Title

Cochlear theta activity oscillates in phase opposition during interaural attention

Abbreviated title

Phase opposition of the cochlea's theta rhythm

Authors

Moritz Herbert Albrecht Köhler[1,2] and Nathan Weisz[1,2,3]

[1]Centre for Cognitive Neuroscience, University of Salzburg, Hellbrunner Straße 34, 5020, Salzburg, Austria

[2]Department of Psychology, University of Salzburg, Hellbrunner Straße 34, 5020, Salzburg, Austria

[3]Neuroscience Institute, Christian Doppler University Hospital, Paracelsus Medical University, 5020 Salzburg, Austria

Corresponding author

moritzherbertalbrecht.koehler@plus.ac.at (MHA.K.)

Acknowledgments

We thank Konstantin Kölle for his help with the measurements and Daniel Walker for proofreading the manuscript. Moreover, we thank the Austrian Academy of Sciences for the funding of this study.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Abstract

It is widely established that sensory perception is a rhythmic process as opposed to a continuous one. In the context of auditory perception this effect is only established on a cortical and behavioral level. Yet, the unique architecture of the auditory sensory system allows its primary sensory cortex to modulate the processes of its sensory receptors at the cochlear level. Previously, we could demonstrate the existence of a genuine cochlear theta (~6 Hz) rhythm that is modulated in amplitude by intermodal selective attention. As the study's paradigm was not suited to assess attentional effects on the oscillatory phase of cochlear activity the question whether attention can also affect the temporal organization of the cochlea's ongoing activity remained open. The present study utilizes an interaural attention paradigm to investigate ongoing otoacoustic activity during a stimulus-free cue-target interval and an omission period of the auditory target. We were able to replicate the existence of the cochlear theta rhythm. Importantly, we found significant phase opposition between the two ears and attention conditions of anticipatory as well as cochlear oscillatory activity during target presentation. Yet, the amplitude was unaffected by interaural attention. These results are the first to demonstrate that intermodal and interaural attention deploy different aspects of excitation and inhibition at the first level of auditory processing. While intermodal attention modulates the level of cochlear activity, interaural attention modulates the timing.

Keywords: interaural attention, cochlea, otoacoustic, theta, phase, oscillation, phase opposition sum

Introduction

A large body of literature states that sensory perception is a rhythmic process

rather than a continuous one. This is largely based on studies of brain rhythms that

reflect the synchronized modulations of excitability of large ensembles of neurons

(Kayser et al., 2015; Lakatos et al., 2005; Romei et al., 2008). Further evidence can be

found on a behavioral level, in domains such as object exploration (Wöstmann et al.,

2016; Wyart et al., 2012) or attentional modulations of perception (Busch & VanRullen,

2010; Fiebelkorn et al., 2013). Frequencies in the range of the cortical theta-band (~3-8

Hz) have also come into focus as being temporal organizers of perception.

Influential frameworks established on research in the visual modality suggest

that an attention network operating in the theta frequency range assists in the

temporal organization of neural activity associated with perception and action

(Fiebelkorn & Kastner, 2019; Landau & Fries, 2012). Hence, large-scale theta rhythms

possibly aid in preventing conflicts between sensory and motor functions. Beside

modulations in power and frequency, according to these frameworks, the phase of

theta rhythms putatively plays an essential role for how attentional sampling is

deployed. For example, Fiebelkorn & Kastner (2019) proposed the existence of two

alternating states that coordinate sensory and motor processes via phase opposition.

That is, the phase of the theta rhythm encourages either sampling of a relevant feature

(such as location) or shifting to another.

On a general level, attentional rhythms should also exist in other sensory

modalities (e.g., the auditory modality) to similarly help in the coordination of

perception and action. Mounting evidence suggests a key role of theta also for

auditory perception at various levels of complexity (e.g. for simple target detection (Ng

et al., 2012); speech perception (Poeppel & Assaneo, 2020); auditory scene exploration

(Kayser, 2019)). Albeit early studies failed to provide evidence for the existence of theta-

rhythmic oscillations in auditory attention (İlhan & VanRullen, 2012; Zoefel & Heil,

2013), numerous recent findings from both cortical and behavioral data speak for their

existence (Ho et al., 2017, 2019; Kayser, 2019; Kubetschek & Kayser, 2021; Ng et al.,

2012; Plöchl et al., 2021). Interestingly, in bilateral pitch-identification tasks behavioral

performance theta-rhythmically oscillates in antiphase between the two ears (Ho et al.,

2017; Plöchl et al., 2021). These findings hint to the existence of a similar theta-

dependent mechanism in auditory attention as proposed for visual attention.

The interpretations of the evidence for rhythmic perception in the auditory

modality are largely cortico-centric. Yet, the auditory system is unique with respect to

other modalities in that its neuronal architecture allows its primary sensory cortex to

modulate the activity of its sensory receptors at the cochlear level. Indeed, mainly by

measuring otoacoustic emissions (Dragicevic et al., 2019; Giard et al., 1994; Marcenaro

et al., 2021; Wittekindt et al., 2014), it has been established that attention affects

cochlear properties. Other approaches such as cochlear microphonics (Delano et al.,

2007) or direct measurement of hearing nerve activity (Gehmacher et al., 2022) support

this notion, which can normally only be collected in very rare circumstances in humans

(e.g., individuals with cochlear implants). Despite its easy applicability, otoacoustic

emissions (OAE) are restricted to sound-evoked responses, which are likely affected by

confounding medial olivocochlear (MOC) activity (Guinan et al., 2003). Thus, they only

provide an extremely limited view of (top-down) oscillatory dynamics at the cochlear

level.

In a previous study we introduced the measurement of ongoing otoacoustic

activity (OOA) during silent cue-target intervals (Köhler et al., 2021). The measurement

of OOA offers various advantages over OAEs that include the prevention of unwanted

MOC activity, the possibility to analyze ongoing temporal patterns of cochlear acoustic

activity, and the implementation of attention paradigms that stay very close to the

cortical literature. From this, we could demonstrate the existence of a genuine cochlear

theta (~6 Hz) rhythm that is modulated in amplitude but not frequency nor phase by

intermodal selective attention (Köhler et al., 2021). However, the study's paradigm was

not suited to assess possible attentional effects on the oscillatory phase of OOA.

The current study aims to shed more light on the properties of the oscillatory

activity at the most peripheral stage of the auditory system. Thus far, we could

demonstrate that attention modulates the overall level of cochlear activity (Köhler et

al., 2021). Whether and how cochlear activity is temporally orchestrated (e.g. expressed

by oscillatory phase modulations) still remains unknown. Staying close to our previous

study, we implemented an interaural attention paradigm,which aimed to assess

attentional phase effects on the cochlear level.

Replicating the findings from our previous study we found a dominant theta

rhythmicity of cochlear activity. By contrast to intermodal attention (Köhler et al.,

2021), interaural attention modulates the phase of OOA. Our novel results

demonstrate that attentional processes can impact the timing of cochlear activity.

