Delta/theta band EEG differentially tracks low and high frequency speech-
derived envelopes

Felix Bröhl[1*] and Christoph Kayser[1]

[1]*Department for Cognitive Neuroscience, Faculty of Biology, Bielefeld University, Universitätsstr. 25, 33615, Bielefeld,*
Germany

* **Correspondence to:** Felix Bröhl (felix.broehl@uni-bielefeld.de)

Highlights

● Delta/theta band EEG tracks band-limited speech-derived envelopes similar to real speech
● Low and high frequency speech-derived envelopes are represented differentially
● High-frequency derived envelopes are more susceptible to attentional and contextual manipulations
● Delta band tracking shifts towards low frequency derived envelopes with more acoustic detail

Abstract

The representation of speech in the brain is often examined by measuring the alignment of rhythmic
brain activity to the speech envelope. To conveniently quantify this alignment (termed 'speech
tracking') many studies consider the overall speech envelope, which combines acoustic fluctuations
across the spectral range. Using EEG recordings, we show that using this overall envelope can provide
a distorted picture on speech encoding. We systematically investigated the encoding of spectrally-
limited speech-derived envelopes presented by individual and multiple noise carriers in the human
brain. Tracking in the 1 to 6 Hz EEG bands differentially reflected low (0.2 - 0.83 kHz) and high (2.66
- 8 kHz) frequency speech-derived envelopes. This was independent of the specific carrier frequency
but sensitive to attentional manipulations, and reflects the context-dependent emphasis of information
from distinct spectral ranges of the speech envelope in low frequency brain activity. As low and high
frequency speech envelopes relate to distinct phonemic features, our results suggest that functionally
distinct processes contribute to speech tracking in the same EEG bands, and are easily confounded when
considering the overall speech envelope.

Keywords

speech entrainment, brain rhythms, hearing, EEG

1. Introduction

A central notion governing the neurobiology of speech has been that rhythmic brain activity aligns to the regularities of speech, particularly in the delta (1 - 4 Hz) and theta (4 - 8 Hz) bands. This alignment has been termed "speech entrainment" or "speech tracking" (Obleser and Kayser, 2019) and both, serves as a powerful tool to study speech encoding, but also promotes a fundamental role of rhythmic brain activity for speech comprehension and production (Giraud and Poeppel, 2012; Obleser and Kayser, 2019; Poeppel and Assaneo, 2020). Experimental signatures of speech tracking in M/EEG or ECoG recordings are often obtained by relating the neural signal to a simplified signature of the acoustic energy: the latter is often defined as the overall or broadband speech envelope and is computed by averaging individual band-limited envelopes along the spectral dimension (Ahissar et al., 2001; Aiken and Picton, 2008; Doelling et al., 2014; Kayser et al., 2015; Keitel et al., 2018; Meyer, 2018; Nourski et al., 2009). However, relevant information is not distributed homogeneously along this spectral dimension: lower frequencies often carry more information about the majority of phonemes and are more relevant for comprehension (Elliott and Theunissen, 2009; Erb et al., 2020; Monson et al., 2014). Also, the auditory system can selectively track spectrally-distinct acoustic streams (Brodbeck et al., 2019; Mesgarani and Chang, 2012; O'Sullivan et al., 2019) and many auditory cortices segregate sounds along a tonotopic organization. If the experimentally observed speech tracking signatures arise from such processes, combining individual envelopes along the spectral dimension would effectively blend distinct neural representations into a single experimental measure. Hence, we conjecture that the use of the broadband envelope to study the encoding of speech and other natural sounds may obscure possibly distinct underlying neural processes and might provide an oversimplified picture.

To investigate this hypothesis, we studied the representation of synthetic stimuli derived from natural German speech in the human EEG. The stimuli were created by applying amplitude-envelopes derived from limited bands of the spectral dimension of natural speech to band-limited noise carriers and hence captured essential aspects of the envelope dynamics of natural speech. Quantifying the alignment of rhythmic components of the EEG to the acoustic envelope (Giordano et al., 2017; Kayser et al., 2015; Park et al., 2016) we then compared the cerebral tracking of such individual band-limited speech envelopes across a number of experimental conditions designed to address a number of questions, as explained below. Across experimental conditions we manipulated the spectral match between individual envelope and carrier bands, the number of simultaneously presented envelope-carrier pairs, and participants' attention to specific envelope-carrier pairs. In particular, by varying the number of simultaneously presented envelope-carrier pairs, the stimulus material varied along a continuum from individual envelopes to multi-band noise-vocoded speech.

With this approach we were able to investigate the following questions: First, we asked whether

envelopes extracted from lower and higher spectral bands (c.f. Fig. 1) are tracked similarly in the EEG,

i.e. over the same electrodes and in the same EEG bands (Fig. 2). Second, we asked whether this

tracking is sensitive to the match between carrier frequency and the spectral range covered by the

envelope, motivated by relevance of the natural match between carrier frequency and envelope band

for comprehension as shown by natural and spectrally rotated speech (Molinaro and Lizarazu, 2018;

Peelle et al., 2013) (Fig. 3). Third, we probed whether and for which envelope bands tracking is affected

by the presence of additional acoustical envelope information (Fig. 4) and by attention (Fig. 5), similar

as the known attentional effects for the tracking of natural speech (Cusack et al., 2004; Kerlin et al.,

2010; Lakatos et al., 2008; Rimmele et al., 2015; Teoh and Lalor, 2020). Fourth, we investigated the

tracking of individual spectrally-limited envelopes and the superposition of multiple envelope-carrier

pairs to probe which tracking signatures covary with the signal's complexity and participant's

comprehension (Fig. 6). And last but not least, we investigated the statistical regularities of acoustic

landmarks that supposedly give rise to speech tracking in order to illustrate the necessity of studying

the tracking of spectrally limited envelopes (Fig. 7).

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Participants and data acquisition

We collected data from 24 native German speaking participants (19 females, mean age = 23.4 ± 3.6 SD). All participants provided written informed consent and were screened for hearing impairment with the speech, spatial and qualities of hearing scale (SSQ) prior to the study (Gatehouse and Noble, 2004). We excluded participants with scores two standard deviations below the mean of a young control group reported by Demeester et al. (Demeester et al., 2012). Participants received monetary compensation of 10 € per hour. The experiment was approved by the local ethics committee of the Bielefeld University, Germany, and was conducted in compliance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Participants were seated in a dimly lit, acoustically and electrically shielded room (Desone Ebox, Germany). Auditory stimuli were presented binaurally using Sennheiser headphones (Model HD200) from a Creative sound blaster z Soundcard at an average intensity of 68 dB SPL. EEG signals were continuously recorded using an active 128 channel BioSemi system using Ag-AgCl electrodes mounted on an elastic cap (BioSemi). Four additional electrodes were placed at the outer canthi and below the eyes to obtain the electrooculogram. Electrode impedance was kept at <40 kΩ. Data were acquired at a sampling rate of 1024 Hz using a lowpass filter of 400 Hz.

2.2 Speech material and stimuli

The original material based on which the experimental stimuli were modelled comprised 39 sentences extracted from German radio interviews conducted by the Deutschlandfunk on various topics. The sentences were spoken by nine different professional speakers (2 females, 7 male) and lasted on average 8.65 ± 2.3 s (mean ± SD, ranging from 4.13 s to 13.67 s) and comprised in total 337.5 s of spoken material. The sentences consisted of 22.1 ± 7.2 words. All recordings are publicly available online and were downloaded and converted to .wav files with a sampling rate of 44.1 kHz (https://www.deutschlandradio.de/audio-archiv.260.de.html).

