1 Title

2 Thalamic Roles in Conscious Perception Revealed by Low-Intensity Focused Ultrasound3 Neuromodulation

4

5 Author list

Hyunwoo Jang^{1,2}, Panagiotis Fotiadis^{2,3}, George A. Mashour^{1,2,3,4,5}, Anthony G. Hudetz^{1,2,3,4},
 Zirui Huang^{1,2,3,4,*}

8

9 Affiliations

- 10 ¹ Neuroscience Graduate Program, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA
- 11 ² Center for Consciousness Science, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA
- 12 ³ Department of Anesthesiology, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA
- 13 ⁴ Michigan Psychedelic Center, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, MI, 48109, USA
- ⁵ Department of Pharmacology, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, MI, 48109, USA
- 15 * Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Z.H.
- 16 (Email: huangzu@med.umich.edu)
- 17

18 ABSTRACT

19 The neural basis of conscious perception remains incompletely understood. While cortical 20 mechanisms of conscious content have been extensively investigated, the role of subcortical structures, including the thalamus, remains less explored. We aim to elucidate the causal 21 22 contributions of different thalamic regions to conscious perception using transcranial low-intensity 23 focused ultrasound (LIFU) neuromodulation. We hypothesize that modulating different thalamic regions would result in distinct perceptual outcomes. We apply LIFU in human volunteers to 24 25 investigate region-specific and sonication parameter-dependent effects. We target anterior (transmodal-dominant) and posterior (unimodal-dominant) thalamic regions, further divided into 26 27 ventral and dorsal regions, while participants perform a near-threshold visual perception task. 28 Task performance is evaluated using Signal Detection Theory metrics. We find that the high duty cycle stimulation of the ventral anterior thalamus enhanced object recognition sensitivity. We also 29 30 observe a general (i.e., region-independent) effect of LIFU on decision bias (i.e., a tendency toward a particular response) and object categorization accuracy. Specifically, high duty cycle 31 stimulation decreases categorization accuracy, whereas low duty cycle shifts decision bias 32 33 towards a more conservative stance. In conclusion, our results provide causal insight into the functional organization of the thalamus in shaping human visual experience and highlight the 34 unique role of the transmodal-dominant ventral anterior thalamus. 35

36

37

38 INTRODUCTION

39 The neural basis of conscious perception remains an active area of neuroscientific investigation¹⁻ ⁷. While cortical mechanisms of conscious contents have been extensively studied^{8–12}, the role of 40 subcortical structures in enabling or modulating such contents remains less explored¹³. With its 41 intricate connections to the cortex, the thalamus is a central structure that may mediate conscious 42 43 experience^{14–17}. Traditionally, thalamic nuclei have been categorized into specific and nonspecific 44 types. Specific nuclei relay modal sensory information to designated cortical areas, whereas nonspecific nuclei project more broadly, regulating cortical arousal and supporting higher-order 45 cognition^{16,18,19}. For instance, the lateral geniculate nucleus (specific) relays retinal input to the 46 primary visual cortex²⁰, while the intralaminar thalamus (nonspecific) are involved in controlling 47 arousal, attention, and state of consciousness²¹⁻²³. 48

Recent research suggests a continuum rather than distinct categories of cortical and thalamic 49 areas^{24,25}. In the cortex, unimodal areas process sensorimotor information received from the 50 environment, while transmodal areas further integrate this information, fostering more complex 51 cognition^{26–28}. Building on this functional organization of the cortex, our previous work revealed a 52 unimodal-transmodal gradient in thalamocortical connectivity²⁹. This thalamic functional gradient 53 is characterized by a predominance of connectivity between the posterior thalamus and unimodal 54 55 cortices, and a predominance of connectivity between the anterior/medial thalamus and 56 transmodal cortices. This connectivity gradient also corresponds to the underlying cytoarchitecture of the thalamus, where core cells are concentrated in posterior regions and 57 diffusely projecting matrix cells are enriched anteriorly^{29,30}. Notably, research has implicated 58 matrix cells as being crucial for conscious sensory processing^{1,10,22,31-37}, where a disruption of 59 matrix-rich thalamic areas has been linked to loss of consciousness²⁹. Therefore, understanding 60 61 these functional and structural gradients within the thalamus is critical for elucidating the neural 62 mechanisms underlying conscious perception.

To causally probe thalamic roles in conscious perception, precise stimulation of deep brain areas 63 is essential. Traditional methods such as deep-brain stimulation, optogenetics, and transcranial 64 electrical stimulation are either invasive or lack spatial resolution^{38,39}. Instead, transcranial low-65 intensity focused ultrasound (LIFU) provides a non-invasive and precise way to target deep 66 structures⁴⁰⁻⁴⁶. Although the exact mechanisms behind LIFU's effects are still being explored— 67 with hypotheses ranging from thermal effects⁴⁷ to membrane pore formation⁴⁸ and 68 mechanosensitive channel activation⁴⁹—its effectiveness in modulating neural activity and 69 behavior has been well-established^{40,48,50-52}. However, its impact on conscious perception 70 71 remains largely uncharted territory. Notably, the effects of LIFU are known to be influenced by 72 parameters such as duty cycle (i.e., the percentage of time the ultrasound is actively transmitting 73 within each pulse cycle). High duty cycles generally lead to excitation and low duty cycles to inhibition^{48,49,53}. Yet, the optimal sonication parameters for modulating perception—particularly in 74 75 human subcortex-are still to be determined.

In this work, we aim to elucidate the causal roles of thalamic regions in conscious perception, hypothesizing that sonicating different regions or applying different stimulation parameters (i.e., duty cycle) will lead to distinct perceptual outcomes. We specifically apply LIFU in healthy volunteers while they are performing a near-threshold visual task and evaluate changes in their visual perception using metrics derived from Signal Detection Theory (SDT). For this purpose, we sequentially stimulate four thalamic areas (ventral anterior/posterior and dorsal anterior/posterior).

82 Our findings reveal that the transmodal-dominant ventral anterior thalamus significantly 83 modulates the sensitivity of conscious visual perception. Additionally, we demonstrate both 84 common (region-independent) and duty cycle-dependent effects of LIFU on decision bias and 85 categorization accuracy in object recognition.

86

87 **RESULTS**

Sixty participants (age: 25.9 ± 6.3, mean ± SD; 38 females, 22 males) were randomly assigned 88 to one of the two duty cycle groups. One group received LIFU with a high duty cycle (70%), while 89 the other received LIFU with a low duty cycle (5%) with equal spatial-peak temporal-average 90 91 intensity of I_{sota} = 0.72 W cm⁻² (Fig. 1a). The experiment involved several key steps, such as transducer setup, image contrast titration, and six blocks of the visual task (Fig. 1b-d). There were 92 two outer LIFU-OFF baseline blocks (Baseline-1 and Baseline-2) and four inner LIFU-ON blocks. 93 94 During each LIFU-ON block, LIFU was administered to only one of four regions of the left thalamus, 95 including the ventral anterior (VA), ventral posterior (VP), dorsal anterior (DA), and dorsal 96 posterior (DP) thalamus (Fig. 1e). The order of stimulated regions was pseudo-randomized and counterbalanced among participants, and each participant received a consistent duty cycle 97 98 throughout the session. By including multiple targets, we could analyze in within-subject manner 99 as a function of stimulated region.

100 We employed a well-established near-threshold visual object recognition and categorization 101 task^{8,9}. Stimuli were presented at the intensity close to the threshold of conscious perception. Using an adaptive staircase paradigm, we titrated the image contrast for each participant^{8,54} (Fig. 102 1f). Four object categories were used: faces, houses, human-made objects, and animals (Fig. 1g). 103 104 We also included scrambled images, which comprised 20 out of 100 trials. During each trial, 105 participants responded to two questions: one regarding the category of the presented image (i.e., 106 "What category did the observed image belong to?") and another concerning their subjective recognition experience (i.e., "Did you have a meaningful visual experience?") (Fig. 1h). Here, 107 108 'recognition' was operationally defined as the perception of an object that makes sense in the real 109 world, as opposed to meaningless noise-like patterns. Therefore, the recognition rates for real 110 and scrambled images could be interpreted as hits and false alarms, respectively (Fig. 1i).

Based on hit and false alarm rates, we evaluated sensitivity and decision bias for object recognition within the SDT framework (see Methods: Signal detection theory analysis). Sensitivity reflects the ability to differentiate between real and scrambled images, while decision bias indicates a tendency towards a particular response. Herein, a high bias signifies a tendency to say "NO" (i.e., "Didn't have a meaningful visual experience") to the recognition question (Question-2), reflecting a conservative stance in object recognition. Categorization accuracy was also quantified, independently of object recognition.

During Baseline-1, participants recognized $54.7 \pm 14.7\%$ (mean \pm SD) of the real images (Supplementary Fig. 1a), which was not significantly different from the intended 50% recognition rate, confirming the successful implementation of the staircase procedure (see SI text and Supplementary Fig. 1 for statistics and additional analyses on baseline perceptual outcomes). We also found no significant differences in perceptual outcomes between the two baselines, suggesting that LIFU did not produce detectable long-lasting effects within our experimental timescale of approximately one hour (Supplementary Fig. 2).

