

1 **Selective auditory attention modulates cortical responses to sound location change for**
2 **speech in quiet and in babble**

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25 **Abstract**

26 Listeners use the spatial location or change in spatial location of coherent acoustic cues to aid in auditory
27 object formation. From stimulus-evoked onset responses in normal-hearing listeners using
28 electroencephalography (EEG), we have previously shown measurable tuning to stimuli changing
29 location in quiet, revealing a potential window into cortical object formation. These earlier studies used
30 non-fluctuating, spectrally narrow stimuli, so it was still unknown whether previous observations would
31 translate to speech stimuli and whether responses would be preserved for stimuli in the presence of
32 background maskers. To examine the effects that selective auditory attention and interferers have on
33 object formation, we measured cortical responses to speech changing location in the free field with and
34 without background babble (+6 dB SNR) during both passive and active conditions. Active conditions
35 required listeners to respond to the onset of the speech stream when it occurred at a new location,
36 explicitly indicating yes or no to whether the stimulus occurred at a block-specific location either 30
37 degrees to the left or right of midline. In the aggregate, results show similar evoked responses to speech
38 stimuli changing location in quiet compared to babble background. However, the effect of the two
39 background environments diverges when considering the magnitude and direction of the location change,
40 in which there was a clear influence of change vector in quiet but not in babble. Therefore, consistent with
41 challenges associated with cocktail party listening, directed spatial attention can be shunted in the
42 presence of stimulus noise and likely leads to poorer use of spatial cues in auditory streaming.

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46 **Introduction**

47 Our ability to perceive auditory motion has been studied for over a century (1). Its relevance to
48 virtual and augmented auditory spaces and hearing device technologies has led to a resurgence in interest
49 in the last couple of decades. Psychophysically, listeners are able to detect a change in the spatial location
50 of a stimulus with as little as 1°-resolution at the front azimuth but perform worse for stimuli that change
51 location off-of-center (between 1.5° and 11.3° when the reference stimulus is at 60° and depending on the
52 center frequency and bandwidth; i.e., minimum audible angle [MAA]) (2, 3). For stimuli that move at a
53 fixed velocity, the smallest average arc to detect the movement (i.e., minimum audible movement angle
54 [MAMA]) (3, 4) tends to be greater than the MAA with poorer performance associated with faster
55 velocities. Neural imaging has also shown that responses to location changes are dependent on the reference
56 location and extent of a shift in the free field (5-7) or lateral position in the case of binaural stimuli over
57 headphones (8-11). Understanding the neural mechanisms associated with spatial hearing, auditory motion
58 perception, and selective attention offers unique opportunities to address fundamental challenges that
59 listeners with hearing loss, mainly older, face daily.

60 Natural acoustic environments often include dynamic sources in their relative location to the
61 listener. In the classic “cocktail party” (12) and other substantiations (13, 14), most normal-hearing listeners
62 are adept at following speech and other auditory objects to maximize communication goals and awareness
63 of potential threats. Much like visual attention, auditory attention relies on the ability to perceptually group
64 objects of which we can then decide to emphasize or ignore (15, 16). Many complex, sequential cognitive
65 processes are required to achieve this object-based auditory attention. The brain must first be able to form
66 distinct auditory objects based on common spectro-temporal properties of stimuli before segregating
67 between foreground and background (17). Over time, this streaming process is subject to top-down
68 modulatory effects of attention, which manifests as increased neural representation for sensory stimuli
69 features (referred to as sensory gain control) (18, 19). To successfully follow speech signals amid competing

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70 background stimuli, therefore, it is thought that the brain can attend to relevant signal channels both by
71 adding gain to encoding of relevant signals and “filtering out” the extraneous signals (20, 21).

72 In an earlier study, we investigated the effects of selective attention on an auditory event-related
73 potential (AERP) (22) evoked by narrowband noise stimuli that changed locations in the front horizontal
74 plane (7). Active attention to a distinct spatial location was predicted to yield sharper tuning to spatial
75 changes at or near the target location. The results of this previous study were consistent with sensory gain
76 control; however, the stimulus construct was far from what would be considered a “cocktail party,” and
77 therefore, it was unknown whether similar effects could be observed with more ecologically relevant
78 stimuli. It may be that such neural responses would be quite different for speech stimuli, and the addition
79 of energetic noise could potentially eliminate any evoked responses to spatial change. On the other hand, if
80 similar responses are indeed observable with and without background interferers, there is the potential to
81 use this objective measure as a conduit for measuring successful auditory object formation in complex
82 acoustic scenes.

83 The approach of the present study combines behavioral and electrophysiological measures to
84 investigate the dynamic modulation of sensory-evoked brain activity by spatial attention. If objects are
85 successfully formed, attention to a perceptual feature like location is presumed to modulate the neural
86 activity related to changes in that attended perceptual feature. A primary goal of the present study was to
87 evaluate the effect of attention on neural responses to a speech stream that changes azimuth in an
88 unpredictable manner. These experiments were designed to determine how response patterns differ between
89 attended versus unattended locations, with an interest in the effects of responses at both attended and
90 unattended locations. Due to the inherent challenges evident when acoustic scenes are complex, an
91 additional goal was to explore stimulus conditions, including speech-in-quiet (Experiment I) and speech-
92 in-babble (Experiment II), to better reflect real-world listening situations. The difference in effects between
93 an arbitrary signal (like noise), versus a speech stream was investigated while evaluating the ways in which
94 a favorable signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) affects neural responses to speech changing locations.

95 **Materials and Methods**

96 **Participants**

97 Participants included 18 adults (16 females) between the ages of 18 and 25 years of age (mean:
98 21.6) with audiometrically normal hearing (≤ 20 dB HL at octave frequencies between 250 and 8000 Hz).
99 Data collection was completed over the course of 3-4 visits lasting approximately 2 hours each in duration.
100 Exclusion from participating included any reported history of neurological dysfunction, middle ear disease,
101 or ear surgery. The Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) was administered to all participants to screen
102 for cognitive impairment, and all listeners had a passing score of at least 26 (23). All participants provided
103 written consent for study participation prior to testing, and all procedures were approved by the University
104 of South Florida Institutional Review Board. Participants were compensated for their time at an hourly rate.

105 **Stimulus presentation**

106 Target stimuli consisted of monosyllabic English words (2535 tokens) recorded from a male
107 speaker with 100-ms inter-stimulus intervals at 76 dB SPL. In Experiment I, stimuli were presented in quiet.
108 In Experiment II, stimuli were presented in multi-talker babble, consisting of eight turn-taking
109 conversations spoken in eight foreign languages at 70 dB SPL overall (+6 dB SNR; for more details on
110 target and background stimuli, see 24). Stimulus files (.wav) were loaded in MATLAB (MathWorks,
111 Natick, MA) at a 44.1 kHz sampling rate and presented in the free field. Digital-to-analog conversion was
112 performed by a 24ao (MOTU, Cambridge, MA) soundcard routed to three ne8250 amplifiers (Ashly Audio,
113 Webster, NY) to 24 possible Q100 loudspeakers (KEF, Maidstone, England) in the azimuthal plane (Figure
114 1a). Target stimuli could be presented from only one location at a time, at either $\pm 60^\circ$, $\pm 30^\circ$, or 0° azimuth
115 (checked boxes in Figure 1a) and switched to a random location with replacement every 2 seconds. Catch
116 trials were included at equal probability in which no change in location occurred. In Experiment II,
117 background babble was presented simultaneously from locations at $\pm 165^\circ$, $\pm 105^\circ$, $\pm 75^\circ$, and $\pm 15^\circ$ azimuth
118 (black boxes in Figure 1a). Figure 1b shows a 10-second example stimulus presentation for Experiment II

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119 with time on the x-axis and stimulus waveforms centered at their respective speaker location angle on the
120 y-axis.