To create the experimental stimuli, we first extracted amplitude-envelopes from the spoken sentences and then applied these to bandpass filtered Gaussian white noise with varying center frequencies as described below. The band-limited envelopes were obtained by bandpass filtering each sentence into logarithmically spaced frequency bands covering the range from 0.2 to 8 kHz. Depending on the experimental condition or analysis, we used either three frequency bands (boundaries: 0.2, 0.83, 2.66, 8 kHz), six bands (boundaries: 0.2, 0.43, 0.83, 1.5, 2.66, 4.6, 8 kHz) or twelve bands (boundaries: 0.2, 0.3, 0.43, 0.6, 0.83, 1.1, 1.5, 2, 2.66, 3.5, 4.6, 6.1, 8 kHz). In the following we often refer to low, mid, and high bands, which here are defined as follows: low: 0.2 - 0.83 kHz, mid: 0.83 - 2.66 kHz and high: 2.66 - 8 kHz. For filtering we applied a zero-phase 4th order Butterworth IIR filter using the Matlab filtfilt function. Band-limited envelopes were computed by taking the absolute of the Hilbert transform (Fig. 1A). To construct stimuli, we bandpass filtered Gaussian white noise into the same logarithmically

spaced frequency bands and applied the envelopes extracted from the speech material to create amplitude-modulated band-limited noises. Similar to the envelopes, carriers are thus defined by their respective frequency bands (e.g. low, mid and high). To create different experimental conditions, we constructed stimuli by combining these band-limited envelopes not only with a noise carrier at the same frequency (i.e. 'natural', Fig. 1B, signals 1 and 5), but also by applying the envelope of one frequency band to a different carrier band (i.e. 'unnatural', Fig. 1B, signals 2 and 4). We also constructed multi-band stimuli by presenting 2, 3, 6, or 12 carriers simultaneously, each modulated by the same or distinct envelopes, as described further below.

Fig. 1. Stimulus design. (**A**) Acoustic waveform (top) and spectrogram (bottom) of one example sentence used to create the stimulus material for the present study. Colored outlines show amplitude envelopes extracted from (here) three logarithmically spaced frequency ranges between 0.2 and 8 kHz (red dashed lines). (**B**) Stimuli were envelope-modulated band-limited noises differing in the frequency range used to create the noise and the frequency range from which the speech envelope was derived and used to modulate the noise. The figure shows 1 second snippets from stimuli used in Block 1. The spectral ranges covered by the carrier noise and the spectral range from which the envelope was extracted were paired across conditions as shown by the matrix (low: 0.2 - 0.83 kHz, mid: 0.83 - 2.66 kHz and high: 2.66 - 8 kHz). Conditions 1, 3 and 5 (green numbers) reflect natural pairings where the frequency band of the carrier was modulated with the envelope derived from the same band, while conditions 2 and 4 reflect unnatural pairings. (**C**) Icons are used in the following figures to illustrate how distinct envelope and carrier bands were used to create a specific stimulus condition in the experiment, or to define a factor for data analysis. Envelope-carrier pairs presented in the experiment are marked as filled boxes in the checkerboard. Depending on the experimental blocks, this could be individual (left) or simultaneously presented pairs (middle). For some data analysis we averaged experimental conditions as indicated with a plus symbol between icons (right), or contrasted these as indicated by a minus sign.

2.3 Experimental design

The experiment consisted of five blocks, in which participants were presented with different combinations of amplitude-modulated noises. All blocks were presented within the same session in a fixed order. During the entire experiment, participants were instructed to fixate a central fixation cross and to blink as little as possible. Envelopes derived from all 39 sentences were repeated in a pseudo-random sequence in each experimental condition. The first block comprised five conditions, in each of which we presented one carrier modulated with one envelope, as depicted in figure 1B. Three conditions presented natural combinations of carrier frequency and band-limited envelope, e.g. Env_{low} with Car_{low} (Fig. 1B, signals 1, 3 and 5), two conditions presented unnatural pairings, i.e. Env_{low} with Car_{high} and Env_{high} with Car_{low} (signals 2 and 4). In the second block we presented a mixture of two amplitude-modulated noises, whereby the two carriers at different frequencies were modulated with the same band-limited envelope: one condition presented Env_{low} modulated on Car_{low} together with Env_{low} modulated on Car_{high} (i.e. signals 1 plus 2), and one condition presented Env_{high} modulated on Car_{low} together with Env_{high} modulated on Car_{high} (i.e. signals 4 plus 5). In the third and fourth blocks we presented a mixture of two amplitude-modulated noises, whereby each noise was modulated by its natural envelope (i.e. Env_{low} with Car_{low} and Env_{high} with Car_{high}; Fig. 1B), while also manipulating participants' attentional demands. In block three participants were asked to attend both carriers, while in block 4 they were asked to attend either the low or the high carrier. To ensure attentive engagement in blocks 1 to 4, participants performed a dummy task in which they had to report the occurrence of a silent gap within the stimulus. These gaps were randomly distributed over all trials and occurred in 20 % of trials. Each gap lasted between 450 and 600 ms and randomly occurred within the third quarter of the stimulus. In block three, participants were tasked to detect a gap which was implemented to appear simultaneously in both streams, whereas in block four participants were tasked to attend either the low or the high carrier and only respond to a gap occurrence in that attended carrier.

In the fifth block participants were presented with more than two simultaneous carriers, similar to noise-vocoded speech. Each sentence was repeated in each of three conditions, comprising either 3, 6, or 12 envelope-carrier pairs. For the 3-band condition, carriers and envelopes were derived from the same three bands (low, mid, high) as used in Blocks 1 - 4. For the 6 and 12 bands, carriers and envelopes were derived from more narrow bands (see filtering procedures above). Participants were asked to pay attention in order to perform a comprehension task. Subsequent to each sentence they had to report which out of three candidate words they had heard by pressing one of three buttons. Additionally, they were asked to rate their confidence in their decision on a scale from 1 (low) over 2 (medium) to 3 (high). As each sentence was repeated in each sub-block, this introduced a potential confound of memory and recognition. Given that performance was already high for 6 bands, we did not investigate the subsequently presented 12-band condition any further, as the cerebral encoding and perceptual reports may be confounded by memory-related effects.

2.4 EEG preprocessing

Data analysis was performed offline using the FieldTrip toolbox (Oostenveld et al., 2011) Version 20190905 and custom written MATLAB scripts. Data and code used in this study will be made available on the Data Server of the University of Bielefeld upon acceptance of the article. The EEG data were bandpass filtered between 0.2 and 60 Hz using a zero-phase 4th order Butterworth IIR filter and resampled to 150 Hz. To detect channels with excessive noise we selected channels with an amplitude above 3.5 standard deviations from the mean of all channels and interpolated these using a weighted neighbor approach: on average we interpolated 13.55 ± 6.73 channels across subjects (mean $\pm$ SD). Noise cleaning was performed using independent component analysis based on 40 components across all blocks simultaneously. Artifacts were detected automatically using predefined noise templates capturing typical artifacts related to eye movements, blinks or localized muscle activity based on our previous work (Kayser et al., 2016; McNair et al., 2019). On average 12.16 ± 4.76 components were removed (mean $\pm$ SD). Finally, all channels were referenced to the mean of eight temporal electrodes (B14, B25, B26, B27, D8, D22, D23, D24).

2.5 EEG analysis

To quantify the relationship between the EEG and the stimulus envelope we used a mutual information (MI) approach (Ince et al., 2017). For each trial we omitted the first 500 ms to remove the evoked onset response and then separately computed the MI for multiple lags between stimulus and EEG, ranging from 60 to 140 ms in 20 ms steps (Keitel et al., 2018). We subsequently averaged the MI values over all lags. To compute the MI values, the single trial EEG data was cut to the same length as the corresponding acoustic envelope. Then, we appended all trial-wise envelopes and EEG data from the same condition and filtered these arrays into partly overlapping frequency bands: delta1 (0.5 - 2 Hz), delta2 (1 - 4 Hz), theta1 (2 - 6 Hz), theta2 (4 - 8 Hz) and alpha (8 - 12 Hz), respectively using a zero-phase 4th order Butterworth IIR filter. To compute the mutual information between EEG and stimulus vectors we derived the analytic signal using the Hilbert transform and calculated the MI using the Gaussian copula approach (Ince et al., 2017). By using the complex signals of the Hilbert transform we effectively quantified the relationship between two signals using both power and phase information. Analysis in block 5 of the experiment was conducted by computing the MI between the EEG signal and the three envelopes (i.e. Env_{low}, Env_{mid}, Env_{high}) for both the 3 and 6 envelopes condition. Specifically, in the 6 envelope condition, we first averaged the two envelopes covering the low, mid or high ranges respectively and then computed the MI between these averaged envelopes and the EEG. This enabled us to compare tracking of equal spectral distances across conditions with varying detail.

