

# Reaching between obstacles in spatial neglect and visual extinction

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**Abstract:** The aim of the present studies was to investigate whether 'perception' and 'visually guided action' could be dissociated with regard to two different aspects of the neglect syndrome. In the first study we tested a group of patients with neglect in two tasks, both within the same experimental setting. One task was to bisect a space between two objects, while the other required subjects to reach between the same pair of objects en route to a target area, so that the objects became potential obstacles to the reach. In the second study we tested a patient with visual extinction to double simultaneous stimulation, using a similar reaching task. Our aim was to determine whether visual awareness of obstacles in the workspace was necessary for successful navigation. In both studies we found evidence that reaching responses took normal account of the presence and location of obstacles on the left side, despite the tendency to neglect such left-sided information in more explicit perceptual tasks. We interpret both sets of results within a theoretical framework that identifies on-line visuomotor control with the occipito-parietal 'dorsal stream' (along with associated premotor and subcortical structures), and visual perception with the occipito-temporal 'ventral stream', plus associated temporo-parietal areas.

## Introduction

The neglect syndrome is a complex and multi-faceted group of symptoms (Heilman et al., 2002), some of which hang together better than others. The brain lesions that cause neglect symptoms vary widely, though there is a region around the parieto-temporal junction, particularly in the right hemisphere in cases of left-sided neglect, that is included in the majority of cases (Vallar, 1993; Vallar et al., 1994; Karnath et al., 2001). Perceptual extinction to double simultaneous stimulation is traditionally included as one of the cardinal symptoms of the neglect syndrome (Heilman et al., 2002), though it frequently

occurs in the absence of other signs of neglect, and several authors have argued that it may be causally independent (e.g. Milner, 1987, 1997). Extinction can be characterized as a lateral bias of spatial attention occurring in the context of a reduced attentional capacity (e.g. Driver et al., 1997), whereby a stimulus on the ipsilesional side briefly attracts attention to the exclusion of simultaneous (or near-simultaneous) stimuli located in more contralesional locations. Other symptoms of neglect, such as rightward errors in line bisection, and left-sided deficits in visual search tasks, are generally regarded as more central to the essence of spatial neglect, though theories as to their causation range widely.

The present chapter is concerned with exploring the phenomena of visual neglect and extinction from an unconventional starting point, by asking whether these conditions affect a person's ability to guide their hand to a desired location while avoiding intervening obstacles lying on the right and

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49 left of the workspace. The logic of this approach  
50 derives from the visual processing model set out  
51 by Milner and Goodale (1995). They argued that  
52 a distinction should be drawn between visual  
53 processing for perception and visual processing for  
54 action. According to the model, the former is  
55 embodied in the occipito-temporal ‘ventral stream’  
56 of cortical processing, while the latter is embodied  
57 in the occipito-parietal ‘dorsal stream’ (Glickstein  
58 and May, 1982; Ungerleider and Mishkin, 1982).  
59 Although all visual processing can ultimately be  
60 expressed in the form of overt behavior (and indeed  
61 that is why it exists) the dorsal stream is thought  
62 to interact directly with premotor cortex and  
63 brainstem structures to transform visual information  
64 into motor coordinates, while the ventral stream  
65 can only influence action indirectly. What the  
66 latter route loses in immediacy, of course, it gains  
67 in flexibility.

68 We have suggested (Milner and Goodale, 1995;  
69 Milner, 1997; Milner and McIntosh, 2002) that the  
70 temporo-parietal region of the right hemisphere that  
71 is most heavily implicated in the causation of neglect  
72 probably functions in good part as a high-level  
73 representational system that is fed principally by  
74 visual inputs arising from the ventral stream. The  
75 region can perhaps be regarded as the endpoint of the  
76 perceptual processing pathway, where the ever-  
77 changing contents of our visual consciousness are  
78 represented, operating under the flexible control of  
79 attentional and executive systems located in superior  
80 parietal and prefrontal regions (Driver and  
81 Mattingley, 1998; Driver and Vuilleumier, 2001). Of  
82 course there is no doubt that overt behavior is  
83 affected by neglect, not just the patient’s inner  
84 experience. Nonetheless, the hypothesis is that much  
85 of this abnormal behavior is driven by the indirect  
86 ‘perceptual’ route, rather than by the direct  
87 ‘visuomotor’ route. In other words, it is an expression  
88 of the distorted and disrupted perceptual experience  
89 of the patient rather than a direct result of a damaged  
90 visuomotor control system in the dorsal stream.  
91 Indeed, even some apparently pure motor manifesta-  
92 tions of neglect, such as biased ocular exploration in  
93 darkness (e.g. Hornak, 1992; Karnath et al., 1998),  
94 might derive from a distorted internal representation  
95 of external space. A strong prediction of this  
96 hypothesis is that, in many cases of neglect, visual

processing for direct action should be free from the  
pronounced perceptual biases that characterize the  
syndrome. It is this proposal that we aimed to test in  
the present studies.

It is necessary to distinguish this proposal of  
dissociated perceptual and visuomotor processing in  
neglect from the more familiar concept of a division  
between perceptual and motor contributions to  
neglect. Traditionally, there has been an assumption  
that the symptoms of neglect arise from spatial biases  
either in the processing of sensory input or in the  
programming of motor responses. A number of  
attempts have been made to distinguish between  
input- and output-related biases in neglect, though  
the validity of many of these studies has been  
questioned (see Mattingley and Driver, 1997 for a  
review). In contrast to this serial input–output  
distinction, however, the model of Milner and  
Goodale (1995) is concerned with a distinction  
between parallel visual processing systems, respec-  
tively underlying conscious perceptual awareness and  
automatic goal-directed actions. In relation to neglect  
symptoms, this model proposes that the expression of  
spatial biases in visual processing should depend  
upon the behavioral context in which the visual  
processing takes place. Specifically, the symptoms of  
neglect should be more often linked to the visual  
processing subserving perceptual awareness than to  
the processing underlying the guidance of automatic  
goal-directed actions.

