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1 2 3	Title Transient Attention Gates Access Consciousness: Coupling N2pc and P3 Latencies using Dynamic Time Warping
4 5	Abbreviated Title Coupling N2pc and P3 Latencies using DTW
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27	Abstract
28	The N2pc & P3 Event-Related Potentials (ERPs), used to index selective attention
29	and access to working memory and conscious awareness, respectively, have been important
30	tools in cognitive sciences. Although it is likely that these two components and the underlying
31	cognitive processes are temporally and functionally linked, such links have not yet been
32	convincingly demonstrated. Adopting a novel methodological approach based on Dynamic
33	Time Warping (DTW), we provide evidence that the N2pc and P3 ERP components are

34 temporally linked. We analysed data from an experiment where 23 participants (16 women) monitored bilateral rapid serial streams of letters and digits in order to report a target digit 35 36 indicated by a shape cue, separately for trials with correct responses and trials where a 37 temporally proximal distractor was reported instead (distractor intrusion). DTW analyses revealed that N2pc and P3 latencies were correlated in time, both when the target or a 38 distractor was reported. Notably, this link was weaker on distractor intrusion trials. This N2pc-39 P3 association is discussed with respect to the relationship between attention and access 40 consciousness. Our results demonstrate that our novel method provides a valuable approach 41 for assessing temporal links between two cognitive processes and their underlying 42 modulating factors. This method allows to establish links and their modulator for any two 43 time-series across all domains of the field (general-purpose MATLAB functions and a Python 44 Meurosciacepte module are provided alongside this paper). 45

Significance Statement 46 We provide evidence for a temporal link between two important Event Related 47 Potential components, the N2pc and P3. 48 We establish that the N2pc-P3 link is stronger after correct responses, which provides 49 a new perspective on how links between attention and WM encoding affect the quality of 50 51 performance and the content of access consciousness. We demonstrate that our Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) based method can be 52 adopted to identify yet unknown factors modulating the relationship between two cognitive 53 processes. This method is able to assess temporal links between two time-series of any kind. 54 Thus, it carries the potential to establish a wide-range of still unknown temporal links 55 between two cognitive processes (and their modulating factors) across all domains of the 56 Meurosci Accepter 57

Introduction 58 The Event Related Potential (ERP) literature has focussed on linking specific 59 cognitive functions with specific evoked components. To gain a fuller understanding of 60 interdependent cognitive functions, it is equally important to uncover associations between 61 ERP components during the performance of particular tasks. This paper seeks to establish 62 such an association, whilst also providing a general methodological framework (based on 63 Dynamic Time Warping, DTW) to investigate temporal couplings between two time-series 64 (e.g., EEG, MEG, or MVPA). Specifically, we provide new evidence for the functional 65 coupling of two components that have been extensively explored: the N2pc (Eimer, 1996) 66 67 and the P3 (Polich, 2007). The N2pc is associated with the deployment of attention (Eimer, 1996; Woodman & Luck, 1999) and spatio-temporal selection (Kiss et al., 2008). It is 68 believed to index the transient attentional enhancement (TAE, Li et al. 2017; Zivony et al. 69 2018) of visual processing triggered by the detection of potentially task-relevant signals. The 70 P3 component has been associated with working memory (WM) encoding and conscious 71 perception (Dehaene, 2014; Vogel et al., 1998; Craston et al. 2009). Despite lingering debate 72 on the origins and function of the P3 (Kok, 2001; Förster et al., 2020; see also Pitts et al., 73 2014; Shafto & Pitts, 2015), there is widespread consensus that this component reflects 74 high-level cognitive processes that follow attentional selection. In tasks where stimuli are 75 presented in rapid succession (rapid serial visual stimulation, RSVP), the P3 is linked to the 76 access of particular stimuli to WM (Bourassa et al., 2015) and conscious awareness 77 (Bowman et al., 2022: Pincham et al., 2016). 78

Previous studies have obtained initial evidence for temporal links between N2pc and P3 components by demonstrating that experimental manipulations which produce a delayed N2pc often also produce a delayed P3. This pattern was found in attentional blink (Martens & Wyble, 2010; see Zivony & Lamy, 2022 for a review) and distractor intrusion experiments (Botella, 2008, Zivony & Eimer, 2021). Demonstrating such temporal links is important, as they might suggest that the cognitive processes associated with the N2pc and P3 (attentional selection and access to WM and awareness, respectively) may also be temporally and

functionally linked, in line with models of cascaded hierarchical brain processing (McClelland,
1979). Many computational models (e.g., Battye, 2003; Bowman & Wyble, 2007; Olivers &
Meeter, 2008; Shih, 2008) have explained temporal links between selective attention and
WM encoding or access consciousness with reference to such a cascaded processing
architecture.

However, most previous studies have measured the latencies of N2pc and P3 91 components in isolation rather than during the performance of the same task. It has also 92 93 been shown that these latencies can vary independently, depending on the nature of target selection criteria (Callahan-Flintoft & Wyble 2017). The goal of this study was to obtain more 94 conclusive, direct, and formally substantiated evidence for temporal associations between 95 N2pc and P3 components. We analysed ERP data obtained in a previously published RSVP 96 study (Zivony & Eimer, 2021), where observers monitored two lateral RSVP streams to 97 report target digits indicated by a shape cue (see Figure 1B below). In this task, successful 98 performance required the allocation of attention to the cued object (indexed by the N2pc), 99 followed by its encoding and identification (indexed by the P3). We formally assessed 100 101 temporal links between these two components, using our DTW framework that can be applied to study associations between any two time-series. Critically, to investigate their 102 functional relevance, we compared these links between trials where the target was reported 103 correctly, and trials where a nontarget was reported instead (distractor intrusion). This new 104 105 approach will enable future research to extend the study of N2pc-P3 links beyond RSVP 106 tasks to other experimental paradigms. It also provides a generally applicable tool (accompanied with MATLAB functions and a Python module) to establish temporal links 107 between cognitive processes and their functional roles. 108

