Prestimulus neural alpha power predicts confidence in discriminating identical tones

Abbreviated title: Neural alpha power predicts decision confidence

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Abstract

There is growing evidence that the power of prestimulus neural alpha oscillations (~10 Hz) holds

information on a perceiver's bias or confidence in an ensuing perceptual decision, rather than

perceptual sensitivity per se. Obviously, however, confidence also depends on the physical evidence

available in the stimulus as well as on task performance. If prestimulus alpha power has a direct

impact on decision confidence, this link should hold independent of variations in stimulus evidence

and performance. We tested this assertion in a paradigm where human listeners (n = 17) rated their

confidence in the discrimination of the pitch of two identical tones. Lower prestimulus alpha power

in the electroencephalogram (EEG) was predictive of higher confidence ratings, but not of the

decision outcome (i.e., judging the first or the second tone as being higher in pitch). Importantly, the

link between prestimulus alpha power and decision confidence was not mediated by auditory

evoked activity. Our findings demonstrate that the link between prestimulus alpha power and

decision confidence does not hinge on physical evidence in the stimulus or task performance.

Instead, these results speak to a model wherein low prestimulus alpha power increases neural

baseline excitability, which is reflected in enhanced stimulus-evoked neural responses and higher

confidence.

Keywords: neural alpha oscillations, prestimulus, confidence, sensitivity, pitch discrimination,

metacognition

Significance statement

In order to understand the mechanistic relevance of neural oscillations for perception, we here relate

these directly to changes in human auditory decision confidence. Human subjects rated their

confidence in the discrimination of the pitch of two tones, which were, unbeknownst to the listener,

physically identical. In the absence of changing evidence in the physical stimulus or changes in task

performance, we demonstrate that prestimulus alpha power negatively relates to decision

confidence. Our results support a model of cortical alpha oscillations as a proxy for neural baseline

excitability in which lower prestimulus alpha power does not lead to more precise but rather to

overall amplified neural representations.

Human perception close to threshold is subject to ongoing changes in brain activity. A prevalent
view holds that lower power of prestimulus alpha oscillations (8–12 Hz) enhances neural sensitivity
and thereby the precision of neural stimulus representation. Evidence for this view comes from
studies showing a negative relation between prestimulus alpha power and the probability to detect
visual (Hanslmayr et al., 2007; van Dijk et al., 2008; Busch et al., 2009) or tactile targets (Weisz et al.,
2014). Alternatively, more recent research suggests that lower prestimulus alpha power does not
lead to more precise but rather to overall amplified neural representation, which is supported by the
negative relation of prestimulus alpha power and subjective perception (Lange et al., 2013), decision
confidence (Samaha et al., 2017), perceptual bias (Limbach and Corballis, 2016; Benwell et al., 2017a;
Iemi et al., 2017), perceptual awareness (Benwell et al., 2017b), and the self-rated level of attention
(Whitmarsh et al., 2017); a host of aspects summed under the label of "metacognition" (for review,
see Fernandez-Duque et al., 2000).

However, the link between prestimulus alpha power and metacognitive measures such as
confidence might be indirect: Both covary with task performance and task ease, which, in turn, both
benefit if a stimulus provides more evidence in favour of one or the other decision.

Some studies have attempted to disentangle these neuro-behavioural interdependencies.
Simultaneity judgements with fixed stimuli (two sensory events displaced briefly in time) revealed a
negative relation of confidence with prestimulus alpha power only in correct trials, while the relation
was instead positive in incorrect trials (Baumgarten et al., 2016). In a recent study, Benwell and
colleagues (2017b) eliminated variations of evidence in the stimulus and task accuracy on some trials
by asking participants whether an omitted visual stimulus was lighter or darker than the background.
No relation between prestimulus alpha power and perceptual awareness ratings was found in these
trials. It is thus unclear at present whether a direct link between prestimulus alpha power and
confidence exists (see Fig. 1D).

