

The Pupillary Light Response Reflects Visual Working Memory Content

Cecilia Hustá [1,2]

Edwin Dalmaijer [3]

Artem Belopolsky [4]

Sebastiaan Mathôt [2]

[1] Faculty of Science and Engineering, University of Groningen, The Netherlands

[2] Department of Experimental Psychology, University of Groningen, The
Netherlands

[3] MRC Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit, University of Cambridge, United
Kingdom

[4] Department of Experimental and Applied Psychology, VU University Amsterdam,
Netherlands

1 **Abstract**

2

3 Recent studies have shown that the pupillary light response (PLR) is modulated by
4 higher cognitive functions, presumably through activity in visual sensory brain areas.
5 Here we use the PLR to test the involvement of sensory areas in visual working
6 memory (VWM). In two experiments, participants memorized either bright or dark
7 stimuli. We found that pupils were smaller when a pre-stimulus cue indicated that a
8 bright stimulus should be memorized; this reflects a covert shift of attention during
9 encoding of items into VWM. Crucially, we obtained the same result with a post-
10 stimulus cue, which shows that internal shifts of attention within VWM affect pupil
11 size as well. Strikingly, pupil size reflected VWM content only briefly. This suggests
12 that a shift of attention within VWM momentarily activates an “active” memory
13 representation, but that this representation quickly transforms into a “hidden” state
14 that does not rely on sensory areas.

15

16 *Keywords:* pupillometry, pupil light response, visual working memory

17 **The Pupillary Light Response Reflects Visual Working Memory Content**

18

19 Traditionally, the pupillary light response (PLR) was considered a reflex in
20 response to changes in environmental brightness. However, recent studies have
21 demonstrated that the PLR is modulated by higher-level cognition (reviewed in Binda
22 & Murray, 2015; Mathôt, 2018). Such effects likely occur when higher-level
23 cognition affects activity in visual sensory brain areas, which is subsequently “read
24 out” by the pupils.

25 For example, in several studies, participants were presented with both dark and
26 bright stimuli. Participants were subsequently cued to attend to either the bright or the
27 dark stimulus, without shifting their gaze (i.e. covert attention). Attending to the
28 bright stimuli resulted in smaller pupils than attending to the dark stimuli (Binda,
29 Pereverzeva, & Murray, 2013; Mathôt, van der Linden, Grainger, & Vitu, 2013;
30 Naber, Alvarez, & Nakayama, 2013). Single-cell-recording studies have linked this
31 effect to the frontal eye fields (FEF), a part of the frontal cortex that is associated with
32 covert attention. Microstimulation of FEF results in increased attention to a specific
33 part of the visual field (Moore & Fallah, 2001). Crucially, if the stimulated region
34 corresponds to the location where a bright stimulus appears, the pupil constricts more
35 strongly than if the stimulus appears at a different, unstimulated location (Ebitz &
36 Moore, 2017). A similar effect has been reported for microstimulation of the superior
37 colliculus (SC), a midbrain region that is also associated with visual attention (Wang
38 & Munoz, in press). Taken together, both behavioral and neurophysiological studies
39 have shown that covert visual attention enhances the PLR.

40 A PLR can even be elicited without the physical presence of bright or dark
41 stimuli. In studies of mental imagery, participants were instructed to imagine stimuli
42 that had previously been presented with varying brightness levels. The size of the
43 pupil varied depending on the imagined brightness, with brighter objects resulting in
44 smaller pupils (Laeng & Sulutvedt, 2014). This effect was replicated with mental
45 imagery of real-life scenarios: Imagery of scenes like “a sunny sky” resulted in
46 smaller pupils than imagery of scenes like “a dark room” (Laeng & Sulutvedt, 2014).
47 These results are consistent with the finding that similar visual sensory areas are
48 active during perception and mental imagery of visual objects (Ganis, Thompson, &
49 Kosslyn, 2004). Presumably, the activity in visual sensory areas that is elicited by
50 mental imagery subsequently affects pupil size.

51 According to many theoretical frameworks, mental imagery is highly related to
52 visual working memory (VWM). VWM is a system with limited storage capacity that
53 holds visual information ready for immediate use. VWM consists of encoding and
54 maintenance. During encoding, visual stimuli are visible and a VWM representation is
55 created (Bundesen, 1990; Dalmaijer, Manohar, & Husain, 2018). During maintenance,
56 stimuli are no longer visible, and their VWM representations therefore need to be
57 rehearsed so that they can be used later (Zokaei, Heider, & Husain, 2014). Analogous
58 to mental imagery, maintaining of stimuli in VWM activates visual sensory areas (Yi,
59 Turk-Browne, Chun, & Johnson, 2008). The similarity between mental imagery and
60 VWM maintenance leads to the prediction that maintaining bright stimuli in VWM
61 should lead to pupil constriction.

