is not constrained to predicting chemical shifts for molecules similar to common, well-characterized molecular structures. HyperNMR is particularly useful for predicting the spectra of compounds, such as large biomolecules, for which few or no related structures have been determined. In this regard, predictions from expert systems, which depend heavily on libraries of NMR spectra of existing compounds, can be very disappointing. HyperNMR is also not limited to a single molecular species. It can evaluate several molecules and their interactions simultaneously, especially with regard to the solvent matrix in which the molecule or molecules are found. Other possible uses of HyperNMR include time-course spectral predictions for both chemical and enzymatic reactions, spectral modeling for unstable compounds, reaction intermediates, or transition states, and comparison of the spectrum of a crystallized molecule (PDB format) to the actual spectrum of the same molecule in solution. Information from the last type of study is sought by biophysicists attempting to understand the physiological conformation of biopolymers.

New users may discover that HyperNMR is not intuitively easy to use the first time. Fortunately, the learning curve is not substantial. The HyperNMR manual comes with three tutorials, which can be mastered in about 30 minutes each, if followed in the prescribed step-by-step fashion. The lessons are clear and, for the most part, unambiguous. Chapters following the tutorials provide a better understanding of the program and the scientific principles behind it. For further information on the accuracy and theory of predictions, Hypercube maintains an excellent e-mail support and FAQ section (located at www.hyper.com/support/default.htm). Manufacturer listed minimal system requirements for HyperNMR include an Intel 386-, 486- (with math coprocessor), or Pentium-compatible CPU, 4 Mb of RAM, 8 Mb of free hard disk space, and Windows 3.1, Windows 95, or Windows NT. For working with complicated structures, Hypercube recommends a fast Pentium-based system with at least 32 Mb of RAM. We did not experience unusual or excessive computer instability while using the program on a 150 MHz Pentium-based system with 80 Mb of RAM under Windows 95.

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PERSPECTIVES: NEUROSCIENCE

Separating the Wheat from the Chaff

Nancy Kanwisher and Paul Downing

Seeing the world around you is like drinking from a firehose. The flood of information that enters the eyes could easily overwhelm the capacity of the visual system. To solve this problem, a mechanism—attention—allows selective processing of the information relevant to current goals. As the eminent physiological psychologist Helmholtz noted over a hundred years ago, even without moving our eyes we can focus our attention on different objects at will, resulting in very different perceptual experiences of the same visual input (*1*). Visual attention has been the focus of several decades of elegant behavioral research, but the neural basis of this process has come under intensive investigation only recently. A report by Kastner *et al.* on page 108 (*2*), in which the authors used functional magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the brain in awake human subjects performing visual tasks, provides new clues about how our brains deal with the onslaught of sensory input.

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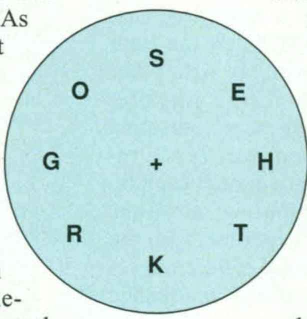
Try a version of Helmholtz's experiment for yourself. Fix your eyes on the cross at the center of the figure (below), and without moving your eyes read the letters around the circle one letter at a time, starting at the top. Attention enhances your awareness of the selected letter, relegating the rest to the margins of consciousness.



Attention is distinct from gaze. Maintain fixation on the central cross, and read one letter at a time, progressing around the circle without moving your eyes.

Why might we have such a system in the first place? Why not just move our eyes to place objects of interest on the fovea, the high-resolution central region of the retina? Several reasons have been suggested. First, as social primates, we are acutely aware of where others are looking (*3*). The ability to move attention while holding our eyes fixed allows us to keep our interests and intentions private (*4*). Second, having an attentional system that is independent of eye movements allows us to attend to objects whose images would not fit neatly within the fovea, as well as to track several independently moving objects at once (*5*, *6*). Basketball players, for example, can mentally track several other players on the court—not just the one they could follow if they had to rely on eye movements alone.

How does selective attention work? According to one recent hypothesis (*7*, *8*), the neural representations of different objects in the image suppress each other, and attention acts by biasing this competition: The visual attributes of the relevant object are strengthened while those of irrelevant objects are weakened. In the new study, Kastner and colleagues tested this idea in humans by using functional MRI to measure the summed neural responses from each of four areas of the brain that participate in processing visual signals (V1, V2, V4, and TEO), while the subjects' attention was engaged with a difficult task at the center of gaze.