Here, we re-analyse data from a forced-choice pitch discrimination task of two tones (Waschke et
al., 2017), which entirely eliminates variations in stimulus evidence and task performance.
Unbeknownst to participants, the two tones were physically identical on each trial and thus no
evidence in the stimulus in favour of one decision was available. Furthermore, task performance did
not vary since participants' judgments of pitch difference (i.e., first versus second tone higher in
pitch) were objectively incorrect throughout, although participants subjectively perceived pitch
differences. With these data, free from confounding physical stimulus differences or variations in task
difficulty, we first provide evidence that confidence relates negatively to prestimulus alpha power.
Second, we show that this link is a direct one, in that it is not mediated by the stimulus-evoked neural
response.

Materials and Methods

In the present study, we re-analysed data from a previously published experiment (Waschke et al., 2017). Below, we describe essential methodological aspects but refer to the original publication for details.

Participants. Data of 17, healthy participants (19–69 years; M_{age} = 42.65 years; 12 females) were included in the analyses. Data of two additional participants were discarded, because they reported high confidence in pitch discrimination throughout all trials of the experiment. Participants were financially compensated for participation. The local ethics committee of the University of Lübeck approved all experimental procedures.

Stimulus materials and task. On each trial of the main experiment, the same sine tone (650 Hz, 150 ms duration, rise and fall times of 10 ms) was presented twice, with an inter-stimulus-interval of 900 ms. Immediately after the offset of the second tone, a response screen was shown (Fig. 1A) until participants entered a response (time limit of 2 s). Participants performed a 2AFC pitch discrimination task with confidence rating. They indicated on each trial which one of the tones was higher in pitch and how confident they were in this decision.

In detail, participants pressed one of 6 buttons, ranging from 1 (first tone clearly higher as second) to 6 (second tone clearly higher as first). Thus, ratings of 1 and 6 corresponded to high confidence, ratings of 2 and 5 to medium confidence, and ratings of 3 and 4 to low confidence. The mapping of response buttons was reversed for 8 of the 17 participants. After an average inter-trial-interval of 3 s (randomly jittered between 2 and 4 s), the next trial started, indicated by the fixation cross changing its colour from grey to light green and back to grey over a period of 500 ms.

Each participant performed 500 trials (except for one participant, who performed 600 trials), divided in blocks of 100 trials each. Bogus feedback was provided for the first few trials of each block (first 10 trials for two participants and first 20 trials for all other participants), where, in 65% of all feedback trials, positive feedback indicating correct pitch discrimination was given. This proportion of positive bogus-feedback was chosen to keep participants engaged in the task. In trials involving bogus feedback, the response screen was followed by a sound indicating a correct or incorrect answer after 100 ms. Additionally, after every 20th trial, sham accuracy scores, indicating sham-average performance in the past 20 trials, randomly chosen from a uniform [55;65]-% distribution were displayed on the screen for 3 s. For further analyses, trials followed by feedback were excluded.

Before the main experiment, each participant performed 20 practice trials and an adaptive tracking procedure. This procedure was identical to the main experiment but we presented two tones of different pitch on each trial. During the course of the adaptive tracking, the pitch difference was gradually decreased. This was to ensure that participants were in the belief that the two tones in the main experiment were different in pitch, although difficult to discriminate.

EEG recording and preprocessing. The electroencephalogram (EEG) was recorded at 24 passive scalp electrodes (SMARTING, mBrainTrain, Belgrade, Serbia) at a sampling rate of 500 Hz (DC to 250 Hz bandwidth), referenced against electrode FCz. Electrode impedances were kept below 10 kΩ. The amplifier was attached to the EEG cap (Easycap, Herrsching, Germany) and the EEG data were transmitted via Bluetooth to a nearby computer, which recorded the data using the Labrecorder software (part of Lab Streaming Layer, LSL; Kothe, 2014).

