

1           **Aberrant perceptual judgements on speech-relevant acoustic**  
2           **features in hallucination-prone individuals**

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12        **Abstract**

13        Hallucinations constitute an intriguing model of how percepts are generated and  
14        how perception can fail. Here, we investigate the hypothesis that an altered  
15        perceptual weighting of the spectro-temporal modulations which characterize speech  
16        contributes to the emergence of auditory verbal hallucinations. Healthy adults (N=168)  
17        varying in their predisposition for hallucinations had to choose the ‘more speech-like’  
18        of two presented ambiguous sound textures and give a confidence judgement. Using  
19        psychophysical reverse correlation, we quantified the contribution of different acoustic  
20        features to a listener’s perceptual decisions. Higher hallucination proneness covaried  
21        with lower perceptual weighting of speech-typical, low-frequency acoustic energy.  
22        Remarkably, higher confidence judgements in single trials depended not only on  
23        acoustic evidence but also on an individual’s hallucination proneness and schizotypy  
24        score. In line with an account of altered perceptual priors and differential weighting of  
25        sensory evidence, these results show that hallucination-prone individuals exhibit  
26        qualitative and quantitative changes in their perception of the modulations typical for  
27        speech.

28        *Key words:* Speech perception, psychoacoustics, reverse-correlation, spectro-  
29        temporal modulations, auditory verbal hallucinations, schizotypy

## 30 Introduction

31 A major challenge of sensory neuroscience remains to understand how adaptive  
32 top-down weighting of sensory evidence due to, e.g., ongoing task demands influence  
33 percepts. As hallucinations occur in the absence of an external stimulus, they  
34 constitute an intriguing model for the generation of percepts. Hallucinatory  
35 experiences, mostly visual or auditory, are prevalent in psychotic disorders such as  
36 schizophrenia, but also have an estimated prevalence of 6-13% in the general  
37 population ('non-clinical voice hearers')<sup>1</sup>, consistent with the hypothesis that  
38 psychosis exists on a continuum with normal experience<sup>2</sup>.

39 Prior expectations are suggested to be critical in the generation of hallucinations.  
40 Evidence suggests both overly strong or weak priors in hallucination proneness and  
41 psychosis<sup>3</sup>. For example, prior knowledge of an image leads to an advantage in  
42 recognizing that image when it is degraded; individuals at risk of psychosis are more  
43 susceptible to this perceptual advantage<sup>4</sup>. A recent sensory conditioning study<sup>5</sup> used  
44 a visual conditioned cue to predict a faint auditory stimulus presented at threshold. All  
45 participants experienced conditioned auditory hallucinations when presented with the  
46 visual (but not the auditory) stimulus. However, individuals with hallucinations were  
47 more susceptible to such conditioned hallucinations<sup>5</sup>. Non-clinical voice hearers  
48 listening to degraded (sine-wave) speech, also show stronger expectations to hear  
49 speech than controls who recognize the presence of speech later<sup>6</sup>. Such  
50 observations imply an increased bias towards top-down information in hallucination  
51 proneness.

52 Regarding the neurobiology of auditory verbal hallucinations (AVH), functional MRI  
53 studies report activation of auditory cortex<sup>7</sup>, including primary auditory cortex<sup>8</sup>, when  
54 patients experience AVH (for review see<sup>9</sup>). However, it is unclear in how far the  
55 general response properties of auditory cortex are altered in voice hearers. A recent  
56 strain of research provides converging evidence that the healthy human auditory  
57 cortex analyzes sounds along so-called spectro-temporal modulations: The auditory  
58 pathway is thought to not only implement forms of "tonotopic" frequency analysis<sup>10</sup>,  
59 but to rather represent sound as frequency-specific spectral and temporal modulation  
60 filters (<sup>11,12</sup> for neurobiological evidence see e.g., <sup>13,14</sup>). Hallucinations in schizophrenia  
61 have been linked to deficits in object formation<sup>15</sup>. Auditory object formation in turn is  
62 known to rely heavily on the extraction of the spectro-temporal modulations in the  
63 auditory scene<sup>16</sup>.

64 In the present study we therefore examine whether differences in the perception of  
65 these spectro-temporal modulations abundant in speech<sup>17</sup> can be linked to a  
66 propensity towards auditory hallucinations. We here investigate processing of spectro-

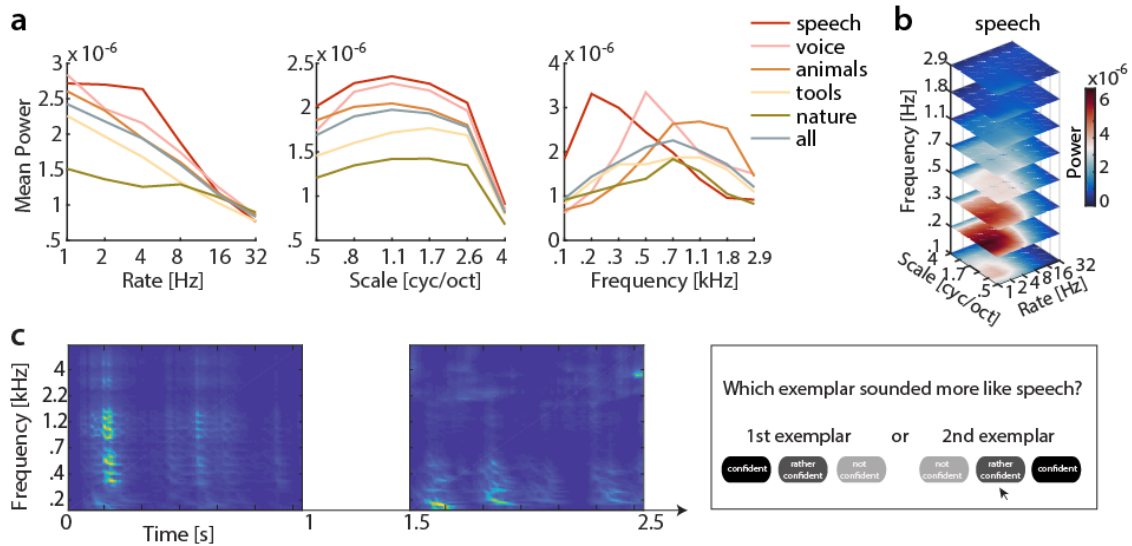
67 temporal modulations in individuals presenting with varying, non-clinical degrees of  
68 predisposition to hallucinations.

69 First, we establish individual listeners' "*speechiness* kernels", that is, an individual  
70 template of those acoustic features that elicit a speech percept. To this end, we  
71 present two ambiguous sound textures in noise<sup>18</sup> to human listeners and ask them to  
72 the 'more speech-like' one. This allows us to retrieve their internal representation that  
73 drives the categorization into speech, using the psychophysical technique of reverse  
74 correlation<sup>19,20</sup>. Second, we relate those *speechiness* kernels to the degree of  
75 individual schizotypal traits (unusual perceptual experiences subscale<sup>21,22</sup>), and to  
76 individual hallucination proneness<sup>23,24</sup>, probing a psychosis continuum. Compared to  
77 studies with psychotic patients, the study of non-clinical participants has the important  
78 advantage to circumvent confounding factors such as medication and presence of  
79 other symptoms (e.g., negative symptoms<sup>25</sup>).

80 The results pose an intriguing link between current models in computational  
81 psychiatry and recent advances in modelling the perceptual and neural response in  
82 auditory neuroscience.