2.6 Statistical analysis

For statistical analysis of the EEG data we relied on a cluster-based permutation approach, relying on 2000 permutations, requiring a minimum of three significant neighboring electrodes and using the 'cluster-mass' as cluster-forming criterion (Maris and Oostenveld, 2007). To test whether the tracking of envelope-noise pairs in the EEG was significant when compared to a condition of no systematic relation between stimulus and brain activity (Fig. 2), we computed a distribution of randomized values obtained by computing the MI between EEG and time shifted speech envelopes 2000 times. For this, all trial-wise appended stimulus arrays were circularly shifted by a uniformly distributed random lag between ¼ N and N - ¼ N, where N is the number of samples in the stimulus array. By this we ensured that the stimuli were in no relation to the brain signal, while still maintaining their spatially and spectrally distinct autocorrelation. We then formed clusters based on electrode-frequency bins exceeding a cluster-forming threshold of $p<0.01$, i.e. exceeding the 99th percentile of the frequency-specific randomized distribution. Frequency-specific randomization was used as the MI values decrease as a function of the chosen pass-band frequency and therefore the bias cannot be assumed to be drawn from the same null distribution. Clusters were considered significant if they exceeded a two-sided alpha level of 0.01.

To compare the MI between conditions, we first computed electrode- and frequency-wise paired two-tailed t-tests across participants. Electrodes were considered if their t-value exceeded a critical level of $p<0.01$. Then, to create a null distribution under the hypothesis of no difference, we randomly flipped the sign of the conditional MI differences to obtain a randomization distribution (Maris and Oostenveld, 2007). To control for multiple comparisons across electrodes and EEG frequency bands the maximum statistics was used. In cases where nearby clusters reflected a similar effect but were separated by at most one electrode, we conjugated these into one cluster. Instances of such conjugations are indicated in the text. For each significant cluster we computed the sum of within-cluster values as a cluster statistic (cstat). Additionally, the electrode with the maximum (for positive or minimum for negative clusters) test statistic was selected and subsequently used to compute Cohen's d as an indicator of effect size. To investigate changes in speech tracking with the number of envelope bands (Fig. 6), we regressed the MI values for each electrode and frequency band against the number of presented envelope-carrier pairs. We applied cluster-based permutation to test regression betas against zero.

The spatial similarity of MI topographies was obtained as the Pearson correlation coefficient between the group-averaged topographies in each frequency band, averaged across envelopes and carriers. Statistical significance of these correlations was tested by obtaining group-level bootstrap confidence intervals, created by randomly sampling participants with replacement 2000 times.

To test for differences in the frequency of acoustic onsets between envelope bands we compared their onset frequency with a one-way repeated measures ANOVA followed by a post hoc Tukey-Kramer multiple comparison test. Additionally, to test the joint onset probability for significance we created a

null distribution by randomly shifting each envelope separately in time and computing the randomized likelihood 2000 times. For all statistical tests we provide exact p-values, except where these are below 10^{-3}.

2.7 Analysis of stimulus material

We analyzed statistical regularities of the acoustic onsets in the speech material as these provide prominent landmarks that drive the neural entrainment to speech (Drennan and Lalor, 2019; Khalighinejad et al., 2017; Oganian and Chang, 2019). For each band-limited envelope we computed its derivative and determined local peaks using Matlab's 'findpeaks' function with a minimum distance of 125 ms between neighboring peaks. For each sentence we then computed the onset frequency by dividing the number of onsets by the length of the given sentence. This was done for each envelope band separately and subsequently averaged over sentences. Additionally, we computed the correlation between each band-limited envelope band and the overall envelope, which was defined as the average of the all band-limited three envelopes derived from band-limited speech (Fig. 7A - B). To determine whether onsets in different bands were temporally structured we determined their joint probability: for each onset in a given envelope band we calculated the probability of onsets in all remaining bands that fell within a 400 ms window using temporal bins of 40 ms length (Fig. 7C).

To link the acoustic onsets with their phonemic content, we examined how these onsets coincide with phonemes. For this we used the web-based WebMAUS Basic tool by the Bavarian Archive for Speech Signals to force-align written transcripts to the acoustic waveform (Kisler et al., 2017). Phonemic onsets were stored as TextGrid files and subsequently adjusted by hand using Praat (Boersma and van Heuven, 2001). For each envelope band we determined the closest phoneme onset to each acoustic onset within a temporal distance of 40 ms. Phoneme counts were grouped by their manner of articulation (fricatives, plosives, vowels, pure vowels, nasals) (Fig. 7D). Phoneme counts for each envelope were then divided into two subgroups: 'unique' phonemes that coincide with acoustic onsets in only one band, and 'common' phonemes coinciding with acoustic onsets in more than one envelope band. To compute the probability of phoneme groups given any acoustic onset, we normalized the count of each phoneme group to the total number of phonemes in all sentences.

3. Results

Across five blocks participants listened to acoustic stimuli presenting band-limited noises modulated by speech-derived band-limited envelopes. Within and between blocks we manipulated the spectral match between envelope (i.e. the frequency range in the natural speech from which the envelope was extracted) and carrier (i.e. the spectral band of the respective noise), participants' attention to specific envelope-carrier pairs, and varied the number of simultaneously presented envelope modulated carriers.

3.1 Behavioral performance

In the first three blocks participants were asked to detect a silent gap to ensure they paid attention to the stimuli. Gaps were reported with an accuracy of 95.4 ± 0.4 % (mean $\pm$ SD; averaged over participants and blocks 1 - 3). In the fourth block, participants were presented with two carriers but had to detect a gap in one 'attended' stimulus: they did so correctly in 79.3 ± 9.1 % of trials. In the fifth block, participants listened to noise-vocoded speech with varying spectral detail (3, 6 and 12 envelopes) and were asked to perform a 3-choice word recognition task. Accuracy increased from 45.1 ± 11.4 % to 91.8 ± 6.7 % and 97.9 ± 4.0 % across conditions. In this block they also indicated their confidence on an interval scale from 1 to 3, which increased over the three conditions from 1.34 ± 0.43 to 2.65 ± 0.21 and 2.93 ± 0.08. Because in Block 5 performance already reached near ceiling level for 6 bands, we omitted the 12-band condition from the subsequent analysis, as this may be confounded by recognition or memory effects.

3.2 Tracking of spectrally limited speech envelopes

In block 1 we presented five conditions each presenting one carrier band modulated by one speech-derived narrow band-limited envelope, while varying the spectral match between carrier and envelope bands. Three conditions presented natural pairings, i.e. the envelope and carrier were derived from the same frequency range, while two conditions presented unnatural pairings (Fig. 1B). For each condition we quantified the envelope tracking as the mutual information between the complex-valued representation of the envelope and the EEG activity (Ince et al., 2017; Keitel et al., 2017).

First, we quantified envelope tracking separately for carrier noises and for envelopes derived from the low and high frequency bands, averaging over the respective other dimension (e.g. quantifying the tracking when envelopes were presented at Car_{low} regardless of which envelope was used Fig. 2). For each of these four analyses, tracking prevailed in lower EEG bands and over central and temporal electrodes, as expected from previous work (Giordano et al., 2017; Kayser et al., 2015; Keitel et al., 2018). To ensure that these tracking signatures were indeed robust, we contrasted the actual MI values to a null-distribution obtained under the assumption of no reliable association between stimulus and EEG signal. For each envelope and each carrier band, all electrodes formed one single significant cluster

over all frequency ranges (cluster-based permutation test; all p<10^{-3}, Car$_{low}$: cstat=2.03, Car$_{high}$:
cstat=2.15, Env$_{low}$: cstat=1.85, Env$_{high}$: cstat=2.44).

We then asked whether the neurophysiological processes giving rise to these MI topographies across
analysis factors share a similar spatial layout, or rather reflect spatially distinct generators. The
similarities between condition-averaged MI topographies were significantly correlated across
neighboring EEG bands (Fig. 2B, group-level bootstrap test, p<10^{-3}), revealing significant similarities
between each neighboring topographies (0.5 - 12 Hz) and additionally between delta2 and theta2 (0.5 -
2 Hz and 4 - 8 Hz). Concerning the role of carrier or envelope bands, we found that the topographies
obtained using different carriers were significantly correlated (averaged correlation across EEG bands;
r=0.88, group-level bootstrap test p<10^{-3}), while the topographies obtained using low and high
frequency envelopes were only weakly but still significantly correlated (r=0.29, p<10^{-3}). These results
suggest that envelope tracking in different bands of the EEG likely reflects distinct neurophysiological
processes. These tracking signatures are not influenced by the choice of carrier frequency while acoustic
envelopes extracted from low (0.2 - 0.83 kHz) and high (2.66 - 8 kHz) spectral ranges seem to be
reflected by distinct neurophysiological signatures.

