

# 1        **Decoding across sensory modalities reveals common** 2        **supramodal signatures of conscious perception**

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## 11 12        **Keywords**

13        consciousness; perception; near-threshold stimulation; multivariate analysis; decoding  
14        analysis; magnetoencephalography

## 15 16        **Abstract**

17        An increasing number of studies point to the role of fronto-parietal brain  
18        structures in mediating conscious sensory experience. While a majority of studies have been  
19        performed in the visual modality, it is implicitly assumed that similar processes are involved  
20        in different sensory modalities. However, the existence of supramodal neural processes  
21        related to conscious perception has not been convincingly shown so far. In this study, we  
22        aim to directly address this issue by investigating whether neural correlates of conscious  
23        perception in one modality can predict conscious perception in a different modality. We  
24        presented participants with successive blocks of near-threshold tasks involving tactile, visual  
25        or auditory stimuli during the same magnetoencephalography (MEG) acquisition. Using  
26        decoding analysis in the post-stimulus period between sensory modalities, we uncovered  
27        supramodal spatio-temporal neural activity patterns predicting the presence of conscious  
28        perception of the feeble stimulation. Interestingly, these supramodal patterns included late  
29        activity in primary sensory regions not directly relevant to the task (e.g. neural activity in  
30        visual cortex predicting conscious perception of auditory near-threshold stimulation). Our  
31        findings reveal for the first time within one experiment a common signature of conscious  
32        access across modalities and illustrate the widespread broadcasting of neural  
33        representations, even into primary sensory processing regions.

## 37 Introduction

38 While the brain can process an enormous amount of sensory information in parallel,  
39 only some information can be consciously accessed, playing an important role in the way we  
40 perceive and act in our surrounding environment. An outstanding goal in cognitive  
41 neuroscience research is thus to understand the relationship between neurophysiological  
42 processes and conscious experiences. Despite tremendous research efforts, however, the  
43 precise brain dynamics that enable certain sensory information to be consciously accessed  
44 remain unresolved. Nevertheless, progress has been made in research focusing on isolating  
45 neural correlates of conscious perception (Crick and Koch, 2003), in particular suggesting  
46 that conscious perception - at least if operationalized as reportability (Dehaene and  
47 Changeux, 2011) - of external stimuli crucially depends on the engagement of a widely  
48 distributed brain network (Naghavi and Nyberg, 2005).

49 To study neural processes underlying conscious perception, neuroscientists often  
50 expose participants to near-threshold (NT) stimuli that are matched to their individual  
51 perceptual thresholds (Foley and Legge, 1981; Dagenbach et al., 1989). In NT experiments,  
52 there is a trial-to-trial variability in which around 50% of the stimuli at NT-intensity are  
53 consciously perceived. Because of the fixed intensity, the physical differences between  
54 stimuli within the same modality can be excluded as a determining factor leading to  
55 reportable sensation (Ruhnau et al., 2014). However, despite numerous methods used to  
56 investigate perceptual consciousness, most neuroscientific studies target a single sensory  
57 modality. In the visual domain, it has been shown that reportable conscious experience is  
58 present when primary visual cortical activity extends towards hierarchically downstream  
59 brain areas (Lamme, 2006), requiring the activation of frontoparietal regions in order to  
60 become fully reportable (Dehaene et al., 2006). Nevertheless, a recent MEG study using a  
61 visual masking task revealed early activity in primary visual cortices as the best predictor for  
62 conscious perception (Andersen et al., 2016). Other studies have shown that neural  
63 correlates of auditory consciousness relate to the activation of fronto-temporal rather than  
64 fronto-parietal networks (Brancucci et al., 2014; Joos et al., 2014). Additionally, recurrent  
65 processing between primary, secondary somatosensory and premotor cortices have been  
66 suggested as potential neural signatures of tactile conscious perception (Auksztulewicz et  
67 al., 2012; Auksztulewicz and Blankenburg, 2013). Indeed, recurrent processing between  
68 higher and lower order cortical regions within a specific sensory system is theorized to be a  
69 sufficient marker of conscious processing (Lamme, 2006; Tallon-Baudry, 2012; van Gaal  
70 and Lamme, 2012). However, the global workspace framework (Baars, 2005) extended by  
71 Dehaene et al. (Dehaene et al., 2014) postulates that the frontoparietal engagement aids in  
72 'broadcasting' relevant information throughout the brain, making it available to various

73 cognitive modules. In various electrophysiological experiments, it has been shown that this  
74 process is relatively late (~300 ms), inducing an increase of the so-called P300 signal  
75 (Sergent et al., 2005; Fisch et al., 2009; Melloni et al., 2011). This late brain activity seems to  
76 correlate with perceptual consciousness and could reflect the global broadcasting of an  
77 integrated stimuli making it conscious. Taken together, theories and experimental findings  
78 argue in favor of various 'signatures' of consciousness from recurrent activity within sensory  
79 regions to a global broadcasting of information with engagement of fronto-parietal areas.  
80 Even though usually implicitly assumed, it is so far unclear whether similar spatio-temporal  
81 neural activity patterns are linked to conscious access across different sensory modalities.

82 In the current study, we investigated conscious perception in different sensory  
83 systems using multivariate analysis on MEG data. Our working assumption is that brain  
84 activity leading to conscious report is partially independent from the sensory modality and  
85 that it instead depends on the common temporal and spatial features of an  
86 electrophysiological signal. We hypothesized that processes underlying conscious  
87 perception relate to specific spatio-temporal patterns, which allow a decoding of the  
88 electrophysiological signal across sensory modalities. The application of multivariate pattern  
89 analysis (MVPA) to EEG/MEG measurements offers increased sensitivity in detecting  
90 experimental effects distributed over space and time (Cichy et al., 2014, 2015; King and  
91 Dehaene, 2014; Tucciarelli et al., 2015; Wutz et al., 2016). MVPA is often used in  
92 combination with a searchlight method (Kriegeskorte et al., 2006; Haynes et al., 2007),  
93 which involves sliding a small spatial window over the data to reveal areas containing  
94 decodable information. The combination of both methods provides spatio-temporal detection  
95 of optimal decodability, determining where, when and for how long a specific pattern is  
96 present in brain activity. Such multivariate decoding analyses have been proposed as an  
97 alternative in consciousness research, complementing other conventional univariate  
98 approaches in order to identify neural activity predictive of conscious experience at the  
99 single trial level (Sandberg et al., 2014).

100 Here, we acquired MEG data where each participant performed three different  
101 standard NT experiments on three sensory modalities with the aim of characterizing  
102 supramodal brain mechanisms of conscious perception. We investigated how single trial  
103 neural correlates of perceptual consciousness can be generalized over space and time  
104 within and between different sensory systems by using classification analysis on source-  
105 level reconstructed brain activity.

