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1 **Cortical lamina-dependent blood volume changes in human brain at 7 T**

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19 Running Title: Layer-dependent CBV changes in humans

20 The body of the text contains 6830 words (without 2300 words in references)

21 **Highlights:**

- 22 • A CBV-sensitive fMRI method is developed for high resolution fMRI in humans.  
23 • Lamina-dependent CBV fMRI responses are shown in humans.  
24 • VASO cortical profiles are validated with Fe-contrast agent fMRI in animals.  
25 • Sensitivity to large veins can be minimized using VASO-CBV instead of BOLD fMRI.  
26 • Ipsilateral fMRI responses to finger-tapping are positive in M1 and negative in S1.

27

28 **Abstract**

29 Cortical layer-dependent high (sub-millimeter) resolution functional magnetic resonance imaging  
30 (fMRI) in human or animal brain can be used to address questions regarding the functioning of  
31 cortical circuits, such as the effect of different afferent and efferent connectivity on activity in  
32 specific cortical layers. The sensitivity of gradient echo (GE) blood oxygenation level dependent  
33 (BOLD) responses to large draining veins reduces its local specificity and can render the  
34 interpretation of the underlying laminar neural activity impossible. Application of the more spatially  
35 specific cerebral blood volume (CBV) based fMRI in humans has been hindered by the low sensitivity  
36 of the non-invasive modalities available. Here, a Vascular Space Occupancy (VASO) variant, adapted  
37 for use at high field, is further optimized to capture layer-dependent activity changes in human  
38 motor cortex at sub-millimeter resolution. Acquired activation maps and cortical profiles show that  
39 the VASO signal peaks in grey matter at 0.8 - 1.6 mm depth, and deeper compared to the superficial  
40 and vein-dominated GE-BOLD responses. Validation of the VASO signal change versus well-  
41 established iron-oxide contrast agent based fMRI methods in animals showed the same cortical  
42 profiles of CBV change, after normalization for lamina-dependent baseline CBV. In order to evaluate  
43 its potential of revealing small lamina-dependent signal differences due to modulations of the input-  
44 output characteristics, layer-dependent VASO responses were investigated in the ipsilateral  
45 hemisphere during unilateral finger tapping. Positive activation in ipsilateral primary motor cortex

1 and negative activation in ipsilateral primary sensory cortex were observed. This feature is only  
2 visible in high-resolution fMRI where opposing sides of a sulcus can be investigated independently  
3 because of a lack of partial volume effects. Based on the results presented here we conclude that  
4 VASO offers good reproducibility, high sensitivity, and lower sensitivity than GE-BOLD to changes in  
5 larger vessels, making it a valuable tool for layer-dependent fMRI studies in humans.

6 **Abbreviations:** BOLD = blood oxygenation level dependent; CBV = cerebral blood volume; CNR =  
7 contrast-to-noise ratio; CSF = cerebrospinal fluid;  $\Delta$ CBV = change in CBV; EPI = echo planar imaging;  
8 Fe = iron; fMRI = functional magnetic resonance imaging; GE = gradient echo; GM = grey matter; ROI  
9 = region of interest; SNR = signal-to-noise ratio; SS-SI-VASO = slice-selective slab-inversion VASO; TE  
10 = echo time; TI = inversion time; TR = repetition time; VASO = vascular space occupancy.

11 **Key words:** vascular space occupancy, SS-SI-VASO, cerebral blood volume, cortical profiles, layer-  
12 dependent fMRI, negative BOLD response, 7 Tesla MRI

13

## 14 1. Introduction

15 Sub-millimeter spatial resolution, functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) enables  
16 measurement of blood oxygen level dependent (BOLD) responses as a function of cortical  
17 depth in human and animal brains. If layer-dependent differences in neural metabolism could  
18 be inferred from high resolution fMRI responses, insight might be provided for instance, on  
19 the question, how differences in afferent and efferent connectivity affect processing in a given  
20 brain region. At these higher spatial resolutions, the fMRI contrast is dominated by thermal  
21 noise (Triantafyllou et al., 2005), rather than physiological noise, and therefore it can fully  
22 benefit from the use of the very high available field strengths, such as the widely used 7 Tesla.

23 Layer-dependent fMRI at high fields might therefore enable a new level of brain research, with  
24 the potential not only to detect *which* brain area is activated, but also *how* it is activated. For  
25 example, Trampel et al., (2012) investigated the increased activity in primary motor cortex  
26 (M1) associated with motor imagery as compared with an actual motion task, demonstrating  
27 that the layer dependence of the ensuing activation differs strikingly for the two conditions. In  
28 another example, layer-dependent fMRI was used to study the input characteristics of sensory  
29 cortex, and thus to investigate the restructuring of brain connectivity consequent upon  
30 denervation-induced plasticity (Yu et al., 2014). In the visual system, layer-dependent fMRI  
31 can help to address questions regarding the feedforward-feedback pathways during excitatory  
32 and inhibitory stimuli (Goense et al., 2012).

33 The limiting factor of such investigations in the human brain is that the noninvasive high-  
34 sensitivity fMRI modalities recording the effects of vascular changes are specific not only to  
35 the neural activity within individual cortical layers, but are also sensitive to changes in blood  
36 parameters, such as oxygenation, that propagate across the cortex. In particular, because  
37 gradient echo (GE)-BOLD signal also arises from draining veins (Turner, 2002), it may be  
38 difficult to interpret the signal unambiguously in terms of spatially specific underlying neural  
39 activity. GE-BOLD responses are weighted towards the site of relatively large pial veins, which  
40 are draining the area of activated cortex (De Martino et al., 2013; Polimeni et al., 2010).

1 There is evidence from animal studies, however, that relative cerebral blood volume (CBV)  
2 changes peak in deeper cortical layers, closer to the site of metabolic activity changes (Goense  
3 et al., 2012; Kennerley et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2013). The most widely used noninvasive CBV-  
4 weighted fMRI method in humans is Vascular Space Occupancy (VASO) (Huber et al., 2014a;  
5 Lu et al., 2013). It takes advantage of differences in the longitudinal relaxation time,  $T_1$ ,  
6 between blood and tissue, and employs a blood-nulling inversion-recovery sequence to obtain  
7 an MR signal proportional to CBV. While invasive contrast-agent-based CBV-weighted fMRI  
8 methods have yielded promising results in animal studies, layer-dependent analysis of CBV  
9 change in humans has been precluded so far by the inherently low contrast-to-noise ratio  
10 (CNR) of VASO and other noninvasive CBV-based fMRI methods.

11 In this study, we present an approach to VASO-based fMRI that enables simultaneous  
12 noninvasive acquisition of CBV and BOLD signal changes at high field (7 T) in human motor  
13 cortex with sub-millimeter resolution. The cortical-depth dependence of CBV-based VASO  
14 fMRI was compared in detail with BOLD fMRI. The VASO-CBV results were validated in animal  
15 models using fMRI measures of CBV changes with established iron-oxide-based contrast  
16 agents. To elucidate the extent to which the different modalities are dominated by local  
17 surface vasculature, we compared VASO and iron-oxide-based fMRI data with GE-BOLD data,  
18 which is affected by unwanted sensitivity to large transmural blood vessels. The final goals of  
19 this study are a) to assess whether CBV-based fMRI in humans is sensitive enough to  
20 distinguish small hemodynamic responses in tasks designed for investigation of input and  
21 output cortical layers, and b) to investigate whether our proposed high-CNR CBV-based fMRI  
22 method can overcome specificity limitations of GE-BOLD and thus allow quantitative  
23 noninvasive measurements of layer-dependent activity profiles to be used in human fMRI.

## 24 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 25 **2.1. Challenges for high-resolution fMRI**

26 fMRI in human brain at conventional field strengths at sub-millimeter spatial resolution suffers  
27 from inadequate CNR for the study of cortical layer dependence of brain activity. Advanced  
28 imaging technologies are thus required. Early human laminar fMRI results were typically  
29 acquired with higher in-plane resolution compared to the slice thickness (Yacoub et al., 2008)  
30 and laminar profile analysis has relied on scanning flat, relatively un sulcated grey matter (GM)  
31 regions with image slices orthogonal to the cortex (Koopmans et al., 2010; Ress et al., 2007).  
32 The use of cortical surface analysis of fMRI data acquired with isotropic resolution has helped  
33 to expand the application of layer-dependent fMRI over larger areas of folded cortex (De  
34 Martino et al., 2013; Koopmans et al., 2011; Polimeni et al., 2010; Siero et al., 2014; Siero et  
35 al., 2011; Trampel et al., 2012).

36 The present study considers the ‘hand-knob’ region of human primary motor cortex, which  
37 has a relatively simple and predictable folding pattern. For such a structure, it is feasible to  
38 adopt the earlier strategy of using a slice thickness greater than the in-plane resolution, with  
39 its consequent gain in CNR. This is appropriate for the use of VASO, which is a technique for  
40 scanning a limited number of slices and has somewhat lower CNR compared with BOLD.

1 Another critical issue in high-resolution fMRI in humans is the broadening of the point spread  
2 function in the phase-encoding direction due to the often-required longer duration of the  
3 acquisition window with respect to  $T_2^*$  decay, also referred to as  $T_2^*$  blurring (Hetzer et al.,  
4 2011; Kemper et al., 2014). This problem can be circumvented by the use of a small imaging  
5 matrix, which is made feasible by reducing the size of the field of view (FOV) or using a high  
6 parallel imaging acceleration factor. Since the spatial extent of the regions of interest (ROIs) of  
7 this study is on the same scale as the extent of the receive fields of individual coil elements,  
8 high acceleration tends to result in a relatively high  $g$ -factor penalty. Furthermore, because  
9 this study deals with relatively small predefined ROIs in M1, large areal coverage is not  
10 required. Pilot experiments showed that the highest temporal SNR (tSNR) was achieved using  
11 a selection of individual receiver coil elements in a surface-coil like fashion, without additional  
12 acceleration. Therefore, in this study small FOVs are captured without parallel imaging  
13 acceleration.

14 For optimized CBV-weighted signal at high fields, a Slice-Selective Slab-Inversion (SS-SI) variant  
15 of VASO is beneficial (Huber et al., 2014a). This method relies on the fact that the blood  $T_1$  at 7  
16 T is comparable to the refill time of the vasculature; its CNR has been shown to be  
17 approximately 60% that of BOLD at the same field strength. To circumvent the effects of  
18 inflow of 'fresh' (non-inverted) blood magnetization into the microvasculature of the imaging  
19 slice in VASO at 7 T (Hua et al., 2013), the inversion efficiency of the inversion pulse was  
20 reduced, to make the blood nulling time of the VASO sequence shorter than the arterial arrival  
21 time. This is particularly necessary in the sensory motor cortex, due to its relatively short  
22 arterial arrival time (Mildner et al., 2014). The application of a reduced inversion efficiency is  
23 associated with smaller GM signal at the blood nulling time and therefore comes at the cost of  
24 lower sensitivity. Since the CBV sensitivity of VASO relies only on the nulling of intravascular  
25 signal, and not on the absolute value of TI (Lu et al., 2013), the application of a partial  
26 inversion pulse will not affect the original VASO contrast.

## 27 **2.2. Correction of BOLD contamination in VASO signal**

28 With increasing field strength, the positive BOLD signal change during neural activation  
29 increasingly counteracts the negative VASO signal change. The GE-BOLD effect typically has  
30 two components: intravascular and extravascular. At 7 T, the extravascular BOLD dominates  
31 the intravascular BOLD by more than 90% (Uludag et al., 2009). This extravascular BOLD  
32 contamination is considerably larger than the desired VASO signal change and needs to be  
33 corrected for. In SS-SO VASO, an interleaved, pair-wise acquisition of VASO and BOLD images  
34 is used to distinguish between BOLD and VASO signal components of the resulting signal.  
35 When the pure BOLD contrast contribution is known, the BOLD contamination in the VASO  
36 image can be factored out, as described earlier (Huber et al., 2014a). In short: Both BOLD and  
37 VASO time series are expected to have the same BOLD  $T_2^*$  weighting, but different VASO  $T_1$   
38 weighting. Hence, when the voxel-wise ratio image between the BOLD and VASO images is  
39 formed, the  $T_2^*$  weighting is canceled out, providing BOLD-corrected VASO contrast. As long as  
40 both images are acquired with the identical EPI acquisition module, the  $T_2^*$  weighting cancels  
41 out, independently of TE and readout duration. This BOLD correction mechanism relies on the  
42 assumption that changes in BOLD weighting are slower than the time between consecutive  
43 image acquisitions. Furthermore, it assumes that extravascular effects contribute much more

1 to the BOLD response than intravascular effects. In this correction scheme, BOLD  
 2 contaminations are considered to be solely based on changes in  $T_2^*$ . Hence, the applied  
 3 correction scheme is assumed to account for BOLD contaminations in all compartments of the  
 4 vascular tree including arteries, capillaries and veins. Considering that the intravascular BOLD  
 5 contamination is vanishingly small at 7 T for any vessel diameter (Uludag et al., 2009), any  
 6 residual intravascular BOLD contamination is considered to be negligible, independent of the  
 7 cortical depth. The dynamic division of the BOLD correction scheme used here inherently  
 8 corrects for all potential signal drifts, and thus tends to improve the signal stability.