Interestingly, this phase opposition is present during anticipation of a target as well as

its presentation.

Materials & Methods

Participants

31 healthy volunteers (21 females, age range: 18-41 years) participated in this

study. After finishing the experiment, one participant reported that she was not

motivated and tried to finish the experiment as fast as possible. As a result, this

participant was excluded from analyses. None of the subjects reported any known

hearing deficit and any visual impairment was sufficiently corrected. Moreover, all

subjects were instructed to not take any ototoxic drugs and expose themselves to any

loud noise 24 hours before their participation in the experiment. Subjects were

informed about the experimental procedure and the purpose of the study and gave

written informed consent. As compensation, subjects received either 10 euro per hour

or credit for their psychology studies. This study was approved by the Ethics

Committee at the University of Salzburg.

Stimuli and Procedure

The study's focus was to investigate interaural attention processes at the level of

the cochlea during a silent cue-target interval. Previously, numerous studies used a

block design to investigate attentional modulations of OAEs and were criticized for not

achieving highly controlled attentional conditions (Carrasco et al., 2004; Köhler et al.,

2021; Ward, 1997; Wittekindt et al., 2014). Therefore, we implemented a trial-wise

cueing paradigm.

133
Figure 1. Schematic illustration of the task. Each trial started with a cue (100%
informative) instructing participants to shift their attention to their left or right ear. A
silent cue-target interval, in which participants focused their attention, followed.
Thereafter the target was presented. The target consisted of a click train (24 Hz
presentation rate) that was presented bilaterally while in 80% of the trials there was an
omission of three clicks in one ear. The onset of the omission periods was jittered
between the 3rd and 10th click of 14 clicks in total. Subsequently, participants indicated
by a button press on the keyboard if the omission period occurred in the to-be-
attended ear. The inter-trial interval was jittered uniformly between 1 and 2 s.

Measurements took place in an EEG-recording room, in which subjects sat alone

and quietly in front of a PC screen (screen ratio: 16:9; width: ca. 56 degrees of visual

angle; refresh rate: 120 Hz). Participants performed five blocks consisting of 100 trials

each and six experimental conditions in total. The experimental conditions were

defined by (1) the presented cue and (2) the congruency of the target. In the present

study only two conditions are of relevance. **Figure 1** schematically illustrates the

course of each trial. Each trial started with a visually presented cue (1 s duration)

instructing the participants to shift their attention to their left and right ear (below

referred to as Attend Left & Attend Right conditions), respectively. The direction, to

which the presented arrow pointed, specified the to-be-attended ear. After cue

presentation a fixation cross was shown for 2 s. During this silent cue-target interval

subjects had to actively shift their attention to the indicated ear. By design the cue was

100% informative. This ensured that any effects of divided attention were avoided and

subjects' focus was completely placed on the cued ear (Köhler et al., 2021; Wittekindt et

al., 2014). The target stimulus was in all conditions a bilaterally presented click-train

(duration: 500 ms; click-frequency: 24 Hz; loudness: 64 dB SPL) consisting of 14 clicks of

80 μs each. In 80 trials of each block there was an omission of three clicks in either the

left or right ear. The occurrence of the omissions was counterbalanced across both

ears resulting in 40 trials with an omission in the left ear and 40 trials in the right ear.

Moreover, the beginning of the omissions was pseudorandomly jittered between the

fourth and tenth click. The task was to identify if there was an omission in the to-be-

attended ear. Next, a response screen, indicated by a centrally placed question mark,

was shown for 2 s. Participants were instructed to respond as fast and correctly as

possible by pressing the corresponding key of the keyboard ("N" & "M") with their index

and middle finger of one hand, respectively. The used hand was counterbalanced

across all subjects. The inter-trial interval was jittered uniformly between 1 and 2 s.

Experimental stimulation was implemented by use of the Psychophysics Toolbox

Version 3 (Brainard, 1997) and the Objective Psychophysics Toolbox (Hartmann &

Weisz, 2020), which provides an intuitive, unified, and clear interface on top of the

Psychophysics Toolbox, using custom-written MATLAB scripts (Version 9.8; The

MathWorks, Natick, Massachusetts, USA).

Apparatus

For every subject OOA was measured by a probe consisting of a sensitive

microphone and two loudspeakers (ER-10C microphone/preamplifier system, Etymotic

Research, Elk Grove Village, Illinois, USA). After cleaning each ear canal from excessive

cerumen a probe was fitted with a foam ear tip that sealed the ear canal. OOA was

recorded from both ears concurrently without preamplification. The microphone signal

was fed into a g.USBamp Research (g.tec medical engineering GmbH, Schiedlberg,

Austria) with a sampling rate of 38.4 kHz. The two ER-10C received their input via a 3.5

mm audio jack to BNC cable coming from a sound preamplifier (SLA-35 stereo

matching amplifier, Monacor International, Bremen, Germany), which again received

its input from a computer sound card (Realtek Semiconductors Corp., Hsinchu, Taiwan).

Event triggering was performed by a U3-LV (LabJack Corporation, Lakewood, Colorado,

USA).

Signal Processing

We preprocessed the raw data with the open-source FieldTrip toolbox for M/EEG

data (Oostenveld et al., 2011) and custom-written MATLAB scripts (Version 9.8; The

MathWorks, Natick, Massachusetts, USA). The preprocessing steps for the data from

the cue-target intervals, the omission periods, and 250 ms interval after the click train

will be separately described in the following two paragraphs.

First, we high-pass filtered the signal from the cue-target intervals at 500 Hz

(kaiser-windowed sinc FIR filter, onepass-zerophase, order: 1114, transition width: 125

Hz). Next, we split the filtered data into trials with a length of 4.7 s. We identified bad

trials by Hilbert-transforming and z-scoring the signal in the cue-target interval. We

excluded a trial from further analyses of the cue-target interval if the proportion of

samples that exceeded a z-score of 8 was above 1%. On average we excluded 40.8

trials (*SD* = 29.83) per subject. In a next step we split the data into trials where subjects

were cued to the left or right ear and Hilbert-transformed it by applying a bandpass

filter between 1500 and 2000 Hz (kaiser-windowed sinc FIR filter, onepass-zerophase,

order: 372, transition width: 375 Hz).

Initially, we applied the same high-pass filter as for the signal from the cue-

target interval for the signal from the omission periods. After filtering the data we split

it into 125 ms trials. We shortened the originally calculated trial length of 162.4 ms (4 x

40 ms gaps between clicks + 3 x 80 µs clicks) by 37.4 ms to compensate for trigger

inaccuracies and ringing of the click tones. Next, we Hilbert-transformed the trials the

same way as the trials of the cue-target interval. Finally, we separately averaged the

trials where subjects were cued to the left or right ear.