Offline, the continuous data were bandpass-filtered (0.5–100 Hz), re-referenced to the average of both mastoids (which were discarded from all further analyses), and epoched from –2 to +2 s relative to the onset of the first tone (S1). An independent component analysis was used to remove artefact-related components. Remaining artefactual epochs were removed afterwards by visual inspection. All data analyses were carried out in Matlab (R2013b and R2014b), using custom scripts and the Fieldtrip toolbox (Oostenveld et al., 2011).

Analysis of neural oscillatory signatures. To obtain time-frequency representations of single-trial EEG data, we calculated complex Fourier coefficients for a moving time window (frequency-adaptive Hann-tapers with a width of 4 cycles; moving in steps of 0.01 s through the trial) for frequencies 1–40 Hz. Oscillatory power was obtained by squaring the magnitude of the Fourier representation. To obtain Inter-trial phase coherence (ITPC), Fourier representations were divided by their magnitudes and averaged across trials, followed by calculating the magnitude of the resulting complex value.

To obtain a single-trial measure of ITPC, we used a Jackknife approach proposed by Richter, Thompson, Bosman and Fries (2015). In brief, conventional ITPC can be obtained for a group of N trials but is not defined for a single trial. In order to nevertheless obtain a single-trial metric of ITPC for each participant, we calculated ITPC for all leave-one-out subsamples of trials, resulting in N jackknife-ITPC (jITPC) values. If a single trial is highly phase-coherent with remaining trials, leaving this trial out results in a relatively small value of jITPC. Thus, for better interpretability of results, we refer to 1–jITPC as *single-trial phase coherence*. 1–jITPC is a robust measure since it is calculated on a large number of (N–1) trials. Nevertheless, differences in 1–jITPC values across trials reliably reflect the relative single-trial phase-locked neural response.

Statistical analyses. For repeated-measures analyses, we report Greenhouse-Geisser (GG) epsilon (ε) and GG-corrected p-values in case of violation of sphericity ($p < .05$ in Mauchly's test).

The relationship between prestimulus alpha power and auditory-evoked phase coherence on the one hand and decision confidence on the other hand was analysed in two ways. First, for confirmatory analyses, for each participant, single-trial prestimulus alpha power (8–12 Hz; –0.4 to 0 s; 10 central electrodes shown in Fig. 2A), decision confidence (coded as 1, 2, 3 for low, medium, and high confidence, irrespective of whether the decision was made for S1 or S2 as being higher in pitch), and post-stimulus single-trial phase coherence (1–jITPC; 2–8 Hz; 0 to 0.4 s; 10 central electrodes) were extracted. For each participant, we binned single-trial confidence ratings and single-trial phase

coherence according to the magnitude of prestimulus alpha power into four bins (non-overlapping;

same trial number across bins), followed by averaging across trials per bin. We then fitted linear

functions to model changes in mean confidence ratings and mean single-trial phase coherence as a

function of the increasing alpha power bin number (using the polyfit function in Matlab), and tested

linear fit coefficients against zero (using one-sample t-tests).

Second, since binning one variable according to the magnitude of a second variable might

depend on the number of bins used (Wainer et al., 2006), we backed up our statistical analyses by

exploratory analyses (i.e., exploring the entire time-frequency-electrode space for significant effects)

using cluster-based permutation test (Maris and Oostenveld, 2007) with continuous (non-binned)

predictors. In detail, we applied a two-level statistical approach (Obleser et al., 2012): On the first

(single-subject) level, we used an independent samples regression t-test, to regress time-frequency

representations (–0.5 to 1.5 s relative to S1 onset; 1–20 Hz; all 22 electrodes) of single-trial phase

coherence (1–jITPC) and oscillatory power on single-trial prestimulus alpha power and confidence

ratings, respectively. This procedure resulted in two time-frequency-electrode spaces of t-values for

each participant, which were tested against zero using two cluster-based permutation dependent-

samples t-test on the second (group) level. These tests clustered t-values of adjacent bins with p-

values < 0.05 (minimum cluster size: 3 adjacent electrodes) and compared the summed t-statistic of

the observed cluster against 5,000 randomly drawn clusters from the same data with permuted

condition labels. The p-value of a cluster corresponds to the proportion of Monte Carlo iterations in

which the summed t-statistic of the observed cluster is exceeded (one-tailed).