Whether or not the visual guidance of simple  
direct actions in neglect patients is subject to lateral  
spatial biases has been a matter of some debate.  
Goodale et al. (1990) and Jackson et al. (2000)  
reported rightwardly curved trajectories in the  
pointing movements of recovered left neglect  
patients, and Harvey et al. (1994) observed a similar  
effect in right hemisphere damaged patients without  
neglect. Such effects, however, are not ubiquitous.  
For instance, Chieffi et al. (1993) observed no  
abnormal curvature in the pointing movements of  
a recovered left neglect patient to isolated visual  
targets. More importantly, these phenomena have  
not been substantiated by direct tests of patients with  
full left neglect. Perenin (1997) failed to observe any  
directional skewing of visually guided (open-loop)  
pointing movements among four neglect patients.  
Similarly, Karnath and colleagues (1997) reported

97 accurate open- and closed-loop visual guidance in five  
98 chronic neglect patients, both in terms of terminal  
99 accuracy and hand trajectories, a result replicated  
100 recently by Harvey et al. (2002) in four neglect  
101 patients performing a simple grasping task. On the  
102 basis of such findings, Karnath et al. (1997) have  
103 argued that ipsilaterally curved movement trajec-  
104 tories are not characteristic of patients with neglect,  
105 although they may be characteristic of optic ataxia  
106 (Perenin, 1997).

107 The evidence for a systematic spatial bias in the  
108 visually guided actions of neglect patients is therefore  
109 not strong. However, at least two published studies  
110 have claimed to observe specifically visuomotor  
111 manifestations of neglect. Behrmann and Meegan  
112 (1998) required six patients with left visual neglect  
113 to reach for a target LED, presented alone or  
114 simultaneous with a distractor LED, with target  
115 and distractor distinguished by color. Like normal  
116 subjects, neglect patients were slower to initiate a  
117 response to any target that was accompanied by a  
118 distractor but, compared to controls, they had an  
119 increased RT cost for a distractor on the right and a  
120 reduced cost for a distractor on the left. Behrmann  
121 and Meegan concluded that information from the  
122 neglected side must be processed minimally, if at all,  
123 in the visuomotor domain. However, we suggest that  
124 it is misleading to portray this effect as visuomotor,  
125 since conscious perceptual discrimination of the  
126 target from any distractor would be a necessary  
127 prerequisite for selecting which stimulus to respond  
128 to in the task. Thus, the asymmetrical influence of left  
129 and right-sided distractors is most likely to reflect a  
130 difficulty in choosing the left stimulus in the presence  
131 of the irrelevant stimulus on the right, irrespective of  
132 what response has to be made to the target. An  
133 accentuated influence of right-sided distractors has  
134 also been reported for a recovered left neglect patient  
135 performing a grasping task (Chieffi et al., 1993).  
136 Again, however, it is unclear whether this reflects  
137 unbalanced visuomotor processing, or interference  
138 with the perceptual discrimination of the target from  
139 the distractor object.

140 A more direct strategy to assess the normality of  
141 visuomotor processing in neglect is to compare  
142 performance between tasks where the stimuli are  
143 matched as closely as possible, but the mode of  
144 response differs. Several studies have already

employed this general strategy to investigate reaching  
and grasping in neglect. Robertson et al. (1995, 1997)  
found that neglect patients showed significantly less  
bisection error when asked to pick up a rod at its  
midpoint than when asked only to point to the rod's  
midpoint. They argued that the pointing task  
reflected disordered perception in their patients, but  
that reaching to grasp was an action driven more  
directly by the dorsal than the ventral stream, thus  
enabling an improvement in bisection accuracy. In  
a similar vein, Pritchard et al. (1997) found that a  
neglect patient (E.C.) was able to calibrate her finger-  
thumb grip aperture accurately when reaching to  
grasp different sized cylinders, with no asymmetry in  
grip size between target locations on the two sides  
of visual space. Yet when asked to indicate her  
perceived size of the cylinders, she consistently  
underestimated them when they were located on her  
left as compared with her right side. Later studies  
with groups of neglect patients have replicated this  
symmetrical grasping behavior (Harvey et al., 2002;  
McIntosh et al., 2002), though there was no direct  
demonstration in those papers that the cylinders were  
perceived as having different sizes on the two sides of  
space.

In the present paper we report a series of studies  
aimed at assessing the visuomotor processing under-  
lying simple reaching movements in neglect. In the  
first study, we asked neglect patients to perform two  
tasks, both involving the presentation of two upright  
cylindrical stimuli, whose locations varied from  
trial to trial. In the 'bisection' task, the patient was  
asked to judge the midpoint between the two  
cylinders and to place their finger at that location.  
In the 'reaching' task, the patient was asked to move  
the hand rapidly from a start point to touch a 'target  
zone' located beyond the two objects. This second  
task was designed to be a simple act of reaching  
under direct visual control, with an implicit require-  
ment that the reach needs to be executed so as to  
minimize the risk of collision with either cylinder. The  
conceptual similarity between these two tasks is that  
they both require the subject to take account of the  
location of the cylinders on the left and right  
simultaneously. In one situation, this demand is part  
of the explicit spatial analysis underlying a bisection  
response. In the other, it arises implicitly in  
computing the optimal spatial path for a visually

145 guided reaching movement. Preliminary data on  
 146 these tasks have been presented already (Milner and  
 147 McIntosh, 2002). We found good evidence in this  
 148 experiment for a dissociation between the two tasks:  
 149 most of the patients behaved like healthy controls in  
 150 the reaching task, though they showed asymmetrical  
 151 behavior when attempting to make explicit bisection  
 152 responses.

153 In other words, we found that most neglect  
 154 patients were able to take a potential obstacle on the  
 155 left as fully into account as one located on the right  
 156 when reaching between them. However these results  
 157 do not of course demonstrate that such obstacle  
 158 avoidance can take place even when there is no  
 159 conscious perception of the left obstacle. After all,  
 160 there was no restriction of viewing time, and no  
 161 independent evidence that the patients were unaware  
 162 of the presence of the left-side object. We therefore  
 163 conducted a single-case study in which we attempted  
 164 to address this question. We tested a patient (V.E.)  
 165 with persistent visual extinction who, under appropriate  
 166 conditions, would often report seeing only the  
 167 right stimulus when in fact a left stimulus was present  
 168 as well. Again using a reaching task, we assessed  
 169 whether his awareness or unawareness of the left  
 170 object, when two objects were present, affected the  
 171 trajectories taken by his hand. Normal subjects vary  
 172 their reaches systematically according to the presence  
 173 of a left-alone, right-alone, or bilateral pair of  
 174 objects. Our question was whether V.E. would show  
 175 these same phenomena, even when he did not 'see' the  
 176 obstacle on the left — or would his reaches on such  
 177 'unaware' trials be more similar to those he made  
 178 when there literally was only one object, located on  
 179 the right? Our data indicate that a failure to 'see' an  
 180 obstacle, due to visual extinction, does not necessarily  
 181 compromise the ability to process the location of that  
 182 obstacle in order to avoid it when reaching.

