

1 **Title**

2 Cochlear activity in silent cue-target intervals shows a theta-rhythmic pattern and
3 is correlated to attentional alpha modulations

4 **Abbreviated title**

5 Attentional modulations of cochlear and cortical rhythms

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19 **Conflict of interest**

20 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

21

22 **Abstract**

23 A long-standing debate concerns where in the processing hierarchy of the central
24 nervous system (CNS) selective attention takes effect. In the auditory system
25 cochlear processes can be influenced via direct and mediated (by the inferior
26 colliculus) projections from the auditory cortex to the superior olivary complex
27 (SOC). Studies illustrating attentional modulations of cochlear responses have so
28 far been limited to sound-evoked responses. The aim of the present study is to
29 investigate intermodal (audiovisual) selective attention in humans simultaneously
30 at the cortical and cochlear level during a stimulus-free cue-target period. We
31 found that cochlear activity in the silent cue-target periods was modulated by a
32 theta-rhythmic pattern (~6 Hz). While this pattern was present independently of
33 attentional focus, cochlear theta activity was clearly enhanced when attending to
34 the upcoming auditory input. On a cortical level, classical posterior alpha and
35 beta power enhancements were found during auditory selective attention.
36 Interestingly, participants with a stronger release of inhibition in auditory brain
37 regions show a stronger attentional modulation of cochlear theta activity. These
38 results hint at a putative theta-rhythmic sampling of auditory input at the
39 cochlear level. Furthermore, our results point to an interindividual variable
40 engagement of efferent pathways in an attentional context that are linked to
41 processes within and beyond processes in auditory cortical regions.

42 **Introduction**

43 Cognitive processing of sensory stimuli is capacity limited. Hence, attentional
44 processes are required to prioritize cognitive resources on task- or context-
45 relevant stimuli. On a neural level, responses to attended stimuli are enhanced,
46 while responses to unattended and distracting stimuli are diminished (Couperus
47 & Mangun, 2010; Fritz et al., 2007). These effects have been mainly established
48 on a cortical level (Frey et al., 2015; Shrem & Deouell, 2017); however, it is less
49 clear to what extent selective attention modulates subcortical activity (Guinan,
50 2018). For the auditory system, this dispute extends down to the level of the
51 cochlea (Beim et al., 2018; Giard et al., 1994; Lopez-Poveda, 2018).

52 Indeed cochlear processes can be modulated via direct and mediated (by
53 the inferior colliculus) projections from the auditory cortex to the superior olivary
54 complex (SOC). The SOC finally innervates the outer hair cells (OHC) that are
55 essential for cochlear amplification and fine tuning of the basilar membrane
56 (Delano & Elgoyhen, 2016). The architecture of the efferent auditory system
57 would - in principle - enable the auditory cortex to modulate cochlear processes
58 (Terreros & Delano, 2015).

59 An increasing number of studies support this notion by measuring
60 otoacoustic emissions (OAE; Smith, Aouad, & Keil, 2012; Walsh, Pasanen, &
61 McFadden, 2015; Wittekindt, Kaiser, & Abel, 2014) or cochlear microphonics
62 (Delano et al., 2007). However, the described effects are restricted to sound-
63 evoked responses, are small, and sometimes contradictory (Francis et al., 2018;
64 Meric & Collet, 1992). Furthermore, the attention research on cortical and
65 cochlear processes has been conducted largely independently (see Wittekindt et
66 al. (2014), Dragicevic et al. (2019), or Riecke et al. (2020) for exceptions). In
67 summary, it remains unclear whether and how attention modulates cochlear

68 processes during silent periods and how these peripheral processes are linked to
69 cortical processes.

70 We applied an established intermodal (audiovisual) selective attention task
71 and simultaneously measured activity from different levels of the auditory
72 system, to advance our knowledge in this area. To stay as close as possible to
73 previous magnetoencephalography and electroencephalography (M/EEG) works
74 in this domain (Foxe et al., 1998; Frey et al., 2014), we decided to record sounds
75 within the ear canal during silent cue-target periods. This “ongoing otoacoustic
76 activity” (OOA) allows for an unbiased measurement of cochlear modulations by
77 cortical attention processes, since undesired sound-evoked cochlear changes are
78 circumvented (Guinan et al., 2003).

79 Given that attentional modulations of cortical oscillations are mostly found
80 at low frequencies (< 30 Hz), we decided to use a similar analysis approach for
81 the OOA-signal as Dragicevic et al. (2019), an approach that allows us to
82 investigate oscillatory cochlear activity at the same frequencies as cortical
83 activity occurs. Further, genuine periodic components (peaks) of the OOA-signal
84 were computed for the OOA (Haller et al., 2018). Replicating an established
85 finding from several previous studies (Fu et al., 2001; Klimesch, 2012; Wittekindt
86 et al., 2014), we show strong attentional modulation of visual cortical alpha
87 activity. More importantly, we illustrate a rhythmic modulation of cochlear
88 activity in the theta frequency range. While this theta activity was generally
89 present independently of attentional focus, it was strongly amplified when
90 attending to the auditory modality. Interestingly, this attentional amplification of
91 cochlear activity is inversely correlated with attentional alpha and theta effects at
92 the cortical level across participants.

