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Attentional eye selection modulates sensory eye dominance

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Abstract:	<p>Brief periods of monocular deprivation significantly modify binocular visual processing. For example, patching one eye for a few hours alters the inter-ocular balance, with the previously patched eye becoming dominant once the patch is removed (Lunghi, Burr, & Morrone, 2011; Lunghi, Burr, & Morrone, 2013). However, the contribution of higher-level visual processing to this phenomenon is still unclear. Here, we compared changes in sensory eye dominance produced by three types of monocular manipulations in adult participants with normal binocular vision. One eye was covered for 150 minutes using either an opaque patch, a diffusing lens, or a prism that inverted the image. All three manipulations altered dominance duration and predominance during binocular rivalry (BR) in favour of the treated eye and the time courses of the changes were similar. These results indicate that modifications of luminance or contrast are not strictly necessary to drive shifts in eye dominance, as both were unaltered in the prism condition. Next, we found that shifts in eye dominance were dependent on attentional demands during the monocular treatment period, providing support for the role of attentional eye selection in modulating eye dominance. Finally, we found relatively rapid build-up of the ocular dominance shift after the onset of monocular treatment. Taken together, our results suggest that modifications to monocular input alter inter-ocular balance via selective attentional mechanisms that bias output towards the deprived eye. Eye-based attention may play an important role in conditions where normal input to one eye is disrupted, such as childhood amblyopia.</p>

Attentional eye selection modulates sensory eye dominance

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1 **Abstract**

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3 For example, patching one eye for a few hours alters the inter-ocular balance, with the
4 previously patched eye becoming dominant once the patch is removed (Lunghi, Burr, &
5 Morrone, 2011; Lunghi, Burr, & Morrone, 2013). However, the contribution of higher-
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8 participants with normal binocular vision. One eye was covered for 150 minutes using
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17 dominance shift after the onset of monocular treatment. Taken together, our results
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20 may play an important role in conditions where normal input to one eye is disrupted, such
21 as childhood amblyopia.

22 Introduction

23 Patching one eye for several hours, while maintaining normal visual input to the other
24 eye, induces changes in the balance between the two eyes' contributions to binocular
25 vision (e.g. Lunghi et al., 2011; Lunghi et al., 2013; Zhou, Clavagnier, & Hess, 2013). That
26 is, after removing the patch the previously occluded eye becomes more dominant,
27 revealed by both psychophysical and physiological measures (Begum & Tso, 2015, 2016;
28 Binda et al., 2018; Chadnova, Reynaud, Clavagnier, & Hess, 2017; Lunghi, Berchicci,
29 Morrone, & Di Russo, 2015; Tso, Miller, & Begum, 2017; Zhou, Baker, Simard, Saint-Amour,
30 & Hess, 2015). The neural locus of these changes is thought to be in primary visual cortex
31 (V1) (Binda et al., 2018; Chadnova et al., 2017; Lunghi, Berchicci, et al., 2015; Lunghi, Emir,
32 Morrone, & Bridge, 2015), where neurons whose responses are predominately driven by
33 inputs from either eye are arranged in alternating ocular dominance columns (Adams,
34 Sincich, & Horton, 2007; Hubel & Wiesel, 1969; Tootell, Hamilton, Silverman, & Switkes,
35 1988). Crucially, observations of reciprocal changes in the responsiveness of both eyes
36 (Lunghi, Berchicci, et al., 2015; Zhou, Clavagnier, & Hess, 2013; Zhou, Reynaud, Kim,
37 Mullen, & Hess, 2017; Zhou, Thompson, & Hess, 2013), and an altered depth of inter-
38 ocular suppression after controlling for monocular contrast sensitivity (Wang, Ledgeway,
39 & McGraw, 2019; Wang, McGraw, & Ledgeway, 2020) suggest a binocular effect. These
40 findings point to ocular dominance plasticity in human adults whose visual system is
41 believed to be relatively hard wired. Understanding the processes that drive the shifts of
42 ocular dominance following unusual binocular visual experience may not only deliver
43 useful insights into binocular vision in general, but also help treatment of visual
44 anomalies involving large asymmetries in spatial vision between the two eyes, such as
45 amblyopia (Barrett, Bradley, & McGraw, 2004).

46 In the work by Lunghi and others (2011, 2013), a translucent occluder was used to
47 deprive one eye of spatial information for 2.5 hours, giving rise to (approximately)
48 matched luminance in the two eyes. Recently we have similarly shown that an opaque
49 patch, which eliminates all visual input to an eye, is also effective in increasing the patched
50 eye's subsequent relative dominance in a binocular rivalry (BR) task (Wang et al., 2019;
51 Wang et al., 2020). Some work has compared the effects of translucent and opaque
52 patching in the same study, and comparable shifts in eye dominance were observed
53 (Begum & Tso, 2016; Chadnova et al., 2017; Zhou, Clavagnier, & Hess, 2013). The result
54 that full occlusion is no more effective than contrast deprivation may imply that inter-
55 ocular imbalance in spatial information may be a key factor in modulating sensory eye
56 dominance. In support, it has been found that reducing the contrast of a monocular image
57 for some time, increased relative dominance of the treated eye (Kim, Kim, & Blake, 2017;
58 Zhou, Reynaud, & Hess, 2014), whilst changes in relative inter-ocular luminance
59 differences failed to produce any effect on subsequent eye dominance (Yao et al., 2017).
60 By comparing various forms of short-term monocular manipulation we may gain
61 important insights into the mechanisms regulating ocular balance.

62 A few previous studies have investigated the effects produced by several variants of
63 monocular deprivation, but they have focused on manipulation of low-level sensory input,
64 such as elimination of a certain range of spatial frequencies or disruption of phase
65 regularity (Bai, Dong, He, & Bao, 2017; Zhou et al., 2014). However, it has been shown that
66 cognitive mechanisms, such as selective attention, are also involved in some forms of eye
67 dominance plasticity (Dieter, Melnick, & Tadin, 2016; Ooi, Su, Natale, & He, 2013; Xu, He,
68 & Ooi, 2010). Consequently, it remains unknown whether higher-level processes also
69 contribute to changes in sensory eye dominance following manipulations of monocular
70 input. Therefore, in the current study we sought to compare the effects of luminance
71 (opaque patch), contrast (diffusing lens), and spatial mismatches (inverting prism) on
72 sensory eye dominance. In the latter case the mismatch in low-level spatial and temporal
73 input is minimised, presumably revealing the influence of selective attention.

74 **Experiment 1: How do different types of monocular** 75 **treatment modulate subsequent sensory eye dominance?**

76 **Methods**

77 **Observers**

78 Nine participants who had normal or corrected-to-normal vision took part in the study
79 (age range: 23–51 years, one female), and were staff or students at the University of
80 Nottingham. All but three (the authors) were naïve to the purpose of the study. Two of
81 the participants were only available to complete the opaque patch and diffuser conditions,
82 and another participant only completed the inverting prism condition. The remaining
83 participants (N = 6) completed all three treatment conditions. Normal stereo vision for
84 all observers was indicated by the results of the TNO stereo test (Laméris Ootech,
85 Nieuwegein, The Netherlands). All observers completed extensive practice trials before
86 formal data collection began to familiarise themselves with the binocular rivalry task. The
87 study was conducted with the approval of the University of Nottingham, School of
88 Psychology Ethics Committee and all participants gave informed consent.

89 **Apparatus and Stimuli**

90 Observers performed the experimental task in a dimly lit room. Stimuli were computer
91 generated grey-scale images, produced using an Apple Macintosh computer running
92 custom software written in the C programming language, and were displayed on a pair of
93 identical LCD monitors (22 inch Samsung Sync-Master 2233RZ; 1024 × 768 pixel
94 resolution; 60 Hz refresh rate; 318 cd/m² maximum luminance). The utility of using these

95 displays in vision experiments with respect to their spatial characteristics, timing and
96 luminance properties has previously been documented (Wang & Nikolic, 2011). Precise
97 temporal synchronisation between the two monitors was achieved by driving them using
98 the dual outputs of the same video card. The monitors were carefully checked and
99 calibrated to produce a linear luminance output function for the digital representation of
100 the image. The noisy-bit method was applied to each colour channel independently, to
101 effectively produce an infinite number of intensity levels available for presenting stimuli
102 on the display, enabling precise control of luminance contrast (Allard & Faubert, 2008).

103 A monocular image was presented to each display, and the participant viewed the pair of
104 stimuli dichoptically through a Wheatstone mirror stereoscope, with an optical viewing
105 distance of 231.5 cm. The two full-silvered mirrors were placed symmetrically with
106 respect to the median plane of the head, and the angle was adjusted (if necessary) for
107 individual observers to maintain stable binocular fusion. The background of each display
108 was a uniform grey field, with a luminance of 159 cd/m². The stimuli subtended 2.21° ×
109 2.21°, enclosed by a high contrast checkered fusion frame (alternating black and white
110 square elements), with a pair of vertically- and horizontally-oriented Nonius lines, to
111 assist binocular fusion. A binocular central fixation cross was presented at the beginning
112 of each trial, and head position was stabilised with the use of a chin rest.

113 To trigger the perceptual experience of binocular rivalry, a horizontally-oriented
114 sinusoidal luminance grating (Michelson contrast 20%; spatial frequency 1.8 cpd) was
115 presented to the participant's left eye, and an identical but vertically-oriented grating was
116 presented to the right eye simultaneously. The grating contained 4 cycles and was
117 randomly assigned to either +sine or -sine phase on each trial, with respect to the
118 horizontal or vertical midline.

119 **Procedure**

120 Temporal dynamics of BR were recorded to quantify sensory eye dominance. The
121 measurement was completed both in the absence of (i.e. baseline), and immediately
122 following monocular treatment for a duration of 150 minutes (Figure 1a). The effects of
123 three types of treatment were examined. First, one eye was covered with an opaque patch
124 where all visual input to that eye was eliminated. Second, a diffusing lens was used where
125 all contour information was removed such that subjects could not count fingers at a
126 distance of 10 cm. The luminance level at the eye was largely preserved, with a small
127 attenuation of ~15% as measured by a spot photometer. For the third treatment
128 condition, a Porro prism was placed over one eye using a trial frame, to invert the image
129 viewed by that eye. In this way the two eyes' images were matched in luminance, contrast,
130 chromatic and temporal information over a central region of the visual field, whilst
131 binocular fusion was prevented. The field of view through the inverting prism was limited,
132 subtending 33.40° vertically and 28° horizontally, but was sufficiently larger than the
133 angle subtended by the visual displays used for presenting the stimuli. The effect of

134 monocular treatment of each eye was measured separately, so that we could determine
135 if the treatment altered eye balance independently of any inherent baseline eye
136 dominance.

137 In the BR task, at the beginning of each trial the participant viewed the fixation cross and
138 pressed a key when stable binocular fusion was achieved, to initiate stimulus
139 presentation. Subjective percepts were tracked continuously by key presses over 30
140 minutes, with a brief break every three minutes. There were three types of response
141 allowed: an exclusive horizontal grating, an exclusive vertical grating, and a mixed
142 percept that contained both gratings. The BR measurement was completed at least twice
143 for each eye condition (in separate sessions). For analyses the data were collapsed across
144 both eye conditions, such that there were a minimum of four repetitions for each
145 treatment condition. A minimum of two repetitions were also completed for the baseline
146 measurement.

147 **Data analyses**

148 Distributions of phase durations

149 Relative eye dominance was quantified by comparing the mean phase duration of
150 exclusive percepts viewed by the two eyes. The raw durations, binned every three
151 minutes, were pooled across all testing sessions of the corresponding treatment condition
152 (i.e. all repetitions including both eye conditions), and grouped based on whether the
153 stimulus was presented to the previously treated eye or the non-treated eye, which
154 discounts any existing biases of eye and/or orientation. As there were marked individual
155 differences in measures, phase duration values for the treated and the non-treated eyes
156 were normalised to each observer's mean phase duration measured during the
157 corresponding three-minute time bin in the baseline condition. The resulting
158 distributions reveal differences between eyes attributable to monocular treatment, and
159 how these effects may have diminished over time, independently of potential prolonged
160 measurement effects on BR dynamics. The mean baseline duration, used as the basis of
161 this normalisation procedure, was calculated from the durations pooled across both
162 eyes/orientations and all repeated testing sessions. The normalised phase durations
163 were then pooled across all individuals, and the distributions of these durations are
164 plotted as a probability density function (PDF; bin size: 0.2). Using the method of
165 nonlinear least-squares, the corresponding cumulative density function (CDF) was then
166 fitted with a gamma distribution defined by the following equation:

$$167 \quad g(x) = \frac{\lambda^\rho}{\Gamma(\rho)} \int_0^x t^{\rho-1} e^{-\lambda t} dt, \quad (1)$$

168 where Γ is the gamma function, ρ indicates the shape of the distribution (shape parameter)
169 and λ describes the spread (scale parameter). To eliminate subjectivity caused by
170 introducing an arbitrary bin size, the CDF rather than PDF was used for fitting. However
171 the fitted curves are plotted in the PDF form, with the estimated parameters from the CDF

172 fits, to allow direct comparison to the results presented in previous work (Lunghi et al.,
173 2013).

174 Time course of treatment effect

175 The effect of monocular treatment on eye dominance was then quantified as the ratio of
176 mean phase duration, or predominance (i.e. proportion of total time), for the exclusive
177 percept viewed by the treated eye to that for the non-treated eye. A ratio was computed
178 for the measurements within each of the ten, three-minute time bins, so that a time course
179 of the treatment effect could be obtained. A ratio above unity indicates an enhanced
180 dominance of the treated eye relative to the other eye. Note that a ratio of one does not
181 mean a perfect balance between the two eyes, but rather no change in eye dominance
182 after treatment. To show the variability across the group, while utilising the variability in
183 raw phase durations within each individual observer, bootstrapping (10,000 repetitions)
184 was performed to obtain 95% confidence intervals for the computed mean ratio within
185 each time bin. This procedure was only conducted for the ratio obtained using mean
186 phase durations, whilst for predominance ratio the standard error of the mean (SEM) was
187 computed instead.

188 A power function was fitted to the computed ratio as a function of time after removing
189 the treatment for each condition, in the form of the following equation with 3 free
190 parameters (a, b, c):

$$191 \quad y = \left(\frac{a}{t+b}\right)^c + 1, \quad (2)$$

192 where y is the ratio, t is the time elapsed in minutes, a is the amplitude, b indicates the
193 horizontal position of the function, and c defines the decay rate. The parameters a and b
194 together determine the initial size of the effect at $t = 0$. The constant term defines the
195 lower asymptote, which is set to one, assuming that the effect on sensory eye dominance
196 would eventually return to zero ($y \approx 1$). The method of weighted nonlinear least-squares
197 was used for fitting, where the inverse of the variance of each data point was used as a
198 weight. For the optimisation of parameters, the constraints of $a > 0$ and $c > 0$ were applied.