Bayes Factor analysis and Effect sizes. For ANOVAs and t-tests we calculate the *Bayes Factor* (*BF*),

using R studio (Version 1.0.136) and the *BayesFactor* package with the default parameters

implemented in the *anovaBF* and *ttestBF* functions. In essence, a *BF* close to 1 indicates that the data

are equally plausible under the null and alternative model, while *BF* < 0.33 begins to lend support to

the null model, and *BF* > 3 begins to lend support to the alternative model (Jeffreys, 1939).

As effect sizes, we report partial eta-squared (η^2_P) for repeated-measures ANOVAs, and *r*-

equivalent (bound between 0 and 1; Rosenthal and Rubin, 2003) for t-tests.

Results

Neural oscillatory dynamics and confidence in the discrimination of identical tones. Before investigating the relationship between neural oscillatory dynamics and participants' confidence ratings, we performed descriptive analyses on both of these measures, separately. The neural measures of interest in this study were prestimulus alpha power (8–12 Hz, –0.4 to 0 s) and auditory-evoked low-frequency phase coherence (2–8 Hz, 0 to 0.4 s), which were most prominent at respective centro-parietal and fronto-central electrodes (Fig. 1B).

Figure 1. Task design and behavioural and neural variables of interest. (A) Participants had the task to discriminate the pitch of two identical sine tones (650 Hz, 150 ms duration) and to rate their confidence in the decision. A fixation cross was shown throughout the trial. The response screen was only shown in trials including feedback. (B) Grand average absolute oscillatory power (top) and inter-trial phase coherence (bottom) across *n* = 17 participants and 22 scalp electrodes. Topographic maps show the spatial distribution of both measures. (C) Grey bars and dashed lines show average and single-subject proportions of responses, respectively. For further analyses, responses were transformed to low (responses 3 & 4), medium (responses 2 & 5), and high confidence (responses 1 & 6), indicated by orange bars. Error bars show ±1 SEM. (D) While previous research has shown that prestimulus alpha power relates to confidence ratings indirectly, i.e., in the context of varying evidence in the stimulus and varying performance (grey box), we asked whether a more direct link (red) could be established in a situation where no evidence is present in the stimulus and thus performance does not

vary. Furthermore, the present study also tested for a possible indirect link, mediated by the stimulus-evoked neural

response (dashed line).

In the end of each trial, participants judged which one of two tones they perceived as being

higher in pitch and how confident they were in this decision, by pressing one button on a 6-point

scale, ranging from 1 (first tone, S1, clearly higher in pitch) to 6 (second tone, S2, clearly higher in

pitch). Average proportions of responses did not differ significantly for the six response options (Fig.

1C; repeated-measures ANOVA; Greenhouse-Geisser $\varepsilon = 0.39$; $F_{5,80} = 2.08$; $p = 0.142$; $\eta^2_P = 0.12$; $BF = $

1.36).

As we reported before in Waschke et al. (2017), proportions of responses 1–3 (indicating higher

pitch of S1) were larger than proportions of responses 4–6 (indicating higher pitch of S2; $t_{16} = 2.89$; p

$= 0.01$; $r = 0.59$; $BF = 5.1$). This indicates a general bias to judge the first of two identical tones as being

higher in pitch. For further analyses, responses were converted to low confidence (responses 3 & 4),

medium confidence (responses 2 & 5), and high confidence (responses 1 & 6), irrespective of whether

S1 or S2 was perceived as being higher in pitch (Fig. 1C, orange bars).