Fig. 2. Specificity and spatial topographies of envelope tracking. (**A**) Condition-averaged topographies of
envelope tracking, quantified as mutual information (MI), separately for the factors low/high carrier bands (Car$_{low}$,
Car$_{high}$) and low/high envelope ranges (Env$_{low}$: 0.2 - 0.83 kHz, Env$_{high}$: 2.66 - 8 kHz) in block 1. To create the
analysis factors, the MI values were averaged across the respective other dimension (e.g. over envelope bands for
Car$_{low}$, Car$_{high}$), as indicated by the pictograms on the left. These tracking signatures were significant for each
envelope and carrier when compared with a bootstrap distribution reflecting the null hypothesis of no systematic
relation between EEG and stimulus (see main text). Color ranges are fixed within each EEG band. (**B**) Spatial
similarity (Pearson correlation) of group-level MI topographies between EEG bands (averaged over conditions).
Red dots indicate a significant (p<0.01) one-sided group-level bootstrap test against zero.

3.3 High-frequency envelopes are reflected more strongly in the EEG

Addressing the first of our main questions, we asked whether the signatures of envelope tracking are specific to the match between the carrier frequency and the spectral range from which the envelope was extracted. A direct contrast of MI values between conditions in which Car_{low} or Car_{high} were presented (Fig. 3, ΔCar) revealed no significant effects except in the alpha band, where MI values were higher for Car_{high} ($p<10^{-3}$, cstat=-20.9, cohen's d=-0.93). A direct contrast between conditions in which either Env_{low} or Env_{high} were presented (Fig. 3, ΔEnv) revealed higher MI for Env_{high} over central channels in delta1 (0.5 - 2 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=52.51, cohen's d=0.91), over fronto-central channels in theta1 and theta2 (2 - 8 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=320.37, cohen's d=1.21), being conjugated from two separate clusters, and over occipital channels in the same frequency band (2 - 8 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=97.66, cohen's d=0.88). Finally, we asked whether there is an interaction between envelope and carrier bands. For this we compared unnatural (Fig 1B, signals 2 plus 4) and natural pairings (signals 1 plus 5) (Fig. 3, Inter), and found no significant difference. Together with the topographical differences in the tracking of Env_{low} and Env_{high} (c.f. Fig. 2), these results suggest that speech envelopes derived from lower and higher spectral ranges are reflected differently in the EEG.

Fig. 3. Effects of carrier frequency and envelope band on envelope tracking. Differences in MI values between factors Car_{high} minus Car_{low} (ΔCar), Env_{high} minus Env_{low} (ΔEnv), unnatural minus natural pairings (Inter), and the enhancement of envelope tracking when presented with two minus one carrier (Env_{low}^{2Car}, Env_{high}^{2Car}). Pictograms on the left indicate which experimental conditions (black filled squares) were combined into analysis factors and contrasted (c.f. Fig. 1C). Topographies show the electrode-wise t-values for the group-level differences between factors of interest. Red and white dots mark positive and negative clusters (derived using cluster-based permutation statistics corrected across electrodes and EEG bands, p<0.01). Panels on the right show differences

 in MI values between factors for individual participants within each cluster (red for positive and blue for negative

372 clusters).

3.4 Contextual information influences tracking of Env$_{high}$ more than Env$_{low}$

Using the conditions in blocks 2 and 3 we examined whether and how the tracking of individual

envelopes is influenced by concurrent information presented to the listener. First, we asked whether the

tracking of a specific envelope is enhanced when the same acoustic envelope is presented in a broader

spectral range: In block 2, we presented carriers at two frequency ranges, each modulated by the same

envelope (2Car condition; Fig. 3). Comparing this 2-carrier condition to the respective 1-carrier

condition (from block 1) revealed higher MI values for the 2-carrier condition: for Env$_{low}$ over right

posterior electrodes in theta1 (Fig. 3, 2 - 6 Hz; Env$_{low}^{2Car}$, $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=11.08, cohen's d=0.63); for

Env$_{high}$ over right posterior electrodes in delta 2 (1 - 4 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=64.19, cohen's d=0.81) and

over left posterior electrodes in theta2 (4 - 8 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=33.50, cohen's d=0.80). This shows that

envelope tracking is enhanced when the same information is present in a broader spectral range.

In block 3 we presented two carriers each modulated by their respective matching (natural) envelopes

in order to probe whether the tracking of a specific envelope is enhanced when the complementary

speech-like information is presented in another spectral range (i.e. presenting Env$_{low}$ carried by Car$_{low}$

and Env$_{high}$ carried by Car$_{high}$ together Fig. 4). MI values were lower in the 2-carrier condition compared

to the respective values obtained from block 1: for Env$_{low}$ MI was reduced over right central-posterior

electrodes in theta2 (Fig. 4, 4 - 8 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=-28.16, cohen's d=-0.78); for Env$_{high}$ MI values were

reduced over posterior electrodes in the theta1 to alpha bands (2 - 12 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=-232.82, cohen's

d=-1.04) and over central electrodes in theta2 band (4 - 8 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=-46.02, cohen's d=-0.66).

A direct comparison between Env$_{high}$ and Env$_{low}$ revealed a stronger reduction of MI values for Env$_{high}$

over central channels in delta2 to theta1 (1 - 6 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=-50.62, cohen's d=-0.69) and over left

posterior sites in theta2 (4 - 8 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=62.18, cohen's d=-0.99). Hence, the tracking of a

specific envelope-carrier pair in the theta band becomes less prominent when an additional

complementary speech envelope is presented and this effect is particularly prominent for Env$_{high}$.

Fig. 4. Effects of contextual information. Tracking of one individual envelope-noise pair when a second

envelope-noise pair is presented (using a distinct carrier) minus tracking of just the individual envelope.

Pictograms on the left indicate which conditions (black filled squares) were contrasted. Topographies show the

electrode-wise t-values for the group-level statistics. Red and white dots mark positive and negative clusters

(derived using cluster-based permutation statistics, $p<0.01$). Panels on the right show differences in MI values

between factors for individual participants.

3.5 Attention influences tracking of Env_{high} more than Env_{low}

We then asked how focused attention affects the tracking of a specific envelope. In block 4 we presented

a mixture of two natural envelope-carrier pairs similar to block 3, but asked participants to attend to

either Env_{low} or Env_{high}. The contrast between the unfocused attention in block 3 (target gap in both

envelopes) and block 4 (focused attention) revealed no effect for Env_{low}, while the MI for Env_{high} was

enhanced by attention over central electrodes in delta2 (Fig. 5, 1 - 4 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=13.13, cohen's

d=0.57) and over posterior electrodes in theta1 and theta2 (2 - 8 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=42.14, cohen's

d=0.68). To understand whether the attentional modulation differed between Env_{low} or Env_{high}, we

directly contrasted the attention effect between these (Fig. 5, Env_{high} - Env_{low}). This revealed that

attention had a larger influence on the tracking of Env_{high} than of Env_{low} over central posterior electrodes

in theta2 (4 - 8 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=11.44, cohen's d=0.63).

Fig. 5. Effect of attention on envelope tracking. Tracking of individual envelopes in conditions where one envelope was actively attended minus conditions in which attention was not focused on a specific envelope. Pictograms on the left indicate which experimental conditions (black filled squares) were contrasted (A indicating the attended signal). Topographies show the electrode-wise t-values for the group-level statistics. Red and white dots mark positive and negative clusters (derived using cluster-based permutation statistics, $p<0.01$). Panels on the right show MI values for individual participants in each cluster (red for positive and blue for negative clusters).