199 Mixed percept predominance

200 Apart from exclusive dominance of the two eyes, the predominance of mixed perception
201 (i.e. non-exclusive percepts) may also provide some information about binocular visual
202 processing following monocular treatment. Hence, the proportion of time that mixed
203 percepts occurred during each of the ten time bins was also obtained. This was extracted
204 for the baseline condition, and all the three treatment conditions, to investigate how
205 mixed perception during BR varied over time, and whether monocular treatment
206 influenced the pattern. Again, to control for individual differences, the data were first
207 normalised to the observer's baseline mixed percept proportion over the whole
208 measurement period, before being averaged across all observers to obtain the group
209 means.

210 It is possible that any treatment effect which would presumably decay over time, may be
211 confounded with potential changes caused by prolonged BR measurement (see Klink,

212 Brascamp, Blake, & Van Wezel, 2010). Therefore, we also conducted bin-wise
213 normalisation on these data. That is, mixed percept proportion for each treatment
214 condition within each time bin, was divided by that measured in the corresponding bin
215 (instead of the overall proportion) in the baseline condition, to reveal the time course of
216 post-treatment changes (if any) in mixed percept predominance.

217 Finally, as there was a brief break every three minutes when BR was measured, we
218 examined if any changes in mixed perception occurred during each measurement run. To
219 this end, the data within each run were broken down into three, one-minute, sub-bins,
220 and the difference in mixed percept proportion was calculated between the last and the
221 first sub-bins. Consequently, negative values indicate a reduction in mixed perception
222 over time within a given run, whereas positive values indicate increased mixed
223 perception.

224 Group level statistical tests

225 For statistical tests based on the General Linear Model, only the participants who
226 completed all the conditions for a given test were included. Effect size is reported as
227 Cohen's d for t-tests and (partial) η^2 for ANOVA. For linear mixed-effects model analyses,
228 all the nine participants were included. The following hypotheses were examined.

229 *i. Was there a shift in dominance towards the treated eye following each type of monocular* 230 *treatment?*

231 One-sample, one-tailed, t-tests were performed to compare the log-transformed eye
232 dominance ratio with zero. This was conducted for each of the ten time bins, for each
233 treatment condition separately. For the ratio computed using mean phase durations,
234 equivalent permutation tests (number of permutations: 10,000) using the individuals'
235 raw phase durations were also performed.

236 *ii. Did the type of treatment matter?*

237 First, a one-way (three levels) repeated-measures ANOVA was performed to examine the
238 effect of treatment on the log-transformed eye dominance ratio, for each of the ten time
239 bins. For the duration ratio, equivalent permutation F-tests (number of permutations:
240 10,000) were also conducted using the individuals' raw phase durations.

241 In addition, permutation tests were performed on the basis of the curve fits obtained
242 using Equation 2. This was conducted for pairwise comparisons of the entire time course
243 between conditions. Specifically, the raw phase durations for each observer were
244 randomly permuted across the two conditions to be compared. A permuted ratio was
245 then computed for every time bin for each observer based on the mean permuted
246 durations for the two eyes. The mean ratio across observers was subsequently obtained
247 for each time bin, and a curve given by Equation 2 was fitted to the resultant time course.
248 The fitting method was identical to that used for the original data as described above. This
249 procedure was repeated 10,000 times. Consequently, a p value for the given pairwise
250 comparison was obtained (computed from the permuted and the original data) for each
251 parameter (a , b , or c) of the curve fits.

252 Finally, to utilise all data without excluding any participants, linear mixed-effects model
253 analyses were performed. The fixed effect of treatment type on the slope, and the random
254 effect of subject on the intercept, were included in the model.

255 *iii. Did mixed percept predominance change following each type of monocular treatment?*

256 A paired-sample, two-tailed, t-test was performed to compare the mixed percept
257 predominance following each type of monocular treatment with that for the baseline, pre-
258 treatment measurements, for each of the ten time bins.

259 *iv. Did mixed percept predominance differ between treatment conditions?*

260 A one-way repeated-measures ANOVA was performed to compare the mixed percept
261 predominance between the three treatment conditions, for each of the ten time bins. In
262 addition, linear mixed-effects model analyses were also performed to utilise all data
263 without excluding any participants. The fixed effect of treatment type on the slope, and
264 the random effect of subject on the intercept, were included in the model.

265 **Results**

266 Binocular rivalry dynamics were measured to assess sensory eye dominance before and
267 after a 150-minute monocular treatment. Figure 2 shows the distributions of normalised
268 exclusive phase durations for the stimulus presented to the previously treated eye and
269 the non-treated eye in the three treatment conditions (opaque patch, diffuser and
270 inverting prism), pooled across all participants. Only the durations measured during the
271 first, the second and the last three-minute bins are plotted for simplicity. The distribution
272 of the normalised baseline durations for the corresponding bin is also shown in each plot.
273 Figure 2 shows that for the first six minutes after the treatment stopped, the distributions
274 were distinct for the two eyes—there were more longer durations for the previously
275 treated eye than the non-treated eye, and more shorter durations for the non-treated eye.
276 This signals a shift of eye dominance in favour of the previously treated eye after
277 monocular treatment. These changes in the relative difference between the two eyes were
278 consistent for all the three treatment conditions, though there were some variations in
279 terms of the shape and scale of the distributions. When tested 27–30 minutes after the
280 treatment stopped, the difference between the two eyes diminished and the distributions
281 approached those measured in the baseline condition, indicating recovery of the effects
282 induced by the monocular treatment.

283 To quantify changes in relative eye dominance, the ratio between the metrics (mean
284 phase duration or predominance) for the treated and the non-treated eyes was obtained
285 for each of the ten time bins (Figure 3). For all forms of monocular treatment, the log-
286 transformed ratio was significantly greater than zero immediately after stopping the
287 treatment (0–3 min), for both mean phase durations (opaque: $t_{(7)} = 7.30, p < .001, d = 2.58$;
288 diffuser: $t_{(7)} = 6.46, p < .001, d = 2.28$; inverting: $t_{(6)} = 7.06, p < .001, d = 2.67$), and
289 predominance (opaque: $t_{(7)} = 9.13, p < .001, d = 3.23$; diffuser: $t_{(7)} = 6.91, p < .001, d = 2.44$;

290 inverting: $t_{(6)} = 7.12, p < .001, d = 2.69$). These results confirmed that monocular treatment
 291 of an eye increased its dominance relative to the other, non-treated eye. As can be seen,
 292 this effect declined rapidly within the first 9 minutes before gradually reaching a plateau,
 293 and this time course was well characterised by a power function (see Table 1 for fit
 294 results). Nevertheless, the difference remained significant at least 30 minutes after
 295 finishing the treatment for all conditions in terms of mean phase durations (opaque: $t_{(7)}$
 296 = 2.63, $p = .017, d = 0.93$; diffuser: $t_{(7)} = 3.30, p = .007, d = 1.17$; inverting: $t_{(6)} = 12.23, p$
 297 < .001, $d = 4.62$), and predominance (opaque: $t_{(7)} = 3.73, p = .004, d = 1.32$; diffuser: $t_{(7)} =$
 298 4.32, $p = .002, d = 1.53$; inverting: $t_{(6)} = 7.95, p < .001, d = 3.00$). Moreover, the results of
 299 permutation tests confirmed these findings (all $p < .001$). Overall, the time course of these
 300 effects, and the shift in eye dominance in favour of the treated eye, were consistent with
 301 Lunghi et al. (2013).

302 Table 1: Fit results (Equation 2) of the time course of the eye dominance ratio shown in
 303 Figures 3c (mean phase duration) and 3d (predominance). The estimates of the three
 304 parameters, a, b and c (with 95% confidence intervals shown in brackets), and the
 305 goodness of fit indicated by R^2 are shown.

	a	b	c	R^2
	Mean phase duration			
Opaque	0.64 (-1.09, 2.38)	1.16 (-1.64, 3.96)	0.43 (0.08, 0.79)	.872
Diffuser	2.00 (-0.34, 4.33)	1.88 (-0.74, 4.50)	0.53 (0.25, 0.81)	.936
Inverting	2.14 (-0.20, 4.48)	1.62 (-0.64, 3.88)	0.60 (0.34, 0.86)	.931
	Predominance			
Opaque	4.24 (-0.039, 8.51)	1.73 (-1.36, 4.82)	0.56 (0.20, 0.92)	.905
Diffuser	4.76 (2.64, 6.88)	0.61 (-0.19, 1.41)	0.45 (0.30, 0.61)	.944
Inverting	4.91 (2.49, 7.33)	1.09 (-0.19, 2.37)	0.63 (0.42, 0.84)	.943

306

307 The results of one-way ANOVA suggested that the ratio within the first time bin (0–3 min)
 308 did not differ significantly between treatment conditions (mean phase duration: $F_{(2,10)} =$
 309 0.664, $p = .536, \eta^2 = .028$; predominance: $F_{(2,10)} = 1.81, p = .214, \eta^2 = .070$), nor did it
 310 become significant for the subsequent time bins (all $p > .05$, except for the predominance
 311 ratio during 12–15 min: $F_{(2,10)} = 4.34, p = .044, \eta^2 = .18$). The lack of a significant effect of
 312 treatment type was also found when individuals' raw phase durations were randomly
 313 permuted among conditions ($p = .565$ for 0–3 min, and $p > .05$ for all subsequent time
 314 bins). The results of permutation tests performed on the estimated parameters of curve
 315 fits, further suggested that none of the parameters differed significantly between
 316 conditions over the entire 30-minute measurement period (Table 2). When data from all
 317 nine participants were included, the linear mixed-effects model analysis revealed
 318 consistent results, whereby the fixed effect of treatment type was not significant (0–3 min:
 319 mean phase durations, $F_{(2,20)} = 1.77, p = .195$; predominance: $F_{(2,20)} = 2.41, p = .115; p > .05$
 320 for all subsequent time bins for both metrics, except for the predominance ratio during
 321 12–15 min: $F_{(2,20)} = 5.01, p = .017$). All the above results support the conclusion that the
 322 form of monocular treatment did not make a significant difference.

323 Table 2: The results of permutation tests (number of permutations: 10,000), in p values,
 324 for three pairwise comparisons between different types of monocular treatment in terms
 325 of the estimated parameters, a , b , and c from the curve fits (Table 1) of the time course
 326 shown in Figure 3c. The reported p values are uncorrected, or have been corrected for
 327 multiple comparisons using the Holm-Bonferroni method as proposed by Holm (1979).

	Opaque-Diffuser			Opaque-Inverting			Diffuser-Inverting		
	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c
Uncorrected p	.852	.682	.87	.453	.584	.398	.229	.256	.136
Corrected p	.907	1	.87	.907	1	.797	.686	.768	.408

328 It is worth noting that mixed percepts were fairly common in our measurements, in
 329 addition to exclusive dominance of one or the other grating. Figure 4 demonstrates the
 330 time course of mixed percept predominance over the 30-minute measurement period. A
 331 clear pattern can be seen for both the baseline measurement and the data measured after
 332 each type of monocular treatment—the predominance of mixed percepts declined over
 333 the course of the BR measurement (Figure 4a). The similarity between the pre- and post-
 334 treatment data also implies that no consistent changes in the overall level of mixed
 335 percept predominance, or its time course, were induced by monocular treatment.

336 The results of paired-sample t -tests showed no significant alterations in mixed percept
 337 predominance following monocular treatment compared to baseline measurements (0–
 338 3 min: opaque: $t_{(7)} = 0.18$, $p = .86$, $d = 0.065$; diffuser: $t_{(7)} = -0.078$, $p = .94$, $d = -0.027$;
 339 inverting: $t_{(6)} = -0.27$, $p = .797$, $d = -0.102$; $p > .05$ for all subsequent time bins except for
 340 the data during 27–30 min in the opaque patch condition: $t_{(7)} = -2.66$, $p = .032$, $d = -0.941$).
 341 Furthermore, the results of one-way ANOVA indicated that the post-treatment mixed
 342 percept predominance did not differ between the three treatment types (0–3 min: $F_{(2,10)}$
 343 $= 0.84$, $p = .459$, $\eta^2 = .046$; $p > .05$ for all subsequent time bins). Consistent results were
 344 obtained from the linear mixed-effects model analysis, where all subjects' data were
 345 included (0–3 min: $F_{(2,20)} = 0.61$, $p = .553$; $p > .05$ for all subsequent time bins).

346 Figure 4b depicts the time course of the changes in mixed percept predominance
 347 following monocular treatment relative to that measured during the corresponding time
 348 bin in the baseline condition (see *Data analyses*). When variations arising from prolonged
 349 BR measurement were discounted, a flat curve was revealed for all treatment conditions.
 350 In other words, the only source of variations in mixed perception was related to
 351 measuring BR over time. Moreover, Figure 4c shows the change in mixed percept
 352 proportion within each of the ten time bins. As can be seen, negative values were
 353 predominant, suggesting that the proportion of mixed percepts declined over time, even
 354 within a measurement run. This rules out the possibility that the observed pattern of
 355 results was due to artefacts introduced by the brief break between runs. Rather, the data
 356 show that mixed perception decreases as BR measurement continues, in contrast to
 357 previous findings by Klink et al. (2010) (see *General discussion*). As the methodologies
 358 were very similar, we considered the possibility that the discrepancies in this result might
 359 have arisen from the small differences in the stimuli used. However, the same pattern of

360 reducing mixed percept predominance was found when we retested the baseline time
361 course in three subjects using stimuli with identical spatial frequency, luminance contrast
362 and grating orientation to those used by Klink et al. (2010).

363 In summary, the results of Experiment 1 show that covering one eye for 2.5 hours with
364 an opaque patch, a diffusing lens, or an inverting prism produced similar effects on
365 binocular rivalry dynamics. That is, the previously treated eye was strengthened relative
366 to the other eye. Despite the fact that the type of visual information available was different
367 in the three treatment conditions, the magnitude and time course of this phenomenon
368 were comparable. This implies that a lack of luminance or contrast information in one eye
369 is not a necessary requirement for the shift in sensory eye dominance produced by short-
370 term monocular deprivation.