## 83 **Results**

84 In a short online ( $N = 131$ ) and an extended lab version ( $N = 37$ ) of a 2-AFC  
85 experiment with confidence judgement, participants had to choose the 'more speech-  
86 like' of two presented ambiguous sound textures (Fig. 1). Using reverse correlation,  
87 we obtained perceptive fields termed "*speechiness* kernels" that quantify the  
88 contribution of different acoustic features to a listener's perceptual decisions.  
89 Hallucination proneness was assessed with the Launay-Slade hallucination scale  
90 (LSHS). Additionally, we evaluated schizotypy using the Schizotypal Personality  
91 Questionnaire (SPQ) with a particular interest in the subscale "unusual perceptual  
92 experiences" (SPQ-UP) as second measure of predisposition to unusual perception.



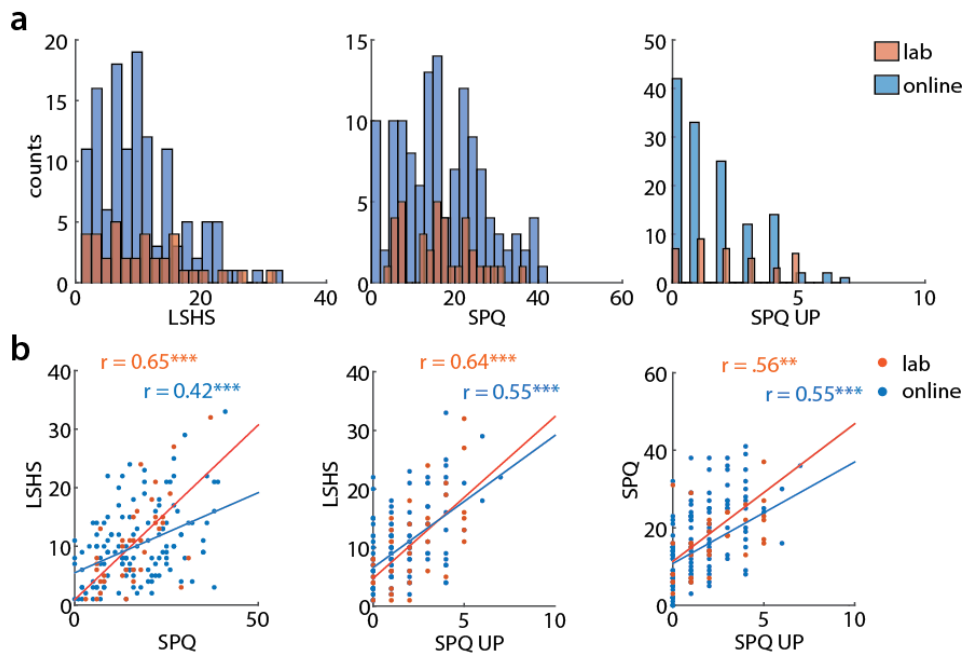
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94 **Figure 1. Stimuli and task.** (a) Modulation spectra for sound textures,  
 95 marginalized for each acoustic dimension (rate, scale, frequency) and split by  
 96 categories of the original sounds from which the textures were synthesized (see  
 97 legend). (b) Average modulation spectrum for the speech textures. (c) In a 2-  
 98 alternative-forced-choice (2-AFC) task with confidence judgement, participants were  
 99 presented with two sound textures (here shown as spectrograms) and were asked to  
 100 simultaneously express their decision and confidence about which exemplar sounded  
 101 more like speech.

## 102 Schizotypal traits and hallucination predisposition

103 In the lab experiment, LSHS scores ranged from 1 to 32 (median = 10; max  
 104 possible score 48) and global SPQ scores ranged from 3 to 37 (median = 16, max  
 105 possible score 74). In the online experiment, LSHS scores ranged from 1 to 33  
 106 (median = 9) and global SPQ scores ranged from 0 to 41 (median = 15; see Fig. 2a).

107 Across both experiments ( $N = 168$ ), LSHS scores were uncorrelated with age ( $r = -$   
 108  $.098$ ,  $p = .206$ ) and gender ( $r = -.077$ ,  $p = .321$ ). Similarly, global SPQ scores were  
 109 essentially uncorrelated with age ( $r = .099$ ,  $p = .201$ ) and gender ( $r = .140$ ,  $p = .070$ ).  
 110 More importantly, LSHS scores, global SPQ scores and the subscale SPQ-UP were  
 111 all substantially correlated amongst each other (Fig. 2b). The intercorrelations of 18–  
 112 42 % shared variance emphasize the convergent validity of the questionnaires used  
 113 to measure individual predisposition to unusual perceptual experiences here.



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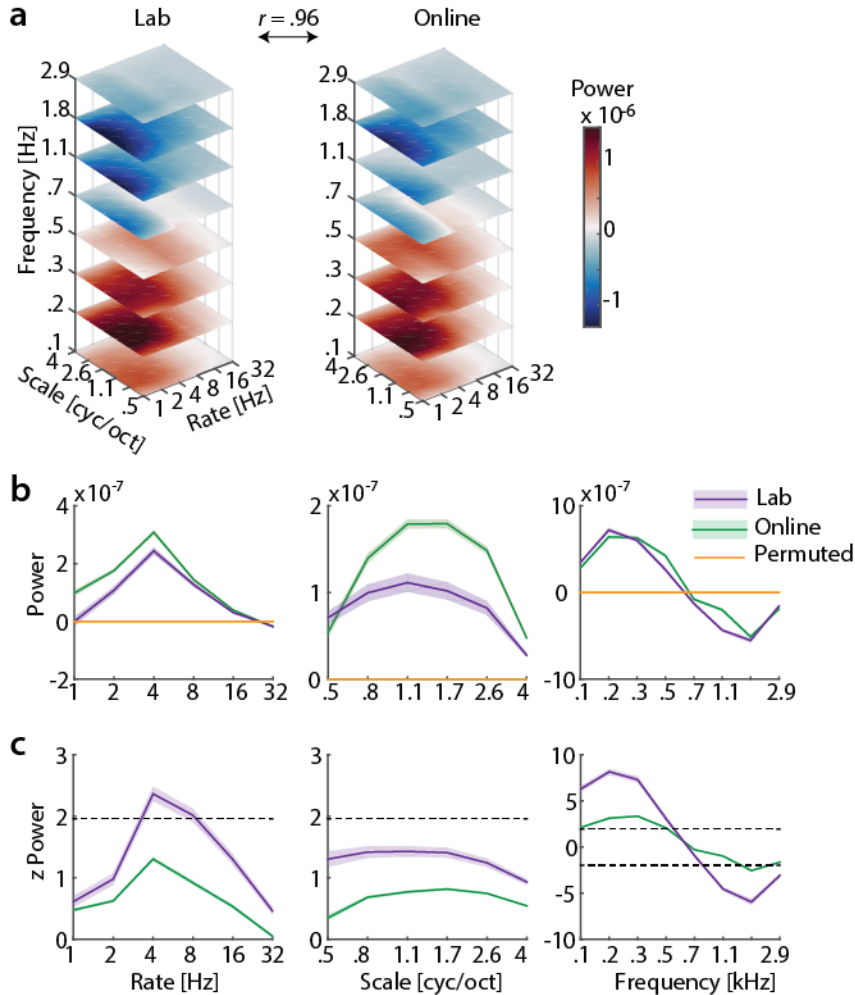
115 **Figure 2. Schizotypy and hallucination scale results.** (a) Histograms for LSHS  
116 and SPQ scores separately for lab (blue) and online (orange) experiment. Note that  
117 the maximal possible score is 42 for LSHS, 74 for SPQ, and 9 for the subscale SPQ-  
118 UP. (b) Scatter plots showing the correlations between LSHS, SPQ total score and  
119 SPQ-UP. Pearson's correlation coefficients are shown separately for lab (red) and  
120 online experiment (blue). All scales are substantially correlated,  $R^2$  ranges from .18 to  
121 .42. LSHS: Launay-Slade hallucination scale; SPQ: schizotypal personality  
122 questionnaire; SPQ-UP: subscale unusual perceptual experiences. \*\*  $p < .005$ , \*\*\*  $p <$   
123 .001.