93 **Methods**

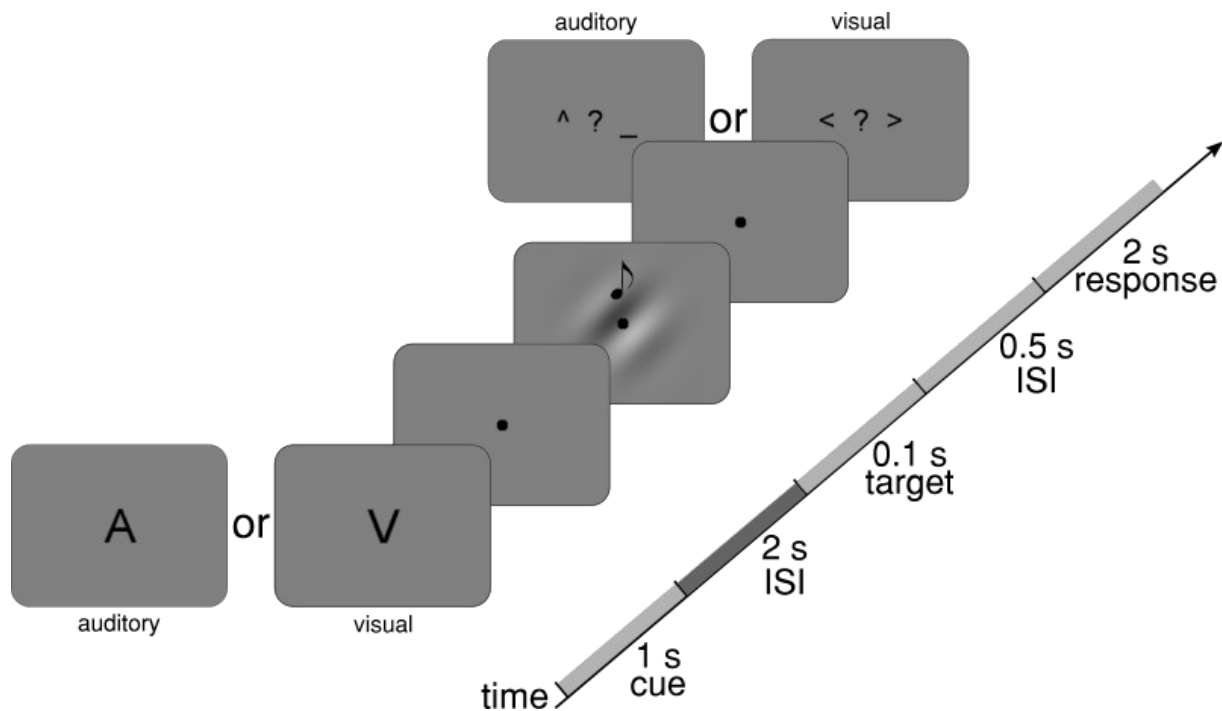
94 **Participants**

95 34 healthy volunteers (23 females, age range: 18-35 years) participated in
96 this study. One participant was excluded from analyses because his right ear was
97 occluded by cerumen. As recording otoacoustic activity inside an MEG system is
98 challenging, further participants were also excluded from the final analysis (see
99 below in the results section for details). One participant was excluded because
100 the left acoustic meatus was too small to fit the foam ear tip without causing
101 pain. One participant was excluded because the recordings from the left ear
102 showed excessive periods of saturation. Another four participants were excluded
103 because the number of artifact contaminated MEG trials exceeded two standard
104 deviations of the mean. The remaining 27 volunteers (18 female, mean age:
105 22.96 years, age range: 18-35 years) were used for analyses. Four participants
106 were left handed. None of the participants reported any known hearing deficit
107 and any visual impairment was corrected to normal with MEG-compatible
108 glasses. All subjects were informed about the experimental procedure and the
109 purpose of the study and gave written informed consent. As compensation
110 subjects received either €10 per hour or credit for their psychology studies. This
111 study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Salzburg.

112 **Stimuli and Procedure**

113 Our focus in this study was to investigate intermodal selective attention by
114 simultaneously measuring cochlear (OOA) and neuronal processes (MEG). Studies
115 investigating attentional modulations of OAEs in the past often used a block
116 design (Froehlich et al., 1993; J. L. Puel et al., 1988; Smith et al., 2012). As this
117 procedure is criticized for not achieving highly controlled attentional conditions
118 (Carrasco et al., 2004; Ward, 1997; Wittekindt et al., 2014), we decided to use an

119 adapted version of the trial-wise cueing paradigm introduced by Wittekindt et al.
120 (2014).



121

122 **Figure 1.** Schematic illustration of the task. Each trial started with a 100%
123 informative visual cue telling the subject to either attend the auditory ("A") or the
124 visual modality ("V"). After an ISI of 2 s a left or right oriented Gabor patch and a
125 low-frequency (1131 Hz) or high-frequency (1987 Hz) pure tone were
126 simultaneously presented. After another ISI of 0.5 s a response screen depending
127 on the cued modality appeared for 2 s. The intertrial interval was uniformly
128 jittered between 1-2 s.

129

130 Measurements took place in a magnetically shielded room (AK3B,
131 Vacuumschmelze, Hanau, Germany), in which subjects sat quietly inside the MEG
132 system (TRIUX, MEGIN-Elekta Oy, Helsinki, Finland). Participants performed five
133 blocks consisting of 80 trials (40 Attend Auditory and 40 Attend Visual) in a
134 pseudo-randomized order. **Figure 1** schematically illustrates the course of a trial.
135 Each trial started with a visually presented cue (1 s duration) instructing the
136 subject to either attend the auditory or the visual modality. The letter "A"
137 indicated the Attend Auditory condition and the letter "V" the Attend Visual
138 condition. During the following silent cue-target period (2 s duration) a fixation

139 dot was presented and the participants had to shift their attention selectively to
140 the indicated modality. To eliminate any effects of divided attention and to reach
141 maximum focus on the cued modality, the cue was 100% informative (Wittekindt
142 et al., 2014). The target stimulus in the visual modality was a low-contrast Gabor
143 patch (diameter: ca. 2 degrees of visual angle) that was displayed in the center
144 of a rear projection screen placed inside the shielded room (distance to the
145 subject: 1.1 m) and oriented 45 degrees to the right or left. The target stimulus in
146 the auditory modality was a pure tone of either 1131 Hz or 1987 Hz, which was
147 presented via ear inserts. The sound volume was individually adjusted to be at a
148 comfortable level. Visual and auditory stimuli were simultaneously presented for
149 100 ms. For the auditory stimuli, we employed two 5 ms linear fade in/out
150 windows. Depending on the preceding cue, the task was to detect the orientation
151 of the Gabor patch (Attend Visual, left or right 45° tilt) or the pitch level of the
152 tone (Attend Auditory, high pitch (1987 Hz) or low pitch (1131 Hz)). Afterwards, a
153 response screen showed indicators for choosing either the pitch level of the tone
154 or the orientation of the Gabor patch. Participants were instructed to wait until
155 the response screen was presented (0.5 s post-target), and then reply as soon as
156 they were ready by pressing the corresponding button with their left or right
157 thumb, within 2 s after the appearance of the response screen. The inter-trial
158 intervals were jittered uniformly between 1 and 2 s. Acoustic and visual stimuli
159 were generated by the Psychophysics Toolbox Version 3 (Brainard, 1997; Pelli,
160 1997) using custom-written MATLAB scripts (Version 9.1; The MathWorks).

161 **Recording of Cochlear and Cortical Activity**

162 In order to measure otoacoustic activity, a probe consisting of a sensitive
163 microphone and two loudspeakers (ER-10C microphone/preamplifier system,
164 Etymotic Research, Elk Grove Village, US) was fitted into the subject's right and
165 left ear canal with a foam ear tip. Otoacoustic activity was recorded from both

166 ears concurrently. The microphone signal was fed into the EEG amplifier of the
167 MEG system, with an amplitude gain of +55 dB (600x). The sampling rate of the
168 entire MEG and EEG system was set to 10 kHz. The ER-10C received its input via
169 two BNC cables coming from a sound preamplifier (SOUNDPixx, VPixx
170 Technologies, Saint-Bruno, Canada). The SPL for the loudspeakers was balanced
171 to the left and right side by subjective feedback for each participant.