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## 109 **Materials and Methods**

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### 111 Participants

112 Nineteen healthy volunteers with normal or corrected-to-normal vision and no  
113 neurological or psychiatric disorders took part in the current study. Of those, three  
114 participants were excluded from the analysis due to excessive artifacts in the MEG data  
115 leading to an insufficient number of trials per condition after artifact rejection (less than 40  
116 trials for at least one condition). The remaining 16 participants (11 females, mean age: 28.87  
117 years; SD: 3.4 years) reported normal tactile and auditory perception. The ethics committee  
118 of the University of Trento approved the experimental protocol, which was used with the  
119 written informed consent of each participant.

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### 121 Stimuli

122 Auditory stimuli were presented binaurally using MEG-compatible tubal in-ear  
123 headphones (SOUNDPixx, VPixx technologies, Canada). Short bursts of white noise with a  
124 length of 50 ms were generated with Matlab and multiplied with a Hanning window to obtain  
125 a soft on- and offset. Participants had to detect short white noise bursts presented near  
126 hearing threshold (Leske et al., 2015). Visual stimuli were Gabor ellipsoid (tilted 45°) back-  
127 projected on a translucent screen by a Propixx DLP projector (VPixx technologies, Canada)  
128 at a refresh rate of 180 frames per second. The stimuli were presented 50 ms in the center  
129 of the screen at a viewing distance of 110 cm. Tactile stimuli were 50 ms stimulation  
130 delivered to the tip of the left index finger, using one finger module of a piezo-electric  
131 stimulator (Quaerosys, Schotten, Germany) with 2 × 4 rods, which can be raised to a  
132 maximum of 1 mm. The module was attached to the finger with tape and the participant's left  
133 hand was cushioned to prevent any unintended pressure on the module (Frey et al., 2016).  
134 To ensure that the participant did not hear any auditory cues caused by the piezo-electric  
135 stimulator during tactile stimulation, binaural white noise was presented during the entire  
136 experiment (training blocks included).

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### 138 Task and design

139 The participants performed three blocks of a NT perception task. Each block included  
140 three separate runs (100 trials each) for each sensory modality, tactile (T), auditory (A) and  
141 visual (V). A short break (~1 min) separated each run and longer breaks (~4 min) were  
142 provided to the participants after each block. Inside a block, runs alternated in the same  
143 order within subject and were pseudo-randomized across subjects (i.e. subject 1 = TVA-  
144 TVA-TVA; subject 2 = VAT-VAT-VAT; ...). Participants were asked to fixate on a central

145 white dot in a grey central circle at the center of the screen throughout the whole experiment  
146 to minimize eye movements.

147 In three different training sessions prior to the main experiment, participants'  
148 individual perceptual thresholds (tactile, auditory and visual) were determined in the shielded  
149 room using a 1-up/1-down staircase procedure. Two randomly interleaved staircases (one  
150 up- and one downward) were used with fixed step sizes. A short training run with 20 trials  
151 was conducted to ensure that participants had understood the task and to control the  
152 accuracy of the threshold measurement.

153 The main experiment consisted of a detection task (Figure 1A). At the beginning of  
154 each run, participants were told that on each trial a weak stimulus (tactile, auditory or visual  
155 depending on the run) could be presented at random time intervals. 500 ms after the target  
156 stimulus onset, participants were prompted to indicate whether they had felt the stimulus  
157 with an on-screen question mark (maximal response time: 2 s). Responses were given using  
158 MEG-compatible response boxes with the right index finger and the middle finger. Trials  
159 were then classified into hits (detected) and misses (undetected stimulus) according to the  
160 participants' answers. Trials with no response were rejected. Catch (above perceptual  
161 threshold stimulation intensity) and Sham (absent stimulation) trials were used to control  
162 false alarms and correct rejection rates across the experiment. Overall, there were 9 runs  
163 with 100 trials each (in total 300 trials for each sensory modality). Each trial started with a  
164 variable inter-stimulus interval (1.3–1.8 s, randomly-distributed) followed by an experimental  
165 near-threshold stimulus (80 per run), a sham stimulus (10 per run) or a catch stimulus (10  
166 per run) of 50 ms each. Each run lasted for approximately 5 min. The whole experiment  
167 lasted for ~1h. The experiment was programmed in Matlab using the open source  
168 Psychophysics Toolbox (Brainard, 1997).

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#### 170 MEG data acquisition and preprocessing

171 MEG was recorded at a sampling rate of 1kHz using a 306-channel (204 first order  
172 planar gradiometers, 102 magnetometers) VectorView MEG system (Elekta-Neuromag Ltd.,  
173 Helsinki, Finland) in a magnetically shielded room (AK3B, Vakuumschmelze, Hanau,  
174 Germany). Before the experiment, individual head shapes were acquired for each participant  
175 including fiducials (nasion, pre-auricular points) and around 300 digitized points on the scalp  
176 with a Polhemus Fastrak digitizer (Polhemus, Vermont, USA). Head positions of the  
177 individual relative to the MEG sensors were continuously controlled within a run using five  
178 coils. Head movements did not exceed 1 cm within and between blocks.

179 Data were analyzed using the Fieldtrip toolbox (Oostenveld et al., 2010) and the  
180 CoSMoMvpa toolbox (Oosterhof et al., 2016) in combination with MATLAB 8.5 (MathWorks  
181 Natick, MA). First, a high-pass filter at 1 Hz (6th order Butterworth IIR) was applied to the

182 continuous data. Then the data were segmented from 1000 ms before to 1000 ms after  
183 target stimulation onset and down-sampled to 512 Hz. Trials containing physiological or  
184 acquisition artifacts were rejected. A semi-automatic artifact detection routine identified  
185 statistical outliers of trials and channels in the datasets using a set of different summary  
186 statistics (variance, maximum absolute amplitude, maximum z-value). These trials and  
187 channels were removed from each dataset. Finally, the data were visually inspected and any  
188 remaining trials and channels with artifacts were removed manually. Across subjects, an  
189 average of 5 channels ( $\pm 2$  SD) and 8% of trials ( $\pm 2.2\%$  SD) were rejected. Bad channels  
190 were excluded from the whole data set. Finally, in all further analyses and within each  
191 sensory modality for each subject, an equal number of detected and undetected trials was  
192 randomly selected to prevent any bias across conditions (Gross et al., 2013).