3.6 Tracking of Env_{low} prevails when the acoustic signal becomes intelligible

Combining the data from blocks 1, 2 and 5 we asked how the tracking of one specific band-limited envelope presented among a mixture of multiple natural envelope-carrier pairs is affected when the amount of overall presented spectral detail is increased. For this analysis, we considered from the first two blocks only the natural envelope-carrier pairs, which presented either 1 or 2 natural envelope-carrier pairs simultaneously. From block 5 we analyzed the conditions presenting 3 or 6 simultaneous naturally-matched envelope-carrier pairs.

First, we investigated how the tracking of Env_{low} and Env_{high} scaled with the number of simultaneously presented envelope-carrier pairs (1, 2, 3, or 6 pairs; Fig. 6A). The MI values for Env_{low} generally increased: in delta1 to theta1 over fronto-central electrodes (linear regression ,LinReg, of MI against the number of carriers: 0.5 - 6 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=150.68, cohen's d=0.84). In contrast, MI values for Env_{high} generally decreased in delta2 to theta2 over central and posterior electrodes (1 - 4 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=-342.21, cohen's d=-0.96). To confirm this differential effect, we performed a direct contrast between Env_{low} and Env_{high} for each number of presented bands (Fig. 6B). For the 3-band condition, which was generally unintelligible (Fig. 6B), we found higher MI for Env_{high} in alpha over right central parietal electrodes (8 - 12 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=11.71, cohen's d=0.64) and higher MI for Env_{low} in delta1 and delta2 over fronto-central electrodes (0.5 - 4 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=-154.0, cohen's d=-0.70). For 6 bands, when participants could readily understand the sentences, we found stronger tracking of Env_{low} in a cluster ranging from delta2 to theta1 over fronto-central electrodes (1 - 4 Hz; $p<10^{-3}$, cstat=-380.12, cohen's d=-0.84). Figure 6C directly illustrates this differential tracking of Env_{high} compared to Env_{low}

over fronto-central channels in the 1-6 Hz EEG when an increasing number of envelope-carrier pairs is presented.

Fig. 6. Differential envelope tracking with increased spectral detail. (**A**) Change in envelope tracking across conditions with 1, 2, 3 and 6 concurrently presented envelope-carrier pairs, computed separately for Env_{low} and Env_{high}. Regressing MI values (LinReg) for Env_{low} against the number of presented envelope-carrier pairs revealed stronger tracking with more spectral detail in delta1 to theta1 (1 - 6 Hz), while MI values of Env_{high} decreased in delta2 to theta2 (2 - 8 Hz). (**B**) Contrast of MI values for Env_{high} minus Env_{low} in conditions with 3 and 6 simultaneously presented envelope-carrier pairs. Topographies show the electrode-wise t-values for the group-level statistics (derived using cluster-based permutation statistics, $p<0.01$). Panels on the right show individual data for each cluster (red for positive and blue for negative clusters). (**C**) MI values averaged across fronto-central electrodes (inlay) for Env_{low}, Env_{mid}, and Env_{high}. Error bars indicate s.e.m. across participants.

3.7 Statistical properties of band-limited envelopes

To understand the temporal structure of the band-limited speech envelopes we investigated their statistical regularities (Fig. 7A). First, we compared the similarity (Pearson correlation) between each band-limited envelope and the overall envelope (Fig. 7B). While Env_{low} (0.2 - 0.83 kHz) was strongly correlated with the overall envelope ($R^2=0.89 \pm 0.01$, mean ± s.e.m. across sentences), the similarities between Env_{mid} (0.83 - 2.66 kHz) and Env_{high} (2.66 - 8 kHz) and the overall envelope were much

reduced: a one-way ANOVA revealed a significant effect of band ($F_{(2,114)}=6.57$, $p<10^{-4}$, $\eta^2=0.94$) and

a Tukey-Kramer post hoc comparison revealed all pairwise comparisons as significant (each $p<10^{-4}$).

Second, we investigated the structure of acoustic onsets (Fig. 7A, dots). Focusing on these three spectral

bands we found that Env_{low} featured the highest onset frequency (3.57 ± 0.44 Hz), followed by Env_{mid}

(2.94 ± 0.73 Hz) and Env_{high} (2.46 ± 0.83 Hz; Fig 7B). A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant

difference between bands ($F_{(2,114)}=26.32$, $p<10^{-4}$, $\eta^2=0.32$) and a Tukey-Kramer post hoc comparison

revealed all pairwise comparisons as significant (each $p<0.0065$). We then asked if acoustic onsets are

temporally co-structured between bands. For this, we computed their joint probability across frequency

bands and time-lags, using a division into 12 bands (Fig. 7C). This revealed that onsets in neighboring

bands occur at the same time, but this dependency decreases distinctively with spectral distance:

acoustic onsets in bands higher than about 3kHz were largely independent from onsets in bands below

3 kHz.

Last, we asked whether the acoustic onsets are related to the phonemic content of each envelope. For

this we computed the probability of occurrence of individual phonemes in the original speech material

near the acoustic onsets in band-limited envelopes and divided these occurrences into those 'unique'

and 'common' between bands (Fig. 7D). Acoustic onsets in Env_{high} coincided most with fricatives and

plosives and were largely unique to these. On the contrary, acoustic onsets from Env_{mid} and Env_{low} were

more likely to coincide with vowels, pure vowels and nasals. Together these results show that speech

envelopes derived from distinct frequency ranges are temporally independent and carry partially

complementary information about the occurrence of distinct types of phonemes.

Fig. 7. Acoustic features in band-limited speech-derived envelopes. (**A**) Time course of a broadband (0.2 - 8

kHz) and three band-limited envelopes (boundaries between low, mid and high: 0.2, 0.83, 2.66, 8 kHz) from a

single sentence. For each envelope band we detected acoustic onsets (red dots) as peaks in the rate of change (first derivative). (**B**) Left: Frequency of onsets in each envelope band across sentences (dots). The lowest band exhibits the highest average onset frequency and is most consistent across all sentences, followed by the middle and the high band. Right: Correlation of band-limited envelopes from three frequency ranges with the overall envelope (see Methods for definition). (**C**) Temporal structure of envelope onsets computed for a finer spectral resolution using 12 bands (see Methods for precise frequency ranges). For each band-limited envelope we determined the joint probability of onsets across bands that fell within a 400 ms window (divided into 40 ms bins). Envelopes are referred to in terms of their center frequency with the respective reference envelope being cleared out (gray bars). Inlays show temporal bins with significant likelihoods (red boxes). (**D**) Phoneme probability near acoustic onsets (+/-40ms), divided by envelope and subgroup. Subgroups are defined as 'unique' and 'common' phonemes occurring across frequency bands.

4. Discussion

The representation of speech in the brain is often examined by measuring the alignment of rhythmic brain activity to the acoustic envelope of the signal (Ahissar et al., 2001; Ding et al., 2014; Giraud and Poeppel, 2012; Gross et al., 2013; Kayser et al., 2015; Oganian and Chang, 2019; Teng et al., 2019; Teoh et al., 2019). To quantify this alignment many studies, rely on the overall or broadband acoustic envelope, which describes the amplitude fluctuation of the signal across the full spectral range and which provides a convenient and low-dimensional representation for data analysis. Our results show that this overall envelope combines acoustic signatures that are seemingly encoded by distinct neurophysiological processes giving rise to spatially distinct signatures of acoustic tracking in the human EEG. Because low and high frequency speech-derived envelopes also relate to separate acoustically and phonetically features (Fig. 7), the neural processes encoding these spectrally distinct envelopes likely carry complementary information relevant to acoustic and speech-specific information.