Again, we applied the same high-pass filter as for the signal from the cue-target

interval for the signal after the click train. Following this, we epoched the data into 250

ms trials beginning 25 ms after the end of the click train. After Hilbert-transforming the

trials we averaged them.

By means of the Hilbert transform the envelope of the OOA is extracted. The

envelope represents the amplitude modulation of cochlear activity (Dragicevic et al.,

2019; Köhler et al., 2021). Moreover, the frequency range of the envelope, that is

commonly used in electrophysiological evaluations of cognitive tasks, facilitates

relations to the cortical literature.

Induced Power Analysis

We conducted induced power analysis only for the data from the cue-target

interval. To calculate induced power spectral density (PSD) we zero-padded the

envelope signal from the 2 s cue-target interval to a length of 3.4133 s. Next, we

calculated a fast fourier transform with multiple tapers ("mtmfft" FieldTrip

implementation) from discrete prolate spheroidal sequences (dpss) including a

frequency range of 1 - 45 Hz with a bin size of 0.5 Hz and a frequency smoothing of 1

Hz. As a result we obtained four PSDs - from both ears and the two experimental

conditions (Attend Left & Attend Right) - per subject.

In a next analysis step we parameterized the individual PSDs of the OOA

envelope by the usage of the FOOOF-toolbox (Donoghue et al., 2020) in Python

(Version 3.8.1). The advantage of FOOOF is that it characterizes putative oscillations in

neural power spectra without aperiodic contributions. The frequency range of the

parameterization was set from 1 - 20 Hz. We left all parameters at their respective

defaults except the value of the peak threshold, which we set to one standard deviation

(SD).

Evoked Power Analysis
Besides induced power we also calculated evoked power from the omission

periods. By doing so we were able to analyze the magnitude of the contralaterally

evoked OAEs during stimulus presentation. We did not apply zero-padding as the

frequency resolution of 8 Hz for the 125 ms interval perfectly fitted the 24 Hz

stimulation rate of the click train. We calculated a fast fourier transform with multiple

tapers ("mtmfft" FieldTrip implementation) from discrete prolate spheroidal sequences

(dpss) including a frequency range of 0-32 Hz with a bin size of 8 Hz and a frequency

smoothing of 8 Hz.

Phase Opposition Analysis
We conducted phase analysis for both the data from the cue-target intervals

and omission periods. For both signals we zero-padded the trial lengths to 3.4133 s to

ensure comparability between each other by obtaining the same frequency bins.

Afterward, we extracted the fourier coefficients by calculating a fast fourier transform

with a Hanning taper ("mtmfft" FieldTrip implementation) from 1 - 45 Hz with a bin size

of 0.5 Hz and no frequency smoothing. Analogue to the power analysis we obtained

four fourier spectra per subject.

In order to assess effects of phase differences between ears and interaural

attention conditions we calculated the phase opposition sum (POS), introduced by

VanRullen (2016), for all possible contrasts. The POS is a measure for the consistency of

phase differences over trials and is based on the magnitude of the inter-trial coherence

(ITC) over all trials and each experimental condition. **Figure 4A** schematically illustrates

the rationale of this type of analysis. Phase opposition is described as the difference in

angles for two signals that oscillate at the same temporal frequency. At time points

with a 180° phase difference it reaches its maximum. The following formula shows how

the POS is calculated:

$$POS = ITC_A + ITC_B - 2 * ITC_{all}$$

The POS will be positive when the summed ITC of each group is higher than two

times the overall ITC.

Statistical Analysis

Periodic Component Analysis

We conducted a permutation procedure to statistically assess if the periodic

components that FOOOF identified differ from a null effect of their respective spectra.

For this analysis we calculated 10000 permutations of the time series of the Hilbert

transform and calculated the power spectra in the same way as for the real data.

Finally, we compared the distribution of the surrogate power values to the real power

value. We would reject the null hypothesis that the periodic component is generic

when its value was equal or above the 95th-percentile of the surrogate distribution.

Statistical analysis was performed in MATLAB (Version 9.8; The MathWorks, Natick,

Massachusetts, USA) with custom-written scripts.

Induced Power Analysis

First, we excluded all subjects where FOOOF failed to identify a peak in one of

their four models. Secondly, we excluded all subjects that showed a bad model fit in

one of their models. We classified a fit as bad when its value was at least two SDs

smaller than the overall average across all models. Finally, we identified outliers in the

distributions of each dependent variable by the use of Tukey's boxplot rule. In total we

included 19 subjects for the statistical analysis of peak frequency and 16 subjects for

peak height. After these procedures, we calculated two factorial ANOVAs (2x2) with the

repeated measures factors ear (left & right) and condition (Attend Left & Attend Right)

for peak frequency and height that were extracted by FOOOF. All statistical analyses

were performed using the R packages "ez" (Lawrence, 2016), "DescTools" (Signorell,

2021), and custom-written R scripts (Version 4.1.2; R Core Team, 2021).

Evoked Power Analysis

For the statistical analysis of differences in evoked power between the attention

conditions at the stimulation rate of the click train we excluded outliers in the

distributions of the dependent variable by the use of Tukey's boxplot rule. For the

power from the left ear 27 subjects and for the right ear 25 subjects were included.

Subsequently, we compared the differences by two dependent-samples t-tests, whose

results were corrected for multiple comparisons using false detection rate (Benjamini &

Hochberg, 1995).

Phase Opposition Analysis

We assessed statistical significance for each subject's POS values by the use of a

permutation approach. We calculated 1000 surrogate POS values where for every

permutation trials were randomly assigned to one of the two contrasted conditions. In

the next step we calculated the proportion of surrogate POS values that were higher

than the POS value from the original data. We set the threshold for statistical

significance of the permutation p-values at 5 %. After the calculation of single subject

p-values, we combined the p-values across subjects (N = 30) to test for the presence of

a group-level effect. For this combination we used Worsely and Friston's Method where

for every frequency bin the largest p-value across subjects is elevated to the power of

N (Worsley & Friston, 2000). This method is considered rather stringent as only the

highest p-value across subjects influences the combined p-value. As a result a

combined p-value below the 5%-significance level implies that the p-values in every

single subject are at or below that level. Following this, we used an empirical

adaptation of Brown's Method to combine the p-values of frequency bins (Brown, 1975;

Poole et al., 2016). This adaptation uses the empirical cumulative distribution function

derived from the data instead of numerical integration (Poole et al., 2016). Statistical

analysis was performed in MATLAB (Version 9.8; The MathWorks, Natick,

Massachusetts, USA) with off-the-shelf functions provided by VanRullen (2016), Poole et

al. (2016), and custom-written scripts.