121 [ENTER FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]

122 **Procedure**

123 Testing took place in a double-walled, sound-treated booth. Listeners sat in a height-adjustable
124 chair facing the arc of loudspeakers approximately 1 m away from the listener at ear level (Figure 1a).
125 Throughout testing, listeners were instructed to remain as still as possible and to maintain their head position
126 such that their nose was pointed towards the center speaker (0°), with monitoring conducted by the
127 experimenter through the sound booth window. To measure the effects of spatial attention, listeners were
128 either instructed to actively attend to one of two possible speaker locations, or they were told to watch a
129 silent video on a display in front of them during the audio presentation. In the active (Attend Left or Attend
130 Right) conditions, the corresponding speakers were marked visually by either a blue 'x' (Attend Left) or a
131 red 'o' (Attend Right). A touchscreen display was positioned near the participant's right hand with a user
132 interface (all participants were right-handed). The user interface was generated in MATLAB and consisted
133 of two buttons reading "Yes" and "No" in a horizontal row on the southeast location of the display. During
134 active attention conditions, the participants were told to respond every time that the target stimulus changed
135 positions with either a tap of a "Yes" button when the target moved to the location that they were attending
136 to (16% of trials) or "No" when the target moved to any other location (64% of trials). Only trials in which
137 the signal changed locations required a response from the participant. Catch trials (20% of trials) – those in
138 which the stimulus location had no change – were not meant to elicit a button press for target locations.
139 Except for the attention component (including the button press), active and passive conditions were
140 identical in stimulus presentation and environment. Blocks of listening, with self-paced breaks in between,
141 were 150 2-second trials.

142 **Electroencephalography (EEG)**

143 Continuous EEG was recorded using a Waveguard™ (ANT Neuro BV, Enschede, Netherlands)
144 elastic cap with 64 sintered AG/AgCl electrodes (International 10-20 electrode system). All electrode
145 impedances were below 10 k Ω , with digitization at 512 Hz and 24-bit precision. Ground was located at the
146 central forehead (AFz). All electrodes were initially referenced to the Cpz electrode. Recordings were made
147 through asalab™ acquisition software (ANT Neuro, Enschede, Netherlands), and triggering was controlled
148 using custom MATLAB scripts via the digital input/output stage of an RZ6 (System III, Tucker-Davis
149 Technologies, Alachua, FL).

150 Recordings were processed offline using the software suite Brainstorm (25), running within
151 MATLAB. Pre-processing of raw recordings consisted of band-pass filtering between 0.1 and 100 Hz (slope
152 of 48 dB/octave), notch filtering at 60 Hz and harmonics, automatic detection of eye blinks based on the
153 frontal electrodes (25), re-referencing to the average, and artifact removal based on spatial-source
154 projections (SSP) (26, 27). The SSP approach is very similar to an independent component analysis that
155 performs a spatial decomposition of the signals to identify the topographies of an idiosyncratic event, such
156 as an eye blink. Because these events are reproducible and occur at the same location, this analysis can use
157 their spatial topographies to remove their contribution from the recording while preserving contributions
158 from other generators.

159 Following pre-processing stages, each continuous recording was epoched by trigger type,
160 corresponding to shift pairs (i.e., the combination of where the stimulus occurred and where it was
161 immediately before the location change). Trigger labels were applied at the time of measurement in which
162 both the pre- and post-shift location were coded in the label. There were five possible target locations, so
163 25 possible pre- and post-shift combinations, including the catch trials. Epochs were further separated for
164 attention conditions based on whether they were followed by either a “Yes” or “No” button press within 2
165 seconds of the stimulus location change. All epochs of a given pair combination (and button response) were
166 then averaged following the removal of DC offset and linear drift. To capture the overall activity across the

167 64 scalp electrodes, the RMS activity, or global field power (GFP; 28), was computed for subsequent
168 analyses.

169 **Results**

170 **Cortical response to speech stream changing location in the free field**

171 *Experiment I: Quiet background.* Initial analyses centered on the AERPs associated with the effect
172 of attention on a change in location of the target speech stream. Only trials with accurate responses were
173 considered for Attend Left and Attend Right conditions. Correct trials were determined by the button press
174 indicating whether the target moved to an attended location or not (all trials were “correct” for the Passive
175 condition). Accuracy was above 95% for all participants. Each panel in Figure 2 shows the average scalp
176 response for the 2-second period following a change in the speech stream location in Experiment I for the
177 three attention conditions (Passive, Attend Left, and Attend Right). Colored lines in Figure 2 panels
178 represent the baseline-corrected global field power (GFP). Deflections near 125 ms, 250 ms, 550 ms, and
179 around 1.4 s characterize the morphology in each panel at latencies. The two early deflections likely
180 correspond to N1 and P2 activity in response to the change in location of the target stimulus (29, 30). In
181 contrast, the third peak could reflect a P3 response indicating a higher-level of awareness and uncertainty
182 in the environmental change (31-33). The only substantive difference between attention conditions was
183 whether listeners responded to target location changes via button press. This likely explains the greater
184 amplitudes at and sustained activity between the latter two latencies in the Attend Left and Attend Right
185 versus Passive conditions. However, the presence of the P3 component in the Passive condition also
186 indicates that this response was driven by stimulus factors and was separate from the behavioral response.

187 [ENTER FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE]

188 To explore some of the spatial factors contributing to the scalp responses, the GFP was extracted
189 for each condition as a function of where the target stream was presented (Figure 3). Colored lines in Figure
190 3 indicate the attention condition (Passive, black; Attend Left, blue; Attend Right, red). As in Figure 2, we

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191 see morphological similarities and differences among the Passive, Attend Left, and Attend Right conditions
192 at each azimuth. The differences in the two late deflections and overall sustained activity between the
193 Attend Left and Attend Right conditions are most notable. At locations in which the listener responded ‘no’
194 for all correct trials in both conditions (-60° , 0° , and 60°), the average responses are aligned, indicated by
195 seldom significant differences in a paired-sample t-test ($\alpha = 0.5$; black horizontal markers). However,
196 for the two possible target locations (-30° and 30°), there is a clear increase in activity in which the listener
197 responded ‘yes’ for correct trials (compare larger blue than red curve at -30° and larger red than blue curve
198 at 30°), indicated by consistent significant differences starting around 500 ms. Black horizontal markers
199 indicate the time points that yielded significant differences in amplitude between the Attend Left and Attend
200 Right conditions in a paired-samples t-test ($\alpha = 0.05$).