109

Materials and Methods

110 Experimental paradigm

We will analyse data collected from a lateralised Rapid Serial Visual Presentation
 (RSVP) experiment in the tradition of distractor intrusion experiments (Botella, 1992; Botella)

et al., 2001; Vul et al., 2009; Zivony & Eimer, 2021, 2020), in which we can identify both 113 N2pc and P3 components. In these studies, participants are asked to detect a single target in 114 an RSVP stream based on a pre-defined feature (the key feature). Importantly, the target is 115 116 embedded among distractors that share its reporting feature (the response feature). For example, the target may be the only red letter among differently coloured letters (Figure 1A, 117 note that similar paradigms were often used in early experiments (Botella, 1992; Botella et 118 al., 2001). In this case, colour will be the key feature as it is used to detect the target, and the 119 120 identity of the letter is its response feature. In such studies, participants often erroneously report the identity of a distractor that is temporally near to the target and most frequently the 121 immediately following distractor, rather than the target itself (e.g., reporting seeing a red "F" 122 and not a red "S" in Figure 1A). 123

The present analysis will be performed on the dataset of Zivony and Eimer's (2021) Experiment 1 (Figure 1B). Zivony and Eimer (2021) conducted an N2pc study (with 23 participants, 16 women, M_{age} = 29.43, SD_{age} = 9.77) and adopted a dual-stream RSVP paradigm that allowed for intrusion errors of (only) the +1-intruder item (i.e., the distractor item immediately following the target). The main result was that intrusion trials were associated with a delayed N2pc component of lower amplitude.

In their experiments (see Figure 1B), participants were presented with two RSVP 130 streams with lengths of 8 to 11 frames at equal distances from a fixation cross in the centre. 131 Grey stimuli were presented in sequence on a black screen, with letters as distractors and 132 digits as targets. The target digit was presented at positions 5 to 8 of the streams, 133 134 differentiated by a surrounding annulus or square. Participants had to report the target as accurately as possible after each trial terminated. In target frames, a distractor letter was also 135 presented in the other RSVP stream surrounded by either an annulus or square (which of the 136 137 shapes identified the target digit was always pre-specified). The frame preceding the target 138 frame always consisted of two letters (one in each stream) and earlier pre-target frames were equally likely to contain two letters or one letter and one digit (to ensure that attentional 139

allocation was placed according to the annulus or square rather than alphanumerical
category, i.e., participants did not just search for the first digit in the stream). The frame that
followed the target frame included another digit at the same location on 75% of trials. In the
remaining 25%, a distractor letter was presented instead. Hence, the annulus and the square
were the key features in this setting and digit identity the response feature. Each frame was
presented for 50 ms, followed by an inter-stimulus-interval (ISI) of 50 ms. Targets were
equally likely to be presented in the left or right RSVP stream in each trial.

147 EEG Data Collection and Pre-processing

Event-related potentials (ERPs) were computed separately for trials in which 148 participants reported the target-digit correctly (correct trials) and for reports of the post-target 149 digit-distractor stimulus (intrusion trials). Incorrect trials, i.e., with reports of neither the target 150 nor the post-target digit-distractor, were excluded in ERP analyses. N2pcs were computed as 151 the contralateral – ipsilateral difference wave between PO7 & PO8 electrodes with respect to 152 the location of the target (e.g., PO8 – PO7 if the target was presented in the left RSVP 153 stream). The P3 component was defined as the ERP amplitude at the Pz electrode. Hence, 154 155 we retained the original paper's (Zivony & Eimer, 2021) EEG methodology in general, with the addition of a 25 Hz low-pass filter for P3s and a larger time-window of interest (because 156 the original paper did not analyse P3 components). 157

158 Dynamic Time Warping as a Measure of Latency Differences

Our assessment of whether the N2pc and P3 components are temporally correlated uses dynamic time warping (DTW) as a measure of ERP latencies. DTW enables the latency of ERP components to be not based on a given point of the ERP time series, making it more robust to noise than commonly used point-based latency measures, such as peak latency, fractional peak latency, and fractional area (Handy, 2005; Kiesel et al., 2008; Luck, 2014). For a discussion of the benefits of DTW compared to other EEG latency approaches, see Zoumpoulaki et al. (2015).

DTW measures the similarity between two time-series by aligning/warping one time-166 167 series (called the *query*) to another (the *reference*). For example, the two time-series in this analysis would be the ERPs from correct and intrusion trials. This alignment is optimal, 168 169 meaning that a distance matrix is built from all points of the reference & query time-series and a warping path is chosen through this matrix such that the minimal cumulative distance 170 is guaranteed. Grand Averages have to be z scored prior to DTW to ensure that the warping 171 path just reflects differences in the contours of the reference and query time-series, rather 172 than gross amplitude differences. We further use the area (shaded in green in Figure 3) 173 between the warping path (blue line in Figure 3) and the main diagonal (which would indicate 174 identical time series, red line in Figure 3), henceforth called the DTW area, for our statistical 175 analysis of latency differences between components. Note that standardisation via z scores 176 as well as using the area for statistical assessment were both proposed by Zoumpoulaki et 177 al. (2015), The DTW area measure indicates succession, as a positive value would imply that 178 the reference time series (used for alignment, plotted on the y-axis in Figure 3) was overall 179 180 earlier in time compared to the query time-series (on the x-axis in Figure 3). The DTW area is plotted in light green in Figure 3. We further compute the distance-distribution between x- & 181 y-coordinates of the warping path. That is, each (x,y) coordinate on the warping path, has a 182 horizontal distance to the main diagonal. The set of all such horizontal distances gives the 183 distance-distribution. The median of this distance distribution allows the computation of 184 components' latency difference in milliseconds by dividing the median by the sampling rate 185 186 divided by 1000 (see Zoumpoulaki et al. (2015) for a formal comparison of the median to other options). We implemented a time-interval of interest of 150-400 ms for the N2pc 187 (Eimer, 1996) and 250-800 ms for the P3 (Polich, 2007). DTW analyses were performed in 188 189 MATLAB 2020b using the built-in dtw function.