Results

OOA-power and -frequency at Theta Rhythm Is Not Modulated by Interaural Attention

The existence of a general endogenous cochlear rhythm in the theta range has been suggested whereby the rhythm's frequency was not modulated by intermodal (visual vs. auditory) selective attention and did not differ between ears (Köhler et al., 2021). Moreover, the rhythm's amplitude was increased when attention was directed to the auditory compared to the visual modality. Hence, we asked the question if theta-rhythmic activity of the cochlea is also present during interaural attention processes. Secondly, we hypothesized that the amplitude of the cochlea's theta rhythm is enhanced in the to-be-attended ear compared to the to-be-ignored ear.

Analogous to previous literature we defined the silent cue-target interval as the period in which interaural attention processes occur (Köhler et al., 2021; Wittekindt et al., 2014). In this interval we parameterized induced cochlear oscillatory power by the usage of FOOOF (for details see the METHODS section). FOOOF could identify a peak in all but six power spectra. The average peak frequency in the left ear for the Attend Left condition was at 4.96 Hz (SD = 2.89 Hz) and in the Attend Right condition at 5.34 Hz (SD = 3.50 Hz). In the right ear the average peak frequency in the Attend Left condition was at 5.98 Hz (SD = 3.40 Hz) and in the Attend Right condition at 4.33 Hz (SD = 3.08 Hz). By means of a permutation procedure we tested if the peaks that were identified by FOOOF significantly differed from a null effect. Indeed, for all subjects every identified peak was significantly different from being a generic component. These results

15   15

replicate the findings from previous studies (Dragicevic et al., 2019; Köhler et al., 2021)

and contribute further evidence for the existence of a genuine cochlear theta rhythm.

Next, we tested if the frequencies in each condition and ear are significantly

different. The result of a two factorial ANOVA (2x2) with the repeated measures factors

ear (left & right) and attention condition (Attend Left & Attend Right) revealed no

significant main effects (ear: $F_{(1, 18)}$ = 5.08e-05, p = 0.99; condition: $F_{(1, 18)}$ = 0.78, p = 0.39).

Regarding the interaction, **Figure 2A** suggests a deceleration of the cochlear's theta

rhythm for the to-be-attended and acceleration for the to-be-ignored ear. However, the

effect was only significant on a trend level ($F_{(1, 18)}$ = 3.93, p = 0.06).

Figure 2. Peak analysis of OOA by FOOOF. (A) Results of a two factorial ANOVA (2x2)
with the repeated measures factors ear (left & right) and attention condition (Attend
Left & Attend Right) for peak frequency. On average theta rhythmicity for the OOA is
revealed. The dot depicts the trend-level effect of the ordinal interaction. (B) Results of
a two factorial ANOVA (2x2) with the repeated measures factors ear (left & right) and

attention condition (Attend Left & Attend Right) for peak height of the peaks shown in
(A).

The asterisk depicts the (on the 5%-level) significant main effect of attention condition.
The big colored dots and error bars represent the mean and SEM.

Another aim of this study was to follow up on the relative increase of spectral

power at frequencies of the cochlea's theta rhythm when attention was shifted to the

auditory modality as shown in Köhler et al. (2021). These findings depict a cochlear

mechanism of selective attentional enhancement of the to-be-attended and

deterioration of the to-be-ignored external stimulation for intermodal attention.

Accordingly, we hypothesized in the context of interaural attention that the power at

individual peak frequencies is increased in the to-be-attended compared to the to-be-

ignored ear.

In addition to peak frequency, FOOOF reports the relative logarithmic power

(peak height) above the aperiodic component for each identified peak. The average

peak height in the left ear for the Attend Left condition was at 0.0309 (SD = 0.0237) and

in the Attend Right condition at 0.0961 (SD = 0.0883). In the right ear the average peak

height in the Attend Left condition was at 0.0556 (SD = 0.0547) and in the Attend Right

condition at 0.0871 (SD = 0.0906). The result of a two factorial ANOVA (2x2) with the

repeated measures factors ear (left & right) and attention condition (Attend Left &

Attend Right) revealed no significant main effect for ear but, there was a significant

main effect for attention condition (ear: $F_{(1, 15)}$ = 0.29, p = 0.60; condition: $F_{(1, 15)}$ = 6.95, p =

0.02). The interaction effect was not significant ($F_{(1, 15)}$ = 1.34, p = 0.26). **Figure 2B** depicts

the main effect of condition for peak height. The general increase in OOA peak power

for the Attend Right condition in both ears could be explained by a general processing

advantage for attention directed to the right side.

Evoked Power at Stimulation Frequency Is Modulated by Interaural Attention

Subsequently, we tested if there are differences of the contralaterally evoked

otoacoustic activity between attention conditions. For that, we separately calculated

the evoked power of the envelope at the stimulation frequency during the omission

periods for Attend Left and Attend Right trials. Two FDR-corrected dependent samples

t-tests for each ear separately revealed a significant difference for the right ear (left

ear: T_{26} = -1.07, p = 0.29; right ear: T_{24} = -2.80, p = 0.02). **Figure 3** illustrates the results of

both t-tests. **Figure 3B** demonstrates that in the right ear the power for the Attend Left

condition (*M* = 0.0113, *SD* = 0.0079) is higher than for the Attend Right condition (*M* =

0.0075, *SD* = 0.0050).

Figure 3. Evoked power at stimulation frequency (24 Hz) during omission periods. (A)
Power of the two attention conditions for the left ear. (B) Power of the two attention

conditions for the right ear.

All p-values are FDR-corrected. The asterisk depicts significance on the 5%-level. The
big colored dots and error bars represent the mean and SEM.

OOA Oscillates in Antiphase Between Ears and Attention Conditions

Besides attentional modulations in the power domain, we expected effects of

interaural attention in the phase domain. In the cortical attention literature it is well

established that the phases of neural oscillations affect how external stimuli are

processed (e.g. stimuli arriving at the peak of a neural oscillation are in favor of further

cortical processing than stimuli arriving at the trough). Attentional processes have the

ability to alter or shift the phases of neural oscillations to favor some predicted to-be-

attended stimuli over to-be-ignored stimuli. While power of cortical activity has been

classically interpreted to indicate the level of excitation and inhibition, phase shifts

reflect the timing regulation of excitability. Here, we aimed to investigate if phase shifts

of the OOA represent an analogous mechanism already at the level of the cochlea. We

hypothesized that the phase during the cue-target interval in the same attention

condition is different between the two ears (ear contrasts). Moreover, we speculated

that the phase in the same ear is different between both attention conditions

(attention contrasts).