201 [ENTER FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE]

202 *Experiment II: Babble background.* The addition of background babble in Experiment II posed the
203 threat of reducing or eliminating observable cortical activity to the target stream. In Figure 4, the average
204 responses for the 2-second period after a target location change are plotted. The morphologies of these
205 responses to a target stream in +6 dB-SNR babble are like those in quiet (Experiment I; Figure 2), with
206 comparable deflections at equivalent latencies. However, there were slight differences worth noting;
207 specifically, the N1 deflection was less evident, and the responses overall were smaller compared to those
208 in Experiment I. Figure 5 shows the activity when separated by spatial location (like Figure 3 for
209 Experiment I). At all locations, there was a robust component around 550 ms and 1.4 s with overall greater
210 potentials for active rather than passive attention conditions. For conditions in which listeners attended to
211 a specific target location (i.e., $\pm 30^\circ$), responses were demonstrably larger in the corresponding attention
212 condition, whereas at non-target locations, the two attention conditions did not elicit remarkably different
213 responses from one another.

214 [ENTER FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE]

215 [ENTER FIGURE 5 ABOUT HERE]

216 **Late-latency P3 modulated by spatial attention**

217 The late-latency P3 responses were also analyzed with respect to both the pre- and post-switch
218 location of the speech stream to test the question of whether spatial attention would modulate activity
219 dependent on the magnitude and direction of the change in speech location. In Figure 6, results per attention
220 and background condition are reported as matrices of GFP activity at around 550 ms with rows indicating
221 the pre-switch location and columns indicating the post-switch location. Matrix cells along the diagonal
222 from top left to bottom right represent catch trials in which stimuli had no location change. Panels on the
223 left are for Passive conditions and have a different range of values than the two attention conditions (middle:
224 Attend Left; right: Attend Right), as indicated by the color bars. The top panels are for quiet conditions,
225 and the bottom panels are for the babble conditions. Overall, as was seen in earlier analyses, there was less
226 activity in the Passive condition than the two active attention conditions. There were generally larger
227 responses to speech moving in quiet than in babble background. In both the quiet and babble backgrounds,
228 for Attend Left and Attend Right, there was a tendency for larger responses in the column associated with
229 the target location, -30° and $+30^\circ$ respectively.

230 [ENTER FIGURE 6 ABOUT HERE]

231 To measure the effect of magnitude and direction of the location change, trials with the same
232 magnitudes and directions were grand averaged. Figure 7 shows the average GFP at the late-latency P3
233 near 550 ms. The resulting mean spatial-change tuning curve is v-shaped with a minimum response for the
234 average of the no-change catch trials and maximum responses typically near $\pm 120^\circ$. In separate two-way
235 repeated-measures ANOVAs with nine levels of spatial change and three levels of attention, there was a
236 main effect of attention condition in each background (quiet: $F[2,34] = 24.2$, $p < .001$; babble: $F[2,34] =$

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237 9.1, $p < .001$) and angle (quiet: $F[8,136] = 8.3$, $p < .001$; babble: $F[8,136] = 3.1$, $p = .003$). Bonferroni-
238 corrected *posthoc* tests confirm that the amplitudes in the attention conditions were greater than the Passive
239 condition (all $p < .01$). In addition, Bonferroni-corrected *posthoc* analyses indicated there was a significant
240 difference between Attend Left and Attend Right for two spatial-change vectors in the rightward direction
241 in the quiet background (indicated by asterisks in Figure 7) but no differences between the two for speech
242 in babble.

243 [ENTER FIGURE 7 ABOUT HERE]

244 Discussion

245 In a previous study, we explored the neural modulatory effects of spatial attention on a narrowband
246 noise burst periodically changing between five locations in the front horizontal plane (7). We observed a
247 clear effect of attending to one spatial hemifield versus the other, such that location-change responses were
248 largest at the attended location, and all active attention conditions yielded stronger cortical responses than
249 passive conditions overall in both younger and older normal-hearing adults. The present study similarly
250 tested the effects of spatial attention on evoked scalp responses to a speech stream in younger, normal-
251 hearing listeners because it was unknown whether more spectro-temporally complex stimuli with greater
252 ecological relevance would elicit comparable location-change responses. Also, of interest was whether a
253 babble background would disrupt modulatory effects of attention on the speech stream, which has the
254 potential to explain mechanisms associated with cocktail party listening.

255 The morphology of the electroencephalogram for speech changing location in quiet and babble
256 background included sensory potentials, N1 and P2, that were not modulated by attention. The N1
257 component was less prominent when background babble was present, which is consistent with previous
258 research on the effects of signal-to-noise ratio on cortical responses to speech in noise (34). In all
259 conditions, the N1 and P2 latencies were delayed relative to classic sensory potentials to the onset of
260 stimulus energy (35, 36). Previous studies that have measured EEG responses to location changes have also

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261 shown delayed latencies relative to those elicited by stimulus onsets and have labeled these components as
262 “change”-N1 or “change”-P2 that make up the motion-onset-response (MOR) (37, 38). Though the MOR
263 is influenced by stimulus-dependent factors (39-41), it is also thought to reflect higher-level auditory areas
264 and can change with task-relevant attentional processes (42). We did not observe significant differences
265 between the attention and passive conditions in the present study at these earlier latencies. Still, there are
266 key differences between this study and those that specifically explore auditory motion. The first major
267 methodological difference is that the present stimulus construct included an instantaneous randomized
268 location change rather than a successive change in location to each loudspeaker along a motion path. This
269 “jump” in location may have precluded any attentional effects on auditory motion. A second key difference
270 is that our study required listeners to actively respond to changes in the stimulus location only in the
271 attention conditions and therefore lacked a motor control in the Passive conditions. Previous studies
272 included a non-spatial or irrelevant task in the baseline condition (e.g., 42), and therefore, any differences
273 at N1 or P2 could be attributed to differences in attentional processes. Thus, the present study focused more
274 on the varied responses between the Attend Left and Attend Right conditions, which differed by the location
275 listeners were required to attend.

276 For the passive and both attention conditions, P3 amplitudes were small for catch trials, in which
277 no location change occurred 20% of the time, and they were large for location changes. This was consistent
278 with our earlier study using narrowband noise stimuli (7). The fact that a P3 response was elicited in the
279 Passive condition also suggests that despite instruction to ignore the speech during these blocks, the discrete
280 changes in location of the speech stream were salient, and the P3 reflects an automatic process (43, 44).
281 Early studies of the P3 often describe it as being elicited by surprising or unexpected stimuli or stimulus
282 changes (e.g., 45), and it has been shown to be larger for task-relevant stimuli requiring a response rather
283 than unattended or irrelevant stimuli (46, 47). Here, the late-latency P3 response is believed to be associated
284 with higher-order processing related to its uncertain change in location (80% of the trials had equal
285 probability to change to one of four possible locations).