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#### 194 Source analyses

195 Neural activity evoked by stimulus onset was investigated by computing event-related  
196 fields (ERF). For all source-level analyses, the preprocessed data was 30Hz lowpass-filtered  
197 and projected to source-level using an LCMV beamformer analysis (Veen et al., 1997). For  
198 each participant, realistically shaped, single-shell headmodels (Nolte, 2003) were computed  
199 by co-registering the participants' headshapes either with their structural MRI or – when no  
200 individual MRI was available (3 participants) – with a standard brain from the Montreal  
201 Neurological Institute (MNI, Montreal, Canada), warped to the individual headshape. A grid  
202 with 1.5 cm resolution based on an MNI template brain was morphed into the brain volume  
203 of each participant. A common spatial filter (for each grid point and each participant) was  
204 computed using the leadfields and the common covariance matrix, taking into account the  
205 data from both conditions (detected, undetected) for each sensory modality separately. The  
206 covariance window for the beamformer filter calculation was based on 500 ms pre- to 500  
207 ms post-stimulus. Using this common filter, the spatial power distribution was then estimated  
208 for each trial separately. The resulting data were averaged relative to the stimulus onset in  
209 both conditions (detected and undetected) for each sensory modality, and baseline-  
210 normalized relative to a time-window from 200 ms pre-stimulus to stimulus onset. Based on  
211 a significant difference between event-related fields of the two conditions over time for each  
212 sensory modality, the source localization was performed restricted to specific time-windows  
213 of interest. All source images were interpolated from the original resolution onto an inflated  
214 surface of an MNI template brain available within the Caret software package (Van Essen et  
215 al., 2001). The respective MNI coordinates and labels of localized brain regions were  
216 identified with an anatomical brain atlas (AAL atlas; (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002)) and a  
217 network parcellation atlas (Gordon et al., 2016).

218

## 219 Multivariate Pattern Analysis (MVPA) decoding

220 MVPA decoding was performed for the period 0 to 500 ms after stimulus onset based  
221 on normalized (z-scored) single trial source data downsampled to 33Hz (i.e. time steps of 30  
222 ms) without baseline correction. We used multivariate pattern analysis as implemented in  
223 CoSMoMVPA (Oosterhof et al., 2016) in order to identify when and what kind of common  
224 network between sensory modality is activated during the near-threshold detection task. We  
225 defined two classes for the decoding related to the task behavioral outcome (detected (Hit),  
226 undetected (Miss)). For decoding within the same sensory modality, single trial source data  
227 were randomly assigned to one of two chunks (half of the original data). Data were classified  
228 using a 2-fold cross-validation procedure, where a Bayes-Naive classifier predicted trial  
229 conditions in one chunk after training on data from the other chunk. For decoding between  
230 different sensory modality, single trial source data of one modality were assigned to one  
231 testing chunk and the trials from other modalities were assigned to the training chunk. The  
232 number of target categories (e.g. detected / undetected) was balanced in each training  
233 partition. Training and testing partitions always contained different sets of data. A  
234 ‘searchlight’ analysis defined on each time step and spatial neighborhood structure (source  
235 space: 3 cm radius on a 1.5 cm resolution MNI-template grid) provided information about the  
236 spatio-temporal loci of classification accuracy. The temporal generalization method was  
237 used to explore the ability of each classifier across different time points in the training set to  
238 generalize to every time point in the testing set (King and Dehaene, 2014). We generated  
239 temporal generalization matrices of task decoding accuracy (detected/undetected), mapping  
240 the time at which the classifier was trained against the time it was tested. Generalization of  
241 decoding accuracy over time was calculated for all trials and systematically depended on a  
242 specific between or within sensory modality decoding. This resulted in a 3x3 design of  
243 generalization matrices crossing the factors training/testing and the three sensory modalities.  
244 The reported average accuracy of the classifier for each time point and brain region  
245 corresponds to the group average of individual effect-size: the ability of classifiers to  
246 discriminate ‘detected’ from ‘undetected’ trials. We used classification analysis to investigate  
247 and robustly identify significant effects across time and brain regions for different sensory  
248 modalities.

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## 250 Statistical analysis

251 Detection rates for the experimental trials were statistically compared to those from  
252 the catch and sham trials, using a dependent-samples T-Test. Concerning the MEG data,  
253 the main statistical contrast was between trials in which participants reported a stimulus  
254 detection and trials in which they did not (detected vs. undetected).

255           The evoked response at the source level was tested at the group level for each of the  
256 sensory modalities. To eliminate polarity, statistics were computed on the absolute values of  
257 source-level event-related responses. Based on the global average of all grid points, we first  
258 identified relevant time periods with maximal difference between conditions (detected vs.  
259 undetected) by performing group analysis with sequential dependent T-tests between 0 and  
260 600 ms after stimulus onset using a sliding window of 30 ms without overlap. P-values were  
261 corrected for multiple comparison using Bonferroni correction. Then, in order to derive the  
262 contributing spatial generators of this effect, the conditions ‘detected’ and ‘undetected’ were  
263 contrasted for the specific time periods with group statistical analysis using nonparametric  
264 cluster-based permutation tests with Monte Carlo randomization across grid points  
265 controlling for multiple comparisons (Maris and Oostenveld, 2007).

266           The multivariate searchlight analysis results discriminating between conditions were  
267 tested at the group level by comparing the resulting individual accuracy maps against  
268 chance level (50%) using a non-parametric approach implemented in CoSMoMVA  
269 (Oosterhof et al., 2016) adopting 10.000 permutations to generate a null distribution. P-  
270 values were set at  $p < 0.05$  for cluster level correction to control for multiple comparisons  
271 using a threshold-free method for clustering (Smith and Nichols, 2009), which has been used  
272 and validated for MEG/EEG data (Pernet et al., 2015; Turella et al., 2016). The time  
273 generalization data were thresholded using a mask with only  $z\text{-score} > 3.1$  (or  $p_{\text{corrected}} < 0.001$ )  
274 (see Figure 3A), that is, only 10 out of 10,000 random permutations reached the actual  
275 classification accuracies obtained from correctly labeled data. Time points exceeding this  
276 threshold were identified and reported for each training data time course to visualize how  
277 long time generalization was significant over testing data (see Figure 3B). For visualization  
278 purposes, source maps for average decoding accuracy on an inflated brain surface were  
279 thresholded to show only grid points with 10% maximum decoding accuracy (Figure 4A; see  
280 for a similar approach: (Tucciarelli et al., 2015; Turella et al., 2016)). In order to investigate  
281 common patterns of conscious processing between different sensory systems, we performed  
282 an intersection analysis. The masking for the intersection analysis (Figure 4B) was  
283 performed by taking into account the union of all significant brain grid points ( $z\text{-score} > 3.1$ ; or  
284  $p_{\text{corrected}} < 0.001$ ) for the three symmetric decoding analyses; e.g. when training data come  
285 from the visual condition and testing data from the auditory condition, the symmetric  
286 decoding analysis is simply the reverse situation. Then, the final mask was restricted to grid  
287 points found in all three of these different symmetrical situations (i.e. intersection):  
288 visual/auditory, tactile/auditory and visual/tactile.