Figure 4. Rationale of phase analysis and cochlear phase effects during the silent cue-target interval. (A) In the upper panel schematic OOA-envelopes of one ear are illustrated. The envelopes are separately split into trials for the Attend Left and Attend Right condition. For illustration purposes the envelopes of both conditions oscillate almost at perfect antiphase. The consistency of the phase opposition between the Attend Left and Attend Right trials is calculated by the Phase Opposition Sum, whose formula is depicted in the lower panel. (B) POS for the ear contrasts. The POS between the left and right ear for all Attend Left trials is depicted in red and for all Attend Right trials in blue. The POS effects significantly differed from a null effect revealed by a

permutation procedure. There was no difference between attention conditions. In the
lower row the histograms for the relative phase differences are illustrated. The
histograms are equally binned in four segments and frequencies are plotted at the
lower bound of each bin. The phase of the left ear was normalized to 0. (C) POS for the
attention contrasts. The POS between the Attend Left and Attend Right trials for the left
ear is depicted in purple and for the right ear in green. The POS effects significantly
differed from a null effect revealed by a permutation procedure. There was no
difference between the ears. In the lower row the histograms for the relative phase
differences are shown. The histograms are equally binned in four segments and
frequencies are plotted at the lower bound of each bin. The phase of the Attend Left
trials was normalized to 0.

The big dots and error bars represent the mean and SEM. The three asterisks illustrate
significance on the 0.001%-significance level.

We analyzed phase differences by calculating the POS for every contrast of

interest. The POS is a measure to calculate the consistency of phase opposition

between two signals. **Figure 4A** illustrates the rationale of this analysis.

For testing the first hypothesis (ear contrasts) we selected all Attend Left trials

and contrasted the signal from the left with the right ear. After that we did the same

for all Attend Right trials. Altogether, we compared the phases of the to-be-attended

ear with the to-be-ignored ear in both conditions. As we were interested in phase

differences at frequencies of the cochlear rhythm, we averaged the POS values

between 1.56 and 9.82 Hz. The limits for this frequency range were defined by ± 1 *SD* of

the mean peak frequency from all peaks that were previously identified. While

attention was shifted to the left side the POS between the two ears was 0.122 (*SD* =

0.013, *p* = 5.76e-13) and while it was shifted to the right side it was 0.116 (*SD* = 0.016, *p*

= 1.1e-08). There was no significant difference between both contrasts ($T_{(29)}$ = 1.57, *p* =

0.13). **Figure 4B** shows the reported effects of the POS for the ear contrasts. The two

panels in the lower row illustrate the histograms of the relative phase differences for

the Attend Left and Attend Right trials while the phase of the left ear was normalized to

0. The histograms are equally binned in four segments and frequencies are plotted at

the lower bound of each bin.

Next, we tested the second hypothesis (attention contrasts) by applying the

same approach as for the first one with only one difference. We contrasted for the left

ear the signal from Attend Left trials with the signal from Attend Right trials. After that

we did the same for the right ear. We then compared the phases of one ear while it

was to-be-attended and while it was to-be-ignored. In the left ear the overall POS

between the both attention conditions was 0.120 (SD = 0.018, p = 9.19e-10) and 0.117

(SD = 0.011, p = 3.09e-11) in the right ear. There was no significant difference between

both contrasts ($T_{(29)}$ = 0.76, p = 0.45). **Figure 4C** visualizes the effects of the POS for the

attention contrasts.

In order to provide additional evidence that phases are modulated by interaural

attention we employed the same analysis approach to the phases from the omission

periods of the click trains. In this way, we were able to assess phase differences of the

cochlear rhythm during the presentation of the target. The POS for the ear contrasts

was 0.223 (SD = 0.155, p = 0.006) for Attend Left trials and 0.222 (SD = 0.159, p = 0.010)

for Attend Right trials (See **Figure 5A**). The POS for the attention condition contrasts

was 0.203 (SD = 0.185, p = 0.026) in the left ear and 0.242 (SD = 0.192, p = 0.011) in the

right ear (See **Figure 5B**). This analysis indicates that there is phase opposition during

task execution for both the attention condition and the ear contrasts. Hereby, these

results corroborate that the phase opposition effects during the cue-target interval

were induced by top-down attentional processes.

Figure 5. Cochlear phase effects during the omission periods. (A) POS for the ear
contrasts. The POS between the left and right ear for all Attend Left trials is depicted in
red and for all Attend Right trials in blue. The POS effects significantly differed from a
null effect revealed by a permutation procedure. There was no difference between
attention conditions. In the lower row the histograms for the relative phase differences
are illustrated. The histograms are equally binned in four segments and frequencies
are plotted at the lower bound of each bin. The phase of the left ear was normalized to
0. (B) POS for the attention contrasts. The POS between the Attend Left and Attend
Right trials for the left ear is depicted in purple and for the right ear in green. The POS
effects significantly differed from a null effect revealed by a permutation procedure.
There was no difference between the ears. In the lower row the histograms for the
relative phase differences are shown. The histograms are equally binned in four
segments and frequencies are plotted at the lower bound of each bin. The phase of the
Attend Left trials was normalized to 0.

The big dots and error bars represent the mean and SEM. One asterisk illustrates
significance on the 0.05%-significance level and two asterisks on the 0.01%-level.

All in all, the reported results show that the phase of the oscillatory activity at

the level of the auditory periphery is modulated by attention processes. Importantly,

the results of the attention contrasts provide conclusive evidence that supports this

notion. While phase opposition between both ears could be an adaptation to (cochlear)

physiological processes, phase opposition in one ear between both attention

conditions allows one to draw the conclusion that attention modulates the phase of

OOA.

497 Discussion

Previous research on top-down modulations of the phase of auditory perception

was focused on cortical and behavioral effects but neglected the cochlea, which is the

most peripheral part of the auditory system and innervated by efferent connections

arising from the primary auditory cortex. In our previous study we reported a

putatively endogenous theta-rhythmic pattern of otoacoustic activity (Köhler et al.,

2021). While low frequency power of oscillatory cochlear activity was modulated by top-

down intermodal attention its frequency and phase was independent of it. As the

paradigm of the previous study was not suitable for assessing top-down modulations

of phase, we implemented an interaural attention paradigm that allowed us to draw

conclusions on how the phases of the cochlea's theta rhythm in both ears are

modulated by attention processes. We show that interaural attention consistently

modulates the phases in both ears. In the past, such effects were only reported for

cortical signals and behavioral performance. To the best of our knowledge this is the

first time that phase modulations of the auditory receptor are reported.

Cochlear Acoustic Activity Is Theta-rhythmically Modulated

Cochlear Acoustic Activity Is Theta-rhythmically Modulated

Our analysis of the OOA during the cue-target interval replicated the findings

from our previous study, namely the existence of a theta-rhythmic (~5 Hz on average)

modulation of the cochlea's otoacoustic activity (Köhler et al., 2021). Thereby, aperiodic

("1/f") contributions to this effect were ruled out. This finding is in line with the results

from a study that investigated oscillations of behavioral performance in a bilateral

pitch-identification task (Ho et al., 2017). The authors reported an oscillation of

behavioral performance in the theta (~6 Hz) and low alpha (~8 Hz) range. In addition, a

second study that adapted the experimental paradigm from Ho et al. (Ho et al., 2017)

could also report a theta-rhythmic modulation of auditory behavioral performance

(Plöchl et al., 2021). Considering the anatomical structure of the efferent auditory

system (Terreros & Delano, 2015), cochlear rhythmicities could be modulated by

cortical (attention) processes or be adaptations to physiological processes of the

auditory receptor.

