Neural desynchronization and arousal differentially shape brain states for optimal sensory performance

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Instantaneous brain states have consequences for our sensation, perception, and behaviour. Both fluctuations in arousal and in neural desynchronization likely pose perceptually relevant states. However, their relationship and their relative impact on perception is unclear. We here provide evidence that, at the single-trial level in humans, desynchronization in sensory cortex (expressed as time series entropy) and pupil-linked arousal differentially impact optimal perceptual processing. While we recorded electroencephalography (EEG) and pupillometry data, stimuli of a demanding auditory discrimination task were presented into states of high or low desynchronization of auditory cortex via a real-time closed-loop setup. Desynchronization and arousal distinctly influenced stimulus-evoked activity and shaped behaviour displaying an inverted u-shaped relationship: States of intermediate desynchronization elicited minimal response bias and fastest responses, while states of intermediate arousal gave rise to highest response sensitivity. Our results speak to a model in which independent states of global arousal and local desynchronization jointly optimise sensory processing and performance.

Introduction

The way we sense and perceive our environment is not determined by physical input through the senses alone. The dynamics of ongoing brain activity affect the build-up of sensory representations and our conscious perception of the physical world. Recently, instantaneous fluctuations of both pupil-linked arousal (e.g., Lee et al., 2018; McGinley, Vinck, et al., 2015; Pfeffer et al., 2018) and neural desynchronization (e.g., Curto, Sakata, Marguet, Itskov, & Harris, 2009; Marguet & Harris, 2011a; Pachitariu, Lyamzin, Sahani, & Lesica, 2015) and have been highlighted as sources of such sensory and perceptual variations: Arousal and cortical desynchronization are two ways of characterizing the brain state, which strongly influences sensory cortical responses, the encoding of information, and thus perception and ultimately behaviour.

Pupil-linked arousal, which likely represents locus coeruleus-norepinephrine activity (LC–NE; e.g. Aston-Jones & Cohen, 2005), has been shown to influence sensory evoked activity (Gelbard-Sagiv, Magidov, Sharon, Hendler, & Nir, 2018; McGinley, David, & McCormick, 2015; McGinley, Vinck, et al., 2015) and the processing of task-relevant information (Lee et al., 2018; Murphy, Vandekerckhove, & Nieuwenhuis, 2014). Despite evidence for an inverted u-shaped relation of LC–NE activity to performance long suspected from the Yerkes-Dodson law (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908), the precise associations between arousal, sensory processing, and behaviour are underspecified: Although optimal performance at intermediate levels of arousal has reliably been observed (Faller, Cummings, Saproo, & Sajda, 2019; McGinley, David, et al., 2015; McGinley, Vinck, et al., 2015; Murphy et al., 2014), reports of linear effects on performance (Gelbard-Sagiv et al., 2018) or evoked activity (Neske & McCormick, 2018) in different tasks and species complicate this picture.

In a separate line of experimental work in non-human animals, relatively high neural desynchronization yielded improved encoding and representation of visual (Beaman, Eagleman, & Dragoi, 2017; Goard & Dan, 2009; Pinto et al., 2013) as well as auditory input (Marguet & Harris, 2011a; Pachitariu et al., 2015; Sakata, 2016). Such periods of desynchronization are characterized by reduced noise correlations in population activity, and these patterns are commonly referred to as desynchronized cortical states. They likely result from a net increase of inhibition (Haider, Häusser, & Carandini, 2012; Renart et al., 2010). Although desynchronization and perceptual performance are positively linked in general (Beaman et al., 2017; Speed, Del Rosario, Burgess, & Haider, 2019), the exact shape of their relationship (linear vs. quadratic) is unclear. Most notably, evidence for a similar mechanism in humans has remained elusive.

At first glance paradoxically, a tight link of pupil size and desynchronization has been claimed (McGinley, David, et al., 2015; Vinck, Batista-Brito, Knoblich, & Cardin, 2015), while both measures have also been found to be locally unrelated (Beaman et al., 2017; Okun, Steinmetz, Lak, Dervinis, & Harris, 2018). As of now, pupil-linked arousal and cortical desynchronization may or may not be distinct signatures of the same underlying process: Varying noradrenergic and cholinergic activity could influence both, local cortical activity and the more global measure of pupil size via afferent projections from brain-stem nuclei (Harris & Thiele, 2011).

In sum, it is, first, unclear how pupil-linked arousal and cortical desynchronization precisely shape sensory processing and perceptual performance in

humans. Second, the interrelation of both measures and their potentially shared underlying process of formation lacks specification.

Here, we set out to test the relationship of desynchronized cortical states and pupil-linked arousal, and to specify their relative impact on sensory processing and perception in healthy human participants. We recorded EEG and pupillometry while participants performed a challenging auditory discrimination task. Of note, a closed-loop real-time algorithm calculated on-line an information theoretic proxy of cortical desynchronization (weighted permutation entropy, WPE; Fadlallah, Chen, Keil, & Príncipe, 2013; Waschke, Wöstmann, & Obleser, 2017) based on EEG signal arising predominantly from auditory cortices. Of note, WPE as a proxy of desynchronization is tailored to the analysis of electrophysiological time series: It captures oscillatory as well as non-oscillatory contributions as a time-resolved estimate of desynchronization (see methods for details).

We used this ongoing measure of desynchronization to trigger stimulus presentation during relatively synchronized and desynchronized states, respectively. A continuously adapting criterion enabled us to sample the whole desynchronization state space (Jazayeri & Afraz, 2017). We used generalized linear-mixed-effects models to evaluate the interrelation of pre-stimulus desynchronization with simultaneously acquired pupil-linked arousal as well as their influence on sensory-evoked activity. Furthermore, we employed psychophysical models to evaluate the impact of desynchronization and arousal on perceptual sensitivity, response criterion, and response speed.

Cortical desynchronization and pupil-linked arousal did not only shape the ongoing EEG activity into distinct states, but also differentially influenced sensory processing at the level of single trials: Phase-locked activity in low frequencies as well as sensory-evoked gamma power over auditory cortices increased with pre-stimulus desynchronization. On the other hand, sensory-evoked low-frequency power rose with pre-stimulus arousal. Response criteria and speed exhibited an inverted u-shaped relationship with desynchronization corresponding to minimal bias and fastest responses at intermediate levels. A similar relationship was found for arousal and sensitivity, revealing highest sensitivity at intermediate arousal levels.

Our results speak to a model in which both global arousal states and local desynchronization states jointly influence sensory processing and performance. While fluctuations in arousal should be realized by afferent cholinergic and noradrenergic projections into sensory cortical areas, desynchronization states on the other hand might result from efferent feedback connections.

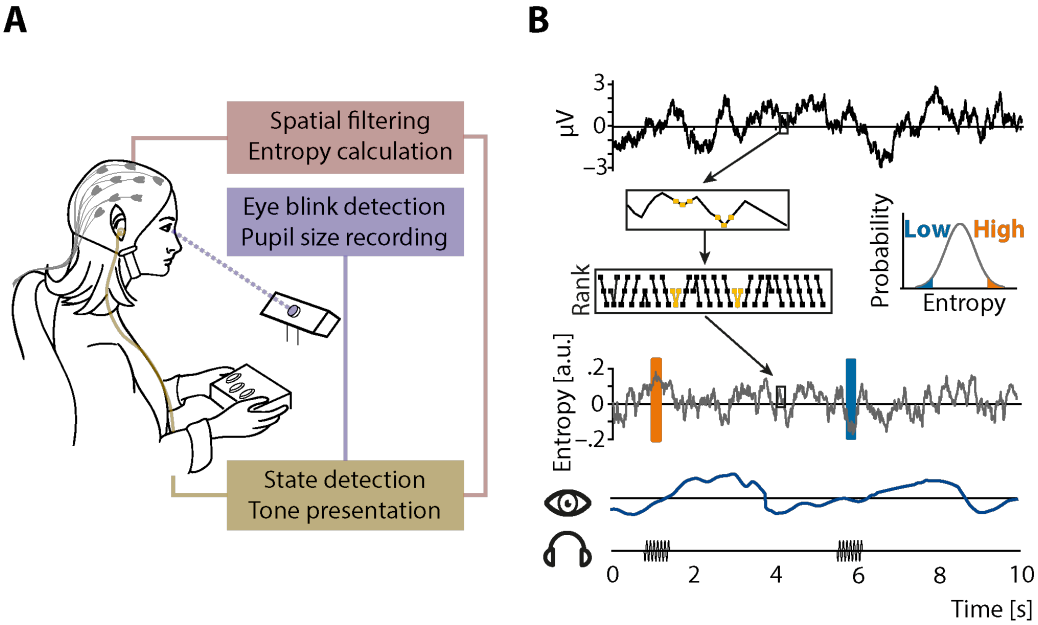

Figure 1. Illustration of the real-time closed-loop setup to track states of desynchronization (**A**) Setup: EEG signal was spatially filtered before entropy calculation. Pupil size was recorded and monitored consistently. Pure tone stimuli were presented via in-ear headphones during states of high or low entropy of the incoming EEG signal. (**B**) Schematic representation of the real-time algorithm: spatially filtered EEG signal (one virtual channel) was loaded before entropy was calculated using a moving window (200 samples) approach. Amplitude values were transformed into different rank-sequences (yellow), their frequency of occurrence was weighted by the relative variance of the corresponding EEG data. Each entropy value was calculated based on the resulting conditional probabilities of 200 samples, before the window was moved 10 samples forward (i.e., effectively down-sampling to 100 Hz). Inset: The resulting entropy time course was used to build a continuously updated distribution (forgetting window = 30 s). Ten consecutive entropy samples higher than 90% (or lower than 10%) of the currently considered distribution of samples defined high and low states, respectively.