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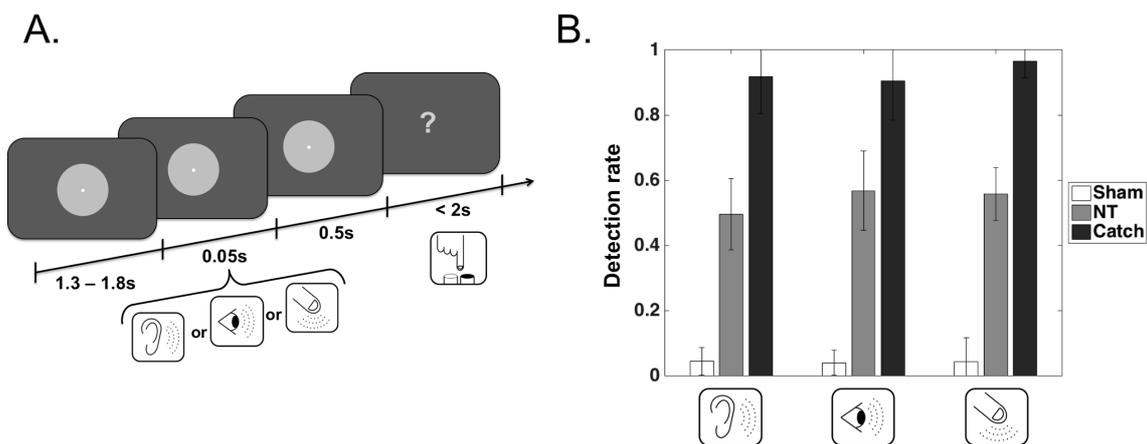
## 291 Results

### 292 Behavior

293 Across all participants (N = 16), detection rates for NT experimental trials were: 55%  
294 (SD: 8%) for tactile runs, 50% (SD: 11%) for auditory runs and 56% (SD: 12%) for visual  
295 runs. The detection rates for the catch trials were 96% (SD: 5%) for tactile runs, 92% (SD:  
296 11%) for auditory runs and 90% (SD: 12%) for visual runs. The mean false alarm rates in  
297 sham trials were 4% (SD: 7%) for tactile runs, 4% (SD: 4%) for auditory runs and 4% (SD:  
298 4%) for visual runs (Figure 1B). Detection rates of NT experimental trials in all sensory  
299 modality significantly differed from those of catch trials (tactile:  $T_{15} = -20.16$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  
300 auditory:  $T_{15} = -14.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; visual:  $T_{15} = -9.47$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) or sham trials (tactile:  $T_{15} =$   
301  $20.66$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; auditory:  $T_{15} = 14.66$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; visual:  $T_{15} = 16.99$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and were  
302 comparable to other studies (Leske et al., 2015; Frey et al., 2016).

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306 **Figure 1. Experimental design and behavioral results.** (A) After a variable inter-trial interval between 1.3-1.8 s  
307 during which participants fixated on a central white dot, a tactile/auditory/visual stimulus (depending on the run)  
308 was presented for 50 ms at individual perceptual intensity. After 500 ms, stimulus presentation was followed by  
309 an on-screen question mark, and participants indicated their perception by pressing one of two buttons (i.e.  
310 stimulation was 'present' or 'absent') with their right hand. (B) The group average detection rates for NT  
311 stimulation were around 50% across the different sensory modalities. Sham trials in white (no stimulation) and  
312 Catch trials in dark (high intensity stimulation) were significantly different from the NT condition in grey within the  
313 same sensory modality.

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320 Event-related neural activity

321 To compare poststimulus processing for ‘detected’ and ‘undetected’ trials, evoked  
322 responses were calculated at the source level. As a general pattern over all sensory  
323 modalities, source-level event-related fields (ERF) averaged across all grid points show that  
324 stimuli reported as detected resulted in pronounced post-stimulus neuronal activity, whereas  
325 unreported stimuli did not (Figure 2A). ERFs were significantly different over the averaged  
326 time-course with specificity dependent on the sensory modality targeted by the stimulation.  
327 Auditory stimulations reported as detected elicit significant differences compared to  
328 undetected trials first between 190 and 290 ms, and then between 400 and 520 ms after  
329 stimulus onset (Figure 2A – top panels). Visual stimulation reported as detected elicits a  
330 large increase of ERF amplitude compared to undetected trials from 220-520 ms after  
331 stimulus onset (Figure 2A – middle panel). Tactile stimulation reported as detected elicits an  
332 early increase of ERF amplitude between 90 and 270 ms then a late activation similar to the  
333 auditory modality between 320 and 450 ms after stimulus onset (Figure 2A – bottom panel).  
334 Source localization of these specific time periods of interest were performed for each  
335 modality (Figure 2B). The auditory condition shows significant early source activity mainly  
336 localized to bilateral auditory cortices, superior temporal sulcus and right inferior frontal  
337 gyrus, whereas the late significant component was mainly localized to right temporal gyrus,  
338 bilateral precentral gyrus, left inferior and superior frontal gyrus. A large activation can be  
339 observed for the visual conditions including primary visual areas, cingulate gyrus and a large  
340 fronto-parietal network activation. The early contrast of tactile evoked response shows a  
341 large difference in the brain activation including primary and secondary somatosensory  
342 areas, but also posterior and anterior cingulate gyrus, and a large fronto-parietal network.  
343 The late contrast of tactile evoked response presents brain activation including left superior  
344 frontal gyrus, right temporal gyrus and right supplementary motor area.