371 **Experiment 2: Role of top-down attention in driving the** 372 **changes in sensory eye dominance**

373 The results of Experiment 1 indicate that altering low-level sensory input is not a
374 prerequisite for producing shifts in eye dominance. This raises the possibility of higher-
375 level processing contributing to the effect, at least in the prism condition. Interestingly,
376 our participants claimed that they were able to perceive the upright image in the non-
377 treated eye predominately, while ignoring the inverted image viewed through the prism.
378 Therefore, a plausible driver of the changes in eye dominance following monocular
379 inversion seems to be selective attention to one eye, or inattention to the other. However,
380 the activities the participants undertook during the treatment period were not
381 constrained or monitored in Experiment 1, such that attention was not strictly controlled.
382 Therefore, we sought to manipulate the degree to which selective attention was required
383 during the monocular treatment. If top-down attention does play a role in the prism
384 condition, one might expect to find larger effects when participants engage in a task that
385 requires them to actively attend to the normal visual input in the non-treated eye. In
386 addition, it remains unknown whether attentional processes also contribute to the effects
387 found following modification of low-level input. Therefore, we also tested the opaque
388 patch condition in Experiment 2. A difference in the size of effects for different levels of
389 attentional demand during monocular luminance deprivation, would indicate a
390 contribution of attention in this condition too.

391 **Methods**

392 **Observers**

393 Six observers with normal binocular vision (TNO stereo acuity within the normal range)
394 took part in this experiment, three of whom also participated in Experiment 1.

395 **Procedure**

396 A schematic illustration of the procedure is shown in Figure 1b. One hour of monocular
397 treatment was applied, to an eye randomly selected for each participant and fixed
398 throughout the experiment. Two treatment conditions were completed for each
399 participant: using an opaque patch or an inverting prism as in Experiment 1. During the
400 period of monocular treatment, the participant either did a jigsaw puzzle (Gibsons
401 *London from Above*), which was attentionally demanding (active condition), or simply
402 stared at a plain curtain (passive condition), before they were tested in a BR percept
403 tracking task for 30 minutes to assess sensory eye dominance. Note that in the passive
404 condition the participants viewed the curtain from a close distance, such that the textural
405 detail and undulation of the curtain were readily visible, as was the directional
406 component of the lighting. Baseline measurements of BR without any monocular
407 treatment were also completed for each observer. The apparatus, stimuli, and procedure
408 for the BR task were identical to those used in Experiment 1 with the following exception.
409 For half of the conditions, the horizontal grating was presented to the left eye and the
410 vertical grating was presented to the right eye; for the remaining conditions the converse
411 was true. The data were combined across both configurations, yielding two sets of
412 measurement for each treatment × attention condition and for the baseline condition
413 (each configuration was completed once for each condition).

414 **Data analyses**

415 Eye dominance was quantified in terms of the exclusive phase duration distributions and
416 the ratio of mean phase duration or predominance between the two eyes. The
417 normalisation and fitting procedures for phase duration distributions were identical to
418 those used in Experiment 1. For the measure of ratio, note that a value of one indicates
419 balanced BR dynamics between the two eyes (cf. no difference depending on whether the
420 eye has received monocular treatment in Experiment 1), because only one of the
421 observer's eyes was patched.

422 **Group level statistical tests**

423 The following hypotheses were assessed for Experiment 2.

424 *i. Was there a shift in dominance towards the treated eye following each type of monocular*
425 *treatment relative to the baseline measurements?*

426 Paired-sample, one-tailed, t-tests were performed to compare the log-transformed eye
427 dominance ratio for each treatment condition with baseline, conducted for each of the ten
428 time bins. In addition, equivalent permutation tests (number of permutations: 10,000)
429 using the individuals' raw phase durations were performed for the ratio computed using
430 mean phase durations.

431 *ii. Did the type of treatment and the attentional demand matter?*

432 A 2 (treatment type) × 2 (attentional demand) repeated-measures ANOVA was performed
433 to assess the effects on the log-transformed eye dominance ratio, for each of the ten time
434 bins. For the duration ratio, equivalent permutation F-tests (number of permutations:
435 10,000) were also conducted using the individuals' raw phase durations. Specifically, the
436 interaction term was tested using unrestricted permutations of the raw phase durations
437 among the four conditions. The main effects were tested by restricting permutations
438 between the two levels of the factor of interest within each level of the other factor.

439 **Results**

440 The group distributions of exclusive phase durations (normalised) for the treated and the
441 non-treated eyes, pooled from the measurements within the first (0–3 min) and the last
442 time bins (27–30 min), are shown in the form of PDF for the five conditions in Figure 5.

443 The similarity between the distributions for the two eyes in the baseline condition
444 signified little or no bias in eye dominance before monocular treatment. In the passive
445 conditions of both forms of monocular treatment, almost no change was found in the
446 difference between the two eyes' distributions, compared to baseline. This result means
447 that monocular treatment, with minimal engagement of attention, failed to produce any
448 changes in subsequent sensory eye dominance. In contrast, a separation between the two
449 eyes' distributions was observed in the two active conditions, when measured
450 immediately after treatment. In both cases, this eye difference diminished when
451 measured 27–30 minutes following the treatment offset.

452 This pattern of results was also revealed with respect to the treated to non-treated eye
453 ratio in terms of both mean exclusive phase duration and predominance (Figure 6). For
454 both treatment conditions, whilst a shift towards to the treated eye can be seen
455 immediately after removing the treatment in the active conditions (i.e. an increase in the
456 ratio relative to that in the baseline condition), this effect was absent in the passive
457 conditions (i.e. an unaltered ratio). Moreover, the effect of the inverting prism in the
458 active condition was larger than that for the opaque patch. The time course of these
459 effects was similar to Experiment 1: any increase in the treated eye's dominance declined
460 rapidly within the first few minutes and then gradually reached the baseline level.

461 Statistically, the results of paired-sample t-test revealed a significant increase in the log-
462 transformed eye dominance ratio during the first time bin (0–3 min) following treatment
463 termination for both active conditions (mean phase durations: opaque, $t_{(5)} = 4.28$, $d = 1.75$;
464 inverting, $t_{(5)} = 4.34$, $p = .004$, $d = 1.77$; predominance: opaque, $t_{(5)} = 3.29$, $p = .011$, $d = 1.34$;
465 inverting, $t_{(5)} = 4.00$, $p = .005$, $d = 1.63$), but not for the passive conditions (mean phase
466 durations: opaque, $t_{(5)} = 0.437$, $p = .218$, $d = 0.35$; inverting, $t_{(5)} = 0.92$, $p = .200$, $d = 0.38$;
467 predominance: opaque, $t_{(5)} = 0.08$, $p = .468$, $d = 0.03$; inverting, $t_{(5)} = 0.40$, $p = .354$, $d =$
468 0.16). While any effects (for the active conditions) on the ratio declined over time, these
469 remained significant at least 21 minutes after the treatment was completed (18–21 min,
470 mean phase durations: opaque, $t_{(5)} = 3.04$, $p = .014$, $d = 1.24$; inverting, $t_{(5)} = 6.09$, $p < .001$,
471 $d = 2.49$; predominance: opaque, $t_{(5)} = 2.35$, $p = .033$, $d = 0.96$; inverting, $t_{(5)} = 10.39$, p
472 $< .001$, $d = 4.24$). Similar results were obtained from the permutation tests, which took
473 into account individuals' raw phase durations (0–3 min: opaque passive, $p = .215$; opaque
474 active, $p < .001$; inverting passive, $p = .154$; inverting active, $p < .001$).

475 The results of two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of attentional demand
476 (0–3 min: mean phase durations, $F_{(1,5)} = 25.26$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .835$; predominance, $F_{(0.36,1.82)}$
477 $= 21.46$, $p = .006$, $\eta_p^2 = .811$) until 24 minutes after treatment removal (21–24 min: mean
478 phase durations, $F_{(1,5)} = 14.34$, $p = .013$, $\eta_p^2 = .742$; predominance, $F_{(1,5)} = .29$, $p = .043$, η_p^2
479 $= .593$). Although for the active condition the inverting prism produced larger changes
480 than the opaque patch, as shown in Figure 6, the main effect of treatment type was not
481 significant for the ratio in terms of mean phase durations (0–3 min: $F_{(1,5)} = 1.02$, $p = .360$,
482 $\eta_p^2 = .169$; $p > .05$ for all subsequent time bins except for 12–15 min: $F_{(1,5)} = 10.90$, $p = .022$,
483 $\eta_p^2 = .686$), nor was the interaction term significant (0–3 min: $F_{(1,5)} = 3.68$, $p = .113$, η_p^2
484 $= .424$; $p > .05$ for all subsequent time bins except for 18–21 min: $F_{(1,5)} = 13.42$, $p = .015$,
485 $\eta_p^2 = .729$). For the ratio computed using predominance, however, there was a significant
486 main effect of treatment type ($F_{(0.36,1.82)} = 26.65$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .842$) and an interaction
487 ($F_{(0.36,1.82)} = 14.59$, $p = .012$, $\eta_p^2 = .745$) during the first 3 minutes, but not subsequently
488 (all $p > .05$ except for the main effect of treatment type during 12–15 min, $F_{(1,5)} = 13.67$, p
489 $= .014$, $\eta_p^2 = .732$, and during 21–24 min, $F_{(1,5)} = 12.41$, $p = .017$, $\eta_p^2 = .713$). Moreover,
490 similar findings were obtained with the permutation F-test performed on individuals'
491 raw phase durations, in terms of the main effect of attentional demand ($p = .002$ for 0–3
492 min and $p < .05$ until 24 min) and treatment type ($p = .883$ for 0–3 min and all $p > .05$
493 subsequently), and the interaction term ($p = .093$ for 0–3 min and all $p > .05$ except for
494 18–21 min, $p = .009$).

495 Overall, the differences found in the passive and the active conditions support the
496 proposal of a substantial contribution of top-down attention in driving the shifts in
497 sensory eye dominance following short-term monocular treatment.

498 **Experiment 3: What is happening to sensory eye** 499 **dominance during monocular inversion?**

500 One could argue that the boost in eye dominance following short-term monocular
501 deprivation is a rebound effect once the deprived eye is re-exposed to normal visual input.
502 A prediction based on this account is that any effect would be induced only when the
503 deprivation ends. The eye dominance shifts observed in both the current and previous
504 studies were measured at the point when monocular treatment was terminated. This tells
505 us little about visual processing taking place during the treatment period, and how these
506 changes might build up over the course of monocular treatment. Begum and Tso (2015,
507 2016) have demonstrated in adult macaques that physiological changes of V1 neurons
508 occur during the course of monocular deprivation; the responsiveness of the non-
509 deprived eye is gradually decreased. These changes started to recover once the
510 deprivation period was terminated. The early onset of neuronal changes during the
511 deprivation period suggests that shifts in ocular dominance may not simply be a rebound
512 effect. However, complementary behavioural evidence is yet to be obtained.

513 With the opaque patch or the diffuser, it is impossible to measure sensory eye dominance
514 behaviourally without removing the occluder from the patched eye. This limitation can
515 be overcome however with the inverting prism, as the treated eye is still stimulated with
516 spatial information and allows the measurement of perception during binocular rivalry.
517 In this experiment, therefore, sensory eye dominance was measured with the same BR
518 task as used in Experiment 1, at several time points during monocular treatment with the
519 inverting prism.

520 **Methods**

521 **Observers**

522 Six participants, including four who took part in Experiment 1 and another two observers,
523 participated in this experiment. The newly recruited participants also had normal
524 binocular vision.

525 **Procedure**

526 The apparatus, stimuli for the BR task, and procedure were identical to those used in
527 Experiment 1, with the exception of the time point at which BR was measured.
528 Participants performed the BR task immediately after the introduction of the inverting
529 prism, and subsequently every 30 minutes, until the end of the 150-minute treatment
530 period, yielding six measurements for each observer. The prism was then removed and
531 BR was measured again, immediately, and at 30 minutes following the prism removal. A
532 schematic illustration is shown in Figure 1c. Each measurement lasted 3 minutes. The
533 procedure was repeated at least twice for each eye.

534 **Data analyses**

535 The data were treated in the same manner as in Experiment 1, with the exception that the
536 exclusive phase durations were normalised to the mean baseline durations pooled over
537 only the first three-minute time bin. This is because BR was not measured continuously
538 for 30 minutes in this experiment, but rather in discrete three-minute runs.

539 Group level statistical tests

540 The following hypotheses were assessed for Experiment 3.

541 *i. Was there a shift in dominance towards the treated eye at each time point of measurement?*

542 One-sample, one-tailed, t-tests were conducted to compare the log-transformed eye
543 dominance ratio with zero, for each of the 8 measurements. For the ratio computed using
544 mean phase durations, equivalent permutation tests (number of permutations: 10,000)
545 using the individuals' raw phase durations were performed additionally.

546 *ii. Did the eye dominance change at each time point compared to the first measurement?*

547 Paired-sample, two-tailed, t-tests were performed to compare the log-transformed eye
548 dominance ratio at each time point from the second measurement with the first one (i.e.
549 immediately after putting on the prism). Equivalent permutation tests (number of
550 permutations: 10,000) were also performed using individuals' raw phase durations for
551 the duration ratio.

552 **Results**

553 The group distributions of normalised exclusive phase durations are shown in Figure 7.
554 Each subplot depicts the durations for the treated eye and the non-treated eye pooled
555 over a three-minute measurement run. For the measurements taken during the
556 monocular inversion period, only the data for the first, the second, and the last run are
557 shown for the sake of simplicity. The distributions for normalised baseline durations for
558 these observers are also plotted. When measured immediately after the onset of
559 monocular inversion (leftmost plot in Figure 7), the distributions for the two eyes showed
560 little difference and both resembled the baseline distribution. An increased probability of
561 longer durations for the treated eye and shorter durations for the non-treated eye was
562 revealed after 30 minutes of wearing the prism. This pattern of results remained evident
563 until the end of the monocular inversion period (i.e. 150 minutes after the onset) and was
564 also the case immediately after removing the inverting prism. As in the other two
565 experiments, the distributions for the two eyes were similar when measured 30 minutes
566 after removing the prism.

567 The ratio of mean exclusive phase duration or predominance between the two eyes, as a
568 function of time after the onset or offset of monocular inversion, is shown in Figure 8.
569 Immediately after putting on the prism, this ratio was close to one which signals no
570 changes. Interestingly, as early as 30 minutes following the onset of monocular inversion,
571 a shift in eye dominance towards the inverted eye can be clearly seen. This increase in the
572 inverted eye's dominance thereafter remained evident throughout the course of
573 monocular inversion. The ratio was shifted towards the eye that had received monocular
574 inversion (greater than unity) when measured immediately following prism removal, and
575 it returned to its equilibrium after 30 minutes.