62 However, the only study so far that investigated this question reported that
63 maintaining bright or dark stimuli in VWM did *not* affect the PLR (Blom, Mathôt,
64 Olivers, & Van der Stigchel, 2016). Blom and colleagues (2016) cued participants to
65 memorize either bright or dark objects. In different experiments, participants
66 memorized the shape, orientation, or the exact brightness level of the stimuli. Pupil
67 size was significantly smaller when participants were encoding the bright as compared
68 to the dark stimuli. However, this effect faded approximately one second after the
69 stimuli disappeared from the screen. This led Blom and colleagues (2016) to conclude
70 that the PLR reflects VWM content during encoding, but not during maintenance.
71 Phrased differently, the authors concluded that keeping bright or dark objects in
72 VWM does not affect pupil size.

73 However, there are several alternative explanations for the results of Blom and
74 colleagues (2016) that warrant a re-investigation of the question. Notably, in their
75 experiments, participants were presented with a cue *before* (rather than after) the
76 presentation of the brightness-related stimuli, and this cue indicated whether only the
77 bright or only the dark stimuli needed to be memorized. Therefore, participants
78 covertly shifted their attention to either the bright or the dark stimuli while these were
79 actually present on the screen, leading to differences in pupil size (cf. Binda et al.,
80 2013; Mathôt et al., 2013). Crucially, because this pupil-size difference persisted into
81 the maintenance period, it was not clear whether any pupil-size differences during
82 maintenance were due to VWM per se, or merely reflected a carry-over effect from
83 the encoding phase (as Blom and colleagues concluded).

84 The question of whether brightness-related content in VWM affects pupil size is
85 important, because, if so, this would strongly suggest that VWM relies on sensory
86 brain areas—currently a hotly debated topic (Gayet, Paffen, & Van der Stigchel,
87 2018; Xu, 2017). Therefore, to firmly establish whether keeping bright or dark stimuli
88 in VWM affects pupil size, we designed a study that allowed us to distinguish any
89 effects due to VWM encoding from effects due to VWM maintenance. In one
90 condition of our experiment, we wanted to replicate the effect of covert visual
91 attention on the PLR (Binda et al., 2013; Blom et al., 2016; Mathôt et al., 2013). As
92 shown in many earlier studies, we expected that directing covert attention to dark or
93 bright stimuli during VWM encoding would be reflected in the PLR. In another
94 condition, we introduced a retro-cue to investigate the relationship between VWM
95 maintenance and the PLR (cf. Belopolsky & Theeuwes, 2011). Participants were
96 instructed to first encode both bright and dark stimuli, so that the encoding phase was
97 identical in all trials. Subsequently, participants dropped one stimulus from VWM
98 when the retro-cue was presented, leaving either only bright or only dark stimuli for
99 maintenance in VWM. Crucially, we predicted that maintaining bright stimuli would
100 result in smaller pupils as compared to maintaining dark stimuli.