172 Neuromagnetic brain activity was recorded with 306 channels (TRIUX MEG,
173 see above). Two bipolar electrodes were mounted above and below the left eye,
174 one was mounted on the left side of the left eye and another on the right side of
175 the right eye to monitor eye blinks and eye movements (H/VEOG). Further, two
176 electrodes were mounted on the bottom left rib and the right collarbone to record
177 electrocardiography (ECG). A reference electrode was placed on the left trapezius
178 muscle, and the ground electrode on the right supinator. Prior to the experiment,
179 individual head shapes were acquired for each participant including relevant
180 anatomical landmarks (nasion and preauricular points) and about 300 digitized
181 points on the scalp with a 3D digitizer (Polhemus FASTRAK, Colchester, US). Head
182 positions of the subjects in the helmet were estimated at the beginning of each
183 block injecting a small current into five (HPI, head position indicator) coils. Again,
184 the overall (MEG+EEG) sampling rate was set to 10 kHz, with a hardware high-
185 pass filter of 0.1 Hz, and an anti-alias low-pass filter with the cutoff frequency set
186 to 3330 Hz.

187 **Signal Processing**

188 OOA was preprocessed by high-pass filtering at 500 Hz (6th order
189 Butterworth IIR), extracting epochs of 3 s duration after cue presentation and
190 manually rejecting trials containing periods of signal saturation or atypical high
191 background noise, for example, caused by moving, swallowing, or coughing
192 (average number of rejected trials per participant: 87.15; range across

193 participants: 1-185). As the frequencies of the acoustic targets were between
194 1131 Hz and 1987 Hz and otoacoustic activity is strongest in the range from
195 1000-2000 Hz (Puria, 2003), we expected amplitude modulations of the OOA in
196 this range. The cue-target period was defined as the period in which intermodal
197 attention processes occur (Wittekindt et al., 2014). In a next step, trials were split
198 into two conditions (Attend Auditory and Attend Visual), averaged over 1.7 s of
199 the cue-target period, and bandpass filtered in 10 Hz steps from 1000-2000 Hz
200 (bandpass window +/- 30 Hz). This resulted in 201 bandpass windows for each
201 participant, which represent the binned cochlear frequency response between
202 1000 and 2000 Hz. To be able to further study any relationship between cochlear
203 activity and brain oscillations (see Results section), we extracted the envelope of
204 the cochlear signal for each of the previous bandpass windows via a Hilbert
205 transform, thus obtaining a signal with a frequency range that is routinely used in
206 electrophysiological evaluations of cognitive tasks. Next, power spectral density
207 (PSD) from 1-30 Hz was calculated for each condition and each Hilbert
208 transformed bandpass window ("mtmfft" fieldtrip implementation with a Hann
209 window). Finally, the bandpass windows were concatenated for each condition
210 resulting in a representation of the amplitude modulation from 1-30 Hz at
211 cochlear response frequencies from 1000-2000 Hz.

212 The MEG signal was first preprocessed by manually rejecting all bad
213 sensors (average number of rejected sensors per participant: 38.89; range across
214 participants: 13-73), high-pass filtering at 1 Hz (6th order Butterworth IIR),
215 extracting epochs of 3 s duration after cue presentation and down-sampling to 1
216 kHz. The excessive amount of rejected sensors is caused by magnetic artifacts of
217 the microphone probes, which leads to a saturation of several mostly temporal
218 sensors. The detected bad trials in the OOA data were used to reject the same
219 trials in the MEG data. In a next step trials were again split into two conditions
220 (Attend Auditory and Attend Visual). For source level analysis, a standard

221 anatomical magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) template provided by the
222 Statistical Parametric Mapping toolbox (Version 12; Friston, Penny, Ashburner,
223 Kiebel, & Nichols, 2006) was morphed to the individual head shape of each
224 participant using non-linear-transformation. Sensor space trials were projected
225 into source space using linearly constrained minimum variance (LCMV)
226 beamformer filters (Van Veen et al., 1997). The aligned brain volumes were also
227 used to create single-shell head models and compute the leadfield matrices
228 (Nolte, 2003). For the template grid we chose a resolution of 1 cm in MNI space.
229 PSD in 1 Hz steps in a frequency range of 1-30 Hz averaged over 1.7 s of the cue-
230 target period was calculated for each condition by a FFT (Hann window). The
231 preprocessing of the OOA and MEG data were conducted using the open-source
232 FieldTrip toolbox for EEG/MEG data (Oostenveld et al., 2011) and custom-written
233 MATLAB scripts (Version 9.1; The MathWorks).

234 **Statistical Analysis**

235 As a first analysis step, we investigated if rhythmic modulations of cochlear
236 activity are present. The python (Version 3.7.1) toolbox FOOOF (Haller et al.,
237 2018) was used to parameterize the power spectra of the OOA envelope of each
238 subject and condition. FOOOF allows for the examination of putative oscillations
239 (peaks) in the frequency domain and characterizes these on their specific center
240 frequencies, amplitude, and bandwidth by separating the periodic and aperiodic
241 components of neural power spectra (Haller et al., 2018).

242 For statistical analyses of the periodic components of the OOA the
243 attention modulation index (AMI) of both conditions was calculated using the
244 following formula: $(\text{Attend Auditory} - \text{Attend Visual}) / (\text{Attend Auditory} + \text{Attend}$
245 $\text{Visual}) * 100$. A two-tailed one sample t-test against 0 for each ear was
246 calculated for the AMI pooled across the full range of the cochlear frequency
247 response (1000-2000 Hz) and the range of extracted peaks from the left (3-10

248 Hz) and right ear (1-10 Hz). A nonparametric cluster-based permutation analysis
249 over the whole brain was conducted to assess MEG-power effects in the cue-
250 target period. The analysis was pooled across 1.7 s of the cue-target period and
251 limited to a frequency range of 3-25 Hz. In a next step the AMI of the MEG-data
252 was calculated and correlated with the OOA-AMI of the left and right ear. In order
253 to assess statistical significance of the correlation, a nonparametric cluster-based
254 permutation analysis over the whole brain was conducted. As for the assessment
255 of MEG-power effects this analysis was pooled across 1.7 s of the cue-target
256 period and limited to a frequency range of 3-25 Hz. The statistical analyses of the
257 OOA and MEG data were conducted using the open-source FieldTrip toolbox for
258 EEG/MEG data (Oostenveld et al., 2011), custom written MATLAB scripts (Version
259 9.1; The MathWorks), the R package “uniftest: Tests for Uniformity” (Melnik &
260 Pusev, 2015), and custom written R scripts (Version 4.0.0; R Core Team).