576 The results of one-sample t-tests suggested that the log-transformed eye dominance ratio
577 was not greater than zero for the first measurement at the time when the prism was put
578 on (mean phase durations: $t_{(5)} = -0.81$, $p = .774$, $d = -0.33$; predominance: $t_{(5)} = -1.06$, p
579 $= .832$, $d = -0.43$), but became significantly larger than zero after 30-minutes of monocular
580 treatment (mean phase durations: $t_{(5)} = 4.70$, $p = .003$, $d = 1.92$; predominance: $t_{(5)} = 4.10$,
581 $p = .005$, $d = 1.67$). This effect remained significant throughout the whole period before
582 the prism was removed (150 min, mean phase durations: $t_{(5)} = 6.23$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.54$;
583 predominance: $t_{(5)} = 3.74$, $p = .007$, $d = 1.53$). Immediately after the prism was removed,
584 the log-transformed ratio was still significantly larger than zero (mean phase durations:
585 $t_{(5)} = 4.34$, $p = .004$, $d = 1.77$; predominance: $t_{(5)} = 4.80$, $p = .002$, $d = 1.96$). The difference
586 was not significant after 30 minutes for the ratio of mean phase durations ($t_{(5)} = 2.17$, $p = .$
587 041 , $d = 0.89$), whereas it was still significant when the ratio was computed using
588 predominance ($t_{(5)} = 2.95$, $p = .016$, $d = 1.21$). For duration ratio, the permutation test
589 yielded similar results for the measurements following prism onset (0 min: $p = .958$; all p
590 $< .001$ for subsequent measurements), and the effects remained significant following
591 prism offset which lasted at least 30 minutes (0 min: $p < .001$; 30 min: $p < .001$).

592 When compared to the eye dominance measured at the onset of monocular inversion, the
593 ratio increased significantly as soon as 30 minutes elapsed, indicated by the results of
594 paired-sample t-tests (mean phase durations: $t_{(5)} = 4.14$, $p = .009$, $d = 1.69$; predominance:
595 $t_{(5)} = 8.43$, $p < .001$, $d = 3.44$). This difference remained significant throughout the whole
596 period of monocular inversion with the prism (150 min, mean phase durations: $t_{(5)} = 7.54$,
597 $p < .001$, $d = 3.08$; predominance: $t_{(5)} = 2.98$, $p = .031$, $d = 1.22$). The log-transformed ratio
598 immediately after prism offset was significantly larger than that measured at prism onset
599 (mean phase durations: $t_{(5)} = 4.38$, $p = .007$, $d = 1.79$; predominance: $t_{(5)} = 11.03$, $p < .001$,
600 $d = 4.50$), but the difference was not significant after 30 minutes (mean phase durations:
601 $t_{(5)} = 1.91$, $p = .114$, $d = 0.78$; predominance: $t_{(5)} = 2.10$, $p = .090$, $d = 0.86$). The results of
602 permutation tests suggested that all subsequent measurements, including both those
603 during and after monocular inversion, were significantly larger than the first
604 measurement at prism onset (all $p < .001$).

605 These results demonstrate that the effect of monocular inversion on sensory eye
606 dominance became measurable as early as 30 minutes following the introduction of the
607 prism. Indeed, past research has also shown such a short duration was able to produce
608 shifts in eye dominance measured with binocular rivalry (Kim et al., 2017; Lunghi et al.,

609 2013) and binocular phase combination (Min, Baldwin, Reynaud, & Hess, 2018), though
610 the effect lifetime was reduced to a few minutes. The finding that re-exposure to normal
611 binocular input is not a necessary requirement for producing the changes in sensory eye
612 dominance, is consistent with physiological evidence from Begum and Tso (2015, 2016).
613 These observations make an account based on a rebound effect of the treated eye less
614 likely, as the onset of the changes in eye dominance does not depend on the termination
615 of monocular treatment. Nonetheless, a caveat is that the orientation of the grating
616 stimulus appeared identical when viewed with and without the prism. During testing the
617 prism only mattered with respect to the appearance of the scene in the background
618 environment (e.g. the monitor, desk etc.) which was dimly lit.

619 **General discussion**

620 The influence of short-term monocular deprivation on inter-ocular balance in adults has
621 recently been demonstrated in a number of studies by showing increased relative
622 contributions from the deprived eye on a range of binocular tasks (e.g. Lunghi et al., 2013;
623 Zhou, Clavagnier, & Hess, 2013). However, the mechanism driving this phenomenon
624 remains elusive. This issue was addressed here by comparing changes in BR dynamics
625 following different types of monocular manipulation. It has been assumed that the
626 occurrence of this phenomenon requires deprivation of low-level sensory input to one
627 eye. On the contrary, here we found similar shifts in eye dominance whilst maintaining
628 spatial and temporal input to both eyes. We propose that the primary contributor of the
629 effects observed in the prism condition arises from higher-level cognitive processes –
630 monocular image inversion may have guided attentional eye selection in favour of the
631 non-treated eye.

632 It is intriguing that both the magnitude and time course of the changes in eye dominance
633 in all three conditions in Experiment 1 were not significantly different. This suggests that
634 these forms of monocular treatment may have acted on a single mechanism that regulates
635 inter-ocular balance. A key factor in this phenomenon appears to be the direction-
636 specificity of the changes – the eye which is strengthened depends on whether it is the
637 previously treated or the non-treated eye. Notably, ocular dominance plasticity in human
638 adults has also been demonstrated elsewhere; inter-ocular imbalance can be reduced
639 through training directed to using the two eyes together (Bao, Dong, Liu, Engel, & Jiang,
640 2018). In this case, the direction of changes in eye dominance depends on which eye is
641 more dominant prior to training. This should not be confused with the form of changes
642 addressed in the present study, where the key determinant is the inter-ocular imbalance
643 induced by monocular treatment.

644 In Experiment 1, the inter-ocular imbalance was realised through degrading the
645 stimulation through one eye in the opaque patch and the diffuser conditions. In the prism
646 condition, the information from the upright image is more biologically relevant,

647 potentially engaging attentional eye selection mechanisms. The results of Experiment 2
648 further supported this idea. When attentional demand was minimised by preventing the
649 participant from engaging in activities requiring visual information (passive condition),
650 the effect of monocular treatment on sensory eye dominance was eliminated. The active
651 and passive conditions were designed to place different attention demands on the
652 observer during the monocular treatment, but they also differed in the richness of visual
653 stimulation available and cognitive load. Although the latter might be [a potential](#)
654 [confound](#), responsible in part for the shifts in eye dominance found [\(Kim et al., 2017\)](#), the
655 fact that the prism produced larger shifts than the opaque patch in the active condition
656 (especially in terms of predominance), where these factors were identical, suggests some
657 role for top-down attentional selection. The inverting prism is likely to engender greater
658 levels of inter-ocular conflict than the opaque patch, and hence place greater demands on
659 attentional selection to suppress any irrelevant information. Similarly, although it is
660 possible that the restricted field of view through the prism (reduced amount of visual
661 information), rather than attentional eye selection, led to a shift in eye dominance, that
662 there was no shift in eye dominance in the inverted passive condition does not support
663 this assertion. [Assuming that short-term monocular deprivation exclusively alters](#)
664 [binocular interactions \(Wang et al., 2020\), our results reinforce the notion that changes](#)
665 [in monocular attention, can produce shifts in eye balance \(Wong, Baldwin, Hess, & Mullen,](#)
666 [2021\).](#)

667 It has been well documented in both humans and other primates that spatial attention
668 enhances neuronal responses in subcortical and early visual areas (e.g. Brefczynski &
669 DeYoe, 1999; Carrasco, 2006; Heinze et al., 1994; Katyal & Ress, 2014; Luck et al., 1994;
670 McAlonan, Cavanaugh, & Wurtz, 2008; Motter, 1993; O'Connor, Fukui, Pinsk, & Kastner,
671 2002; Reynolds, Chelazzi, & Desimone, 1999). This attentional modulation is thought to
672 be accomplished by top-down feedback projections that increase contrast gain of the
673 attended objects or regions (Reynolds & Chelazzi, 2004). It is tempting to speculate that
674 there may be also an analogous role for attention in regulating ocular dominance,
675 whereby selective attention to one eye's input strengthens responses of neurons which
676 have a preference to the stimulation of that eye. In support of this idea, an
677 electroencephalogram (EEG) study has revealed neural correlates of attentional eye
678 selection; the P1 component of event related potentials (ERPs) was larger when attention
679 was directed to a stimulus presented to one eye but not the other, and this effect was
680 absent if the selection occurred in only one eye (i.e. the two competing stimuli were
681 monocularly presented to the same eye) (Mishra & Hillyard, 2009). Additional support
682 comes from studies of binocular rivalry showing that selectively attending to one of the
683 rivalrous stimuli boosts the dominance of the attended stimulus relative to the
684 unattended one (Chong & Blake, 2006; Chong, Tadin, & Blake, 2005; Hancock & Andrews,
685 2007; Zhang, Jiang, & He, 2012). For instance, Zhang et al. (2012) have shown using inter-
686 ocular suppression that stimulus suppression time was reduced when attention was
687 directed to an external cue (at a non-overlapping location in the visual space) presented
688 to the same eye, compared to when the cue was presented to the other eye viewing the
689 suppressing stimulus. The finding that this effect increased with attentional load and did
690 not depend on the low-level attributes of the cue indicates a specific role for attention.

691 Crucially, as it was the external cue, rather than either of the competing stimuli that was
692 selectively attended to, these results revealed attentional facilitation of the eye and not of
693 the stimulus or spatial location.

694 The imbalance in visual processing between eyes induced by attentional eye selection
695 could be mediated through inter-ocular suppression. Notably, Dieter and Tadin (2011)
696 proposed that the degree of attentional control over binocular rivalry dynamics increases
697 with the difference in behavioural relevance between the two eyes' images. Indeed, an
698 emerging body of evidence suggests that stimulus predominance during binocular rivalry
699 can be modulated by higher-level cognitive and social factors (e.g. Alpers & Pauli, 2006;
700 Anderson, Siegel, & Barrett, 2011; Bannerman, Milders, De Gelder, & Sahraie, 2008; Chong
701 et al., 2005; Engel, 1956; Goryo, 1969; LoSciuto & Hartley, 1963; Mudrik, Deouell, & Lamy,
702 2011; Yu & Blake, 1992), presumably through increased attention to one eye's stimulus
703 because of its superior relevance. In particular, a stimulus created through inversion of
704 faces or other real-life images, resembling that produced by an inverting prism, has been
705 shown to be less predominant than an upright image viewed by the other eye during
706 binocular rivalry (Bannerman et al., 2008; Engel, 1956; Yu & Blake, 1992). This reinforces
707 the notion that the inverted prism image was suppressed for longer (and probably to a
708 greater extent) than the upright image viewed by the non-treated eye during rivalry,
709 leading to a general imbalance in binocular visual processing.

710 Consistent with an account that suppression-driven inter-ocular imbalance contributed
711 to the effects found in our prism condition, Kim et al. (2017) have demonstrated increased
712 dominance of an eye after it has undergone inter-ocular suppression evoked by
713 conditions of continuous flash suppression (CFS). This is a phenomenon where a stimulus
714 presented to one eye is suppressed from awareness when the other eye is simultaneously
715 presented with a fast-changing, high-contrast stimulus. The finding that inter-ocular
716 suppression of an adaptor interfered with the formation of afterimages suggests impaired
717 visual processing under CFS (Tsuchiya & Koch, 2005). Similar to our prism condition, the
718 suppressed eye in Kim et al.'s (2017) study was not physically deprived of sensory input,
719 but the directional changes in eye dominance still arose, possibly due to compromised
720 processing caused by suppression. Nonetheless, the to-be-suppressed stimulus used by
721 Kim et al. (2017) may have evoked weaker low-level neuronal responses compared to the
722 suppressing stimulus viewed by the other eye, independently of inter-ocular suppression.
723 By contrast, we provide more convincing evidence in this regard by using an inverting
724 prism where any potential low-level inter-ocular imbalance was minimised.

725 Similar conclusions of a role of higher-level processing have been made in another recent
726 study by Ramamurthy and Blaser (2018). They used a "kaleidoscopic" transformation to
727 produce images that were 'fractionated and uninformative', but preserved gross
728 luminance, contrast and spatial frequency information. In the current study we preserved
729 the relative layout of objects in the field of view, object shapes, surface colour, luminance
730 and texture within objects and phase regularities in the treated eye. We hoped this would
731 engender greater levels of inter-ocular conflict and hence place greater demands on

732 attentional selection. Furthermore, we included a passive control condition, where the
733 need for attentional selection was greatly reduced or eliminated.

734 Studies of short-term learning also have a bearing on the influence of attention on eye
735 dominance. For example, Xu and colleagues (Xu et al., 2010; Xu, He & Ooi, 2012a) used a
736 novel push-pull training protocol to reduce sensory eye dominance. During training an
737 exogenous attention cue presented to the weak eye, preceded binocular stimulation. The
738 cue stimulated the weak eye (push) whilst causing inter-ocular inhibition of the strong
739 eye (pull), shifting the balance towards the weak eye. They concluded that it is the
740 suppression of the strong eye during training, rather than attention cueing *per se*, that is
741 important for driving the perceptual learning effect. Interestingly, although the degree of
742 sensory eye dominance decreased over successive days of training, the eye dominance
743 measured after each day's training session was temporarily larger than that measured
744 before the training on the same day (e.g. see Figure 3 of Xu, He & Ooi, 2012b). That is, the
745 dominance of the strong eye that was suppressed during the training phase increased
746 after the training session. This short-term learning effect is similar to the findings
747 reported in the current manuscript. In the current study, we showed that the treated eye,
748 which presumably received less endogenous attention due to its reduced behavioural
749 relevance, was strengthened after monocular treatment. It is possible that our monocular
750 treatment weakened the contribution of the eye during the treatment period, and this
751 induced inter-ocular imbalance was subsequently compensated by a homeostatic
752 mechanism: presumably through a reduction in inhibition of the treated eye as indicated
753 by our previous work (Wang et al., 2020). Thus, there might be different influences of
754 endogenous and exogenous attention on perceptual learning and monocular deprivation
755 tasks.