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286 Directing spatial attention in both studies led to even greater P3 responses when the stimuli changed
287 to the attended location (see Figures 3 and 5 in this study, and see Figure 1 in 7). At -30° to the left, the
288 largest P3 response was observed for the Attend Left condition, and at $+30^\circ$ to the right, the largest peak
289 was observed for the Attend Right condition. At non-target locations (-60° , 0° , and $+60^\circ$), no meaningful
290 differences in amplitudes were observed between the two attention conditions. Variations on this paradigm
291 have previously been used in the visual domain and have found similar results (48-50). In the present study,
292 cortical responses also appeared higher for active attention conditions in quiet than in babble backgrounds.
293 This is consistent with the view that sensory gain control is dependent on signal-to-noise-ratio (51), in
294 which adding gain to the system is predicated on the saliency of the target stimulus. Together, the results
295 demonstrate that overall neural activity is modulated by the occurrence of a speech stream at an attended
296 location in both quiet and babble backgrounds, but stimulus noise can interfere with the salience of location
297 changes in target speech.

298 **Conclusions**

299 This EEG study aimed to measure the effect of active attention to a spatial location of speech in the
300 free field, either in quiet or babble background. Earlier work demonstrated that for narrowband noise
301 stimuli, younger and even older listeners show significant modulatory effects of attention depending on the
302 magnitude and direction of a spatial change (7); however, it was unknown if attention to more real-world
303 stimuli, like speech, would show comparable modulation to evoked responses. Results demonstrated a late-
304 latency P3 indicator of engaged attention to changes in the environment that was like the neural responses
305 established for noise bursts. Active attention to specific target locations modulated the overall responses,
306 and background babble at +6 dB SNR diminished responses somewhat. Still, the babble background did
307 not eliminate the overall effect in these younger, normal-hearing listeners.

308 Young normal-hearing listeners are not known to have difficulty localizing speech with competing
309 background signals at positive SNRs, but there are known challenges in individuals with hearing loss (52).
310 By understanding the consequences of attention on auditory evoked neural measures, it is possible that

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311 objective tasks can be designed that directly assess hearing-impaired listeners' perceptual limitations or
312 their success with potential interventions. It is unclear, for example, whether a better SNR resulting from
313 directional processing in hearing aids could help mediate spatial hearing challenges at the neural level.
314 Future work will focus on the consequences of aging and hearing impairment on object-based auditory
315 attention while evaluating the efficacy of spatial hearing enhancement (i.e., directional microphones) in
316 hearing aids.

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323 meeting (53).

324 **Author Contributions**

325 E.J.O. developed the study concept and design. K.N.P. performed testing and data collection. Both
326 authors contributed to data processing, analysis, and interpretation. E.J.O. drafted the manuscript, and
327 K.N.P. provided critical revisions.

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447 **Figure Captions**

448 Figure 1: Panel A shows a schematic of the laboratory spatial array. The target speech stream came
449 from alternate locations labeled, -60, -30, 0, +30, and +60°. For the directed-attention conditions, listeners
450 were instructed to either attend to the speaker at -30° (blue; Attend-30°) or attend to the speaker at +30°
451 (red; Attend+30°). In Experiment I, the speech stream was presented in quiet. In Experiment II, the speech
452 stream was presented in background speech babble at +6-dB SNR from 8 speaker locations (black boxes).
453 Loudspeaker positions indicated by white boxes were not used in this study. Panel B shows a 10-second
454 example presentation (Experiment II). Target (grey; 76 dB SPL) and babble (black; 70 dB SPL overall)
455 waveforms are positioned at their respective speaker locations over time. The location of the target could
456 change every 2 seconds. In Experiment I, only speech targets were presented.

457 Figure 2: Average potentials measured at the scalp for three attention conditions (Passive, Attend
458 Left, and Attend Right) in quiet background. Dark grey lines represent 64 recording sites, and colored lines
459 are the baseline-corrected global field power (GFP) across all electrodes.

460 Figure 3: Grand average global field power (GFP) for stimuli presented in quiet background for
461 each attention condition (Passive [green]; Attend left [blue]; Attend Right [red]). The five panels represent
462 trials in which the target arrived at each of the five horizontal speaker locations (from left to right: -60° to
463 +60°). Grey shaded regions represent standard error of the mean, and black horizontal markers represent
464 time latencies in which a significant difference was found between Attend Left and Attend Right conditions
465 in a paired-sample t-test ($\alpha = 0.5$; $n = 18$).

466 Figure 4: Average potentials measured at the scalp for three attention conditions (Passive, Attend
467 Left, and Attend Right) in babble background. Dark grey lines represent 64 recording sites, and colored
468 lines are the baseline-corrected global field power (GFP) across all electrodes.

469 Figure 5: Grand average global field power (GFP) for stimuli presented in babble background for
470 each attention condition (Passive [green]; Attend left [blue]; Attend Right [red]). The five panels represent

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471 trials in which the target arrived at each of the five horizontal speaker locations (from left to right: -60° to
472 $+60^\circ$). Grey shaded regions represent standard error of the mean, and black horizontal lines represent time
473 latencies in which a significant difference was found between Attend Left and Attend Right conditions in
474 a paired-samples t-test ($\alpha = 0.5$; $n = 18$).

475 Figure 6: Results per attention and background condition are reported as matrices of GFP activity
476 at around 550 ms with rows indicating the pre-switch location and columns indicating the post-switch
477 location. Matrix cells along the diagonal from top left to bottom right represent catch trials in which stimuli
478 had no location change. Panels on the left are for Passive conditions and have a different range of values
479 compared to the two attention conditions (middle: Attend Left; right: Attend Right) as indicated by the
480 color bars. The top panels are for quiet conditions and the bottom panels are for the babble conditions.