261 **Results**

262 **Behavioral Results**

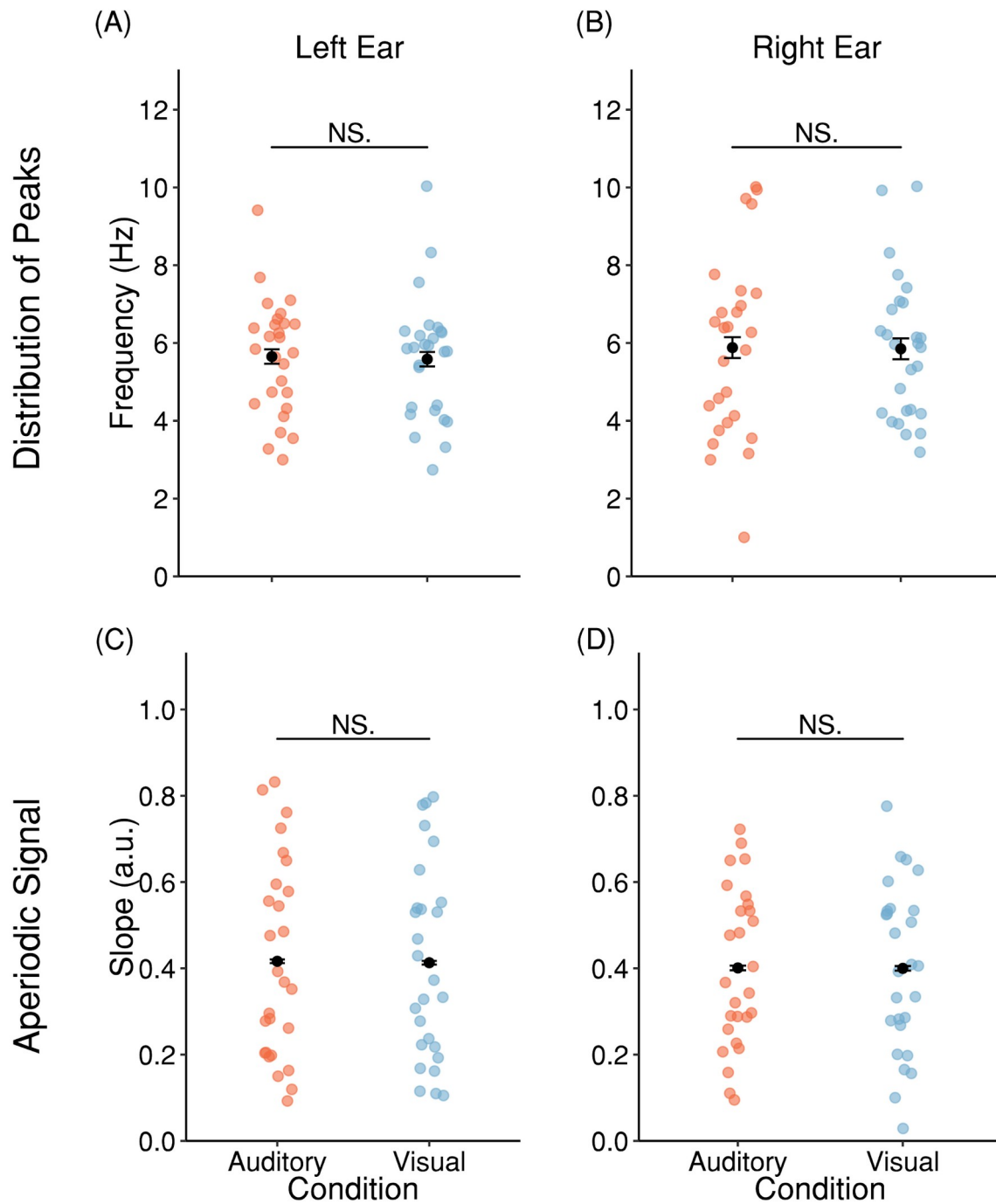
263 Performance was similar for both conditions and in general very high,
264 underlining the compliance of the participants during the experiment. The
265 average hit rates were $M = 93.19\%$ ($SD = 7.46\%$) for the auditory task and $M =$
266 92.89% ($SD = 7.65\%$) for the visual task. The hit rates of the two conditions did
267 not differ significantly ($t_{(26)} = 0.378$, $p = 0.709$).

268 **OOA at Theta Rhythm Is Modulated by Intermodal Attention**

269 Typical oscillatory activity of the brain is pronounced in a frequency band
270 of 1-80 Hz, whereas otoacoustic activity is found at much higher frequencies
271 (500-4000 Hz). As the aim of this experiment is to study the effects of cortical
272 top-down modulations on OOA, we applied the Hilbert transform to extract the

273 amplitude modulation for frequencies typical of ongoing cortical oscillations. To
274 avoid a stronger influence of the lower sound frequencies and to create a
275 representation of the cochlea's frequency response, the otoacoustic signal was
276 bandpass filtered between 1000 and 2000 Hz in 10 Hz steps with a window size
277 of +/- 30 Hz. The PSDs of the 201 bandpass windows were then concatenated to
278 create a representation of the amplitude modulation between 1000 and 2000 Hz
279 of the cochlea's frequency response.