756 In our previous work (Wang et al., 2020) we have shown that short-term monocular
757 patching altered sensory eye dominance through reducing inter-ocular suppression,
758 consistent with psychophysical and physiological evidence of an attenuated inhibition
759 level following deprivation (Lunghi, Emir, et al., 2015; Sheynin, Proulx, & Hess, 2019).
760 Consequently, a possibility has been raised that such effects may be explained through
761 adjusting the behaviour of a binocular opponency channel (Said & Heeger, 2013). The
762 principal idea is that binocular rivalry suppression is elicited by a set of opponency units
763 for each eye that are sensitive to inter-ocular difference. On the assumption that mixed
764 perception is associated with weak inter-ocular suppression (Hollins, 1980), a critical
765 prediction of the opponency model of binocular rivalry is that mixed perception would
766 progressively increase during the course of BR, due to adaptation in the putative
767 opponency mechanisms over time. That is, the ability of the opponency channel to elicit
768 inter-ocular suppression is weakened, and hence it would become less able to sustain
769 exclusive percepts. This is indeed supported by previous reports of more mixed
770 perception with increased exposure to binocular rivalry stimuli (Klink et al., 2010).
771 However, our results (baseline condition) are at odds with Klink et al.'s (2010) findings:
772 Mixed percept predominance decreased, rather than increased, over the course of BR
773 measurement. We have shown good reliability of the observed trend for decreasing
774 mixed percepts using a within-run analysis, and the discrepancy is unlikely to be

775 explained by differences in methodologies or stimuli used. Nonetheless, we do not
776 contend that this provides evidence against the idea of a binocular opponency channel.
777 Instead, our results challenge the validity of utilising mixed perception time course to test
778 the predictions of the opponency model. Furthermore, we found that the time course of
779 mixed perception was not altered by any of the three treatment conditions in Experiment
780 1.

781 As a final note, a recent study has shown that baseline mixed percept predominance
782 positively predicts the magnitude of changes in eye dominance following monocular
783 deprivation (Steinwurz, Animal, Cicchini, Morrone, & Binda, 2020). They interpreted
784 this finding by linking the pre-deprivation level of inter-ocular inhibition, indicated by
785 mixed percept predominance, to the potential for plasticity in the mature visual system.
786 Interestingly, we did not find any significant correlation between the baseline mixed
787 percept predominance and our measures of eye dominance after monocular treatment
788 (log-transformed ratio during 0–3 min, averaged across treatment conditions: mean
789 phase duration, Pearson's $r(7) = .007, p = .984$; predominance, Pearson's $r(7) = .267, p = .487$)
790 — see Figure 4d, and Figures 3e and 3f for individual data for the mixed and exclusive
791 percepts, respectively. However, like Steinwurz et al. (2020) we also did not find any
792 changes in mixed percept predominance after deprivation. This suggests that the exact
793 relationship between mixed percepts and inter-ocular inhibition warrants further study.

794 To conclude, we have demonstrated a role for attentional eye selection in producing
795 changes in sensory eye dominance following short-term monocular treatment. The
796 present findings point to the importance of inter-ocular imbalance in triggering
797 subsequent directional changes in sensory eye dominance, towards the presumably
798 “disadvantaged” eye. That is, neuronal activities are biased towards monocular neurons
799 that are activated by stimulation of a given eye, compared to those responding to the
800 input from the other eye. We speculate that an inter-ocular imbalance in visual processing
801 at or before the level of V1 determines the regulation of eye dominance, where inputs
802 from the two eyes first converge and thus remain distinguishable (Hubel & Wiesel, 1968).
803 This is because eye-of-origin information is essential for determining the direction of
804 changes in ocular balance. This could be implemented in layer 4 of V1 and/or even earlier
805 in lateral geniculate nucleus (LGN). Elimination of low-level sensory information in one
806 eye induces direct imbalance in the input. Attentional eye selection may also lead to
807 biased processing through feedback projections selectively to monocular neurons
808 responding to the attended eye. In turn, this may facilitate inter-ocular suppression by
809 amplifying intra-cortical inhibition, which further reinforces the imbalance between eyes.
810 An implication of these findings is that top-down processes may also be important in
811 clinical conditions where the visual system might selectively favour the input from one
812 eye because it is less blurred (i.e. anisometropic amblyopia) or is more consistent with
813 other maps of visual space (i.e. strabismus). This idea is supported by a recent study
814 showing that observers with strabismic amblyopia are better able to attend to the
815 information in their unaffected eye than the amblyopic eye (Chow, Giaschi, & Thompson,
816 2018). Interestingly, Lunghi et al. (2019) found that physical activity during monocular
817 deprivation facilitates recovery of visual functions of adult amblyopic patients. It remains

818 possible that engaging in physical exercise led to greater demands on attention and thus
819 reduced the imbalance in ocular dominance. The relatively early onset of shifts in eye
820 dominance implies that the visual system may start to attenuate the responsiveness of
821 the non-treated eye shortly after the biased visual processing becomes stable, in order to
822 maintain homeostasis, in line with the findings of intrinsic optical imaging studies in
823 macaque (Begum & Tso, 2015, 2016).

824 **Figure legends**

825 Figure 1: Schematic illustrations of experimental procedures. (a) Experiment 1: Binocular
826 rivalry was measured continuously for 30 minutes, before and immediately after 150-
827 minute monocular treatment with an opaque patch, a diffusing lens, or an inverting prism.
828 (b) Experiment 2: Binocular rivalry was measured continuously for 30 minutes after 1-
829 hour monocular treatment with either an opaque patch or an inverting prism. The
830 participant either did a jigsaw puzzle or passively looked at a plain curtain during the
831 treatment period. A picture of the jigsaw puzzle used is shown in the right-hand panel. (c)
832 Experiment 3: Binocular rivalry was measured for 3 minutes immediately after
833 introducing an inverting prism, and subsequently every 30 minutes, for 150 minutes,
834 yielding 6 measurements (unfilled grey circles). The prism was then removed and BR was
835 measured again, immediately, and at 30 minutes after the prism removal (solid grey
836 circles). See text for details.

837 Figure 2: Distributions (plotted as probability density functions) for normalised exclusive
838 phase durations in Experiment 1, pooled across all participants. Each row corresponds to
839 a treatment condition (i.e. opaque patch, diffuser, or inverting prism) and each column
840 corresponds to a time bin (0–3, 3–6 and 37–30 min) within which the phase durations
841 were pooled. Separate distributions for the stimulus presented to the previously treated
842 eye (blue), and that for the non-treated eye (orange) are shown. Also plotted in each
843 graph is the distribution for the pre-treatment (i.e. baseline) measurements (black). The
844 curves are fitted PDF with the parameters estimated from the gamma fits of CDF
845 (Equation 1). The fit results, including the estimated parameters, ρ and λ , and the
846 goodness of fit indicated by R^2 are shown for each graph. (For interpretation of the
847 references to colour in this figure, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

848 Figure 3: Relative eye dominance in Experiment 1. (a)–(d) The time course of the ratio of
849 mean exclusive phase duration (a and c), or predominance (b and d), for the treated eye
850 to that for the non-treated eye, is plotted as a function of time (binned every three minutes)
851 after the end of monocular treatment, for the opaque patch, diffuser, and inverting prism
852 conditions. The results for a representative observer are shown in (a) and (b), and those
853 averaged across all participants are shown in (c) and (d). The dashed horizontal line
854 signifies an independence of mean phase duration or predominance on whether the
855 stimulus was presented to the treated or non-treated eye. In (c) and (d) the fitted curves
856 using Equation 2 are also plotted. Error bars are bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals
857 (10,000 repetitions) for duration ratios and are ± 1 SEM for predominance ratios. (e)–(f)
858 The eye dominance ratio (log-transformed) during the first 3 minutes following
859 treatment removal for individual observers (indicated by different symbols). Group
860 means are shown by the short horizontal bars. (For interpretation of the references to
861 colour in this figure, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

862 Figure 4: The results of mixed percepts measured over 30 minutes in the baseline
863 condition, or after 150 minutes of monocular treatment in Experiment 1. (a) The
864 proportion of mixed percepts normalised to the individual's mean baseline proportion
865 (averaged across 30 minutes). (b) The proportion of mixed percepts normalised to the
866 individual's baseline proportion measured within the corresponding three-minute time
867 bin. In (a) and (b) the horizontal dashed line represents the baseline level (i.e. unity). (c)
868 The difference in mixed percept proportion between the last and the first one-minute
869 sub-bins for each of the ten three-minute time bins. Negative values indicate a reduction
870 in proportion over time within the bin. In all graphs the error bars represent ± 1 SEM
871 between individuals. (d) The mixed percept proportion during the first 3 minutes of
872 measurements, either in the baseline condition, or following treatment removal for
873 individual observers (indicated by different symbols). Group means are shown by the
874 short horizontal bars. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure, the
875 reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

876 Figure 5: Distributions (PDF) of normalised exclusive phase durations for the treated
877 (blue) and the non-treated eyes (orange) in Experiment 2, pooled across all participants.
878 Each row corresponds to a condition and each column corresponds to a time bin within
879 which the phase durations were pooled. For details of the fitted curves, see the legend of
880 Figure 2. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure, the reader is
881 referred to the web version of this article.)

882 Figure 6: Relative eye dominance in Experiment 2. (a)–(d) The time course of the eye
883 dominance ratio, in mean phase duration (a and c) or predominance (b and d), for the
884 baseline condition, and the passive and the active conditions. The results for a
885 representative observer are shown in (a) and (b), and those averaged across all
886 participants are shown in (c) and (d). The dashed horizontal line indicates no difference
887 between the observer's two eyes in a given condition. Error bars are bootstrapped 95%
888 confidence intervals (10,000 repetitions) for duration ratios and are ± 1 SEM for
889 predominance ratios. (e)–(f) The eye dominance ratio (log-transformed) during the first
890 3 minutes following treatment removal for individual observers (indicated by different
891 symbols). Group means are shown by the short horizontal bars. (For interpretation of the
892 references to colour in this figure, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

893 Figure 7: Distributions (PDF) of normalised exclusive phase durations in Experiment 3.
894 Each subplot represents the durations within a three-minute measurement run as
895 indicated at the top. The three leftmost subplots are the durations measured during the
896 monocular inversion period (blue: treated eye; orange: non-treated eye), whereas the
897 data plotted in the two rightmost subplots were measured after the prism was removed
898 (yellow: treated eye; purple: non-treated eye). The normalised baseline durations are
899 also plotted in each graph for comparison (black). For details of the fitted curves, see the

900 legend of Figure 2. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure, the reader
901 is referred to the web version of this article.)

902 Figure 8: Relative eye dominance in Experiment 3. (a)–(d) The eye dominance ratio as a
903 function of time elapsed since the onset/offset of monocular inversion, in terms of mean
904 phase duration (a and c) and predominance (b and d). The results for a representative
905 observer are shown in (a) and (b) and those averaged across all participants are shown
906 in (c) and (d). The dotted line plots the data measured during the monocular inversion
907 period whereas the solid line is for the measurements after removing the prism. The
908 arrow marks the time point at which the inverting prism was removed. The dashed
909 horizontal line indicates the level where monocular treatment had no effect on the
910 relative eye dominance. Error bars are bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (10,000
911 repetitions) for duration ratios and are ± 1 SEM for predominance ratios. (e)–(f) The eye
912 dominance ratio (log-transformed) immediately after prism onset and after 30 minutes
913 for individual observers (indicated by different symbols). Group means are shown by the
914 short horizontal bars.

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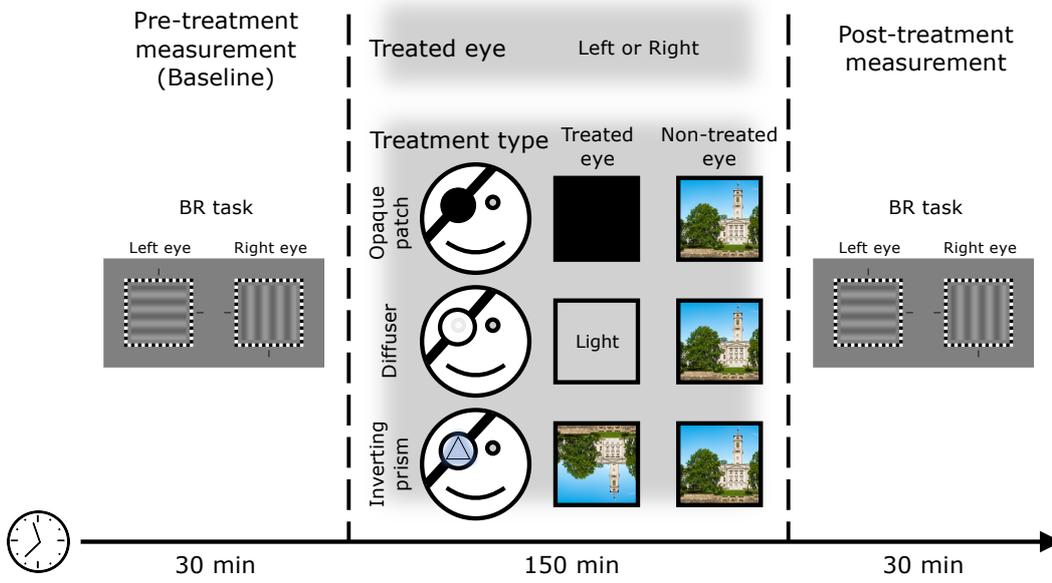
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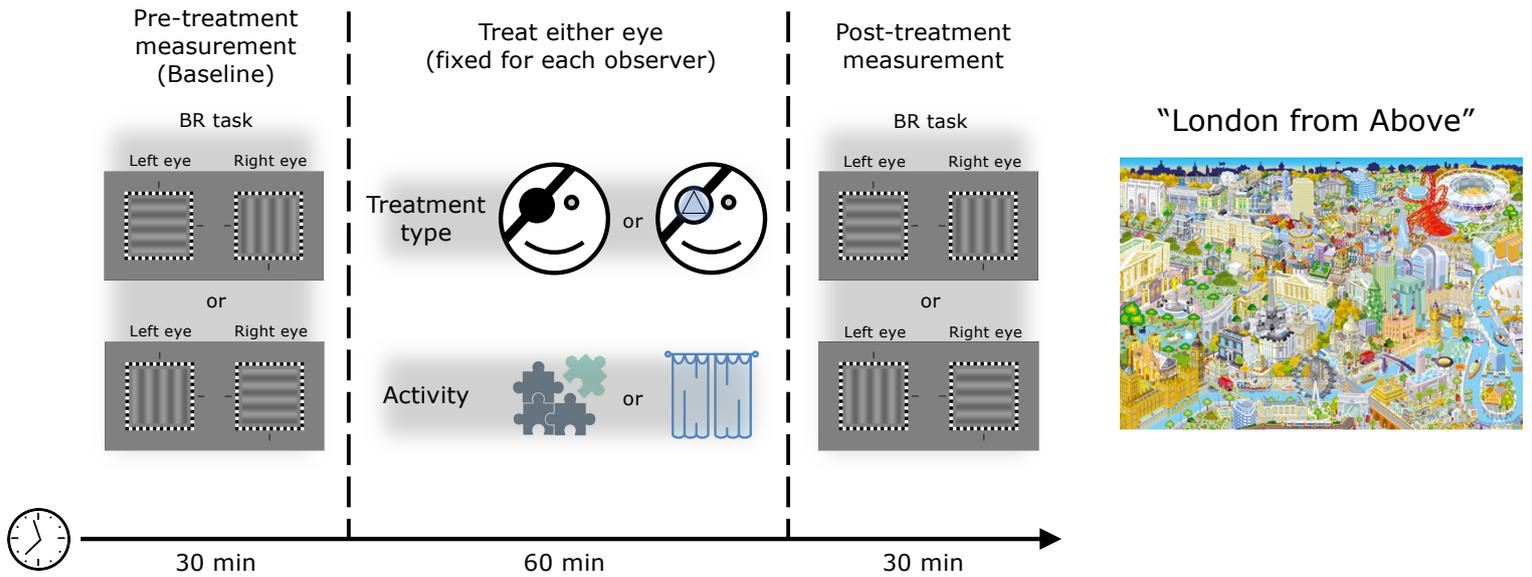
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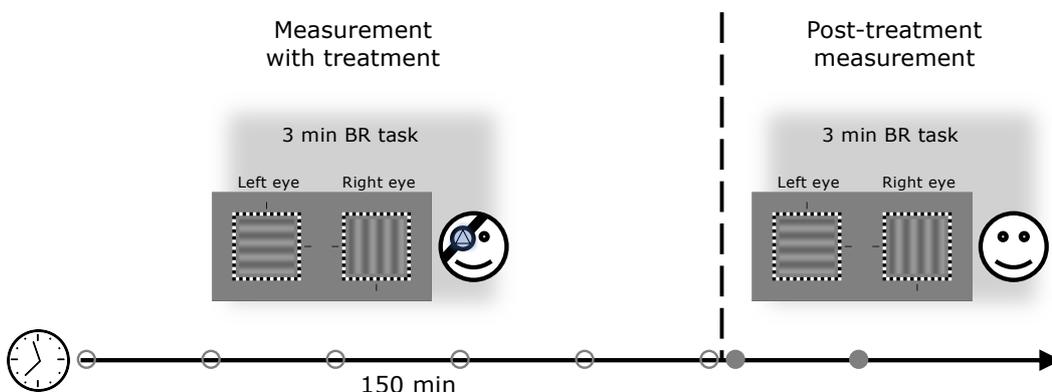
(a)