Placing DTW into statistical inference – permutation test

We assessed statistical significance of these DTW areas with a two-tailed
permutation test. We considered a one-tailed test, due to the a-priori hypothesis that

193 intrusion trials should lead to later ERP components than correct trials, which was based on the N2pc findings of Zivony & Eimer (2021). However, we decided against a one-tailed test 194 as that would have risked statistical double-dipping (Kriegeskorte et al., 2009), since the 195 196 dataset upon which the a-priori hypothesis was based would be the same dataset as is 197 analysed by us with DTW. We first implemented the standard paired t-test permutation procedure, on our participant-level data, where each participant has an ERP for correct and 198 for intrusion. On each iteration of this permutation procedure, a "fair coin" is flipped for each 199 200 participant; if this comes up heads, the ERPs for this participant are flipped between groups (correct to intrusion and intrusion to correct), if it comes up tails, the ERPs remain as they 201 are. This generates a permuted data set. We then computed the permutation Grand Average 202 ERP waves by taking the average wave across participants for (permuted) correct- and 203 intrusion-conditions separately. We subsequently performed the DTW analysis and 204 computed ERP-component DTW areas as described above. We repeated this procedure 205 10000 times, which generated a distribution of DTW areas under the null. Finally, the p-value 206 207 of our true observed DTW area was computed as the proportion of absolute (hence a twotailed test) permuted (i.e., null) DTW areas larger than our true observed value. This 208 approach is exactly as proposed previously by Zoumpoulaki et al. (2015), as we used the 209 210 DTW area value for all statistical analyses and the median of the DTW distance-distribution only to estimate components' latency differences in milliseconds. 211

212 Bootstrap procedure to assess the across-participant variability in the data

We conducted an additional bootstrap procedure to more formally assess our hypothesis of a temporal correlation between human selective attention and WM encoding/conscious perception. This analysis is complementary to the Correct versus Intrusion comparison which does not reveal a coupling within each condition on its own. The bootstrapping analysis makes this extra inferential step, indicating that within "normal" (i.e., not inducing behavioural change) variability of the electrical brain response, the N2pc and P3s are latency-coupled. These analyses were conducted on standardized (i.e., z scored) 220 participant-level ERP-components and, identically to our DTW analyses, using a time-interval 221 of interest of 150-400 ms for the N2pc and 250-800 ms for the P3. First, we randomly 222 selected participants with replacement 23 times, replicating the number of participants in our 223 other analyses. We then computed bootstrap across-participant Grand Average ERP waves for our N2pc- and P3-components separately. Importantly, the same bootstrap sample of 224 participant-replications was used for the N2pc and P3 (that is, if participant i appeared k 225 times in the N2pc Grand Average, they also appeared k times in the P3 Grand Average). We 226 227 subsequently performed a DTW analysis, akin to the one between correct and intrusion trials' (true observed) ERPs described in the previous paragraph, but now between pairs of true-228 observed and bootstrapped Grand Average ERPs. Specifically, we are assessing the latency 229 difference of each bootstrap sampled Grand Average to the central tendency estimate, which 230 is the true observed Grand Average. This analysis was conducted separately for the N2pc 231 and the P3 component. It therefore yielded one DTW area measure (relative to the Grand 232 Average) for the N2pc and one for the P3. We repeated this process 10000 times and z 233 scored the two distributions of DTW areas. Correlation coefficients were then computed after 234 Pearson as well as Spearman between the N2pc and P3 DTW area distributions. A 235 significant positive correlation would provide support for our hypothesis of a correlation 236 237 between the N2pc and P3 components. This is because such a correlation would mean that if the bootstrap N2pc is earlier (or later) than the true observed N2pc, this shift in time 238 translated to the P3 component. To stress, the bootstrap samples were always matched 239 240 between N2pc and P3 in each of our 10000 repetitions, pairing N2pc with P3 DTW areas, and enabling the correlations to be calculated. We performed this analysis for correct and 241 242 intrusion trials separately to prevent possible latency-differences driven by the response 243 condition to confound our bootstrap sampling. That is, if intrusion trials should lead to later 244 N2pc and P3 components, some bootstrap samples might show a correlation between the 245 two components just because more intrusion trials were sampled by chance.

246 Software Accessibility

To increase the value of our methodological approach for the field, we provide 247 general-purpose MATLAB scripts and a Python module alongside this paper. These can be 248 249 used to compute DTW-based latency differences (in milliseconds) as well as temporal 250 correlations between any two time series. Latency differences can be obtained for betweenas well as within-subjects experimental designs. All analyses and figures presented in this 251 paper can furthermore be replicated using an additional set of MATLAB scripts as well as the 252 analysed ERP dataset. The code, data, and documentation are provided open-source on 253 254 GitHub (https://github.com/mahan-hosseini/NeuroDTW).