101

102

Results

103

Experiment 1

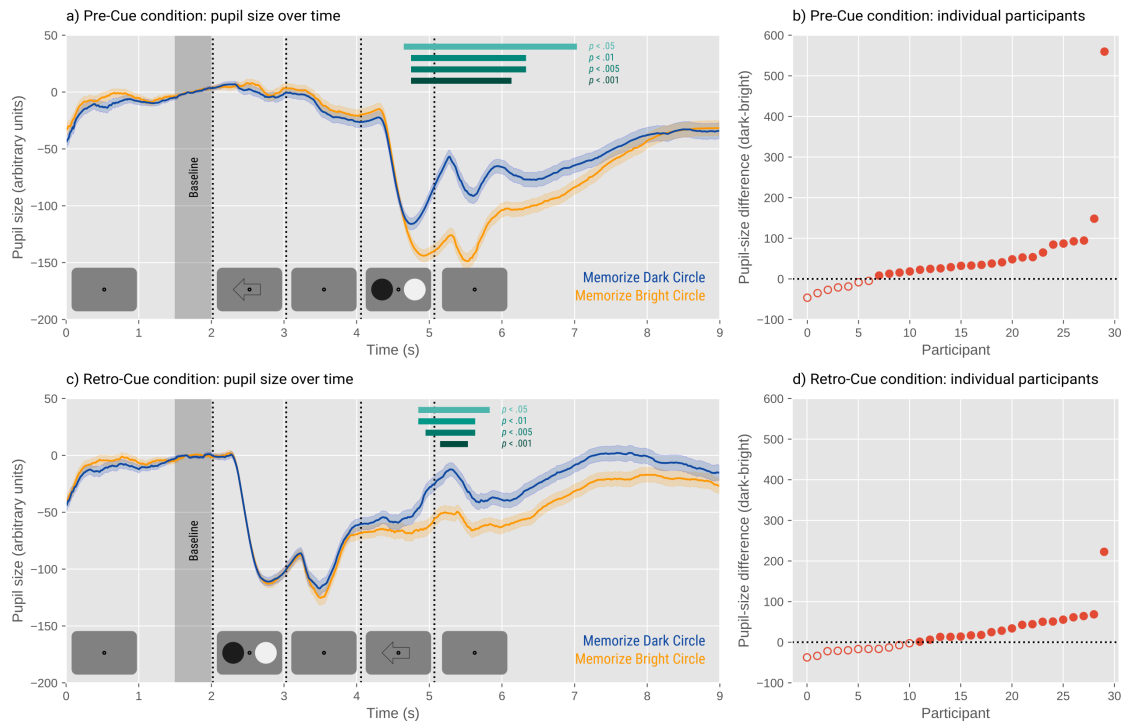
104

105 Experiment 1 included two conditions: Pre-Cue and Retro-Cue (Figure 1a &
106 1c). In the Pre-Cue condition, participants were cued to either attend to the stimulus
107 appearing on the left or right side. Next, they were presented with one bright and one
108 dark circle. The participants' task was to maintain the precise brightness level of the
109 cued circle. Finally, after a retention interval of 4 s, participants indicated whether the
110 brightness of a newly presented circle was the same as, or different from, the
111 brightness of the memorized circle. The Retro-Cue Condition was almost identical to
112 the Pre-Cue Condition, with the important difference that the to-be-memorized stimuli
113 were shown before the cue. We used a Quest adaptive procedure (Watson & Pelli,
114 1983) to ensure that the response accuracy for both bright and dark stimuli was kept at
115 around 75%. In the Pre-Cue Condition, the mean accuracy was 75% for bright trials
116 and 74% for dark trials. In the Retro-Cue Condition, the mean accuracy was 71% for
117 bright and 69% for dark trials.

118 We conducted a linear mixed effects analysis (LME) on all trials (correct and
119 incorrect; analyzing only correct trials did not qualitatively change the results) with
120 Pupil Size as dependent measure, and two fixed effects, each containing two levels
121 (Brightness: Bright and Dark; Condition: Pre-Cue and Retro-Cue). We include by-
122 participant random intercepts and slopes for all fixed effects. This analysis was
123 conducted for each 10 ms time window separately. We considered effects significant
124 if $t > 1.96$ (cf. Mathot et al., 2014; Mathôt et al., 2013), although we emphasize
125 overall patterns and effect sizes rather than significance of individual data points.
126 There was a significant interaction between Brightness and Condition between 5100
127 ms and 5590 ms, indicating that right at the start of the maintenance phase, the effect
128 of brightness depended on the condition (Pre-Cue or Retro-Cue). Subsequently, we
129 performed two separate LMEs for the two conditions (also run with all trials).

130 For the Pre-Cue Condition, there was a significant effect of Brightness from
131 4700 ms to 6990 ms, meaning that the pupil difference appeared during encoding of
132 the brightness-related stimuli and briefly persisted into the maintenance phase (Figure
133 1a). Twenty-three participants (out of 30) exhibited the effect in the expected
134 direction (Figure 1b). In general, this means that when participants covertly attended
135 to the white circles on the encode screen, their pupils were smaller than when they
136 attended to the black circles.

137 In the Retro-Cue Condition, there was an effect of Brightness from 4900 ms
138 until 5790 ms (Figure 1c), directly corresponding to the maintenance phase. The
139 effect occurred in the expected direction for 19 participants (out of 30; Figure 1d).
140 This indicates that VWM content is reflected in the PLR not only during encoding but
141 also during maintenance. Phrased differently, shifting attention within VWM
142 representations (that are brightness-related) is reflected in pupil size, such that
143 internally shifting attention toward bright stimuli elicits smaller pupils than internally
144 shifting attention toward dark stimuli.



145

146 **Figure 1.** Results of Experiment 1. a) This figure shows averaged pupil size for all
147 participants through the progression of all Pre-Cue trials. The orange line represents
148 the average pupil size when bright stimuli are the targets and the blue line when dark
149 stimuli are the targets. The shaded error bands represent the grand standard error
150 (i.e. across individual trials). b) Shows the average effects of individual participants
151 in the Pre-Cue Condition between 4000 ms and 6000 ms calculated by subtracting the
152 mean pupil size for bright trials from dark trials. c) Shows averaged pupil size for all
153 participants through the progression of all Retro-Cue trials. d) Shows the average
154 effects of individual participants in the Retro-Cue Condition calculated in the same
155 way as for the Pre-Cue Condition.

156

157 In summary, by using a retro-cue to shift attention within vWM representations,
158 we were able to examine the relationship between maintenance of brightness-related
159 content and pupil size while keeping stimulus encoding constant. Our results clearly
160 show that shifting attention to bright stimuli in vWM results in pupil constriction
161 relative to maintaining dark stimuli.