In their first experiment, the overall neural response from each of these brain areas was lower when four objects were presented simultaneously above and to the right of the central display in the peripheral parts of the subjects visual field than when the same four objects were presented sequentially in the same locations, even though the total amount of retinal stimulation (integrated over time)

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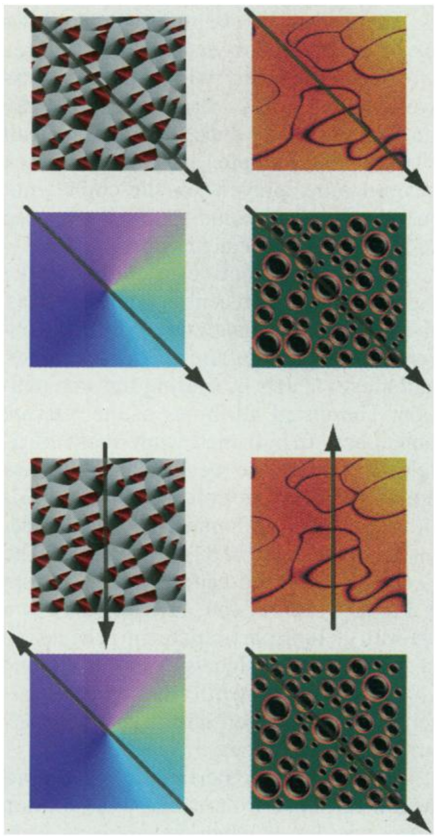
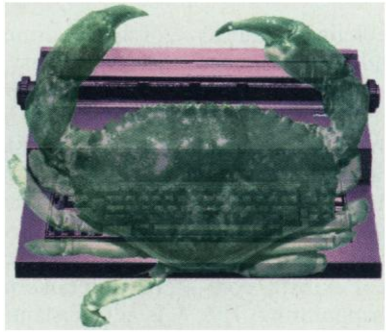
was identical in the two cases. The fact that there was a bigger difference between responses to simultaneous and successive presentations in V4 and TEO (higher cortical areas) than in V1 and V2 (which are earlier stages in the visual processing pathway) suggests that fewer and fewer objects can be represented as information proceeds along the visual pathway. Kastner and colleagues interpret these results as reflecting an increasing suppressive effect from competitive interactions among the neural representations of different objects.

In their second experiment, Kastner *et al.* found that the reduction in the neural response to simultaneous compared with successive stimuli was much less severe when attention was directed to one of the four peripheral stimuli. On the basis of this result, they argue that attention protects the representation of the target item from the interfering (suppressive) effects of nearby stimuli.

These experiments are elegant and important. Kastner and colleagues not only demonstrate the reduction of response for simultaneously presented objects, and the attenuation of that effect by attention, but also quantify these effects separately within each of the cortical areas that make up the early stages of the visual pathway. This work raises the standards of brain-imaging research well above the routine inventories of brain activations that are the standard fare of the field.



Unification by motion. A variation on Kastner *et al.*'s study might compare a situation in which four visual patterns are grouped via common motion (upper panel of figure) with one in which the same patterns are perceived as four independently moving objects (lower panel of figure).



Does color follow shape? Object-based models of attention suggest that attention to one aspect of an object (for example, the shape of the typewriter) necessarily enhances other features of that object (its color).

The interpretation of these studies, however, is not completely straightforward. First, although Kastner *et al.* interpret the reduced response to simultaneous compared with sequential stimuli as evidence for suppressive or competitive interactions, they do not provide direct evidence for active inhibition. They simply show that when a number of stimuli are presented at once, the visual system produces something less than the sum of its responses to the items when presented alone. Further work will be needed to determine whether these subadditive effects are actually due to inhibitory interactions, saturation of neural or functional MRI responses, or some combination thereof.

A second concern is that in Kastner *et al.*'s first experiment the peripheral stimuli may have captured attention away from the primary central task more powerfully when those stimuli were presented successively (four flashes per second) than simultaneously (one flash per second). In a clever control experiment, the authors used a stimulus configuration that allowed them to measure the response in V4 to a single peripheral item, and showed that this response was lower when the item was presented simultaneously with other peripheral stimuli than when it was presented alone. This experiment controlled for stimulus presentation rate, hence reducing concerns about attentional capture. This control configuration was not used, however, in the second experiment, so the attentional effects reported reflect the responses to both attended and unattended items, somewhat complicating the interpretation of the data.

Like the results of previous imaging studies on attention (*9–12*), Kastner *et al.*'s findings are consistent with most of the current theories of visual attention (*7, 8, 13, 14*). An important challenge for the future will be to design imaging studies that will discriminate among these theories. For example, the object-based view of attention that inspired the biased-competition model in the first place (*7*) holds that attention selects whole objects (including all of their visual attributes), rather than selecting spatial locations or feature dimensions for attention. Several key predictions of this theory can be tested with functional MRI. First, does attention to one feature of an object necessarily enhance the representation of other features of the same object (see the figure in the left column)? Second, can the representation of one object be selectively enhanced even when it appears in the same spatial location as either a single distractor object overlaid on top of it or a series of objects appearing one at a time in the same place (*15*)? Finally, would the suppressive interactions in Kastner *et al.*'s experiments be reduced or eliminated if the four objects were connected, for example, by shared motion, to make one large object, as in the above figure?

We are not passive recipients of the information that washes over our sensory receptors, but active participants in our own process of perception. Understanding the cognitive and neural mechanisms of selective attention—the control of the floodgates of sensory information—is one of the most important missions of cognitive neuroscience.

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