124

### Speechiness kernels

125 First, we analyzed how participants' judgements of speechiness varied as a  
126 function of the spectro-temporal modulations contained in the sound textures. To  
127 obtain such speechiness kernels, we used reverse correlation by contrasting the  
128 averaged spectro-temporal modulations of the stimuli judged as more versus less  
129 speech-like. Speechiness kernels averaged across participants were highly correlated  
130 between the lab and online studies (Fig. 3a). The marginal profiles for temporal  
131 modulations peaked at  $\sim 4$  Hz and for frequency at 200 Hz, indicating high  
132 speechiness judgements when acoustic power was high at slow temporal modulations  
133 and low frequencies (Fig. 3b,c). As an outlook, those peaks were driven by the trials  
134 on which the participants were confident (see Fig. 6a). We permuted participants'  
135 responses ( $n = 10,000$  permutations) to obtain the empirical null distribution of the  
136 speechiness kernels (Fig. 3b, yellow line).

137 We z-scored empirical kernels relative to the null distribution; z-scores proved  
 138 significant (i.e.,  $|z| > 1.96$ ) for temporal rates of 4–8 Hz in the lab experiment, and for  
 139 low and high frequencies in both the lab and online experiment (Fig. 3c).



140

141 **Figure 3. Speechiness kernels.** (a) Averaged speechiness kernels for lab and  
 142 online study are highly correlated (Pearson's  $r$ ). (b,c) Marginal profiles of speechiness  
 143 kernels (mean  $\pm$  standard error) for lab and online study separately before (b) and  
 144 after (c) z-scoring relative to the empirical null distribution (obtained with  $n = 10,000$   
 145 permutations). Absolute z-scores exceeding 1.96 are considered significant (indicated  
 146 by the dashed line).

147 **Kernel stability.** In the lab experiment, average speechiness kernels based on the  
 148 first 100 trials were highly similar to the total kernel (i.e., comprising all 540 trials,  
 149 mean [SE] Pearson's  $r = 0.926$  [0.026], see supplementary Fig. S1). We took this  
 150 finding as evidence that the lower number of 108 trials used in the online experiment  
 151 suffice to obtain a stable estimate of the speechiness kernel.

152 **Relation of acoustic feature weighting to hallucinatory predispositions**

153 Next, we asked whether the individual extent of hallucination proneness and  
 154 schizotypy is related to features of the speechiness kernel. First, we conducted a  
 155 principal component analysis (PCA) to reduce the dimensionality of the speechiness  
 156 kernels from 288 components (one for each feature of the speechiness kernel) to the  
 157 first six components (see Methods). This procedure was justified by the drop in  
 158 eigenvalues after the sixth component (see scree plot Fig. 4a). There was one clear  
 159 dominant component (component 1) and two minor components (component 2 and 3;  
 160 whose eigenvalue still clearly exceeded the eigenvalues of surrogate data, Fig. 4a).

161 Both the first and third component were characterized by high acoustic energy at  
 162 high frequencies (Fig. 4b, c). The PCA approach also held the advantage of yielding,  
 163 by design, independent regressors to be subsequently used in a linear model. We  
 164 used individual component scores of the first six components to predict individuals'  
 165 LSHS and SPQ-UP scores in a multiple regression analysis (Table 1).

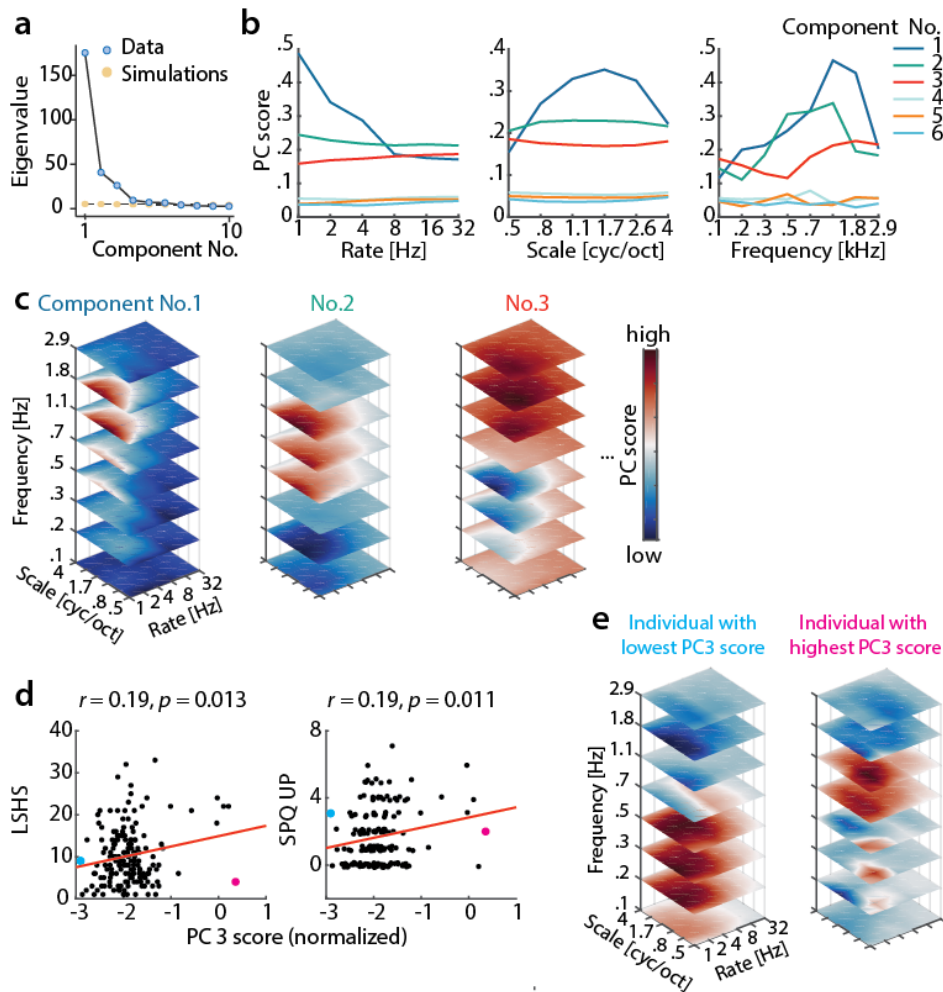
166 **Table 1: Multiple Linear Regression** predicting LSHS and SPQ UP scores based  
 167 on the first six principal component (PC) scores of the individual speechiness kernels  
 168 based on data from  $N = 168$  individuals. Shown are beta estimates of effects of  
 169 interest with a 95% confidence interval (CI).  
 170