255

Results

256 Zivony & Eimer's (2021) Experiments 1A & 1B Human Event Related Potentials (ERPs)

In Figure 2, we present Grand Average waves of all 23 participant-level ERPs of 257 Zivony and Eimer's (2021) Experiments 1A and 1B. In both experiments (1B being a direct 258 replication of 1A), dual RSVP streams were presented, and participants were asked to report 259 the digit target that was surrounded by an annulus. In streams of distractor letters, Zivony 260 and Eimer (2021) only presented either one or two digit stimuli in temporal proximity to the 261 key feature (either the target or the target as well as the immediately following digit (+1 262 263 intruder)). Both ERP components, the N2pc (Figure 2A) as well as the P3 (Figure 2B), qualitatively exhibit latency differences, with intrusion trials showing later ERPs than correct 264 trials. Furthermore, the N2pc (Figure 2A) has a higher amplitude after correct trials (more 265 negative for a negative going effect), which was already noted by Zivony & Eimer (2021). 266 267 Peak amplitudes of P3 components are comparable but qualitatively occur earlier after correct trials (Figure 2B). 268

Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) Latency Difference Analysis of Zivony and Eimer's (2021) Paradigm

271 Replicating the N2pc latency differences

As it is robust against high frequency noise (Zoumpoulaki et al., 2015), which particularly affects measures of latency focussed on individual points, we used Dynamic

Time Warping (DTW) to replicate Zivony and Eimer's (2021) N2pc latency differences 274 between correct and intrusion responses (Figure 3). We furthermore used the same 275 276 approach to examine the same latency contrast for the P3 component (measured at Pz, 277 Figure 4). Figure 3A shows the DTW warping path that was found by the algorithm to ensure optimal alignment (i.e., minimal Euclidian distance). We present the DTW reference signal, 278 the N2pc of correct trials, in black on the y-axis, and the query signal, the N2pc of intrusion 279 trials, in red on the x-axis. We computed the latency difference in milliseconds based on the 280 281 median of the warping path's distance-distribution between x- & y-coordinates, which for the N2pc was 18 ms. This is in line with Zivony and Eimer's (2021) 50% average peak amplitude 282 criterion, which yielded latency differences of 30 and 20 ms in Experiments 1A and 1B, 283 respectively (note we combined these two experiments into our analysis, as the original 284 Experiment 1B was a direct replication of 1A). It should be noted that the present latency 285 difference of 18 ms is also closely in line with other work by these authors (Zivony & Eimer, 286 2020), where intrusion trials implied an N2pc component that was 19 ms later than correct 287 trials. The permutation (null-) distribution of DTW areas is shown in Figure 3B. Our two-tailed 288 permutation test supported our hypothesis that intrusion trials had a later N2pc component 289 than correct trials (p = .0013). Figure 3C shows the absolute DTW-area values, which were 290 291 used to compute this p-value, as a two-tailed significance test was desired.

292 P3 latency differences at Pz

We further analysed the latency difference between correct and intrusion trials using DTW for Zivony & Eimer's (2021) P3 component at the Pz electrode (Figure 4). We present the DTW warping path and original ERP components in Figure 4A, and the permutation distributions of latency-differences in Figure 4B & C (we consider the reasons for observing a multi-modal permutation distribution later). Again, intrusion trials showed a later P3 component than correct trials, with the latency difference being 73 ms, which was highly statistically significant after running our two-tailed permutation test (*p* = .0003). These findings provide initial evidence for our hypothesis that transient attentional enhancement (TAE) and encoding into working memory are coupled, i.e., a temporal coupling between the N2pc and the P3. This is exactly what we see here: the N2pc and the P3 are *both* earlier in correct trials. That is, when TAE deployment is earlier (N2pc earlier), encoding is also earlier (P3 earlier). To provide further evidence for this claim, we conducted the following bootstrap analysis.

306 Correlation between human N2pc & P3 latencies

307 In the previous section, we provided evidence that human N2pc and P3 components are affected similarly when moving between behavioural outcomes: correct vs. intrusion 308 trials. However, this does not definitively ensure that this coupling obtains when behavioural 309 310 outcome is constant, i.e., that the coupling obtains due to the intrinsic variability in latencies. This section responds to this aspect by showing that N2pc and P3 latencies are coupled 311 even when behavioural outcome does not change. Figure 5 presents the results of the 312 bootstrap analysis we conducted to probe this hypothesis, which, importantly, was applied to 313 correct and intrusion conditions separately. Figure 5 displays the scatterplots of DTW area-314 315 pairs with the line of best linear fit as well as two marginal distributions per scatterplot (note we examine the striking outlier cloud on the right of Figure 5's top panel later). We z scored 316 DTW area distributions to obtain a more representational image, i.e., reflecting correlation 317 values more closely, since correlations have internal standardisation. We present variance, 318 319 skewness, and kurtosis values of all four marginal distributions in a table in Figure 5. These 320 values were computed prior to z scoring. Both response conditions' analyses yielded positive 321 correlations between N2pc & P3 DTW-latencies after using the same bootstrap samples for the two components in each of the 10000 bootstrap repetitions. Pearson correlations were r 322 = .33 for correct and r = .15 for intrusion trials. We provide the rank correlation after 323 324 Spearman as well to account for the possibility of non-linear relationships between the DTW area values that were correlated (indeed, we do observe some loss of normality in marginal 325 distributions, see Kurtosis and Skewness measures below distributions, suggesting 326

heteroskedasticity). Spearman correlations were r = .4 and r = .14 for correct and intrusion trials, respectively.