Results

We recorded EEG and pupillometry while participants (n = 25; 19–31 years old) performed an auditory pitch discrimination task. On each trial participants were presented with one tone, taken from a set of seven pure tones (increasing pitch from tone 1 through tone 7), and had to decide whether that tone was rather high or low in pitch with regard to the set of tones. Participants thus compared each tone to an implicit standard, the median pitch of the set, which yielded in all participants a valid psychometric function mapping stimulus pitch to perceptual decisions (see Fig. 5–supplement 2).

Critically, by means of a real-time closed-loop algorithm (see Fig. 1), tones were presented during states of high or low entropy of auditory cortical EEG, a proxy of cortical desynchronization. We combined (generalized) linear mixed-effects models and psychophysical modelling to test the effects of cortical desynchronization as well as pupil-linked arousal on (1) ongoing and sensory evoked EEG activity and (2) perceptual performance.

Real-time closed-loop algorithm dissociates desynchronization states

Entropy of EEG signals emerging from auditory cortices was calculated with the help of an established, localizer-based spatial filter (see Fig. 2A; (de Cheveigne & Simon, 2008; Herrmann, Henry, Haegens, & Obleser, 2016; Herrmann, Maess, & Johnsrude, 2018a) and a custom real-time algorithm (Fig. 1). Source projection of localizer data which were used to construct the subject-specific spatial filters revealed predominantly auditory cortical regions (Fig. 2A).

Note that the distribution of entropy values which provided the basis for the classification of high vs. low desynchronization states was updated continuously, with two crucial effects. First, this approach minimized the potential impact of slow drifts in desynchronization on brain state classification. Second, the continuously updated criterion allowed us to effectively sample the whole state space of desynchronization states: Depending on the current distribution, the same entropy value could be classified as a high state, for example in the beginning of the experiment, and as a low state half an hour later. This focus on local, short-lived states resulted in widely overlapping pre-stimulus entropy distributions of high and low states (Fig. 2C).

Demonstrating the performance of the real-time algorithm, average entropy time courses were elevated for all classified-high compared to all classified-low states in a 300 ms pre-stimulus window (all $P < .001$, FDR corrected; Fig. 2B). Note that this result is non-trivial. Since we continuously updated the criterion for state detection, in theory, states classified online as high and low could have yielded the same average entropy across the entire experiment.

In contrast, pupil diameter time-courses did not differ between high and low states at any point in time (all $P > .1$) nor did the distributions of pre-stimulus pupil-diameters (Fig. 2C). Consequently, pupil size and entropy in the pre-stimulus time window were uncorrelated ($\beta = .007$, SE = .01, $P = .5$).

Most relevant to all further analyses, we conclude that states of cortical desynchronization in auditory cortex and pupil-linked arousal occurred independently of each other.

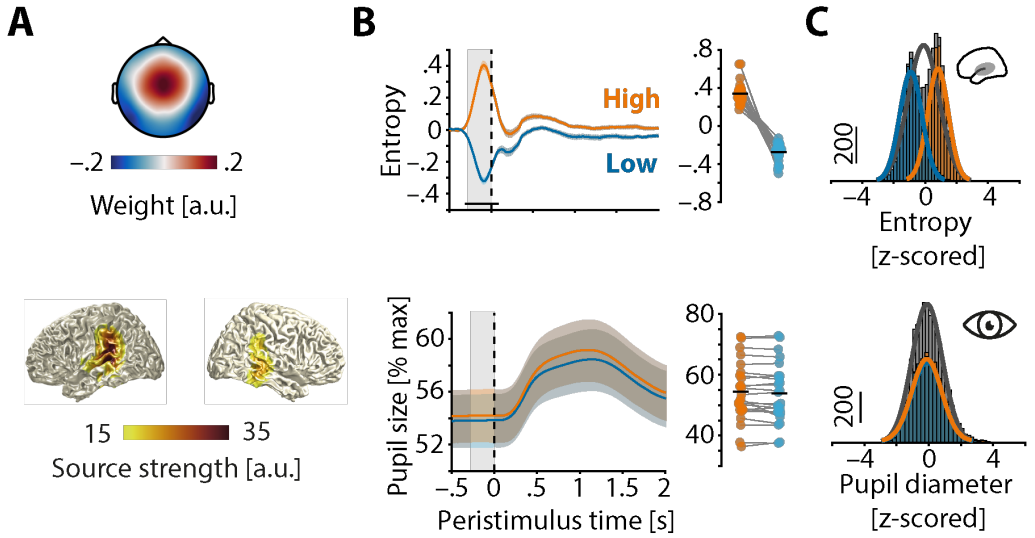

Figure 2. Evaluation of the real-time closed-loop setup for states of desynchronization and arousal (**A**) Grand average spatial filter weights based on data from an auditory localizer task (top) and grand average source projection of the same data (masked at 70% of maximum; bottom). (**B**) Grand average time-courses of entropy (upper panel) and pupil diameter (lower panel) for low-entropy (blue) and high-entropy states (orange) ± standard error of the mean (SEM). Subject-wise averages in the pre-stimulus time-window (-300–0 ms, grey boxes) in right panels. Entropy was logit transformed and baseline corrected to the average of the preceding 3 seconds. Pupil size was expressed as percentage of the maximum pupil diameter within the pre-stimulus time-window. (**C**) Histograms and fitted distributions of z-scored pre-stimulus entropy (top) and z-scored pupil size (bottom) for low-entropy states (blue), high-entropy states (orange), and both states combined (grey). Note the independence of entropy states and pupil states.

Cortical desynchronization and pupil-linked arousal pose distinct states of ongoing activity

To dissociate the corollaries of cortical desynchronization and pupil-linked arousal on ongoing EEG activity, we modelled pre-stimulus oscillatory power over auditory cortical areas as a function of pre-stimulus entropy and pupil diameter, respectively, using linear mixed-effects models. All analyses of ongoing or sensory-evoked EEG activity were carried out on the spatially filtered EEG signal, allowing us to concentrate on brain activity dominated by auditory cortical regions.

As expected based on the definition of entropy and earlier results (Waschke et al., 2017), these analyses revealed a negative relationship of entropy and oscillatory power within the pre-stimulus time window (-300–0 ms; see Fig. 3). With increasing pre-stimulus entropy, low-frequency pre-stimulus power decreased (1-12 Hz, $\beta = -.28$, SE = .01, $P < .00005$; supplementary table S1 for details). Gamma power (40–70 Hz) also decreased, although to a lesser degree ($\beta = -.16$, SE = .01, $P < .00005$; supplementary table S2). Gamma power was lowest at intermediate entropy levels (quadratic effect; $\beta = .03$, SE = .01, $P = .0003$). Entropy hence aptly approximated desynchronization.

Conversely, and underscoring a distinction of both measures, pupil dilation was associated with an increase in pre-stimulus low-frequency power (1–12 Hz, β = .03, SE = .01, *P* = .005) and a decrease in gamma power (40–70 Hz, β = -.03, SE = .01, *P* = .003; see Fig. 3). Put differently, in these stimulus-free periods in auditory cortex, low-frequency power was low given strong desynchronization, while it was high given large pupil-linked arousal. Notably, both patterns of results did not hinge on the exact choice of frequency ranges. High desynchronization states were thus characterized by reduced oscillatory broad-band power overall, while high arousal states were accompanied by an increase in low-frequency power and a decrease in higher-frequency power.