125



126

127 Fig. 1: Overview of the block design, experimental setup, and behavioral paradigm. a Randomized 128 study group assignment. Sixty subjects were randomly assigned to one of two groups, each consisting of 129 30 participants, corresponding to either a 70% or 5% duty cycle (DC). b The timeline of experimental 130 sessions, including initial preparation steps and the main task. The main task included two baseline blocks 131 and four LIFU-ON blocks with a pseudo-randomized order of stimulation regions. Each block comprised 132 100 trials. Each LIFU-ON block included 12 alternating 30-second ON and OFF epochs, with each ON 133 epoch consisting of 300 pulses of varying duty cycles (pulse repetition frequency = 10 Hz). c Measurement 134 locations for head size, including width, depth, and side-to-top. d Illustration of the transducer fixed with two 135 perpendicular rubber bands on the participant's head. e Sagittal view for the four subdivisions of the left 136 thalamus: ventral anterior (VA), ventral posterior (VP), dorsal anterior (DA), and dorsal posterior (DP) 137 thalamus, overlaid on standard MNI template brain images. f Example of an animal image displayed at 138 different contrast levels. g Examples of real and scrambled images for each category (face, house, human-139 made object, and animal). h Trial structure showing the sequence of events: a blank period, stimulus 140 presentation, delay, and two questions (categorization and recognition). i Illustration of the four trial types 141 (hit, miss, false alarm, and correct rejection). Due to copyright limitations, the actual images used in our 142 experiment are not shown. Copyright-free images included in this figure were obtained from
 143 <u>https://www.pexels.com</u>.

144

145 Ultrasound beam profile and targeting accuracy

We simulated the LIFU beam *in silico* on an MNI template brain to characterize the beam profile (Fig. 2a). The beam exhibited a bullet-like shape with an aspect ratio of approximately 10, measuring 50 mm in length and 5 mm in width, in agreement with a previous study which used the identical transducer⁵⁵. The location of peak intensity was observed at 80 mm, consistent with the device specifications. The temperature increase in the brain tissue was minimal, with a maximum recorded rise of 0.15°C (Supplementary Fig. 3).

As proof of concept, we utilized the MNI template brain image as a pseudo-anatomical reference for the stimulation procedure (see Methods for details) by rescaling the MNI template image to match each participant's head size. We independently validated the accuracy of this method by comparing the actual anatomical images and the rescaled images extracted from five individuals, confirming an average deviation of 1.7 ± 0.6 mm (Supplementary Fig. 4).

157 Post-hoc analysis confirmed successful targeting of each thalamic region (Fig. 2b-h). Probability density maps showed distinct targeting with minimal overlap (Fig. 2g,h). Mean lateral deviation 158 159 (i.e., the distance from the target to the actual beam center, viewed from an angle perpendicular 160 to the beam) was consistent across regions (2.3 ± 0.9 mm; Fig. 2i), validating region-level LIFU targeting. The Euclidean distance of the focal center from the target was 8.3 ± 4.1 mm, 161 comparable to previous studies (Fig. 2j) ⁵⁵. Under the intensity setting of $I_{spta} = 0.72$ W cm⁻², the 162 simulated intensity at the beam center was estimated to be 0.09 ± 0.07 W cm⁻² (87.7 $\pm 9.0\%$ 163 164 energy loss; Fig. 2k).

165



167 Fig. 2: LIFU beam profiles and targeting accuracy. a Geometrical profile of the LIFU beam simulated on 168 the MNI template brain, with the transducer placed on the right temple. b-e Estimated beam centers in the 169 left thalamus for each region: **b** VA, **c** VP, **d** DA, and **e** DP thalamus. VA: *n* = 51; VP: *n* = 50; DA: *n* = 53; 170 DP: n = 54. Orange spheres indicate the estimated centers of the LIFU beams. The bottom images are 171 zoomed-in views. f Sagittal view of the thalamus with the y and z coordinates of the cross-sections in MNI 172 space. g, h Cross-sectional views displaying the probability density functions of the sonication centers for 173 each thalamic region in the g x-y and h x-z planes. i Lateral deviation of beam centers from the 174 corresponding target. VA: n = 51; VP: n = 50; DA: n = 53; DP: n = 54. j Euclidean distance of beam centers 175 from the corresponding target. VA: n = 50; VP: n = 48; DA: n = 51; DP: n = 51. **k** Estimated temporal 176 intensity at the beam centers. VA: *n* = 47; VP: *n* = 46; DA: *n* = 46; DP: *n* = 47. Box plots show the median, 177 upper, and lower quartiles. Color coding for the thalamic regions is as follows: VA (red), VP (green), DA 178 (blue), and DP (vellow) thalamus. VA: ventral anterior thalamus; VP: ventral posterior thalamus; DA: dorsal 179 anterior thalamus; DP: dorsal posterior thalamus. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

180

166

181 Region-specific effects of LIFU on visual perception

To mitigate individual variability, we calculated the changes of each perceptual outcome relative to the baselines (see also the results without baseline subtraction in Supplementary Fig. 5). We performed a linear mixed-effects model ANOVA to assess both main and interaction effects specific to stimulated region and duty cycle (see Source Data for full statistics). We also conducted additional statistical tests comparing each condition against its corresponding baseline in a region-specific manner.

Sensitivity metrics (parametric: *d'* and non-parametric: *A'*) demonstrated region-specific effects, particularly for the 70% duty cycle (Fig. 3c,d). The ANOVA revealed significant main effects for both stimulated region (*d'*: p = 0.0438; *A'*: p = 0.0393) and duty cycle (*d'*: p = 0.0463; *A'*: p =0.0362). A 70% duty cycle sonication applied to the VA thalamus resulted in a significant increase in sensitivity compared to the baseline (*d'*: p = 0.0096; *A'*: p = 0.0105). Additionally, we observed that sensitivity increase was higher when the lateral deviation of LIFU was smaller (Supplementary Fig. 6), further supporting the region-specificity of this effect.

- 195 The hit rate exhibited a significant main effect of duty cycle (p = 0.0055; Fig. 3a), where 70% duty
- 196 cycle showed higher hit rate than 5% duty cycle. Regarding categorization accuracy, a significant
- 197 decrease was observed specifically for real images under the 70% duty cycle when targeting the
- 198 DA thalamus (p = 0.0002; Fig. 3g). No changes were detected in the false alarm rate, decision
- bias, or the accuracy for scrambled images (p > 0.05; Fig. 3b,e,f,h).
- 200



201

202 Fig. 3: Region-specific changes in recognition performance under LIFU. Changes in perceptual 203 outcomes including a hit rate, b false alarm rate, c parametric sensitivity metric d', d non-parametric 204 sensitivity metric A', e parametric decision bias metric c, f non-parametric decision bias metric B", q 205 categorization accuracy for real images, and h categorization accuracy for scrambled images. All values 206 are baseline-subtracted. Darker solid boxes denote significant region-specific deviations from zero (FDR-207 corrected, p < 0.05, Wilcoxon signed-rank test, two-sided). ANOVA results are displayed in top-left of each 208 subplot. The n.s. indicates non-significance. Box plots show the median, upper, and lower quartiles (VA 70% 209 DC: *n* = 26; VA 5% DC: *n* = 25; VP 70% DC: *n* = 26; VP 5% DC: *n* = 25; DA 70% DC: *n* = 27; DA 5% DC: 210 n = 26; DP 70% DC: n = 27; DP 5% DC: n = 27). FA: false alarm; DC: duty cycle; VA: ventral anterior 211 thalamus; VP: ventral posterior thalamus; DA: dorsal anterior thalamus; DP: dorsal posterior thalamus. 212 Statistics and source data are provided as a Source Data file.

213

214 Region-independent effects of LIFU on visual perception

215 We further investigated potential effects common to all thalamic regions, which could be masked

216 when analyzing individual thalamic regions due to inter-subject or inter-regional variability. We

217 thus aggregated the perceptual outcomes during the four LIFU-ON blocks (see the results without

218 baseline subtraction in Supplementary Fig. 7; see Source Data for full statistics). We found that

the hit rate exhibited a significant difference between the two duty cycles (p = 0.0026, Mann-Whitney U test, two-sided; Fig. 4a). Specifically, the 5% duty cycle resulted in a significant decrease in the hit rate below baseline (p = 0.0042, Wilcoxon signed-rank test, two-sided). Consistent with the decrease in hit rate, we observed an increase in decision bias metrics with 5% duty cycle sonication (c: p = 0.0109; B'': p = 0.0510; Wilcoxon signed-rank test, two-sided), indicating a more conservative approach in object recognition (Fig. 4e,f).

Regarding sensitivity, no significant change was observed relative to the baseline (Fig. 4c,d), although *A'* exhibited a difference between the two duty cycles (p = 0.0224, Mann-Whitney U test, two-sided), with a slight increase at 70% and a decrease at 5%. Categorization accuracy for real images significantly decreased under the 70% duty cycle (p = 0.0002, Wilcoxon signed-rank test,

two-sided; Fig. 4g). No significant changes were detected for false alarm rate and accuracy for

230 scrambled images (Fig. 4b,h).