329 We emphasise that p-values obtained in resampling analyses of the kind shown here 330 are not really meaningful. This is because the degrees of freedom are determined by the programmer (9998 in this case) and as discussed in Friston (2012), the fallacy of classical 331 inference states that once the sample size is sufficiently large, p-values become trivial, as 332 very small effects can become significant. Critically, this does not mean that analyses with 333 334 many degrees of freedom are inherently flawed, but that one should focus on measures of standardized effect sizes, such as correlation coefficients (or differences thereof), when 335 interpreting their results (Lorca-Puls et al., 2018). Stressing that p values in the present 336 context do not nearly mean as much as one is used to, all four p-values associated with the 337 reported correlations were smaller than .0001. We also found p values smaller than .0001 338 after testing whether the N2pc-P3 correlations were statistically significantly larger in correct 339 trials using Fisher's Z transformation. We adopted the equations after Fieller (1957) when 340 testing Spearman correlations. 341

The positive correlations presented in the previous paragraph support our hypothesis 342 of a temporal correlation between the N2pc and P3 components as well as, more generally, 343 neuroscience's widespread agreement about the cascaded nature of the brain's processing 344 dynamics (McClelland, 1979). Furthermore, our findings support theoretical and 345 346 computational accounts that postulate a clear link between selective attention and WM encoding/conscious perception. For example, STST models (Bowman & Wyble, 2007) 347 348 implemented this link architecturally between their blaster circuit (selective attention) and the binding of types to tokens in Stage 2 (WM encoding/conscious perception). Demonstrating 349 such a link empirically in humans is thus important for verifying the conceptual understanding 350 351 underlying models such as the STST (Bowman & Wyble, 2007). Moreover, we demonstrated 352 a stronger correlation of the N2pc and the P3 components in correct trials, suggesting the

presence of factors modulating this temporal correlation, which are considered in theDiscussion section later.

355 Methodological Considerations

356 Since our present DTW bootstrap procedure constitutes a novel approach to the 357 analysis of neuroscientific time-series data, the following methodological points are important 358 to consider.

Do signal-to-noise ratio differences bias DTW? One methodological concern that 359 might have contributed to the difference in correlations between the N2pc and P3 for correct 360 361 and intrusion trials focusses on differences in the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) between the 362 two components. Specifically, compared to correct trials, the decreased amplitude of the N2pc in intrusion trials reflects a lower SNR. The greater influence of noise in participant 363 ERPs will add noise into the dynamic time warping. This could lead to an increase in 364 365 detected temporal variability, over and above any increase in latency variability of the underlying (signal) component. This could, in turn, lead to a reduction in detected correlation 366 of latencies between two components simply because they exhibit increased temporal 367 variability due to reduced SNR. 368

To investigate this, we present the marginal distributions previously presented on xand y-axes of Figure 5, again in Figure 6, now plotting component distributions in separate figures containing both response conditions. These distributions' variances (i.e., their width; see horizontal bars above distributions for standard deviations) reflect the underlying participant-level ERPs' temporal variability with respect to the true observed Grand Average ERP.

The marginal distributions presented in Figure 6, indicate increased temporal variability in intrusion trials for the N2pc, but not the P3, which in fact looks to have *reduced* variability for intrusions. This finding may be an indication of the SNR decreasing in intrusion trials for the N2pc, which could suggest a reduced capacity to measure the N2pc's latency with DTW in intrusion trials. Such a reduced capacity would add random noise into the

measurement of latency, which would have a knock-on effect on the N2pc-P3 correlations,
with correlations being weaker in intrusion trials. To investigate this issue, we conducted the
following simulation analysis in which a known latency shift was added to the Grand Average
N2pc of intrusion trials. Different levels of noise were then added to this shifted N2pc timeseries (to modulate SNRs) and the capacity of DTW to uncover the known latency shift was
assessed.

We first added a shift of 50 ms to the Grand Average N2pc in intrusion trials, i.e., the 386 latency shifted time-series (henceforth called shifted N2pc) unfolded with a delay of 50 ms. A 387 random noise time-series, based on the human EEG frequency spectrum according to 388 Yeung et al. (2004) was generated. This noise time-series was multiplied by a scalar that 389 ranged from 0 (i.e., just the latency shift and no noise) to 0.95. Figure 7's top panels depict 390 the intrusion N2pc in red (which in all analyses (and, thus, plots) was the original Grand 391 Average N2pc in intrusion trials) and shifted N2pcs (blue) in the noise scalar range of 0 to 392 0.95. After extracting the time window of interest (150-400 ms), we standardised (i.e., z 393 scored) intrusion and shifted N2pcs, computed DTW between them and stored the latency 394 395 estimate as well as SNRs. SNRs were computed as the root mean squared value between 200-400 ms divided by the root mean squared value between -50-100 ms. For each noise 396 level, this procedure was repeated 25000 times and average latency estimates as well as 397 shifted N2pcs' average SNRs were computed. 398

399 Figure 7's left bottom panel plots average SNRs as a function of noise level. As noise levels increased, SNRs decreased from 8.14 to 1.8. Note that the SNRs of correct and 400 401 intrusion trials' Grand Average N2pcs were 14.86 and 7.17, respectively, and are plotted as dashed green lines. Figure 7's middle bottom panel plots the latency estimate in ms as a 402 403 function of noise level. It can be seen that without noise (noise level = 0), DTW 404 underestimates the added latency shift of 50 ms by 10 ms while only underestimating it by 405 8.78 ms for a noise level of 0.1. We understand this outlier to be due to the fact that if no 406 noise is added, the first 50 ms of the shifted N2pc are all zero. This affects the z-scoring,

407 which in turn affects the DTW estimate to be lower. As the noise included in the shifted N2pc increases, DTW underestimates the latency difference of the two time-series progressively 408 409 more, being 29.1 ms for the noise level of 0.95. Finally, Figure 7's bottom right panel plots 410 latency estimates as a function of SNRs. The dashed line in this plot now only indicates the SNR of intrusion trials' N2pcs, since that of correct trials was too large to be included. It can 411 be seen that (with the exception of the low noise outlier points already present in Figure 7's 412 left panel) as SNRs decrease, DTW underestimates the latency differences between the two 413 414 time-series progressively. This plot indicates that for SNRs above 4, the latency estimate was underestimated by 10 ms. 415