4.1 The overall envelope provides a distorted picture of speech tracking

We probed how synthetic and incomprehensible sounds carrying typical regularities of natural speech-derived envelopes are reflected in low frequency EEG activity. Specifically, we asked whether these are represented in a similar manner as real speech. In large our data show that this is indeed the case: Envelopes were tracked over fronto-central electrodes at EEG frequencies below 8 Hz, consistent with previous studies (Drennan and Lalor, 2019; Etard and Reichenbach, 2019; Kayser et al., 2015; Mai and Wang, 2019; Synigal et al., 2019). However, the envelopes derived from a higher spectral range (defined here as 2.66 - 8 kHz) were reflected in spatially distinct EEG topographies compared to the envelopes from the lower spectral range (i.e. 0.2 - 0.83 kHz), suggesting that spectrally segregated acoustic envelope features are reflected in segregated neurophysiological processes (Fig. 2). Interestingly, the differential tracking of Env_{high} and Env_{low} was not specific to the frequency of the respective carrier noise, indicating that the underlying processes are not selective to the natural spectral match of carrier and speech-like envelope (Fig. 2), at least for the synthetic sounds used here. In how far this interaction between envelopes complies to intelligible speech has still to be investigated. Together with the differential sensitivity of the tracking of Env_{high} and Env_{low} to contextual and attention manipulations (Fig. 3,4), this implies that combining band-limited envelopes into an overall envelope for data analysis provides a distorted picture on the encoding of complex sounds in dynamic brain activity: both in terms of the topographical and spectral distribution of the respective neurophysiological signatures, and in terms of their sensitivity to experimental manipulations. Given that the representation of Env_{low} prevailed for rich and comprehensible sounds (e.g. when presenting 6 bands simultaneously; Fig. 6), and given the high correlation between Env_{low} and the overall envelope (Fig. 7), we posit that studies focusing on the overall speech envelope mostly capture the tracking of the speech envelope from

the lower spectrum. Yet, when the acoustic signal is impoverished this could confound distinct
neurophysiological processes.

4.2 Differential encoding of low and high frequency-derived envelopes

Our data show that the envelopes obtained from low and high frequency ranges are reflected
differentially in the 1 - 6 Hz EEG. The tracking of naturalistic sounds in dynamic brain activity has
been frequently related to the neural encoding of acoustic onsets, in particular as acoustic transients
drive individual neurons and induce an alignment of rhythmic brain activity to the acoustic signal
(Daube et al., 2019; Drennan and Lalor, 2019; Khalighinejad et al., 2017; Oganian and Chang, 2019).
Such transients are not exclusive to natural speech but are similarly present in band-limited noises. Our
results demonstrate that the neurophysiological process reflecting such band-limited envelopes are
largely similar, or even the same, as those engaged by real speech. Hence, the typical tracking signatures
investigated in studies using speech as a stimulus are not exclusive to ecologically meaningful stimuli.
At the same time, our data also suggest that the preferential tracking of the low frequency envelope for
(near) intelligible speech may be functionally meaningful. The analysis of the acoustic speech material
showed that low and high frequency envelopes can reflect independent acoustic landmarks which relate,
in part, to the unique signaling of the occurrence of specific phoneme groups. The low frequency
envelope in real speech carries more energy (Peelle et al., 2013), and lowpass filtered speech has been
shown to be sufficient for comprehension (Elliott and Theunissen, 2009). Prominent acoustic landmarks
in the low frequency envelope relate to the occurrence of a large group of phonemes, and hence the
prominent tracking of the low frequency envelope may reflect an adaptation to the typically most robust
aspect of ecologically relevant sounds such as speech.

Several previous studies have exploited narrow-band speech envelopes to study the relation between
stimulus and brain activity, for example by exploiting this detailed acoustic information to boost the
performance of forward models predicting the neural response from multiple stimulus dimensions
(Daube et al., 2019; Di Liberto et al., 2015; Ding and Simon, 2012). For example, models based on
spectrally refined envelope signatures (i.e. the stimulus spectrogram) outperformed phoneme-based
models for high frequency EEG bands such as alpha, whereas the phoneme-based models yielded higher
prediction accuracies for delta and theta band EEG signals (Di Liberto et al., 2015). Related studies also
showed that low and high-frequency derived envelopes are seemingly reflected with distinct latencies
in the EEG or differentially affected by attention (Brodbeck et al., 2019; Di Liberto et al., 2015).
However, these previous studies did not directly quantify or contrast such spectrally-limited effects, but
merely indicated that distinct acoustic features are possibly represented by separate neural processes.
The present work directly addresses these questions and provides a systematic and quantitative
assessment how narrow band speech-derived envelopes are reflected in dynamic brain activity.

4.3 The neurophysiological processes underlying envelope tracking

Our results corroborate the notion that the tracking of acoustic envelopes in delta and theta band brain signals represent functionally distinct processes. Delta-band tracking (below 4 Hz) has been shown to covary with experimental manipulations affecting intelligibility (Ding et al., 2016; Zion Golumbic et al., 2013; Zoefel et al., 2018) and has been related to temporally extended supra-syllabic features (Keitel et al., 2018; Mai and Wang, 2019). Nevertheless, it is still debated whether delta tracking is causally related to comprehension. While some studies advocate for such a role (Etard and Reichenbach, 2019; Peelle et al., 2013; Wilsch et al., 2018; Zoefel et al., 2018), experiments using pop-out stimuli did not find a clear relation (Baltzell et al., 2017; Millman et al., 2015) and a manipulation of speech rhythm resulted in reduced delta tracking while preserving intelligibility (Kayser et al., 2015). In the present data tracking of Env_{low} in the 1 - 4 Hz EEG increased monotonically with acoustic detail rather than correlating with comprehension performance, comparable to recent findings that demonstrate increasing envelope representation with the number of envelope bands (Prinsloo and Lalor, 2020). One possibility is that delta band tracking reflects processes that screen sounds for speech-like regularities, such as lexical structures or prosody, to which early stage spectro-temporal filters could be flexibly tuned to (Brodbeck et al., 2019; Khalighinejad et al., 2019; Schönwiesner and Zatorre, 2009). These processes then facilitate neural encoding prior to comprehension (Giraud and Poeppel, 2012; Keitel et al., 2018; Schroeder and Lakatos, 2009; Scott, 2019).

Theta band tracking has been linked to the bottom up processing of the acoustic input, in particular of syllabic and sub-syllabic features (Ding et al., 2014; Ding and Simon, 2013; Etard and Reichenbach, 2019; Keitel et al., 2018; Mai and Wang, 2019; Peelle et al., 2013; Rimmele et al., 2015; Scott, 2019). In contrast to some previous studies (Ding et al., 2014; Peelle et al., 2013; Rimmele et al., 2015), in the present data tracking in theta (4 - 8 Hz) and alpha bands (8 - 12 Hz) did not increase with detail. Based on a similar observation a recent study argued that stronger theta tracking of impoverished sounds may reflect effects of attention induced by increased listening effort (Hauswald et al., 2019). However, the apparent discrepancies between studies may also arise from the distinct approaches used to study speech tracking: while some studies used encoding or reconstruction methods (Daube et al., 2019; Hausfeld et al., 2018; Zion Golumbic et al., 2013), others quantified the temporal alignment of speech envelope and brain activity (Hauswald et al., 2019; Peelle et al., 2013), and yet others quantified the between-trial alignment of brain activity (Ding et al., 2014; Rimmele et al., 2015). Furthermore, for vocoded speech or speech-in-noise some studies considered the envelope of the original speech (Ding and Simon, 2013; Peelle et al., 2013) while others used the envelope of the actually presented sound (Hauswald et al., 2019; Millman et al., 2015), possibly contributing to discrepancies in previous work. In the present study, we quantified tracking of the same band-limited envelopes across conditions. With this approach theta band tracking did not exhibit a systematic in- or decrease with the number of simultaneous envelopes presented, but tracking of Env_{high} was significantly reduced, further endorsing the evidence that theta tracking is sensitive to attentional and contextual manipulations (Hauswald et al., 2019).

However, a careful assessment of how different methodological approaches to quantify speech tracking affect the specific results would certainly be helpful to resolve some controversies in the previous literature.

Where are the neurophysiological processes giving rise to these tracking signatures located? Early auditory regions entrain to acoustic regularities (Ding and Simon, 2014; Lakatos et al., 2019; Meyer, 2018; Obleser and Kayser, 2019) but do so spatially specific along the tonotopic axis (Lakatos et al., 2013; O'connell et al., 2014). If these regions gave rise to the observed tracking signatures, one should expect a sensitivity of these to the match between the carrier frequency and the spectral range at which the envelope is extracted. However, we found no evidence for this in the delta and theta bands typically associated with acoustic envelope tracking, suggesting that these differential tracking signatures between low and high frequency envelopes arise from higher superior temporal regions that encode temporal and spectral information largely independently (Sohoglu et al., 2020). Indeed, previous neuroimaging studies and direct intracranial recordings showed that delta and theta tracking prevails in large parts of the temporal lobe, but most clearly establish intracortical signals of speech entrainment along superior temporal regions (Gross et al., 2013; Hamilton et al., 2020; Keitel et al., 2018; Mégevand et al., 2020; Moses et al., 2019; Peelle and Davis, 2012; Yi et al., 2019). Further work is required to directly determine where in the brain low and high frequency speech envelopes are reflected as well as where and when the underlying neural representations give rise to the differential pattern of envelope sensitivity observed here.