### 185 Experiment 1: Reaching and bisection in neglect

187 Twelve patients with left visual neglect following  
 188 unilateral right hemisphere stroke, and ten age-  
 189 matched controls, took part in this experiment. All  
 190 patients displayed neglect on three or more of five  
 191 standard diagnostic tests. Full details of the patients  
 192 can be found in McIntosh et al. (submitted, a).

Subjects were seated in front of a 60 cm square white stimulus board depicted in Fig. 1, with the right index finger placed at the start position. Two dark gray cylinders (24.5 cm tall and 3.5 cm in diameter) could be fixed into the board, one to either side of the midline, at a depth of 25 cm with respect to the start position, and 20 cm in front of a 5 cm deep gray strip that spanned the far edge of the board. Each cylinder could occupy one of two possible locations, with its inside edge either 8 cm or 12 cm away from the midline. The factorial combination of these four locations thus created four stimulus configurations. Each patient performed two different tasks on this stimulus board, with the order of tasks alternating between subjects within each group. All responses were recorded by sampling the position of a magnetic marker attached to the nail of the right index finger,

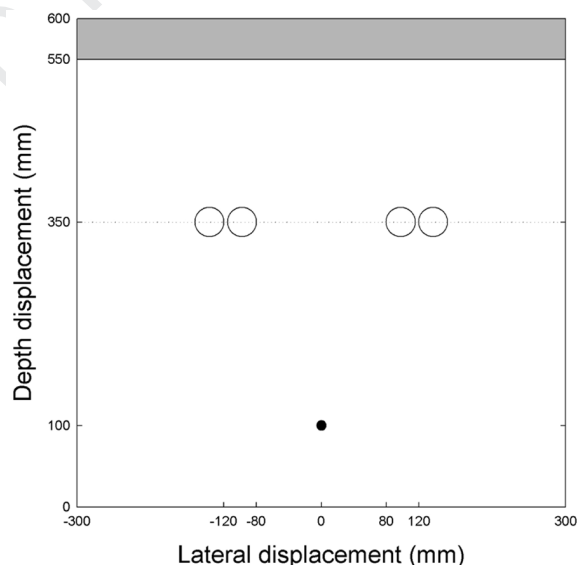


Fig. 1. Plan view of the apparatus used in Experiment 1. Cylinders were always presented in pairs, one on the left and one on the right of the midline. The open circles show their possible locations, with inside edges 8 and 12 cm from the midline. Each trial began with the subject's right index finger resting on the start position (black dot). In the bisection task, the subject was requested to place their finger midway between the two cylinders, and the dependent measure was the lateral position of the response with respect to middle of the stimulus board. In the reaching task, the subject was instructed to reach out and touch the gray strip as fast as possible. The dependent measure was the lateral position of the right index finger as it crossed the virtual line joining the two cylinder locations (dotted line).

at a frequency of 86.1 Hz (Minibird, Ascension Technology Ltd.). Full methodological details can be found elsewhere (McIntosh et al., submitted, a).

In the *bisection* task, the subject was asked to place their right index finger midway between the two cylinders. The subject was told that this was a test of 'accuracy of judgment', and that an unlimited time was available for each response. On each trial, the subject was allowed to adjust their finger position until satisfied that it was exactly midway between the cylinders. The position of the marker attached to the index finger was then sampled for 1 s. The dependent measure was the average lateral position (P) of the finger marker, with respect to the midline of the stimulus board, during this 1-s period. Each subject made 48 bisection responses, with each of the four stimulus configurations presented 12 times in a fixed pseudo-random order.

In the *reaching* task, the subject received the instruction 'On the go signal, reach out and touch the gray strip as quickly as you can', and was told that this was a test of 'speed of movement'. Prior to the task, they were informed that, whenever a cylinder was present, there would be one on the left and one on the right, and that they should pass their hand between the two cylinders, rather than around the outside edge of the board. The presence of the cylinders was not otherwise mentioned. Each reaching response was recorded in full, and the dependent measure was the lateral position (P) of the index finger marker as it crossed the virtual line joining the

two cylinder locations (the exact value of P was estimated by linear interpolation). Each subject made 60 reaches, 12 for each of the four cylinder configurations, and 12 in which no cylinder was present on the board, in a fixed pseudo-random order. The 12 trials with no cylinder in place were included to check for any systematic reaching biases when the response was not constrained by potential obstacles. An independent *t*-test (corrected for unequal variances) performed on these responses alone found no difference between the groups [ $t(13) = 0.59, P = 0.57$ ], with both groups passing on average slightly to the left of the board midline. This constant bias is unsurprising, since the marker from which responses were recorded was attached to the right index finger and was thus on the left side of the hand in its palm-down reaching posture. These no-cylinder trials were excluded from all further analyses.

Figure 2 shows the group mean responses for each stimulus configuration in each task. A repeated measures ANOVA was performed with the within-subjects factors of task (bisection, reaching), left cylinder location (near, far) and right cylinder location (near, far), and the between-subjects factor of group (control, neglect). Overall, the neglect group responded slightly further rightwards than the controls in the bisection task, and slightly further leftwards than controls in the reaching task, as reflected in a significant interaction of task by group [ $F(1, 20) = 6.67, P = 0.02$ ]. Due to the presence of this interaction, and a significant three-way interaction of

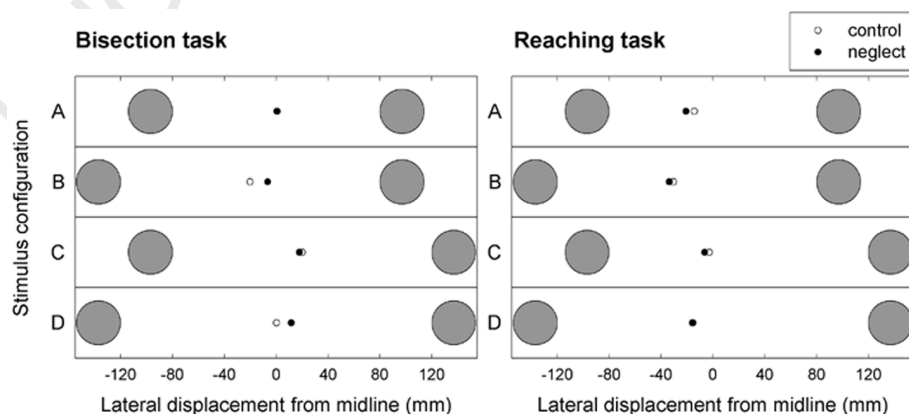


Fig. 2. Experiment 1: Mean responses in the bisection task (left) and the reaching task (right). The dark gray circles depict the stimulus cylinders.