162

163 Experiment 2

164

165

In Experiment 2, we investigated if the relationship between the VWM content and the PLR depends on whether VWM representations are in a high- or low-priority

166 state, following single-item-template theories that postulate that only a single VWM
167 item can be in a high-priority state at a time, and that only this item is represented in
168 visual sensory areas (Folk & Anderson, 2010; Houtkamp & Roelfsema, 2009;
169 Oberauer, 2002; Olivers, Peters, Houtkamp, & Roelfsema, 2011; Zokaei, Manohar,
170 Husain, & Feredoes, 2014), and thus affects the size of the pupil. We investigated this
171 by varying memory load. Participants were either asked to maintain one item or two
172 items during the retention interval. Single-item-template theories would predict that
173 the PLR would reflect VWM content only when participants maintained one item,
174 which was in a high-priority state, and not when participants maintained two items,
175 which would then compete with each other and both take on a low-priority state (cf.
176 Olivers et al., 2011; van Moorselaar, Theeuwes, & Olivers, 2014).

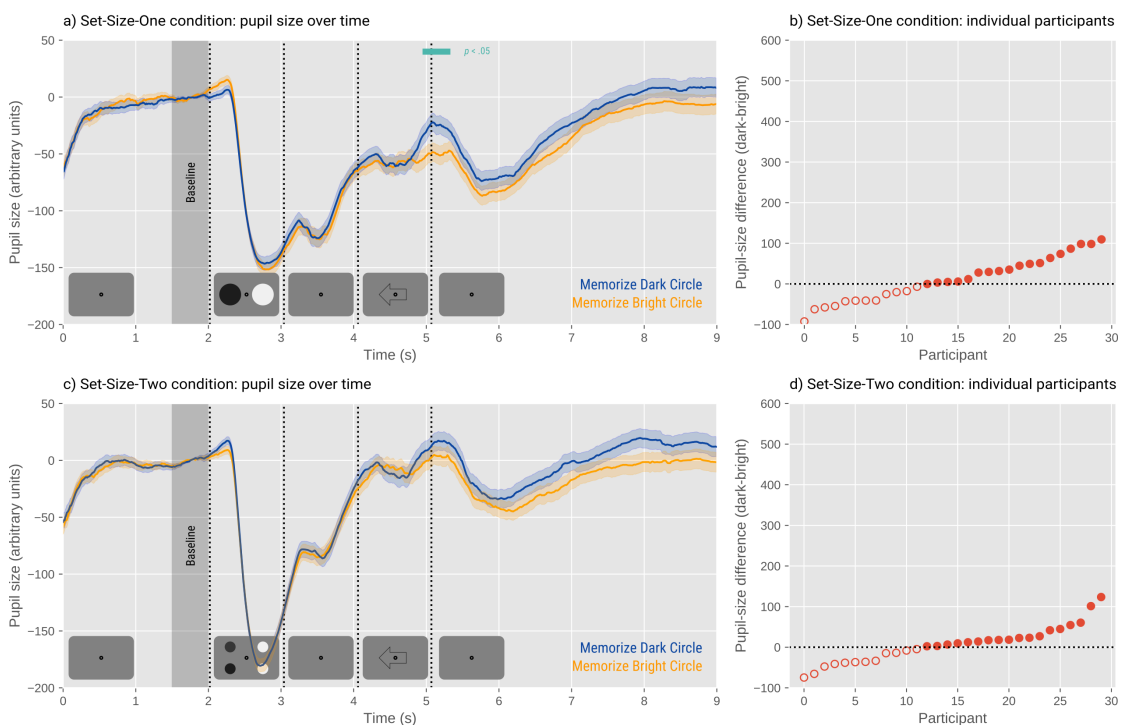
177 We designed two conditions: Set-Size-One and Set-Size-Two. The Set-Size-
178 One Condition was an exact replication of the Retro-Cue-Condition (Figure 2a). In the
179 Set-Size-Two Condition, we presented participants with four stimuli during the
180 encoding phase. The retro cue indicated whether the two circles on the right or on the
181 left were task relevant. During the response phase, participants had to indicate
182 whether the two new circles were both identical to the memorized circles, or if one of
183 them was different (Figure 2c). A Quest adaptive procedure (Watson & Pelli, 1983)
184 controlled for accuracy separately for the Bright and Dark Conditions as well as for
185 the Set-Size-One and Set-Size-Two Conditions to try to keep accuracy at a constant
186 75% in all conditions. In the Set-Size-One Condition, the mean accuracy for the bright
187 trials was 69% and 68% for the dark trials. In the Set-Size-Two Condition, the
188 accuracy was 74% for the bright and 71% for the dark trials.

189 A similar analysis was performed as for Experiment 1, using Brightness (Bright
190 and Dark) and Memory Load (Set-Size-One and Set-Size-Two) as fixed effects. This
191 analysis revealed no interaction between Memory Load and Brightness after the
192 presentation of the retro cue. This means that the effect of brightness on the PLR did
193 not notably differ between the two memory-load conditions. This suggests that the
194 effect of brightness-related VWM content on the PLR does not crucially depend on
195 the priority status of the items in VWM. (There was a spurious interaction between
196 Brightness and Condition from 2100 ms to 2290 ms, which corresponded to the
197 encoding phase. However, no interaction could occur before presentation of the
198 targets, as participants were not aware which brightness would have to be encoded,
199 and hence this effect is necessarily spurious.)