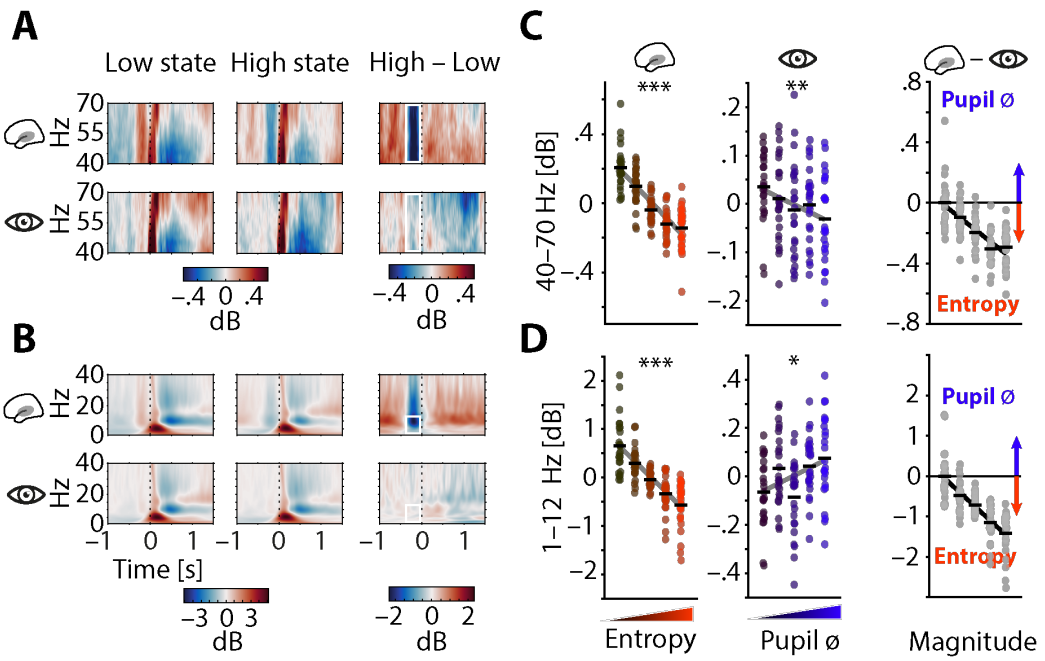

Figure 3. Impact of pre-stimulus entropy and pupil dilation on ongoing auditory cortical EEG activity. (**A**) Grand average gamma power across time (40–70 Hz, baselined to -1–0 s, in dB) for low states (left), high states (middle) and the difference between both (right). Entropy states shown in the upper, pupil states in the lower panel. Dashed line represents tone onset, white rectangle outlines the pre-stimulus window of interest. (**B**) As in (A) but for 0–40 Hz. (**C**) Mean centred single subject (dots) and grand average gamma power (black lines) in the pre-stimulus time-window (-.4–0 s, white rectangle) for five bins of increasing pre-stimulus entropy (left) and pupil size (middle). Grey line represents average fit, red colours show increasing entropy, blue colours increasing pupil size. Effects of entropy and pupil size are contrasted in the right panel. (**D**) As in (C) but for low-frequency power (1–12 Hz). All binning for illustrational purposes only. ***$P < .00005$, **$P < .005$, * $P < .01$

Differential effects of desynchronization and pupil-linked arousal on auditory evoked activity

Next, to investigate the influence of those pre-stimulus states on sensory processing, we tested the impact of cortical desynchronization and pupil-linked arousal in this pre-stimulus time window on auditory, stimulus-evoked EEG activity. Analogous to

the procedure outlined above, we used linear mixed-effects models to estimate the effects of entropy and pupil dilation on sensory evoked power and phase coherence over auditory cortices.

First, we found low-frequency single-trial phase coherence after stimulus onset, a measure quantifying the consistency of phase-locked responses on a trial-wise basis (see Methods for details), to increase with pre-stimulus entropy (1–8 Hz, 0–400 ms; $\beta = .0002$, SE = .00004, $P < .00005$, Fig. 4A, D). While it appeared necessary to include the alpha range (8–12 Hz) for the analysis of pre-stimulus activity (see above), stimulus-evoked activity is constrained to lower frequencies and we hence excluded the alpha range for the post-stimulus analysis.

Of note, there was no comparable relationship of pupil dilation and single-trial phase coherence (1-jITC, see methods for details; $\beta = -.00005$, SE = .00004, $P = .2$; see supplementary table S3 for details). Phase-locked responses hence increased with pre-stimulus cortical desynchronization but were unaffected by variations in arousal.

Second, we observed a linear increase of low-frequency power after stimulus onset, a common proxy of stimulus-induced activity, as a function of pre-stimulus pupil dilation (1–8 Hz, 0–400 ms; $\beta = .04$, SE = .009, $P = .00008$, Fig. 4B, E). In contrast, pre-stimulus entropy did not affect post-stimulus power ($\beta = -.008$, SE = .009, $P = .3$; supplemental table S4). Therefore, stimulus-induced activity increased with arousal but remained unaltered under changing levels of cortical desynchronization.

Third, we detected linearly increasing post-stimulus gamma power, representing early auditory evoked activity, with rising pre-stimulus entropy (40–70 Hz, 0–400 ms; $\beta = .05$, SE = .01, $P < .00005$, Fig. 4C, F). Conversely, post-stimulus gamma power decreased with growing pre-stimulus pupil dilation ($\beta = -.02$, SE = .01, $P = .03$; supplementary table S5). Auditory evoked gamma power hence was inversely influenced by two different measures of brain state: while it increased with cortical desynchronization, it decreased with growing arousal. Notably, neither desynchronization nor pupil dilation had any effect on the tone-evoked activity when expressed as event-related potentials (see Fig. S1).

Overall, single-trial auditory sensory evoked activity was differentially influenced by desynchronization and arousal. While only higher desynchronization was associated with increased phase-locked responses, only arousal was positively linked to stimulus-induced activity. In addition, with desynchronization showing a positive and arousal a negative link to stimulus-evoked gamma power, both measures exert opposite influences on the early processing of auditory information.

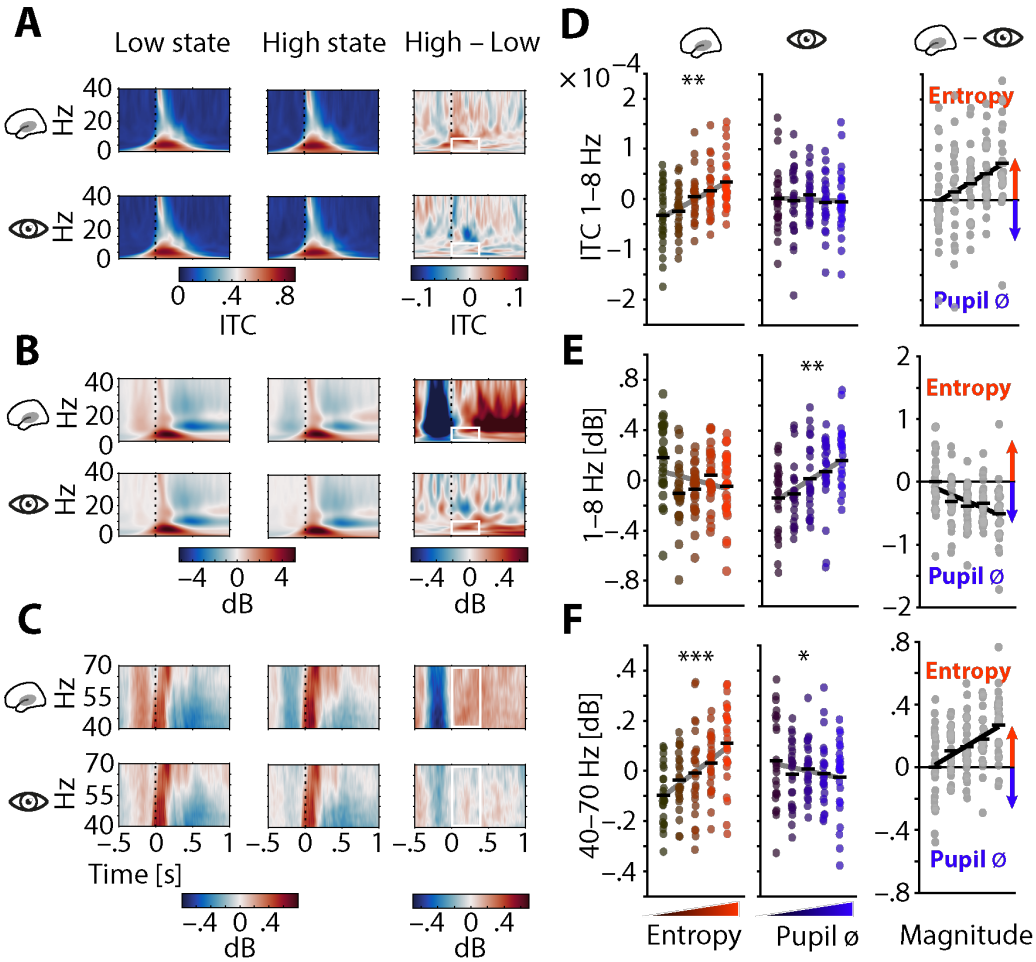

Figure 4. Influence of pre-stimulus entropy and pupil dilation on sensory-evoked activity. (**A**) Grand average ITC (0–40 Hz) across time for low states (left), high states (middle) and the difference of both (right). Entropy states shown in the upper, pupil states in the lower panel. Dashed black lines indicate tone onset, white rectangles the post-stimulus window of interest. (**B**) As in (A) but for low-frequency power (0–40 Hz, baselined to -1–0 s). (**C**) As in (B) but for gamma power (40–70 Hz). (**D**) Mean centred single subject (dots) and grand average ITC (black lines) in the post-stimulus time-window (0–.4 s, 1–8 Hz) for five bins of increasing pre-stimulus entropy (left) and pupil size (middle). Grey line represents average fit, red colours increasing entropy, blue colours increasing pupil size. Effects of entropy and pupil size are contrasted in the right panel. (**E**) As in (D) but for post-stimulus low-frequency power (0–.4 s, 1–8 Hz). (**F**) As in (E) but for post-stimulus gamma power (0–.4 s, 40–70 Hz). Again, all binning for illustrational purposes only. ***$P < .0001$, **$P < .005$, *$P < .05$

Figure supplement for figure 4. Grand average ERPs for increasing pre-stimulus entropy and pupil dilation

Desynchronization and arousal differently impact perceptual performance

To examine the impact of desynchronization and arousal on perceptual performance, we modelled binary response behaviour ("high" vs. "low") as a function of stimulus pitch, pre-stimulus desynchronization, and arousal using generalized linear mixed-effects models (see *Statistical analyses* for details). In brief, this statistical approach describes binary choice behaviour across the set of used tones and thus also yields a

psychometric function (PMF), but the generalized linear framework allows us to include the neural predictors of interest. Two parameters of the resulting functions were of interest to the current study: (1) the threshold of the PMF represents the response criterion; (2) the slope of the PMF expresses perceptual sensitivity. Additionally, we tested the influence of desynchronization and arousal on response speed (i.e., the inverse of response time, in s^{-1}).