### 9 **2.3. CBV sensitivity in VASO and iron-oxide-based fMRI**

10 Intravenous injection of paramagnetic intravascular contrast agents, such as iron oxide  
 11 nanoparticles, affects the extravascular water signal in proportion to the CBV (Mandeville,  
 12 2012). The normalized iron-oxide-based signal can be written as:

$$13 \quad \frac{S(d)}{S(d=0)} = e^{-k(d)CBV}, \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

14 where CBV is the relative blood volume per volume of tissue in units of ml/100ml,  $k(d)$  is a  
 15 function of contrast-agent dose,  $d$ , its susceptibility difference from the surroundings, the  
 16 echo time, TE, and field strength (Kim et al., 2013; Tropres et al., 2001). In order to avoid  
 17 potential contamination by BOLD changes to the tissue susceptibility,  $S(d)$ , and  $S(d=0)$  should  
 18 refer to the same activation state (rest or activity). Functional iron-oxide-based signal change  
 19 can be written as:

$$20 \quad \frac{\Delta S}{S_{rest}} \approx \frac{e^{-k(d)CBV_{act}} - e^{-k(d)CBV_{rest}}}{e^{-k(d)CBV_{rest}}} \approx -\frac{\Delta CBV}{CBV_{rest}}, \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

21 with  $\Delta CBV = CBV_{act} - CBV_{rest}$  and assuming that  $k(d) \ll CBV_{rest}$ . In contrast, VASO signal change  
 22 can be described as (Lu et al., 2013):

$$23 \quad \frac{\Delta S}{S_{rest}} \approx \frac{-\Delta CBV}{1 - CBV_{rest}} \approx -\Delta CBV. \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

24 Comparing Eqs. 2 and 3 makes it clear that both iron-oxide-based and VASO signal changes are  
 25 linearly proportional to changes in CBV, with different normalization factors. The  
 26 normalization must be kept in mind, when considering brain areas with inhomogeneous  
 27  $CBV_{rest}$  distributions, such as the different cortical layers in layer-dependent fMRI analysis  
 28 (Goense et al., 2007; Weber et al., 2008). When the baseline CBV distribution across cortical  
 29 laminae is known, iron-oxide signal changes can be used to estimate absolute CBV changes in  
 30 units of ml per tissue in addition to the relative CBV change in units of percent (Kim and Kim,  
 31 2011).

### 32 **2.4. Measurement Parameters**

33 MRI data acquisitions were conducted in six healthy participants (3 females, age 24-32 years).  
 34 All procedures were approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Leipzig. Informed

1 written consent was given by all volunteers. SS-SI-VASO was implemented on a MAGNETOM 7  
2 T scanner (Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany) equipped with an SC72 gradient coil  
3 (Siemens Healthcare). For radiofrequency (RF) transmission and reception, a single-channel-  
4 transmit/24-channel-receive head coil (Nova Medical, Wilmington, MA, USA) was used. The  
5 positioning of the functional slices and flip-angle adjustment were based on previously  
6 acquired whole-brain MP2RAGE  $T_1$  maps (Marques et al., 2010) and MAFI  $B_1$  maps (Boulant et  
7 al., 2009). The image acquisition and evaluation pipeline are summarized in Fig. 1. Functional  
8 BOLD and VASO data were acquired in five axial slices aligned perpendicular to the  
9 participant's M1 area, using a two-dimensional single-shot echo planar imaging (EPI) readout.  
10 Sequence parameters were: TE/TI1/TI2/TR = 18/1000/2500/3000 ms, excitation flip angle  $\alpha$  =  
11  $130^\circ$  (see discussion), partial Fourier factor = 5/8, and a corresponding vendor-provided  
12 homodyne online image reconstruction algorithm was used. In order to obtain a blood nulling  
13 time at TI1 = 1000 ms, which is approximately 200 ms lower than the estimated arterial arrival  
14 time in the sensorimotor cortex (Mildner et al., 2014), the inversion efficiency was adjusted to  
15 be equal to 85%. This corresponds to a sensitivity decrease of approximately 31%. The blood  
16 nulling time is calculated based on the assumed value of blood  $T_1$  = 2100 ms (Zhang et al.,  
17 2012), following earlier VASO studies at 7 T (Huber et al., 2014a; Huber et al., 2014b). Nominal  
18 in-plane resolution was  $0.78 \times 0.78 \text{ mm}^2$ . Since human M1 cortex has a thickness of  
19 approximately 4 mm (Fischl and Dale, 2000), up to 5 voxels are evaluated for the layer-  
20 dependency. The imaging matrix was  $64 \times 64$  and the FOV was 50 mm. Effective gradient  
21 parameters used during EPI were: strength = 40 mT/m; slew rate = 198 T/m/s. In all  
22 participants, k-space acquisition took less than 40 ms with a bandwidth of 1132 Hz/pixel in  
23 read direction. Based on simulations assuming a tissue  $T_2^*$  of 28 ms (Koopmans et al., 2008;  
24 Pfeuffer et al., 2004), the corresponding  $T_2^*$  blurring and PSF broadening results in a signal  
25 leakage of 14% from one voxel into the neighboring voxels along the phase-encoding  
26 direction. This blurring is not corrected for and results in slightly coarser resolution than the  
27 nominal voxel size. Depending on the participants' M1 curvature, the nominal EPI slice  
28 thickness set between 1.2 and 2 mm. In order to minimize aliasing artifacts, phase  
29 oversampling between 0 and 15% was used depending on the individual anatomy. In order to  
30 determine the border between GM and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) independently of distortions,  
31  $T_1$  maps were calculated from additional inversion-recovery EPI acquisitions with multiple  
32 inversion times (TIs) of 36/200/300/1200/1500 ms, and with acquisition parameters otherwise  
33 identical to the functional scans.

34 A 12-min unilateral finger-tapping stimulation paradigm (alternating 30-s rest vs. 30-s tapping)  
35 was used to induce BOLD and VASO signal changes in the central sulcus. The tapping consisted  
36 of pinch-like motion and touch of index finger, middle finger, ring finger, and little finger  
37 (consecutively) towards and away from the thumb with a self-paced frequency of  
38 approximately 0.25 - 0.75 Hz. Two 12-min stimulation experiments were done in each  
39 participant, one with tapping of right-hand fingers and one with tapping of left-hand fingers.

## 40 **2.5. Data analysis**

41 Signals from all receive channels were reconstructed separately, and the resulting tSNR  
42 characteristics were evaluated. Channels with unstable signal or severe aliasing artifacts  
43 (between 0 and 8) were excluded from the subsequent sum-of-squares combination (see

1 supplementary Fig. S1 for more details). The perpendicularity of the acquired slices with  
2 respect to the cortical surface was quantified by comparing the CSF position in the central  
3 sulcus across adjacent slices. The GM and CSF border of the middle slice was projected onto  
4 the adjacent slices. All regions where the displacement of the surfaces defined by the  
5 projected border between adjacent slices was more than half of the voxel size were excluded  
6 from further analysis. This orthogonality threshold corresponds to a slice tilting of  
7 approximately 15° from its optimal perpendicular orientation. Due to incomplete blood nulling  
8 in outer slices, all signal-change analyses were done on the middle slice only.

9 Because M1 has more than double the thickness of the primary somatosensory cortex (S1),  
10 the slice orientation was optimized with respect to M1, and all data analyses were focused on  
11 the anterior GM bank of the central sulcus. Signal changes in S1 and the posterior side of the  
12 central sulcus were not included in the ROIs for quantitative analysis, if not stated differently.  
13 Cortical laminae were calculated based on the equi-volume approach (Waehnert et al., 2014),  
14 applied directly on EPI images, without the need for distortion correction or registration to a  
15 high-resolution anatomical dataset. The cortical surface is defined to be at the position where  
16 CSF signal approaches GM signal analogously to (Goense et al., 2007). Here, the terms ‘cortical  
17 laminae’ and ‘layer-dependent’ refer to sets of voxels defined by the equi-volume contouring  
18 method, and therefore do not directly refer to the cytoarchitectonically defined cortical  
19 layers. However, it should be mentioned that the method used provides highly realistic  
20 cortical contours (see Waehnert et al., 2014). In order to obtain robust signal changes within  
21 these cortical laminae, signals were averaged over the last 15 s of the tapping period,  
22 disregarding the transition period of the first 15 s. All MR images were motion corrected using  
23 SPM8 (Wellcome Department, University College London, UK). Statistical analysis was done  
24 using FSL FEAT (Version 5.98) (Worsley, 2001) without spatial smoothing. In order to minimize  
25 bias from the layer-dependent noise distribution, the z-score threshold in all depicted  
26 activation maps was kept well below the mean detection threshold for activity in M1. Doing  
27 so, relatively noisy voxels in upper cortical layers are not excluded from the analysis. Cortical  
28 profiles were calculated from the raw (unthresholded) data.

## 29 **2.6. Parameters of the animal experiments**

30 The VASO CBV results acquired in humans were validated by comparing them with well-  
31 established iron-oxide-based fMRI methods in animals at even higher spatial resolutions. Thus,  
32 the same SS-SI-VASO sequence as used in the human experiments was implemented in  
33 laboratories using iron-oxide-based fMRI in monkey or rat models. In order to obtain results  
34 that are comparable and in compliance with earlier studies in these laboratories, SS-SI-VASO  
35 experiments were conducted with the best-established stimulus protocols on each site, that  
36 is, whisker stimulation in rats (Kennerley et al., 2005) and visual stimulation in monkeys  
37 (Goense et al., 2010).

### 38 **2.6.1. Experiments in monkeys**

39 SS-SI-VASO, as described above, was implemented on a 7 T vertical primate scanner (Bruker  
40 Biospec 70/60v, Bruker Biospin, Ettlingen, Germany) employing the stimulation setup  
41 described in Goense et al. (2012). For further details of experimental hardware (e.g. magnet



1 and RF coils) and animal preparation (e.g. anesthesia) the reader is referred to (Goense et al.,  
2 2010; Logothetis et al., 1999; Pfeuffer et al., 2004). Functional experiments with BOLD signal  
3 and iron-oxide contrast agent were acquired with a nominal resolution of  $0.375 \times 0.5 \times 2 \text{ mm}^3$ ,  
4 8 GE-EPI acquisition segments, 15 slices, volume TR = 6 s, TE = 20/9.6 ms. Ferumoxytol  
5 (Feraheme, AMAG Pharmaceuticals, Waltham, MA, USA) was injected at a dose of 8 mg/kg.  
6 The SS-SI-VASO parameters were TE/TI1/TI2/TR = 7.8/785/2285/3000 ms and  $0.633 \times 0.75 \times 3$   
7  $\text{mm}^3$  nominal voxel size. VASO images were non-linearly registered to the iron-oxide and BOLD  
8 data using the software package MIPAV (Bazin et al., 2007). fMRI response in V1 was evoked  
9 by means of a rotating ring checkerboard presentation (alternating 30-s rest vs. 30-s  
10 stimulation) (Goense et al., 2012). Experiments were approved by the local authorities  
11 (Regierungspräsidium Baden-Württemberg, Germany) and were in full compliance with the  
12 guidelines of the European Community (EUVD 86/609/EEC) for the care and use of laboratory  
13 animals.

## 14 **2.6.2. Experiments in rats**

15 SS-SI-VASO, as described above, was also implemented on a 7 T rodent scanner (Bruker  
16 BioSpec, 70/30, Bruker Biospin) as reported in (Kennerley et al., 2013) employing the  
17 experimental setup described in (Kennerley et al., 2012a). In order to account for the faster  
18 blood flow in rats as compared with primates (Calamante et al., 1999), a global adiabatic  $90^\circ$   
19 spin-reset pulse was played out before every TR, to control the steady-state of the entire  
20 magnetization within the transmit coil (Lu, 2008). The amplitude and phase shape functions of  
21 this pulse were adapted from the TR-FOCI pulse class, designed for use at 7 T (Hurley et al.,  
22 2010). In order to convert this pulse from an inversion pulse to a  $90^\circ$  saturation pulse, a  $90^\circ$   
23 phase skip of the pulse amplitude was introduced halfway through the pulse duration,  
24 resulting in an inversion efficiency of 50%. The TR time was set at 3200 ms, and a BOLD image  
25 was acquired 1100 ms after global saturation. The inversion pulse was applied 400 ms  
26 thereafter, and the VASO image was acquired at the blood nulling time 1030 ms after the  
27 inversion. TE was equal to 13.1 ms, while the nominal voxel size was  $0.46 \times 0.46 \times 3 \text{ mm}^3$ . The  
28 functional response in S1 was induced by electrically stimulating the left whisker pad  
29 (alternating 86-s rest vs. 16-s stimulation) (Kennerley et al., 2005). Experiments with iron-  
30 oxide contrast agent (MION with dose of 9 mg/kg) were conducted with the same EPI  
31 acquisition parameters. All aspects of these methods and their development were performed  
32 with UK Home Office approval under the animals (Scientific Procedures) act 1986.

## 33 **3. Results**

34 Statistical maps of the BOLD and VASO signal changes for all human subjects are shown in Fig.  
35 2. The corresponding cortical profiles are shown in Fig. 3. We detected a robust negative VASO  
36 signal change (indicating CBV increase) across participants and across the ROIs. VASO z-scores  
37 are approximately 70% of those of the BOLD signal. This shows that a physiologically  
38 meaningful quantity, such as  $\Delta\text{CBV}$ , can be measured noninvasively with VASO in humans at a  
39 laminar level with sensitivity comparable to that of GE-BOLD. Average relative signal changes  
40 across all cortical laminae and participants in M1 are  $(4.3 \pm 0.7)\%$  for BOLD contrast and  $(2.3 \pm$   
41  $0.5) \text{ ml}/100\text{ml}$  for VASO, respectively.

### 1 **3.1. Intracortical signal distribution**

2 Figures 2 and 3 show highest BOLD activity at or outside the cortical surface, decreasing with  
3 cortical depth as expected (De Martino et al., 2013; Goense et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2013;  
4 Polimeni et al., 2010). VASO signal change, on the other hand, has its peak 1 - 2 voxels (0.8 -  
5 1.6 mm) deeper within GM. This position corresponds to the upper or middle cortical lamina.  
6 This difference between VASO and BOLD signal was obtained robustly across all participants  
7 (Fig. 2). Within GM, VASO signal change tends to decrease in deeper layers similar to BOLD.

### 8 **3.2. Time courses**

9 The normalized time courses shown in Fig. 4 suggest relatively small lamina-dependent  
10 differences in response dynamics compared to the absolute signal-change magnitude. In the  
11 BOLD signal time-courses at the cortical surface, a trend towards a stronger overshoot after  
12 task onset is seen, and a stronger undershoot after task offset. The time course during the  
13 post-stimulus undershoot is significantly different for surface laminae compared to deeper  
14 cortical laminae ( $p < 0.05$  after multiple-comparison correction across time steps), but the  
15 time course differences do not reach statistical significance during the overshoot period. The  
16 feature of stronger overshoot in superficial compared to deeper laminae is more pronounced,  
17 however, in VASO time courses. In the period between 12 s and 21 s after task onset, upper  
18 cortical laminae show significantly greater relative signal change compared to the deeper  
19 cortical laminae ( $p < 0.05$  after multiple-comparison correction across time steps).