Prestimulus alpha power predicts confidence in pitch discrimination. The major objective of this

study was to test for a direct link of prestimulus alpha power and confidence in a task without

potentially confounding effects of varying evidence in the stimulus and varying performance (red

solid line in Fig. 1D). Indeed, our results support the existence of such a link (Fig. 2A): With increasing

levels of prestimulus alpha power (8–12 Hz; –0.4 to 0 s; 10 central electrodes) confidence decreased

($t_{16} = -2.73$; $p = 0.015$; $r = 0.56$; $BF = 3.89$; significant also for 3 and 5 bins: $ps < 0.025$; $rs > 0.5$; $BFs > 3$).

To explore the specificity of this effect in time-frequency-electrode space, we performed a cluster

permutation test to regress single-trial power on single-trial confidence ratings. The test revealed

one negative cluster close to statistical significance (Fig. 2B; cluster p-value = 0.061), which was

limited to the prestimulus time range and to the alpha frequency band. No additional significant

clusters were found (all $ps > 0.25$).

Despite the fact that the extent of a cluster in time-frequency-electrode space depends on

various parameters of the cluster test and should be interpreted with care (Maris and Oostenveld,

2007), the temporal extent of this cluster clearly suggests that it does not result from temporal

smearing of post-stimulus activity due to the width of the time window used for time-frequency

analysis: First, the significant cluster includes virtually only prestimulus time points, whereas

temporal smearing should be symmetrical and would thus smear a post-stimulus effect also into the

post-stimulus time range. Second, the cluster starts more than 200 milliseconds before stimulus

onset and thus before the earliest time point that might be affected by temporal back-smearing of

post-stimulus activity. (The analysis window with a width of 4 cycles centred at stimulus onset ranges from −200 to +200 ms for a 10-Hz alpha oscillation.)

Figure 2. Prestimulus alpha power relates to confidence and auditory-evoked phase coherence. (A) Relationship between prestimulus alpha power and confidence. Left: Bars show mean confidence for four bins of increasing prestimulus alpha power (8–12 Hz; −0.4 to 0 s; 10 central electrodes). Confidence was normalized for each subject by subtraction of average confidence across all alpha power bins. Middle: Orange lines show individual participant's linear fits to confidence as a function of increasing alpha power bin number. Thick line shows the average fit. Right: Bar and dots shows average and individual linear fit coefficients, respectively, which were significantly smaller than zero; * $p < 0.05$. Error bars show ±1 SEM. (B) Result of a cluster permutation test, which regressed single-trial oscillatory power on single-trial confidence. The black outline indicates a negative cluster ($p = 0.061$), which shows decreasing prestimulus alpha power with increasing confidence. (C) Same as (A) but for stimulus-evoked phase coherence (2–8 Hz; 0 to 0.4 s; 10 central electrodes), which decreased as a function of increasing prestimulus alpha power; *** $p < 0.001$. (D) A cluster permutation test, which regressed single-trial phase-coherence estimates on single-trial prestimulus alpha power, revealed a significant negative cluster (black outline; $p < 0.001$).

Stimulus-evoked activity does not mediate relation of prestimulus alpha and confidence. Note that the most important result of the present study, i.e., the negative relation of prestimulus alpha power and confidence, could be an indirect one. The effect of prestimulus alpha power on confidence might be entirely or partly mediated by the intermittent stimulus-evoked neural response (dashed line in Fig. 1D) that follows upon such a prestimulus alpha state.

A first, necessary but not sufficient precondition for such a mediation would be a significant relation between prestimulus alpha power (8–12 Hz; −0.4 to 0 s; 10 central electrodes) and the stimulus-evoked response (2–8 Hz; 0 to 0.4 s; 10 central electrodes). This was the case. We binned the stimulus-evoked response for alpha power, which revealed a significant negative relationship

(Fig. 2C; $t_{16} = -4.11$; $p < 0.001$; $r = 0.72$; $BF = 44.94$; significant also for 3 and 5 bins: $ps < 0.005$; $rs > 0.6$; $BFs > 10$). To further explore the specificity of this effect in time-frequency-electrode space, we regressed single-trial phase coherence on single-trial prestimulus alpha power. A cluster permutation test confirmed the negative effect of prestimulus alpha power on the stimulus-evoked phase coherence in low frequencies (Fig. 2D; significant cluster p-value < 0.001). No additional significant clusters were found (all $ps > 0.4$).