Participants were least biased and answered fastest at intermediate levels of pre-stimulus desynchronization: pre-stimulus entropy displayed a negative quadratic relationship with response criterion (log odds (log OR) = -.07, SE = .02, P = .004; Fig. 5A, table S6) and response speed (β = -.007, SE = .003, P = .03; Fig.5 B, table S7). A reduced model that allowed the inclusion of single-subject effects as random slopes revealed that this negative quadratic effect of entropy on response criterion was observable in all subjects (see Fig. 5 A).

On the other hand, participants proved most sensitive at intermediate levels of arousal: pupil dilation exhibited negative linear as well as quadratic relations with sensitivity (linear: log OR = -.21, SE = -.07, P = .002; quadratic: log OR = -.13, SE = -.04, P = .003; table S6) but not with response speed (β = -.004, SE = .003, P = .2; Fig. 5 D, table S7). As above, a model including random slopes resulted in negative effects for the vast majority of participants (see Fig. 5 D). Highest sensitivity hence coincided with intermediate arousal and decreased from there.

Like pre-stimulus entropy, pupil dilation did covary with response criterion. However, the relationship was linearly decreasing (high arousal coincided with a decreased criterion; log OR = -.1, SE = .03, $P < .00005$; Fig 5 C, table S6) and lacked the marked quadratic relationship observed for pre-stimulus entropy (cf. Fig. 5A). The increase in bias with arousal was clearly driven by states of particularly high arousal.

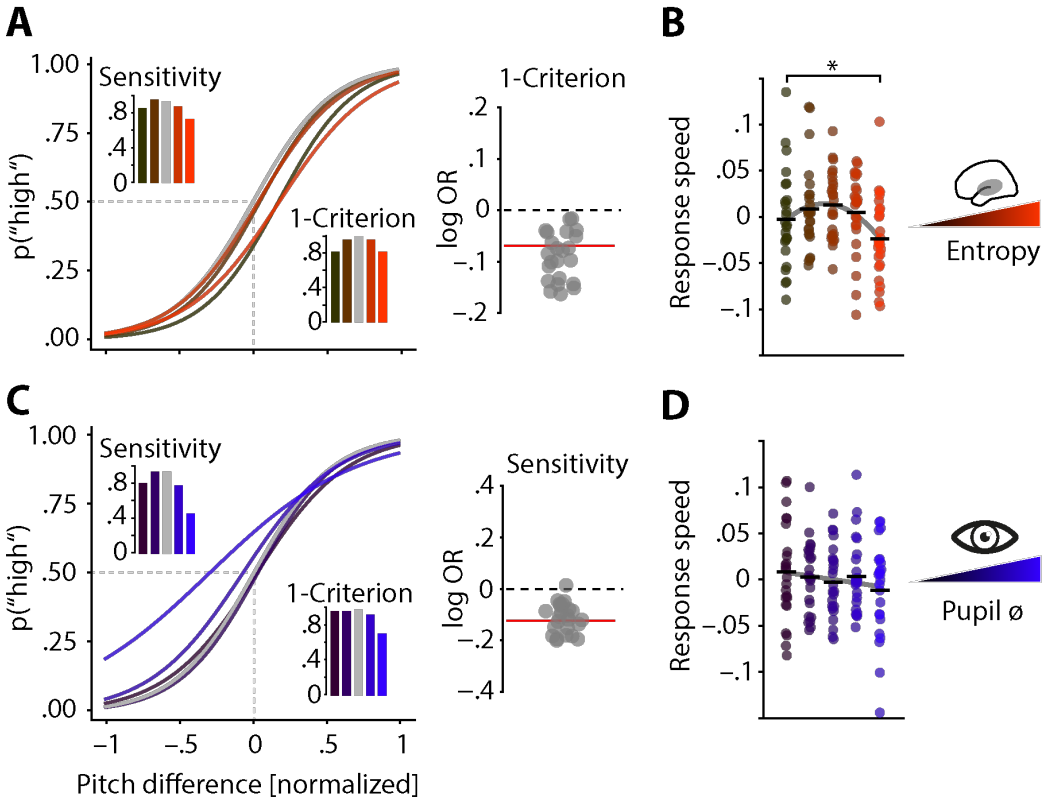

Figure 5. Effects of pre-stimulus entropy and pupil dilation on perceptual performance. (**A**) Fixed effects results: probability of judging one tone as "high" as a function of pitch difference from the median (normalized), resulting in psychometric functions for five bins of increasing entropy (red colours). Dashed Grey lines indicate bias free response criteria. Insets show sensitivity (upper) and criterion estimates (lower, expressed as 1-criterion). Right panel shows single subject log odds (log OR) for the quadratic relationship of pre-stimulus entropy and response criterion. (**B**) Single subject (dots) and average response speed (black lines) as a function of increasing pre-stimulus entropy (five bins). (**C**) As in (A) but for five bins of increasing pre-stimulus pupil dilation. Panel on the right shows single-subject log ORs for the quadratic relationship of pre-stimulus pupil dilation and sensitivity. (**D**) As in (B) but as a function of pre-stimulus pupil dilation. Again, all binning for illustration only. * $P < .05$

The following figure supplements are available for figure 5:

Figure 5–supplement 1. Comparison of results from different brain–behavior models.

Figure 5–supplement 2. Overview of fixed and random effects.

Figure 5–supplement 3. Single-participant psychometric functions.

Control analyses

Pre-stimulus oscillatory power in auditory cortex does not predict behavioural outcome in the auditory discrimination task. The substantial negative correlation of desynchronization states quantified by entropy on the one hand and low-frequency oscillatory power on the other (see Fig. 3; Marguet & Harris, 2011a; Waschke et al., 2017) prompted us to repeat the modelling of perceptual performance with pre-

stimulus power instead of entropy as a predictor. If entropy only represents the inverse of oscillatory power, effects should remain comparable but change their sign. Oscillatory power however was not significantly linked to behaviour (all $P > .5$) and including power as an additional predictor in the model of performance outlined above did not explain additional variance (model comparison, $\chi^2(1) = .64$, $P = .43$). Thus, cortical desynchronization but not oscillatory power was linked to perceptual performance.

Visuo-occipital entropy does not predict behavioural outcome in the auditory discrimination task. To test the cortico-spatial specificity of the outlined desynchronization states to the auditory domain, we repeated all analyses of stimulus-evoked activity and behaviour based on entropy as calculated from visuo-occipital channels. Specifically, we replaced auditory entropy with visual entropy before re-running all relevant models (see Methods for details).

Unsurprisingly, as these spatial filter weights yield imperfect renderings of local cortical activity, we observed a sizable correlation between this visuo-occipital entropy signal and the auditory entropy signal central to our analyses ($\beta = .40$, SE = .009, $P < .001$). However, since visual and auditory entropy were also sufficiently distinct (shared variance only $R^2 = 15$ %), more detailed analysed on their specific effects were warranted.

We first regressed this visuo-occipital entropy signal on pupil dilation and replicated the absence of a notable linear relationship ($\beta = .004$, SE = .01, $P = .7$) while a negative quadratic one was observable ($\beta = -.017$, SE = .006, $P = .003$). Relationships of pre-stimulus entropy over visual cortex with stimulus-evoked auditory activity generally displayed the same direction as for auditory cortex entropy (see Fig. 6A for summary).

Adding to the domain specificity of our main findings, however, visual cortex entropy was a markedly weaker predictor of single-trial phase coherence (model comparison compared to a model with auditory entropy; Bayes factor (BF_{A-V}) = 763), low-frequency power ($BF_{A-V} = 2.1$), and gamma power ($BF_{A-V} = 520$; see Fig. 6).