### 20 **3.3. Functional response in the ipsilateral hemisphere**

21 Imaging the left central sulcus during a left-hand finger-tapping task yielded statistically  
22 significant signal changes. M1 shows a positive BOLD signal change and CBV increase, while  
23 ipsilateral S1 shows a negative BOLD and CBV decrease in all participants (Fig. 5). Average  
24 signal changes of ipsilateral BOLD and VASO responses were  $(1.4 \pm 0.5)\%$  and  $(0.75 \pm 0.2)$   
25 ml/100ml respectively in M1 and  $(-0.7 \pm 0.3)\%$  and  $(-0.3 \pm 0.1)$  ml/100ml in S1, respectively.  
26 The mean negative responses in S1 are not only smaller in amplitude than in M1, but also in  
27 spatial extent. This means that the signal response averaged over a combined ROI across S1  
28 would show a positive overall response ( $(0.19 \pm 0.11)$  ml/100 ml for VASO and  $(0.15 \pm 0.16)\%$   
29 for BOLD), as seen in earlier studies using coarser resolution or after spatial smoothing, where  
30 activated voxels contain signal from both sides of the sulcus (Dettmers et al., 1995; Shibuya et  
31 al., 2014). Low noise in the profiles and time courses and minimal point-to-point scatter is  
32 shown in Fig. 5b (cortical profiles) and Fig. 5c (time courses). This indicates that the relatively  
33 small ipsilateral responses are highly robust, and implies that the averaged data are not noise-  
34 dominated.

### 35 **3.4. Validation with animal results**

36 The cortical profiles of BOLD and VASO signal change in rat S1 and monkey M1 are highly  
37 consistent across the species (Fig. 6) and are also very similar to humans (Fig. 3). In all species,  
38 BOLD signal is highest at the cortical surface and has a variably pronounced 'shoulder' in the  
39 middle cortical laminae (Fig. 3 and Fig. 5). VASO signal change peaks below the cortical surface  
40 across species and brain regions with comparable signal changes in the upper and middle

1 laminae. The corresponding values of  $\Delta CBV$  [ml/100ml] recorded with VASO in upper / middle  
2 laminae are  $2.6 \pm 0.4$  /  $2.2 \pm 0.4$  in human M1;  $2.3 \pm 0.3$  /  $2.0 \pm 0.2$  in monkey V1; and  $1.2 \pm 0.2$   
3 /  $1.1 \pm 0.2$  in rat S1. Cortical profiles of iron-oxide-based fMRI are comparable with VASO  
4 signal profiles, but with small differences at the cortical surface, where VASO shows a trend  
5 towards higher relative signal changes compared to those obtained with iron oxide. VASO and  
6 iron-oxide-based fMRI have conceptually different contrast mechanisms, resulting in different  
7 normalization of their CBV weightings (Eqs. 2 and 3). Hence, the baseline distribution of  $CBV_{rest}$   
8 needs to be taken into account when comparing and interpreting differences between the  
9 two contrasts. Using Eq. 1,  $CBV_{rest}$  can be estimated (Fig. 7a-c) and used to convert the cortical  
10 profiles of normalized relative CBV change in units of  $CBV_{rest}$  (Fig. 7d) to cortical profiles of  
11 absolute blood volume change in units of ml/100ml.

12 Cortical profiles of iron-oxide CBV change in units of %, which are shown in Fig. 7e, are highly  
13 consistent with the results from previous studies in the respective animals (Goense et al.,  
14 2012; Goense et al., 2007; Kennerley et al., 2009; Kennerley et al., 2005).

## 15 4. Discussion

16 It has been claimed that noninvasive CBV-based fMRI could be used to map local changes of  
17 neural activity in human brain with better specificity than GE-BOLD (Kennerley et al., 2005;  
18 Zhao et al., 2006). Previous low-resolution applications of VASO have suggested that the signal  
19 is more confined to GM than the GE-BOLD signal, which is known to peak in voxels at the  
20 cortical surface (Huber et al., 2014a; Huber et al., 2014b). In the current study, these insights  
21 are taken one step further with sub-millimeter resolution fMRI, allowing high resolution layer-  
22 dependent analysis. The results presented here confirm that the VASO signal change is less  
23 dominated by the surface vasculature compared to GE-BOLD signal, and represents functional  
24 tissue responses with less contamination by the macrovasculature. The SNR limitations of sub-  
25 millimeter non-BOLD fMRI in humans, which have, so far, hampered high-resolution  
26 comparisons of CBV and BOLD signal in humans, can be overcome with the intrinsically high  
27 CNR of SS-SI-VASO.

28 The slower VASO signal change in deeper cortical laminae and the stronger overshoot in  
29 superficial laminae are consistent with previous laminar-dependent results from studies with  
30 iron oxides in cat V1 (Jin and Kim, 2008b; Yacoub et al., 2006). The weaker relative post-  
31 activation undershoot in deeper cortical laminae is not consistent with earlier studies in cat V1  
32 (Jin and Kim, 2008b) and human V1 (Siero et al., 2014), which may be due to different  
33 interactions of actively and passively controlled vasculature for different stimulus durations  
34 used in those studies. The stimulus durations in the respective references were 60 s (Jin and  
35 Kim, 2008b) and 0.5 – 8 s (Siero et al., 2014) compared to 30 s in this study.

### 36 4.1. Functional response in the ipsilateral hemisphere

37 Figure 5 shows that finger tapping surprisingly evokes a positive response in ipsilateral M1,  
38 but a negative response in ipsilateral S1. The task response in ipsilateral M1 has been found to  
39 be highly dependent on stimulus paradigm and strength. While low-force (usually 5% of  
40 individual maximal voluntary contraction) has been shown to evoke a negative BOLD  
41 response, and reductions in blood flow and metabolism in ipsilateral sensorimotor ROIs

1 (Dettmers et al., 1995; Hamzei et al., 2002; Stefanovic et al., 2004), responses have been  
2 observed to become positive when stronger forces and more demanding tasks are used  
3 (Dettmers et al., 1995; Shibuya et al., 2014). Even though the corticospinal tract is  
4 predominantly a crossed pathway, which suggests contralateral M1 responses only, bilateral  
5 motor representations have been reported in several studies (Cramer et al., 1999; Dettmers et  
6 al., 1995; Donchin et al., 2002). Hence, the positive ipsilateral response during unilateral  
7 motion seen in the present study could be interpreted as part of the bilateral motor  
8 representation. This requires further investigation.

9 Figure 5 showed that a unilateral sensory stimulation produces a robust negative ipsilateral  
10 response in S1. This is consistent with the literature for humans (Mullinger et al., 2014;  
11 Schafer et al., 2012) and animals (Boorman et al., 2010). However, none of the above-  
12 mentioned studies of ipsilateral sensorimotor activation had a sufficient resolution to  
13 distinguish or exclude the separate contributions from S1 and M1. Thus, direct comparisons  
14 with our results (Fig. 5) could be misleading. It needs to be mentioned that partial volume  
15 effects of macrovasculature draining or feeding the opposing sides of the central sulcus can  
16 complicate layer-dependent interpretation of the results in Fig. 5. For example, pial veins  
17 within the sulcus can drain both M1 and S1, and hence their BOLD signal might reflect a  
18 mixture of activity in both areas. These types of specificity limitations of BOLD signal changes,  
19 arising from large veins in the sulcus, can make it difficult to interpret separately the  
20 corresponding BOLD signal from opposite sides of the sulcus.

21 The robust detection of relatively small layer-dependent ipsilateral responses with VASO  
22 during a 12-min experiment suggests its applicability in future studies, for example, those  
23 investigating the afferent-efferent characteristics of the cortex.

#### 24 **4.2. Uncertainties in arterial and venous blood $T_1$**

25 It has been shown recently, that the arterial blood  $T_1$  is approximately 100 – 200 ms longer  
26 than venous blood  $T_1$  (Grgac et al., 2012; Rane and Gore, 2013). When only one value is  
27 assumed for both blood compartments, as in this study, the chosen TI can differ from the true  
28 blood nulling time by 35 – 70 ms. The corresponding incomplete blood nulling can result in an  
29 error in the VASO signal change of about 8% relative to the total VASO signal change. This  
30 means that potentially different arterial and venous blood compositions in different cortical  
31 laminae can be accompanied with small biases in the VASO signal change. In a worst case, the  
32 measured CBV change of  $2.3 \pm 0.5$  ml/100ml in human M1 might have an additional source of  
33 uncertainty, to become  $2.3 \pm 0.5$  (inter-subject standard deviation)  $\pm 0.17$  (uncertainty in  
34 arterial and venous blood  $T_1$ ) ml/100ml. Since the uncertainty in arterial and venous blood  $T_1$   
35 is considerably smaller than inter-subject variation, the ensuing error is considered to be  
36 tolerable here, and has no qualitative impact in the interpretation of the cortical profiles  
37 shown.

#### 38 **4.3. Potential artifacts of dynamic CSF volume change**

39 Functional changes in the partial voluming of CSF and GM could affect VASO signal and make  
40 direct interpretation of  $\Delta CBV$  in VASO experiments more difficult (Donahue et al., 2006; Jin  
41 and Kim, 2010; Piechnik et al., 2009). CSF contamination in VASO could mimic VASO signal

1 change at the cortical surface and distort the corresponding cortical profiles (Jin and Kim,  
2 2010). Here, the steady-state of CSF and GM magnetizations was manipulated independently  
3 of TR by increasing the nominal excitation pulse flip angle. Based on simulations of GM steady-  
4 state z-magnetization and CSF steady-state z-magnetization, a nominal flip angle of  $\alpha = 130^\circ$   
5 was chosen. These simulations are based on assumed  $T_1$  values of 1.9 s and 4.0 s for GM and  
6 CSF, respectively. The application of a flip angle of  $\alpha = 130^\circ$  results in an SNR penalty of 9%  
7 compared to the application of the Ernst angle. This flip angle results in a BOLD-corrected  
8 VASO image with almost no signal contrast between GM and CSF (see Fig. 1e), which is thus  
9 insensitive to any functional volume redistribution of GM and CSF. In contrast with the CSF-  
10 nulled ACDC VASO (Scouten and Constable, 2008) or VASO FLAIR (Donahue et al., 2006)  
11 techniques, the VASO signal changes in this study reflect both components of the CBV  
12 change—the CBV increase that is compensated by a GM volume decrease as well as the CBV  
13 increase that is compensated by CSF volume decrease—with the same weighting.

#### 14 **4.4. Comparison of VASO and iron-oxide-based fMRI in animals**

15 VASO was applied in animals in order to validate its CBV weighting. Jin and Kim (2006; 2008a)  
16 compared the layer dependence of the VASO signal with that using an iron-oxide contrast  
17 agent. In order to minimize inflow of ‘fresh’ blood during the inversion time, VASO images had  
18 to be acquired 500 ms before the blood nulling time, introducing a flow weighting as with ASL-  
19 FAIR experiments lacking a control condition. In these studies, differences of relative signal  
20 change obtained with VASO and iron oxides in upper cortical layers were interpreted to arise  
21 from inflow effects and limited BOLD contamination (Jin and Kim, 2006). Further quantitative  
22 studies were needed to reveal the underlying CBV sensitivity of VASO in comparison to iron-  
23 oxide-based fMRI independent of such flow contaminations (Jin and Kim, 2008a).

24 Across GM regions and species, the general vascular layout of large vessels is broadly similar.  
25 For example, larger arterioles or larger venules feed or drain the cortical laminae from the  
26 surface (Duvernoy et al., 1981). The microvessels are distributed inside GM across the cortical  
27 layers. There are subtle and specific differences across cortical layers in different brain areas  
28 (Duvernoy et al., 1981). For all three stimulation tasks used here, the major part of the  
29 neutrally driven energy consumption increase is not expected to occur at the cortical surface  
30 at the site of large pial vasculature, but it is expected to occur within the cortex, distributed  
31 across the cortical layers. Much of the energy use is expected in middle cortical layers,  
32 corresponding to the thalamocortical input layer IV in V1 and S1, and in M1 increased activity  
33 in thalamocortical and corticocortical input layer V (Porter and Lemon, 1995) and in cortico-  
34 cortical input layer II/III (Yu et al., 2014). Because BOLD and VASO MRI data characterize  
35 lamina-dependent vascular changes, the exact correspondence between neural activity  
36 changes and vascular changes in individual cytoarchitecturally-defined cortical layers is still  
37 unknown. The resulting cortical profiles of BOLD and VASO signal changes are rather expected  
38 to reflect the neurally driven microvascular response in a particular cortical lamina combined  
39 with the signal response of diving arteries and veins passing through that layer. Depending on  
40 the MRI resolution, a given cortical lamina in the MRI data can contain multiple anatomically  
41 defined cortical layers of different cytoarchitecture.

#### 42 **4.5. Vascular origin of BOLD, VASO and iron-oxide-based fMRI**

1 The different cortical profile shapes of BOLD, VASO, and iron-oxide-based signal depend partly  
2 on the influence of macrovascular contributions in the different modalities, so they must be  
3 discussed with respect to expected underlying vascular features.

4 A qualitative schematic illustration of the expected vascular contributions in the respective  
5 methodologies is shown in Fig. 8. It is shown how a certain layer-dependent response might  
6 be transformed into the detectable laminar signal change of the corresponding modalities. In  
7 order to discuss the different physiological point spread function of BOLD, VASO and iron-  
8 oxide-based fMRI, a double peak response is used here as reported earlier in rat M1 (Yu et al.,  
9 2014). This example is chosen for illustrative reasons because it clearly visualizes different  
10 macrovascular contamination in upper and deeper cortical laminae.