241 task by group by left cylinder location [ $F(1,20)=$   
 242 20.03,  $P<0.001$ ], subsequent ANOVAs were con-  
 243 ducted for each task separately.

244 For the bisection task, the factor of subject group  
 245 was not significant [ $F(1,20)=1.39$ ,  $P=0.25$ ]. Thus,  
 246 although the neglect group bisected slightly further  
 247 rightwards than controls, this tendency was not  
 248 reliable at the group level. This was to be expected  
 249 from previous evidence that the typical rightward line  
 250 bisection errors of neglect patients tend to be reduced  
 251 or eliminated when gaps are presented instead of lines  
 252 (e.g. Bisiach et al., 1996; McIntosh et al., in press).  
 253 However, the mere lack of an overall rightward bias  
 254 amongst neglect patients does not imply that their  
 255 bisection behavior was normal in terms of its  
 256 dependence of the locations of the left and the right  
 257 cylinders. Although the main effects of the left  
 258 cylinder location [ $F(1,20)=224.42$ ,  $<0.001$ ] and the  
 259 right cylinder location [ $F(1,20)=351.63$ ,  $<0.001$ ]  
 260 were robust, a significant interaction of left cylinder  
 261 location by subject group [ $F(1,20)=55.82$ ,  $<0.001$ ]  
 262 indicated that the responses of neglect patients were  
 263 far less influenced by the location of the left cylinder  
 264 than were the responses of the control subjects. In  
 265 Fig. 2, this effect is reflected in the conspicuous  
 266 differences between the groups for stimulus config-  
 267 urations B and D of the bisection task. The control  
 268 subjects moved their bisection point appropriately  
 269 (by about 20 mm) when the left cylinder was moved  
 270 from the near to the far location, but the neglect  
 271 patients were less affected by this change. In the  
 272 reaching task, by contrast, both the neglect patients  
 273 and the controls shifted their reaching trajectories  
 274 symmetrically when either cylinder moved between  
 275 near and far locations (Fig. 2, right). Accordingly,  
 276 the analysis of the reaching data found robust  
 277 main effects of left cylinder location [ $F(1,20)=$   
 278 78.68,  $<0.001$ ] and right cylinder location [ $F(1,20)=$   
 279 131.36,  $<0.001$ ], and these effects did not interact  
 280 with the factor of subject group.

281 In summary, the reaching responses of both  
 282 groups were sensitive to the locations of the cylinders  
 283 on either side of space, but the bisection responses of  
 284 the neglect group were specifically insensitive to the  
 285 location of the left cylinder. This pattern can be most  
 286 clearly appreciated if we visualize the data in terms of  
 287 the ‘weights’ given to the left and right cylinders in  
 288 determining the responses. As we have described

elsewhere (McIntosh et al., in preparation), it is  
 possible to analyze bisection data in a way that  
 emphasizes the dependence of the response position  
 (P) on the locations of the left endpoint (L) and the  
 right endpoint (R), provided that these endpoint  
 locations have been manipulated independently.  
 Whenever L or R changes by some amount (40 mm  
 in this experiment), P will also change by some  
 amount:  $dP_L$  and  $dP_R$ , respectively. The values of  
 $dP_L$  and  $dP_R$  can be considered to reflect the ‘weight’  
 given to either endpoint in determining the response.  
 In a series of line bisection experiments, we have  
 found that neglect patients invariably accord a  
 lower weight to the left endpoint ( $dP_L$ ) than to the  
 right endpoint ( $dP_R$ ); this may be true even for  
 patients who do not produce mean rightward  
 bisection errors.

Figure 3 represents the data from Fig. 2 in terms  
 of the mean weights,  $dP_L$  and  $dP_R$ , given to the left  
 and right cylinders (i.e. how much the response shifts  
 as a function of 40 mm shift of one or the other  
 cylinder). As the left half of the figure illustrates, the  
 control subjects were equally attentive to the location  
 of the left and the right cylinders in making their  
 bisection responses, producing similar values of  $dP_R$   
 and  $dP_L$  (approximately 20 mm). In other words, the  
 controls adjusted their bisection responses by  
 approximately half of the distance by which the  
 cylinders shifted. The neglect patients, however, had  
 values of  $dP_L$  that were dramatically lower than those  
 of  $dP_R$ , just as we have found in comparable analyses  
 of line bisection data (McIntosh et al., in prepara-  
 tion). This effect was present in all twelve patients (see  
 Fig. 4), despite the fact that five patients had mean  
 bisection errors that were leftward or zero. A very  
 different picture is apparent from the right half of  
 Fig. 3, where the results for the reaching task are  
 presented. The values of  $dP_R$  and  $dP_L$  are more  
 similar across the neglect group as a whole (with two  
 notable exceptions: see Fig. 4), indicating that the  
 point of transection was more evenly determined by  
 the locations of the cylinders on the left and right. It  
 thus appears that task demands may greatly  
 modulate the expression of neglect: the patients  
 take normal account of the location of the left  
 cylinder when making a speeded reaching movement,  
 but fail to do so when making an explicit bisection  
 response.