231





233 Fig. 4: Region-independent changes in visual perception under LIFU. Changes in perceptual outcomes 234 including **a** hit rate, **b** false alarm rate, **c** parametric sensitivity metric d', **d** non-parametric sensitivity metric 235 A', e parametric decision bias metric c, f non-parametric decision bias metric B'', g categorization accuracy 236 for real images, h categorization accuracy for scrambled images. All values are baseline-subtracted. 237 Results of four stimulated regions are aggregated. Darker solid boxes denote significant deviations from 238 baseline zero (FDR-corrected, p < 0.05, Wilcoxon signed-rank test, two-sided). Asterisks indicate significant 239 differences between two duty cycles (p < 0.05, Mann-Whitney U test, two-sided). Box plots show the median, 240 upper, and lower quartiles (70% duty cycle: n = 106; 5% duty cycle: n = 103). FA: false alarm. Statistics 241 and source data are provided as a Source Data file.

242

243 Functional connectivity of thalamic regions

244 To gain deeper insights into the potential large-scale neural correlates of both region-independent

and region-dependent effects of LIFU on visual perception, we conducted a separate analysis to
 investigate the connectivity profiles of the four thalamic regions, utilizing the Human Connectome

247 Project dataset $(n = 1009)^{56}$.

First, we assessed the connectivity profiles of these thalamic regions at the network level (Fig. 5a,b). In line with our prior research²⁹, we observed a graded shift in connectivity profiles along a unimodal-transmodal gradient. The VA thalamus displayed transmodal dominance, exhibiting higher connectivity with frontoparietal and default-mode networks compared to the other three regions (red curve in Fig. 5b). This was followed by DA thalamus, with a trend towards unimodal dominance observed in DP and VP thalamus.

Second, we examined the thalamocortical connectivity at a finer spatial scale, specifically at the voxel level. We retained the cortical voxels exhibiting the top 10% strongest connectivity with each respective thalamic region. The connectivity profiles of the four regions showed considerable overlap, particularly within the early visual cortex (cyan regions in Fig. 5c). However, regionspecific connectivity patterns were also observed. The VA thalamus was predominantly

connected with the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (red regions in Fig. 5d). The VP thalamus exhibited unique connectivity with the somatomotor and auditory cortices (green in Fig. 5d, see also Fig. 5a). The DP thalamus showed unique clusters within various regions in the visual cortex (yellow in Fig. 5d). The connectivity profile of the DA thalamus largely overlapped with the VA thalamus (Supplementary Fig. 8), with only a few unique clusters located in regions such as left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex and right temporal-parietal junction (blue in Fig. 5d).

266





268 Fig. 5: Functional connectivity profiles of four thalamic regions with the cortex, a, b Network-level 269 analysis. a Percentile of functional connectivity strength, averaged within each cortical network obtained 270 from the Human Connectome Project dataset. Each dot represents an individual. Box plots show the 271 median, upper, and lower quartiles (n = 1009). **b** Distribution of mean percentiles of functional connectivity 272 strength for unimodal (visual and somatomotor) and transmodal (frontoparietal and default-mode) networks 273 for each thalamic region (n = 1009). Curves represent kernel-smoothed histograms across the direction of 274 maximal variance. c, d Voxel-based analysis. Cortical regions with the top 10% strongest connectivity with 275 the thalamus, c common across all four thalamic regions and d unique to each thalamic region. VA: ventral 276 anterior thalamus; VP: ventral posterior thalamus; DA: dorsal anterior thalamus; DP: dorsal posterior 277 thalamus. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

278

279

280 DISCUSSION

This study aimed to illuminate how different thalamic nuclei modulate conscious perception. 281 282 Through targeted LIFU neuromodulation, we uncovered a unique role for the transmodaldominant ventral anterior (VA) thalamus in modulating the sensitivity of conscious perception. 283 284 Moreover, we observed both common (region-independent) and duty cycle dependent effects of LIFU on decision bias and categorization accuracy in object recognition, as summarized in Fig. 6. 285 286 Notably, the VA thalamus, which played the most prominent role in conscious perception, was more closely functionally connected with medial and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex. Collectively, 287 our research provides a valuable causal insight into the unimodal-transmodal functional 288 289 organization of the thalamus.

290



291

Fig. 6: Summary of LIFU effects on visual perception. a Sensitivity increases when the VA thalamus is stimulated at the 70% duty cycle. This is associated with increased functional connectivity between the VA thalamus and transmodal areas compared with other thalamic nuclei. b Decrease in categorization accuracy is observed nonspecifically across all thalamic regions at the 70% duty cycle, potentially driven by interactions between the thalamus and the visual network (cyan). c Decision bias increases (recognition being more conservative) by the 5% duty cycle in region-independent manner. VA: ventral anterior thalamus; VP: ventral posterior thalamus; DA: dorsal anterior thalamus; DP: dorsal posterior thalamus.

299

300 Our key finding is the unique role of the transmodal-dominant VA thalamus in conscious perception (Fig. 6a). Being nonspecific and matrix-rich, VA thalamus likely interacts extensively 301 302 with thick-tufted layer-5 pyramidal neurons in the cortex, promoting large-scale cortical integration essential for conscious sensory processing^{1,17,31,33,57}. This also support theoretical frameworks 303 such as thalamic gating mechanisms and dendritic integration theory, suggesting that matrix cells 304 in the higher-order thalamus may modulate the threshold for conscious perception by influencing 305 the bursting activity of thick-tufted layer-5 pyramidal neurons in the cortex^{1,17,25,58}. These matrix 306 307 cells, with their diffuse connectivity, are known to facilitate the entry of sensory content into 308 consciousness, potentially by lowering the activation threshold of layer-5 pyramidal neurons^{17,36}. 309 By activating the VA thalamus, our LIFU intervention likely increases dendritic integration in layer5 pyramidal neurons, promoting widespread cortical bursting, thereby increasing perceptual sensitivity (further discussion on duty cycle-dependence follows below).

312 Furthermore, the VA thalamus encompasses the intralaminar nuclei, with projections innervating various cortical and subcortical regions^{18,23,59}. Electrical stimulation of these nuclei via implanted 313 electrodes has been shown to awaken non-human primates from anesthesia^{22,32,37} and aid in the 314 recovery of consciousness in patients with neuropathological conditions⁶⁰⁻⁶². Similarly, 315 316 microinjection of nicotine or potassium channel-blocking antibodies into these nuclei has restored consciousness in rodents^{63,64}. Moreover, previous LIFU study targeting these nuclei demonstrated 317 improvements in patients with disorders of consciousness⁶⁵. Our findings provide preliminary 318 319 evidence that the intralaminar nuclei might influence the qualitative aspect of conscious 320 perception, in addition to modulating the state of consciousness.

321 One important question is whether the increased sensitivity of conscious perception was due to the VA thalamus being excited. In contrast to prior human LIFU studies that employed only one 322 duty cycle^{55,66–68}, we incorporated two duty cycles (70% vs. 5%) into our experimental design. 323 LIFU is thought to selectively activate excitatory vs. inhibitory neurons depending on the duty 324 cycle^{48,69}. Thus, prior studies suggested that LIFU exerts a general excitatory effect at high duty 325 cycles (e.g., > 50%) and an inhibitory effect at low duty cycles (e.g., < 20%)^{49,69–72}. Based on this, 326 327 we suggest that 70% duty cycle LIFU on the VA thalamus has induced an excitatory effect. This 328 interpretation is also supported by previous studies. For example, Wu et al. demonstrated that 329 higher pre-stimulus activity in the VA thalamus predicts greater sensitivity in conscious 330 perception¹². Therefore, exciting the VA thalamus may elevate its overall activity level, leading to heightened perceptual sensitivity. Furthermore, given the strong bidirectional excitatory 331 332 connections⁷³ and functional connectivity (Fig. 5d) between the VA thalamus and transmodal 333 areas such as the mPFC, VA thalamus stimulation with a 70% duty cycle may indirectly excite 334 the mPFC. This is also supported by evidence that single-pulse electrical stimulation of the VA activates the mPFC⁷⁴. Higher pre-stimulus mPFC activity also predicts greater perceptual 335 sensitivity—a prediction intriguingly aligned with the previous findings¹². Collectively, these 336 337 observations suggest that LIFU with a 70% duty cycle induced an excitatory effect on the VA 338 thalamus, which in turn, co-activated the mPFC. This dual activation could underlie the observed 339 increase in perceptual sensitivity.

Regarding the region-independent decrease in categorization accuracy for real images observed with 70% duty cycle (Fig. 6b), we speculate that this effect might stem from the common functional connectivity of the thalamic regions with the visual cortex (Fig. 5c). Assuming that exciting these thalamic areas may lead to co-activation of the visual cortex, this observation aligns with previous work demonstrating a negative correlation between the pre-stimulus activity of the visual network and categorization accuracy¹².