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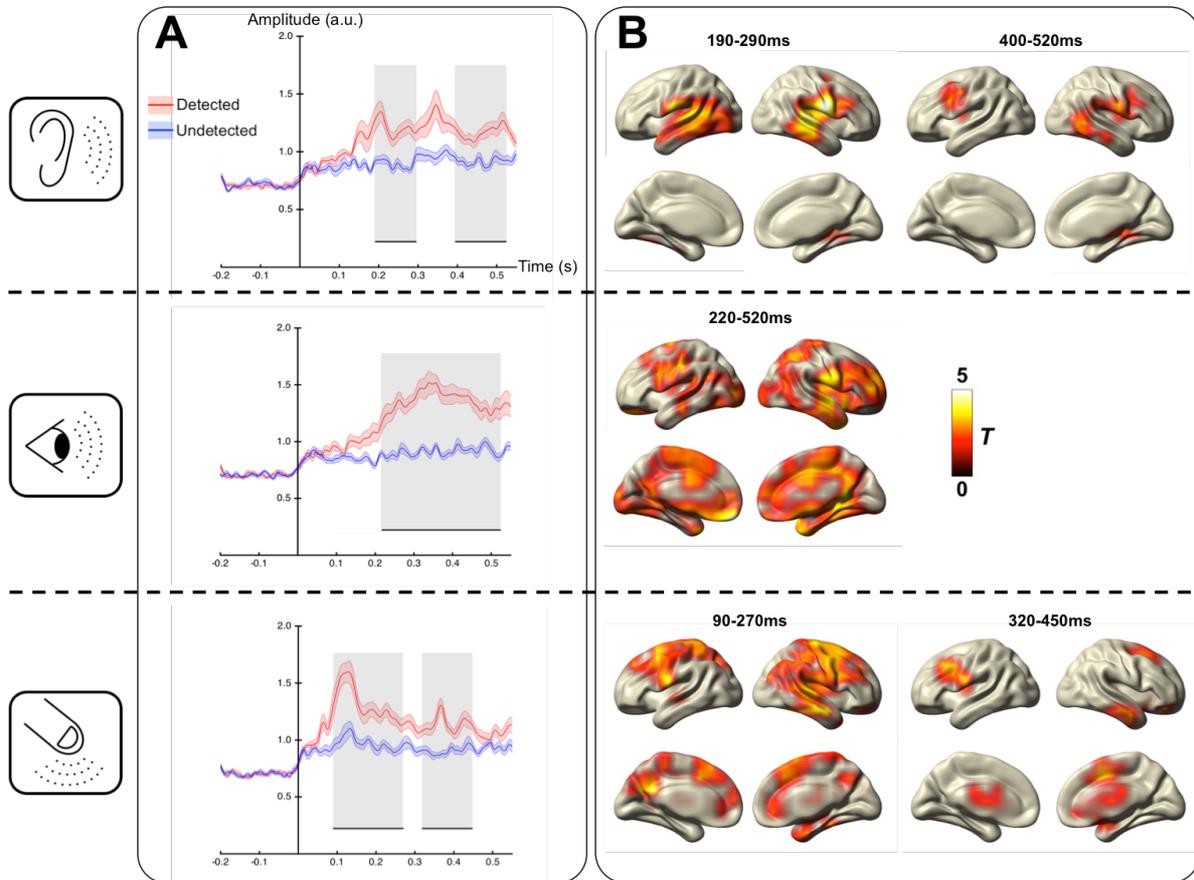
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361 **Figure 2. Event-related responses for different sensory modalities: auditory (top panel), tactile (middle**  
362 **panel) and visual (bottom panel). (A)** Source-level absolute value of group event-related average (solid line)  
363 and standard deviation (shaded area) in the detected (red) and undetected (blue) condition for all brain sources.  
364 Significant time windows is marked with bottom solid lines (black line:  $p_{\text{Bonferroni-corrected}} < 0.05$ ) for the contrast  
365 detected vs. undetected trials. The relative source localization maps are represented in part B for the time period  
366 marked by the grey-shaded area. **(B)** Source reconstruction of the significant time period marked in part A for the  
367 contrast detected vs. undetected trials, masked at  $p_{\text{corrected}} < 0.05$ . For auditory and tactile conditions the earlier  
368 and later significant time periods are represented on the left and the right brain maps, respectively.

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378 *Decoding and multivariate searchlight analysis across time*

379 We investigated the generalization of brain activation over time within and between  
380 the different sensory modalities. To this end, we performed a spatio-temporal multivariate  
381 analysis of reconstructed brain source activity. Time generalization analysis presented as a  
382 time-by-time matrix between 0 and 500 ms after stimulus onset shows significant decoding  
383 accuracy for each condition (Figure 3A). As can be seen on the black cells located on the  
384 diagonal in Figure 3A, cross-validation decoding was performed within the same sensory  
385 modality. However, off-diagonal red cells of Figure 3A represent decoding analysis between  
386 different sensory modality. Inside each cell, data reported along the diagonal (dashed line)  
387 reveal average classifiers accuracy for a specific time point used for the training and testing  
388 procedure, whereas off-diagonal data reveal a potential classifier ability to generalize  
389 decoding based on different training and testing time points procedure. Indeed, we observed  
390 the ability of the same classifier trained on a specific time point to generalize its decoding  
391 performance over several time points (see off-diagonal significant decoding inside each cell  
392 of Figure 3A). In order to appreciate this result, we computed the average duration of  
393 significant decoding on testing time points based on the different training time points (Figure  
394 3B). On average, within the same modalities decoding, the maximum time generalization  
395 was found at around 300 ms and we observed maximum classifiers accuracy after this time  
396 point (see Figure 3B - top panel).

397 Early differences specific to the tactile modality have been grasped by the  
398 classification analysis by showing high decoding accuracy already at around 90 ms without  
399 strong time generalization for this sensory modality, where auditory and visual conditions  
400 show only significant decoding starting around 200 ms after stimulus onset. Such an early  
401 dynamic specific to the tactile modality could explain off-diagonal accuracy for all between  
402 modalities decoding where the tactile modality was involved (Figure 3A). Interestingly, time  
403 generalization concerning between sensory modality decoding (red cells in Figure 3A)  
404 started later (after 150 ms) compared to within sensory modality decoding, and presented  
405 maximal generalization at around 400 ms (see Figure 3B - bottom panel). The time-  
406 generalization analysis revealed time-clusters restricted to late evoked responses with  
407 maximal decoding accuracy on average after 300 ms for all conditions. The similarity of this  
408 time-cluster over all three sensory modalities suggests the unspecificity of such brain  
409 activation.

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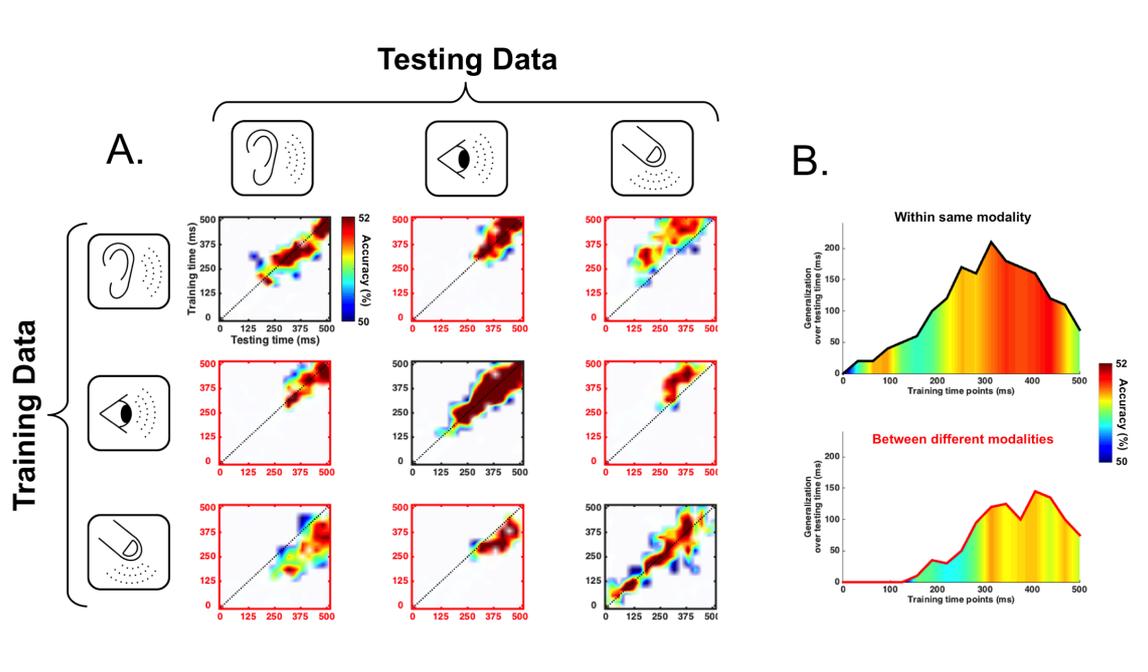
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418 **Figure 3. Time-by-time generalization of significant searchlight MVPA decoding within and between**