481 Figure 7: The average GFP activity around 550 ms for spatial-change vectors spanning $\pm 120^\circ$.

482

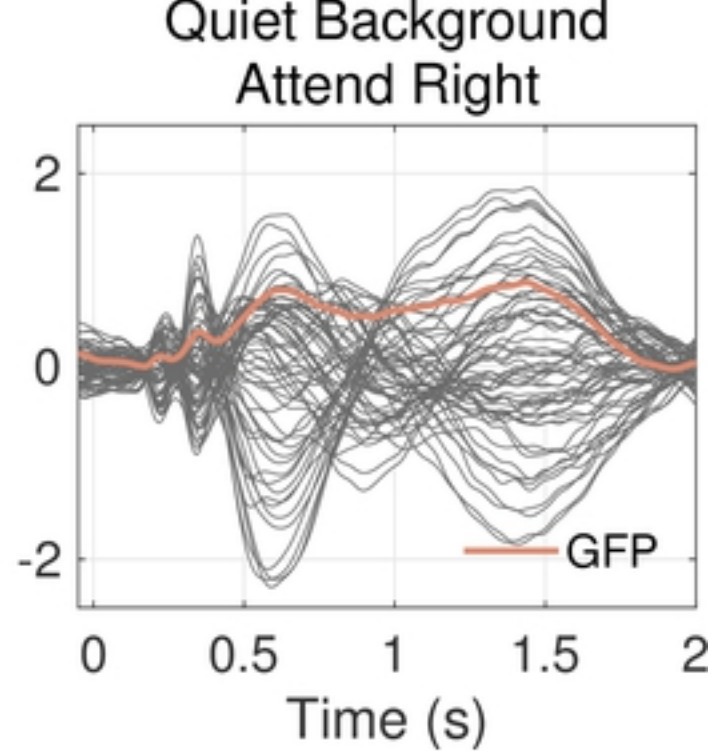
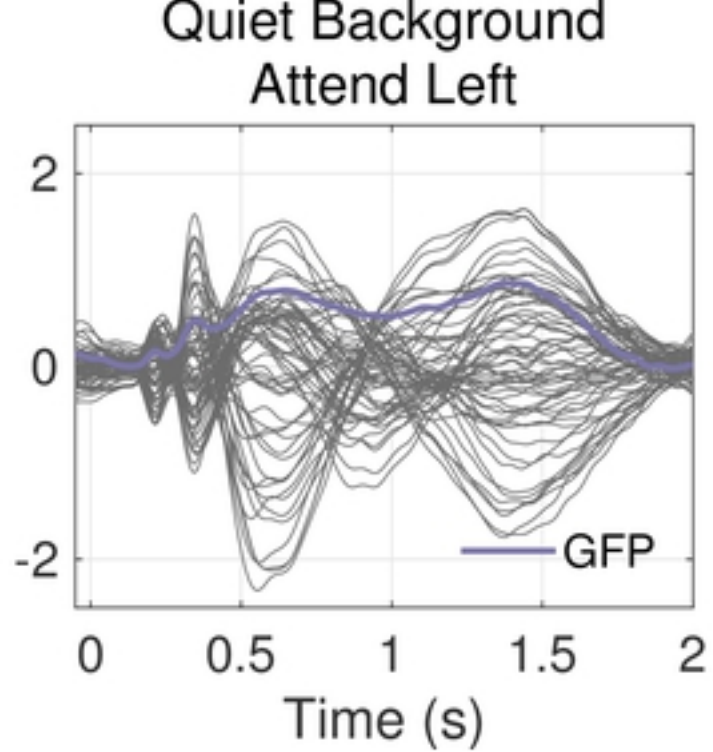
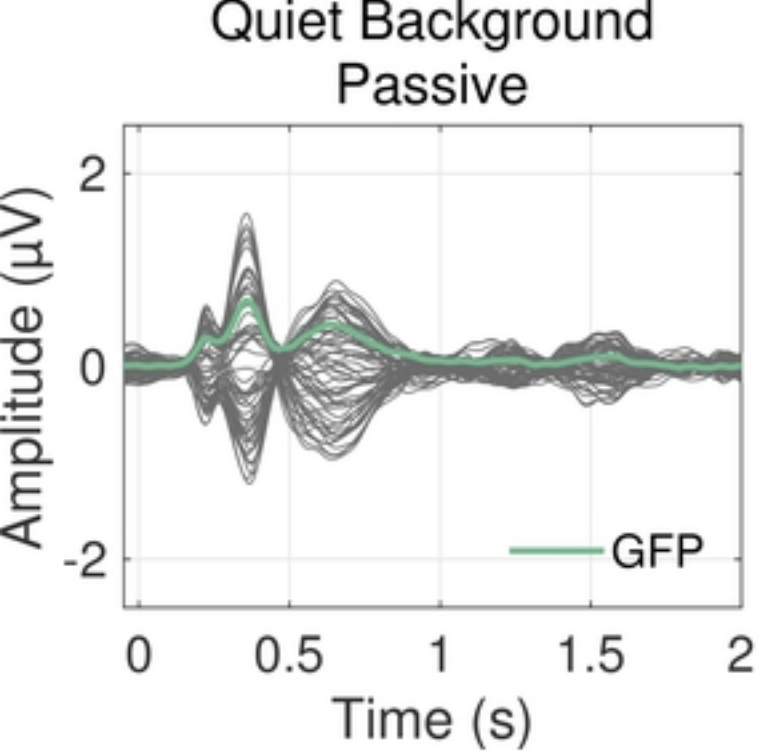