200 Despite not finding a significant interaction in the overall model, we analyzed
201 the two Memory Load conditions separately. In the Set-Size-One Condition, we
202 replicated the significant effect of Brightness on pupil size between 5000 ms and 5290
203 ms, meaning that on average, the participants' pupils were smaller when maintaining
204 bright circles as compared to the dark at the beginning of the maintenance phase
205 (Figure 3a). However, it should be noted that this effect was weaker and present for
206 fewer ($N = 18$, of 30) participants than in Experiment 1.

207 The Set-Size-Two Condition revealed no significant effects of brightness on
208 pupil size (Figure 2c). However, because the effect was qualitatively in the same
209 direction as for the Set-Size-One Condition, and because the interaction between
210 Brightness and Memory Load was not reliable, we do not draw any conclusions about
211 an effect of Memory Load. Eighteen participants (out of 30) had smaller pupils when
212 maintaining bright stimuli as compared to the dark in the Set-Size-Two Condition
213 (Figure 2d).

214



215

216 **Figure 2.** Results of Experiment 2. a) This figure shows averaged pupil size for all
217 participants through the progression of all Set-Size-One trials. The orange line
218 represents the average pupil size when bright stimuli are the targets and the blue line
219 when dark stimuli are the targets. The shaded error bars represent the grand
220 standard error (i.e. across individual trials). b) Shows the average effects of

221 *individual participants in the Set-Size-One Condition between 4000 ms and 6000 ms*
222 *calculated by subtracting the summed pupil size for bright trials from dark trials. c)*
223 *Shows averaged pupil size for all participants through the progression of all Set-Size-*
224 *Two trials. d) Shows the average effects of individual participants in the Set-Size-Two*
225 *Condition calculated in the same way as for the Pre-Cue Condition.*

226

227

Discussion

228

229 In two experiments, we examined whether visual working memory (VWM)
230 content is reflected in the pupillary light response (PLR). Specifically, we wanted to
231 know whether maintaining bright stimuli in VWM is associated with smaller pupils
232 than maintaining dark stimuli. Overall, we showed that VWM content is reflected in
233 the PLR during both encoding and maintenance. Consistent with previous studies
234 (Binda et al., 2013; Laeng & Sulutvedt, 2014; Mathôt et al., 2013), this shows that the
235 PLR, which was previously thought of as a simple reflex, is controlled by higher
236 cognitive processes, such as working memory. Our results further suggest that VWM
237 involves sensory representations, presumably in visual cortex (Yi et al., 2008), which
238 subsequently trigger pupil responses.

239 A striking aspect of our results is the time course (in the Retro-Cue Condition of
240 Experiment 1, and the Set-Size-One Condition of Experiment 2). The content of
241 VWM affected pupil size only briefly after the presentation of the retro-cue, rather
242 than throughout the entire retention interval. This was unexpected, considering that
243 we anticipated that this effect reflected maintenance of different brightness levels,
244 which should occur during the entire retention interval. However, this finding is
245 consistent with recent studies showing that VWM maintenance is not accompanied by
246 sustained activity in visual sensory brain areas, but rather that such activity is
247 periodical or transient (Rose et al., 2016; Sprague, Ester, & Serences, 2016;
248 Sreenivasan, Curtis, & D'Esposito, 2014; Stokes, 2015; Wolff, Jochim, Akyürek, &
249 Stokes, 2017). Our finding that pupil size reflects VWM content only briefly may
250 reflect a transition from an 'active' state (which is reflected in pupil size) to a 'hidden'
251 state (which is not reflected in pupil size). This provides unique new support for the
252 notion of hidden VWM states, which has so far come primarily from decoding
253 analyses in brain imaging; however, decoding studies provide inconclusive evidence
254 for hidden states, because simulations indicate that re-emerging stimulus decodability

255 in neuroimaging data could also reflect sustained neural activity (Schneegans & Bays,
256 2017).

257 We did not find a compelling dissociation between maintenance of one or two
258 brightness-related stimuli. Such a dissociation would be predicted by strong single-
259 item-template theories, which hold that there can be only one active item in VWM at
260 a time, and that competition within VWM representations avoids any item from
261 becoming active when multiple items are kept in VWM (van Moorselaar et al., 2014).
262 We found qualitatively similar, but weaker effects on pupil size with a memory load
263 of two items, as compared to one item. Overall, our results suggest that whether a
264 VWM item is in an active or “silent” state depends strongly on time, and at most
265 weakly on memory load.