Predictors	LSHS score			SPQ UP score		
	$\beta$	95% CI	$p$	$\beta$	95% CI	$p$
PC No.1	0.03	-0.12 – 0.18	0.689	-0.01	-0.15 – 0.15	0.958
PC No.2	-0.05	-0.20 – 0.10	0.529	-0.11	-0.26 – 0.03	0.129
<b>PC No.3</b>	<b>0.19</b>	<b>0.04 – 0.34</b>	<b>0.013</b>	<b>0.20</b>	<b>0.05 – 0.34</b>	<b>0.011</b>
PC No.4	-0.05	-0.20 – 0.10	0.520	-0.14	-0.29 – 0.01	0.065
PC No.5	0.10	-0.05 – 0.25	0.194	-0.02	-0.17 – 0.13	0.763
PC No.6	-0.05	-0.20 – 0.10	0.485	-0.09	-0.24 – 0.06	0.215
$R^2$	0.056			0.080		

171 The third component of the high-dimensional acoustic speechiness kernel, which  
 172 was dominated by high-frequency energy content (Fig 4b, c), covaried significantly  
 173 with an individual's tendency towards aberrant perception, that is, both the LSHS  
 174 (Pearson's  $r = 0.192$ ,  $p = 0.013$ , Bayes factor  $BF_{10} = 2.126$ ) and SPQ-UP score ( $r =$   
 175  $0.195$ ,  $p = 0.011$ ,  $BF_{10} = 2.306$ ; Fig. 4d; see also Table 1). These results provide  
 176 evidence for an association of higher hallucination proneness and schizotypal traits



177 (i.e., unusual perceptual experiences) with classifying stimuli into speech that are  
 178 characterized by high frequency components (Fig. 4b, c). This effect is illustrated in  
 179 the markedly different speechiness kernels of the two individuals with the most  
 180 extreme scores for the third component (Fig. 4e).



181

182 **Figure 4. Principal component analysis (PCA) of the speechiness kernels**  
 183 **jointly from lab and online experiment.** (a) Scree plot for the PCA. For subsequent  
 184 analyses, only the first six components were retained because the eigenvalue (blue  
 185 dots) for all further components was smaller than randomly generated eigenvalues  
 186 (yellow dots). There was one clear dominant component (component 1) and two  
 187 minor components (component 2 and 3). (b) Marginal profiles of the first six  
 188 components. (c) First three components in the modulation space. (d) Scatter plot of  
 189 the scores of the third component as a function of hallucination proneness and  
 190 schizotypal traits. LSHS and SPQ-UP scores are correlated to scores for component  
 191 no. 3 only. To jitter the integer scores slightly for display purposes only, a uniformly  
 192 distributed random quantity between  $-0.15$  and  $+0.15$  was added to the SPQ-UP

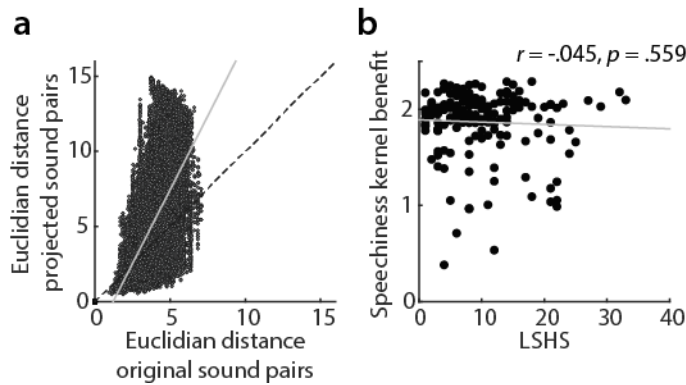
193 scores. (e) For visualization purposes, we show example speechiness kernels for two  
194 individuals with extreme scores for component no. 3: the lowest (left; cyan dot in the  
195 scatter plots in d) and highest PC3 scores (right; magenta dot in the scatters plot in d).  
196 PC: Principal component; LSHS: Launay-Slade hallucination scale; SPQ-UP:  
197 schizotypal personality questionnaire subscale unusual perceptual experiences.

### 198 **Sound discriminability**

199 In the current experimental setup, it is to be expected that the speech-like  
200 modulation content in a presented pair of sound textures (i.e., the sensory evidence)  
201 should be a prominent driver of all listeners' speechiness judgements.

202 Under the assumption that the speechiness kernels reflect individual perceptive  
203 fields of speech, we tested the effects of these perceptive fields on sound  
204 discriminability. We calculated pairwise distances between sounds based on their  
205 original modulation representations as well as on the representations obtained by  
206 weighting the original representations by the individual speechiness kernels. Then, for  
207 each sound separately, the features were normalized between their minimum and  
208 maximum (effectively scaling them between 0 and 1). For each trial, sound pair  
209 distance was calculated as the Euclidian distance between each of the 288 features.  
210 A comparison between original and projected sound pair distance showed that  
211 projecting through individual speechiness kernels increased discriminability of sound  
212 pairs (Fig. 5a).

213 To quantify benefits from individual speechiness kernels, we fitted individual linear  
214 slopes to projected as a function of originally presented sound-pair distance.  
215 Individual slopes ("speechiness kernel benefit") were significantly higher than one  
216 ( $t(167) = 32.61$ ,  $p < .001$ ), indicating the "warping" of an acoustic into a perceptual  
217 distance representation and validating the present perceptual speech-kernel  
218 approach. Notably, however, individual speechiness kernel benefits were unrelated to  
219 LSHS scores (Fig. 5b) with evidence for the absence of an effect as indicated by the  
220 Bayes Factor ( $BF_{01} = 8.749$ ). These results suggest that internal templates for speech  
221 amplify the discriminability of sound textures but are formed independently from an  
222 individual listener's hallucination proneness.