Regarding LIFU at 5% duty cycle, we observed common (region-independent) effects that led to more conservative decision bias (Fig. 6c). We hypothesize that this duty cycle likely induced an inhibitory neural effect, aligning with a previously-reported negative correlation between prestimulus thalamic activity and decision bias¹². Further supporting our interpretation, prior research showed that applying LIFU at 5% duty cycle to the thalamus produced anti-nociceptive effects, suggesting a potential inhibitory influence on sensory processing⁵⁵.

Methodologically, our work represents a significant advancement in human LIFU studies. While regional targeting within the subcortex has been previously demonstrated in rodents⁴⁹, our work

354 presents the first known instance of multiple regional-level stimulations within the human thalamus. We achieved targeting of each thalamic region with sub-centimeter precision, confirmed by post-355 hoc analysis showing minimal overlap in the distributions of the beam centers (Fig. 2g,h). Thinking 356 357 of future clinical applications, we also eliminated the reliance on brain imaging in individual 358 subjects and thus expedited the experimental procedure; our strategy used an individually 359 rescaled template image for LIFU targeting, thereby mitigating the need for anatomical imaging, e.g., computed tomography (CT) or T1 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Thus, our approach 360 could enable LIFU application in populations where MRI scans are challenging, such as in infants, 361 362 individuals with implanted medical devices, or those with severe claustrophobia.

363 We verified that the template rescaling method that we implemented meets the desired targeting 364 accuracy. Our strategy achieved small deviations of 1.7 ± 0.6 mm relative to the actual T1 365 anatomical image (Supplementary Fig. 4). The validity of the template rescaling method is also 366 supported by effect size increase as the lateral deviation of the beam center from the intended target (as determined by rescaled template image) decreased (Supplementary Fig. 6). Notably, 367 the average lateral deviation of the beam from the target $(2.3 \pm 1.0 \text{ mm}, \text{Fig. 2i})$ was comparable 368 369 to the beam radius (2.5 mm). This was also comparable to or better than those in previous works 370 (deviation ranging from 3 to 9 mm), reinforcing the robustness and precision of our targeting approach55,75. 371

While previous research demonstrated the potential for LIFU to induce long-lasting effects ranging 372 from hours to weeks^{76–78}, we did not observe persistent changes as evidenced by the comparison 373 374 between Baseline-1 and Baseline-2 data (Supplementary Fig. 2). This discrepancy may be 375 attributed to two factors. First, the estimated intensity of our LIFU stimulation (0.09 ± 0.07 W cm⁻ ²) might have been insufficient to trigger long-term modifications. Second, the visual system, being 376 377 highly adaptable and dynamic, might respond differently to LIFU compared to domains like 378 addiction, anxiety, or depression where longer-term effects have been observed^{72,76,77}. To better understand the implications of LIFU for scientific study and therapeutic application, future 379 investigations should assess the factors that influence the duration of sonication effects. 380

Our study has limitations. First, the effect size of the LIFU-induced modulation of conscious perception was small (e.g., Cohen's d = 0.3 for sensitivity increase during VA thalamus excitation). This might be due to the low intensity of LIFU, primarily caused by significant energy loss ($\approx 90\%$) from ultrasound attenuation through the human skull⁷⁹. Further attenuation could have resulted from hair and air pockets. Advanced approaches like direct attenuation measurement and compensation may mitigate this problem⁷⁹.

Moreover, the current FDA intensity guidelines (e.g., spatial-peak temporal-average intensity I_{spta} 388 = 0.72 W cm⁻²) are based on diagnostic and imaging ultrasound devices, and specific guidelines 389 for LIFU on human brain are lacking⁸⁰. Future studies should advocate for updated FDA guidelines 390 specific to LIFU in the human brain, as current evidence suggests that higher intensities, tested 391 safely in animal studies, may produce more robust effects without causing thermal damage^{49,81,82}.

Second, the region-independent effects might be confounded by the potential influence of auditory artifacts⁸³. However, the observed outcomes cannot be solely explained by auditory effects. Sonication with 5% duty cycle generated more noticeable sound due to the fixed time-averaged intensity compared to the 70% duty cycle leading to a higher percentage of participants reporting awareness of the sound at 5% (93% vs. 52% of participants, see Source Data). If auditory artifacts were the primary factor influencing the results, then we would expect the 5% duty cycle to have

a greater effect on perceptual outcomes, and in the same direction as the effects at the 70% duty cycle. However, we observed opposite effects between the two duty cycles on measures such as hit rate and sensitivity (Fig. 3a,c,d), as well as the effects unique to the 70% duty cycle such as the lower categorization accuracy for real images (Fig. 4g). These findings support the specificity of the observed effects. Nonetheless, to better isolate and understand the potential confounding effects of auditory artifacts, future research may include a sham control with replicated sound playback, or masking of the transducer sound during LIFU stimulation.

In conclusion, our findings illuminate the causal roles of distinct thalamic regions in conscious
 perception, particularly highlighting the unique contribution of the transmodal-dominant ventral
 anterior (VA) thalamus in modulating perceptual sensitivity. These results provide causal insight
 into the intricate unimodal-transmodal functional organization of the thalamus.

409

410 **METHODS**

411 Participants. The study protocol (ClinicalTrials.gov ID: NCT06083493) was approved by the Institutional Board Review of the University of Michigan Medical School. A total 60 participants 412 413 (age: 25.9 ± 6.3 years, mean ± SD; 38 females, 22 males) participated in the experiment. All 414 subjects provided written informed consent prior to the experiment and were compensated. All subjects were right-handed, did not have any hearing loss, and were not colorblind, and had 415 416 normal or corrected-to-normal vision. Although hair shaving was not required for this study, seven 417 participants chose to shave their right temple in exchange for additional compensation. 418 Participants were assigned to one of two equal-sized groups (duty cycle = 70% and 5%) by a 419 random number generator, each comprising 30 participants. Since the neuromodulation effect is 420 dependent on various factors, such as parameters and target regions, determining a prior effect 421 size is challenging. However, we planned for a subject number of n = 30 per group, exceeding the mean sample size (n = 19) reported in the literature⁸⁴. One subject who performed a different 422 423 visual task was not included in data analysis. Three subjects with technical issues during targeting 424 were excluded from data analysis. One subject did not complete the task due to technical issues in perceptual threshold determination. One subject was excluded because the hit rate during 425 426 Baseline-1 was too low (< 15%). Thus, a total sample size was n = 54 (70% duty cycle: n = 27; 427 5% duty cycle: n = 27; see also Supplementary Fig. 9 for a flow chart). Sex or gender analysis 428 was not conducted because there were no sex or gender specific hypotheses regarding the 429 influence of ultrasound neuromodulation on visual perception. Participants were blinded to the 430 intervention conditions by providing identical procedural setups and device operations across both groups, ensuring that all participants did not know the specific duty cycle assignment. 431

LIFU devices and parameters. LIFU was administered using the BrainSonix BXPulsar 1002 LIFU System (BrainSonix Corporations, Sherman Oaks, CA, USA). This system includes a single transducer with a 61.5 mm diameter and 80.7 mm focal depth. The focal depth was also validated by Blatek Ultrasonic Transducers (Boalsburg, PA, USA). This transducer is mounted in a plastic housing and sealed with a thin polyethylene membrane. To identify the optimal placement for the transducer on the participant's head, we utilized the Brainsight Neuro-Navigation System (Rogue Research, Montreal, Quebec, Canada).

439 Sonication parameters are determined as follows: Fundamental frequency: 650 kHz; Pulse 440 repetition frequency: 10 Hz; Pulse width: 5 ms; Duty cycle: 70% and 5%; Sonication duration: 30 441 s; Inter-sonication interval: 30 s; Sonication per block: 12; I_{spta} : 0.72 W cm⁻². The intensity is 442 calculated using the US FDA's derating method for diagnostic ultrasound systems, which
 443 assumes a uniform tissue attenuation rate of 0.3 dB cm⁻¹ MHz⁻¹.

444 Transducer setup. Aquasonic Ultrasound Gel was applied to the right temple before positioning the transducer, ensuring that all hairs in the area were thoroughly coated with gel to enhance 445 446 ultrasound transmission. The transducer was then positioned on the right temple and secured 447 with two adjustable fabric bands: one band ran from the chin over the top of the head, and the 448 other band passed from the forehead to the back of the head. Additional self-adhering bandages were used on top of the fabric bands to fine-tune the angle of the transducer for precise alignment. 449 During the LIFU stimulation, we recorded the coordinates of the target location and the contact 450 451 point between the transducer and the skin for post-hoc analysis.

452 Target locations. Following a previous thalamic parcellation scheme⁸⁵, the thalamus was coarsely divided into four regions: ventral anterior (VA), ventral posterior (VP), dorsal anterior 453 454 (DA), dorsal posterior (DP). Given the lack of evidence for functional lateralization in the thalamus, 455 we opted to target the left hemisphere for convenience. The center coordinates for the four regions in the MNI space are as follows. Left VA: (-8 mm, -11 mm, 6 mm), Left VP: (-13 mm, -23 mm, 2 456 mm), Left DA: (-12 mm, -23 mm, 12 mm), Left DP: (-16 mm, -31 mm, 2 mm). Notably, due to the 457 458 elongated shape of the beam (Fig. 2a), it is possible that part of the right thalamus may have been 459 partially affected.