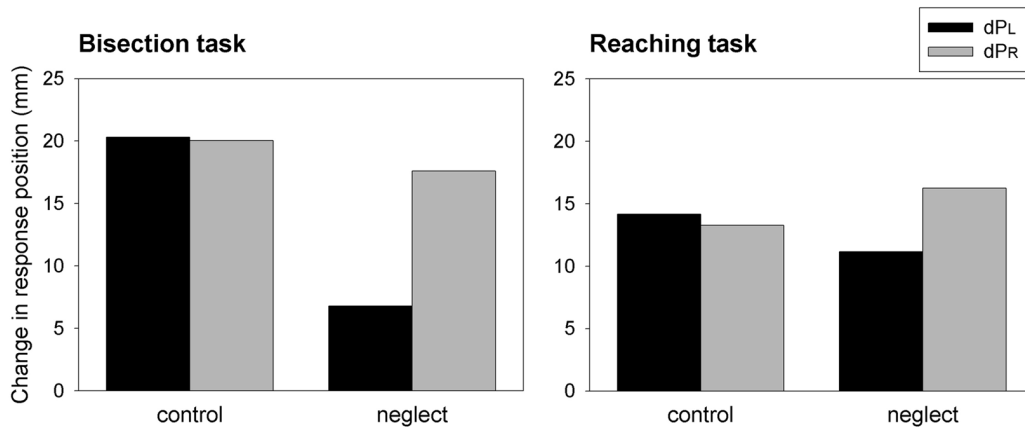


Fig. 3. Experiment 1: The mean change in response induced by a 40 mm shift in the location of the left cylinder ( $dP_L$ ) and right cylinder ( $dP_R$ ) in each task.

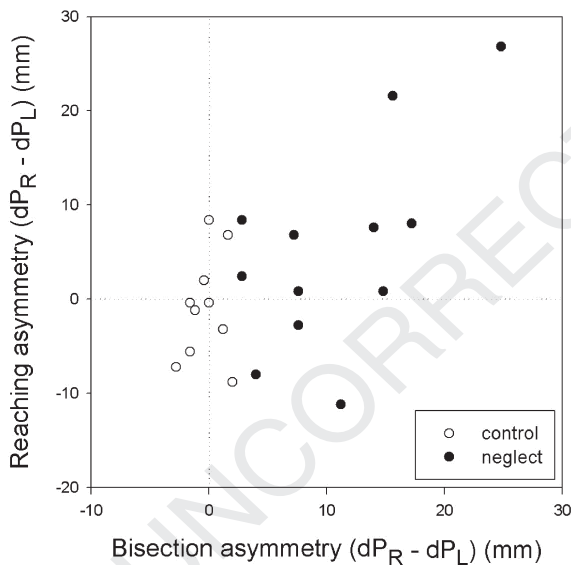


Fig. 4. Experiment 1: A plot comparing the asymmetries found for each subject in the influence (weighting) of the two cylinders ( $dP_R - dP_L$ ), between the reaching task and the bisection task.

### Discussion of Experiment 1

In this experiment, the *reaching* responses of both groups were similarly sensitive to the locations of the cylinders on either side of space, but the bisection responses of the neglect group were peculiarly insensitive to the location of the left cylinder. We

have concluded that neglect patients make normal use of spatial information from the left side in programming a fast reaching response, information that they fail to take into account when making a more explicit bisection judgment. However, this broad conclusion is subject to a caveat. Figure 3 shows that even in the reaching task there is a qualitative (though nonsignificant) trend toward a reduced influence of the left cylinder relative the right cylinder. This seems to result from the fact that while most patients show the group dissociation between the two tasks, some do not.

This individual variation within the neglect group is illustrated in Fig. 4, in which the magnitude of asymmetry between the weightings of the left and right cylinders ( $dP_R - dP_L$ ) for the reaching and bisection tasks are co-plotted as a scattergram. All neglect patients have a positive asymmetry in the bisection task, giving a higher weight to the right cylinder than to the left, and there is no overlap with the control group. In the reaching task, there is considerable overlap between groups, but there are nonetheless two clear instances of an abnormally positive asymmetry within the neglect group. Indeed, the group trend toward a reduced influence for the left cylinder in the reaching task (Fig. 3) is driven very substantially by the behavior of the two patients in the upper right-hand corner of Fig. 4. These two patients show a comparably strongly positive asymmetry, reflecting a reduced influence of the left

337 cylinder, in both tasks. In these two patients at least,  
338 there is no dissociation between neglect for the  
339 reaching and bisection tasks. It may be that their  
340 similar values of ( $dP_R - dP_L$ ) on the two tasks reflect  
341 the same underlying deficit, causing a reduced  
342 sensitivity to the left cylinder location in both tasks.  
343 However it is also possible that the lesions were  
344 simply more extensive in these two patients, causing a  
345 disruption of mechanisms of visuomotor attention as  
346 well as those of perceptual integration (see General  
347 Discussion). Certainly these were two of the most  
348 severe cases of neglect in our group, as indicated by  
349 screening tasks.

350 Excluding these two patients, Experiment 1  
351 provides a clear example of a dissociation between  
352 perception and action, in that all of our other patients  
353 took good account of the location of the left-sided  
354 cylinder during a reaching task, but failed to do so  
355 when making a bisection judgment. Of course the  
356 bisection judgment in itself required the patient to  
357 make an action, but this was a very different kind  
358 of action from reaching between the cylinders to a  
359 location beyond them. The bisection response was an  
360 act of communication: a form of ostensive behavior,  
361 whereby the patient was telling us what he or she  
362 perceived to be the midpoint of the space between the  
363 two cylinders on each trial. In contrast, the reaching  
364 task required the patient only to avoid colliding with  
365 the cylinders while moving the hand between and  
366 beyond them. Such successful obstacle avoidance  
367 clearly required taking into account the location of  
368 both cylinders, and this was almost universally  
369 achieved by the patients, as shown by their high  
370  $dP_L$  values in the reaching task. Yet, of course, our  
371 data do not allow us to claim that our neglect patients  
372 were necessarily unaware of the left-sided cylinder  
373 during the reaching and bisection tasks. In fact it is  
374 clear that even during the bisection task, most of  
375 them did pay some attention to it, as shown by the  
376 fact that their values of  $dP_L$  were generally greater  
377 than zero (though always smaller than their  $dP_R$   
378 values). This is not too surprising, since there was no  
379 restriction of the time available for subjects to view  
380 the stimulus array, and no attempt to restrict their  
381 eye movements. We sought clearer evidence on this  
382 specific question of the role of visual awareness in  
383 obstacle avoidance by studying a patient with visual  
384 extinction to double simultaneous stimulation.

