Detection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of saccades to find target</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>F/t</td>
<td>P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-inactivation / Post-inactivation</td>
<td>(1, 5)</td>
<td>19.21</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ipsilateral / Contralateral / Midline</td>
<td>(2, 10)</td>
<td>8.34</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>(2, 10)</td>
<td>10.46</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast: Pre/Post, Ipsilateral</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast: Pre/Post, Contralateral</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>0.002</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contrast: Pre/Post, Midline</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total time to find target | df  | F/t  | P      | df  | F/t  | P      | df  | F/t  | P      |
| Pre-inactivation / Post-inactivation | (1, 5) | 17.39 | 0.009 | (1, 5) | 2.73 | 0.159 |
| Ipsilateral / Contralateral / Midline | (2, 10) | 14.16 | 0.001 | (2, 10) | 1.94 | 0.194 |
| Interaction                | (2, 10) | 19.60 | 3.5E-04 | (2, 10) | 0.50 | 0.619 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Ipsilateral | 5   | 1.00  | 0.362 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Contralateral | 5   | 5.23  | 0.003 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Midline | 5   | 4.18  | 0.009 |

| Percent errors | df  | F/t  | P      | df  | F/t  | P      | df  | F/t  | P      |
| Pre-inactivation / Post-inactivation | (1, 5) | 9.63  | 0.027 | (1, 5) | 2.45 | 0.178 | (1, 11) | 0.17 | 0.688 |
| Ipsilateral / Contralateral / Midline | (2, 10) | 9.40  | 0.005 | (2, 10) | 0.50 | 0.621 | (2, 22) | 2.31 | 0.123 |
| Interaction                | (2, 10) | 10.69 | 0.003 | (2, 10) | 0.25 | 0.781 | (2, 22) | 0.46 | 0.639 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Ipsilateral | 5   | 2.13  | 0.087 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Contralateral | 5   | 3.32  | 0.021 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Midline | 5   | 2.67  | 0.044 |

| Mean saccade latency | df  | F/t  | P      | df  | F/t  | P      | df  | F/t  | P      |
| Pre-inactivation / Post-inactivation | (1, 5) | 10.30 | 0.024 | (1, 5) | 3.07 | 0.140 | (1, 11) | 0.35 | 0.563 |
| Ipsilateral / Contralateral / Midline | (2, 10) | 7.32  | 0.011 | (2, 10) | 2.18 | 0.164 | (2, 22) | 0.93 | 0.409 |
| Interaction                | (2, 10) | 7.83  | 0.009 | (2, 10) | 0.05 | 0.950 | (2, 22) | 2.15 | 0.140 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Ipsilateral | 5   | 2.82  | 0.037 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Contralateral | 5   | 3.22  | 0.023 |
| Contrast: Pre/Post, Midline | 5   | 3.22  | 0.023 |

**Table S3, Related to Figure 7.** Effects of VPS inactivation on behavioral performance. Conventions as in Table S2.