11 The GE-BOLD signal change at 7 T can be considered to be dominated by translaminar diving  
12 venules and pial veins rather than by intralaminar capillaries (Uludag et al., 2009). Hence, the  
13 majority of the BOLD signal reflects oxygenation changes in veins draining multiple layers,  
14 making it difficult to break down the signal into layer-dependent activity. The contribution of  
15 intralaminar capillary BOLD signal with layer-dependent specificity is expected to be relatively  
16 low compared to macrovascular BOLD signal (upper row in Fig. 8).

17 VASO fMRI is expected to capture CBV changes in small intralaminar arterioles (Tian et al.,  
18 2010), and in capillaries to some extent (Stefanovic et al., 2008), but almost no signal is  
19 expected to come from venules (Hillman et al., 2007). Additionally, VASO fMRI is expected to  
20 capture CBV changes in larger translaminar diving arterioles (Tian et al., 2010). The diameter  
21 of these diving arterioles is larger in the upper cortical laminae and becomes smaller with  
22 increasing cortical depth (Duvernoy et al., 1981). During functional activity, their relative  
23 vessel diameter increase is homogeneous across the cortical laminae (Tian et al., 2010). This  
24 suggests that the absolute CBV change of those diving arterioles is smallest in deep cortical  
25 laminae and somewhat larger in upper cortical laminae. The  $\Delta CBV$  contribution from pial  
26 arteries, which visibly dilate in optical imaging spectroscopy studies (Kennerley et al., 2012b),  
27 are also expected to contribute to the global CBV change. This macrovascular contribution  
28 could result in the highest VASO signal change in upper cortical laminae (middle row in Fig. 8).

29 In contrast to VASO fMRI, the relative signal change recorded with iron oxide is inherently  
30 normalized to the local baseline blood volume. This normalization introduces severe inverse  
31 macrovascular weighting at the location of large translaminar arterial and venous vessels.  
32 Since the macrovascular baseline CBV can vary up to a factor of five across measured laminae  
33 at and below the cortical surface (see Fig. 7a or (Goense et al., 2007; Kennerley et al., 2005;  
34 Kim et al., 2013)), the intralaminar microvasculature response in upper cortical laminae  
35 appears suppressed in the resulting cortical profiles (Fig. 7d and bottom row in Fig. 8).

36 The large macrovascular contribution at the surface and the fact that iron-oxide-based CBV-  
37 changes are usually reported in percent change tends to underestimate the actual CBV change  
38 ( $\Delta CBV$ ) at the surface. Thus the widely reported feature that CBV-sensitive iron-oxide-based  
39 fMRI shows highest activity in deeper cortical layers (Kim et al., 2013) at the site of  
40 thalamocortical input layers does not necessarily suggest high local specificity, but might in  
41 fact be due to inverse macrovascular weighting in the upper cortical laminae. Furthermore, in  
42 iron-oxide-based fMRI, the high baseline CBV at the cortical surface can result in low MR signal

1 intensity. If SNR at the surface is limited, the corresponding layer-dependent detection  
2 threshold can be higher than the signal change at the cortical surface (Goense et al., 2012).

3 In summary, among the three investigated fMRI contrasts in this study, GE-BOLD contrast has  
4 the strongest relative macrovascular contamination. VASO and iron-oxide-based fMRI also  
5 have macrovascular weighting or contamination from the upper cortical laminae, but to a  
6 lesser degree than BOLD fMRI. We have shown that VASO has lower sensitivity to  
7 macrovasculature than GE-BOLD, and hence higher specificity to functionally driven changes  
8 in microvasculature. But layer-dependent cortical profiles of VASO signal clearly represent a  
9 sum of microvascular and macrovascular contributions, albeit with a relatively larger  
10 microvascular contribution.

11 Future quantitative models relying on the layer-dependent micro- and macrovasculature  
12 distribution might be able to extend the above qualitative considerations to a quantitative  
13 level (Gagnon et al., 2013; Markuerkiaga et al., 2014).

#### 14 **4.6. Other imaging modalities**

15 Spin-echo (SE) BOLD fMRI has been suggested to have higher specificity to the  
16 microvasculature (Uludag et al., 2009) and its utility for laminar and columnar fMRI has been  
17 demonstrated in animals (Goense et al., 2012; Harel et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2006) and in  
18 humans (Yacoub et al., 2005; Yacoub et al., 2008). However, it suffers from much lower  
19 sensitivity, especially at high resolution (Yacoub et al., 2005), which may limit the widespread  
20 application of the technique (Boyacioglu et al., 2014; Budde et al., 2014; Harmer et al., 2012).

### 21 **5. Conclusion**

22 We have shown that the SS-SI-VASO method can be used, at high field (7 T), to noninvasively  
23 and simultaneously investigate the cortical profiles of  $\Delta$ CBV and BOLD signal. This allows us to  
24 capture layer-dependent CBV responses robustly in humans, information that was previously  
25 only accessible in animal research. Considering the different macrovascular contributions and  
26 normalization features in VASO and iron-oxide-based fMRI, cortical profiles of both contrasts  
27 are in good agreement. The data presented here suggest that VASO can be used to investigate  
28 layer-dependent responses with much reduced macrovascular contributions compared to GE-  
29 BOLD. VASO may thus play an important role in revealing top-down or afferent-efferent  
30 stimulus processing in the brain using layer-dependent fMRI, without the unwanted sensitivity  
31 to vascular changes in large draining veins that GE-BOLD suffers from.

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51

1 **Figure captions:**

2 **Fig. 1: Acquisition and evaluation procedure to obtain layer-dependent VASO and BOLD signal changes.** EPI  
3 slice orientation is planned on previously acquired anatomical  $T_1$ -maps to position the imaging slices  
4 perpendicular to the cortical surface of the motor cortex **(a)**. Orthogonality is verified by projecting the cortical  
5 surfaces onto adjacent slices **(b)**. Cortical laminae are calculated from IR-EPI  $T_1$ -maps in the regions where the  
6 slices are perpendicular to the cortex **(c)**. Interleaved acquisition of VASO and BOLD time series during a finger-  
7 tapping task **(d,e)** are motion corrected and evaluated to obtain statistical activation maps of BOLD signal  
8 change and BOLD-corrected VASO signal change **(f)**.

9 **Fig. 2: Statistical activation maps of BOLD and VASO signal change for all six participants.** Z-scores of BOLD  
10 and VASO activations on the contralateral side are depicted in the GM ROIs of M1. For easy visualization of the  
11 cortical surfaces, manually drawn green lines are overlaid onto the maps in the three bottom rows of the  
12 figure. These green lines are drawn to stress the different signal origin of VASO and BOLD signal and do not  
13 necessarily indicate to the GM-CSF border. Across all participants, highest BOLD signal is seen above the  
14 cortical surface. Inside GM, the BOLD signal decreases with cortical depth. VASO signal activity, on the other  
15 hand, peaks inside GM and below the green reference line. Inside GM, VASO signal decreases with cortical  
16 depth similar to BOLD. Indications of increased functional activity in deeper cortical laminae are visible in some  
17 cases (black arrows). The reference image used as a background corresponds to the tSNR map of the EPI fMRI  
18 time series. Nominal in-plane resolution is  $0.78 \times 0.78 \text{ mm}^2$  and slice thickness is 1.2 -2 mm.

19 **Fig. 3: Averaged cortical profiles of BOLD and VASO in human M1.** BOLD signal change peaks at or above the  
20 cortical surface, while VASO peaks slightly deeper and inside GM. The point of zero cortical depth is defined as  
21 the border between GM and CSF. With the resolutions used in this study, this borderline is usually not  
22 distinguishable from the voxels with maximal CSF partial voluming. The x-axis refers to cortical depth in  
23 volume units normalized to cortical thickness and in units of mm, respectively. Since the GM-WM border is not  
24 very pronounced in M1, cortical thickness is taken from the literature assumed to be 4 mm (Fischl and Dale,  
25 2000) in all participants. The approximate position of GM is schematically depicted with the shaded gray  
26 rectangle in the background.

27 **Fig. 4: Layer-dependent VASO and BOLD signal time courses.** Time courses for BOLD **(a)** and VASO **(b)** signal at  
28 different cortical depths. Compared to the amplitude of the total signal change, the differences in time courses  
29 for different cortical depths are relatively small. There is a tendency of stronger BOLD signal overshoot and  
30 undershoot at the cortical surface. An overshoot approximately 10 s after stimulus onset is also clearly visible  
31 in VASO, while the post-stimulus signal does not show a clear laminar signature. Cortical-depth-dependent  
32 differences in signal time courses could potentially reflect: local differences in neural activity, different neuro-  
33 vascular coupling, or different macrovascular contributions for different cortical laminae. For the sake of  
34 clarity, only three time courses are depicted corresponding to: cortical surface, middle cortical laminae, and  
35 deep cortical laminae. The respective ROIs are depicted in panel **c)** for a representative subject.

36 **Fig. 5: Responses in ipsilateral M1 and S1.** **a)** Statistical activation maps of BOLD and VASO showing the  
37 ipsilateral responses, i.e., left M1 and S1 for tapping with the left hand. M1 showed positive BOLD signal and  
38 CBV increase, while S1 showed negative BOLD and CBV decrease in all participants. Z-scores are overlaid on  
39 tSNR maps of the fMRI EPI-time series. **b)** Cortical profiles of BOLD and VASO signal change in S1. On both sides  
40 of the central sulcus, VASO signal change peaks in deeper cortical laminae compared to BOLD. Despite  
41 presumable partial voluming of positive and negative responses in the CSF region of the central sulcus, BOLD  
42 signal change shows a sharp signal jump. **c)** Mean time courses of BOLD and VASO signal in ROIs of M1 and S1  
43 during right hand finger tapping and left hand finger tapping. In order to avoid partial voluming between M1  
44 and S1, the signal from the upper laminae is excluded.

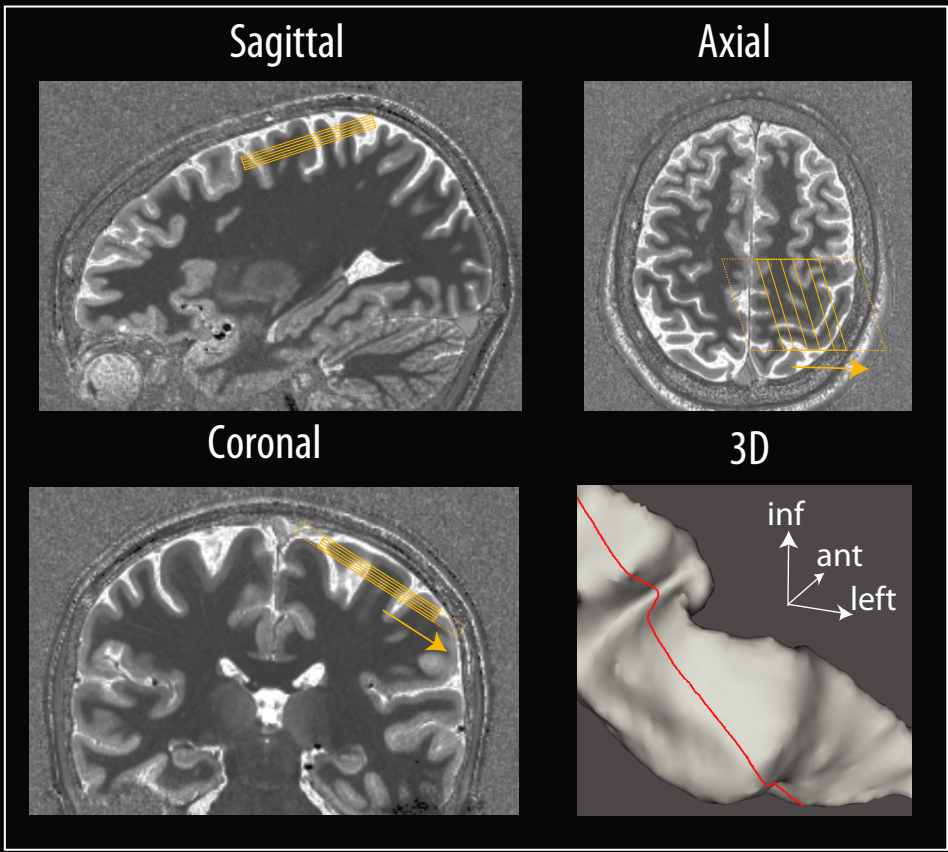
45 **Fig. 6: Cortical profiles of relative BOLD, VASO, and iron-oxide-based signal change in animals.** **a)** and **c)**  
46 depict cortical profiles of relative signal changes of BOLD, VASO, iron-oxide-based fMRI signal in monkey V1

1 and rat S1. BOLD and VASO signal distribution across the cortex is remarkably similar to human results (Fig. 3);  
2 BOLD signal peaks at or above the cortical surface with a more or less pronounced ‘shoulder’ in middle cortical  
3 laminae, while VASO shows a double peak distribution across species. Cortical profiles of VASO and iron-oxide-  
4 based functional responses are the same within the error of the measurements. However, a trend of higher  
5 VASO signal change close to the cortical surface can be noticed. For best comparison of the different contrasts,  
6 cortical profiles are scaled to the signal change in deeper cortical layers. The values of the unscaled signals are  
7 given in the main text. **b)** Monkey V1 (sagittal slice), **d)** rat S1 (coronal slice), statistical z-score activation maps  
8 of BOLD, VASO, and iron-oxide-based signal corresponding to cortical profiles depicted in **a)** and **c)** overlaid on  
9 the raw EPI images. The x-axis refers to cortical depth in volume units normalized to cortical thickness and in  
10 units of mm, respectively. Cortical profiles of ultra-high resolution FLASH signal can be used to reveal the  
11 approximate position of the cortical surface (peak) and layer IV (dip).