280



281

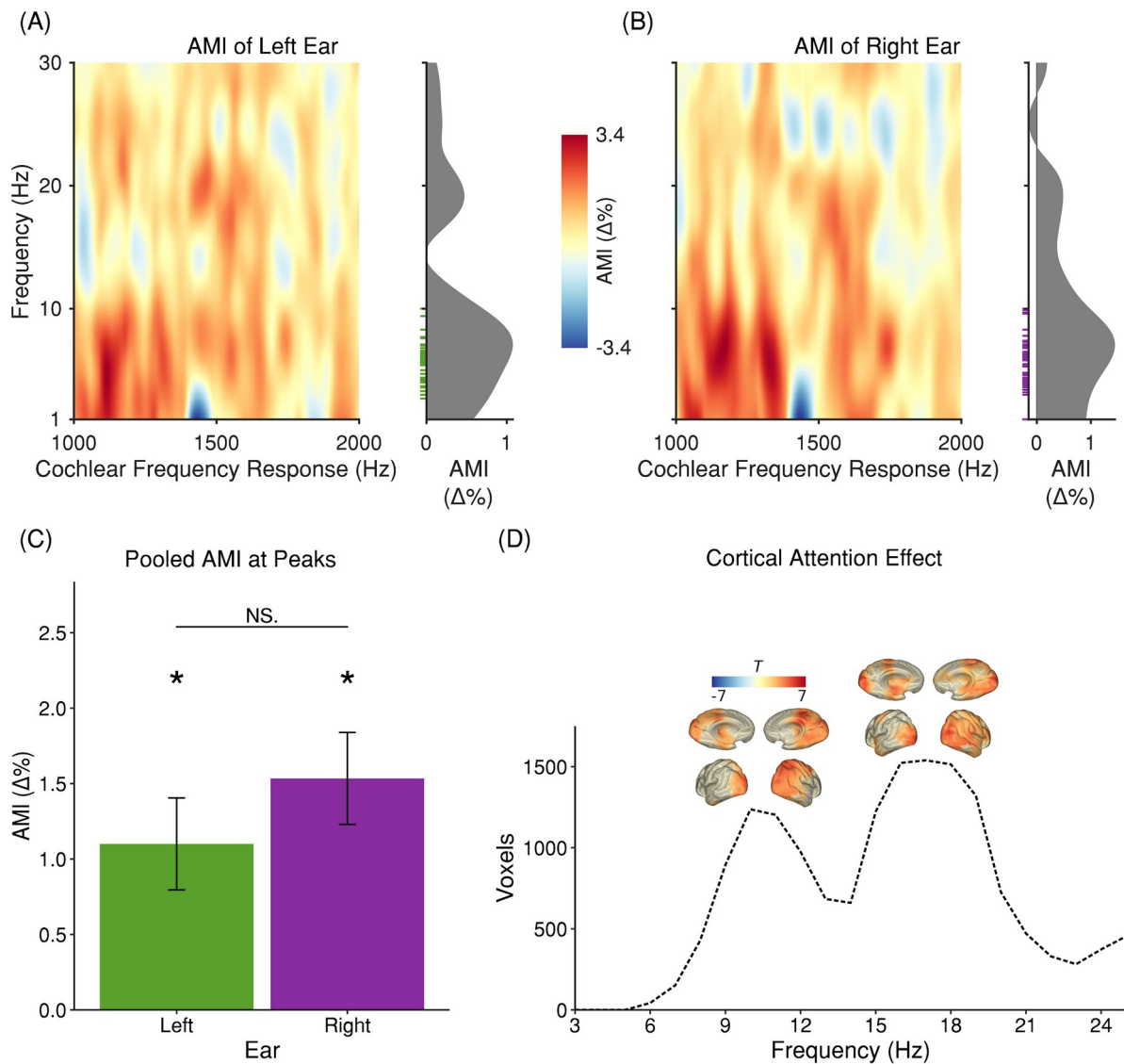
282 **Figure 2.** Peak analysis of OOA by FOOOF shows theta rhythmicity of cochlear
283 activity. (A) Distribution of the peaks in the left ear for each subject and
284 condition. (B) Distribution of the peaks in the right ear for each subject and
285 condition. (C) Slope of the aperiodic signal in the left ear for each subject and
286 condition. (D) Slope of the aperiodic signal in the right ear for each subject and
287 condition. The black dots and error bars represent the mean and SEM (corrected
288 for within-subject designs; see Cousineau & O'Brien, 2014).

289

290 In a first step we parameterized oscillatory modulations of OOA during the

291 silent cue-target interval. We used FOOOF to differentiate between genuine
292 oscillatory contributions from aperiodic 1/f changes. In all subjects a peak could
293 be found at low (< 11 Hz) frequencies with a clustering around ~ 5 -6 Hz. For the
294 Attend Auditory condition the average peak frequency was at 5.65 Hz ($SD =$
295 1.48) for the left and 5.88 Hz ($SD = 2.33$) for the right ear. For the Attend Visual
296 condition the average peak frequency was at 5.58 Hz ($SD = 1.57$) for the left and
297 at 5.85 Hz ($SD = 1.83$) for the right ear. Which modality was attended to had no
298 statistically significant impact on the peak frequencies in both ears (left: $t_{(26)} =$
299 0.2068, $p = 0.8378$; right: $t_{(26)} = 0.0681$, $p = 0.9462$). **Figures 2A** and **2B** show
300 subjects' individual peak frequencies and **Figures 2C** and **2D** the slope for
301 aperiodic components ("1/f noise"). Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were performed to
302 test for uniformity on the peak frequencies for every ear and condition. The
303 percentage of peak frequencies for the left ear and Attend Auditory condition,
304 $D_{(26)} = 9.2347$, $p < 0.0001$, and the percentage of peak frequencies for the left
305 ear and Attend Visual, $D_{(26)} = 9.2486$, $p < 0.0001$, were both significantly
306 different from uniformity, indicating that the peak frequencies were not uniformly
307 distributed in both conditions. The same holds true for the right ear (Attend
308 Auditory: $D_{(26)} = 9.4619$, $p < 0.0001$; Attend Visual: $D_{(26)} = 9.3502$, $p < 0.0001$).
309 While this analysis overall points to a theta-rhythmic modulation of cochlear
310 activity in a silent cue-target period, the range (1-10.03 Hz) of these peaks
311 suggests a rather high interindividual variability.

312



313

314 **Figure 3.** Power analysis of OOA shows enhanced low-frequency power for
 315 auditory attention. Power analysis of cortical activity reveals enhanced alpha-
 316 and beta-power for auditory attention. (A) & (B) AMI of the cochlear frequency
 317 response for the left and right ear. The x-axis represents otoacoustic activity at
 318 sound frequencies from 1000-2000 Hz. The y-axis represents the frequency
 319 range of the FFT. On the right of each subplot the OOA-AMI averaged over sound
 320 frequencies from 1000-2000 Hz is shown. The green and violet ticks illustrate the
 321 distribution of subjects' peak frequencies from Figures 2A & 2B. (C) OOA-AMI
 322 averaged over sound frequencies from 1000-2000 Hz and the range of subjects'
 323 peak frequencies (3-10 Hz for the left and 1-10 Hz for right ear). The OOA-AMI is
 324 significantly higher for the Attend Auditory condition in the left ($t_{(26)} = 2.4701$, $p =$
 325 0.0204) and the right ($t_{(26)} = 2.3881$, $p = 0.0245$) ear. There was no difference
 326 between ears ($t_{(26)} = -0.8225$, $p = 0.4183$). (D) A nonparametric cluster-based
 327 permutation analysis indicated an effect of condition for brain power pooled
 328 across 0.25-1.95 s of the cue-target period ($p = 0.004$). This corresponded to a
 329 positive cluster in the observed data beginning around 4-6 Hz up to 24-25 Hz.
 330 The number of voxels in this cluster are shown as a function of frequency. The
 331 extent of the cluster is largest in the alpha- and beta-band. Moreover, for both
 332 bands it is located in posterior regions.