## Experiment 2: Obstacle avoidance in visual extinction

We have now undertaken a series of studies of a 75-year-old patient, V.E., who experiences left-sided visual extinction, due to a predominantly parieto-temporal infarct in the right hemisphere (based on CT and MRI scans). He shows no visual field defect on Tübingen perimetry, and no hemispatial neglect (though neglect had been apparent acutely following his stroke, some 12 months prior to our study). To assess the influence of extinguished stimuli on V.E.'s visually guided actions, we have taken advantage of the normal tendency for reaching movements to veer away from potential obstacles in the workspace (Tresilian, 1998). Normal reaches tend to swerve leftwards away from an obstacle on the right, rightwards away from an obstacle on the left, and the bilateral presence of obstacles induces intermediate reaching trajectories. Our question was whether V.E. would also produce such intermediate reaching trajectories when obstacles were present bilaterally, and whether this ability would depend on an explicit awareness of both obstacles. To address this question, we recorded V.E.'s reaching responses in the presence of obstacles, whilst collecting a verbal report of his awareness of the obstacles on each trial. By time-limiting V.E.'s view of the stimulus array, we were able to ensure that he correctly reported a single object located on either side of space, but failed to report the left object (i.e. showed extinction) on about half the trials in which both objects were present. We reasoned that if extinguished stimuli are able to influence his reaches, then he should make intermediate reaches irrespective of whether he reports seeing the left obstacle. If, however, extinguished stimuli do *not* influence his reaches then, whenever he fails to report an obstacle on the left, his trajectories should show a typical leftward swerve as if there was only an obstacle present on the right.

Experiment 2.1 employed a simple stimulus setup in which V.E. had to reach and touch a target zone in the presence of potential obstacles, which in this case were thin poles, 15 cm high. There were two obstacle locations, one on either side of the midline, allowing room for the hand to pass through, but making it necessary to pay full regard to any poles present in order to make a smooth and uninterrupted reach

(see Fig. 5). V.E. was required to fixate centrally at the beginning of each trial and, following stimulus exposure, to reach out and touch the target zone as rapidly as possible and then to report verbally any poles that he had seen. A pair of liquid crystal glasses limited stimulus exposure to 500 ms. Poles were presented bilaterally or unilaterally, with bilateral trials twice as frequent as left-unilateral or right-unilateral trials. Trials cycled through a pseudo-random schedule until at least 20 bilateral trials had been collected in which V.E. reported both poles, and at least 20 in which he reported only the right pole. Since V.E. never initiated his reaching movements less than 835 ms after stimulus onset, he executed all reaches without visual feedback (visually ‘open-loop’). Reaches were recorded by sampling the position of a marker attached to the right index finger at a frequency of 86.1 Hz, again using the Minibird motion analysis system. Full methodological

details can be found elsewhere (McIntosh et al., submitted, b).

As Fig. 5 illustrates, the spatial path of the hand shifted according to the poles that were present, reflecting a strategic minimization of the risk of collision. The overall influence of the right pole was more pronounced than that of the left pole. This pattern is common in normal subjects (McIntosh et al., submitted, b) and presumably reflects the fact that, when responding with the right arm, objects on the right are more obstructive than those on the left. More interestingly, however, V.E.’s performance on the bilateral-pole trials was totally independent of his verbal report: there was no significant difference between the ‘extinction’ and ‘non-extinction’ reaching trajectories at the point where they crossed the line joining the two poles. A one-way ANOVA performed on the lateral displacement of the index finger at the point crossing the virtual line joining the two pole locations was highly significant [ $F(3, 85) = 140.79$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ]. Scheffé post hoc tests found reliable differences ( $P < 0.001$ ) between all conditions except between the two sets of bilateral-pole trials ( $P = 0.73$ ). In other words, V.E. avoided the obstacle on the left regardless of whether or not he reported its presence verbally. His reaching trajectories when he failed to report the left pole on bilateral-pole trials were not at all like those he made when there really was only an obstacle on the right present. This suggests that V.E. was implicitly processing the left obstacle’s presence and location: he denied awareness of the left pole on many trials, and yet his reaching behavior on those same trials showed that the presence and location of the left pole had been fully taken into account.

Nonetheless, a lingering doubt remained. After all, V.E. did not give us his verbal report until after he had completed his reach on each trial. A skeptic might suggest that he somehow ‘forgot’ that he had seen the left obstacle, having first processed it for motor guidance. We therefore ran a second experiment (Experiment 2.2), in which we asked V.E. again to report what he saw on a trial-by-trial basis, but this time under two different conditions. In the ‘motor-verbal’ (MV) condition, he was asked (as before) to ‘touch the gray strip as quickly as possible, then report which poles you saw’. In the ‘verbal-motor’ (VM) condition, however, he was asked to

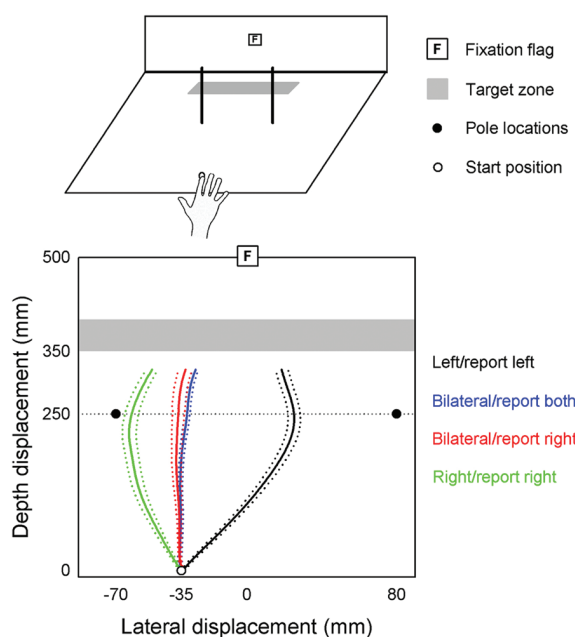


Fig. 5. Experiment 2.1: The upper panel shows a schematic diagram of the experimental set-up. V.E. fixated the flag (F) at the start of each trial. Following stimulus exposure, he reached out rapidly to touch the target zone and then reported any poles that he had seen. The lower panel shows spatially averaged trajectories in each condition (dotted lines indicate standard errors), where the zero lateral coordinate is aligned with V.E.’s mid-sagittal axis.