Figure 2

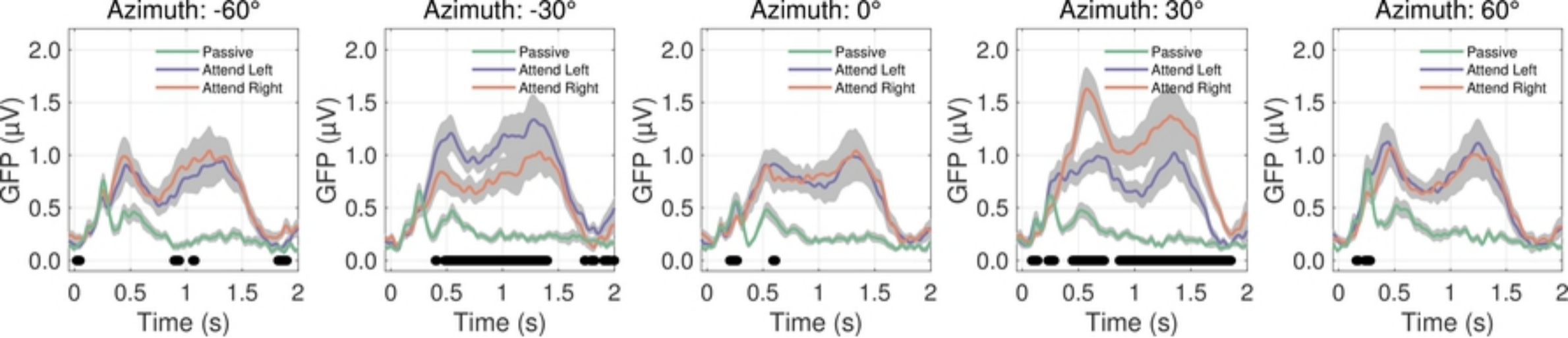


Figure 3

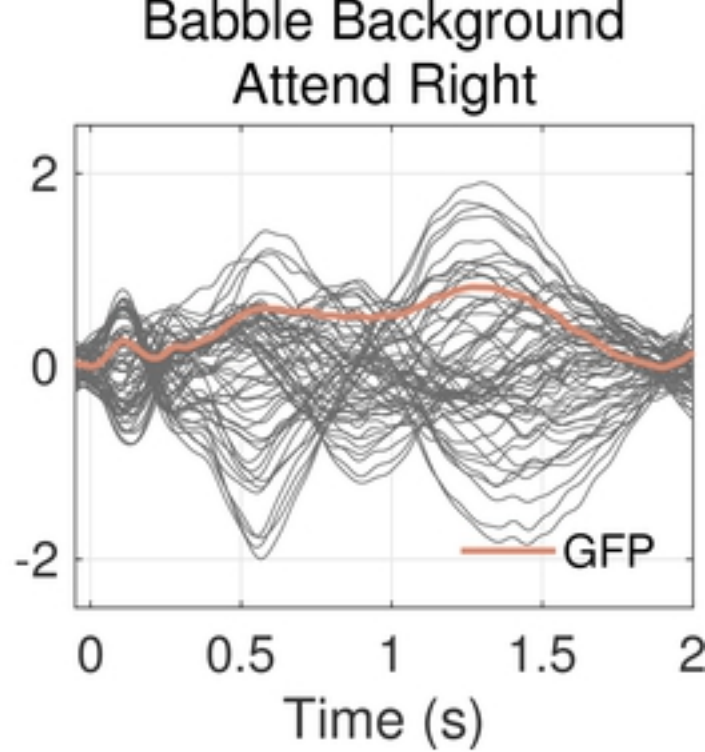
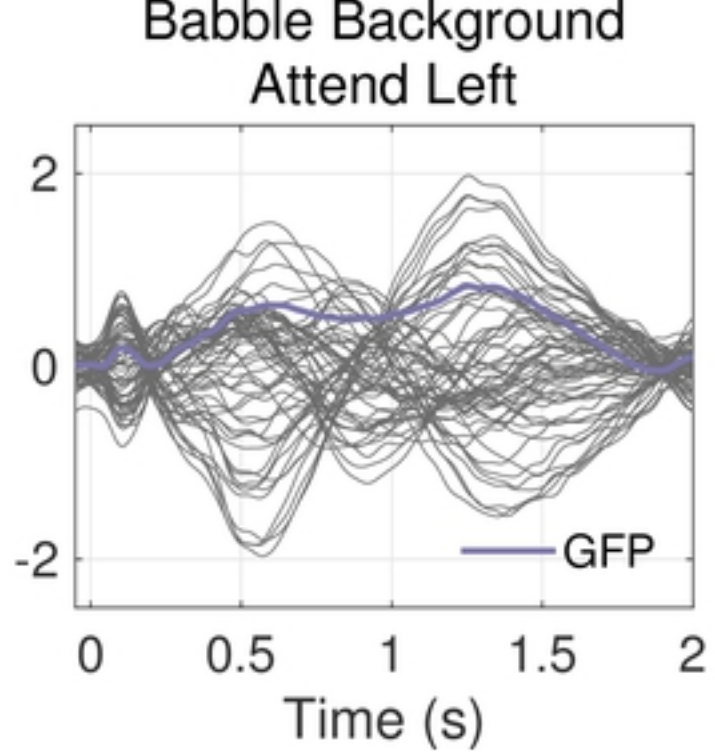
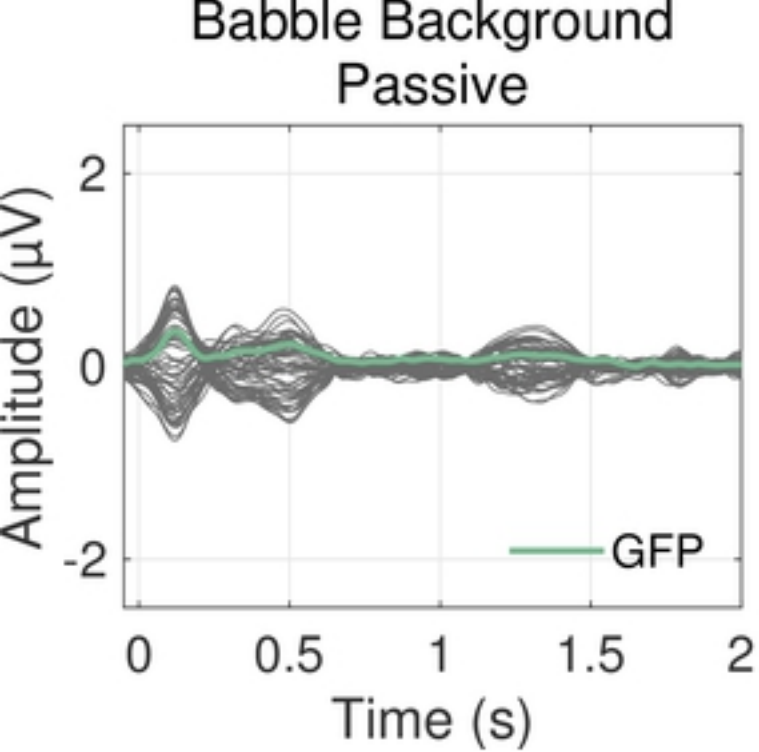


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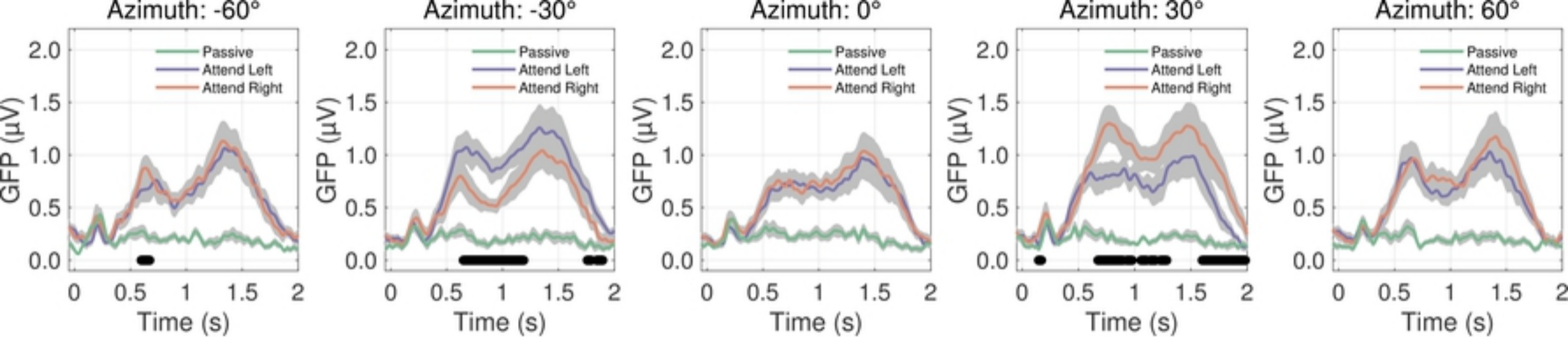