A second necessary precondition for the stimulus-evoked response as a mediator of the prestimulus alpha-confidence relation would be a substantial reduction of this relation under statistical control for the stimulus-evoked response (e.g., Baron and Kenny, 1986).

This, however, was not the case, ruling out a mediated relationship. In detail, we first eliminated variance in prestimulus alpha power and confidence explained by the stimulus-evoked response through regression of these two variables on single-trial phase coherence, using two linear regressions for each participant. We then performed the same binning analysis used before to model residuals of confidence ratings for the binned residuals of alpha power, which again yielded a significant negative relation ($t_{16} = -2.78$; $p = 0.013$; $r = 0.57$; $BF = 4.23$; significant also for 3 and 5 bins: $ps < 0.015$; $rs > 0.55$; $BFs > 4.8$). Thus, the relationship between prestimulus alpha power and confidence was not reduced under control for the stimulus-evoked response and thus not mediated.

For completeness, we also tested whether the stimulus-evoked response was related directly to confidence. First, binning of confidence for single-trial stimulus-evoked phase coherence revealed no significant linear relationship (for 3–5 bins; $ps > 0.2$; $rs < 0.35$, $BFs < 0.55$). Neither did a cluster permutation test regressing single-trial phase coherence on single-trial confidence (all cluster p-values > 0.15).

Prestimulus alpha power does not predict decision outcome. Finally, it might be that prestimulus alpha power is not only related to confidence but also to the actual pitch discrimination outcome (i.e., experience of the first vs. the second tone as being higher in pitch). We performed two analyses to test this. First, binning the proportion of decisions in favour of S1 as being higher in pitch according to prestimulus alpha power revealed no significant linear relationship ($t_{16} = -0.92$; $p = 0.37$; $r = 0.22$; $BF = 0.36$; non-significant also for 3 and 5 bins: $ps > 0.3$; $rs < 0.3$; $BFs < 0.4$). Second, a cluster permutation test to regress oscillatory power on decisions for S1 versus S2 as being higher in pitch did not reveal any significant clusters (all $ps > 0.3$).

Discussion

Recently, evidence has accumulated that prestimulus alpha power might influence metacognitive measures in the aftermath of a stimulus, such as confidence in perceptual decisions close to threshold. Here, we demonstrate (i) that this relation does not hinge on potential confounds of varying evidence in the stimulus in favour of a particular decision or varying task performance across trials; (ii) that this relation is not simply mediated by differences in the stimulus-evoked neural response; and (iii) that this effect, and notably its direction, surfaces in the auditory modality just as it did for vision and somatosensation before. These findings lend plausibility and parsimony to the suggested mechanistic role of alpha oscillations in the accumulation and weighting of perceptual evidence.

Direct link between prestimulus alpha power and confidence. Although our participants heard two instances of the very same tone on each trial, they reported perception of pronounced pitch differences after the experiment and did not raise concerns regarding the true nature of our stimuli. Together with previous work on perception of differences between identical stimuli, this speaks to the feasibility of such a task structure (Amitay et al., 2006, 2013; Bernasconi et al., 2011). Although it is controversial what factors make a participant report high (versus low) confidence in a decision, confidence likely relates to a participant's subjective experience that the made decision is correct, given the evidence (Pouget et al., 2016).