419 **sensory modality.** 3x3 matrices of decoding results represented over time (from stimulation onset to 500 ms

420 after). **(A)** Each cell presents the result of the searchlight MVPA with time-by-time generalization analysis where

421 classifier accuracy was significantly above chance level (50%) (masked at  $p_{corrected} < 0.001$ ). Accuracy is averaged

422 over all significant brain voxels at one specific time point. For each temporal generalization matrix, a classifier

423 was trained at a specific time sample (vertical axis: training time) and tested on all time samples (horizontal axis:

424 testing time). The black dotted line corresponds to the diagonal of the temporal generalization matrix, i.e., a

425 classifier trained and tested on the same time sample. This procedure was applied for each combination of

426 sensory modality, i.e. presented on the first row is decoding analysis performed by classifiers trained on the

427 auditory modality and tested on auditory, visual or tactile (1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> column respectively) for the two classes:

428 detected and undetected trials. The cells contoured with black line axes (on the diagonal) correspond to within

429 the same sensory modality decoding, whereas the cells contoured with red line axes correspond to between

430 different modalities decoding. **(B)** Summary of average time-generalization and decoding performance over time

431 for all within modality analysis (top panel: average based on the 3 black cells of part A) and between modalities

432 analysis (bottom panel: average based on the 6 red cells of part A). For each specific training time point on the x-

433 axis the average duration of classifier's ability to significantly generalize on testing time points was computed and

434 reported on the y-axis. Additionally, the average classifiers accuracies over all testing time for a specific training

435 time point is represented as a color scale gradient.

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442 *Decoding and multivariate searchlight analysis across space*

443           Restricted to the respective significant time clusters (Figure 3A), we investigated the  
444 underlying brain sources resulting from the searchlight analysis within and between  
445 conditions (Figure 4A). The decoding within the same sensory modality revealed strong  
446 primary sensory cortex involvement for each specific modality condition (see Figure 4A;  
447 brain plots on diagonal). For auditory and tactile conditions, the occipital and parietal lobes  
448 were involved, respectively, in addition to the putatively task-relevant primary sensory  
449 cortices. However, decoding between different sensory modalities restricted to late  
450 significant time-clusters revealed fronto-parietal brain regions in addition to diverse primary  
451 sensory regions (see Figure 4A; brain plots off diagonal).

452           Similar regional brain activity was used by the classifiers for all direct symmetrical  
453 decoding analyses, for instance with auditory training and a visual testing dataset, and vice  
454 versa (all symmetrical cells around the diagonal of Figure 4A). The intersection of brain  
455 regions for the three symmetrical situations of between-sensory decoding revealed common  
456 network localization independent of a specific sensory modality condition (Figure 4B). This  
457 result highlights a brain network that includes frontal and parietal regions, such as inferior  
458 frontal and parietal gyrus, but also primary sensory areas related to the task and deep brain  
459 structure such as the insula and cingulate cortex (see Table 1). By using a parcellation atlas  
460 (Gordon et al., 2016), we depicted regions belonging to different known brain networks  
461 including sensory systems, default mode, attentional and fronto-parietal network (Power et  
462 al., 2011). Of particular interest with respect to the idea of broadcasting (Dehaene et al.,  
463 2006) introduced earlier, is the issue of whether there is a temporal gradient with respect to  
464 the decoding across these different neural systems. For this purpose, we computed for each  
465 relevant brain voxel the average latency over training-time of significant decoding results at  
466 the group level across all between sensory modalities analysis. Regarding between different  
467 modalities decoding, primary systems present later significant decoding latency compared to  
468 other networks (Figure 5).

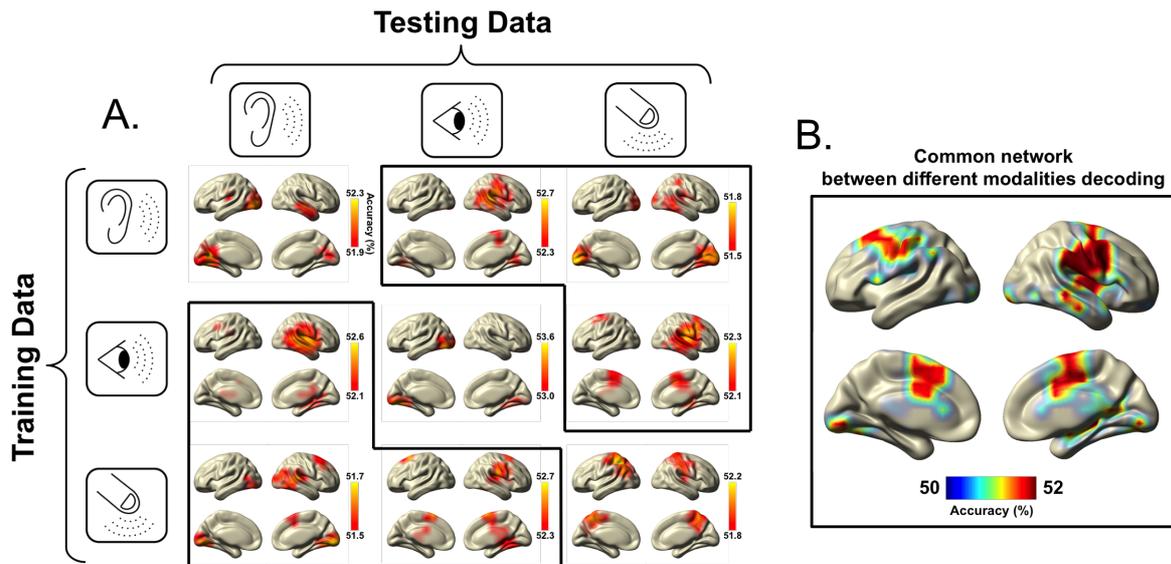
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475 **Figure 4. Spatial distribution of significant searchlight MVPA decoding within and between sensory**

476 **modality. (A)** Source brain maps for average decoding accuracy restricted to a specific time-generalization

477 significant cluster (cf. Figure 3A). For visualization purpose, brain maps were thresholded for each condition with

478 10% maximum decoding accuracy (above 90th percentile). **(B)** Accuracy map for the intersection of all significant

479 spatial features involved in detected/undetected decoding analysis based on searchlight MVPA restricted to

480 between sensory modality conditions (intersection of brain maps contoured with black-lines in part A of this

481 figure). First the union of significant brain maps was computed for the three symmetric decoding analysis (i.e.