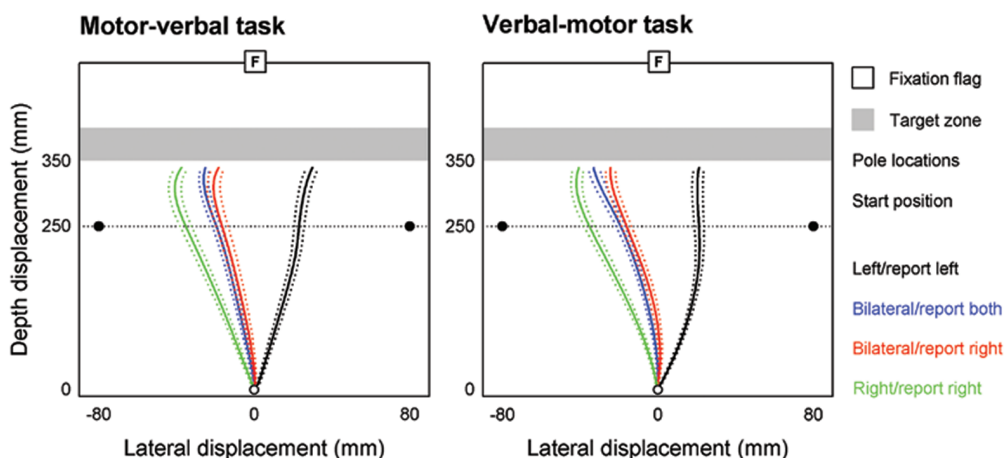


Fig. 6. Experiment 2.2: V.E.'s spatially averaged trajectories in the motor-verbal (MV) and verbal-motor (VM) tasks (dotted lines indicate standard errors).

‘shout out which poles you see as quickly as possible, then touch the gray strip’. Identical results were obtained in the two temporal order conditions: V.E.’s reaches took full account of any pole on the left, regardless of whether or not that pole was reported (Fig. 6). For the MV task, a one-way ANOVA performed on the lateral displacement of the index finger at the point crossing the virtual line joining the two pole locations was highly significant [ $F(3, 109) = 68.14, P < 0.001$ ]. Scheffé post-hoc tests found reliable differences ( $P < 0.001$ ) between all conditions except between the two sets of bilateral trials ( $P = 0.90$ ). A similar main effect was found for the VM task [ $F(3, 113) = 75.28, P < 0.001$ ]. Scheffé post-hoc tests again found reliable differences ( $P < 0.002$ ) between all conditions bar the two sets of bilateral trials ( $P = 0.89$ ). The MV result thus replicated Experiment 2.1, whilst the VM result confirms that the dissociation between verbal awareness and reaching behavior depends on the two different response modes, and not on their order of occurrence. It is notable that there was now no tendency for V.E.’s trajectories on bilateral trials where he reported only the right pole to be shifted slightly toward those when there really was only the right pole present. In fact the reverse was the case, suggesting that the trend in Experiment 2.2 (Fig. 5) was not a real one. In our view, this series of experiments establishes beyond reasonable doubt that V.E. was

able to use unconscious visual information just as effectively as conscious information in the guidance of his actions.

### General discussion

The results of our first study, documenting a dissociation between perception and action in neglect, agree nicely with those of Robertson et al. (1995), who contrasted picking up a rod at its midpoint with pointing to the rod’s midpoint. In effect we have provided evidence for the generality of this phenomenon by replacing the rod with an empty gap. At a general level, these dissociations between perception and action in neglect are reminiscent of the examples of preserved visuomotor control observed in the visual-form agnostic patient D.F., in the face of dramatically impaired perceptual experience (Milner et al., 1991; Goodale et al., 1991). Indeed, we have long been aware at an informal level that D.F. has no difficulty in negotiating her way through a cluttered room. More recently we have observed this preserved ability in a formal test situation in which D.F. was asked to reach out to grasp an object which was flanked by an irrelevant object on the left or right (McIntosh et al., 2000). She was consistently found to adjust her trajectories appropriately to take account of the obstacles.

481 This parallel with D.F. encourages us to construct  
482 a hypothesis for explaining our neglect data in terms  
483 similar to those we have used to understand D.F.'s  
484 pattern of visual abilities and disabilities. On the basis  
485 of the known neural properties of the ventral and  
486 dorsal visual processing streams in the primate  
487 cortex, [Milner and Goodale \(1995\)](#) proposed that  
488 D.F. had lost her ability to process form for  
489 perception through damage to the ventral stream,  
490 but was still able to use her residual dorsal stream  
491 structures to process form for the purpose of  
492 visuomotor control. This hypothesis has now been  
493 dramatically confirmed by recent functional and  
494 structural MRI studies ([Culham, 2003, in press](#)) and  
495 [James et al., submitted](#)). These studies have revealed  
496 that the lateral occipital complex (LOC), generally  
497 believed to be equivalent to the inferotemporal area  
498 in the monkey's ventral stream, has been destroyed  
499 bilaterally in D.F. The posterior parietal region has  
500 also suffered some degeneration, but an area lying  
501 anteriorly in D.F.'s intraparietal sulcus, believed to  
502 correspond to area AIP in the monkey's dorsal  
503 stream, is still active during visual grasping, just as it  
504 is in healthy subjects.

505 Of course the lesions that cause hemispatial  
506 neglect are different from those that are present  
507 in D.F., but they are also very different from those  
508 that cause visuomotor problems such as optic  
509 ataxia ([Perenin 1997; Karnath et al., 2001](#)). As we  
510 mentioned in the Introduction, the lesions in neglect  
511 are typically located inferiorly, in the right parieto-  
512 temporal region, rather than in the superior parts of  
513 the parietal lobe. In contrast, it is in superior parietal  
514 regions, in and around the intraparietal sulcus, where  
515 lesions cause optic ataxia. This superior region thus,  
516 by analogy with the monkey data, appears to form a  
517 central part of the human homolog of the dorsal  
518 visual stream, a conclusion further supported by  
519 fMRI evidence ([Culham and Kanwisher, 2001;](#)  
520 [Culham, 2003 \(in press\)](#)).