The most important finding of the present study is the substantial negative relation of a participant's prestimulus alpha power on the one hand and confidence in the pitch discrimination of two identical tones on the other (Fig. 2A,B). A similar prestimulus alpha power-confidence relationship has been established before in the visual (e.g., Samaha et al., 2017) and somatosensory modality (Craddock et al., 2017), however, only in context of varying physical evidence in the stimulus and varying task accuracy, which both typically covary with confidence.

While previous studies have aimed for statistical control of these potential confounds, we eliminated these altogether. Our results substantiate that prestimulus alpha power relates directly to decision confidence, i.e., independent of varying evidence in the stimulus or varying task performance.

Although no statistical inference about the direction of the link between prestimulus alpha power and confidence can be made based on our correlational results, the temporal succession speaks to an effect of prestimulus alpha power on confidence. Future studies might investigate the direction of this link directly, by testing the effect of transcranially stimulated alpha oscillations (using transcranial alternating current stimulation; Herrmann et al., 2013) on decision confidence. As a note of caution, however, a recent study found an experimental modulation of response criterion to result

in modulation of prestimulus alpha power (Kloosterman et al., 2018), which might suggest that the

observed link is in fact bi-directional.

Our results somewhat diverge from a recent study by Benwell et al., (2017b). There, the negative

relation between prestimulus alpha power and perceptual awareness ratings in a luminance

discrimination task decreased with smaller degrees of evidence in the stimulus, and it even

disappeared for trials in which no stimulus (and thus no evidence) was presented. The present study

exclusively contained trials without evidence available in the stimulus (except for the pre-

experiment adaptive tracking procedure). Thus, our participants likely adapted to this situation such

that even small subjectively experienced pitch differences (Micheyl et al., 2009) were sufficient to

induce considerably varying levels of confidence. Such an adaptation is arguably less likely if trials

with relatively large degrees of evidence in the stimulus are included in the experiment.

A mechanistic role for prestimulus alpha power in perception. In line with prior research (e.g.,

Brandt and Jansen, 1991; Becker et al., 2008) we found a negative relation between prestimulus

alpha power and the stimulus-evoked neural response, assessed here by single-trial phase

coherence (Richter et al., 2015). This finding agrees with the proposed inhibitory role of high alpha

power (Jensen and Mazaheri, 2010; Strauß et al., 2014), which is thought to decrease neural

excitability, reflected in a reduced response to sensory stimulation. It has been proposed that the

neural sensory response scales quadratically (i.e., inverted U-shape) with signatures of neural

sensitivity, such as prestimulus alpha power (Rajagovindan and Ding, 2011; Kloosterman et al., 2018).

The linear relation observed here (Fig. 2C) does not speak against such a quadratic relationship per

se; it might be that the range of prestimulus alpha power values was too small to reveal the full

quadratic effect.

According to an adapted signal-detection model (Iemi et al., 2017; Samaha et al., 2017) higher

neural baseline excitability for sensory discrimination does not increase the difference in the neural

representation of to-be-discriminated stimuli, but rather increases the overall neural representation

and thus evidence for both decision outcomes.

Behavioural work has demonstrated how stimulus intensity relates to confidence: In two

experiments, Zylberberg et al., (2012) revealed that "confidence was influenced by evidence for the

selected choice but was virtually blind to evidence for the non-selected choice"[1]. In the present

study, lower prestimulus alpha power likely enhanced neural baseline excitability, which increased

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[1] Cited from Zylberberg A, Barttfeld P, Sigman M (2012) The construction of confidence in a perceptual decision. Front
     Integr Neurosci 6 Available at: http://journal.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fnint.2012.00079/abstract.