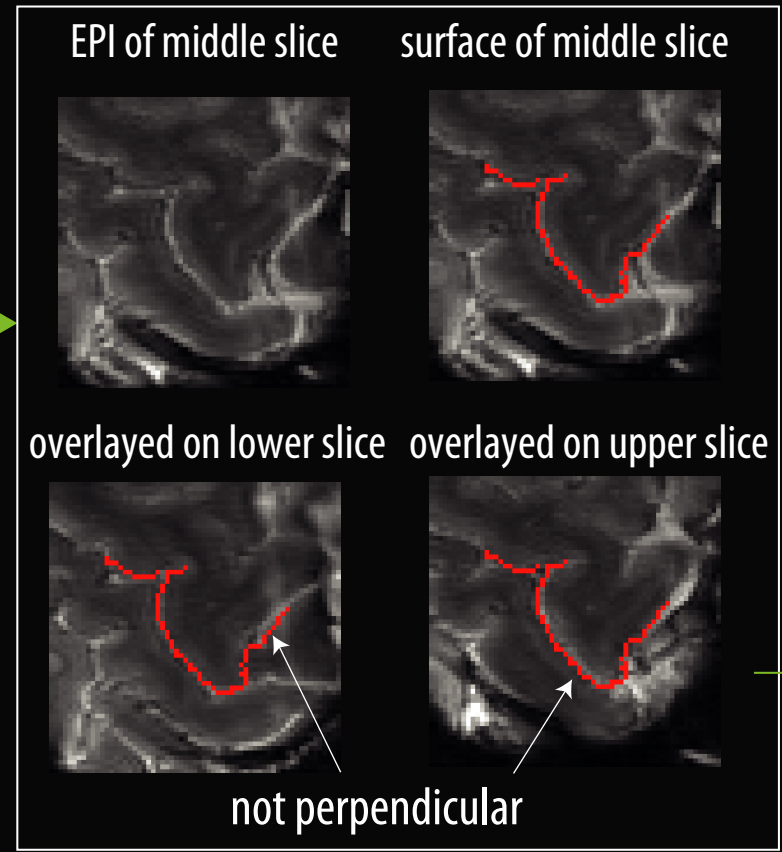
12 **Fig. 7: Comparison of VASO and iron-oxide-based fMRI.** Due to the inherently different normalization of VASO  
13 and iron-oxide-based fMRI (Eq. 2 and Eq. 3), layer-dependent baseline  $CBV_{rest}$  distribution must be considered.  
14 **a), b), c)** In monkey V1 and rat S1,  $CBV_{rest}$  is highest at the cortical surface. In rat S1,  $CBV_{rest}$  decreases  
15 continuously with cortical depth, while in monkey V1,  $CBV_{rest}$  is more homogeneous in deeper laminae, and  
16 layer IV is visible. **d)** Cortical profiles of normalized iron-oxide-based signal change ( $\Delta CBV / CBV_{rest}$ ) of monkey  
17 V1 and rat S1 as in Fig. 5b and Fig. 5c. **e)** Cortical profiles of CBV change in units of volume change (not in units  
18 of baseline CBV) in rat S1, monkey V1 and human M1 acquired with multiple contrasts. Iron-oxide-based  
19 results without normalization are obtained by the multiplication of profiles in panels **a)** and **d)**. VASO results do  
20 not have the inherent  $CBV_{rest}$ -normalization of the iron-oxide-based fMRI so the depicted profiles directly  
21 correspond to relative signal change as given in Figs. 5a, 5b, and 5c. The profiles are strikingly similar across  
22 imaging modalities and even species and brain regions and residual differences are not significant with respect  
23 to the inter-subject variation. For best comparison of the different species and contrasts, cortical profiles are  
24 scaled to the signal change in deeper cortical layers. The values of the unscaled CBV changes are given in the  
25 main text.

26 **Fig. 8: Schematic illustration of the investigated fMRI signals and their sensitivity to micro- and macro-**  
27 **vasculature.** All three contrasts, BOLD signal, VASO and iron-oxide-based fMRI are sensitive to both changes in  
28 microvasculature and changes in macrovasculature, but with different weightings. The black dashed regions  
29 refer to macrovasculature spreading across cortical layers, and microvasculature confined to individual cortical  
30 layers, respectively. The term  $\Delta Y$  refers to the changes in the blood oxygenation. The expected sensitivity is  
31 considered in an example of enhanced activity in upper and lower cortical layers. It reflects the cortico-cortical  
32 input response of rat M1 (Yu et al., 2014) for activity in M1 and is considered an illustrative example only.  
33 BOLD signal change has a large contamination from large diving veins and pial veins draining the activated  
34 layers. In VASO signal changes, the CBV change of feeding arteries supplying the activated layers introduces a  
35 weighting of macrovasculature beyond the activated laminae. In iron-oxide-based methods, the inherent  
36 normalization to total baseline CBV introduces an inverse weighting of large vessels at and below the cortical  
37 surface.

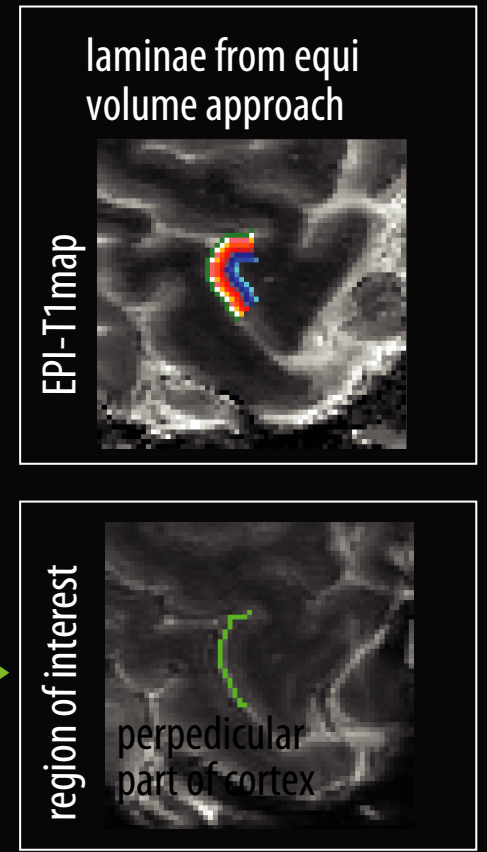
### a) slice-positioning



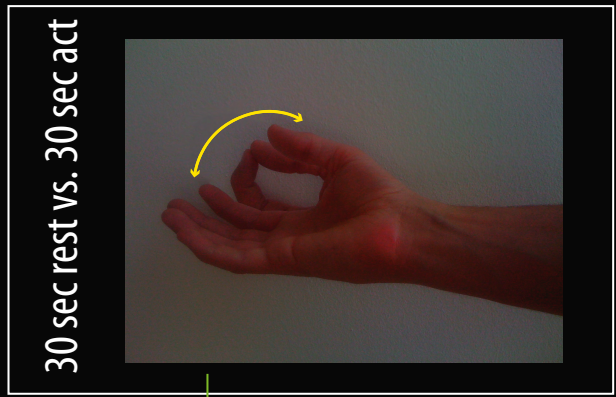
### b) orthogonality estimation



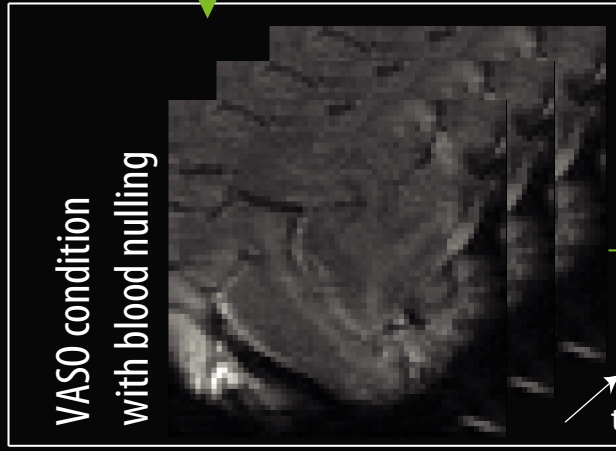
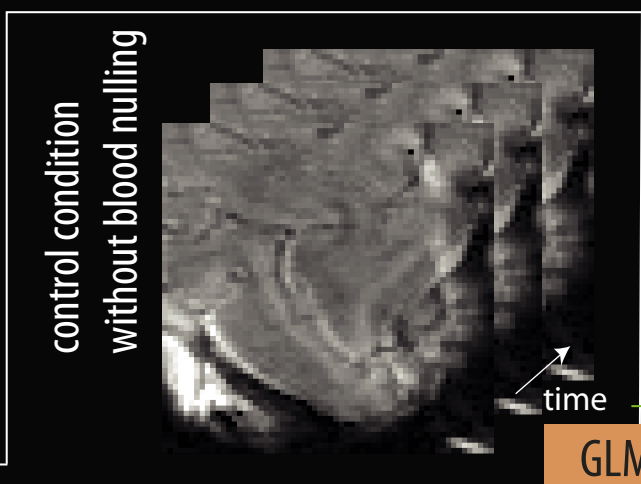
### c) laminae definition