266 So why is pupil size affected by the content of VWM and other cognitive
267 factors? Possibly, the effect of higher cognitive functions on pupil size are preparatory
268 mechanisms that optimize pupil size in anticipation of an environmental change in
269 brightness (Mathôt, van der Linden, Grainger, & Vitu, 2015). For example, if you are
270 in the dark and think about turning on a lamp, it is likely that you are going to do this
271 soon. Therefore, it might be beneficial for your pupils to constrict before a sudden
272 change of luminance impairs your vision.

273

Methods

274

275 Participant data, experimental scripts, and analysis scripts are available
276 from <https://osf.io/ejxfa/>.

277

278 **Experiment 1**

279 *Participants*

280 We recruited 30 first-year psychology students from the University of
281 Groningen, who participated in the present study for course credit. All participants
282 had normal or corrected to normal vision, except for two participants, who took part
283 in the experiment without their glasses, as calibration was not possible with them. The
284 age of the participants ranged between 18 and 54 ($M = 21$, $SD = 6.47$), and 23
285 participants were females, six were males, and one identified as different gender. Both
286 experiments were approved by the local ethics review board of the Department of
287 Psychology of the University of Groningen (17370-S-NE).

288 *Apparatus*

289 Participants' eye movements and pupil sizes were recorded with an Eyelink
290 1000 (SR Research, Mississauga, Canada, ON), and the data was sampled at 1000 Hz.
291 The data was collected by recording the size of the right pupil of all of the
292 participants. The collection was done in a dark room and participants were asked to
293 place their head in a chin rest throughout the experiment. The task was designed with
294 OpenSesame 3.2.0 (Mathôt, Schreij, & Theeuwes, 2012), using the PyGaze plug-ins
295 for eye tracking (Dalmaijer, Mathôt, & Van der Stigchel, 2014). The stimuli were
296 presented on a monitor with LCD display with 60 Hz refresh rate and resolution of
297 1920 x 1080.

298 *Procedure and Stimuli*

299 Before the experiment started, the eye tracker was calibrated with a five-point
300 calibration procedure. Afterward, participants took part in a task in which they
301 memorized a particular brightness level of black and white circles that appeared on a
302 grey background (62 cd/m^2). Participants were instructed to keep their eyes focused
303 on a black fixation dot (2 cd/m^2) that was in the center at all times. This was ensured
304 by presenting a drift correction at the beginning of each trial, which paused the
305 experiment unless participants shifted their gaze back to the center. Participants had a

306 chance to get familiar with the task during a practice phase (10 trials). Experiment 1
307 was composed of 16 blocks, each lasting 3.47 minutes at most (excluding the duration
308 of the drift corrections); the precise duration depended on the speed of responses.
309 Each block consisted of 16 trials, with half the trials belonging to the Pre-Cue and half
310 to the Retro-Cue Condition presented in random order.

311 In the Pre-Cue condition participants were initially presented with a cue (arrow
312 pointing to the left or right) indicating whether the stimulus on the left or right would
313 be task relevant. Subsequently two stimuli appeared (one black and one white circle),
314 one of which they had to encode. This was followed by a retention interval lasting for
315 4 seconds. During the response phase, participants were presented with a circle of the
316 same or a similar brightness as the one they had memorized. Participants had to report
317 whether the brightness of this circle was the same as, or different from, the one they
318 had memorized. The Retro-Cue Condition was almost identical to the Pre-Cue one,
319 however, the order of the cue and target were reversed. (For durations of individual
320 phases of the trial see Figure 1a and 1c.)

321 The targets for the bright and dark trials were selected from a specified
322 brightness ranges. The bright range extended from 88 cd/m² to 96 cd/m², and the dark
323 range extended from 11 cd/m² to 19 cd/m². A different response stimulus was brighter
324 on some trials and darker on others. The size of this difference was controlled by a
325 Quest adaptive procedure. It was implemented to control for participants' accuracies,
326 holding them constant at 75% for dark and bright stimuli separately.

327 After participants completed the task, they were asked about the strategies they
328 used throughout the experiment (see supplementary materials at
329 <https://osf.io/ejxfa/>).

330 *Exclusion Criteria*

331 For both conditions, trials in which the pupil at baseline was smaller than 2.1
332 mm in diameter or greater than 6.8 mm in diameter ($N(\text{trial}) = 1$) were excluded (as
333 values above these were clear outliers based on a visual inspection of the pupil-
334 baseline histogram). Additionally, in the Pre-Cue Condition, trials were excluded if
335 participants horizontal gaze position deviated from the central band (between the
336 targets) position during the presentation of the encode screen ($N(\text{trial}) = 522$). No such
337 exclusion criteria were introduced for the Retro-Cue Condition, considering that
338 participants did not know which stimulus was the target during the presentation of the

339 encode screen, and eye movements could therefore not be systematically biased
340 towards the to-be-memorized stimulus.

341

342 **Experiment 2**

343 *Participants*

344 Thirty participants were recruited from the same sample pool as in Experiment
345 1. All participants had normal or corrected to normal vision. The age of the
346 participants ranged between 18 and 34 ($M = 21.03$, $SD = 3.00$), and 19 were females
347 and 11 were males.