521 Since neglect is almost by definition a disorder of  
522 perceptual awareness, we have therefore argued that  
523 the inferior parts of the right parietal lobe (and  
524 superior parts of the right temporal lobe) probably  
525 relate more closely to the ventral than to the dorsal  
526 stream ([Milner and Goodale, 1995](#)). [Of course, it is  
527 not claimed that activity in the ventral stream circuits  
528 is sufficient for visual awareness; indeed there is

evidence that even in patients with extinction  
unconscious stimuli can still elicit activation — at  
low levels — within the ventral stream ([Driver and  
Vuilleumier, 2001](#)). Presumably it is through such  
sub-optimal ventral activation that aspects of object  
perception and identification can still occur in the  
absence of conscious awareness (see review by  
[Merikle et al., 2001](#).)] Our present data are consistent  
with this broad idea: we may assume that most of our  
neglect patients will have a relatively intact dorsal  
stream enabling them to avoid obstacles normally,  
just as D.F. appears to do. However, most of them  
have suffered damage to areas in the right inferior  
parietal lobule and/or superior temporal gyrus, which  
we believe embody a system concerned with  
constructing and manipulating mental representa-  
tions of the spatial array ([Milner, 1997; Driver and  
Mattingley, 1998; Driver and Vuilleumier, 2001](#)).  
This damage evidently unbalances that system,  
causing the patients to attach reduced weightings to  
items on the contralesional side of the array when  
making perceptual judgments.

Our related studies of patient V.E. have taken us  
further, by establishing a novel form of unconscious  
processing of extinguished visual stimuli. Although  
V.E. was unaware of the presence of the left object on  
many of the bilateral-object trials, his reaches on  
those trials were influenced by the extinguished object  
to just the same extent as on 'aware' bilateral trials. It  
is important to note that V.E.'s brain damage lies in  
the right inferior parietal lobe and right temporal  
lobe. This damage is consistent with our view that  
these areas play an important role in determining the  
contents of our perceptual awareness. The lesion does  
not encroach on the superior parietal region around  
the intraparietal sulcus, so we may assume that the  
human homologue of the dorsal visual stream is  
unscathed. Indeed it seems likely that V.E.'s implicit  
processing of obstacle location reflects the sparing of  
this superior region.

But, of course, the superior parietal region is not  
only implicated in the visual guidance of movement.  
It also plays an important role in the control of  
visuospatial attention. This function seems to be most  
closely associated with systems that provide visual  
guidance for saccadic eye movements, particularly  
area LIP ([Rizzolatti et al., 1994; Goldberg et al.,  
2002](#)). This attentional control appears to operate

529 ‘top-down’ by modulating activity in the inferior  
 530 parietal region and occipito-temporal visual areas  
 531 (Corbetta et al., 2000; Hopfinger et al., 2000; Kastner  
 532 and Ungerleider, 2001; Yantis et al., 2002).

533 Such a multiplicity of areas involved in visual  
 534 attention makes it unsurprising that visual extinction  
 535 can result from a range of different lesion sites. For  
 536 example, although an early report by Posner et al.  
 537 (1984) reported a stronger ‘extinction-like effect’ in  
 538 the standard Posner spatial cuing paradigm at short  
 539 inter-stimulus intervals in patients with superior  
 540 rather than inferior parietal lesions, more recent  
 541 evidence from Friedrich et al. (1998) indicates that  
 542 lesions around the parieto-temporal junction are  
 543 more crucial. These results make sense in the context  
 544 of a modulatory pathway or pathways passing down  
 545 from the intraparietal sulcal region to the inferior  
 546 parietal and occipito-temporal regions. It is reason-  
 547 able to suppose that the pathological imbalance of  
 548 perceptual attention that constitutes extinction could  
 549 result from damage at any point in these pathways.

550 In the present context, where we have been at  
 551 pains to distinguish between visual processing for  
 552 perception and visual processing for action, it is  
 553 important to note that the attentional imbalance that  
 554 constitutes extinction is by definition one of attention  
 555 for perception, whereby the ipsilesional stimulus of  
 556 a pair consistently out-competes the contralesional  
 557 stimulus for entry into awareness. As V.E.’s case  
 558 shows, however, this can happen without a similar  
 559 imbalance in visuomotor attention (Rizzolatti et al.,  
 560 1994; Milner and Goodale, 1995), presumably by  
 561 virtue of V.E.’s bilaterally intact superior parietal  
 562 areas, including LIP. In contrast, if an extinction  
 563 patient’s lesion were to include such superior parietal  
 564 damage, then we would not expect visuomotor  
 565 attention to escape unscathed. In other words, we  
 566 would predict that the patient would not show the  
 567 spared obstacle avoidance that V.E. shows so  
 568 beautifully: instead, reaching trajectories on extin-  
 569 guished trials should look more like trials with only  
 570 a unilateral right obstacle present, and not at all  
 571 like unextinguished bilateral trials.

572 Our evidence for a neurological dissociation  
 573 between ‘visuomotor attention’ and ‘perceptual  
 574 attention’ provides direct support for a distinction  
 575 between these two concepts (e.g. Milner and  
 576 Goodale, 1995: p. 190). Milner and Goodale

suggested specifically that these two varieties of  
 visuospatial attention might take the form of  
 modulations of neural activity within the dorsal and  
 ventral visual streams, respectively. It is important to  
 emphasize that there has never been any suggestion  
 that these two kinds of attention would operate  
 independently in most normal circumstances. Both  
 functional MRI (Corbetta et al., 2000; Hopfinger  
 et al., 2000; Kastner and Ungerleider, 2001; Yantis  
 et al., 2002) and behavioral evidence (e.g. Schneider  
 and Deubel, 2002) now support the idea that the two  
 kinds of attention are normally closely coupled, and  
 agree with Milner (1995) proposal that the dorsal  
 stream takes the lead in co-ordinating the two. This  
 would make good sense for most everyday situations.  
 Our present findings indicate however that a ventrally  
 located lesion can have a direct unbalancing effect on  
 perceptual attention, without involving visuomotor  
 attention at all. Interestingly, if our speculations are  
 correct, the reverse should never occur: that is, it  
 should not be possible to find a case of ‘visuomotor  
 extinction’ in the absence of perceptual extinction.

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