Cochlear Acoustic Activity Oscillates in Antiphase Between Ears and Direction of
Attention Within an Ear

The temporal pattern of the cochlear rhythmic activity during the cue-target

interval displayed significant phase opposition at frequencies encompassing the theta-

band. This phenomenon was not only present between the to-be-attended and to-be-

ignored ear but also in the same ear between both attention conditions. These results

are very similar to that observed in the visual and recently emerging auditory rhythmic

sampling literature for both neural activity and behavioral performance, expanding it

to the level of the auditory receptor (Fiebelkorn et al., 2013; Ho et al., 2017; Kayser,

2019; Kubetschek & Kayser, 2021; Landau & Fries, 2012; Plöchl et al., 2021; Spyropoulos

et al., 2018).

For visual attention it is established that simultaneously presented objects are

sampled in sequence at ~4 Hz (Fiebelkorn et al., 2013, 2018; Helfrich et al., 2018;

Landau et al., 2015; Landau & Fries, 2012). For the auditory modality studies reported

conflicting results of such effects (Ho et al., 2017; İlhan & VanRullen, 2012; Ng et al.,

2012; Plöchl et al., 2021; Zoefel & Heil, 2013). Either effects were absent (İlhan &

VanRullen, 2012), at least partly dependent on the power and phase of ongoing neural

theta oscillations (Ng et al., 2012), or attributed to artifacts (Zoefel & Heil, 2013).

Regardless, recent studies were consistently able to demonstrate rhythmic

modulations of behavioral detection performance (Ho et al., 2017, 2019; Kayser, 2019;

Plöchl et al., 2021). For instance, Ho et al. (2017), who applied signal detection theory to

test for oscillations of behavioral performance in a bilateral pitch-identification task,

demonstrated that both criterion and sensitivity oscillate in antiphase between the left

and right ear. These findings are in line with the phase opposition of OOA between the

to-be-attended and to-be-ignored ear reported here. However, such an effect does not

rule out the possibility that both ears endogenously sample auditory input in

antiphase. Certainly, OOA also demonstrates phase opposition between both attention

conditions in the same ear. This phenomenon provides evidence that the auditory

streams from both ears are not endogenously sampled in antiphase but interaural

attention systematically modulates the temporal dynamics of auditory sampling.

Together, both effects corroborate the existence of alternating attentional states

directly affecting cochlear processes.

Interaural Attention Modulates the Timing of Excitation & Inhibition of Cochlear Activity

In Köhler et al. (2021) we reported the existence of a systematic variation of

OOA-level but not phase for intermodal attention. Interestingly, in the current study

interaural attention systematically modulates the phase of OOA but against our

hypothesis not its level. Thus, it seems that both types of attention impact cochlear

activity in a differential manner. While intermodal attention modulates the level of

cochlear activity, interaural attention modulates the timing. In situations where the

former is of relevance the overall auditory input is either distracting and should be

ignored or relevant and processing should be facilitated. A mechanism affecting the

level of amplification of auditory input at the level of the cochlea seems to fit this aim.

Conversely, in situations where interaural attention is of relevance we initially

hypothesized that it deploys additionally to cochlear level differences between ears

also differences in the temporal organization of the auditory input from both ears. Our

current results revealed that interaural attention relies only on a mechanism affecting

the timing of cochlear activity. In this regard, on the cochlear level intermodal attention

seems to manifest via level differences of cochlear activity and interaural attention via

its temporal orchestration.

So far, there is only one study that systematically investigated effects of

interaural attention on the acoustic activity of the outer hair cells. Srinivasan et al.

(2014) recorded distortion product otoacoustic emissions (DPOAE) while participants

had to identify brief tones in the ipsi- or contralateral ear or brief phase shifts of a

visual grating. Interestingly, DPOAE levels were smallest when attention was shifted to

the ipsilateral ear, where DPOAEs were recorded from, and highest for visual attention.

27   27

These results stand in contrast to widely accepted effects observed by

electrophysiological measures of peripheral auditory function (Delano et al., 2007;

Lukas, 1980), otoacoustic (Dragicevic et al., 2019; Köhler et al., 2021; Wittekindt et al.,

2014), and cortical measures (Johnson & Zatorre, 2005; Kauramäki et al., 2007; Woldorff

et al., 1987). However, the authors explain their found effect by the fact that

participants were instructed to focus the DPOAE primary tones, which are some

cochlear distance apart, and by the tonotopic tuning of the MOC the response of the

DPOAE could be suppressed.

In the current study the OOA did not display a systematic variation in peak

height but phase between ears and attention conditions. In line with our results there

is evidence from studies on dichotic listening while recording physiological noise from

the ear canal that there is no difference in noise level between the ipsi- and

contralateral ear (Walsh et al., 2014, 2015). These results speak for interaural attention

manifesting via the timing aspect of cochlear activity. In contrast to the current study,

the paradigm of Srinivasan et al. (2014) did not exclusively assess interaural attention

but also intermodal attention. That is, participants shifting their attention to one ear

consistently had to not only ignore auditory input from the other ear but also visual

input. However, their results support our proposition that intermodal attention

manifests via level differences of otoacoustic activity.

The Input from Both Ears Is Perceived as Two Independent Objects Rather than
One Object with Two Locations

Lately one study suggests that visual and auditory oscillations share a general

attentional mechanism, which theta-rhythmically samples target locations and objects,

respectively (Plöchl et al., 2021). Thereby, supramodal attentional sampling switches

between two objects at a rate of ~ 4 Hz and between two target locations within a

single object at ~8 Hz. Interestingly, Plöchl et al. (2021) found a significant phase

opposition only at ~8 Hz for auditory detection performance. The authors attributed

that to the fact that auditory input from both ears may not consistently be perceived as

two independent objects but rather as a single object containing two target locations.

Also the from Ho et al. (2017) reported effects of behavioral oscillations pointing more

towards ~8 Hz than ~4 Hz seem to support this assumption. In contrast, our results of

cochlear oscillations at ~5 Hz speak more for the perception of two auditory streams as

two independent objects. However, the question to what extent such oscillatory effects

of behavior are represented on a cochlear level is a matter for future research.

Aspects for Future Studies

The rhythmic modulation in our previous study was not affected in frequency by

intermodal (auditory/visual) attentional processes. Hence, we argued for a general

endogenous cochlear rhythm. However, the trend-level effect of frequency reported

here could point to a systematic modulation of the frequency of the cochlear rhythmic

activity by interaural attention processes. More precisely, a reduced frequency for the

to-be-attended compared to the to-be-ignored ear. This phenomenon could be

interpreted in line with the active sampling literature proposing two theta-dependent

states of attention that either facilitate sampling of an object/location or the likelihood

of a shift to another object/location (Fiebelkorn & Kastner, 2019). In the current study

there were two locations as auditory stimulation was fully lateralized to the left and

right ear. Therefore, for active listeners occasional shifting to the to-be-ignored ear

would have likely happened. An increase in frequency for the to-be-ignored ear would

lead to a reduction in time required to occasionally sample this ear. Again, it has to be

noted that this effect did just fail to reach statistical significance. Nevertheless, it would

be interesting for future studies to address the existence of this phenomenon.