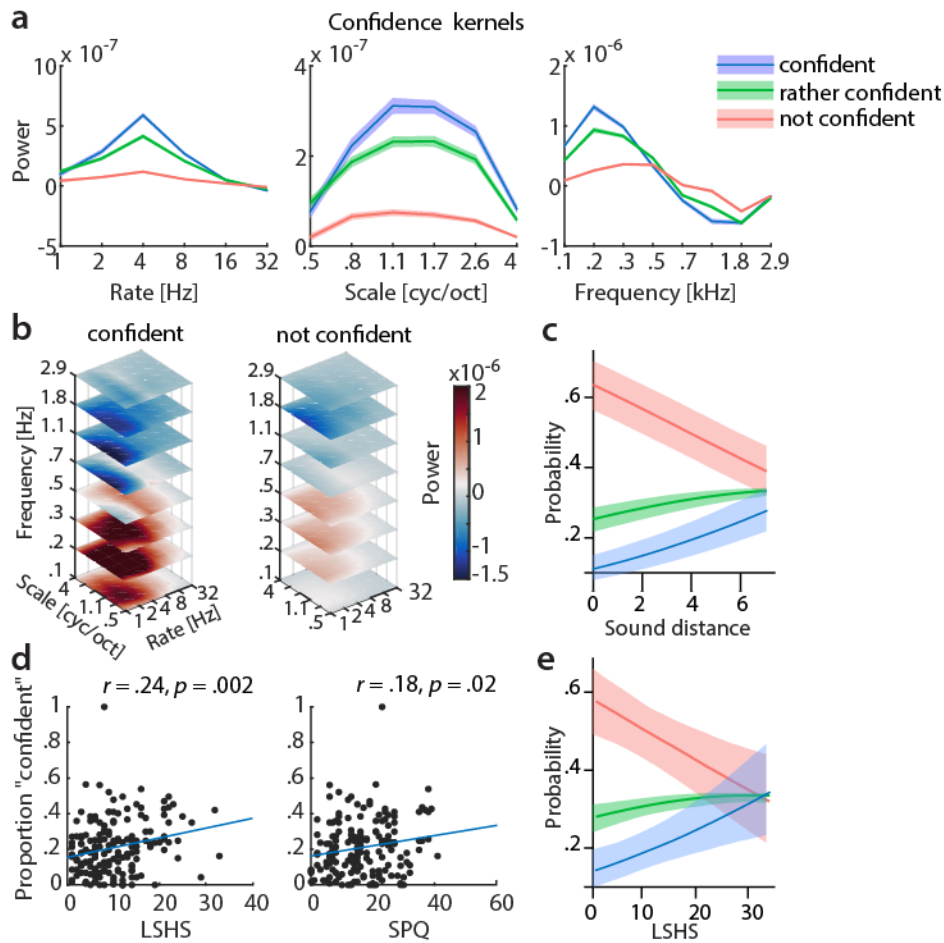


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224 **Figure 5. Effect of speechiness kernels on discriminability of sound pairs.** (a)  
225 We filtered all sounds (presented across experiments and participants,  $n = 34,128$   
226 sound pairs) by individual speechiness kernels, leading overall to higher  
227 discriminability (euclidian distance in the modulation space) of projected compared to  
228 original sound pairs. (b) In this space, we fitted individual linear regression lines. The  
229 slope of this linear fit ('speechiness kernel benefit') was above 1 for most participants,  
230 indicating that filtering with individual speechiness kernels improved discriminability of  
231 sound pairs. However, this benefit was unrelated to hallucination proneness, as  
232 shown by Pearson's  $r$ . LSHS: Launay-Slade hallucination scale.

### 233 **Confidence judgements**

234 To investigate whether confidence affects the speechiness kernels, we calculated  
235 three different kernels, one for each confidence level separately (Fig. 6a). Although  
236 the shape of the kernels was similar for all confidence levels, higher confidence  
237 amplified the magnitude of the kernel (see also Fig. 6b). The proportion of "confident"  
238 responses was positively correlated both with the LSHS scores and global SPQ  
239 scores, indicating that participants with higher hallucination proneness and higher  
240 schizotypy reported more often that they were confident about their speechiness  
241 judgements (Fig. 6d).



242

243 **Figure 6. Confidence judgements in speechiness kernels (jointly from lab**  
 244 **and online experiment) and relation of hallucination proneness to confidence**  
 245 **judgements.** (a) Marginal profiles of speechiness kernels (mean  $\pm$  SE) for three  
 246 different confidence levels separately. (b) Speechiness kernels for the two extreme  
 247 confidence levels (confident, not confident). (c) Estimates from a generalized linear  
 248 mixed model (GLMM) predicting confidence levels based on sound pair distance; the  
 249 model also has the predictors LSHS, SPQ and experiment type (see below); same  
 250 color legend same as in (a). (d) Proportion of "confident" judgements correlated  
 251 (Pearson's  $r$ ) with LSHS and global SPQ scores. (e) Estimates from a GLMM  
 252 predicting confidence levels based on LSHS, model also has the predictors sound  
 253 distance, SPQ and experiment type (see below); same color legend same as in (a).  
 254 LSHS: Launay-Slade hallucination scale, SPQ: schizotypal personality questionnaire.

255 A more mechanistic explanation of this correlation would afford that this relation of  
 256 confidence judgements to hallucination proneness also holds at the trial-by-trial level,  
 257 where we can account for stimulus discriminability, experiment type, and subject-  
 258 specific intercepts.

259 Using ordinal linear mixed-effects regression, we regressed trial-by-trial confidence  
 260 judgements (on a Likert scale from 1 [“not confident”] to 3 [“confident”]) against the  
 261 following predictors: trial-wise sound pair distance (Euclidian distance in the  
 262 modulation representation of the two sounds presented on a given trial); the  
 263 personality variables LSHS score and global SPQ score; as well as experiment (a  
 264 binary indicator variable coding online versus lab), and a subject-specific random  
 265 intercept.

266 Greater sound-pair distance, but also higher LSHS and global SPQ scores were  
 267 significantly associated with higher confidence judgements (Table 2; Fig. 6 c,e). The  
 268 interactions of sound pair distance with LSHS and global SPQ score, respectively,  
 269 were not significant predictors of confidence judgement when considering a 95%  
 270 credible interval, indicating that the confidence judgement based on sensory evidence  
 271 did not depend substantially on hallucination proneness. Observing these data was  
 272 about thirteen times more likely under a model including the LSHS score than under a  
 273 null model with the same parameters except LSHS, as evidenced by an average  
 274 Bayes Factor  $BF_{LSHS-null}$  of 13.31, 95% CI [12.56; 14.05]. Echoing the convergent  
 275 validity of LSHS and SPQ, global SPQ score also proved a significant predictor of  
 276 confidence judgement: a very comparable magnitude was observed for the Bayes  
 277 Factor of a model including the global SPQ score instead ( $BF_{SPQ-null} = 13.21$ , 95% CI  
 278 [12.35;14.07]).

279 **Table 2: Generalized Linear Model** (Ordinal regression) predicting confidence  
 280 judgements on a Likert scale from 1 (“not confident”) to 3 (“confident”). Shown are  
 281 estimates of effects of interest as Log Odds with a 95% Bayesian highest posterior  
 282 density interval (labelled “95% CI”, credible interval). The model entailed data from a  
 283 total of 34,128 single trials from N=168 participants.  
 284

Predictor	Confidence Judgement	
	Log Odds	95 % CI
<b>Sound pair distance</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>0.08 – 0.11</b>
<b>LSHS score</b>	<b>0.12</b>	<b>0.02 – 0.22</b>
<b>Global SPQ score</b>	<b>0.11</b>	<b>0.02 – 0.19</b>
Experiment (lab [0] vs. online [1])	-0.12	-0.32 – 0.08
Sound distance $\boxtimes$ LSHS score *	-0.02	-0.03 – 0
Sound distance $\boxtimes$ global SPQ score	0.00	-0.01 – 0.02
Sound distance $\boxtimes$ Experiment *	-0.03	-0.06 – 0

286 \* Significant for a 90% CI interval

## 287 **Discussion**

288 In how far does hallucination proneness in non-clinical participants manifest in the  
289 aberrant perceptual judgement of acoustic features, namely spectro-temporal  
290 modulations? We studied this using a simple “speechiness” judgement with  
291 confidence ratings based on synthesized sound textures, both in a short online and an  
292 extended lab experiment and gathered a total of N=168 data sets.

293 First, we found individuals’ scores on both the schizotypy personality questionnaire  
294 (SPQ) subscale on ‘unusual perceptual experiences’ and on the Launay–Slade  
295 Hallucinations Scale (LSHS) to covary with the degree to which they classified  
296 textures as ‘speech’ that were lacking the speech-typical low-frequency dominance.

297 Second, those individuals scoring higher on either of these scales were more  
298 confident in their perceptual decisions. Trial-wise confidence judgements were  
299 expectedly driven by acoustic stimulus distances (i.e., the sensory evidence  
300 available), but also—to an equal magnitude—by LSHS scores thought to capture  
301 hallucination proneness (i.e., a perceptual prior or predisposition, see Fig. 7).