(b)



(c)



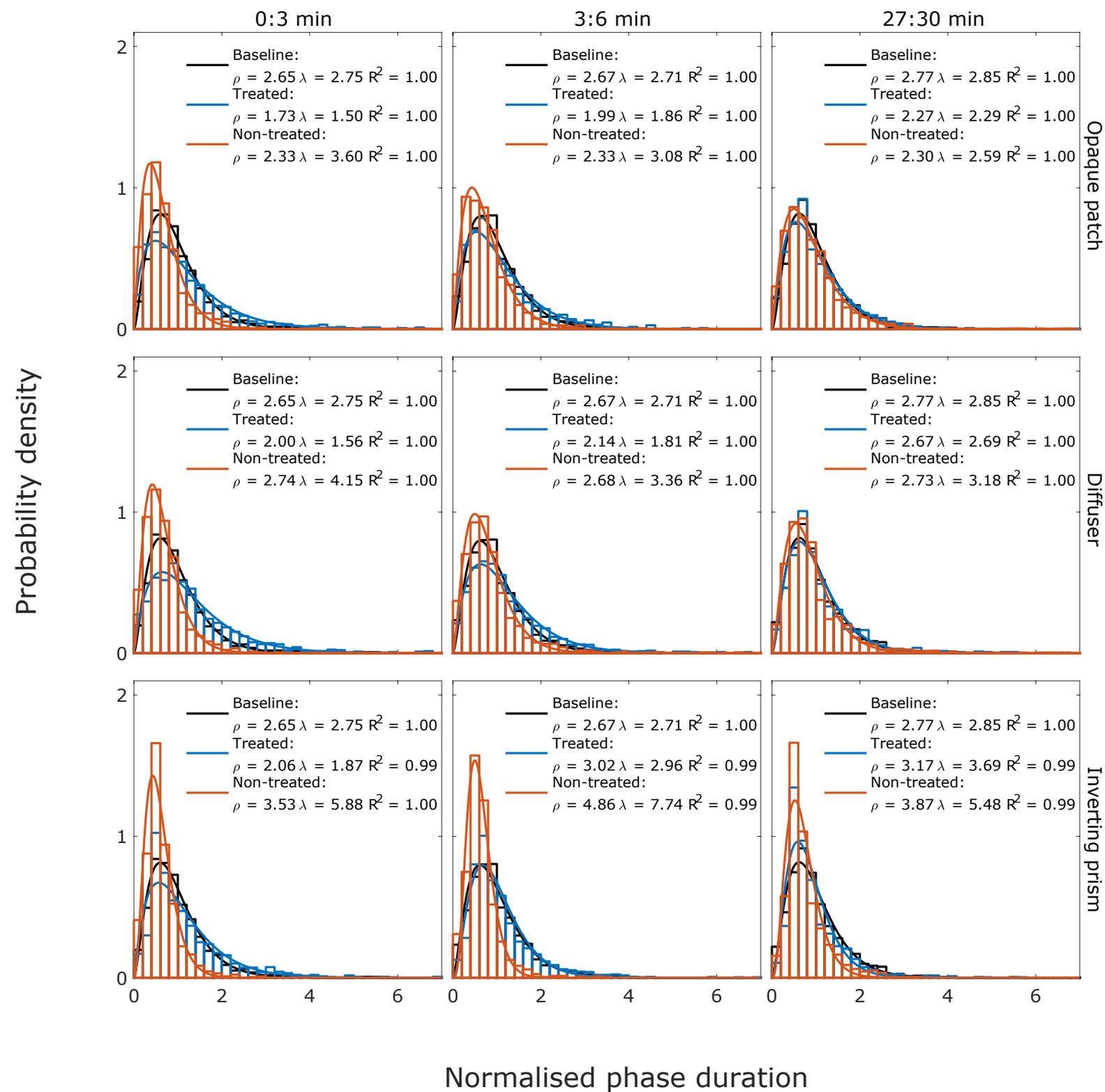


Figure 3

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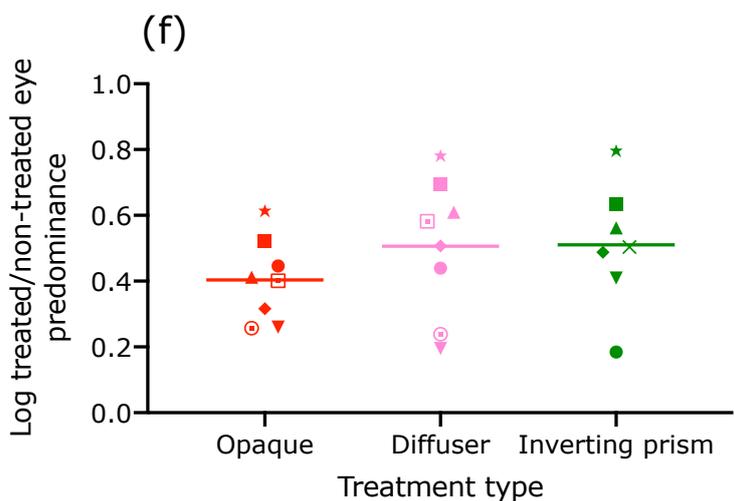
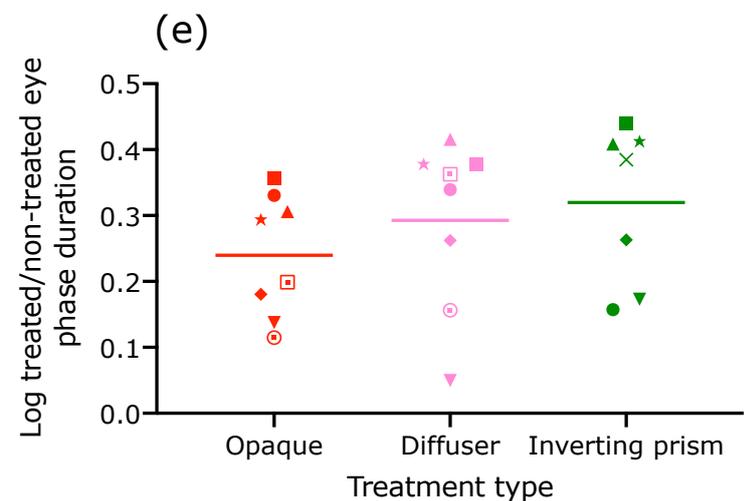
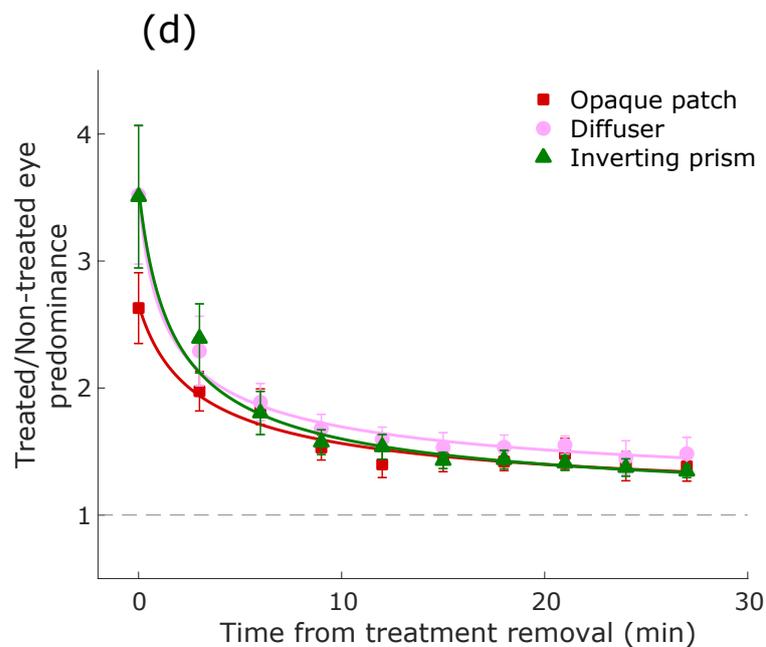
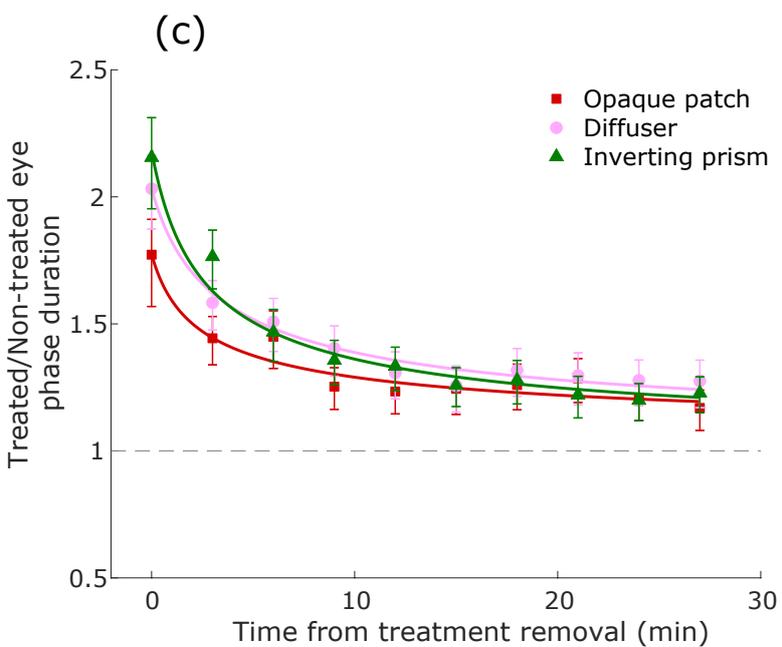
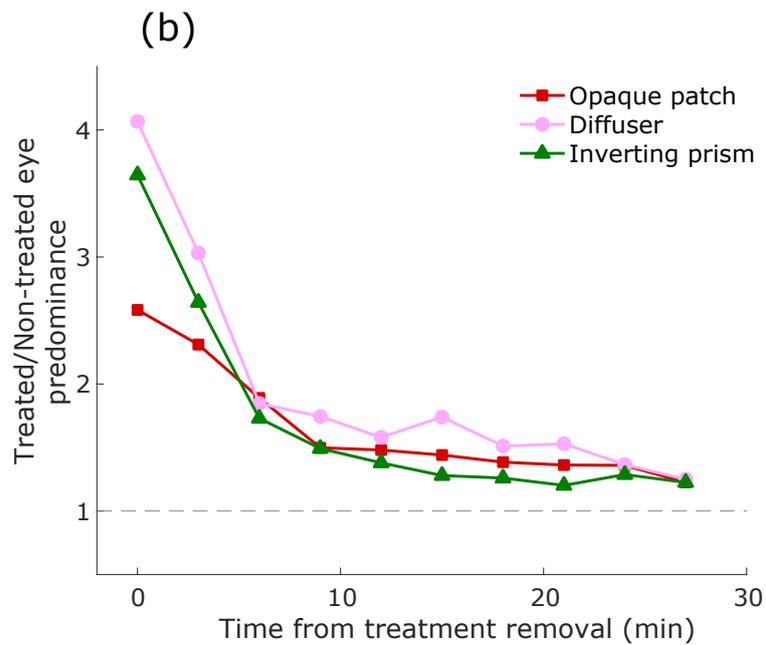
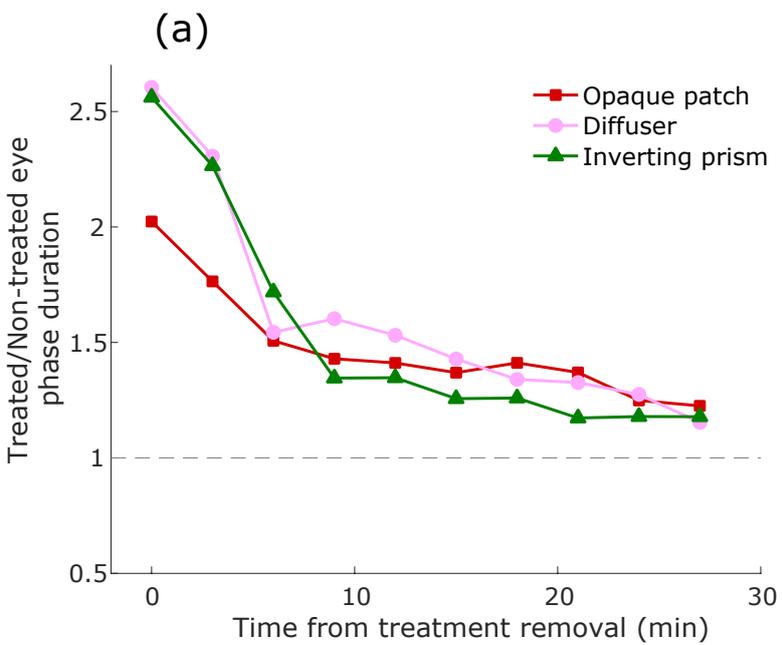