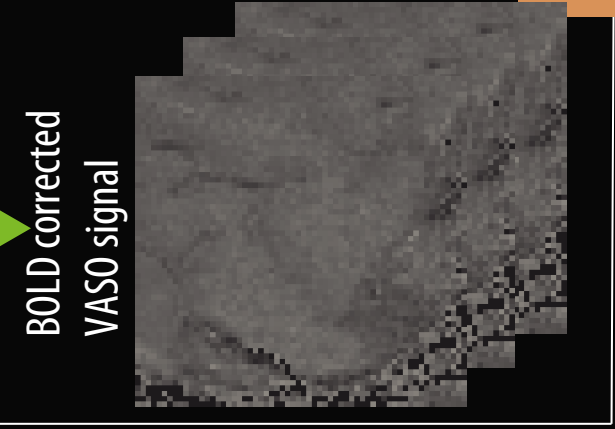
### d) stimulus



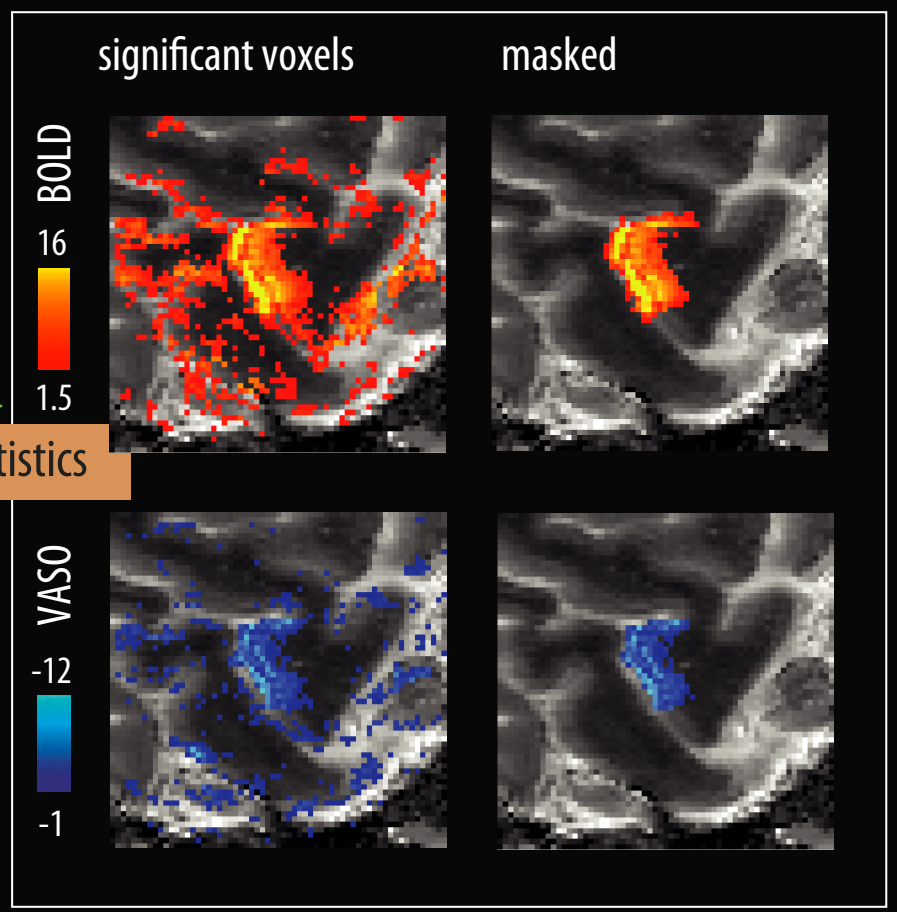
### e) EPI time series



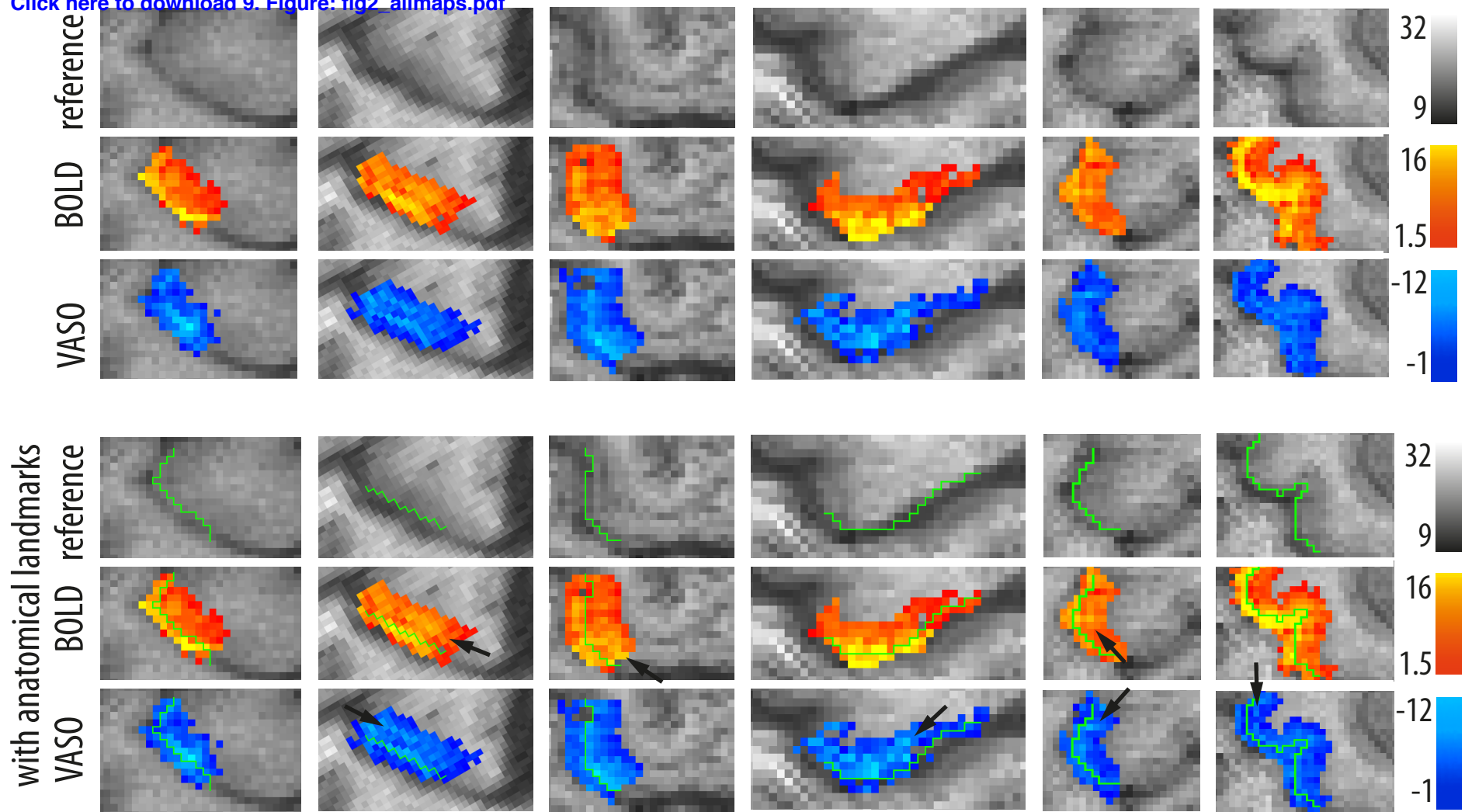
BOLD correction



### f) activation maps

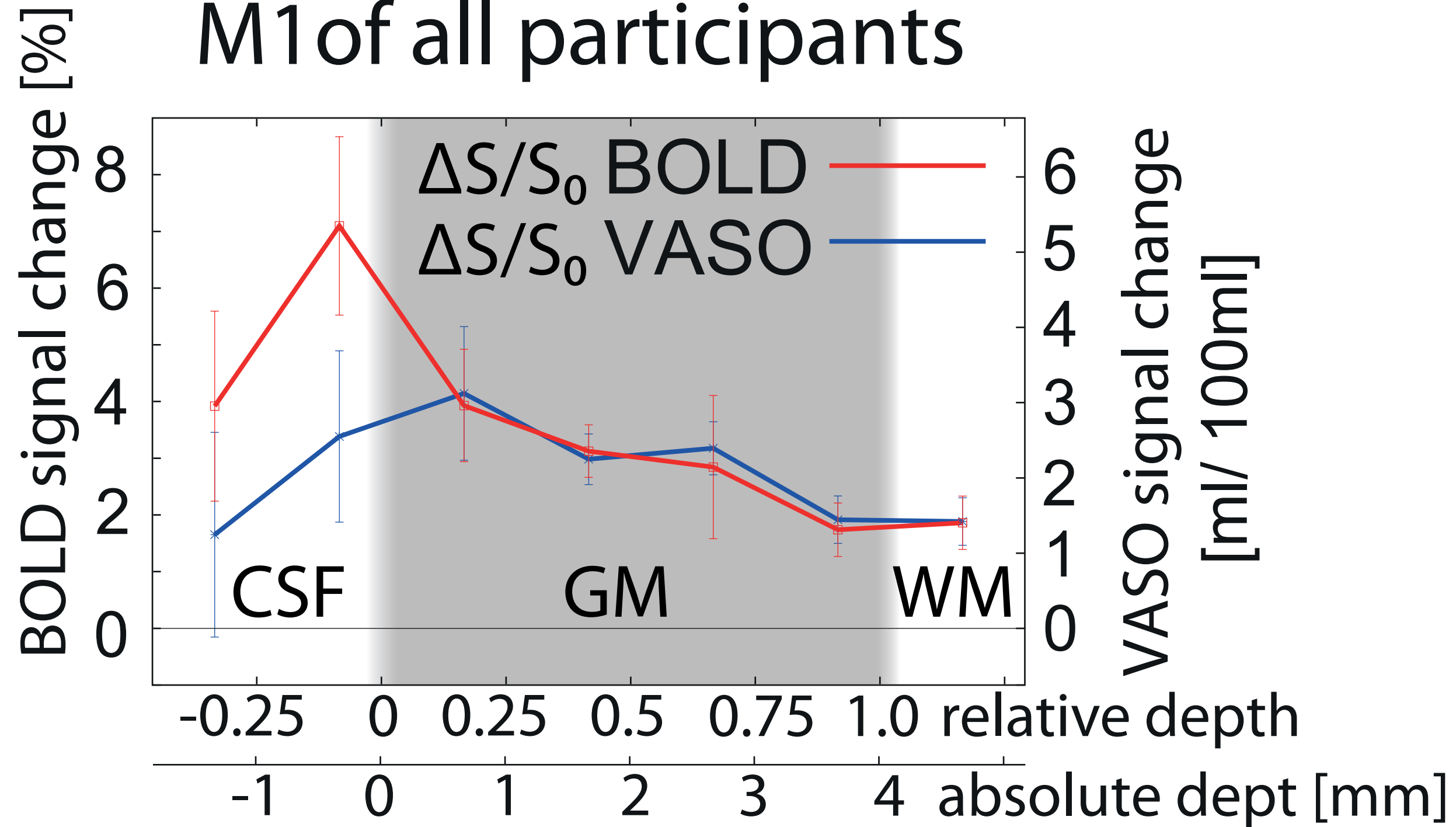


9. Figure  
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# averaged profiles in M1 of all participants

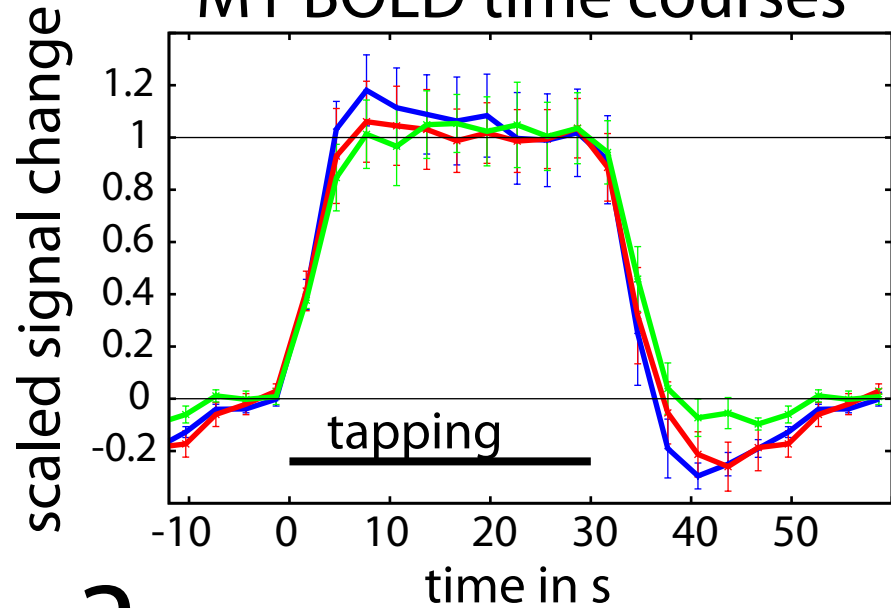




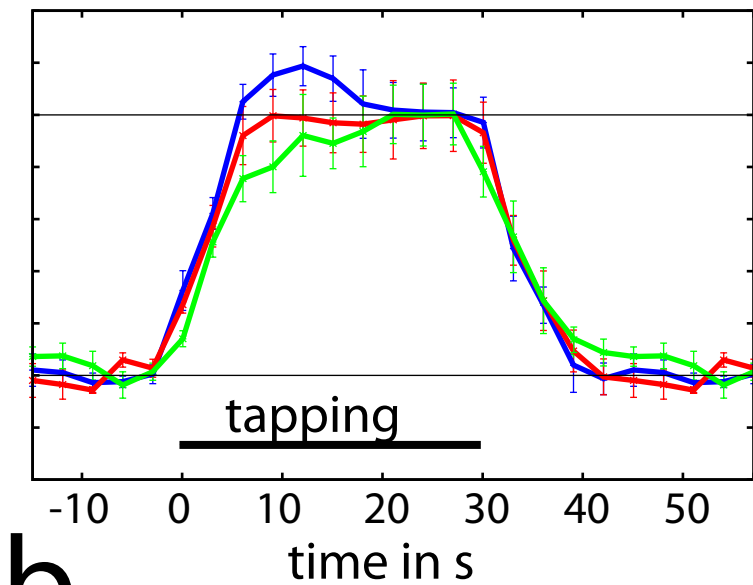
## 9. Figure

[Click here to download 9. Figure: fig4\\_timecourses.pdf](#)