333

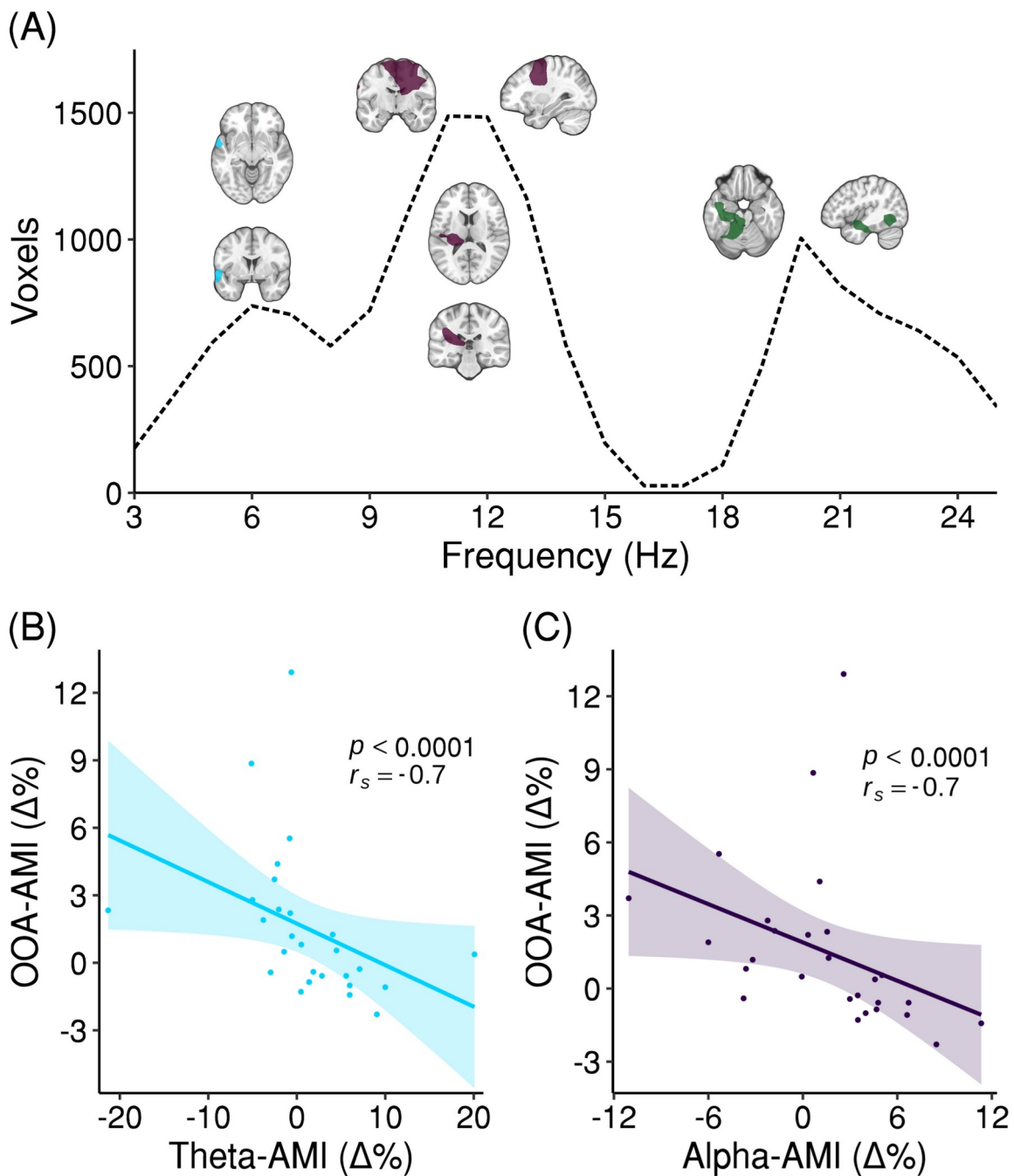
334 Next, we tested the hypothesis that cochlear activity is increased during
335 periods of focused auditory compared to visual attention. Descriptively it appears
336 from the grand average that the amplitude (**Figures 3A** and **3B**) differences of
337 the AMI lie predominantly in the range of low frequencies, corresponding to the
338 frequency range of dominant rhythmic cochlear activity (**Figures 2A** and **2B**).
339 Given this overlap the AMI was pooled across the range of peak frequencies (left
340 ear: 3-10 Hz; right ear: 1-10 Hz) for the cochlear response frequency range of
341 1000-2000 Hz for the left and right ear, respectively. In a next step one-tailed
342 one sample t-tests against 0 were performed (see **Figure 3C**). The result for the
343 left ear revealed that cochlear activity ($M = 1.1002\%$, $SE = 0.3047\%$) was
344 significantly higher for the Attend Auditory condition ($t_{(26)} = 2.4701$, $p = 0.0102$).
345 Similarly, the result for the right ear revealed significantly higher cochlear activity
346 ($M = 1.5343\%$, $SE = 0.3047\%$) for the Attend Auditory condition ($t_{(26)} = 2.3881$,
347 $p = 0.0122$). No interaural differences could be observed ($t_{(26)} = -0.8225$, $p =$
348 0.4183).

349 **Cortical Alpha and Theta Power Are Related to Cochlear Changes**

350 In order to assess effects of intermodal attention on brain level, we
351 performed a nonparametric cluster-based permutation analysis on source-
352 projected MEG-power over frequencies of 3-25 Hz (see Materials and Methods
353 section). The analysis was pooled across 1.7 s of the cue-target interval. An effect
354 of condition (Attend Auditory > Attend Visual, $p = 0.004$) was observed that
355 corresponded to a positive cluster in the observed data beginning around 4-6 Hz
356 up to 24-25 Hz. As hypothesized, the extent of this cluster is largest in the alpha
357 and beta range and located in posterior - mainly occipital and parietal- brain
358 regions (see **Figure 3D**).

359

360



361

362 **Figure 4.** Correlation of cortical neural activity and OOA of the right ear. (A) A
363 nonparametric cluster-based permutation analysis indicated a correlation of
364 brain-AMI and OOA-AMI of the right ear pooled across 0.25-1.95 s of the cue-
365 target period ($p = 0.01$). This corresponded to a negative cluster in the observed
366 data incorporating the whole frequency range (3-25 Hz) of the analysis. The
367 number of voxels in this cluster are shown as a function of frequency. The extent
368 of the cluster peaks in the alpha-, theta- and beta-band. For the peak in the
369 theta-band the cluster is located in the left STG. For the alpha-band it is located
370 in medial portions of left Heschl's Gyrus and right (pre-)motor areas. For the
371 beta-band it is located in left inferior-medial temporal regions. Orthogonal views
372 represent masked t-values (75 % threshold). (B) Correlation of brain-AMI at 6 Hz

373 and OOA-AMI in the most significant voxel from (A). (C) Correlation of brain-AMI
374 at 11-12 Hz and OOA-AMI in the most significant voxel from (A). The shaded error
375 bars represent the SEM.