the evidence for both decision outcomes (see Fig. 3). This enhanced evidence subsequently
increased the confidence for the selected choice (i.e., first versus second tone being higher in pitch).
Of note, our results disagree with the alternative view, namely that prestimulus alpha power
would relate to precision of neural representations. According to this view, low prestimulus alpha
power should lead to more precise neural representation of the two identical tones. This, in turn,
should surface in lower confidence when participants are forced to make a choice regarding the
pitch difference, which is the opposite of what we observed here.
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Figure 3. Results of present study and underlying mechanistic relations. (A) Graphical summary of the obtained
results. Prestimulus alpha power significantly relates to confidence and to the stimulus-evoked response. Negative signs
of *r*-equivalent effect sizes are to indicate that both of these relations were negative. (B) A simple mechanistic model to
explain the observed results. Prestimulus alpha power is thought to reflect the inverse of neural baseline excitability. With
increasing baseline excitability (i.e., decreasing prestimulus alpha power), the overall neural representation of the stimulus
is amplified, which increases the evidence for both decision outcomes (i.e., decision of the first versus second tone as being
higher in pitch). Since the confidence in a perceptual decision scales positively with the evidence for the selected choice,
confidence increases with higher degrees of evidence.
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Although higher baseline excitability surfaces in enhanced measures of metacognition such as
confidence in several paradigms including the present one, effects on task accuracy or perceptual
sensitivity are possible. During spatial attention, two sources of alpha power can be differentiated in
the contra- versus ipsilateral hemisphere, which are thought to modulate baseline excitability for
respective stimuli on the attended versus ignored side (e.g., Worden et al., 2000; Haegens et al., 2011;
Wöstmann et al., 2016). With such separate alpha sources, low contra- and high ipsilateral alpha
power enhance excitability for the attended as opposed to the ignored stimulus, which increases
evidence for the attended stimulus only. A recent study supports this view (Wöstmann et al., n.d.):
Transcranial stimulation of alpha (versus gamma) oscillations in the left hemisphere decreased recall
accuracy of auditory targets presented on the right side.
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Prestimulus alpha power and confidence in auditory decisions. Virtually all prior studies to demonstrate the relationship between prestimulus alpha power and metacognitive awareness used near threshold visual or somatosensory tasks (for evidence of prestimulus influences on auditory perception, see Kayser et al., 2016). In one previous study, we found that participants' confidence in a speech comprehension task was negatively related to alpha power. This however occurred post- not prestimulus onset and in a task where confidence and accuracy did covary strongly (Wöstmann et al., 2015).

It might seem unsurprising that the present study conceptually replicates in the auditory modality previously shown effects of prestimulus alpha power on confidence. However, the net alpha power measured in human EEG is clearly dominated by visual and parietal alpha, which reflects in pervasive maximal alpha power modulation in occipito-parietal regions, even in auditory attention and memory tasks (e.g., Lim et al., 2015; Wöstmann et al., 2015, 2017). Compared to tasks in the visual modality, auditory tasks often reverse the modulation of visual alpha power rather than exhibiting an effect on auditory alpha power (e.g., Fu et al., 2001; Strauß et al., 2014).

Furthermore, existence and function of spontaneous alpha oscillations in auditory regions is a matter of debate (Lehtelä et al., 1997), although evidence in favour of auditory alpha generators has been demonstrated by source-projected spectral activation profiles (Keitel and Gross, 2016) and electrocorticographic recordings from auditory cortical regions (Gomez-Ramirez et al., 2011; for a review see e.g. Weisz et al., 2011). In the present study, maximum prestimulus alpha modulation in relation to confidence was observed at central electrodes (Fig. 2B). This is at least circumstantial evidence against purely visual or supramodal parietal alpha power modulation (Banerjee et al., 2011) but rather speaks to alpha power modulation in sensory-specific, auditory regions.

Conclusions

To understand the mechanistic relevance of patterns of neural activity in general and alpha oscillations in particular, it is inevitable to relate these as precisely as possible to changes in human behaviour. We here demonstrate that prestimulus alpha power directly predicts auditory decision confidence, and that this link does not depend on changing evidence in the physical stimulus or on changes in task performance. These results support an amodal model of cortical alpha oscillations as a proxy for neural baseline excitability in which lower prestimulus alpha power does not lead to more precise but rather to overall amplified neural representations.

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