348 *Apparatus*

349 The same setup as in Experiment 1 was used.

350 *Procedure and Stimuli*

351 Identical calibration and drift correction procedures were used as in Experiment
352 1. The goal of the task was again to remember brightness level of black and white
353 stimuli, but the number of stimuli varied. Participants had a chance to get familiar
354 with the task during a practice phase (16 trials). Experiment 2 was composed of 14
355 blocks, each again lasting at most 3.47 minutes (excluding the duration of the drift
356 corrections). Each block consisted of 16 trials; in eight trials participants had to
357 maintain one stimulus (Set-Size-One Condition) and in the other eight trials they had
358 to maintain two stimuli (Set-Size-Two Condition) in their VWM. The stimuli were
359 dark on half of the trials and bright on the other half, all appearing on grey
360 background (62 cd/m^2). The conditions were presented in random order within blocks.

361 The sequence of both conditions was the same as in the Retro-Cue Condition in
362 Experiment 1. The Retro-Cue Condition from Experiment 1 was identical to the Set-
363 Size-One Condition in Experiment 2, in which participants had to maintain one
364 stimulus in VWM (Figure 2a). In Set-Size-Two Condition, participants had to
365 maintain two stimuli in their VWM after four circles were presented on the encode
366 screen (Figure 2c). The subsequent arrow indicated whether the stimuli on the right or
367 left were task relevant. Two circles were presented on the response screen. On the
368 different trials the brightness of only one of the circles changed to ensure that
369 participants were remembering the brightness of both circles.

370 The targets for the bright and dark trials were again selected from a specified
371 brightness ranges. There were two bright ranges (very bright: $101 \text{ cd/m}^2 - 113 \text{ cd/m}^2$,
372 somewhat bright: $83 \text{ cd/m}^2 - 92 \text{ cd/m}^2$) and two dark ranges (somewhat dark: 23

373 $\text{cd/m}^2 - 32 \text{ cd/m}^2$, very dark: $2 \text{ cd/m}^2 - 13 \text{ cd/m}^2$). How a stimulus was changed in
374 different trials depended on the brightness range it was selected from (very bright and
375 somewhat dark always changed to a darker stimulus, somewhat bright and very dark
376 always changed to a lighter stimulus). When four circles were presented on the screen,
377 they were all selected from different brightness ranges, to ensure sufficient variance in
378 the brightness levels. The size of the brightness difference was controlled by a Quest
379 adaptive procedure. It was implemented to control for the participants' accuracies,
380 holding them constant at 75%, and it controlled for the accuracy separately in the four
381 conditions (Set-Size-One Bright, Set-Size-One Dark, Set-Size-Two Bright, and Set-
382 Size-Two Dark).

383 After the participants completed the task they were again asked about the
384 strategies they used throughout the experiment (see supplementary materials for more
385 information at <https://osf.io/ejxfa/>).

386 *Exclusion Criteria*

387 Trials on which the pupil size at baseline was lower than 2.1 mm or higher than
388 6.8 mm in diameter ($N = 10$) were again excluded.

References

- Belopolsky, A. V., & Theeuwes, J. (2011). Selection within visual memory representations activates the oculomotor system. *Neuropsychologia*, *49*(6), 1605–1610. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2010.12.045>
- Binda, P., & Murray, S. O. (2015). Keeping a large-pupilled eye on high-level visual processing. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *19*(1), 1–3. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2014.11.002>
- Binda, P., Pereverzeva, M., & Murray, S. O. (2013). Pupil constrictions to photographs of the sun. *Journal of Vision*, *13*(6), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1167/13.6.8>
- Blom, T., Mathôt, S., Olivers, C. N. L., & Van der Stigchel, S. (2016). The pupillary light response reflects encoding, but not maintenance, in visual working memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *42*(11), 1716–1723. <https://doi.org/10.1037/xhp0000252>
- Bundesen, C. (1990). A theory of visual attention. *Psychological Review*, *97*(4), 523–547. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2247540>
- Dalmajier, E. S., Manohar, S. G., & Husain, M. (2018). Parallel encoding of information into visual short-term memory. <https://doi.org/398990>.
- Dalmajier, E. S., Mathôt, S., & Van der Stigchel, S. (2014). PyGaze: An open-source, cross-platform toolbox for minimal-effort programming of eyetracking experiments. *Behavior Research Methods*, *46*(4), 913–921. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-013-0422-2>
- Ebitz, B. R., & Moore, T. (2017). Selective modulation of the pupil light reflex by microstimulation of prefrontal cortex. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *37*(19), 5008–5018. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2433-16.2017>
- Folk, C. L., & Anderson, B. A. (2010). Target-uncertainty effects in attentional capture: Color-singleton set or multiple attentional control settings? *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review*, *17*(3), 421–426. <https://doi.org/doi:10.3758/PBR.17.3.421>
- Ganis, G., Thompson, W. L., & Kosslyn, S. M. (2004). Brain areas underlying visual mental imagery and visual perception: An fMRI study. *Cognitive Brain Research*, *20*(2), 226–241. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogbrainres.2004.02.012>