Figure 4

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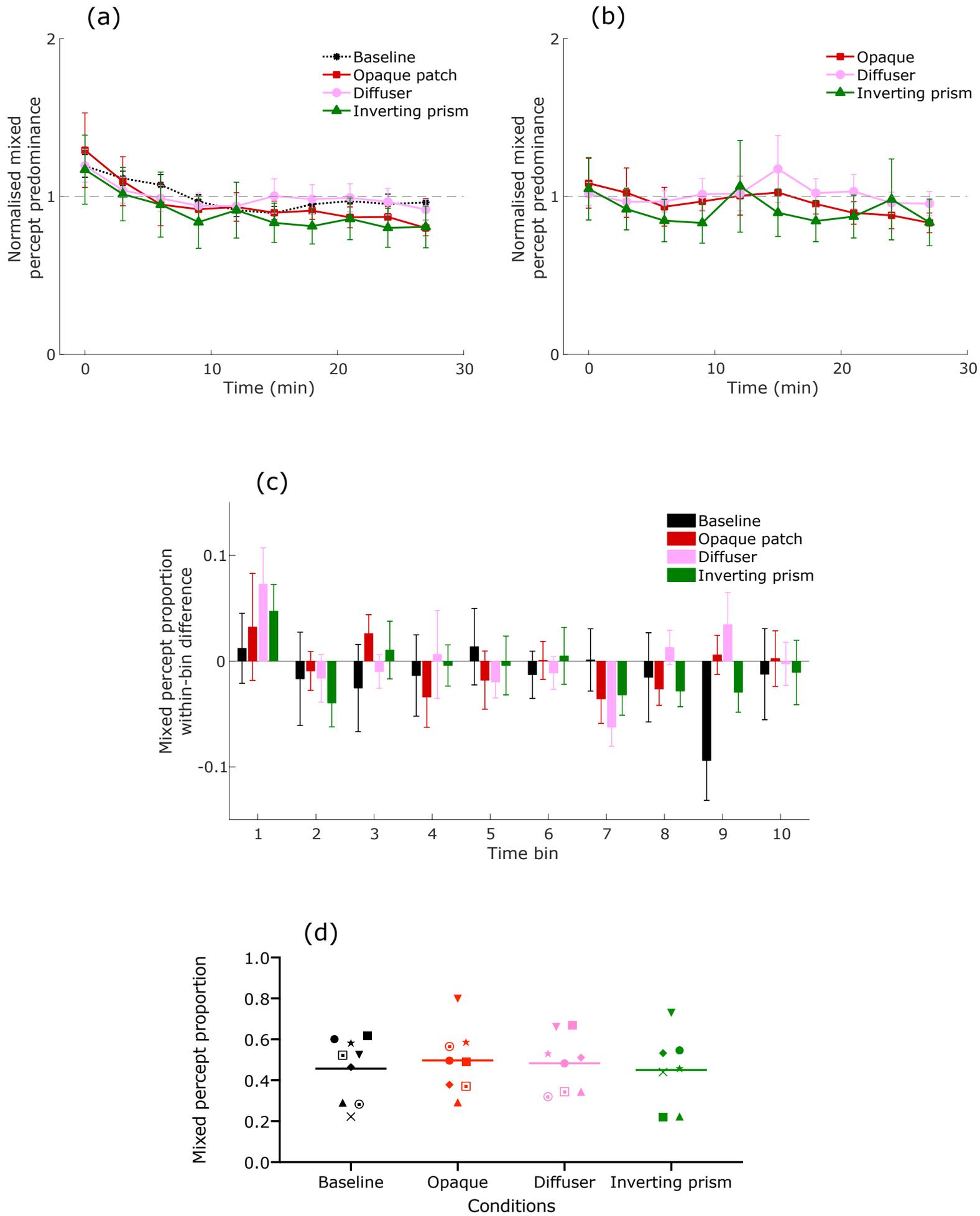
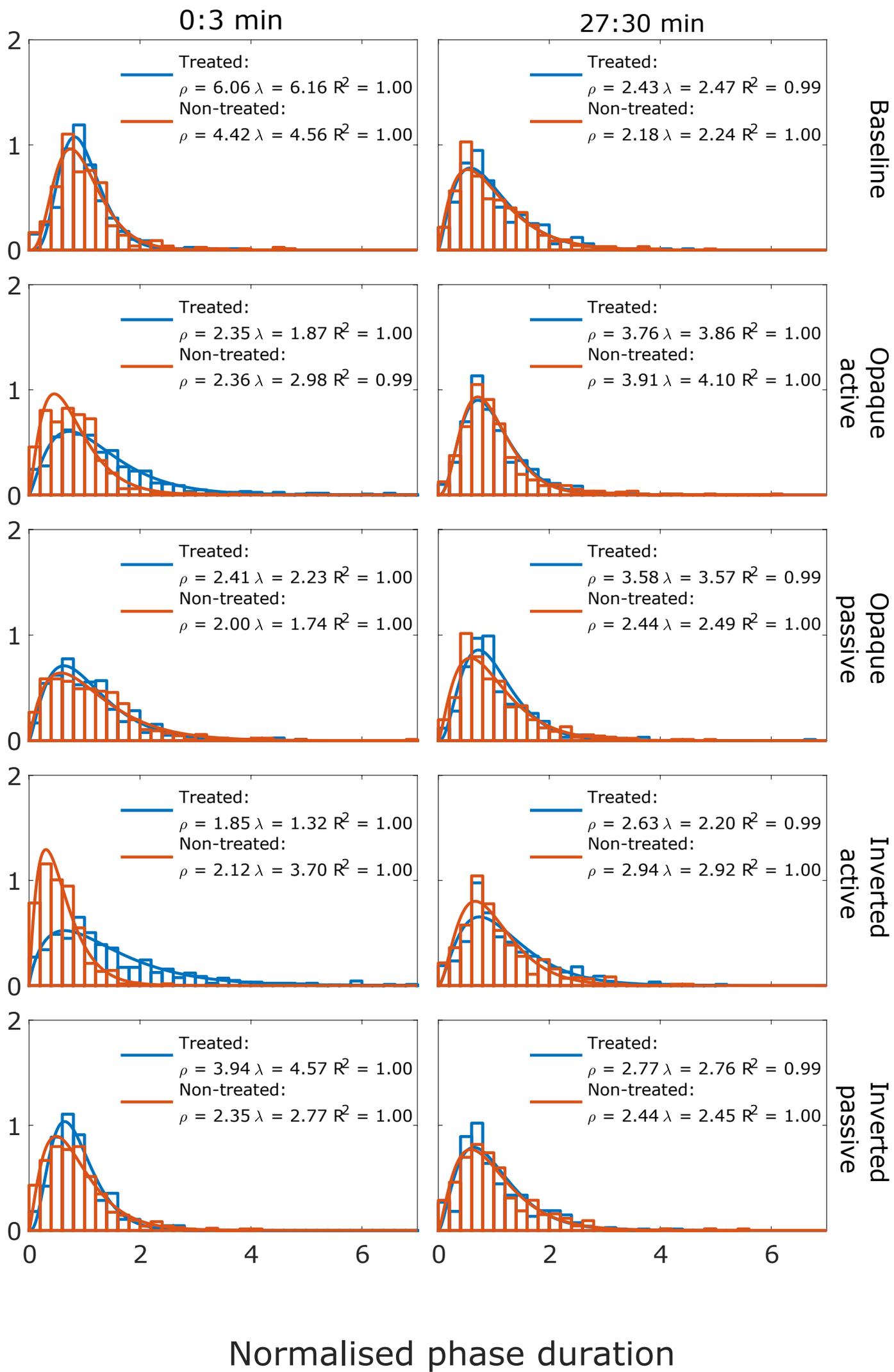
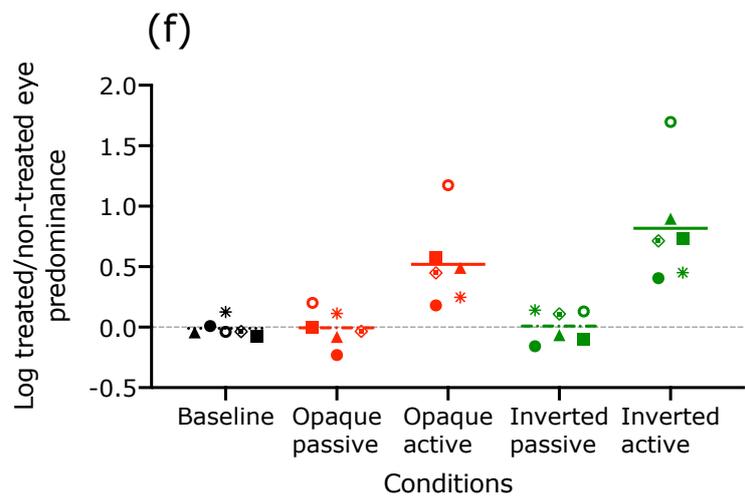
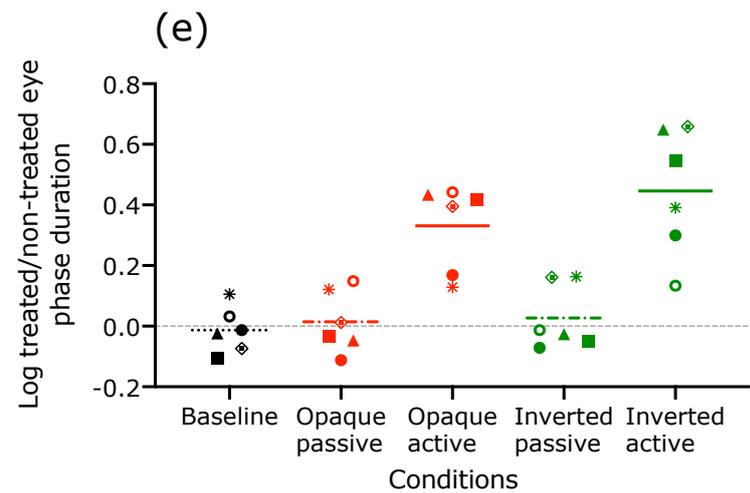
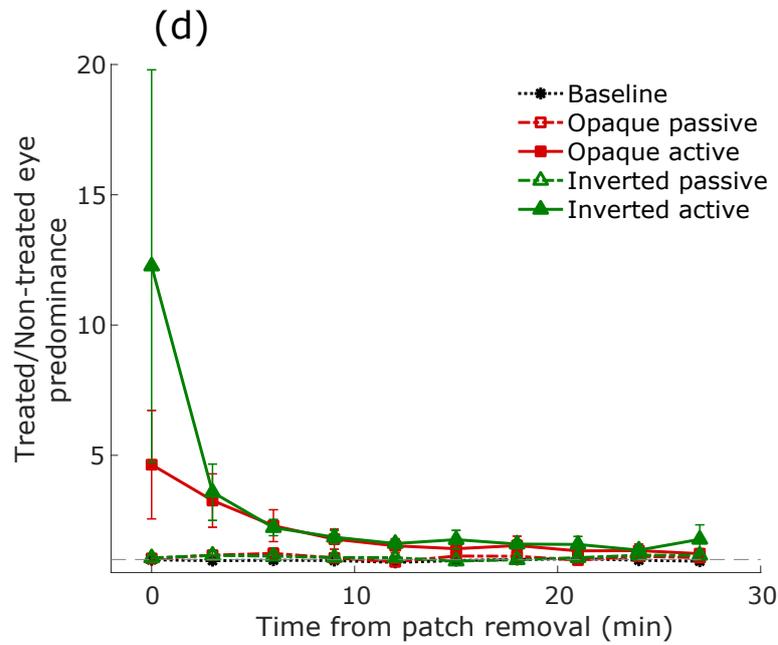
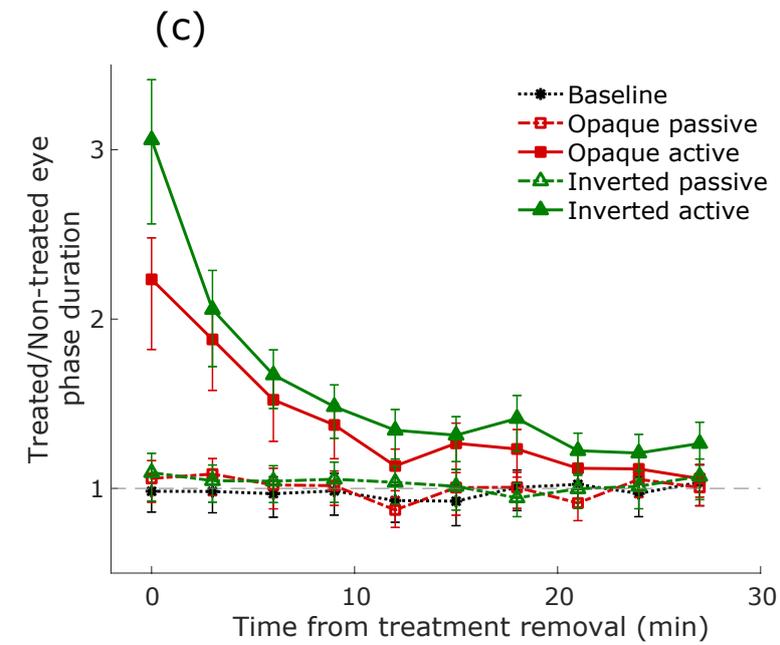
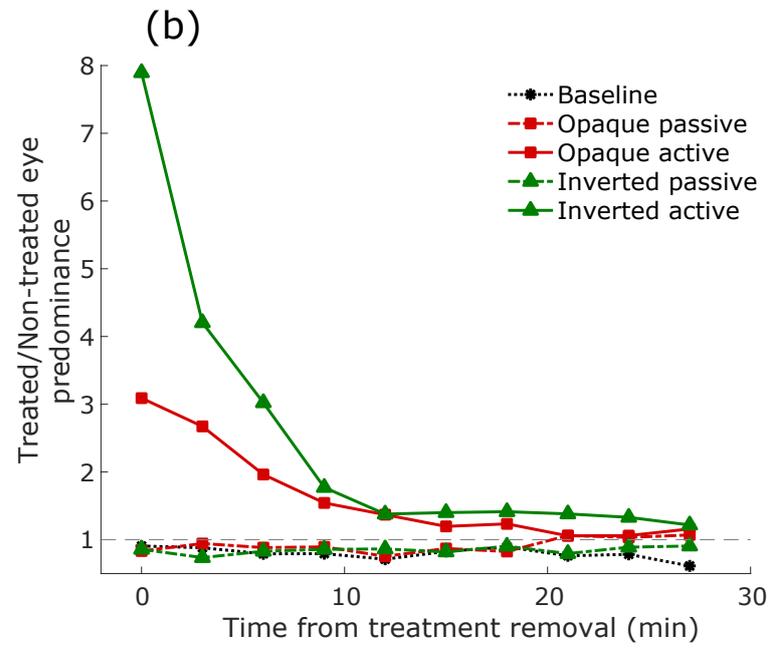
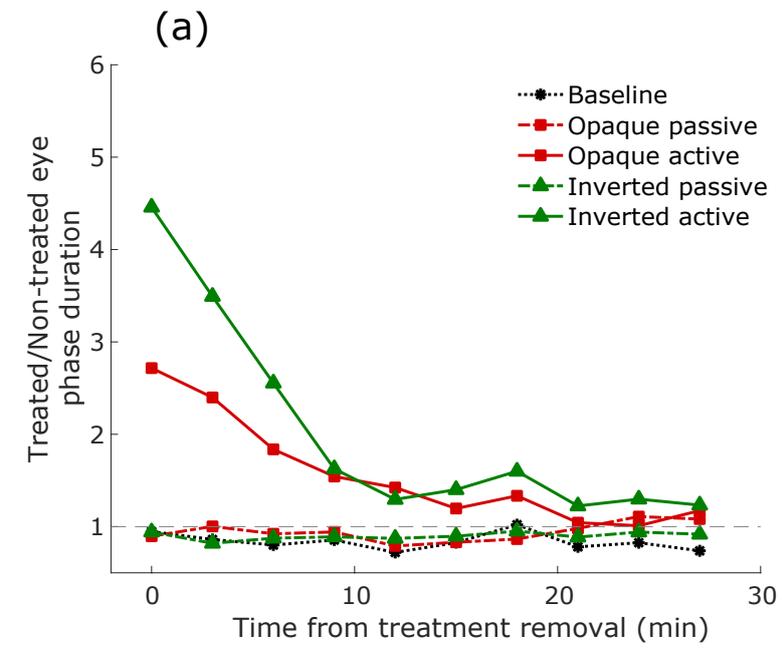