Furthermore, visual cortex entropy showed no relationship with response criterion (log OR = .01, SE = .03, $P = .7$; table S8). Its effect on response speed was qualitatively weaker ($\beta = -.003$, SE = .001, $P = .02$) than the one of auditory cortex entropy, which also explained the data better ($\beta = -.007$, SE = .003, $P = .03$, $BF_{A-V} = 17.5$). The influence of pre-stimulus desynchronization on stimulus processing and behaviour thus proves to be local in nature, and most selective to the sensory regions involved in the current task.

Discussion

This study tested the influence of cortical desynchronization and arousal on sensory processing and perceptual performance. We recorded EEG and pupillometry, and stimuli of a demanding auditory discrimination task were presented into states of high or low desynchronization of auditory cortex via a real-time closed-loop setup. Cortical desynchronization and pupil-linked arousal differentially affected ongoing EEG activity and had distinct effects on sensory-evoked responses. Furthermore, at the level of single trials, we find unbiased performance and highest response speed for stimuli presented during intermediate levels of pre-stimulus desynchronization, whereas intermediate arousal prior to a stimulus led to highest perceptual sensitivity.

Tracking of auditory cortical desynchronization in real-time

As revealed by the average spatial filter and the corresponding source projection (Fig. 2), the signal central to the present analyses mainly originated from auditory cortical areas. The state-detection algorithm we employed was based on entropy of the spatially filtered EEG signal and performed the desired state-dependent presentation with sufficient precision in time (Fig. 2 B): Although tone onset occurred approximately 90 milliseconds (ms) after the maximum or minimum in EEG entropy, it still took place during periods of strongly increased or reduced entropy, respectively. Importantly, the distribution used to classify those states in real-time was updated constantly, which ensured two important features: First, slow drifts in desynchronization over the course of the experiment were prevented from biasing the state classification. Second, we were able to sample, throughout the experiment, the whole desynchronization state space within each participant (Jazayeri & Afraz, 2017).

Cortical desynchronization and arousal differentially shape states of ongoing EEG activity

While there was a pronounced difference in EEG entropy between states of high and low desynchronization, illustrating the power of the used real-time algorithm, no such difference was found for the time course of pupil dilation (Fig. 2). Pupil dilation did not differ between desynchronization states at any point in time. This unexpected and striking independence of desynchronization and arousal represents a first, if only circumstantial, piece of evidence for the involvement of two rather than one mechanism in the generation of behaviourally relevant brain states.

Furthermore, changing degrees of desynchronization and arousal diversely manifested in the ongoing EEG: on the one hand, desynchronization was negatively related to oscillatory power over a wide range of frequencies in the pre-stimulus time window (Fig. 3). The strong negative relationship with low-frequency power replicates previous findings from our group (Waschke et al., 2017) and is tightly linked to the concept of entropy. A similar although considerably weaker negative relationship with high frequency power emphasizes the broad contributions of oscillatory dynamics on the estimation of EEG entropy. Notably, both increases (Niell & Stryker, 2010) and decreases in high-frequency power (Puig, Watakabe, Ushimaru, Yamamori, & Kawaguchi, 2010) during cortical desynchronization have been reported previously.

Here, synchronous activity in the EEG, regardless of its timescale and thus frequency, resulted in a reduction of entropy, illustrating its suitability as a marker of cortical desynchronization. On the other hand, pupil-linked arousal was positively linked to low-frequency power, a relationship frequently observed in invasive recordings of non-human animals (McGinley, Vinck, et al., 2015; Vinck et al., 2015). Additionally, arousal was weakly but significantly related to high-frequency power. This differs from previous reports of a positive relationship between gamma power of local field potentials (LFP) and pupil dilation in visual cortex (Vinck et al., 2015). Of note, Vinck and colleagues (2015) correlated pupil diameter and LFP gamma power over time within an event-locked time-period. In contrast, we related the average pupil diameter (expressed in % of the maximum dilation within each participant) in a pre-stimulus time-window to spontaneous EEG gamma power across trials. These differences in methodology might be the reason for the seeming disparity of effects.

Taken together, the distinct relationships that desynchronization and arousal exhibit with key frequency-domain measures of instantaneous EEG activity emphasize their independence. We take this as additional evidence for two distinct mechanisms of origin.

Neurophysiological and neuromodulatory processes of desynchronization and arousal

How plausible is this idea of at least two, to some degree separate drivers of perceptually relevant brain state? For a long time, LC–NE activity has been proposed to reflect changes in arousal and to be captured by variations in pupil dilation under constant light conditions (e.g. Aston-Jones & Cohen, 2005). Only recently, this assumption gained additional support by the observation of a direct link between pupil size and LC activity (Joshi, Li, Kalwani, & Gold, 2016). At the same time, afferent noradrenergic or cholinergic projections from brainstem nuclei into cortical areas have also been proposed as a source of varying states of desynchronization (Harris & Thiele, 2011). The widespread NE projections from LC (Aston-Jones & Cohen, 2005) are a likely cause for the demonstrable effects of NE-linked arousal on sensory encoding in both the auditory (McGinley, David, et al., 2015) as well as visual domain (Vinck et al., 2015). This line of thought would thus predict that arousal states should not differ substantially between different sensory cortical regions.

However, modulatory effects of arousal have been found to depend on the experimental context as well as on the sensory modality (Pakan et al., 2016; Shimaoka, Harris, & Carandini, 2018). One reason for the observed uncorrelatedness of desynchronization and arousal might thus lie in our focus on auditory cortical areas. However, a linear relationship between desynchronization over visual cortical areas and arousal was equally absent.

The absence of such a direct arousal–desynchronization link in the present data becomes more plausible if we take into account the important distinction between global and local brain states: While the overall level of arousal should have widespread but modality- and context-specific impact on sensory processing and behaviour (Aston-Jones & Cohen, 2005; McGinley, Vinck, et al., 2015), the desynchronization of local sensory neural populations might take place on top of and unrelated to those global changes (Beaman et al., 2017).

Such rather local and modality-specific changes in desynchronization have been assumed to arise from both thalamo- and cortico-cortical feedback connections that represent the allocation of selective attention (Harris & Thiele, 2011; Zagha, Casale, Sachdev, McGinley, & McCormick, 2013; Zagha & McCormick, 2014). More precisely, glutamatergic projections between thalamus, prefrontal, and sensory cortical areas might shape the local net degree of inhibition in populations of sensory neurons via AMPA and NMDA receptors and hence influence time-varying local desynchronization. In fact, contingent on the specific task structure, selective attention increases desynchronization in neurons with stimulus-related receptive fields but also across a broader range of task-relevant neurons (Cohen & Maunsell, 2009, 2011). In keeping with this, desynchronization over auditory but not visual cortical areas predicted sensory processing and performance (Fig. 6). An obvious next step would thus be to combine the present setup for desynchronization–dependent stimulation with manipulations of selective attention.

All things considered, the involvement of two mechanisms in the concomitant generation of desynchronization and arousal states appears likely. On the one hand, desynchronization states presumably are shaped by feedback connections that could result from fluctuations in selective attention. On the other hand, pupil-linked arousal states likely result from varying levels of LC–NE activity which is propagated via vast projections towards most regions of cortex and might be related to overall changes in the availability of cognitive resources. If cortical desynchronization and arousal indeed originate from two distinct processes that both entail functional and behavioural relevance, they should not only have differential effects on the processing of sensory information but also on perceptual performance — which is what we observed here, as discussed next.

Sensory processing and perceptual performance are distinctly affected by desynchronization and arousal states

Desynchronized cortical states have previously been associated with improved encoding of auditory stimuli, more reliable neural responses (Marguet & Harris, 2011b; Pachitariu et al., 2015), and improved perceptual performance (Beaman et al., 2017) in the rodent. Most recently, optogenetically induced synchronization has been shown to impair perception (Nandy, Nassi, & Reynolds, 2018). Arousal on the other hand has been linked to increased sensory processing of visual stimuli in mice (Neske & McCormick, 2018) and in humans (Gelbard-Sagiv et al., 2018). However, perceptual performance was found to be highest at either intermediate (McGinley, David, et al., 2015; Neske & McCormick, 2018) or maximum arousal levels (Gelbard-Sagiv et al., 2018).

In the current study, desynchronization and arousal had clearly dissociable effects not only on sensory processing but also on perceptual performance of human listeners at the single-trial level. On the one hand, increases in cortical desynchronization were associated with stronger phase-locked responses to presented tones and elevated sensory-evoked gamma power (Fig. 4). Additionally, intermediate desynchronization yielded fastest and minimally biased performance (Fig. 5). On the other hand, increased levels of arousal were linked to a rise in sensory-evoked low-frequency power (Fig. 4), and intermediate arousal levels yielded maximum sensitivity (Fig. 5). The clear dissociation of both states regarding their

influence on sensory processing receives even further support by the observed decrease in sensory-evoked gamma power that accompanied arousal.