376

377 We expected inhibited sensory processing of the current task-irrelevant
378 sensory modality – occipital regions for the visual and temporal regions for the
379 auditory modality. According to dominant frameworks (Klimesch, 2012) this
380 functional inhibition should manifest as increased power in the alpha-band. We
381 found increased alpha power for the Attend Auditory condition over occipital
382 regions. However, no increased alpha power for the Attend Visual condition in
383 auditory regions could be found. This absence may be related to a reduced
384 measurement sensitivity due to the significant loss of MEG sensors covering the
385 temporal regions.

386 In order to assess whether attentional effects found at the cortical level
387 were associated with the previously described cochlear effects, a correlation
388 between the brain-AMI and the OOA-AMI of the left and right ear, respectively,
389 was calculated. A nonparametric cluster-based permutation analysis indicated a
390 significant correlation of brain-AMI and OOA-AMI of the right ear ($p = 0.01$) but
391 not the left ear ($p = 0.62$). This corresponded to a negative cluster in the
392 observed data incorporating the whole frequency range (3-25 Hz) of the analysis
393 (see **Figure 4A**). The extent of the cluster peaks in the alpha-, theta- and beta-
394 band. Dominant locations of the correlation effect are illustrated in **Figure 4A**.
395 For the theta and alpha frequency range strong auditory cortical effects are seen
396 in the left STG or medial portions of Heschl's Gyrus, respectively. Interestingly
397 the effects are strongest contralateral to the OAE probe. However effects were
398 also observed outside of classical auditory cortical regions, such as in right (pre-
399 motor) or left inferomedial temporal regions. To illustrate that effects are not
400 driven by outlying participants of relevant effects in the theta- and alpha-band,

401 **Figures 4B** and **4C** show correlations for voxels with the strongest effects. The
402 negative correlations indicate that lower alpha- and theta-AMI is accompanied by
403 higher OOA-AMI and vice versa. It is well known, that decreasing alpha-activity
404 represents a mechanism for a release of inhibition (Jensen & Mazaheri, 2010;
405 Klimesch, 2012). Thus, the negative correlation suggests that participants
406 exhibiting a stronger release of inhibition (by lower alpha power) in left auditory
407 brain regions during periods of auditory attention also exhibit elevated OOA-
408 levels (by higher OOA power). This analysis illustrates that attentional
409 modulations of rhythmic activity at the “lowest” (i.e. cochlear) level of the
410 corticofugal system go along with modulations of oscillatory brain activity at the
411 “highest” level.

412 **Discussion**

413 To what extent cochlear activity is sensitive to selective attention and how
414 these changes are linked to cortical dynamics is a matter of ongoing debate.
415 Given the uniqueness of the auditory system in having cortical descending
416 projections from primary auditory cortex (via IC and SOC) to the cochlea, it is
417 conceivable that a putative mechanism of alternating attentional states directly
418 affecting cochlear processes could exist. To pursue our aims we adapted an
419 previously introduced approach for investigating cochlear otoacoustic activity
420 (Dragicevic et al., 2019) that allows us to draw first conclusions on how cortical
421 attention processes are linked to cochlear otoacoustic activity. We demonstrate
422 the presence of a theta-rhythmic pattern of otoacoustic activity during silent
423 periods when attention was focused on either upcoming auditory or visual
424 targets. Furthermore, we established a relationship between cochlear theta and
425 cortical alpha modulations during the cue-target periods. Despite several open
426 issues remaining, this study creates a connection between cochlear and cortical

427 attentional modulations and helps close the gap between the remarkably
428 segregated auditory attention research lines.

429 Our analysis of the OOA during the cue-target period indicated a genuine
430 rhythmic modulation in the theta frequency range (~6 Hz on average) that was
431 not explicable by aperiodic (“1/f”) contributions to the spectrum. The peak
432 frequency of the found rhythmic OOA pattern does not differ between visual and
433 auditory attention, indicating that an endogenous cochlear rhythm at ~6 Hz
434 could exist. Depending on the generating mechanisms of the theta rhythmic
435 cochlear activity, perceptual or attentional rhythmicities could either be genuine
436 cortically driven effects (with cochlear effects being epiphenomenal) or they (and
437 by extension cortical effects) could be an adaptation to cochlear physiological
438 processes. However, the interindividual difference in peak frequencies was rather
439 high, which hints at different mechanisms that putatively contribute to attention
440 processes on the cochlea. This assumption is backed by the active sampling
441 (Schroeder et al., 2010) literature, which points to the ubiquitousness of theta-
442 like rhythms in various cognitive domains ranging from perception to action
443 (Hasselmo & Stern, 2014; Poeppel, 2003; Spyropoulos et al., 2018; Tomassini et
444 al., 2017). Extending such views, a recent “rhythmic theory of attention”
445 framework states that attention is theta-rhythmically discontinuous over time
446 (Fiebelkorn & Kastner, 2019; Fries et al., 2001; Landau & Fries, 2012; Wutz et al.,
447 2018). While the latter framework has been developed mainly to better
448 understand visuospatial attention, similar processes may also be relevant in the
449 auditory system. For example (not in the focus of the current study), it is
450 conceivable that interaural attention modulates the phase of the theta rhythm in
451 both ears, facilitating signal transduction in the to-be-attended ear.