482 symmetric decoding when training data come from visual and testing data from auditory is simply the reverse

483 situation: 1st column of 2nd row and 2nd column of 1st row). Then, the final mask presented here is restricted to

484 the intersection across these three different symmetrical situations: visual/auditory, tactile/auditory and

485 visual/tactile. The color scale depicts the average accuracy across all between sensory modality and over all

486 specific significant respective time clusters (cf. Figure 3A).

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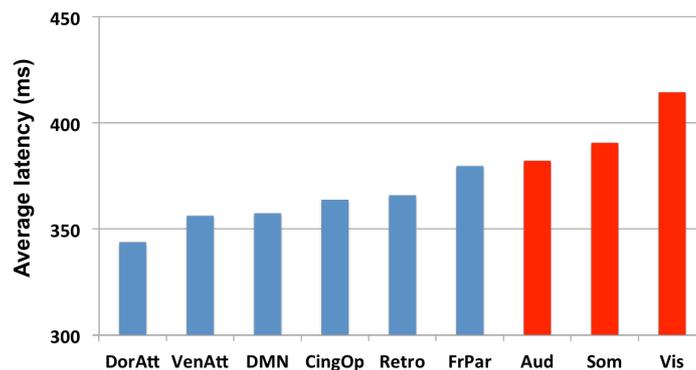
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Regions	MNI coordinates			Latency (ms)	Accuracy
	X	Y	Z		
<b>Auditory (Aud)</b>					
- right Heschl gyrus	55	-20	10	382	54,76%
- right superior temporal gyrus	70	-20	10	383	54,99%
<b>Visual (Vis)</b>					
- right lingual gyrus	10	-80	-5	428	54,50%
- left calcarine fissure	-5	-95	-5	397	54,27%
- right inferior occipital gyrus	25	-95	-5	418	54,69%
<b>Somatosensory (Som)</b>					
- right postcentral gyrus	55	-20	40	391	54,96%
<b>Ventral Attention (VenAtt)</b>					
- right inferior frontal gyrus (triangular part)	55	25	10	356	54,57%
<b>Dorsal Attention (DorAtt)</b>					
- left superior frontal gyrus	-20	10	55	344	54,80%
<b>Cingulum Opercularis (CingOp)</b>					
- right inferior frontal gyrus (opercular part)	40	10	10	402	54,66%
- left inferior frontal gyrus (opercular part)	-50	10	10	365	53,86%
- right insula	40	-5	-5	332	54,82%
- right median cingulate	10	10	40	356	54,46%
<b>Default Mode Network (DMN)</b>					
- left inferior parietal	-50	-50	40	357	54,37%
<b>Fronto-Parietal (FrPar)</b>					
- right middle frontal gyrus	40	10	40	380	54,93%
<b>Retrosplenial cortex (Retro)</b>					
- right precuneus	10	-50	10	366	54,64%

501

502 **Table 1. Common brain regions revealed across all between sensory modalities decoding of conscious**  
 503 **perception.** This table reports brain regions presented in Figure 4B and sorted according to the network  
 504 parcellation from (Gordon et al., 2016). For each specific brain region we reported the latency where a significant  
 505 decoding was found over training time and the maximum classifiers accuracy measures overall significant time  
 506 clusters across all combination of between sensory modality decoding.

507



508

509 **Figure 5. Average significant between sensory modalities decoding latency for each specific network**  
 510 **voxels revealed by the intersection analysis.** This figure depicts when a decoding analysis across different  
 511 sensory modalities was found as significant, restricted to brain regions presented in Figure 4B according to  
 512 relevant specific network labels (see Table 1). Primary sensory systems (red bars) significant decoding appears  
 513 to be later than other networks (blue bars).

514

## 515 Discussion

516 We investigated a standard NT experiment targeting three different sensory  
517 modalities in order to explore common spatio-temporal brain activity related to conscious  
518 perception using multivariate and searchlight analysis. Our findings focusing on the post-  
519 stimulus evoked responses are in line with previous studies for each specific sensory  
520 modality, showing stronger brain activation when the stimulation was reported as perceived  
521 (Karns and Knight, 2008; Leske et al., 2015; Frey et al., 2016). However, the work presented  
522 here is the first study, to our knowledge, to provide direct evidence of common  
523 electrophysiological correlates of conscious access across sensory modalities by exploiting  
524 the advantages of searchlight multivariate analysis decoding with MEG source  
525 reconstruction.

526 Our first results suggest significant temporal and spatial differences when a univariate  
527 contrast between 'detected' and 'undetected' trials was used to investigate sensory-specific  
528 evoked responses. At the source level, the global group average activity revealed different  
529 significant time periods according to the sensory modality targeted where modulations of  
530 evoked responses related to detected trials can be observed (Figure 2A). In the auditory and  
531 visual modalities, we found significant differences after 200 ms. In the auditory domain,  
532 perception- and attention-modulated sustained responses around 200 ms from sound onset  
533 were found in bilateral auditory and frontal regions using MEG (Kauramäki et al., 2012;  
534 Zoefel and Heil, 2013). Several EEG studies have already shown that evoked responses  
535 related to NT visual stimuli revealed an increase in amplitude between 200 and 400 ms,  
536 reflecting the so-called P300 modulation (Devrim et al., 1999; Polich, 2007). Using MEG, a  
537 previous study confirmed awareness-related effects from 240 to 500 ms after target  
538 presentation during visual presentation (Wyart and Tallon-Baudry, 2008). The differences in  
539 the transient responses are earlier in the somatosensory domain compared to the other  
540 sensory modalities, and have been previously identified using EEG at around 100 and 200  
541 ms (Ai and Ro, 2014). Moreover, previous MEG studies have shown early brain signal  
542 amplitude modulation (<200ms) related to tactile perception in NT tasks (Palva et al., 2005;  
543 Wühle et al., 2010; Frey et al., 2016). Such neuronal activity involve sensory regions and  
544 fronto-parietal brain networks (Palva et al., 2005).

545 In general, stable characteristics of brain signals have been proposed as a transient  
546 stabilization of distributed cortical networks involved in conscious perception (Schurger et al.,  
547 2015). Despite similar late brain activation in response to auditory and tactile stimulation, this  
548 first analysis can hardly identify common dynamics and network involvement across sensory  
549 modality. Interestingly, multivariate decoding analysis was used to refine spatio-temporal  
550 similarity across these different sensory systems.