632 Conclusion

Here we demonstrate that the phase of cochlear theta-rhythmic activity is

systematically modulated by interaural attention. In doing so, the present results

suggest that cueing events can orchestrate endogenous cochlear oscillations to

putatively affect processing of upcoming stimuli. In addition, this study not only adds

to a growing body of literature providing evidence that attentional sampling is not

restricted to the visual modality but also extends this mechanism to the most

peripheral stage of the auditory efferent system. In the context of the corticofugal

pathways we provide an additional link between the primary auditory cortex and

behavior. Yet, at this point it remains an open question if (1) perceptual and attentional

rhythmicities are genuinely driven by cortical effects or are an adaptation to

physiological properties of the cochlea, (2) oscillatory effects of behavior are reflected

on a cochlear level. Future studies should investigate the relationship between

cochlear, (auditory) cortical, and behavioral oscillations. Moreover, it would be

interesting to study the mechanistic properties of this rhythm in hearing impaired

individuals.

648 References

649 Benjamini, Y., & Hochberg, Y. (1995). Controlling the False Discovery Rate: A Practical

650 and Powerful Approach to Multiple Testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society:*

651 *Series B (Methodological)*, *57*(1), 289–300. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2517-

652 6161.1995.tb02031.x

653 Brainard, D. H. (1997). The Psychophysics Toolbox. *Spatial Vision*, *10*(4), 433–436.

654 https://doi.org/10.1163/156856897X00357

655 Brown, M. B. (1975). 400: A Method for Combining Non-Independent, One-Sided Tests

656 of Significance. *Biometrics*, *31*(4), 987–992. https://doi.org/10.2307/2529826

657 Busch, N. A., & VanRullen, R. (2010). Spontaneous EEG oscillations reveal periodic

658 sampling of visual attention. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*,

659 *107*(37), 16048–16053. https://doi.org/10/d86cdf

660 Carrasco, M., Ling, S., & Read, S. (2004). Attention alters appearance. *Nature*

661 *Neuroscience*, *7*(3), 308–313. https://doi.org/10.1038/nn1194

662 Delano, P. H., Elgueda, D., Hamame, C. M., & Robles, L. (2007). Selective Attention to

663 Visual Stimuli Reduces Cochlear Sensitivity in Chinchillas. *Journal of Neuroscience*,

664 *27*(15), 4146–4153. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3702-06.2007

665 Donoghue, T., Haller, M., Peterson, E. J., Varma, P., Sebastian, P., Gao, R., Noto, T., Lara,

666 A. H., Wallis, J. D., Knight, R. T., Shestyuk, A., & Voytek, B. (2020). Parameterizing

667 neural power spectra into periodic and aperiodic components. *Nature*

668 *Neuroscience*, *23*(12), 1655–1665. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-020-00744-x

669 Dragicevic, C. D., Marcenaro, B., Navarrete, M., Robles, L., & Delano, P. H. (2019).

670 Oscillatory infrasonic modulation of the cochlear amplifier by selective

671 attention. *PLOS ONE*, *14*(1), e0208939. https://doi.org/10/gf2zb7

672 Fiebelkorn, I. C., & Kastner, S. (2019). A Rhythmic Theory of Attention. *Trends in*

Cognitive Sciences, *23*(2), 87–101. https://doi.org/10/gfsh5k

Fiebelkorn, I. C., Pinsk, M. A., & Kastner, S. (2018). A Dynamic Interplay within the

Frontoparietal Network Underlies Rhythmic Spatial Attention. *Neuron*, *99*(4), 842-

853.e8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2018.07.038

Fiebelkorn, I. C., Saalmann, Y. B., & Kastner, S. (2013). Rhythmic Sampling within and

between Objects despite Sustained Attention at a Cued Location. *Current*

Biology, *23*(24), 2553–2558. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2013.10.063

Gehmacher, Q., Reisinger, P., Hartmann, T., Keintzel, T., Rösch, S., Schwarz, K., & Weisz,

N. (2022). Direct cochlear recordings in humans show a theta rhythmic

modulation of auditory nerve activity by selective attention. *Journal of*

Neuroscience. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0665-21.2021

Giard, M. H., Collet, L., Bouchet, P., & Pernier, J. (1994). Auditory selective attention in

the human cochlea. *Brain Research*, *633*(1–2), 353–356.

https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993(94)91561-X

Guinan, J. J., Backus, B. C., Lilaonitkul, W., & Aharonson, V. (2003). Medial Olivocochlear

Efferent Reflex in Humans: Otoacoustic Emission (OAE) Measurement Issues

and the Advantages of Stimulus Frequency OAEs. *JARO - Journal of the Association*

for Research in Otolaryngology, *4*(4), 521–540. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10162-

002-3037-3

Hartmann, T., & Weisz, N. (2020). An Introduction to the Objective Psychophysics

Toolbox. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.585437

Helfrich, R. F., Fiebelkorn, I. C., Szczepanski, S. M., Lin, J. J., Parvizi, J., Knight, R. T., &

Kastner, S. (2018). Neural Mechanisms of Sustained Attention Are Rhythmic.

Neuron, *99*(4), 854-865.e5. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2018.07.032

Ho, H. T., Burr, D. C., Alais, D., & Morrone, M. C. (2019). Auditory Perceptual History Is

Propagated through Alpha Oscillations. *Current Biology*, *29*(24), 4208-4217.e3.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2019.10.041

Ho, H. T., Leung, J., Burr, D. C., Alais, D., & Morrone, M. C. (2017). Auditory Sensitivity

and Decision Criteria Oscillate at Different Frequencies Separately for the Two

Ears. *Current Biology*, *27*(23), 3643-3649.e3.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.10.017

İlhan, B., & VanRullen, R. (2012). No Counterpart of Visual Perceptual Echoes in the

Auditory System. *PLOS ONE*, *7*(11), e49287.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0049287

Johnson, J. A., & Zatorre, R. J. (2005). Attention to Simultaneous Unrelated Auditory and

Visual Events: Behavioral and Neural Correlates. *Cerebral Cortex*, *15*(10), 1609–

1620. https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhi039

Kauramäki, J., Jääskeläinen, I. P., & Sams, M. (2007). Selective Attention Increases Both

Gain and Feature Selectivity of the Human Auditory Cortex. *PLOS ONE*, *2*(9), e909.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0000909

Kayser, C. (2019). Evidence for the Rhythmic Perceptual Sampling of Auditory Scenes.