This was critical to see, since the SNR of the intrusion N2pc, which was the time-416 series of our main analysis that was suggested to suffer from increased temporal variability, 417 was in this SNR range with a value of 7.3. Critically, the main issue to assess with these 418 simulations is the difference in efficacy of DTW to measure latencies given that one time-419 series has an SNR of 14.86 (correct N2pc) and the other of 7.17 (intrusion N2pc). Whilst the 420 simulation results presented in Figure 7 indicate that a difference in estimating latencies with 421 DTW indeed does exist as SNRs decrease, we would argue that this difference is negligible 422 for the main analysis of this paper. 423

Large P3 DTW areas: The scatterplot of (bootstrapped) DTW area values for correct 424 trials presented in Figure 5's top panel shows a group of outlier points for high x values. 425 426 These points are observable as a low amplitude mode high in the x-axis marginal 427 distribution, suggesting that this distributional discontinuity is driven by a step-change in the 428 DTW values measured for P3s when participants respond correctly. Pursuing this pattern it became apparent that there are specific (atypical) participant ERPs that will sometimes 429 dominate in a bootstrap sample leading to the bootstrap and true observed P3s showing 430 431 much larger DTW area values. This is because the DTW warping path has to be 432 considerably further from the main diagonal to align the waveforms. This reveals a step-433 change in the pattern of P3 brain responses. Indeed, this step-change in warping paths, is

surely the phenomenon that underlies the multimodal permutation distributions observed in 434 435 Figure 4. This multimodality is (as for the bootstrapping) observed for the P3 component. Since the permutation procedure is swapping between conditions, this multi-modality could 436 437 be fully driven by a phenomenon in the correct condition. That is, the negative lobe in Figure 4B could be generated when the atypical (correct-condition) P3 trials are prominent in one 438 condition (surrogate intrusion) and the positive lobe when those same trials are prominent in 439 the other condition (surrogate correct). Note that this same phenomenon is also observable 440 441 in Figure 6's right panel as a high amplitude bin for high x values.

We re-ran our main analysis (Figure 5) after excluding DTW areas as outliers if they 442 exceeded +-5 standard deviations from the mean. Doing so only excluded the low amplitude 443 mode high in the x-axis marginal distribution of Figure 5's top panel. A total of 76/10000 444 values were excluded. We ensured that if a given DTW area value was excluded from the P3 445 marginal distribution, the corresponding N2pc DTW area value (i.e., the value that was 446 generated in the same bootstrap repetition) was removed. Correlation values for the analysis 447 of correct trials were r = .34 & r = .38 after Pearson and Spearman, respectively. Since no +-448 449 5 standard deviation outliers were present for the analysis of intrusions, intrusion correlations are not stated again. This suggests that the correlations presented for correct trials in the 450 main analysis were not driven by the outlier points for high P3 DTW area values. 451

We do not view this feature as problematic (especially since we provide Spearman's 452 correlation, which is robust to heteroscedasticity and our resampling procedures do not 453 require a normality assumption). Instead, such a pattern could be of theoretical interest. If, for 454 455 example, those participants that led to a large DTW area value for the P3 when bootstrap sampled often would demonstrate some interesting type of behaviour or feature in their P3s, 456 further (theoretically informative) observations could be obtained. This issue therefore 457 458 reveals a strength of our bootstrap DTW procedure, since such further observations about 459 individual differences would not have been detected otherwise (i.e., with analyses conducted only on Grand Average ERP latencies). 460

461 Analysing the participant-level: Finally, we have focussed on across-participant latency variability, rather than across-trial variability. This is because it is difficult to 462 accurately measure component latencies at the single trial, or even the individual participant, 463 levels, because of low SNR. Bootstrapping participants enables us to measure latencies at 464 the Grand Average level, i.e., bootstrapped samples of participants are assessing the 465 466 variability around the Grand Average, with all samples built from ERPs, indeed, as many ERPs (although, of course, with some repeated and some missing) as there are participants. 467 This focus on across-participant (rather than across-trial) variability leaves the possibility that 468 the coupling of N2pc and P3 latencies might arise simply because there is variability in the 469 470 processing efficiency of different participants' visual systems. That is, the N2pc and P3 might 471 both be delayed for a participant simply because that individual possesses an inefficient visual processing pathway. However, if such a phenomenon was present, it should also 472 generate a substantial N2pc-P3 latency correlation for errors. That is, the fact that this 473 474 correlation is substantially higher for corrects than for errors, suggests that there is a coupling of N2pc and P3, which is "over and above" any correlation of latencies that might be 475 present due to individual differences in efficiency of visual processing pathways. 476

Nonetheless, we cannot make claims about the N2pc's and the P3's relationship on 477 the trial level. For a participant with an early N2pc and P3, it could have, for example, been 478 the case that on some trials the N2pc occurs fast, while on other trials, the P3 occurs fast. 479 Aggregating trials, one might then conclude that for this participant the P3 occurs fast when 480 the N2pc does. Although, while we would contend that such a conclusion is the most likely 481 482 strictly, we cannot make it based upon the analyses performed in this paper. It is important 483 then that our results are extended with a measure that has a better SNR than EEG allowing 484 analyses at the trial-level.

485

Discussion This study provides the first formal evidence for a temporal association between the 486 487 N2pc and P3 components. This evidence is based on the ERP data of a distractor intrusion

488 experiment (Zivony and Eimer, 2021) in which performance required allocation of attention to the cued object (N2pc), followed by its encoding and identification (P3). Using Dynamic Time 489 490 Warping (DTW), we initially demonstrated that compared to correct reports, both the N2pc 491 (18 ms, Figure 3) and the P3 (73 ms, Figure 4) components occurred later with intrusion errors. Using a participant-level bootstrap-DTW procedure, we then provided evidence that 492 the two ERP components are correlated in time within each behavioural outcome (i.e., 493 correct or intrusion trials, Figure 5). This bootstrap-DTW analysis demonstrates the utility of 494 495 our new method for studying temporal correlations between two time-series. Importantly though, due to the correlational nature of this analysis, statements about causality are more 496 difficult to justify. 497

498 Attention and Access Consciousness

There is a long debate on the relationship between attention and access consciousness, with, for example, Lamme (2003) arguing that they are independent processes. Our findings may contribute to this debate, if one can make a clear association between access consciousness and the P3. We argue that such a connection can be made in the limited context of RSVP experiments.