551 Stability and timing differences of brain activity related to conscious perception  
552 across sensory systems have been explored with the time generalization analysis. The  
553 presence of similar brain activity can be revealed between modalities using such a  
554 technique, even if significant ERF modulation is distributed over time. As expected, tactile  
555 diagonal decoding presents significant classification accuracy already around 100 ms after  
556 stimulus onset, whereas auditory and visual modalities start to show significant decoding  
557 later in time. These results are visible in the cross-validation analysis (diagonal cells of  
558 Figure 3A). Moreover, between-modality time-generalization analysis involving tactile runs  
559 show off-diagonal significant decoding (Figure 3A). This result suggests the existence of  
560 early but similar brain activity patterns related to conscious perception in the tactile domain  
561 compared to auditory and visual modalities. Generally, decoding results revealed a  
562 significant time cluster after 300 ms with high classifier accuracy that speaks in favor of a  
563 late neural response related to conscious report. Note that, as seen also in multiple other  
564 studies using decoding (Tucciarelli et al., 2015; Cichy et al., 2016; Turella et al., 2016; Wutz  
565 et al., 2016), the average accuracy can be relatively low and yet remains significant at the  
566 group level. The rigor of our approach is underlined by the facts that the reported decoding  
567 results are restricted to highly significant effects ( $P_{\text{corrected}} < 0.001$ ; see Methods section) and  
568 to the *intersection of all* significant effects between sensory modalities decoding (Figure 4B).

569 Indeed, we observed the ability of the same classifier trained on specific time points  
570 with a specific sensory modality condition to generalize its decoding performance over  
571 several time points with the same or another sensory modality. This result speaks in favor of  
572 supramodal brain activity patterns that are consistent and stable over time. In addition, the  
573 searchlight analysis across brain regions highlighted a common brain network activation  
574 during these significant time-generalization clusters. The MVPA searchlight results  
575 suggested a common and stable late brain activation related to conscious perception report  
576 with strong similarity across all sensory systems tested.

577 Our results conform to those of previous studies in underlying the importance of late  
578 activity patterns as crucial markers of conscious access (Sergent and Dehaene, 2004;  
579 Dehaene et al., 2006) and decision-making processes (Polich, 2007; Joos et al., 2014). In  
580 this study, we extend the involvement of a parieto-frontal network across three different  
581 sensory systems. Some of the brain regions found in our searchlight analysis, namely the  
582 superior frontal cortex and left inferior parietal cortex, are shared with other functional brain  
583 networks such as the salience network (Kucyi et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2016). These regions  
584 have been previously found to be activated by attention-demanding cognitive tasks (Menon  
585 and Uddin, 2010). We would like to emphasize that one cannot conclude from our study that  
586 the observed supramodal network is exclusively devoted to conscious report. Brain networks  
587 identified in this study share common brain regions and dynamics with the attentional and

588 salience networks that remain relevant mechanisms to performing a NT-task. Since sensory  
589 modalities are usually interwoven in real life, our findings of a supramodal network that may  
590 subserve both conscious access and attentional functions have a higher ecological validity  
591 than results from previous studies on conscious perception for single sensory modality.

592 Despite the ongoing debate about the underlying brain generators of the P300, this  
593 brain signal remains an important marker of conscious perception across different sensory  
594 modalities (Fallgatter et al., 1997; Rutiku et al., 2015). An earlier study combined EEG with  
595 fMRI to demonstrate that both techniques indicated nearly the same brain areas involved in  
596 the P300 component, i.e. the temporoparietal junctions, supplementary motor areas (SMA),  
597 anterior cingulate cortex, insula and medial frontal gyrus (Mulert et al., 2004). Many of the  
598 brain areas found in the decoding analysis between sensory modalities overlay the P300  
599 related regions, i.e. middle frontal gyrus, inferior parietal gyrus and cingulate cortex (Polich,  
600 2007; Joos et al., 2014).

601 Although the integration of classically unimodal primary sensory cortices into a  
602 processing hierarchy of sensory information is well established (Felleman and Essen, 1991),  
603 some studies suggest multisensory roles of primary cortical areas (Lemus et al., 2010; Liang  
604 et al., 2013). Today it remains unknown how such multisensory responses could be related  
605 to an individual's unisensory conscious percepts. Interestingly, the intersection analysis  
606 revealed that primary sensory regions are strongly involved in all the between sensory  
607 modality decoding analysis. This important result suggests that early sensory cortices from a  
608 specific modality contain sufficient information to allow the decoding perceptual conscious  
609 access in another different sensory modality. In line with the idea of the broadcasting of an  
610 integrated conscious percept (Dehaene et al., 2006), these results suggest a late active role  
611 of primary cortices over three different sensory systems (Figure 5). One study reported  
612 efficient decoding of visual object categories in early somatosensory cortex using fMRI and  
613 multivariate pattern analysis (Smith and Goodale, 2015). Another fMRI experiment  
614 suggested that sensory cortices appear to be modulated via a common supramodal  
615 frontoparietal network, attesting to the generality of attentional mechanism toward expected  
616 auditory, tactile and visual information (Langner et al., 2011). However, in our study we  
617 demonstrate how local brain activity from different sensory regions reveal a specific dynamic  
618 allowing generalization over time to decode the behavioral outcome of a subjective  
619 perception in another sensory modality. These results speak in favor of intimate cross-modal  
620 interactions between modalities in perception (Pooremaeili et al., 2014). Finally, our results  
621 suggest that primary sensory regions remain important at late latency after stimulus onset for  
622 resolving stimulus perception over different sensory modalities. We propose that this  
623 network should be more generally cast as enhancing the processing of behaviorally relevant  
624 signals, here the sensory targets.

625 We successfully characterized common patterns over time and space suggesting  
626 generalization of consciousness-related brain activity across different sensory NT tasks. To  
627 our knowledge, this is the first study to report significant spatio-temporal decoding across  
628 different sensory modalities in a near-threshold perception experiment. Indeed, our results  
629 speak in favor of the existence of stable and supramodal brain activity patterns, distributed  
630 over time and underlying conscious perception processes. The stability of brain activity  
631 patterns over different sensory modalities presented in this study is, to date, the most direct  
632 evidence of a common network activation leading to conscious access (Dehaene and  
633 Changeux, 2011). Moreover, our findings add to recent remarkable demonstrations of  
634 applying decoding and time generalization methods to MEG (King and Dehaene, 2014;  
635 Tucciarelli et al., 2015; King et al., 2016; Wutz et al., 2016), and show a promising  
636 application of MVPA techniques to source level searchlight analysis with a focus on the  
637 temporal dynamics of conscious perception.

638

## 639 **Acknowledgements**

640 This work was supported by the European Research Council (WIN2CON, ERC StG  
641 283404).

642

## 643 **Author contributions**

644 G.S. and N.W. conceived the approach. G.S., J.N.F. and M.F. implemented the experiment  
645 and collected the data. G.S. analyzed the data. G.S. and N.W. wrote the manuscript. All  
646 authors approved the current manuscript.

647

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