302 The present results are remarkably in line with an account of altered perceptual  
303 priors and a differential weighing of sensory evidence in hallucination-prone  
304 individuals, with accordingly changed perceptual decisions when classifying speech-  
305 like sounds.

## 306 **Speech perception in Hallucination proneness**

307 The PCA analyses allowed us to examine to which degree different acoustic  
308 features were used for perceptual decision-making in varying levels of hallucination  
309 proneness. We found the presence of high-frequency components and – maybe more  
310 importantly – the absence of the speech-typical low temporal modulations to  
311 contribute to the classification into speech in hallucination-prone individuals.

312 Hallucination proneness has been associated with more false alarms in auditory  
313 signal detection tasks. An increased false alarm rate was observed in a tone detection  
314 task with a conditioning visual stimulus in hallucinating individuals with and without  
315 psychosis<sup>5</sup>. In a speech in noise detection study, participants were to indicate  
316 “whether they had heard a voice”: Non-clinical hallucination-prone adults had more  
317 false alarms and expressed a liberal response bias<sup>26</sup>. Yet, this study could not  
318 disentangle whether distinct acoustic features contribute to a bias towards a speech  
319 percept.

320 Why do the speechiness kernels in hallucination proneness exhibit particular high  
321 frequency dominance while being flat in the other two dimensions (i.e., the temporal  
322 and spectral modulations)? Our findings of atypical speech perception parallel the  
323 recent observations of differences in speech production in schizophrenia: aberrant  
324 acoustic patterns of vocal expressions (e.g., in pitch variability) have been reported in  
325 schizophrenic patients<sup>27</sup>. The underlying cause common to aberrant speech  
326 perception and production may be a deficit in auditory object formation as postulated  
327 for schizophrenia<sup>15</sup>, consistent with the notion that object formation relies on the intact  
328 extraction of spectro-temporal cues<sup>16</sup>.

329 However, sound distances on a given trial (akin to the available sensory evidence)  
330 were similarly amplified by individual speechiness kernels, independent of  
331 hallucination proneness. Perceptive (from psychophysics) and receptive fields (i.e.,  
332 from physiological experiments) obtained using reverse correlation can be surprisingly  
333 similar<sup>28</sup>. Under the premise that the speechiness kernels reflect individual perceptive  
334 fields, this finding indicates that although speech-relevant modulations may be  
335 encoded differently by hallucination-prone individuals, this may not readily be  
336 reflected in their discriminability performance. Rather, we found differences in  
337 confidence judgements to depend on hallucination proneness and schizotypy.

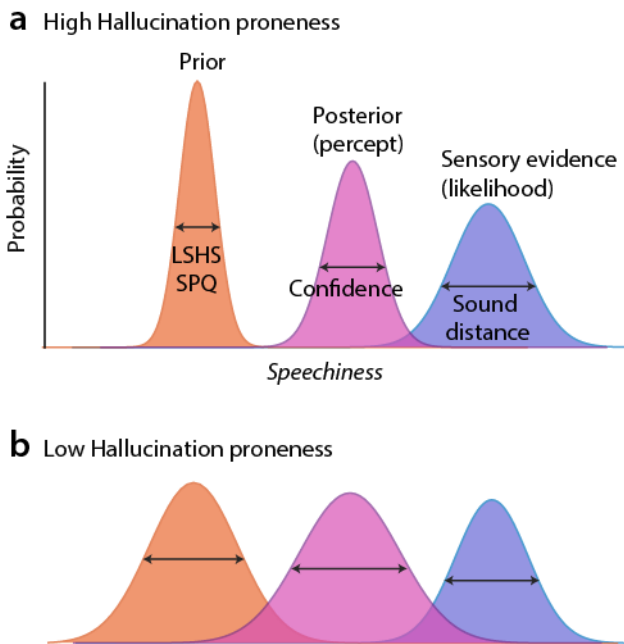
### 338 **Confidence Judgements in Hallucination proneness**

339 In a framework of Bayesian models of perception, the current results pose new  
340 evidence for changes to prior expectations in hallucination proneness<sup>29,30</sup>: The data  
341 support an account of an increased precision or decreased variance in individual  
342 perceptual priors<sup>31</sup>. The statistical model of single-trial confidence judgements in their  
343 own choices (“which [sound] is the more speech-like one?”) here provides important  
344 evidence.

345 First, as expected, the sensory evidence available on a given trial (i.e., width of an  
346 internal likelihood representation) exerts an impact on confidence. The expressed  
347 confidence can be thought of as the width or inverse precision of the posterior,  
348 reflecting the “noise” or uncertainty in one’s perceptual judgement<sup>31</sup>. Accordingly,  
349 individual trait-like predispositions to perceive hallucinations can be considered  
350 stronger (i.e., less noisy and variable) perceptual priors, and they should hence  
351 contribute to a stronger confidence (i.e., smaller width of the posterior) in one’s own  
352 perceptual judgements. While this has been a guiding conjecture in the field of  
353 computational psychiatry (e.g.,<sup>32</sup>), it is borne out by the present data using an  
354 auditory reverse-correlation analysis technique. Figure 7 provides a schematic  
355 illustration of the evidence provided within a Bayesian framework. In sum, overly

356 precise or strong priors that have previously been claimed for psychosis and  
357 hallucinations<sup>3</sup> may contribute to an aberrant percept of ‘speechiness’.

358 The present results add novel evidence to a strain of findings supporting that prior  
359 beliefs mediate hallucinations. In the sensory conditioning study by Powers, et al.<sup>5</sup>,  
360 individuals who hallucinate experienced more often conditioned auditory  
361 hallucinations when presented solely with the visual conditioning stimulus. In a  
362 Hierarchical Gaussian Filter<sup>33</sup>, this expressed as a higher weighting of prior beliefs  
363 over sensory evidence in hallucinating individuals. Psychotic participants were less  
364 likely to update their prior beliefs when presented with new evidence, as shown by  
365 their smaller volatility estimate<sup>5</sup>. Similarly, in a visual degraded image recognition  
366 task, psychotic patients or individuals at risk of psychosis favored top-down prior  
367 knowledge of an image over available sensory evidence<sup>4</sup>.



368

369 **Figure 7. The current results in a framework of Bayesian models of**  
370 **perception.** Perceptual inference in terms of the prior, likelihood and posterior  
371 (percept) is represented by Gaussian distributions over a perceptual dimension of  
372 ‘speechiness’; their widths represent precision. Both hallucination proneness and  
373 schizotypy (LSHS and SPQ) are thought to be proportional to the inverse width of the  
374 prior, while confidence being proportional to the inverse width of the posterior.  
375 Sensory evidence was operationalized as Euclidian sound distance. (a) In high  
376 hallucination-prone participants, the prior precision for a percept of ‘speechiness’ is  
377 thought to be higher (‘stronger prior’), contributing to the observed stronger  
378 confidence judgements (i.e., posterior precision) as compared to (b) the low  
379 hallucination-prone.



380 An important open question remains at which neuronal levels these aberrant  
381 percepts are computed. In contrast to tinnitus where usually simple tones or noises  
382 are perceived, AVH relate to the perception of complex sounds, that is, voices, in the  
383 absence of an external source. Similar to AVH<sup>3</sup>, tinnitus has been proposed to be  
384 rooted in overly precise sensory evidence<sup>34</sup>. In tinnitus, layer-specific effects in A1  
385 have been postulated to lead to a sharpening of a weak prior<sup>34</sup>.