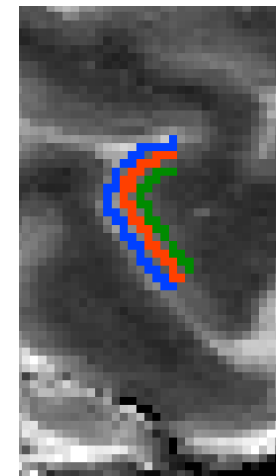
### M1 BOLD time courses



### M1 VASO time courses



### ROIs



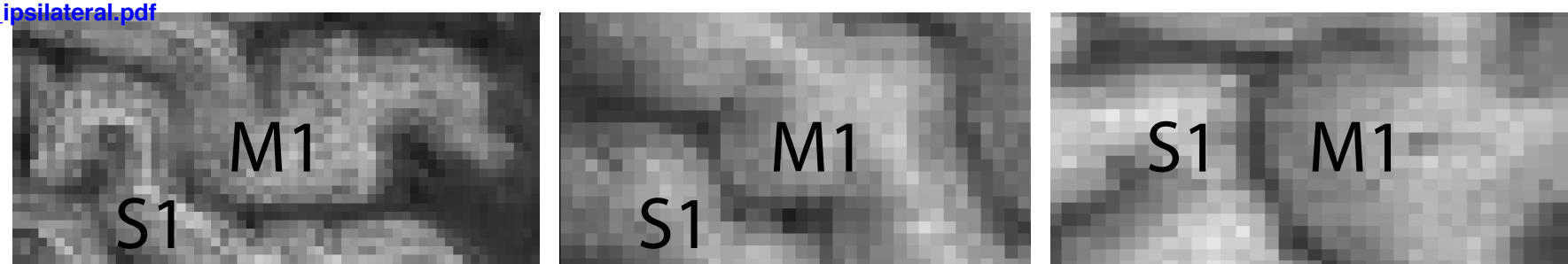
**a**

**b**

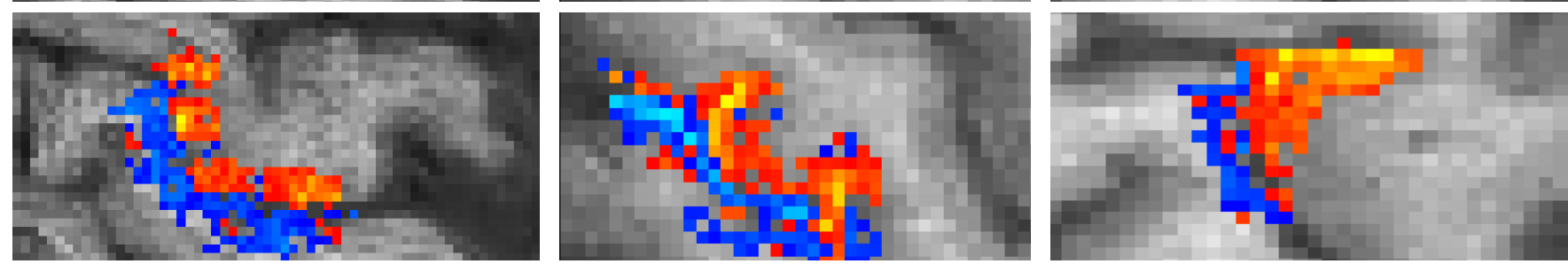
**c**

— upper laminae    — middle laminae    — deeper laminae

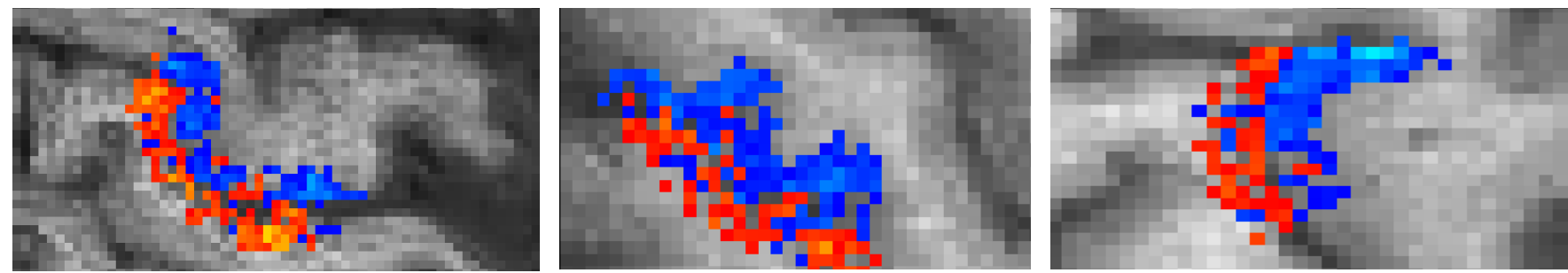
reference



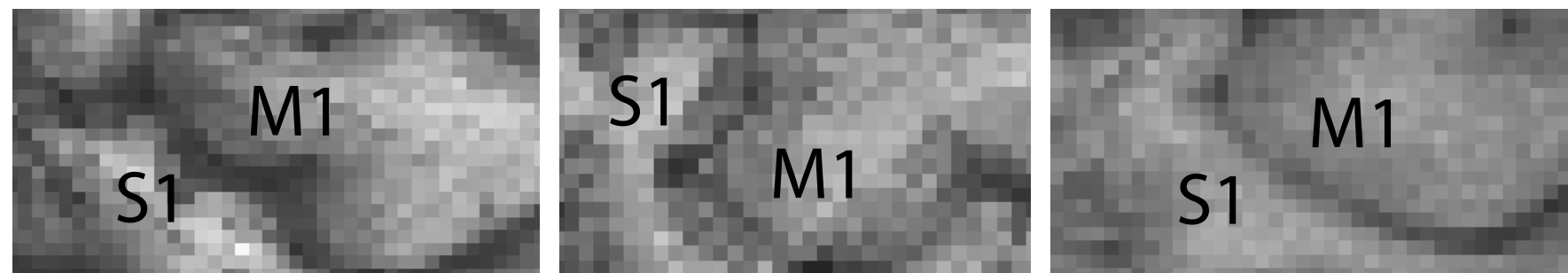
BOLD



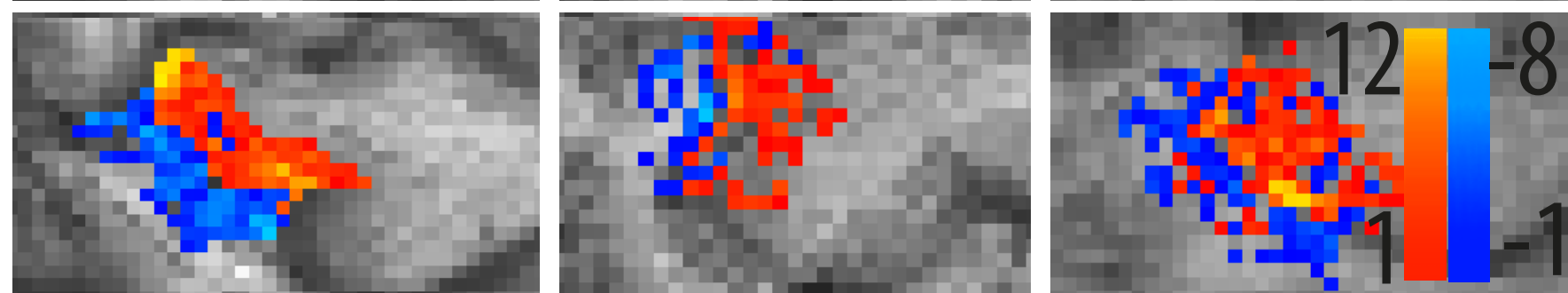
VASO



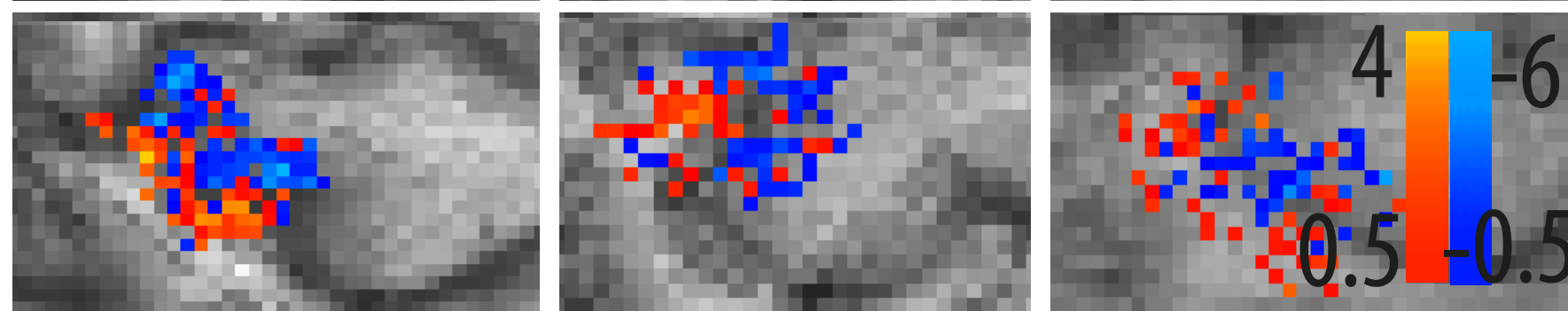
reference



BOLD

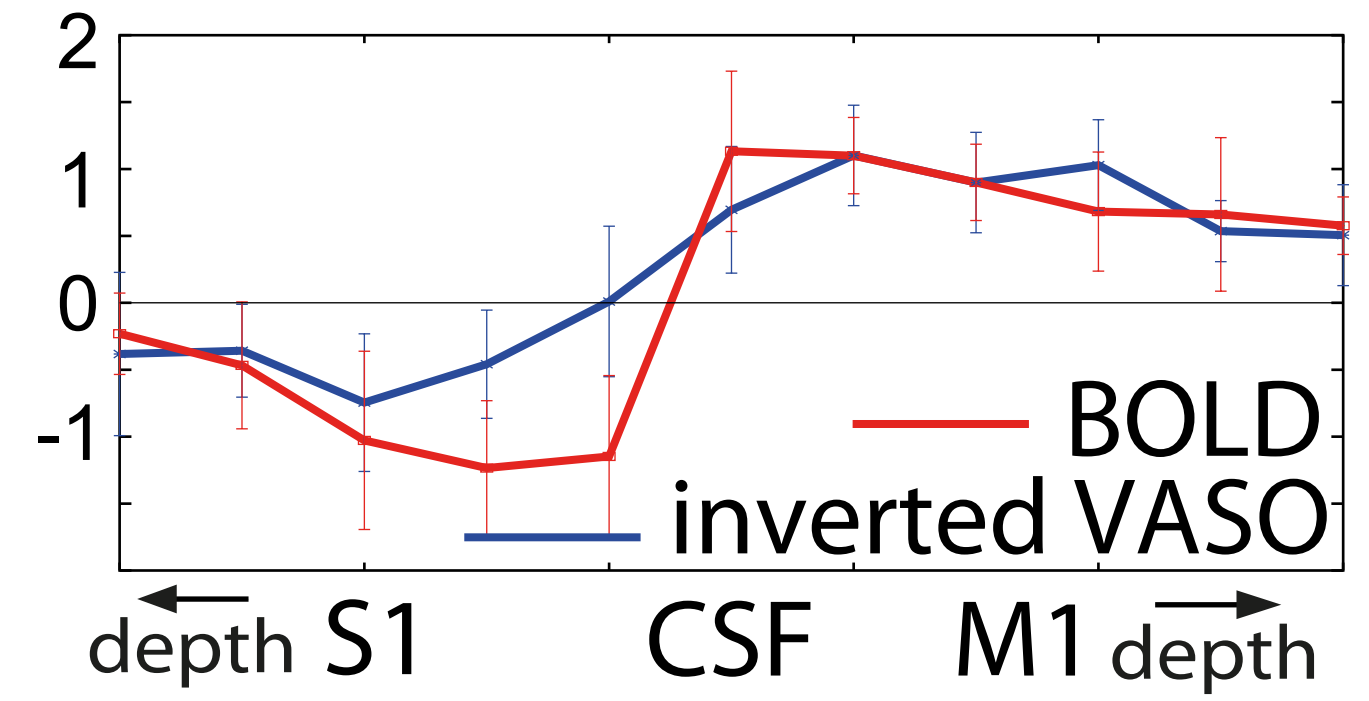


VASO

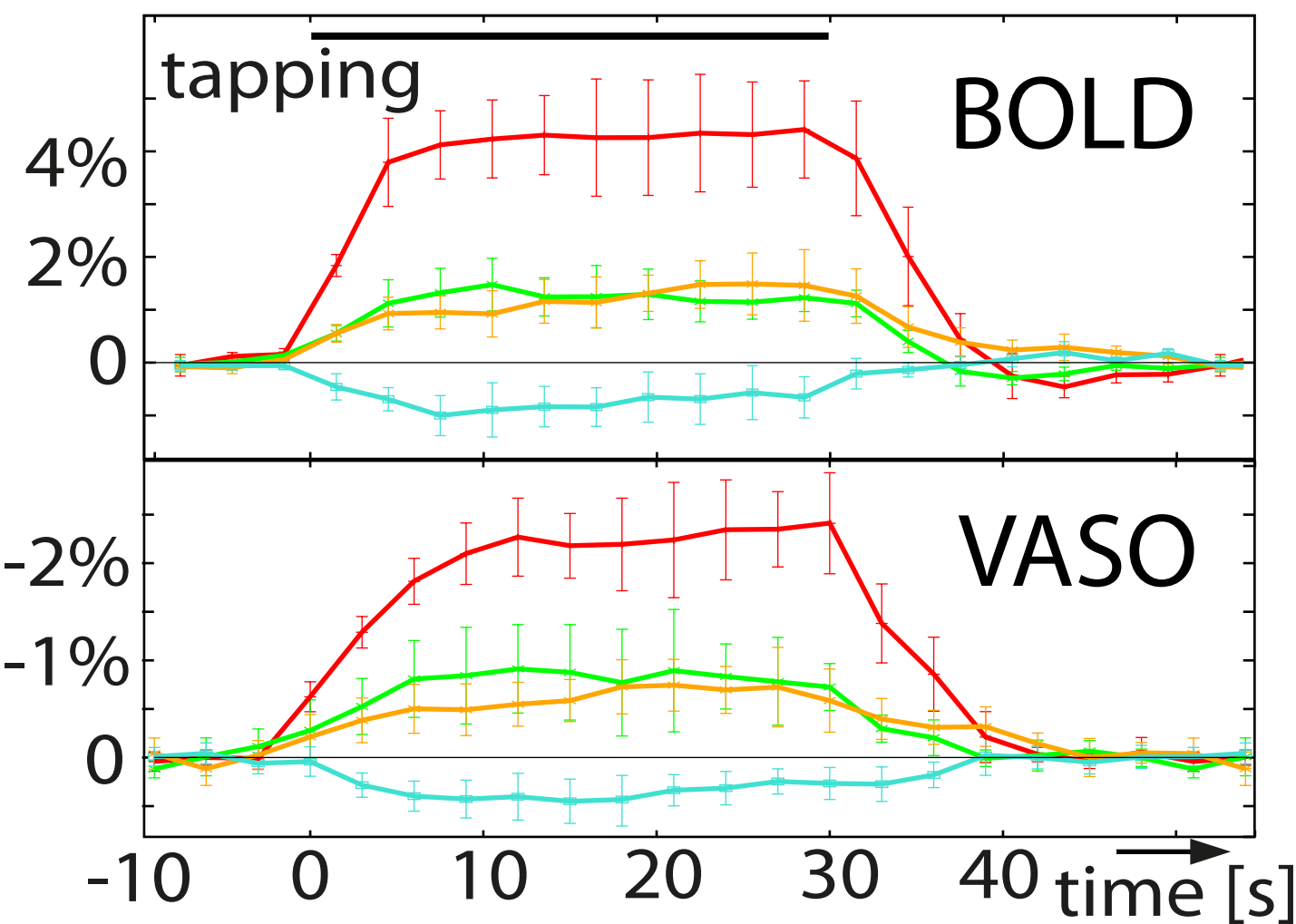