Of note, the described association of desynchronization, stimulus-evoked activity and response criteria generally is in accordance with a number of recent studies researching the influence of pre-stimulus oscillatory power on perceptual decisions. Generally, pre-stimulus power in the EEG has been found to exert influence on choice behaviour over a relatively broad range of frequencies (Kayser, McNair, & Kayser, 2016). More specifically, however, alpha power (8–12 Hz) prior to stimulus onset has been tightly linked to changes in response criterion and confidence (Iemi, Chaumon, Crouzet, & Busch, 2017; Samaha, Iemi, & Postle, 2017; Wöstmann, Waschke, & Obleser, 2018). Pre-stimulus alpha power is hypothesized to represent changes in baseline excitability, linking it to response criteria following an inverted u-shaped relationship (Kloosterman et al., 2019; Rajagovindan & Ding, 2011). We deem it possible that those findings and the here reported connection of desynchronization and response criterion might at least partially trace back the same underlying mechanism: task- and attention-specific input to sensory cortical regions via efferent projections leading to a change in net inhibition.

Furthermore, although both measures of brain state were positively associated with EEG activity evoked by auditory stimuli, they affected phase-locked and non-phase-locked responses as well as behaviour in different ways (see Figure 6A for a summary of these dissociations). Of note, all effects on behaviour and sensory-evoked activity were not replicable when basing the analysis on visuo–occiptial entropy or on auditory oscillatory power instead, which underlines their specificity.

Effectively, desynchronization and arousal might interact separately with the two, long-debated building blocks of sensory evoked responses: phase resetting of low-frequency oscillations and additive activity in low frequencies (Sauseng et al., 2007; Shah et al., 2004). The observed increase of phase-locked responses under desynchronization replicates previous findings from our group (Waschke et al., 2017) and, combined with the observed increase in sensory-evoked gamma power, indicates enhanced early processing of auditory information. Tones thus led to a stronger phase-reset in states of higher desynchronization, which likely represents increased processing of fundamental stimulus features. By contrast, arousal rather intensified stimulus-induced activity, presumably representing the integration of external sensory evidence into an internal reference frame (Engel, Fries, & Singer, 2001). Accordingly, a tone should have a clearer early representation when processed during a state of higher auditory cortical desynchronization but should be integrated more precisely with reference to the set of tones in a state of higher arousal.

Importantly, this dissociation in neural sensory processing parallels a dissociation in behaviour and hence might rely on related mechanisms. First, the link of auditory cortical desynchronization and response criterion similarly suggests a change in the precision of representations depending on the current level of desynchronization. Furthermore, the impact of desynchronization on response speed points towards an analogical change in representation quality. Second, the influence of pupil-linked arousal on perceptual sensitivity speaks to alterations in the precision with which a presented tone is integrated into the internal reference system, i.e. the joint representation of the set of tones.

However, the respective direct relationships of desynchronization and arousal to perceptual performance exhibit a different shape than their respective links to sensory evoked activity. While all proxies of perceptual performance reached their maxima at intermediate levels of desynchronization and arousal, respectively, sensory evoked activity increased monotonically. When assuming a direct mapping of sensory-evoked activity to behaviour, the current pattern of results might appear unintuitive. However, a number of observations render the concomitance of maximum evoked activity and ideal performance unlikely. First, relatively highest levels of responsiveness in auditory cortical neurons overall can entail the loss of response specificity crucial for precise encoding and perception (Otazu, Tai, Yang, & Zador, 2009). In line with such reasoning, over-amplified responses to auditory stimuli have been linked to age-related decreases of cortical inhibition (Herrmann, Maess, & Johnsrude, 2018b). Short-lived decreases of net cortical inhibition that might coincide with periods of high desynchronization and arousal could in principle lead to a similar process of over-amplification and hence prove detrimental to sensory encoding and perception. Third, a recent experiment researching the impact of arousal on visual processing in mice yielded a highly similar pattern of results (Neske & McCormick, 2018). Neske & McCormick (2018) highlight the role of noradrenergic projections which might transmit task-related activity most efficiently at intermediate arousal levels (Aston-Jones & Cohen, 2005).

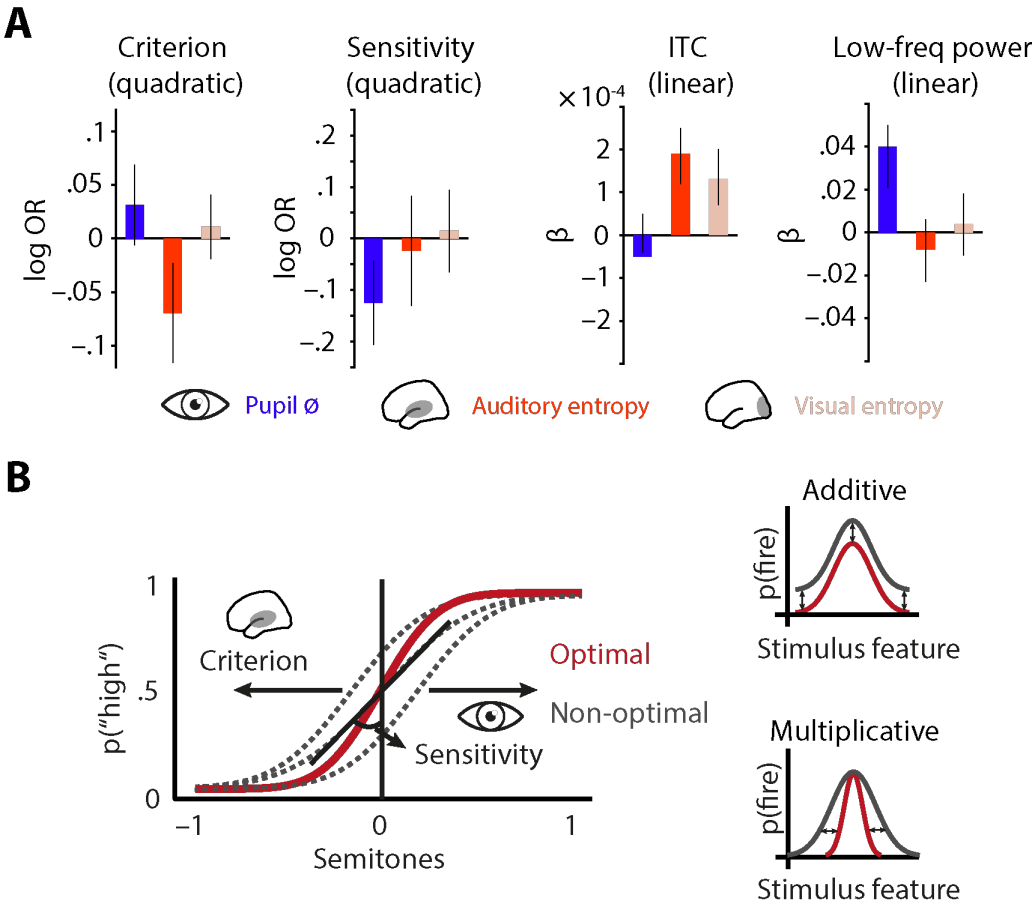

Figure 6. A tentative framework for distinct effects of local desynchronization (i.e., auditory entropy) and global arousal (i.e., pupil dilation) (**A**) Effect sizes (fixed effects, with 95-% confidence intervals) for the quadratic relationships of criterion and sensitivity with pupil dilation (blue), auditory cortex entropy (red) and visual cortex entropy (pale pink). (**B**) As in (A) but for the linear relationships of pupil dilation, auditory cortex entropy, and visual cortex entropy with ITC and sensory-evoked low-frequency power. (**C**) Illustrating the quadratic influence of entropy on response criterion and pupil dilation on sensitivity by means of an optimal psychometric function (bordeaux) and three non-optimal ones (dashed grey, left panel). Hypothesized population tuning curves in auditory cortex (right panel). Non-optimal cortical desynchronization might entail an additive effect on population tuning and hence decrease the populations SNR (top). Non-optimal arousal might implicate wider population tuning (bottom).

Two interrelated systems of local and global brain state jointly shape perception

We here have presented evidence for a joint role of cortical desynchronization and arousal in the formation of brain states optimal for perceptual performance. On the one hand we hypothesize arousal to shape global brain states via afferent noradrenergic projections and mostly influence sensitivity. On the other hand, we assume cortical desynchronization in task-related sensory areas to generate local states via attention-dependent feedback connections, impacting response criteria and speed (Fig. 6), and we intend to leave the reader with some testable speculations:

How could those two mechanisms find an implementation in populations of sensory neurons involved in a specific task? It has been suggested that the shared variability of neuronal populations and its impact on the responses of single neurons is shaped by an additive and a multiplicative source of variation in neural gain (Arieli, Sterkin, Grinvald, & Aertsen, 1996; Schölvinck, Saleem, Benucci, Harris, & Carandini, 2015). Whereas a multiplicative gain factor should lead to an overall change in tuning width, an additive factor should create an offset which is believed to differ between various neurons (Lin, Okun, Carandini, & Harris, 2015; Fig. 6). Instantaneous fluctuations of cortical activity, or cortical desynchronization, are believed to have an additive effect on evoked responses (Arieli et al., 1996). Furthermore, LC–NE activity exerts a multiplicative influence on the tuning of sensory neurons, leading to relatively sharper tuning during periods of arousal (Mather, Clewett, Sakaki, & Harley, 2016).