386 Beyond auditory cortex<sup>9</sup>, AVH have been linked to changes at higher-level  
387 computations. For example, non-clinical voice hearers have been found to rely more  
388 heavily on an executive attention network including cingulo-opercular and frontal  
389 cortex when listening to degraded (“sine-wave”) speech<sup>6</sup>. Future studies are  
390 expected to reveal whether the general response properties of auditory cortex are  
391 altered in hallucination proneness. The current study opens a specific and promising  
392 avenue using validated auditory perceptual-filtering models<sup>11,12,17</sup>: Spectro-temporal  
393 modulations currently form a core tenet of auditory neuroscience, tractable for non-  
394 human animal research (e.g.,<sup>35</sup>) as well as human functional neuroimaging (e.g.,<sup>36</sup>)

## 395 **Conclusions**

396 In sum, the current results endorse a continuum hypothesis of psychosis<sup>2</sup> showing  
397 that individuals with different degrees of schizotypy – who sometimes experience  
398 auditory hallucinations but are not diagnosed with any psychotic disorder – do have  
399 distinct signatures of speech perception<sup>15</sup>. Our results are remarkably in line with a  
400 Bayesian model of perception where stronger priors engender a bias towards  
401 hallucinations and foster perceptual confidence in light of ambiguous sensory input.

## 402 **Materials and methods**

### 403 **Participants**

404 **Lab experiment.** The final sample of the lab experiment comprised  $N = 37$   
405 participants of which eleven were female; age ranged from 18 to 30 [mean 21.97]  
406 years. Exclusion criteria were self-reported hearing loss; neurological or psychiatric  
407 disorders; or the regular consumption of drugs, particularly amphetamines, cannabis,  
408 or similar psychoactive substances. Originally,  $N = 42$  volunteers had been recruited,  
409 but data from five of these had to be excluded due to software problems during  
410 testing.

411 **Online study.** The final sample of the online study comprised  $N = 131$  participants,  
412 of which 94 participants were female; age ranged from 19–61 [mean 27.2] years. A  
413 total of  $N = 353$  volunteers had been recruited through dissemination of the study link  
414 in social media, university e-mail lists, and psychology student councils of different  
415 German Universities.  $N = 131$  complete datasets were obtained. Self-exclusion was  
416 based on the same criteria as in the lab experiment.

417 All participants gave informed consent. Psychology students at the University of  
418 Lübeck were offered to obtain course credit. All procedures were approved by the  
419 local ethics committee of the University of Lübeck.

## 420 **Experimental Procedures**

421 In the lab, participants first performed the psychoacoustic experiment, and then  
422 completed two questionnaires, namely the Schizotypal Personality Questionnaire  
423 (SPQ) and the Launay-Slade hallucination scale (LSHS). The rationale was to  
424 perform the relatively long psychoacoustic experiment first in order to not  
425 unnecessarily tire participants with the questionnaires before. Psychoacoustic testing  
426 was performed on a PC. Stimuli were delivered through Sennheiser HD 280 Pro  
427 headphones. Presentation level was kept constant at a comfortable and clearly  
428 audible level. In total, the duration of the lab experiment was approximately 60–75  
429 minutes.

430 In the online experiment, the order of questionnaires and psychoacoustics was  
431 reversed, that is, participants first filled out the two questionnaires and afterwards  
432 performed the psychoacoustic experiment. The drop-out rate is expected to be higher  
433 in online than in lab experiments. Thus, the rationale for reversing the order was that  
434 participants dropping out after the questionnaires we would at least deliver their SPQ  
435 and LSHS data. Also, the duration of the psychoacoustic online experiment was  
436 reduced to 20 % of duration of the lab experiment (speechiness kernels were shown  
437 to be highly similar with 100 and 540 trials, see supplementary Fig. S1), leaving the  
438 psychoacoustic testing shorter and less tiring. The order of the two questionnaires  
439 was randomized across participants.

440 For the psychoacoustic task, participants were instructed to use headphones.  
441 Prior to the psychoacoustic task, participants could adjust the presentation intensity to  
442 a comfortable level using an exemplar sound texture and were instructed to keep the  
443 presentation level constant during the experiment. The total duration of the  
444 experiment amounted to approximately 20 - 25 min. Participants were debriefed after  
445 the experiment.

## 446 Questionnaires

447 Schizotypy was assessed using the German adaptation of the schizotypal  
448 personality questionnaire (SPQ; Raine 1991, Klein, Andresen, Jahn, 1997). The SPQ  
449 comprises nine subscales based on *DSM-III-R* criteria for diagnosis of schizotypal  
450 personality disorder, namely: ideas of reference; excessive social anxiety; odd beliefs  
451 or magical thinking; unusual perceptual experiences; odd or eccentric behavior; no  
452 close friends; odd speech; constricted affect; and suspiciousness. In the current study,  
453 we were particularly interested in the subscale ‘unusual perceptual experiences’  
454 (SPQ-UP) to measure predisposition to hallucinations. In total, the SPQ includes 74  
455 items of which the responses (true/false) are summed up to derive a total score,  
456 amounting to a maximal total score of 74. The SPQ-UP subscale has a maximum total  
457 score of nine.

458 Predisposition for hallucinations was assessed using the German version of the  
459 Launay-Slade Hallucination Scale (LSHS; Launay & Slade 1981; Lincoln et al., 2009).  
460 The questionnaire comprises twelve items which are assessed on a five-point Likert  
461 scale (0 – 4). The LSHS score is derived as the sum of all items and can thus  
462 maximally reach 48.

## 463 Psychoacoustic testing

464 **Stimuli.** Stimuli were resynthesized natural sounds (“sound textures”<sup>18</sup>) presented  
465 in white noise at an SNR of 3 dB. Textures were synthesized from the spectro-  
466 temporal modulation content of a large set of real-life sounds ( $n = 192$ ), including  
467 speech, voice, animal vocalizations as well as nature and tool (instrument) sounds we  
468 had used in a previous study<sup>13</sup> (see Fig. 1a,b). Texture synthesis parameters were as  
469 follows: frequency range 0.02–10 kHz, number of frequency bands = 30, sampling  
470 rate = 20 kHz, temporal modulation range 0.5–200 Hz, sampling rate = 400 Hz;  
471 maximum number of iterations = 60. Textures had a length of 1 s and a sampling rate  
472 of 20 kHz. Out of the total of 192 textures, we selected the 108 “most speech-like”  
473 textures for the final experiment: “speech-like” textures were defined as those textures  
474 whose spectral centroid diverted less than 3 standard deviations from the mean  
475 spectral centroid of those textures that had originally been synthesized from speech  
476 stimuli.

477 **Task.** Two sounds were randomly paired on each trial and presented with an inter-  
478 stimulus-interval of 500 ms. In a two-alternative-forced-choice (2-AFC) task,  
479 participants were asked to decide “which exemplar sounded more like speech” (Fig.  
480 1c). Participants rated their confidence from 1–3 (unconfident to confident).

481 The lab experiment was performed in Matlab 2018b. The order of exemplars was  
482 randomized across participants. In total, each texture exemplar was presented five  
483 times. The first ten trials were training trials. Twenty relatively unambiguous catch  
484 trials were distributed evenly across the experiment. In both catch and training trials, a  
485 speech texture (that is, a texture of which the spectral centroid diverted  $< 0.6$  from the  
486 mean spectral centroid of speech textures) was paired with a texture from the other  
487 categories. In total, the lab experiment comprised 560 trials, including 20 catch trials.  
488 Catch and training trials were excluded from the subsequent reverse correlation  
489 analyses, such that speechiness kernels were estimated based on 540 trials.