Frontiers in Human Neuroscience, *13*, 249.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2019.00249

Kayser, C., Wilson, C., Safaai, H., Sakata, S., & Panzeri, S. (2015). Rhythmic Auditory

Cortex Activity at Multiple Timescales Shapes Stimulus–Response Gain and

Background Firing. *Journal of Neuroscience*, *35*(20), 7750–7762.

https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0268-15.2015

Köhler, M. H. A., Demarchi, G., & Weisz, N. (2021). Cochlear activity in silent cue-target

intervals shows a theta-rhythmic pattern and is correlated to attentional alpha

and theta modulations. *BMC Biology*, *19*(1), 48. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12915-

021-00992-8

Kubetschek, C., & Kayser, C. (2021). Delta/Theta band EEG activity shapes the rhythmic

perceptual sampling of auditory scenes. *Scientific Reports*, *11*(1), 2370.

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-82008-7

Lakatos, P., Shah, A. S., Knuth, K. H., Ulbert, I., Karmos, G., & Schroeder, C. E. (2005). An

Oscillatory Hierarchy Controlling Neuronal Excitability and Stimulus Processing

in the Auditory Cortex. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, *94*(3), 1904–1911.

https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00263.2005

Landau, A. N., & Fries, P. (2012). Attention Samples Stimuli Rhythmically. *Current*

Biology, *22*(11), 1000–1004. https://doi.org/10/f32k6g

Landau, A. N., Schreyer, H. M., van Pelt, S., & Fries, P. (2015). Distributed Attention Is

Implemented through Theta-Rhythmic Gamma Modulation. *Current Biology*,

25(17), 2332–2337. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2015.07.048

Lawrence, M. A. (2016). *Ez* (4.4-0) [R]. https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/ez/ez.pdf

Lukas, J. H. (1980). Human Auditory Attention: The Olivocochlear Bundle May Function

as a Peripheral Filter. *Psychophysiology*, *17*(5), 444–452. https://doi.org/10/btz637

Marcenaro, B. E., Leiva, A., Dragicevic, C. D., Lopez, V., & Delano, P. H. (2021). The

medial olivocochlear reflex strength is modulated during a visual working

memory task. *Journal of Neurophysiology*. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00032.2020

Ng, B. S. W., Schroeder, T., & Kayser, C. (2012). A Precluding But Not Ensuring Role of

Entrained Low-Frequency Oscillations for Auditory Perception. *Journal of*

Neuroscience, *32*(35), 12268–12276. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1877-

12.2012

Oostenveld, R., Fries, P., Maris, E., & Schoffelen, J. M. (2011). FieldTrip: Open source

software for advanced analysis of MEG, EEG, and invasive electrophysiological

data. *Computational Intelligence and Neuroscience*, *2011*.

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

Plöchl, M., Fiebelkorn, I., Kastner, S., & Obleser, J. (2021). Attentional sampling of visual

and auditory objects is captured by theta-modulated neural activity. *European*

Journal of Neuroscience, *n/a*(n/a). https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.15514

Poeppel, D., & Assaneo, M. F. (2020). Speech rhythms and their neural foundations.

Nature Reviews Neuroscience, *21*(6), 322–334. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41583-020-

0304-4

Poole, W., Gibbs, D. L., Shmulevich, I., Bernard, B., & Knijnenburg, T. A. (2016).

Combining dependent P-values with an empirical adaptation of Brown's

method. *Bioinformatics*, *32*(17), i430–i436.

https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btw438

R Core Team. (2021). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing* (4.1.2) [R]. R

Foundation for Statistical Computing. https://www.R-project.org/

Romei, V., Brodbeck, V., Michel, C., Amedi, A., Pascual-Leone, A., & Thut, G. (2008).

Spontaneous Fluctuations in Posterior α-Band EEG Activity Reflect Variability in

Excitability of Human Visual Areas. *Cerebral Cortex*, *18*(9), 2010–2018.

https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhm229

Signorell, A. (2021). *DescTools* (0.99.44) [R]. https://andrisignorell.github.io/DescTools/

Spyropoulos, G., Bosman, C. A., & Fries, P. (2018). A theta rhythm in macaque visual

cortex and its attentional modulation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

Sciences, *115*(24), E5614–E5623. https://doi.org/10/gdqzkq

Srinivasan, S., Keil, A., Stratis, K., Osborne, A. F., Cerwonka, C., Wong, J., Rieger, B. L.,

Polcz, V., & Smith, D. W. (2014). Interaural attention modulates outer hair cell

function. *The European Journal of Neuroscience*, *40*(12), 3785–3792.

https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.12746

Terreros, G., & Delano, P. H. (2015). Corticofugal modulation of peripheral auditory

responses. *Frontiers in Systems Neuroscience*, *9*(September), 134.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fnsys.2015.00134

VanRullen, R. (2016). How to Evaluate Phase Differences between Trial Groups in

Ongoing Electrophysiological Signals. *Frontiers in Neuroscience*, *10*.

https://doi.org/10/gdvhq8

Walsh, K. P., Pasanen, E. G., & McFadden, D. (2014). Selective attention reduces

physiological noise in the external ear canals of humans. I: Auditory attention.

Hearing Research, *312*, 143–159. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heares.2014.03.012

Walsh, K. P., Pasanen, E. G., & McFadden, D. (2015). Changes in otoacoustic emissions

during selective auditory and visual attention. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society*

of America, *137*(5), 2737–2757. https://doi.org/10.1121/1.4919350

Ward, L. M. (1997). Involuntary Listening AIDS Hearing. *Psychological Science*, *8*(2), 112–

118. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.1997.tb00692.x

Wittekindt, A., Kaiser, J., & Abel, C. (2014). Attentional Modulation of the Inner Ear: A

Combined Otoacoustic Emission and EEG Study. *Journal of Neuroscience*, *34*(30),

9995–10002. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4861-13.2014

Woldorff, M., Hansen, J. C., & Hillyard, S. A. (1987). Evidence for effects of selective

attention in the mid-latency range of the human auditory event-related

potential. *Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology. Supplement*, *40*,

146–154.

Worsley, K. J., & Friston, K. J. (2000). A test for a conjunction. *Statistics & Probability

Letters*, *47*(2), 135–140. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-7152(99)00149-2

Wöstmann, M., Herrmann, B., Maess, B., & Obleser, J. (2016). Spatiotemporal dynamics

of auditory attention synchronize with speech. *Proceedings of the National

Academy of Sciences*, *113*(14), 3873–3878.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1523357113

Wyart, V., de Gardelle, V., Scholl, J., & Summerfield, C. (2012). Rhythmic Fluctuations in

Evidence Accumulation during Decision Making in the Human Brain. *Neuron*,

76(4), 847–858. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2012.09.015

Zoefel, B., & Heil, P. (2013). Detection of Near-Threshold Sounds is Independent of EEG

Phase in Common Frequency Bands. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *4*, 262.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00262