RSVP streams bombard the visual system with stimuli, some of which break through 504 into consciousness. Importantly, in such breakthrough experiments, a target-evoked P3 is 505 largely absent when participants cannot report the identity of a target (e.g., Sergent et al., 506 507 2005; Craston et al. 2009). If participants report the identity of a following distractor, a distractor-evoked P3 emerges instead (Bourassa et al., 2015). These findings suggest that 508 509 the P3 in RSVP experiments is closely associated with WM encoding. Experiential blink studies (Bowman et al., 2022; Pincham et al., 2016) provide further support for an 510 association between P3 and access consciousness. Specifically, Pincham et al. (2016) 511 512 provided evidence that in RSVP, P3 amplitude varies considerably more with percept 513 strength (i.e. conscious perception) than with report accuracy.

Alternative interpretations of the P3b, such as Pitts and colleagues' (Pitts et al., 2014; 514 Sandberg et al., 2016; Shafto & Pitts, 2015) post-perceptual account, are typically motivated 515 from non-RSVP experiments. There are important differences between our and Pitts et al.'s 516 517 experiments (see Pincham et al., 2016, for a similar discussion). Most notably, Pitts et al. used no masks in their experiments and therefore their targets were not likely to be rapidly 518 overridden by competing stimuli unless they were immediately encoded. It is likely that 519 interpretation of the P3 is task-dependent. While various accounts of the P3 remain possible 520 521 in various visual search tasks, we contend that the P3 is tightly linked with access consciousness and can be used as a marker of this process in the specific context of RSVP 522 523 experiments.

On this basis, we suggest that our analyses directly couple attention and access 524 consciousness, suggesting that they are tightly intertwined and far from (statistically) 525 independent. Importantly, the suggested temporal link between the N2pc and P3 supports 526 theoretical and computational models that emphasise a functional relevance of selective 527 attention for WM encoding/conscious perception; e.g. the theories of Zivony and Eimer 528 529 (2021, 2022) as well as STST computational models (Bowman et al., 2022; Bowman & Wyble, 2007; Chennu et al., 2011; Wyble et al., 2009), and other attentional gating models 530 (Battye, 2003; Olivers & Meeter, 2008; Shih, 2008). 531

532 A Need for Caution

533 Our findings are, of course, statistical in nature. Consequently, there is no absolute 534 certainty that attentional selection (N2pc) always precedes access consciousness (P3). 535 Thus, a claim that attention is, in an absolute sense, necessary and sufficient for conscious 536 perception is beyond the scope of our findings. Further, our findings are focussed on a 537 specific experimental paradigm. Additional research is needed to investigate the N2pc-P3 538 link in other experimental designs.

539 Consistent with the conventions of the field, we asserted that a given ERP component 540 indexes the timing of a certain cognitive process. However, the N2pc should not be taken as

indexing *the exact* onset and offset latencies of attentional enhancement. This is due to the
indirect relationship between cortical activity and the signal recorded at EEG electrodes,
which measure a dynamic and convoluted wave of activity spreading across tissue, and
because all cognitive and neural processes unfold gradually in real time.

545 Notably, a number of theories postulate that the N2pc "drives" the P3 (e.g., the STST theory (Bowman & Wyble, 2007)). If such an N2pc-P3 relationship were true one might 546 wonder why a temporal delay is often observed between P3 and N2pc (even though in the 547 current data the N2pc (around 200-400ms) overlaps at least partially with the P3 (Figure 2)). 548 One reason could be that the N2pc's activation has to build up before it can drive the P3. 549 Indeed, one interpretation of evoked responses is that they reflect current (the time derivative 550 of membrane potential), rather than membrane potential/activation itself (Murakami & Okada, 551 2006). Relatedly, another computational model of the N2pc posits that it marks the initiation 552 of attention locking on to the target, and therefore the effect of attention on higher level 553 processing would begin only after the end of the N2pc (Wyble et al. 2020). The observation 554 that the P3 positivity overlaps with the negative rebound of the N2pc (see Figure 2) is then 555 interesting, since the time-derivative interpretation of ERPs, suggests that the N2pc neurons 556 would still be active when its deflection has gone negative, it is just that the neurons' 557 activations/membrane potentials would be decreasing. 558

559 The N2pc-P3 link's function

560 Our finding of a stronger link between the N2pc and the P3 after correct reports fits previous literature and hints at a possible functional role of the link. In the context of the 2-561 562 feature STST (2f-STST) model, in which the detection of the target key feature drives attentional enhancement and is indexed by the N2pc, Chennu et al. (2011) argued that the 563 strength of the target's key feature representation plays a central role in resolving response 564 565 feature competition. If the target key feature is strong, processing would occur quickly and 566 with high amplitude, increasing the likelihood of correct reports and a vivid percept. In contrast, a weak target key feature would lead to increased ambiguity and uncertainty, 567

resulting, more often, in intrusion errors. The P3 indexes the resolution of the 2f-STST's 568 response feature competition and consciously perceiving the winning stimulus. According to 569 570 this framework, there is an optimal timing between attention and access consciousness that 571 depends on the timing of the target key feature driving TAE: if this occurs when the correct response feature is strong, one observes a larger correlation between the N2pc and P3 and 572 an increased likelihood of a correct response (Figure 5's top panel). In contrast, if TAE is 573 deployed when the correct response feature is weak, one obtains a closer (i.e., more 574 575 contested) response feature competition. This, in turn, is more likely to lead to intrusion errors and increased temporal inter-trial variability, leading to a lower N2pc-P3 correlation 576 (Figure 5's bottom panel). 577