490 The online experiment was identical to the lab experiment with the following  
491 exceptions: the online experiment was performed in Labvanced (Scicoverly GmbH,  
492 Osnabrück, Germany). The order of exemplars was fixed across participants due to  
493 programming constraints in Labvanced. To keep the experiment short (approximately  
494 10 min), each texture exemplar was presented only once. The first four trials were  
495 training trials. Five relatively unambiguous catch trials were distributed evenly across  
496 the experiment. In total, the online experiment comprised 117 trials out of which of 5  
497 were catch trials. Catch and training trials were excluded from the subsequent reverse  
498 correlation analyses, such that speechiness kernels were estimated based on 108  
499 trials. Note that kernels estimated based on 100 trials are highly similar to the ones  
500 based on 540 trials, but for details on kernel stability see supplementary Fig. S1.

## 501 **Analyses**

502 **Sound decomposition.** We analyzed how participants' judgements varied as a  
503 function of the spectro-temporal modulation content of the stimuli. The modulation  
504 content of the stimuli was obtained by filtering the sounds with a model of auditory  
505 processing<sup>12</sup> using the "NSL Tools" package (available at  
506 <http://www.isr.umd.edu/Labs/NSL/Software.htm>) and customized Matlab code (The  
507 MathWorks Inc., Matlab 2014b/2018a). First, spectrograms for all sounds were  
508 obtained using a bank of 128 overlapping bandpass filters with equal width ( $Q_{10dB} =$   
509  $3$ ), spaced along a logarithmic frequency axis over a range of  $f = 116\text{--}2872$  Hz (hair  
510 cell stage). A midbrain stage modelled the enhancement of frequency selectivity as a  
511 first-order derivative with respect to the frequency axis, followed by a half-wave  
512 rectification and a short-term temporal integration (time constant  $\tau = 8$  ms).

513 Then, the auditory spectrogram was analyzed by the cortical stage, where the  
514 modulation content of the auditory spectrogram was computed through a bank of 2-  
515 dimensional filters selective for a combination of spectral and temporal modulations.  
516 The filter bank performs a complex wavelet decomposition of the auditory  
517 spectrogram. The magnitude of such decomposition yields a phase-invariant measure

518 of modulation content. The modulation selective filters have joint selectivity for  
519 spectral and temporal modulations, and are directional, i.e. they respond either to  
520 upward or downward frequency sweeps.

521 **Modulation filters.** Filters were tuned to spectral modulation frequencies of  $\Omega =$   
522 [0.5, 0.76, 1.15, 1.74, 2.64, 4] cyc/oct, temporal modulation frequencies of  $\omega = [1, 2, 4,$   
523 8, 16, 32] Hz, and centre frequencies of  $f = [116, 183, 290, 459, 726, 1148, 1816,$   
524 2872] Hz. The filter bank output was computed at each frequency along the tonotopic  
525 axis and then averaged over time. The time-averaged output of the filter bank was  
526 averaged across the upward and downward filter directions. This resulted in a  
527 representation with 6 spectral modulation frequencies, 6 temporal modulation  
528 frequencies, and 8 tonotopic frequencies, amounting to 288 acoustic features in total.  
529 The rationale for this choice of values was to use a decomposition roughly covering  
530 the temporal and spectral modulations present in speech (for spectro-temporal  
531 modulation content of all sound categories see Fig. 1a, for modulation content of  
532 speech see Fig. 1b).

533 **Psychophysical reverse correlation.** To obtain an internal template of speech,  
534 we used the reverse correlation technique<sup>37,38</sup>. Sounds were sorted into speech and  
535 nonspeech stimuli based on the participants' responses. Note that due to the 2-AFC  
536 task, the two choices are symmetric, that is, on each trial one stimulus was attributed  
537 to the speech and hence the other one to the nonspeech category. Therefore, to  
538 obtain individual speechiness kernels we subtracted the two templates for speech and  
539 nonspeech:

$$540 \quad K(f) = E[s(f)|\text{speech}] - E[s(f)|\text{nonspeech}] \quad (1)$$

541 where  $E[s(f)|\text{speech}]$  indicates the trial average of the stimulus at  
542 feature  $f$  conditional on choice "speech",  $s(f)$  is the stimulus at feature  $f$ , and  $K(f)$  is the  
543 magnitude of the psychophysical kernel at feature  $f$ .

544 **Kernel stability.** To obtain an estimate of how many trials are necessary to obtain  
545 a stable estimate of individual speechiness kernels, we assessed kernel stability in  
546 the lab-experiment data. To this end, we iteratively calculated the Pearson's  
547 correlation between the kernel based on a subset of  $n$  trials and the final kernel based  
548 on all 540 trials<sup>39</sup> for all participants.

549 **Principal component analysis (PCA).** To reduce dimensionality of the  
550 speechiness kernel (comprising  $n = 288$  acoustic features), we computed the matrix  
551 singular value decomposition on the set of all lab and online speechiness kernels (all  
552 scaled between 0 and 1) jointly in Matlab 2018a and jamovi 1.0.7.0. This yielded  $k =$

553 288 components. We decided on the number of components to retain based on a  
554 scree plot<sup>40</sup> and parallel analysis<sup>41</sup>. We retained only those components where the  
555 eigenvalues associated with the raw data exceed the eigenvalues of surrogate data,  
556 leaving us with the first six components (see scree plot Fig. 4b). The individual  
557 speechiness kernels were then projected through (i.e., multiplied with) those  
558 components. The individual component loadings were scaled by the singular values,  
559 yielding individual component scores. Lastly, the component scores were correlated  
560 using Pearson's *r* with the LSHS and SPQ-UP subscale, respectively. The two scales  
561 (LSHS and SPQ-UP subscale) were chosen as they measure psychotic-like  
562 experiences, specifically predisposition for unusual perceptual experiences (e.g.,  
563 hallucinations).

564 **Sound discriminability analysis.** To estimate the discriminability of two textures  
565 presented on a trial, we first calculated trial-wise sound pair distance as the Euclidian  
566 distance between each of the 288 features. To investigate whether individual  
567 speechiness kernels influenced the discriminability of sound pairs presented on each  
568 trial, sounds in the modulation space (comprising 288 features) were projected  
569 through (multiplied with) individual speechiness kernels. Then, for each sound  
570 separately, the features were normalized between their minimum and maximum  
571 (effectively scaling them between 0 and 1). Sound pair distance was compared before  
572 and after projection through speechiness kernels.

573 **Generalized linear mixed-effects models.** To evaluate the relation of trial-wise  
574 confidence judgements with sound-pair discriminability (see above) and hallucination  
575 proneness, we used a Cumulative Link Mixed Models, that is, a hierarchical  
576 generalized linear model with a cumulative link function (i.e., an ordinal regression  
577 model). Ordinal linear mixed-effects regression was fitted using the Bayesian  
578 estimation package *brms* in RStudio 1.3.959 (cumulative-probit link function). We  
579 regressed trial-by-trial confidence judgements (on a Likert scale from 1 ["not  
580 confident"] to 3 ["confident"]) against the z-scored predictors trial-wise sound pair  
581 distance, LSHS score, global SPQ score, as well as experiment type (online, lab) as  
582 covariate of no interest with subject-specific random intercepts.

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