Figure 5

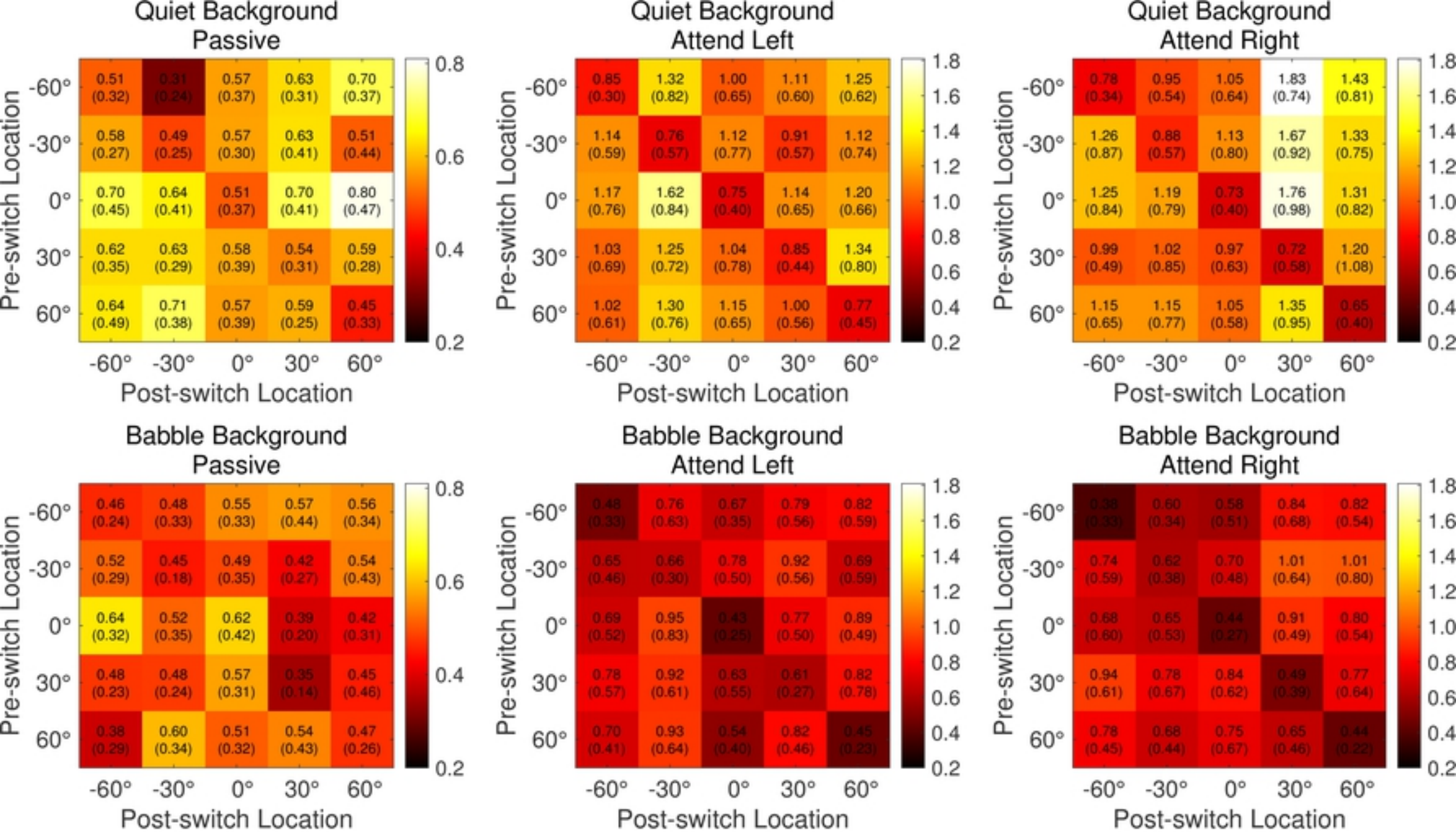


Figure 6

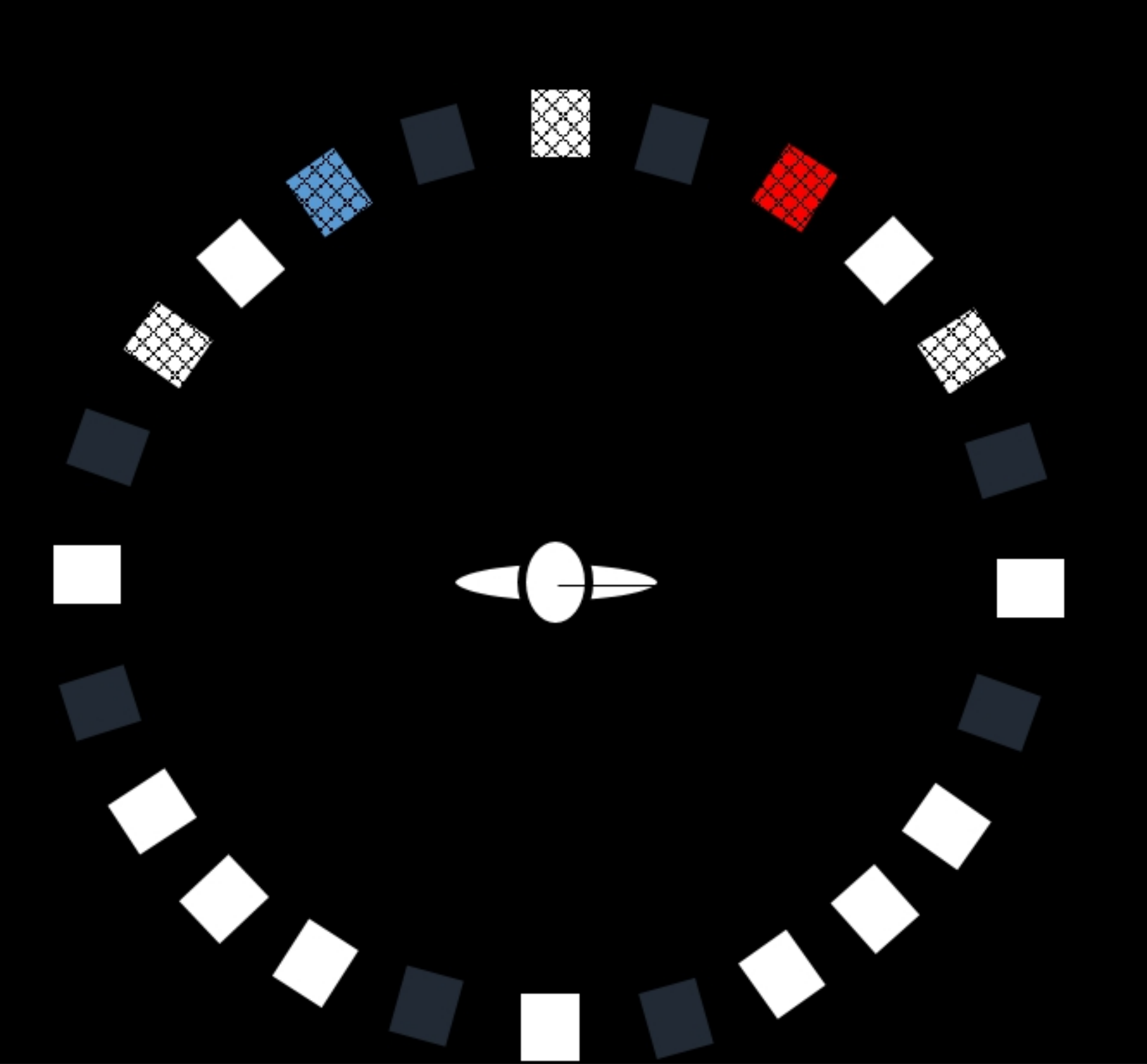