It is unlikely that either additive or multiplicative factors alone are the sole source of variability in sensory-evoked activity and behaviour (Lin et al., 2015). The present data imply a model in which selective attention and desynchronization primarily exert an additive influence on neural gain (Fig. 6B, top) and LC–NE activity and arousal impact neural gain in a multiplicative fashion (Fig. 6B, bottom).

In such a model, intermediate levels of desynchronization in auditory cortex are expected to result in an overall reduced probability of firing in response to an auditory stimulus. In contrast, relatively high or low levels of desynchronization should result in an overall elevated response (Fig. 6B, top). Optimal desynchronization states might result from the selective or "local" amplification of neural gain in task-relevant neurons as compared to an unspecific amplification during non-optimal states. This selective amplification might in turn lead to improved representations of sensory input and hence to improved response criteria (Fig. 6B, left). Intermediate levels of arousal on the other hand should form an optimal arousal state by narrowing tuning curves in comparison to states of lower or higher arousal (Fig. 6B, bottom). Narrower tuning should lead to more accurate integration of sensory evidence into an internal reference system and thus result in greater sensitivity.

Materials and Methods

Participants: 25 participants (19-31 years, mean age 24.6 years, ± 3.5 years SD; 10 male) with self-reported normal hearing took part in the experiment. Participants gave written informed consent and were financially compensated. None of the participants reported a history of neurological or otological disease. The study was approved by the local ethics committee of the University of Lübeck and all experimental procedures were carried out in accordance with the registered protocol.

Stimulus material: Sets of seven pure tones (±3 steps around1 kHz; step sizes determined individually, 100 ms duration, 10 ms rise and fall times, sampled at 44.1 kHz) for the main experiment and an additional set of 7 pure tones for the auditory localizer task were created using custom Matlab® code (R2017a; MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA). Initial stimulus frequencies consisted of six steps (±0.27, ±0.2, and ±0.14 semitones) around the median frequency (1 kHz) but were adjusted during an individual tracking procedure described below. Stimuli were presented via air conducting in-ear head phones (EARTONE 3A), Psychtoolbox and a low latency audio card (RME Audio). All stimuli were presented perfectly audible at a comfortable loudness level approximating 60 dB SPL.

General procedure: Participants were seated in a quiet room in front of a computer screen. First, they completed an auditory localizer task. Second, participants practiced the main task where, in every trial, they compared one tone against the set of seven tones regarding its pitch and difficulty was adjusted to keep performance at approximately 75 % correct. Finally, participants performed 10 blocks of pitch discrimination against an implicit standard (the median pitch, 1 kHz) while tone presentation was triggered by the detection of high or low desynchronization states as outlined below.

Auditory localizer task: Participants listened to 350 pure tones (6 standards, range, 1000–1025 Hz; one oddball at 1050 Hz) separated by inter-stimulus intervals (ISIs) between 1 s and 1.4 s (uniformly distributed). Their task was to detect and count high pitch oddballs (1050 Hz, 50 tones). No overt responses were given during the uninterrupted presentation of tones.

Main experiment: During each trial, participants were presented with one tone out of the same set of seven pure tones (range 1000–1025 Hz) and had to decide whether the presented tone was either high or low in pitch with regard to the whole set of stimuli. In other words, participants implicitly compared each incoming tone to the median frequency in the tone set (i.e., 1000 Hz; Johnson, 1949). To hold task difficulty comparable across individuals, up to four rounds of individual tracking (50 trials each) were carried out where the width of the pitch distribution was adjusted depending on performance after each round. Precisely, the width of the pitch distribution was increased (or decreased) if percentage correct was below 70 % (or above 80 %, respectively). The set of stimuli used during the last round of the tracking procedure was also used during the main experiment.

Pitch discrimination task: Participants were asked to indicate after each tone whether it was high or low in pitch relative to the whole set of stimuli by pressing one of two buttons of a response box (The Black Box Toolkit). Button orientation was reversed for 13 out of 25 participants. They were instructed to answer as fast and as accurate

as possible as soon as the tone had vanished and the response screen had appeared. No feedback was given regarding their performance. A grey fixation cross was presented in the middle of the screen throughout the whole experiment which flickered for one second if participants failed to give a response within 2 seconds after stimulus offset. Participants performed 60 trials per stimulus levels, resulting in 420 trials split up into 10 blocks of 42 trials each. Every block comprised 6 repetitions of each stimulus level in random order. Note that since the exact time point of stimulus presentation was determined depending on current brain states as identified by the real-time approach outlined below, ISIs varied between individuals (9.14 ± 1.04 s). Visual presentation and recording of responses was controlled by Psychtoolbox.

Data recording and streaming: While participants were seated in a dimly lit, sound attenuated booth, EEG signals were measured with a 64-channel active electrode system (actichamp, BrainProducts, Germany). Electrodes were arranged according to the international 10-20 system and impedances were kept below 10 kΩ. Data were sampled at 1kHz, referenced to electrode TP9 (left mastoid), and recorded using Labrecorder software, part of the Lab Streaming Layer (LSL (Kothe, 2014)), also used to create a stream of EEG data, accessible in real-time.

Additionally, eye blinks were monitored and pupil dilation was recorded by tracking participants' right eye at 500 Hz (Eyelink 1000, SR Research). Pupil data was recorded using Eyelink software on a separate machine but at the same time streamed via a TCP/IP connection to the personal computer that was used for EEG recording, brain-state classification, and stimulus presentation. All recorded data was thus available on one machine.

Spatial filtering and source localisation: To focus on EEG activity from auditory cortices, a spatial filter was calculated based on the data from the auditory localizer task of each participant excluding oddball trials. After re-referencing to the average off all channels, we applied singular value decomposition based on the difference between a signal covariance matrix (estimated on EEG data from 0–200 ms peristimulus) and a noise covariance matrix (-200–0 ms peristimulus). This approach resulted in a 64x64 matrix of eigenvalues and the elements of the first eigenvector were used as filter weights (for similar approaches see de Cheveigne & Simon, 2008; Herrmann, Maess, & Johnsrude, 2018). Matrix multiplication of incoming EEG signals with the spatial filter weights resulted in one virtual EEG channel which largely reflected activity from auditory cortical regions.

To validate this approach, we source localized the same EEG data that was used to construct the signal covariance matrix. To this end, lead fields were computed based on a boundary element method (BEM) template and default electrode locations. Routines from the fieldtrip toolbox (Oostenveld, Fries, Maris, & Schoffelen, 2011) and custom code were used to calculate the sLORETA inverse solution (Pascual-Marqui, 2002) which was projected on to the pial surface of a standard structural template (MNI). Arbitrary source strength values were masked at 70 % of the maximum.

Real-time brain-state classification and stimulus triggering: Neural desynchronization in auditory cortical regions was estimated by reading in the EEG signal into Matlab®, re-referencing to the average of all channels, applying the individual spatial filter and

calculating a time-resolved version of weighted permutation entropy (WPE; Fadlallah et al., 2013). The detailed methodological aspects of WPE calculation are described elsewhere (Waschke et al., 2017) but a schematic illustration can be found in Figure 1. In short, WPE approximates the complexity or desynchronization of any neural time-series via three steps: First, recorded samples (here: microvolts) are transformed into symbolic patterns of a predefined length and distance (in numbers of samples). Second, the probability of occurrence of those patterns within a snippet of data is used to calculate one entropy value (Bandt & Pompe, 2002). Finally, the amplitude information which is lost during the mapping into symbolic space is partially reintroduced by weighing each patterns probability of occurrence by the relative variance of its corresponding neural data (Fadlallah et al., 2013). Since the exact choice of pattern length and distance influences the final entropy estimate we relied on recommendations from modelling work and earlier practice (Riedl, Müller, & Wessel, 2013; Waschke et al., 2017) by setting the pattern length to 3 and the distance to 1 (number of samples). To ensure approximation acuity but retain a high time-resolution, a 200-samples window was moved along the EEG signal in steps of 10 samples, resulting in an entropy sampling rate of 100 Hz.

The resulting entropy time-series was used to generate online an distribution of entropy values. Importantly, this distribution was updated constantly such that it never contained values older than 30 seconds. This way, changes in neural desynchronization on longer time-scales were excluded and, instead of a strictly bimodal distribution, the whole state space was sampled (see Figure 2). Desynchronization states were defined as a minimum of 10 consecutive entropy samples (100 ms) higher or lower than 90% of the current distribution and we will refer to them as high and low states, respectively, in the following.

Organized activity in the EEG signal such as evoked responses or eye blinks results in synchronization and thus a drastic reduction in entropy. Although the contribution of eye blinks to the online-analysed EEG signal was minimized by the spatial filter approach, we ensured that no periods containing eye-blinks distorted the classification of desynchronization states. To this end, pupil data was read out in real-time and whenever a blink was detected by the eye tracker or pupil size was close to zero, a "mute" window of 1 second was initiated where incoming data were not considered further. EEG signals immediately following a blink thus were excluded from both, entering the desynchronization distribution and being classified as a high or low state.