5. Conclusion

Low and high frequency speech envelopes provide largely independent information about acoustic and phonemic features. Our results show that these envelopes are reflected in spatially and functionally distinct processes in the delta and theta band EEG. These processes are easily confounded when considering the broadband speech envelope for data analysis, but may offer independent windows on the neurobiology of speech.

Conflicts of interest

We declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgement

Funding: CK was supported by the European Research Council (ERC-2014-CoG; grant 618 No 646657).

References

Ahissar, E., Nagarajan, S., Ahissar, M., Protopapas, A., Mahncke, H., Merzenich, M.M., 2001. Speech comprehension is correlated with temporal response patterns recorded from auditory cortex. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 98, 13367–13372. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.201400998

Aiken, S.J., Picton, T.W., 2008. Human cortical responses to the speech envelope. Ear Hear. 29, 139–157. https://doi.org/10.1097/AUD.0b013e31816453dc

Baltzell, L.S., Srinivasan, R., Richards, V.M., 2017. The effect of prior knowledge and intelligibility on the cortical entrainment response to speech. J. Neurophysiol. 118, 3144–3151. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00023.2017

Boersma, P., van Heuven, V., 2001. PRAAT, a system for doing phonetics by computer. Glot Int. 5, 341–347.

Brodbeck, C., Jiao, A., Hong, L.E., Simon, J., 2019. Neural speech restoration at the cocktail party: Auditory cortex recovers masked speech of both attended and ignored speakers 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1101/866749

Cusack, R., Deeks, J., Aikman, G., Carlyon, R.P., 2004. Effects of location, frequency region, and time course of selective attention on auditory scene analysis. J. Exp. Psychol. Hum. Percept. Perform. 30, 643–656. https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-1523.30.4.643

Daube, C., Ince, R.A.A., Gross, J., 2019. Simple Acoustic Features Can Explain Phoneme-Based Predictions of Cortical Responses to Speech. Curr. Biol. 29, 1924-1937.e9. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CUB.2019.04.067

Demeester, K., Topsakal, V., Hendrickx, J.J., Fransen, E., Van Laer, L., Van Camp, G., Van De Heyning, P., Van Wieringen, A., 2012. Hearing disability measured by the speech, spatial, and qualities of hearing scale in clinically normal-hearing and hearing-impaired middle-aged persons, and disability screening by means of a reduced SSQ (the SSQ5). Ear Hear. 33, 615–626. https://doi.org/10.1097/AUD.0b013e31824e0ba7

Di Liberto, G.M., O'Sullivan, J.A., Lalor, E.C., 2015. Low-frequency cortical entrainment to speech reflects phoneme-level processing. Curr. Biol. 25, 2457–2465. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2015.08.030

Ding, N., Chatterjee, M., Simon, J.Z., 2014. Robust cortical entrainment to the speech envelope relies on the spectro-temporal fine structure. Neuroimage 88, 41–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.10.054

Ding, N., Melloni, L., Zhang, H., Tian, X., Poeppel, D., 2016. Cortical tracking of hierarchical

linguistic structures in connected speech. Nat. Neurosci. 19, 158–64.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nn.4186

Ding, N., Simon, J.Z., 2014. Cortical entrainment to continuous speech: functional roles and

interpretations. Front. Hum. Neurosci. 8, 311. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2014.00311

Ding, N., Simon, J.Z., 2013. Adaptive temporal encoding leads to a background-insensitive cortical

representation of speech. J. Neurosci. 33, 5728–35. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5297-

12.2013

Ding, N., Simon, J.Z., 2012. Emergence of neural encoding of auditory objects while listening to

competing speakers. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 109, 11854–11859.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1205381109

Doelling, K.B., Arnal, L.H., Ghitza, O., Poeppel, D., 2014. Acoustic landmarks drive delta-theta

oscillations to enable speech comprehension by facilitating perceptual parsing. Neuroimage 85,

761–768. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.06.035

Drennan, D.P., Lalor, E.C., 2019. Cortical tracking of complex sound envelopes: modeling the

changes in response with intensity. eNeuro ENEURO.0082-19.2019.

https://doi.org/10.1523/ENEURO.0082-19.2019

Elliott, T.M., Theunissen, F.E., 2009. The Modulation Transfer Function for Speech Intelligibility.

PLoS Comput. Biol. 5, e1000302. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000302

Erb, J., Kreitewolf, J., Pinheiro, A.P., Obleser, J., 2020. Aberrant perceptual judgements on speech-

relevant acoustic features in hallucination-prone individuals 1–25.

Etard, O., Reichenbach, T., 2019. Neural Speech Tracking in the Theta and in the Delta Frequency

Band Differentially Encode Clarity and Comprehension of Speech in Noise. J. Neurosci. 39,

5750–5759. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1828-18.2019

Giordano, B.L., Ince, R.A.A., Gross, J., Schyns, P.G., Panzeri, S., Kayser, C., 2017. Contributions of

local speech encoding and functional connectivity to audio-visual speech perception. Elife 6.

https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.24763

Giraud, A.-L., Poeppel, D., 2012. Cortical oscillations and speech processing: emerging

computational principles and operations. Nat. Neurosci. 15, 511–7.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nn.3063

Gross, J., Hoogenboom, N., Thut, G., Schyns, P., Panzeri, S., Belin, P., Garrod, S., 2013. Speech

Rhythms and Multiplexed Oscillatory Sensory Coding in the Human Brain. PLoS Biol. 11,

e1001752. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1001752

Hamilton, L.S., Oganian, Y., Chang, E.F., 2020. Topography of speech-related acoustic and

phonological feature encoding throughout the human core and parabelt auditory cortex. bioRxiv

2020.06.08.121624. https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.06.08.121624

Hausfeld, L., Riecke, L., Valente, G., Formisano, E., 2018. Cortical tracking of multiple streams

outside the focus of attention in naturalistic auditory scenes. Neuroimage 181, 617–626.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.07.052

Hauswald, A., Keitel, A., Rösch, S., Weisz, N., Hauswaldsbgacat, A., 2019. Degraded auditory and

visual speech affects theta synchronization and alpha power differently. Biorxiv 0–25.

Ince, R.A.A., Giordano, B.L., Kayser, C., Rousselet, G.A., Gross, J., Schyns, P.G., 2017. A statistical

framework for neuroimaging data analysis based on mutual information estimated via a gaussian

copula. Hum. Brain Mapp. 38, 1541–1573. https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.23471

Kayser, S.J., Ince, R.A.A., Gross, J., Kayser, C., 2015. Irregular Speech Rate Dissociates Auditory

Cortical Entrainment, Evoked Responses, and Frontal Alpha. J. Neurosci. 35, 14691–701.

https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2243-15.2015

Kayser, S.J., McNair, S.W., Kayser, C., 2016. Prestimulus influences on auditory perception from

sensory representations and decision processes. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 113, 4842–4847.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1524087113

Keitel, A., Gross, J., Kayser, C., 2018. Perceptually relevant speech tracking in auditory and motor

cortex reflects distinct linguistic features. PLoS Biol. 16, e2004473.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2004473

Keitel, A., Ince, R.A.A., Gross, J., Kayser, C., 2017. Auditory cortical delta-entrainment interacts

with oscillatory power in multiple fronto-parietal networks. Neuroimage 147, 32–42.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2016.11.062

Kerlin, J.R., Shahin, A.J., Miller, L.M., 2010. Attentional gain control of ongoing cortical speech

representations in a "cocktail party." J. Neurosci. 30, 620–628.

https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3631-09.2010

Khalighinejad, B., da Silva, G.C., Mesgarani, N., 2017. Dynamic encoding of acoustic features in

neural responses to continuous speech. J. Neurosci. 37, 2176–2185.

https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2383-16.2017

Khalighinejad, B., Herrero, J.L., Mehta, A.D., Mesgarani, N., 2019. Adaptation of the human auditory

cortex to changing background noise. Nat. Commun. 10, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-

019-10611-4

Kisler, T., Reichel, U., Schiel, F., 2017. Multilingual processing of speech via web services. Comput.