**a**

**b** scaled signal

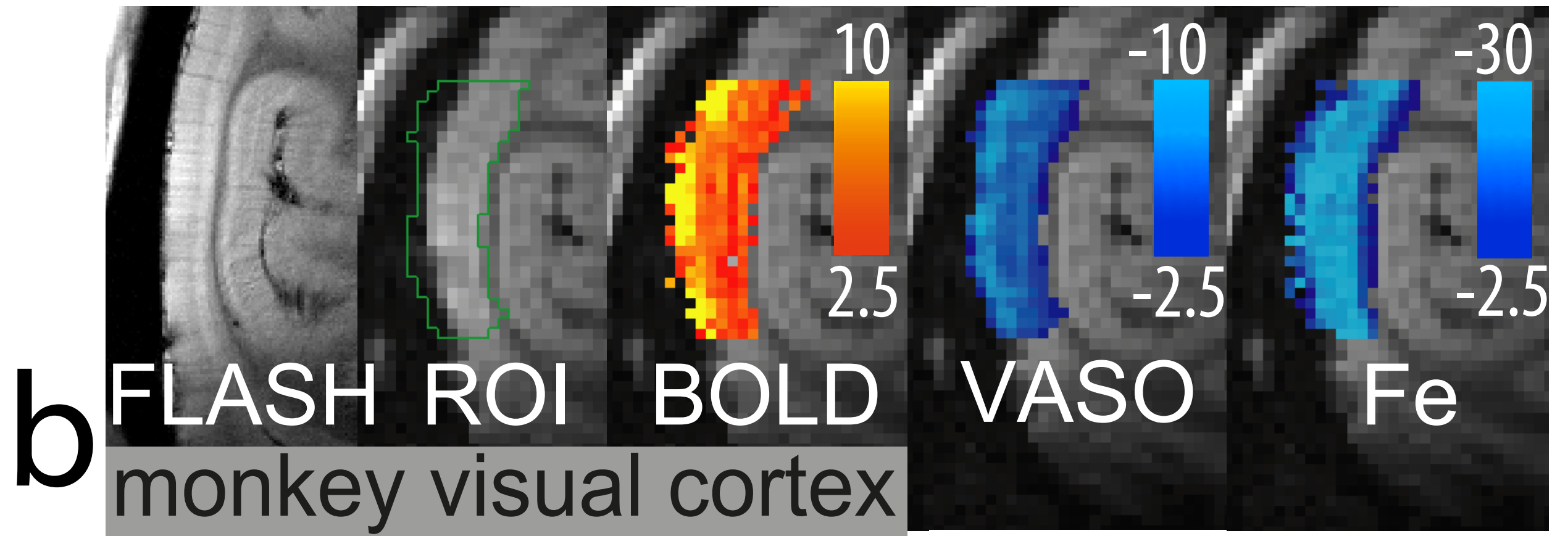
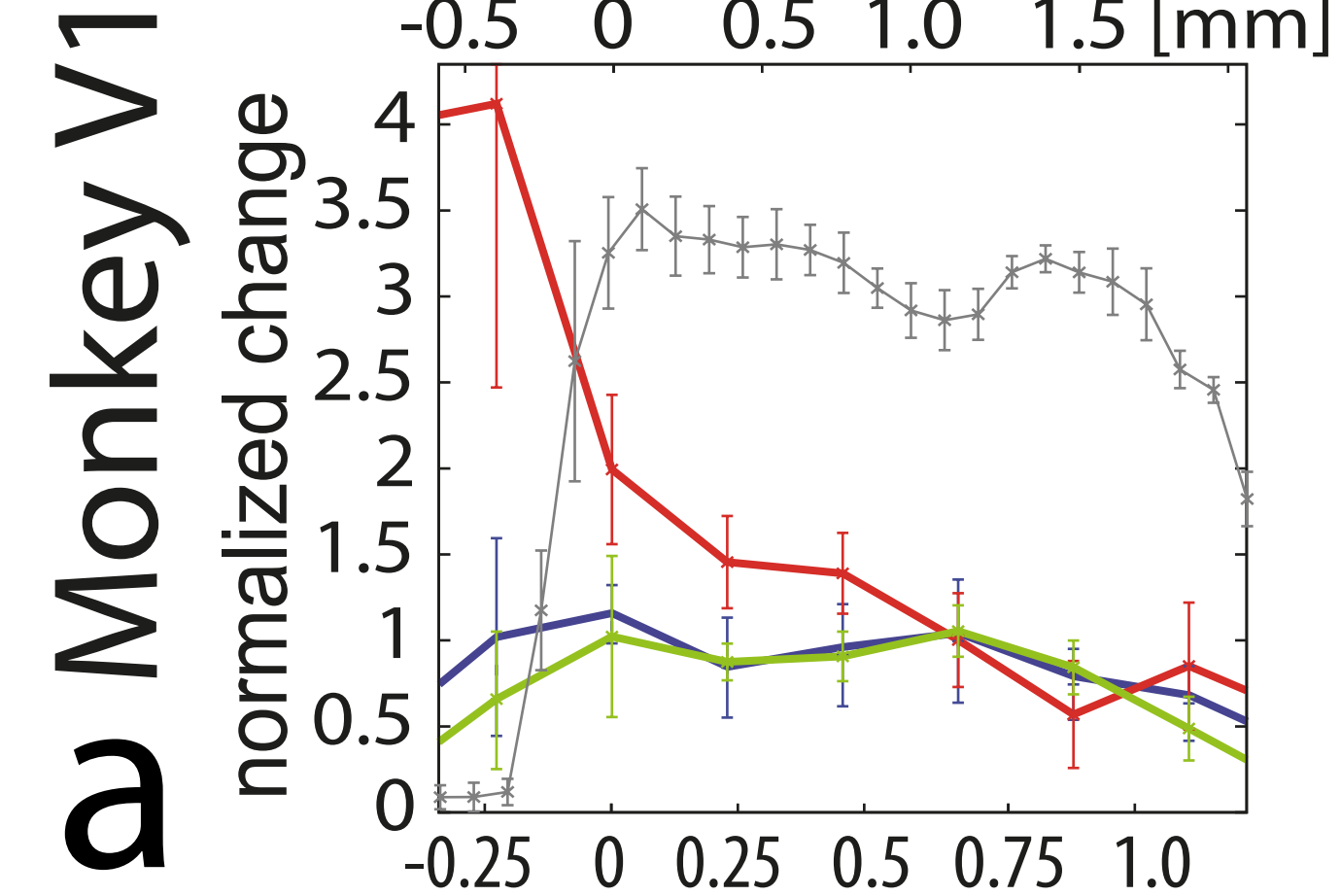


**c** relative signal change

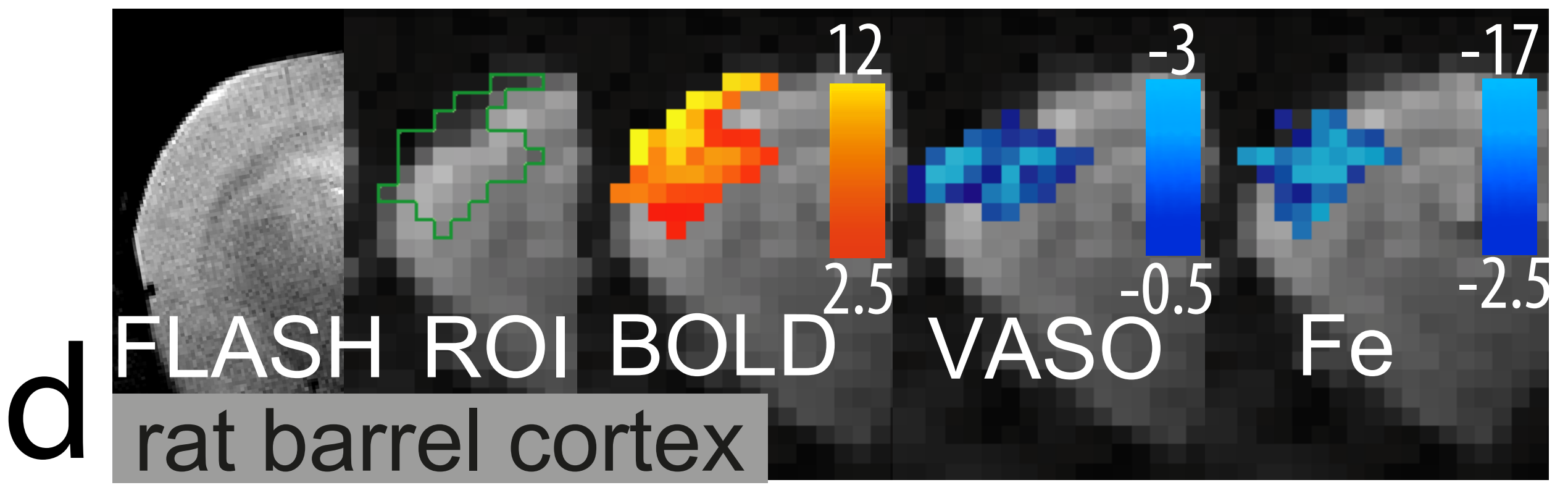
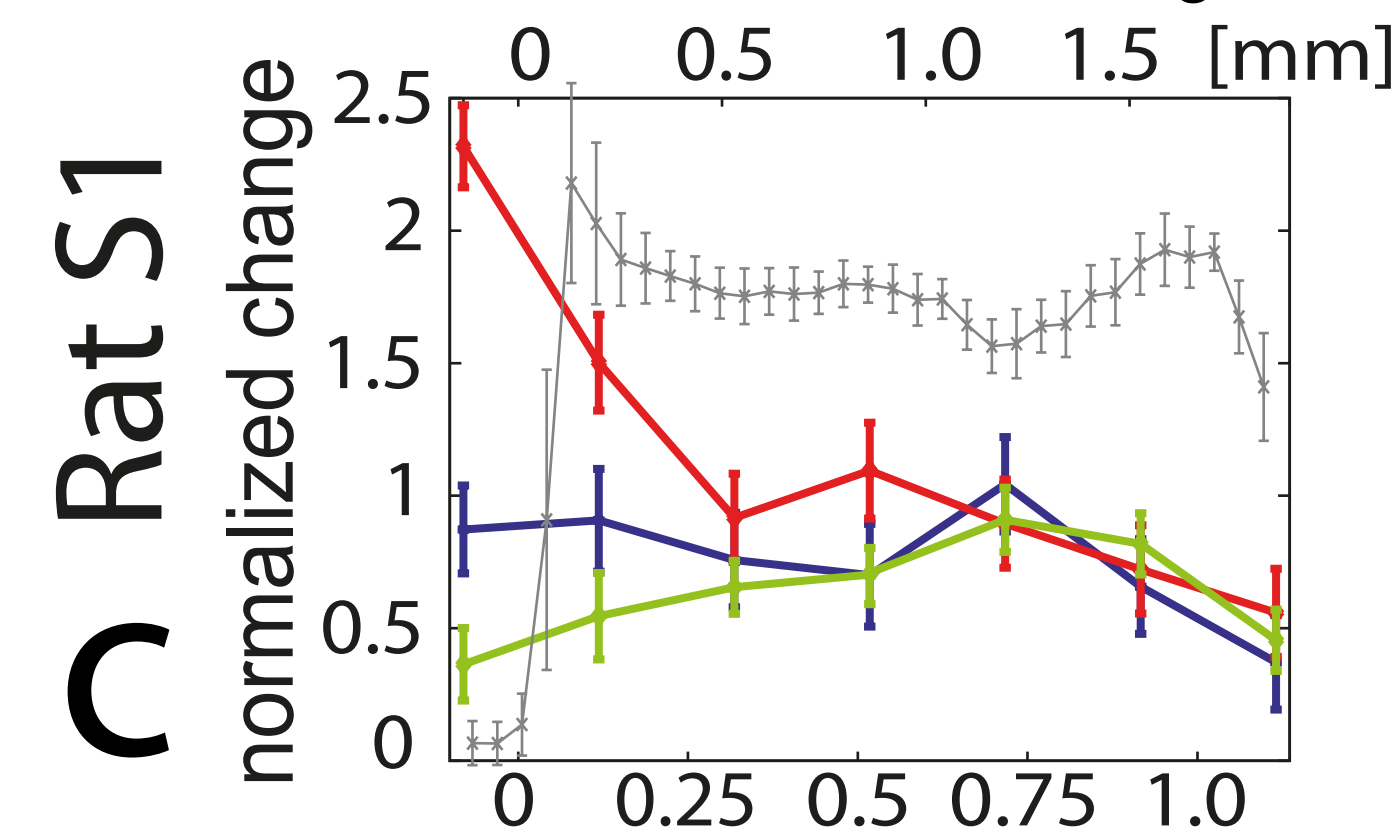


**C**

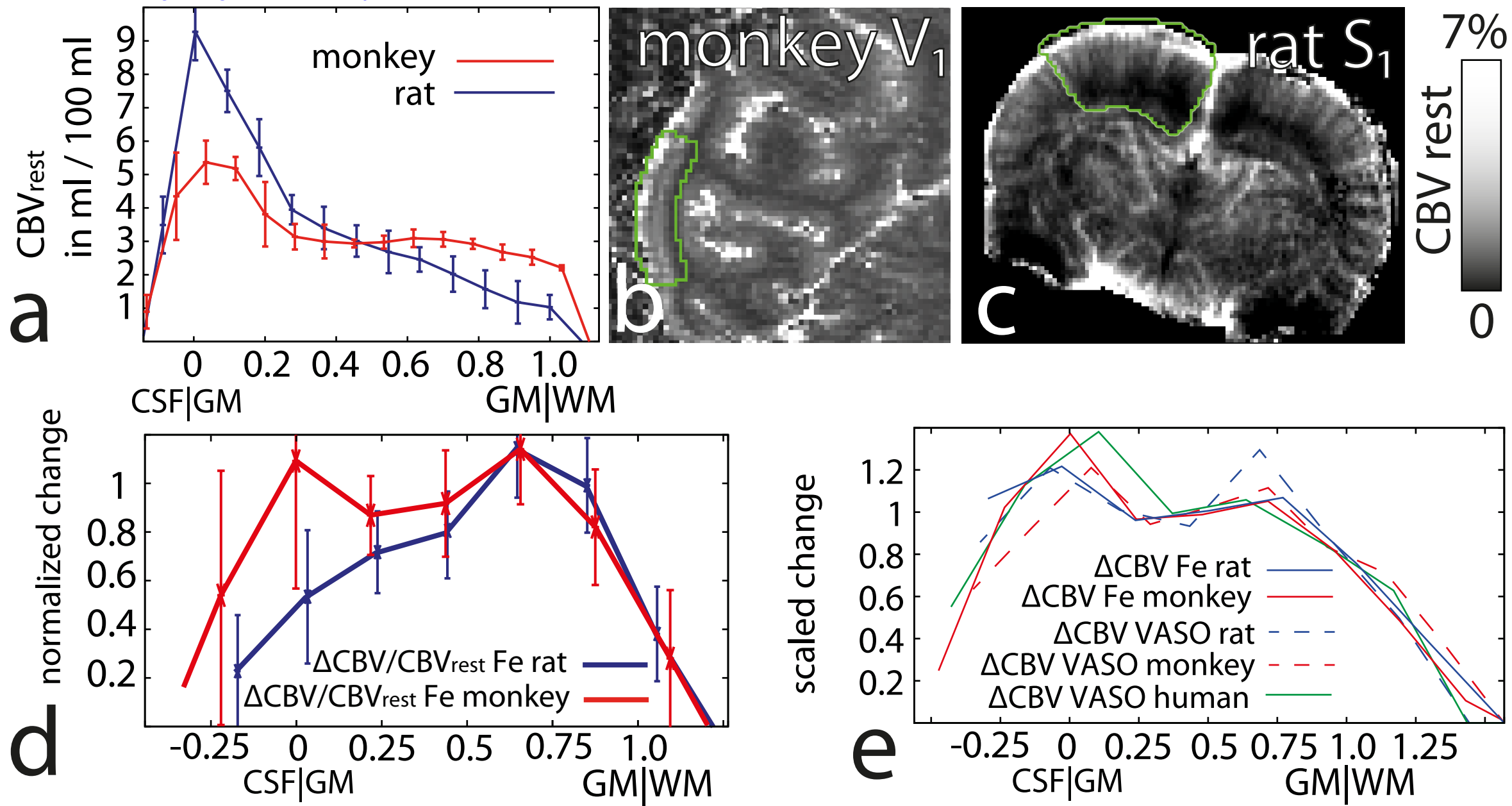
contralateral M1 — red — ipsilateral M1 — orange —  
 contralateral S1 — green — ipsilateral S1 — cyan —



$\Delta S/S_0$  Fe-fMRI —  $\Delta S/S_0$  BOLD —  
 $\Delta S/S_0$  VASO — FLASH signal —



9. Figure  
[Click here to download 9. Figure: fig7\\_normalization.pdf](#)



# 9. Figure

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