Whenever a high or low state was detected, a new trial started with the presentation of a pure tone after which the response screen was shown and participants gave their response. Note that each tone was presented equally often during high and low states (30 times, yielding 210 trials per state, or 420 trials in total).

Pre-processing of pupil data: First, the inbuilt detection algorithm was used to locate blinks and saccades before pupil data were aligned with EEG recordings. Second, we applied a custom algorithm based on relative velocity to detect remaining blinks after low-pass filtering below 20 Hz and down sampling to 50 Hz. Third, data were split up into trials (-2.5–3 seconds peristimulus) and signal around blinks was interpolated using a cubic spline. Finally, single trial time-courses of pupil dilation were visually inspected and noisy trials (1.3% ± 1.6%) were removed. Pupil signals were expressed in percentage of the pre-stimulus maximum (-.5–0 s peristimulus) per participant. Due

to technical difficulties, data from one subject had to be excluded from further analyses.

EEG offline pre-processing: EEG pre-processing and analyses were carried out using the Fieldtrip and EEGLAB toolboxes (Delorme & Makeig, 2004; Oostenveld et al., 2011) as well as custom code in Matlab® 2017a. First, and as a preparation for independent component analysis (ICA) only, data were re-referenced to the average of all channels, bandpass filtered between 1 and 100 Hz, subsequently down-sampled to 300 Hz, and split up into 2 seconds long epochs. Rare events like breaks between experimental blocks and noisy channels were excluded based on visual inspection. Second, data were decomposed into independent components using EEGLAB's runica algorithm. Visual inspection of topographies, time courses, power spectra, and fitted dipoles (dipfit extension) was used to reject artefactual components representing eye blinks, lateral eye movements, heart rate, muscle and electrode noise. Third, raw, un-processed data were loaded, previously detected noisy channels were removed and data were re-referenced to the average of all channels. ICA weights of non-artefactual components were applied to those data before excluded channels were interpolated. Finally, ICA-cleaned data were band-pass filtered between .5 and 100 Hz using a zero-phase finite impulse response filter and subsequently epoched between -2.5 and 3 seconds peristimulus. Single trials were visually inspected and rejected in case of excessive noise. On average 1 channel (±1 channel, M ± SD), 68.9% (± 7%) of all components, and1.4% (± 1.6%) of all trials were rejected.

EEG time–frequency domain analyses: Single trial complex-valued Fourier representations of the data were obtained through the convolution of cleaned and spatially filtered time-courses with frequency adaptive Hann-tapers (4 cycles) with a time-resolution of 100 Hz. Power from 1 to 40 Hz (in .5 Hz steps) and from 40 to 70 Hz (14 exponentially increasing steps) was calculated by squaring the modulus of the Fourier spectrum and was expressed as change in Decibel (dB) relative to average power in a baseline period (-1 to 0 s peristimulus).

Additionally, we calculated inter-trial phase coherence (ITC; $0 \leq ITC \geq 1$) and thus divided Fourier representations by their magnitude and averaged across trials before computing the magnitude of the average complex value. Importantly, since, ITC is only defined for a set of multiple trials but not for single trials, we computed the single-trial measure of jackknife-ITC (jITC; Richter, Thompson, Bosman, & Fries, 2015; Wöstmann, Waschke, & Obleser, 2018). In short, jITC of one trial is defined as the ITC of all trials but the one in question. Note that a trial highly phase-coherent with all others will result in a relatively low value of jITC, reversing the intuitive interpretation of ITC. In the remainder of this paper, we will thus use the term *single-trial phase coherence* when referring to 1-jITC.

Control analyses: To test the topographical specificity of EEG entropy, we averaged the re-referenced but otherwise raw EEG signal over seven visuo-occipital channels (PO3, PO4, PO7, PO8, POz, O1, O2). Note that this average of a channel selection (all seven visuo-occipital channels receiving equal weight in the average, while other channels effectively received weight 0) is conceptually not different from the way the more sophisticated, pilot–experiment-based auditory spatial filter was calculated. Subsequently, we calculated EEG entropy of this occipital cluster in the exact same way outlined above for auditory cortical areas. The resulting entropy signal was used to repeat all analyses of sensory-evoked activity and behaviour. Precisely, mixed

models of ITC, sensory-evoked power and behaviour were re-run with visuo-cortical entropy. The performance of those models was evaluated by comparing them to the models based on auditory cortical entropy.

Statistical analyses

General approach: Trial-wise brain-behaviour and brain-brain relationships were analysed using (generalized) linear mixed-effects models (see below). We used single trial estimates of pre- and post-stimulus brain activity as well as binary decisions ("high vs. "low") as dependent variables. On the other hand, pre-stimulus entropy and pupil size served as predictors. To allow for an illustrative presentation of single subject data, dependent variables were binned based on predictor variables (see Fig. 3). Importantly, binning was used for visualization only and was not part of any statistical analyses reported here. Note, however, that single subject fits across bins (of varying number; varying the number of bins between 3 and 7) qualitatively replicated effects of single-trial models.

Brain–behaviour relationships: As the main interest of this study lay in the influence of pre-stimulus desynchronization and pupil-linked arousal on perceptual sensitivity and response criterion, we combined a generalized linear-mixed-effects model approach with psychophysical modelling: single trial responses (high vs. low) of all participants were modelled as a logistic regression in R (R Core Team, 2018) using the lme4 package (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015) and a logit link function. The main predictors used in the model were (1) the normalized pitch of presented tones (with respect to the median frequency, 7 levels), (2) baseline corrected pre-stimulus entropy (averaged between -.2 and 0 s peristimulus, baseline -3 to -.5 s pre-stimulus) and (3) relative pre-stimulus pupil size (averaged between -.5 and 0 s peristimulus). Pre-stimulus entropy and pupil size entered the model as both linear and quadratic predictors allowing us to test for non-linear relationships. To control for the influence of task duration, trial number was added as a regressor of no interest. Note that, in the resulting model, a main effect of pitch corresponds to the presence of psychometric response behaviour itself (probability of "high" responses across pitch levels), a main effect of another predictor (e.g. pupil size) represents a shift in response criterion, and an interaction of pitch and another predictor depicts a change in the slope of the psychometric function, i.e. a change in sensitivity.

Response times were measured relative to the offset of the presented tone and analysed irrespective of response outcome (correct vs. incorrect). To eliminate the impact of outliers, response times below .2 and above 2 seconds were excluded from further analyses (Ratcliff, 1993). Effects of pre-stimulus desynchronization and arousal on response speed (the inverse of response time, measured in 1/s) were analysed within a linear mixed-effect model framework. Hence, single-trial measures of response speed across all participants were considered as the dependent variable. This analysis approach allowed us to control for a number of other variables including trial number and task ease by adding them as regressors to the model.

Brain–brain relationships: To test the relationships between neural desynchronization and pupil-linked arousal with ongoing brain activity as well as auditory evoked responses we followed an analogous approach. Namely, different linear mixed-effects models with pre-stimulus entropy and pupil size as predictors were fitted for (i) pre-stimulus low (1–12 Hz) and (i) high (40–70 Hz) frequency power as proxies of ongoing activity. Similarly, different models were fitted for (i) post-stimulus (0–250

ms) single-trial phase coherence (1–8 Hz), as well as (ii) low and (iii) high frequency total power as measures of auditory evoked activity and stimulus processing (see Fig. 2A).

Model fitting: We employed an iterative model fitting procedure, starting with an intercept-only model, to arrive at the best fitting model (Alavash, Tune, & Obleser, 2018; Tune, Wöstmann, & Obleser, 2018).

Fixed effects were added to the model one at a time and the change in model fit was assessed using maximum likelihood estimation. An analogous procedure was adopted for random effects after the best fitting fixed-effect-only model had been determined. We re-coded single trial pitch by first subtracting the median pitch and subsequently dividing by the new maximum, resulting in –1 and 1 for lowest and highest pitch, respectively, and 0 as the midpoint. We z-scored all continuous dependent variables across participants. In the case of binary response behaviour we used generalized linear mixed-effects models with a logit link function. For all other models we employed linear mixed-effects as distributions of dependent variables were not found to be significantly different from a normal distribution (all Shapiro–Wilk P values > .1). P values for individual model terms were derived using the Wald z-as-t procedure (Luke, 2017). As a measure of effect size we report log odds ratio (log OR) for models of binary response behaviour end regression coefficients β for all other models alongside their respective standard errors (SE). A log OR of 0 indicates no effect for the regressor under consideration. Bayes factors (BF) were calculated for the comparison of two models with an equal number of terms that differed only in one predictor.

To evaluate the performance of the real-time desynchronization detection algorithm described above, we re-calculated entropy (WPE) in the spatially filtered, un-cleaned EEG signal to then compute subject-wise averages of entropy time-courses for high state and low state trials, respectively. A series of paired t-test was used to examine state differences across time. We adjusted p-values to control for the false discovery rate (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995).

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