452 Beyond the illustration of a slow (theta) rhythmic modulation of OOA
453 during silent cue-target intervals independent of the attention focus, we show

454 that the magnitude of this process is clearly attentionally modulated. We found
455 an enhancement during auditory selective attention, which might reflect an
456 enhancement of cochlear sound amplification. In line with previous studies that
457 found reduced levels of OAEs in subjects attending to a visual task, our results
458 resemble an elevation of the to-be-attended acoustic stimulus during acoustic
459 selective attention (Froehlich, Collet, Valatx, & Morgon, 1993; Meric & Collet,
460 1992; Puel, Rebillard, Bonfils, & Pujol, 1989; Wittekindt et al., 2014; see Smith et
461 al. (2012) for an exception). Particularly, one study consistently reported similar
462 amplitude modulations at low frequencies (< 7 Hz; Dragicevic et al., 2019). Yet,
463 thus far, all studies on humans that have investigated effects of attention on the
464 cochlea in cue-target periods utilized different types of evoked OAEs (EOAE) and
465 distortion product OAEs (DPOAE). The measurement of EOAEs and DPOAEs relies
466 on acoustic elicitor and probe stimuli, which are able to alter cochlear properties
467 by themselves, making them rather unfavorable for assessing pure efferent
468 effects (Guinan et al., 2003). It has to be noted that there are two studies that
469 also investigated effects of attention (auditory & visual) and inattention on the
470 cochlea by measuring physiological noise in a silent period subsequently of
471 evoking nonlinear stimulus-frequency OAEs (Walsh et al., 2014a, 2014b).
472 However, both studies differ from the current one as they analyzed cochlear
473 activity after stimulation and did not compare auditory and visual attention
474 effects. In our study, we utilized OOA that is measured in silent cue-target
475 periods and therefore avoids any confounding efferent activity. Moreover, our
476 approach allows us to stay as close as possible to previous literature in the
477 cortical attention domain. In the current study we show power modulations of
478 OOA in frequencies that in the cortical literature have been repeatedly reported
479 to be related to various attentional task demands (Fiebelkorn et al., 2019; Fries
480 et al., 2001; Klimesch, 2012; Wutz et al., 2018). Electrical stimulation of the
481 auditory cortex in bats and chinchillas shows that cochlear responses can be

482 modulated in a frequency specific manner (Dragicevic et al., 2015; León et al.,
483 2012; Xiao & Suga, 2002). The current results imply that the modulation of
484 cochlear low-frequency oscillatory power putatively is driven by top-down
485 attentional processes (note that the frequency is unchanged). Given the well-
486 established neuroanatomy of the auditory efferent system, corticofugal
487 projections from the auditory cortex to the cochlear receptor, which are mediated
488 by the IC and SOC, are the most probable neural substrates of this effect. The
489 correlation effects of the present study, are compatible with this interpretation.

490 The current results of induced oscillatory activity in the MEG are in
491 accordance with previous results and give an insight into the attentional
492 demands of the task. Despite the unfavorable measurement conditions, we found
493 elevated alpha- and beta-band activity in the pretarget period of Attend Auditory
494 compared to Attend Visual trials in posterior regions but no modulations over
495 auditory regions. Various studies on intermodal selective attention have
496 postulated an active role of cortical alpha oscillations in modulating primary
497 sensory areas (Bauer et al., 2012; Foxe et al., 1998; Frey et al., 2014; Fu et al.,
498 2001; Wittekindt et al., 2014). In this context, alpha-band activity is proposed to
499 reflect a suppression mechanism and especially seems to be relevant if
500 distracting input has to be actively blocked. Two studies employing an
501 audiovisual task have reported alpha power increases in posterior sensors when
502 attention was directed to the auditory modality, power decreases when attention
503 was directed to the visual modality, and no alpha-band modulations over auditory
504 cortices (Foxe et al., 1998; Fu et al., 2001). In line with these findings, Wittekindt
505 et al. (2014) observed a relative posterior alpha power increase when attention
506 was focused on the upcoming auditory compared with the visual target. Our
507 findings showing increased alpha power in primary visual cortex during auditory
508 selective attention are in accordance with this view. In this way, alpha oscillations
509 act to reduce processing of distracting input for the task-irrelevant visual

510 modality.

511 Three previous studies have simultaneously recorded DPOAEs and EEG and
512 were therefore able to investigate the relationship between cochlear and brain
513 activity. Wittekindt et al. (2014) failed to show any correlations between those
514 two. The authors explain this by the fact that their found effects depict different
515 mechanisms of selective attention and thus do not depend on each other directly.
516 In contrast, Dragicevic et al. (2019) reported significant correlations between the
517 oscillatory DPOAE signal and cortical oscillations at low frequencies (< 10 Hz)
518 mainly when attention was switched from the visual to the auditory modality.
519 Finally, studying predictive processing using an intermodal predictability
520 paradigm Riecke et al. (2020) found a relationship between DPOAE and brain
521 effects. However, this relationship is limited to participants that benefited from
522 predictions. Overall, as mentioned above, the elicitor stimuli which are required
523 to evoke DPOAEs are prone to elicit MOC efferent activity that causes intrinsic
524 cochlear changes by themselves. Hence, any inferences from correlations
525 between oscillatory activity of the cochlea and the brain have to be treated with
526 caution. The current study avoids these pitfalls by utilizing OOA in silent periods.

527 We found evidence for a putative relationship, namely, a negative
528 correlation of cochlear low-frequency (1-10 Hz) power of the right ear and brain
529 power, during periods of selective attention. This correlation was especially
530 pronounced in the alpha-, theta-, and beta-band and was located in left auditory
531 processing regions. It appears that subjects that exhibit a stronger cortical
532 release of inhibition of auditory input (by reduced alpha-power) at the same time
533 show stronger enhancement of the auditory target in the auditory periphery (by
534 enhanced low-frequency OAA-power) and vice versa. Furthermore, the correlation
535 in the theta-band is strongest at ~6 Hz, the same frequency as the extracted
536 periodic component of the OOA. Taking the relationships in the alpha- and theta-

537 band together, they could point to a mechanism for a release of inhibition.
538 Considering the architecture of the auditory efferent system it is likely that the
539 outlined auditory cortical regions are a departure point for top-down modulations
540 of cochlear activity in the current experiment. The observed cortico-cochlear
541 correlations are compatible with the notion that these top-down modulations
542 propagate through the efferent auditory pathway via crossed MOC fibres (Lopez-
543 Poveda, 2018). Interindividual variability appears to exist to the extent that this
544 top-down modulation is deployed next to the predominant inhibition of visual
545 processing regions. In accordance with our findings (see also Dragicevic et al.
546 (2019)) we suggest that top-down control of cochlear processing by cortical
547 regions is mediated by slow oscillatory brain activity.

548 **Conclusion**

549 The present study implies the existence of an putatively endogenous
550 cochlear rhythm in the theta-band - a rhythm suggested to be linked to active
551 sampling of the environment in different modalities (Fiebelkorn & Kastner, 2019;
552 Landau & Fries, 2012; Schroeder et al., 2010). An outstanding question for future
553 research is to understand the mechanistic relationship between cochlear theta
554 rhythms and - especially auditory - cortical rhythms. Our results show that
555 cochlear activity is modulated by intermodal top-down attention. In this regard, it
556 provides evidence for the ongoing debate, whether the human auditory periphery
557 is sensitive to top-down modulations (Beim et al., 2018; Lopez-Poveda, 2018).
558 Future studies should investigate how these processes are manifested in
559 individuals with reported hearing problems with or without audiometric deficits.

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