Speech Lang. 45, 326–347. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csl.2017.01.005

Lakatos, P., Gross, J., Thut, G., 2019. A new unifying account of the roles of neuronal entrainment.

Curr. Biol. 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2019.07.075

Lakatos, P., Karmos, G., Mehta, A.D., Ulbert, I., Schroeder, C.E., 2008. Entrainment of neuronal

oscillations as a mechanism of attentional selection. Science 320, 110–3.

https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1154735

Lakatos, P., Musacchia, G., O'Connel, M.N., Falchier, A.Y., Javitt, D.C., Schroeder, C.E., 2013. The

Spectrotemporal Filter Mechanism of Auditory Selective Attention. Neuron 77, 750–761.

761    https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2012.11.034

762 Mai, G., Wang, W.S.-Y., 2019. Delta and theta neural entrainment during phonological and semantic

763    processing in speech perception. bioRxiv 556837. https://doi.org/10.1101/556837

764 Maris, E., Oostenveld, R., 2007. Nonparametric statistical testing of EEG- and MEG-data. J.

765    Neurosci. Methods 164, 177–190. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2007.03.024

766 McNair, S.W., Kayser, S.J., Kayser, C., 2019. Consistent pre-stimulus influences on auditory

767    perception across the lifespan. Neuroimage 186, 22–32.

768    https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2018.10.085

769 Mégevand, P., Mercier, M.R., Groppe, D.M., Golumbic, E.Z., Mesgarani, N., Beauchamp, M.S.,

770    Schroeder, C.E., Mehta, A.D., 2020. Phase resetting in human auditory cortex to visual speech.

771    bioRxiv 405597. https://doi.org/10.1101/405597

772 Mesgarani, N., Chang, E.F., 2012. Selective cortical representation of attended speaker in multi-talker

773    speech perception. Nature. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11020

774 Meyer, L., 2018. The neural oscillations of speech processing and language comprehension: state of

775    the art and emerging mechanisms. Eur. J. Neurosci. 48, 2609–2621.

776    https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.13748

777 Millman, R.E., Johnson, S.R., Prendergast, G., 2015. The role of phase-locking to the temporal

778    envelope of speech in auditory perception and speech intelligibility. J. Cogn. Neurosci. 27.

779    https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn_a_00719

780 Molinaro, N., Lizarazu, M., 2018. Delta(but not theta)-band cortical entrainment involves speech-

781    specific processing. Eur. J. Neurosci. 48, 2642–2650. https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.13811

782 Monson, B.B., Hunter, E.J., Lotto, A.J., Story, B.H., 2014. The perceptual significance of high-

783    frequency energy in the human voice. Front. Psychol. 5.

784    https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2014.00587

785 Moses, D.A., Leonard, M.K., Makin, J.G., Chang, E.F., 2019. Real-time decoding of question-and-

786    answer speech dialogue using human cortical activity. Nat. Commun. 10.

787    https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-10994-4

788 Nourski, K. V., Reale, R.A., Oya, H., Kawasaki, H., Kovach, C.K., Chen, H., Howard, M.A., Brugge,

789    J.F., 2009. Temporal envelope of time-compressed speech represented in the human auditory

790    cortex. J. Neurosci. 29, 15564–15574. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3065-09.2009

791 O'connell, M.N., Barczak, A., Schroeder, C.E., Lakatos, P., 2014. Layer specific sharpening of

792    frequency tuning by selective attention in primary auditory cortex. J. Neurosci. 34, 16496–

793    16508. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2055-14.2014

794 O'Sullivan, J., Herrero, J., Smith, E., Schevon, C., McKhann, G.M., Sheth, S.A., Mehta, A.D.,

795    Mesgarani, N., 2019. Hierarchical Encoding of Attended Auditory Objects in Multi-talker

796    Speech Perception. Neuron. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2019.09.007

797 Obleser, J., Kayser, C., 2019. Neural Entrainment and Attentional Selection in the Listening Brain.

Trends Cogn. Sci. 23, 913–926. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2019.08.004

Oganian, Y., Chang, E.F., 2019. A speech envelope landmark for syllable encoding in human superior

temporal gyrus. Sci. Adv. 5, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aay6279

Oostenveld, R., Fries, P., Maris, E., Schoffelen, J.-M., 2011. FieldTrip: Open source software for

advanced analysis of MEG, EEG, and invasive electrophysiological data. Comput. Intell.

Neurosci. 2011, 156869. https://doi.org/10.1155/2011/156869

Park, H., Kayser, C., Thut, G., Gross, J., 2016. Lip movements entrain the observers' low-frequency

brain oscillations to facilitate speech intelligibility. Elife 5. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.14521

Peelle, J.E., Davis, M.H., 2012. Neural oscillations carry speech rhythm through to comprehension.

Front. Psychol. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2012.00320

Peelle, J.E., Gross, J., Davis, M.H., 2013. Phase-locked responses to speech in human auditory cortex

are enhanced during comprehension. Cereb. Cortex 23, 1378–1387.

https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhs118

Poeppel, D., Assaneo, M.F., 2020. Speech rhythms and their neural foundations. Nat. Rev. Neurosci.

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41583-020-0304-4

Prinsloo, K.D., Lalor, E.C., 2020. General auditory and speech-specific contributions to cortical

envelope tracking revealed using auditory chimeras.

Rimmele, J.M., Zion Golumbic, E., Schröger, E., Poeppel, D., 2015. The effects of selective attention

and speech acoustics on neural speech-tracking in a multi-talker scene. Cortex 68.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2014.12.014

Schönwiesner, M., Zatorre, R.J., 2009. Spectro-temporal modulation transfer function of single voxels

in the human auditory cortex measured with high-resolution fMRI. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S.

A. 106, 14611–14616. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0907682106

Schroeder, C.E., Lakatos, P., 2009. Low-frequency neuronal oscillations as instruments of sensory

selection. Trends Neurosci. 32, 9–18. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tins.2008.09.012

Scott, S.K., 2019. From speech and talkers to the social world: The neural processing of human

spoken language. Science (80-.). https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aax0288

Sohoglu, E., Kumar, S., Chait, M., Griffiths, T.D., 2020. Multivoxel codes for representing and

integrating acoustic features in human cortex. Neuroimage 116661.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2020.116661

Synigal, S.R., Teoh, E.S., Lalor, E.C., 2019. Including measures of high gamma power can improve

the decoding of natural speech from EEG.

Teng, X., Cogan, G.B., Poeppel, D., 2019. Speech fine structure contains critical temporal cues to

support speech segmentation. Neuroimage 202, 116152.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2019.116152

Teoh, E.S., Cappelloni, M.S., Lalor, E.C., 2019. Prosodic pitch processing is represented in delta-

band EEG and is dissociable from the cortical tracking of other acoustic and phonetic features.

Eur. J. Neurosci. 50, 3831–3842. https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.14510

Teoh, E.S., Lalor, E.C., 2020. Attention differentially affects acoustic and phonetic feature encoding

in a multispeaker environment. bioRxiv 2020.06.08.141234.

https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.06.08.141234

Wilsch, A., Neuling, T., Obleser, J., Herrmann, C.S., 2018. Transcranial alternating current

stimulation with speech envelopes modulates speech comprehension. Neuroimage 172, 766–

774. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.01.038

Yi, H.G., Leonard, M.K., Chang, E.F., 2019. The Encoding of Speech Sounds in the Superior

Temporal Gyrus. Neuron. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2019.04.023

Zion Golumbic, E.M., Ding, N., Bickel, S., Lakatos, P., Schevon, C.A., McKhann, G.M., Goodman,

R.R., Emerson, R., Mehta, A.D., Simon, J.Z., Poeppel, D., Schroeder, C.E., 2013. Mechanisms

underlying selective neuronal tracking of attended speech at a "cocktail party". Neuron 77, 980–

91. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2012.12.037

Zoefel, B., Archer-Boyd, A., Davis, M.H., 2018. Phase Entrainment of Brain Oscillations Causally

Modulates Neural Responses to Intelligible Speech. Curr. Biol. 28, 401-408.e5.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.11.071