Head size measurement. We used a digital caliper to measure head size in three dimensions: width, depth, and side-to-top distance (Fig. 1b). Head width was measured as the distance between the left and right supratragic notches, which are indentations in the ear cartilage right above the tragus. Head depth was measured from the most posterior (back) point to the most anterior (front) point of the head. The side-to-top distance was defined as the measurement from the one supratragic notch to the highest top point of the head.

466 **Template rescaling method.** We rescaled the ICBM 2009c Nonlinear Asymmetric template of 467 the MNI152 linear template to match each participant's head size based on the three measured 468 dimensions. The head height, defined as the height of a triangle formed by the top of the head, 469 the supratragic notch, and the center of the head at the plane of the supratragic notch, was 470 calculated using the formula:

$$H e \dot{g} ht = \sqrt{(S \dot{d} e - t o - T o p D \dot{s} t c n c e})^2 - (W \, \dot{d} t h)^2}$$
(1)

The default head size measurements of the MNI template were as follows: width: 16 cm, depth: 21 cm, and height: 15 cm. We then calculated the size ratio between the MNI template and the participant's head dimensions. The NIFTI image of the MNI template was resliced using B-spline interpolation to adjust to the participant's head size.

We performed a separate analysis with five subjects to validate the template rescaling method. For these subjects, we obtained actual anatomical T1 images and generated rescaled template images using the described method. For both the actual T1 and rescaled template images, we identified the real-space coordinates corresponding to four left thalamic regions based on their MNI-space coordinates. After coregistering the two images, we calculated the Euclidean distances between the coordinates derived from the actual T1 images and those from the rescaled template images for each thalamic region. 482 Ultrasound intensity and thermal simulation. We employed SimNIBS pipeline (SimNIBS 483 v4.1.0. https://simnibs.github.io/simnibs/build/html/index.html) to differentiate skin, skull, and brain within the rescaled template brain images⁸⁶. We then simulated the transcranial ultrasound 484 intensity and thermal profiles using the BabelBrain software (BabelBrain v0.3.5, 485 486 https://proteusmrighifu.github.io/BabelBrain/)87. Within the Brainsight software (v2.5.4), we created post-hoc trajectories starting from the recorded contact points between the transducer 487 and the skin, pointing toward the thalamus. The spatial resolution of was set to points-per-488 wavelength = 6 and the field was simulated 100 mm beyond the target at maximum. 489

490 **Experimental procedure.** The experiment was conducted in a single session lasting 491 approximately two hours (Fig. 1a). At the beginning of the session, participants' head size was measured (details above), followed by task instructions. Participants first completed a brief 492 493 practice run consisting of 30 trials (a shorter version of staircase procedure; see below). Next, the ultrasound transducer was positioned, and participants underwent the main image contrast 494 staircase procedure involving 60 trials. Participants then engaged in the main task, which 495 consisted of six blocks, each containing 100 trials and lasting approximately 12 minutes, for a 496 497 total of 600 trials (Fig. 1a). For staircase and main task, a custom-modified version of the public 498 code implemented for the near-threshold behavioral paradigm 499 (https://github.com/BiyuHeLab/NatCommun Levinson2021/) was used with Psychophysics Toolbox executed on MATLAB R2024a^{8,88}. 500

501 During the first and last blocks, LIFU was not applied (referred to as Baseline-1 and Baseline-2). 502 During the inner four blocks, four thalamic areas are stimulated in a pre-assigned, pseudo-503 randomized order (determined by a random number generator), counter-balanced across the 504 participants, with a consistent duty cycle (either 70% or 5%) within one participant.

505 Visual stimuli. Visual images encompassed four categories: faces, houses, human-made objects, and animals (Fig. 1g), which were used in a previous study⁸. The images were sourced 506 507 from publicly available labeled photographs or the Psychological Image Collection at Stirling 508 (PICS). Each category included five distinct images, resulting in a total of 20 unique real images. 509 All images were converted to grayscale and resized to 300 × 300 pixels. The pixel intensities were 510 normalized by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation. Subsequently, the 511 images were processed with a 2D Gaussian smoothing filter ('imgaussfilt' function in MATLAB 512 R2024a), using a standard deviation of 1.5 pixels and a 7 × 7 pixel kernel. Scrambled images that 513 maintain low-level features were generated for each category by randomizing the phase of the 514 2D Fourier transform for one image from each category.

515 The contrast of an image was defined as:

$$contrast = \frac{I_{m ax} - I_{m in}}{2b}$$
(2)

where I_{max} and I_{min} are the intensity values of lightest and darkest pixels in the image, respectively (in the range of 0 to 255). To ensure a smooth transition to the background (set as gray, intensity = 127), the edges of all images were gradually blended by applying a Gaussian window with a standard deviation of 0.2 to the image intensity.

520 The stimuli were displayed on a 14-inch laptop (HP ProBook 440 G4) with a 60-Hz refresh rate 521 LCD screen, set to the maximum screen brightness. The viewing distance between the screen 522 and the participants' eyes was maintained at 65.8 ± 5.7 cm (mean \pm SD). During the experiment, 523 participants were asked to maintain constant eye-monitor distance. We also validated the

distance during rest periods and readjusted the position of the laptop if necessary. We did not adopt masking because masking is known to influence the visual information processing^{89,90}.

Image contrast staircase procedure. Before the main task, participants completed the QUEST 526 adaptive staircase procedure^{8,54} to determine the contrast value that would vield a 50% 527 recognition rate (i.e., the rate of "YES" response to Question-2). The QUEST procedure was 528 529 similar to the main task but with shorter timing parameters. The inter-trial interval was 0.75 530 seconds, and the delay period between the stimulus and the first question was 2 seconds. The 531 threshold contrast was identified through a QUEST process consisting of 60 trials. Each trial was randomly assigned to one of three sets, and the staircase procedure was conducted separately 532 533 for each set. Task performance was deemed acceptable if the three sets successfully converged 534 on a specific contrast value. The staircase procedure was repeated until the convergence of the 535 three curves was confirmed. Rather than adjusting the contrast of each image individually, the 536 staircasing aimed for 50% recognition across all images.

537 **Main task.** Each block of the main task featured four trials per real image (80 real trials in total) 538 and five trials per scrambled image (20 scrambled trials in total). Participants were unaware of 539 the fact that scrambled images would appear. Participants were allowed to rest for at least 3 540 minutes between blocks, during which the transducer was readjusted. The entire main task took 541 about 1.5 hours to complete.

Each trial began with a fixation cross displayed on a gray background for a randomly determined duration between 3 and 6 seconds, following an exponential distribution to prevent participants from predicting stimulus onset (Fig. 1e). The stimulus image was then shown behind the fixation cross for 8 frames (67 ms), with the image intensity linearly increasing across frames. After the stimulus disappeared, the fixation cross remained on the screen for an additional 2 seconds. Each trial concluded with two sequential questions about the stimulus, each displayed for up to 3 seconds.

Question-1 asked participants to categorize the image as a face, house, object, or animal, 549 550 Participants were instructed to guess the category even if they did not consciously recognize the 551 object (four-alternative forced-choice). Question-2 assessed their subjective experience, asking 552 whether they had a "meaningful visual experience" of the object stimulus ("YES" or "NO"). Before 553 the practice run, participants were told that a "meaningful" stimulus was defined as something 554 that makes sense in the real world, as opposed to random noise or meaningless shapes. They 555 were instructed to respond "YES" even if they recognized only part of an object. Participants provided their answers by pressing buttons on a 4-key external USB keyboard placed on their lap. 556 If participants did not respond to Question-1, it was recorded as incorrect, and for Question-2, a 557 558 lack of response was recorded as "NO."

Signal detection theory analysis. We employed signal detection theory (SDT) to examine the perceptual outcomes, focusing on sensitivity and decision bias^{91–93}. Sensitivity measures the ability to distinguish between real images and scrambled images. We calculated both parametric and non-parametric sensitivity metrics through standard SDT analysis: *d'* and *A'*, defined as follows:

$$d' = \Phi^{-1}(H) - \Phi^{-1}(FA)$$
(3)

$$A' = 0.5 + \left[\text{sign}(H - FA) \frac{(H - FA)^2 + |H - FA|}{4 \max(H, FA) - 4 H \cdot FA} \right]$$
(4)

564

where Φ^{-1} is the inverse normal cumulative distribution function, *H* is the hit rate, and *FA* is the false alarm rate, respectively. High *d'* and *A'* values indicate better discrimination between real and scrambled images.