Figure 5

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Probability density





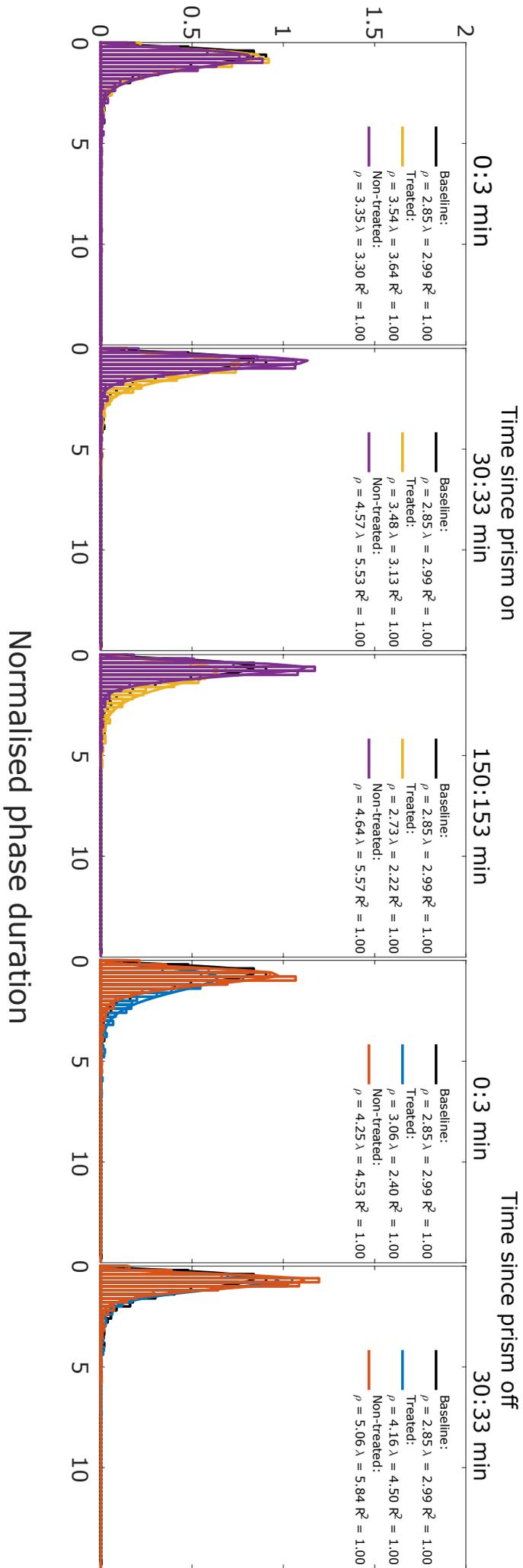
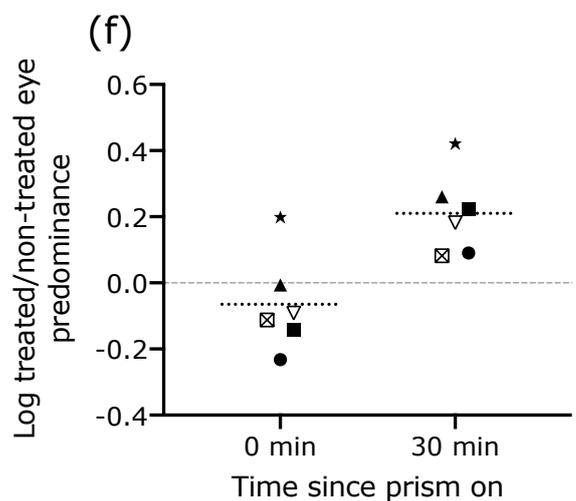
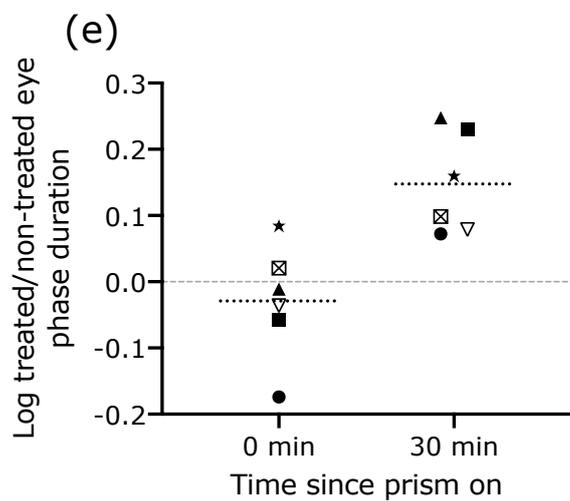
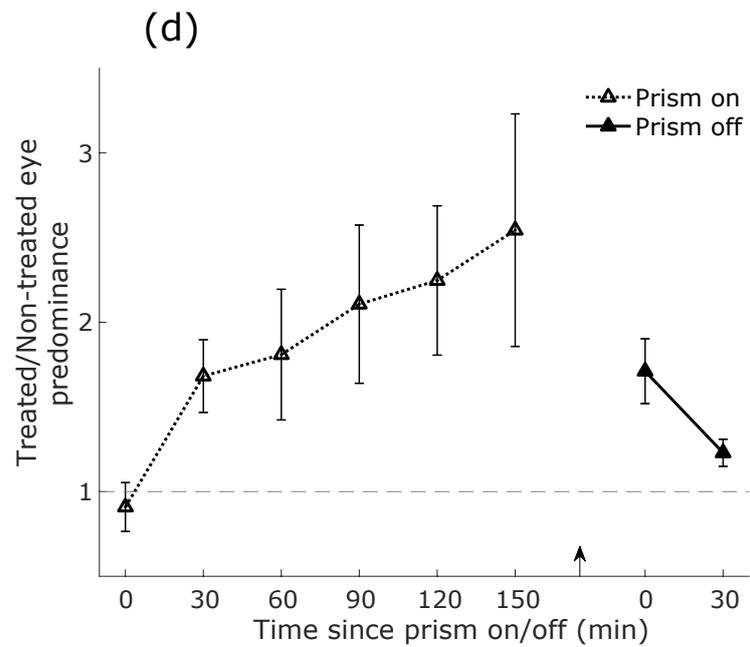
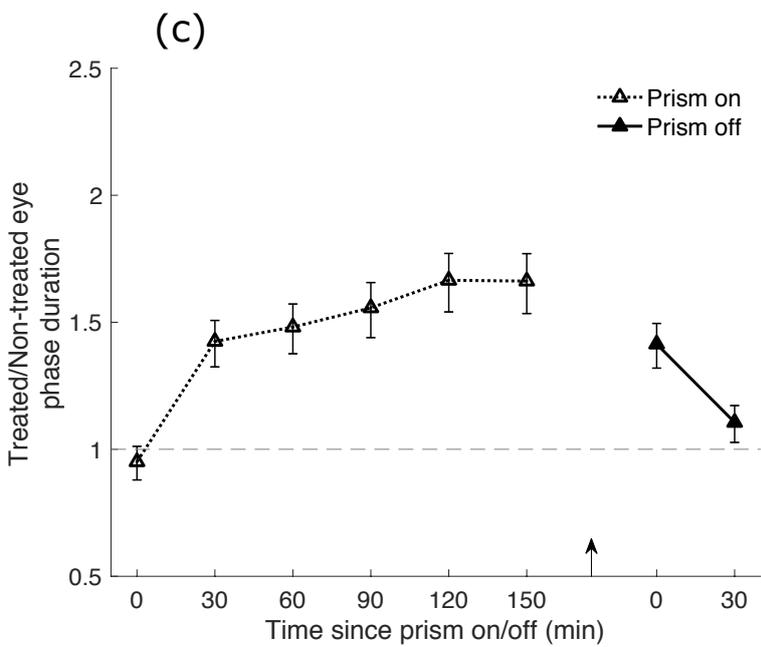
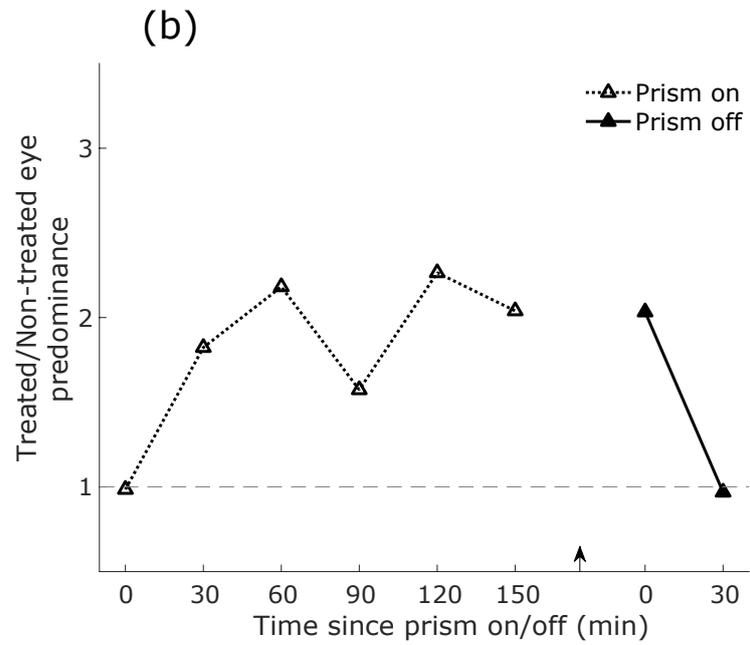
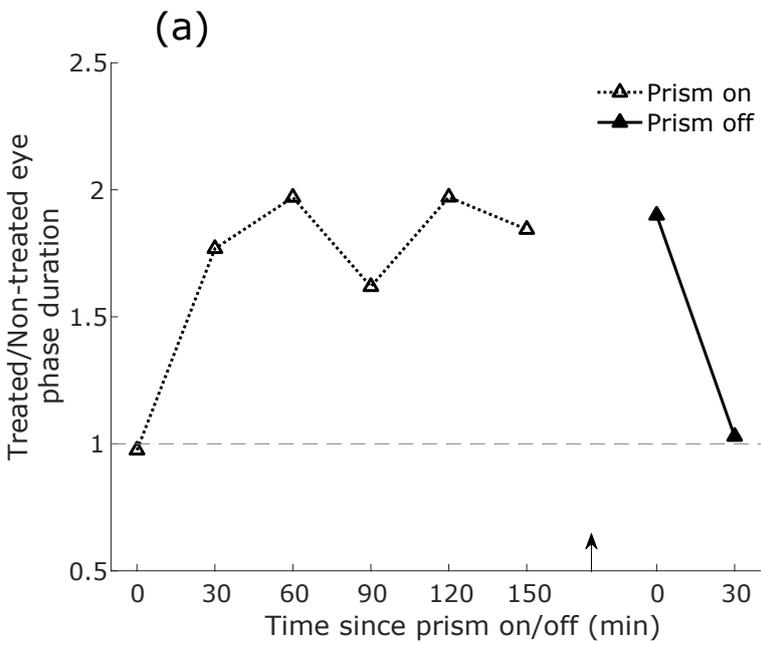


Figure 7



Mengxin Wang: Investigation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing — Original Draft, Writing — Review & Editing, Visualization. **Paul McGraw:** Investigation, Conceptualization, Methodology, Resources, Writing — Original Draft, Writing — Review & Editing, Supervision. **Timothy Ledgeway:** Investigation, Conceptualization, Software, Methodology, Resources, Writing — Original Draft, Writing — Review & Editing, Supervision.