Figure 1a

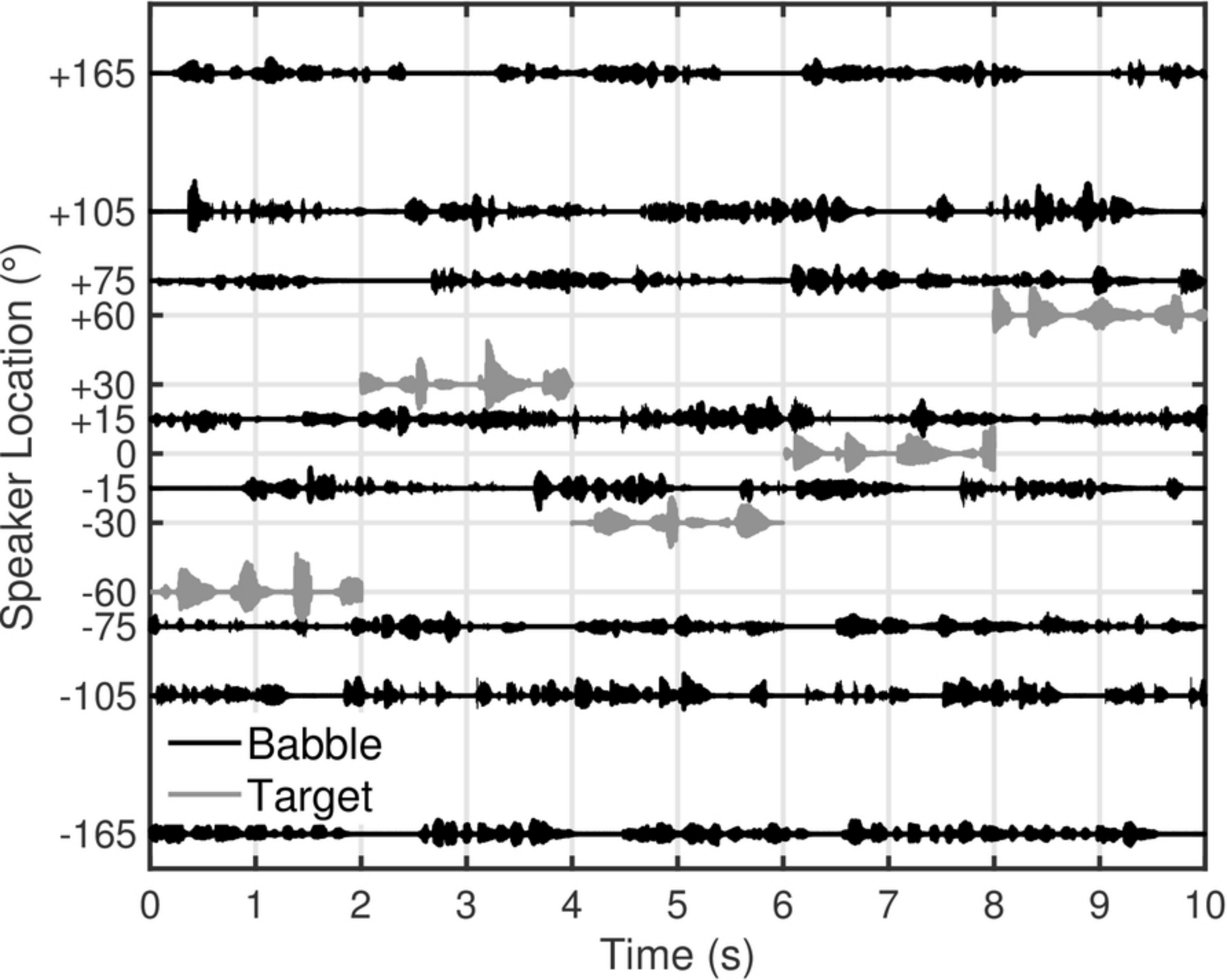


Figure 1b

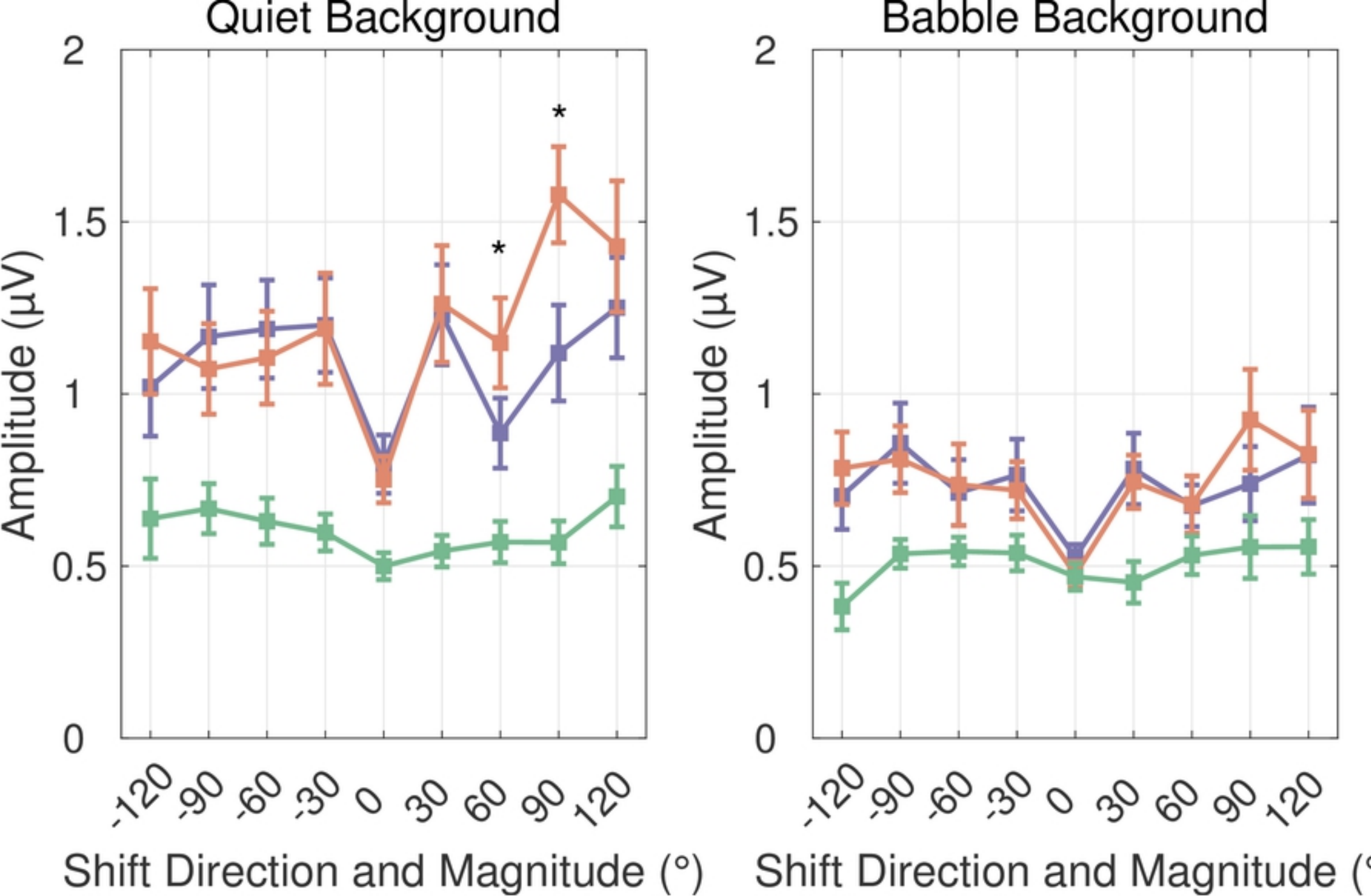


Figure 7