568 Decision bias refers to the inclination to certain response, regardless of whether the stimulus is 569 real or scrambled. We assessed decision bias using parametric and non-parametric metrics: c570 and B'', defined below.

$$c = -\frac{\Phi^{-1}(H) + \Phi^{-1}(FA)}{2}$$
(5)

$$B' = \operatorname{sign}(H - FA) \frac{H(1 - H) - FA(1 - FA)}{H(1 - H) + FA(1 - FA)}$$
(6)

571 High *c* and B'' values indicate the tendency to say "NO" to Question-2, indicating a more 572 conservative object recognition.

573 Following Macmillan and Kaplan's correction, we substituted the values of false alarm or hit rate 574 to $1 - \frac{1}{2N_{real}}$ and $\frac{1}{2N_{sram}}$ when *FA* = 0 or *H* = 1, where N_{real} and N_{scram} refers to the number of trials 575 showing real and scrambled images, respectively^{12,94}.

576 Human Connectome Project Dataset. The dataset was obtained from the S1200 Release of the WU-Minn Human Connectome Project (HCP) database, which has been extensively described in 577 prior studies⁵⁶. The participants were healthy young adults aged 22 to 37 years. Participants who 578 579 had completed two sessions of resting-state fMRI scans (Rest1 and Rest2) were included in our analysis, resulting in n = 1009. The data were collected using a customized Siemens 3T MR 580 scanner (Skyra system) with multiband EPI. Each scanning session comprised two sequences 581 582 with opposite phase encoding directions (left-to-right and right-to-left), each lasting 14 minutes 583 and 33 seconds. The sequences were acquired with a repetition time (TR) of 720 ms, an echo time (TE) of 33.1 ms, and a voxel size of 2 mm isotropic. To maximize data quality and minimize 584 585 bias from phase encoding direction, the sequences from each session were combined, resulting in a total of 29 minutes and 6 seconds. The denoised volumetric data, preprocessed through ICA-586 FIX, were accessed from the online HCP database. Further details on the resting-state fMRI data 587 collection and preprocessing are available in previous publications^{95,96}. We employed the AFNI 588 software suite (linux ubuntu 16 64; http://afni.nimh.nih.gov/) for further preprocessing, 589 encompassing resampling to a 3 × 3 × 3 mm resolution, band-pass filtering within the 0.01-0.1 Hz 590 591 frequency range, spatial smoothing with a 6-mm Full Width at Half Maximum isotropic Gaussian 592 kernel, and temporal normalization to attain zero mean and unit variance.

593 Network-level analysis. We parcellated the cortex into 400 regions of interest (ROIs), each 594 assigned to one of seven canonical networks: visual, somatomotor, dorsal attention, ventral 595 attention, limbic, frontoparietal, and default-mode networks, based on a well-established parcellation scheme^{97,98}. Based on the Subcortical Atlas⁸⁵, we extracted time courses of BOLD 596 597 signal within the left VA, VP, DA, and DP thalamus. For each region, we calculated the functional connectivity across all 400 cortical ROIs. We then obtained the rank of the functional connectivity 598 599 for each resting-state session (Rest1 and Rest2) and averaged these ranks across the seven 600 networks and two sessions to calculate network-level connectivity. Lastly, we computed the

601 average rank for unimodal (visual and somatomotor) and transmodal (frontoparietal and default-602 mode) networks and plotted them in a 2D space.

603 Voxel-based analysis. Mean time courses were extracted from left VA, VP, DA, and DP thalamus, serving as seed regions for functional connectivity analysis. Seed-based maps 604 605 (Pearson correlation, Fisher-z transformed) were generated for each participant and region. 606 Group-level z-score maps were generated by standardizing individual connectivity values 607 (subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation across participants). Within the 608 cortex, we retained the top 10% of voxels with the highest connectivity. This analysis was performed independently for Rest1 and Rest2 sessions, and their overlap was used to ensure 609 610 consistency. Unique and common clusters of high-connectivity voxels were then identified for 611 each thalamic region.

612 Statistics. To ensure stabilization of task performance, the first ten trials of each block were 613 omitted from the analysis. Due to technical issues, a few participants failed to complete specific 614 LIFU-ON blocks, which were consequently excluded from the analysis (Fig. 3, 4). The affected 615 blocks and the number of participants were as follows: VA 70% DC (n = 1), VA 5% DC (n = 2), VP 70% DC (n = 1), VP 5% DC (n = 2), and DA 5% DC (n = 1). Additionally, for one subject in the 616 617 5% DC group, the lateral deviation value was not recorded for VP (Fig. 2i). Beam center locations 618 were not recorded for a few participants, resulting in their omission from the beam deviation 619 analysis (Fig. 2j). The numbers of participants with missing beam center location data were: VA (n = 4); VP (n = 6); DA (n = 3); DP (n = 3). Furthermore, the locations of the transducer on the 620 621 scalp were not recorded for a few participants, leading to their exclusion from the intensity 622 estimation analysis (Fig. 2k). The numbers of participants with missing transducer location data 623 were: VA (*n* = 9); VP (*n* = 10); DA (*n* = 9); DP (*n* = 9).

624 In Fig. 3, baseline-subtracted perceptual outcomes were evaluated by two statistical tests. First, 625 we assessed the main and interaction effects of duty cycle and stimulation region using a linear 626 mixed-effects model ANOVA. Additionally, we tested whether the distribution of perceptual 627 outcomes for each duty cycle and stimulation region deviated from zero using the Wilcoxon 628 signed-rank test (two-sided). Eight tests (four regions × two duty cycles) were corrected for 629 multiple comparisons using false discovery rate (FDR) method. In Fig. 4, baseline-subtracted 630 perceptual outcomes were aggregated across stimulation regions and compared between the two 631 duty cycles using the Mann-Whitney U test (two-sided). Similar to the analysis in Fig. 3, we also 632 tested whether the distributions deviated from zero using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test (two-633 sided). Full statistics of main and supplementary analyses are included in Source Data.

634

635 DATA AVAILABILITY

636 Source data are provided with this paper. The HCP dataset is available from online repository 637 (https://www.humanconnectome.org/).

638

639 CODE AVAILABILITY

640 Code for near-threshold paradigm is available at Github 641 (https://github.com/BiyuHeLab/NatCommun_Levinson2021/)⁸. Custom-built code for template 642 rescaling will become available at Github.

643

644 **REFERENCES**

- Aru, J., Suzuki, M. & Larkum, M. E. Cellular Mechanisms of Conscious Processing. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 24, 814–825 (2020).
- 647 2. Dehaene, S., Changeux, J.-P., Naccache, L., Sackur, J. & Sergent, C. Conscious, preconscious,
- and subliminal processing: a testable taxonomy. *Trends Cogn Sci* **10**, 204–211 (2006).
- 649 3. Dehaene, S. & Changeux, J.-P. Experimental and Theoretical Approaches to Conscious
 650 Processing. *Neuron* 70, 200–227 (2011).
- 4. Koch, C., Massimini, M., Boly, M. & Tononi, G. Neural correlates of consciousness: progress
 and problems. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 17, 307–321 (2016).
- Mashour, G. A. & Hudetz, A. G. Neural Correlates of Unconsciousness in Large-Scale Brain
 Networks. *Trends in Neurosciences* 41, 150–160 (2018).
- 655 6. Seth, A. K. & Bayne, T. Theories of consciousness. Nat Rev Neurosci 23, 439–452 (2022).
- Storm, J. F. *et al.* An integrative, multiscale view on neural theories of consciousness. *Neuron*S0896627324000886 (2024) doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2024.02.004.
- 8. Levinson, M., Podvalny, E., Baete, S. H. & He, B. J. Cortical and subcortical signatures of
 conscious object recognition. *Nat Commun* **12**, 2930 (2021).
- 9. Podvalny, E., Flounders, M. W., King, L. E., Holroyd, T. & He, B. J. A dual role of prestimulus
 spontaneous neural activity in visual object recognition. *Nat Commun* **10**, 3910 (2019).
- 10. Takahashi, N., Oertner, T. G., Hegemann, P. & Larkum, M. E. Active cortical dendrites modulate
 perception. *Science* 354, 1587–1590 (2016).
- 11. Van Vugt, B. *et al.* The threshold for conscious report: Signal loss and response bias in visual
 and frontal cortex. *Science* 360, 537–542 (2018).
- 12. Wu, Y., Podvalny, E., Levinson, M. & He, B. J. Network mechanisms of ongoing brain activity's
- 667 influence on conscious visual perception. *Nat Commun* **15**, 5720 (2024).
- Martín-Signes, M., Chica, A. B., Bartolomeo, P. & Thiebaut de Schotten, M. Streams of
 conscious visual experience. *Commun Biol* 7, 908 (2024).