- Gayet, S., Paffen, C. L. E., & Van der Stigchel, S. (2018). Visual working memory storage recruits sensory processing areas. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 22(3), 189–190. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2017.09.011>
- Houtkamp, R., & Roelfsema, P. R. (2009). Matching of visual input to only one item at any one time. *Psychological Research*, 73(3), 317–326. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00426-008-0157-3>
- Laeng, B., & Sulutvedt, U. (2014). The eye pupil adjusts to imaginary light. *Psychological Science*, 25(1), 188–197. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797613503556>
- Mathôt, S. (2018). Pupillometry: Psychology, physiology, and function. *Journal of Cognition*, 1(16), 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.5334/joc.18>
- Mathot, S., Dalmaijer, E., Grainger, J., & Van der Stigchel, S. (2014). The pupillary light response reflects exogenous attention and inhibition of return. *Journal of Vision*, 14(14), 7–7. <https://doi.org/10.1167/14.14.7>
- Mathôt, S., Schreij, D., & Theeuwes, J. (2012). OpenSesame: An open-source, graphical experiment builder for the social sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, 44(2), 314–324. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-011-0168-7>
- Mathôt, S., van der Linden, L., Grainger, J., & Vitu, F. (2013). The pupillary light response reveals the focus of covert visual attention. *PLoS ONE*, 8(10). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0078168>
- Mathôt, S., van der Linden, L., Grainger, J., & Vitu, F. (2015). The pupillary light response reflects eye-movement preparation. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 41(1), 28–35. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038653>
- Moore, T., & Fallah, M. (2001). Control of eye movements and spatial attention. *PNAS*, 98(3), 1273–1276. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.98.3.1273>
- Naber, M., Alvarez, G. A., & Nakayama, K. (2013). Tracking the allocation of attention using human pupillary oscillations. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 4(3), 592–600. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00919>
- Oberauer, K. (2002). Access to information in working memory: Exploring the focus of attention. *Journal of Experimental Psychology. Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 28(3), 411–421. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12018494>

- Olivers, C. N. L., Peters, J., Houtkamp, R., & Roelfsema, P. R. (2011). Different states in visual working memory: When it guides attention and when it does not. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *15*(7), 327–334.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2011.05.004>
- Rose, N. S., LaRocque, J. J., Riggall, A. C., Gosseries, O., Starrett, M. J., Meyering, E. E., & Postle, B. R. (2016). Reactivation of latent working memories with transcranial magnetic stimulation. *Science*, *354*(6316), 1136–1139.
<https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aah7011>
- Schneegans, S., & Bays, P. M. (2017). Restoration of fMRI decodability does not imply latent working memory states. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, *29*(12), 1977–1994. https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn_a_01180
- Sprague, T. C., Ester, E. F., & Serences, J. T. (2016). Restoring latent visual working memory representations in human cortex. *Neuron*, *91*(3), 694–707.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2016.07.006>
- Sreenivasan, K. K., Curtis, C. E., & D’Esposito, M. (2014). Revisiting the role of persistent neural activity during working memory. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *18*(2), 82–89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2013.12.001>
- Stokes, M. G. (2015). “Activity-silent” working memory in prefrontal cortex: A dynamic coding framework. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *19*(7), 394–405.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2015.05.004>
- van Moorselaar, D., Theeuwes, J., & Olivers, C. N. L. (2014). In competition for the attentional template: Can multiple items within visual working memory guide attention? *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *40*(4), 1450–1464. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036229>
- Watson, A. B., & Pelli, D. G. (1983). Quest: A Bayesian adaptive psychometric method. *Perception & Psychophysics*, *33*(2), 113–120.
<https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03202828>
- Wolff, M. J., Jochim, J., Akyürek, E. G., & Stokes, M. G. (2017). Dynamic hidden states underlying working-memory-guided behavior. *Nature Neuroscience*, *20*(6), 864–871. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nn.4546>
- Xu, Y. (2017). Reevaluating the sensory account of visual working memory storage. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *21*(10), 794–815.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2017.06.013>

- Yi, D.-J., Turk-Browne, N. B., Chun, M. M., & Johnson, M. K. (2008). When a Thought Equals a Look: Refreshing Enhances Perceptual Memory. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, *20*(8), 1371–1380.
<https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2008.20094>
- Zokaei, N., Heider, M., & Husain, M. (2014). Attention is Required for Maintenance of Feature Binding in Visual Working Memory. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *67*(6), 1191–1213.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17470218.2013.852232>
- Zokaei, N., Manohar, S., Husain, M., & Feredoes, E. (2014). Causal evidence for a privileged working memory state in early visual cortex. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *34*(1), 158–162. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2899-13.2014>