- 14. Bell, P. T. & Shine, J. M. Subcortical contributions to large-scale network communication.
- 671 *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews* **71**, 313–322 (2016).
- 15. Shine, J. M. *et al.* Human cognition involves the dynamic integration of neural activity and
- 673 neuromodulatory systems. *Nat Neurosci* **22**, 289–296 (2019).
- 16. Shine, J. M., Lewis, L. D., Garrett, D. D. & Hwang, K. The impact of the human thalamus on
- brain-wide information processing. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 24, 416–430 (2023).
- 676 17. Whyte, C. J., Redinbaugh, M. J., Shine, J. M. & Saalmann, Y. B. Thalamic contributions to the
 677 state and contents of consciousness. *Neuron* **112**, 1611–1625 (2024).
- 18. Jones, E. G. The thalamic matrix and thalamocortical synchrony. *Trends in Neurosciences* 24,
 595–601 (2001).
- 680 19. Jones, E. G. Synchrony in the Interconnected Circuitry of the Thalamus and Cerebral Cortex.
- 681 Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences **1157**, 10–23 (2009).
- 682 20. Usrey, W. M. & Alitto, H. J. Visual Functions of the Thalamus. *Annual Review of Vision Science*683 1, 351–371 (2015).
- Müller, E. J. *et al.* The non-specific matrix thalamus facilitates the cortical information processing
 modes relevant for conscious awareness. *Cell Reports* 42, 112844 (2023).
- 686 22. Redinbaugh, M. J. et al. Thalamus Modulates Consciousness via Layer-Specific Control of
- 687 Cortex. *Neuron* **106**, 66-75.e12 (2020).
- Vertes, R. P., Linley, S. B. & Rojas, A. K. P. Structural and functional organization of the midline
 and intralaminar nuclei of the thalamus. *Front. Behav. Neurosci.* 16, 964644 (2022).
- 690 24. Roy, D. S., Zhang, Y., Halassa, M. M. & Feng, G. Thalamic subnetworks as units of function. *Nat*691 *Neurosci* 25, 140–153 (2022).
- 692 25. Shine, J. M. The thalamus integrates the macrosystems of the brain to facilitate complex,
- adaptive brain network dynamics. *Progress in Neurobiology* **199**, 101951 (2021).
- 694 26. Huntenburg, J. M., Bazin, P.-L. & Margulies, D. S. Large-Scale Gradients in Human Cortical
- 695 Organization. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* **22**, 21–31 (2018).

- 696 27. Margulies, D. S. et al. Situating the default-mode network along a principal gradient of
- 697 macroscale cortical organization. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 113,
- 698 12574-12579 (2016).
- 28. Murphy, C. et al. Distant from input: Evidence of regions within the default mode network 699
- 700 supporting perceptually-decoupled and conceptually-quided cognition. NeuroImage 171, 393-
- 701 401 (2018).
- 702 29. Huang, Z., Mashour, G. A. & Hudetz, A. G. Propofol Disrupts the Functional Core-Matrix 703 Architecture of the Thalamus in Humans. *bioRxiv* 2024.01.23.576934 (2024)
- 704

doi:10.1101/2024.01.23.576934.

- 705 30. Müller, E. J. et al. Core and matrix thalamic sub-populations relate to spatio-temporal cortical 706 connectivity gradients. NeuroImage 222, 117224 (2020).
- 31. Aru, J., Suzuki, M., Rutiku, R., Larkum, M. E. & Bachmann, T. Coupling the State and Contents 707 708 of Consciousness. Front. Syst. Neurosci. 13, (2019).
- 709 32. Bastos, A. M. et al. Neural effects of propofol-induced unconsciousness and its reversal using 710 thalamic stimulation. eLife 10, e60824 (2021).
- 711 33. Honjoh, S. et al. Regulation of cortical activity and arousal by the matrix cells of the ventromedial 712 thalamic nucleus. Nat Commun 9, 2100 (2018).
- 713 34. Munn, B. R. et al. A thalamocortical substrate for integrated information via critical synchronous 714 bursting. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 120, e2308670120 (2023).
- 715 35. Shepherd, G. M. G. & Yamawaki, N. Untangling the cortico-thalamo-cortical loop: cellular pieces
- 716 of a knotty circuit puzzle. Nat Rev Neurosci 22, 389-406 (2021).
- 717 36. Takahashi, N. et al. Active dendritic currents gate descending cortical outputs in perception. Nat 718 Neurosci 23, 1277-1285 (2020).
- 719 37. Tasserie, J. et al. Deep brain stimulation of the thalamus restores signatures of consciousness 720 in a nonhuman primate model. Sci. Adv. 8, eabl5547 (2022).
- 38. Liu, X., Qiu, F., Hou, L. & Wang, X. Review of Noninvasive or Minimally Invasive Deep Brain 721
- 722 Stimulation. Front. Behav. Neurosci. 15, (2022).

39. Lozano, A. M. et al. Deep brain stimulation: current challenges and future directions. Nat Rev

724 *Neurol* **15**, 148–160 (2019).

- 40. Bystritsky, A. *et al.* A review of low-intensity focused ultrasound pulsation. *Brain Stimulation* 4,
 125–136 (2011).
- 41. Legon, W. et al. Transcranial focused ultrasound modulates the activity of primary
- somatosensory cortex in humans. Nat Neurosci 17, 322–329 (2014).
- 42. Rabut, C. *et al.* Ultrasound Technologies for Imaging and Modulating Neural Activity. *Neuron* **108**, 93–110 (2020).
- 43. Tufail, Y., Yoshihiro, A., Pati, S., Li, M. M. & Tyler, W. J. Ultrasonic neuromodulation by brain
 stimulation with transcranial ultrasound. *Nat Protoc* 6, 1453–1470 (2011).
- 44. Tyler, W. J. *et al.* Remote Excitation of Neuronal Circuits Using Low-Intensity, Low-Frequency
 Ultrasound. *PLoS ONE* 3, e3511 (2008).
- 45. Yoo, S.-S. *et al.* Focused ultrasound modulates region-specific brain activity. *NeuroImage* 56,
 1267–1275 (2011).
- 46. Tufail, Y. *et al.* Transcranial Pulsed Ultrasound Stimulates Intact Brain Circuits. *Neuron* 66, 681–
 694 (2010).
- 47. Darrow, D. P., O'Brien, P., Richner, T. J., Netoff, T. I. & Ebbini, E. S. Reversible neuroinhibition
- by focused ultrasound is mediated by a thermal mechanism. *Brain Stimulation* **12**, 1439–1447
 (2019).
- 48. Dell'Italia, J., Sanguinetti, J. L., Monti, M. M., Bystritsky, A. & Reggente, N. Current State of
- 743 Potential Mechanisms Supporting Low Intensity Focused Ultrasound for Neuromodulation.
- 744 Front. Hum. Neurosci. **16**, 872639 (2022).
- 49. Murphy, K. R. *et al.* Optimized ultrasound neuromodulation for non-invasive control of behavior
 and physiology. *Neuron* (2024) doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2024.07.002.
- 50. Blackmore, J., Shrivastava, S., Sallet, J., Butler, C. R. & Cleveland, R. O. Ultrasound
- 748 Neuromodulation: A Review of Results, Mechanisms and Safety. Ultrasound in Medicine &
- 749 *Biology* **45**, 1509–1536 (2019).

- 51. Fomenko, A., Neudorfer, C., Dallapiazza, R. F., Kalia, S. K. & Lozano, A. M. Low-intensity
- vultrasound neuromodulation: An overview of mechanisms and emerging human applications.

752 Brain Stimulation **11**, 1209–1217 (2018).

- 753 52. Tyler, W. J., Lani, S. W. & Hwang, G. M. Ultrasonic modulation of neural circuit activity. *Current*754 *Opinion in Neurobiology* **50**, 222–231 (2018).
- 53. Darmani, G. *et al.* Non-invasive transcranial ultrasound stimulation for neuromodulation. *Clinical Neurophysiology* **135**, 51–73 (2022).
- 757 54. Watson, A. B. & Pelli, D. G. Quest: A Bayesian adaptive psychometric method. *Perception & Psychophysics* 33, 113–120 (1983).
- 55. Badran, B. W. et al. Sonication of the anterior thalamus with MRI-Guided transcranial focused
- 760 ultrasound (tFUS) alters pain thresholds in healthy adults: A double-blind, sham-controlled
- 761 study. *Brain Stimulation* **13**, 1805–1812 (2020).
- 56. Van Essen, D. C. *et al.* The WU-Minn Human Connectome Project: An overview. *NeuroImage*80, 62–79 (2013).
- 57. Suzuki, M. & Larkum, M. E. General Anesthesia Decouples Cortical Pyramidal Neurons. *Cell*180, 666-676.e13 (2020).
- 58. Mukherjee, A., Lam, N. H., Wimmer, R. D. & Halassa, M. M. Thalamic circuits for independent
 control of prefrontal signal and noise. *Nature* 600, 100–104 (2021).
- 59. Smith, Y., Raju, D. V., Pare, J.-F. & Sidibe, M. The thalamostriatal system: a highly specific
 network of the basal ganglia circuitry. *Trends in Neurosciences* 27, 520–527 (2004).
- 60. Magrassi, L. *et al.* Results of a prospective study (CATS) on the effects of thalamic stimulation in
 minimally conscious and vegetative state patients. (2016) doi:10.3171/2015.7.JNS15700.
- 61. Schiff, N. D. et al. Behavioural improvements with thalamic stimulation after severe traumatic
- brain injury. *Nature* **448**, 600–603 (2007).
- 62. Schiff, N. D. et al. Thalamic deep brain stimulation in traumatic brain injury: a phase 1,
- randomized feasibility study. *Nat Med* **29**, 3162–3174 (2023).

- 63. Alkire, M. T., McReynolds, J. R., Hahn, E. L. & Trivedi, A. N. Thalamic Microinjection of Nicotine
- Reverses Sevoflurane-induced Loss of Righting Reflex in the Rat. *Anesthesiology* **107**, 264–272
 (2007).
- 64. Alkire, M. T., Asher, C. D., Franciscus, A. M. & Hahn, E. L. Thalamic Microinfusion of Antibody to
- 780 a Voltage-gated Potassium Channel Restores Consciousness during Anesthesia.
- 781 *Anesthesiology* **110**, 766–773 (2009).
- 65. Monti, M. M., Schnakers, C., Korb, A. S., Bystritsky, A. & Vespa, P. M. Non-Invasive Ultrasonic
 Thalamic Stimulation in Disorders of Consciousness after Severe Brain Injury: A First-in-Man
- 784 Report. Brain Stimulation 9, 940–941 (2016).
- 66. Legon, W., Bansal, P., Tyshynsky, R., Ai, L. & Mueller, J. K. Transcranial focused ultrasound
 neuromodulation of the human primary motor cortex. *Sci Rep* 8, 10007 (2018).
- 787 67. Xia, X. *et al.* Time course of the effects of low-intensity transcranial ultrasound on the excitability
 788 of ipsilateral and contralateral human primary motor cortex. *NeuroImage* 243, 118557 (2021).
- 68. Zadeh, A. K. et al. The effect of transcranial ultrasound pulse repetition frequency on sustained
- inhibition in the human primary motor cortex: A double-blind, sham-controlled study. *Brain Stimulation* **17**, 476–484 (2024).
- 69. Yu, K., Niu, X., Krook-Magnuson, E. & He, B. Intrinsic functional neuron-type selectivity of
- transcranial focused ultrasound neuromodulation. *Nat Commun* **12**, 2519 (2021).
- 70. Fomenko, A. *et al.* Systematic examination of low-intensity ultrasound parameters on human
 motor cortex excitability and behavior. *eLife* 9, e54497 (2020).
- 796 71. Murphy, K. R. *et al.* A tool for monitoring cell type–specific focused ultrasound neuromodulation
 797 and control of chronic epilepsy. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **119**,
- 798 e2206828119 (2022).
- 72. Fan, J. M. *et al.* Thalamic transcranial ultrasound stimulation in treatment resistant depression. *Brain Stimulation* **17**, 1001–1004 (2024).
- 801 73. Yang, C. et al. Medial prefrontal cortex and anteromedial thalamus interaction regulates goal-
- directed behavior and dopaminergic neuron activity. *Nat Commun* **13**, 1386 (2022).

- 803 74. Wu, D. *et al.* Human anterior thalamic stimulation evoked cortical potentials align with intrinsic
 804 functional connectivity. *Neuroimage* 277, 120243 (2023).
- 805 75. Xu, L. et al. Characterization of the Targeting Accuracy of a Neuronavigation-Guided
- 806 Transcranial FUS System In Vitro, In Vivo, and In Silico. *IEEE Transactions on Biomedical*
- 807 *Engineering* **70**, 1528–1538 (2023).
- 808 76. Mahdavi, K. D. *et al.* A pilot study of low-intensity focused ultrasound for treatment-resistant
 809 generalized anxiety disorder. *Journal of Psychiatric Research* 168, 125–132 (2023).
- 810 77. Mahoney, J. J. *et al.* Low-intensity focused ultrasound targeting the nucleus accumbens as a
- 811 potential treatment for substance use disorder: safety and feasibility clinical trial. *Front*.
- 812 *Psychiatry* **14**, (2023).
- 813 78. Yaakub, S. N. et al. Transcranial focused ultrasound-mediated neurochemical and functional
- 814 connectivity changes in deep cortical regions in humans. *Nat Commun* **14**, 5318 (2023).
- 815 79. Riis, T., Feldman, D., Mickey, B. & Kubanek, J. Controlled noninvasive modulation of deep brain
 816 regions in humans. *Commun Eng* 3, 1–12 (2024).
- 817 80. Quarato, C. M. I. *et al.* A Review on Biological Effects of Ultrasounds: Key Messages for
 818 Clinicians. *Diagnostics (Basel)* 13, 855 (2023).
- 819 81. Folloni, D. et al. Manipulation of Subcortical and Deep Cortical Activity in the Primate Brain
- Using Transcranial Focused Ultrasound Stimulation. *Neuron* **101**, 1109-1116.e5 (2019).
- 82. Qin, P. P. *et al.* The effectiveness and safety of low-intensity transcranial ultrasound stimulation:
- A systematic review of human and animal studies. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews* 156,
 105501 (2024).
- 83. Sato, T., Shapiro, M. G. & Tsao, D. Y. Ultrasonic Neuromodulation Causes Widespread Cortical
 Activation via an Indirect Auditory Mechanism. *Neuron* **98**, 1031-1041.e5 (2018).
- 84. Sarica, C. *et al.* Human Studies of Transcranial Ultrasound neuromodulation: A systematic
 review of effectiveness and safety. *Brain Stimulation* **15**, 737–746 (2022).
- 828 85. Tian, Y., Margulies, D. S., Breakspear, M. & Zalesky, A. Topographic organization of the human
- subcortex unveiled with functional connectivity gradients. *Nat Neurosci* 23, 1421–1432 (2020).

- 830 86. Thielscher, A., Antunes, A. & Saturnino, G. B. Field modeling for transcranial magnetic
- stimulation: A useful tool to understand the physiological effects of TMS? in 2015 37th Annual
- 832 International Conference of the IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society (EMBC) 222–
- 833 225 (2015). doi:10.1109/EMBC.2015.7318340.
- 834 87. Pichardo, S. BabelBrain: An Open-Source Application for Prospective Modeling of Transcranial
- 835 Focused Ultrasound for Neuromodulation Applications. *IEEE Transactions on Ultrasonics,*
- 836 *Ferroelectrics, and Frequency Control* **70**, 587–599 (2023).
- 837 88. Brainard, D. H. The Psychophysics Toolbox. Spatial Vis 10, 433–436 (1997).
- 838 89. Fahrenfort, J. J., Scholte, H. S. & Lamme, V. A. F. Masking Disrupts Reentrant Processing in
 839 Human Visual Cortex. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience* **19**, 1488–1497 (2007).
- 840 90. Rolls, E. T., Tovée, M. J. & Panzeri, S. The Neurophysiology of Backward Visual Masking:
 841 Information Analysis. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience* **11**, 300–311 (1999).
- 842 91. Stanislaw, H. & Todorov, N. Calculation of signal detection theory measures. *Behavior Research*843 *Methods, Instruments, & Computers* **31**, 137–149 (1999).
- 92. Tuzlukov, V. P. Signal Detection Theory. (Birkhäuser Boston, Boston, MA, 2001).
- 845 doi:10.1007/978-1-4612-0187-8.
- 93. Wickens, T. D. *Elementary Signal Detection Theory*. (Oxford Univ. Press, Oxford, 2002).
- 94. Macmillan, N. A. & Kaplan, H. L. Detection theory analysis of group data: Estimating sensitivity
 from average hit and false-alarm rates. *Psychological Bulletin* **98**, 185–199 (1985).
- 849 95. Smith, S. M. *et al.* Resting-state fMRI in the Human Connectome Project. *NeuroImage* 80, 144–
 850 168 (2013).
- 96. Glasser, M. F. *et al.* The minimal preprocessing pipelines for the Human Connectome Project. *NeuroImage* 80, 105–124 (2013).
- 853 97. Schaefer, A. et al. Local-Global Parcellation of the Human Cerebral Cortex from Intrinsic
- 854 Functional Connectivity MRI. Cerebral Cortex 28, 3095–3114 (2018).
- 98. Thomas Yeo, B. T. et al. The organization of the human cerebral cortex estimated by intrinsic
- functional connectivity. *Journal of Neurophysiology* **106**, 1125–1165 (2011).

857 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We express our sincere gratitude to our study coordinators, Amy McKinney and Aaron Ellis, for their invaluable contributions to participant recruitment, meticulous scheduling, and ensuring the smooth execution of this study. This work was supported by the National Institute of General Medical Sciences of the National Institutes of Health grants R01GM103894 (to A.G.H. and Z.H.). The content is solely the responsibility of the author and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.

864

865 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS STATEMENT

H.J. and Z.H. designed the study and set up the experimental apparatus. H.J. devised the template rescaling method and developed the code. H.J., P.F., and Z.H. conducted the experiments. H.J. analyzed the data, prepared the figures, and drafted the manuscript. Z.H. coanalyzed the data. Z.H., G.A.M. and A.G.H. interpreted the data and edited the manuscript.

870

871 COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT

872 The authors declare no competing interests.