This argument is supported by participants reporting lower confidence after intrusion 578 errors (Recht et al., 2019; Zivony & Eimer, 2020). This is likely to be the result of a (relative 579 to correct percepts of target stimuli) more ambiguous percept. There is, though, the 580 possibility of a third area that is earlier in the processing pathway, and which drives the N2pc 581 as well as the P3, but without any meaningful link between the two. However, a number of 582 583 points stand against this possibility: i) we are not aware of a component observed in RSVP that is earlier than the N2pc and varies with behaviour, although components can be present 584 to which EEG is blind. ii) it would seem non-adaptive if two such prominent brain responses 585 were not part of a cascade; all major theories of the brain assume cascaded processing 586 along the ventral processing pathway. Additionally, the association of the N2pc with 587 attentional deployment is pretty well accepted, as is the position that the P3 is associated 588 589 with higher cognitive processing, e.g. conscious perception, working memory encoding or response preparation. It is difficult to see how any of these processes would not be driven by 590 591 attention.

592 Identifying factors modulating the brain's cascaded processing with DTW

593 The present analysis has the potential to identify factors that contribute to the extent 594 of temporal correlation between cognitive processes (additionally, because DTW can

595 accommodate compressions and expansions in time, these temporal associations can be 596 different to those observed with traditional functional connectivity), enabling novel insights into the cascaded nature of the brain. Additionally, the method could be applied to time 597 598 series resulting from other research contexts and using non-EEG measures, e.g. from machine learning or fMRI. For example, a clinician might demonstrate that in a specific 599 patient population, a temporal link between two cognitive processes is weakened and 600 associated with symptom severity. It could then be investigated whether some treatment 601 602 known to improve symptoms achieves this by modulating the temporal link established with our DTW procedure. 603

604

Conclusion

We have provided novel insight into the nature of links between attention and higher-605 order cognition, thereby providing evidence against these two processes being independent 606 607 from or identical to one another. This link was studied using Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) 608 embedded in a bootstrap procedure, which can in general be used to study the temporal link 609 between two components obtained with neuroscientific measures. Applying this approach to 610 the N2pc and P3 ERP components recorded in an intrusion error experiment, we not only 611 provided evidence of a link between selective attention and access consciousness, but also 612 suggested that the timing and precision of attentional selectivity likely affects the timing and 613 contents of conscious perception. We furthermore demonstrated that this link has differential strength when correct reports, compared to when intrusion errors, are made, suggesting that 614 the relationship between the N2pc and the P3 is functionally relevant. Our stronger N2pc-P3 615 link in correct trials complements the literature on distractor intrusion errors, introducing the 616 possibility that the likelihood of "good fortune" (i.e., the correct two features happening to be 617 618 coactive and encoded together, resulting in a correct response) might be indexed by how tightly selective attention and access consciousness are linked. Still, further research is 619 620 needed to study the N2pc-P3 link in additional experimental settings to provide a more 621 comprehensive understanding of the two components and their relationship with each other. 622 Future research should also test whether this link has a similar (or different) functional

- relevance for different cognitive, sensory, and clinical phenomena (e.g., considering different 623
- modalities, multi-modal integration, motor processes or impaired processing after 624

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760	Legends
761	Figure 1. Two example RSVP Streams that allow for distractor intrusion errors. Time
762	unfolds from top left to bottom right. In Panel A, the task would be to report the red letter.
763	Hence, the illustration depicts the central stimulus set surrounding the target frame that
764	contains the red 'S' stimulus, with numbers next to stimulus-frames indicating respective
765	item-positions with respect to the target (0). Intrusion errors are made if participants
766	erroneously report a neighbouring distractor stimulus as being red. For example, a +1-
767	intrusion error is made if the 'F', which immediately follows the red 'S' target frame, was
768	reported as being red. Example A is based on the paradigms used by Botella et al. (2001).
769	Example B illustrates the stimulus sequence in Zivony and Eimer's (2021) Experiment 1.
770	Participants had to report the target digit within one of two RSVP streams, determined by a
771	predefined selection feature (i.e., circle/annulus). The target appeared at positions 5 to 8
772	within the stream and was followed by two additional frames. The post-target frame
773	contained a digit at the same location as the target on 75% of trials and two letters on 25% of
774	trials. ISI = interstimulus interval.
775	Figure 2. Human ERP data of Zivony & Eimer's (2021) Experiment 1. Black and red
776	lines indicate ERPs of correct and intrusion conditions, respectively. We combined the

dataset of the authors' Experiments 1A and 1B, as 1B was a direct replication of 1A.

Figure 3. Results of the DTW Analysis for the N2pc component.

Panel A presents the warping path (blue), which was found after optimally aligning the 779 780 reference (correct trials' N2pc, y-axis) and query (intrusion trials' N2pc, x-axis) time-series 781 based on minimal Euclidian distance. The warping path being located under the main 782 diagonal (red) indicates that the reference (correct) preceded the query (intrusion) in time. We found a latency difference of 18 ms using the distribution of distances between all points 783 of the warping path and the main diagonal, which is in line with previous work that used 784 point-based latency estimates. Panels B and C display the permutation (null-) distribution of 785 786 DTW areas used for assessment of the latency difference's statistical significance. Panel B

presents the original permutation distribution of DTW areas and Panel C presents these DTW area values after taking the absolute. In order to obtain a two-tailed statistical test, we used the distribution of absolutes presented in Panel C for assessing statistical significance. Red and blue vertical lines in Panels B and C indicate the threshold of statistical significance and our true observed DTW area value, respectively. We found the latency difference of 18 ms to be significant at an alpha level of 5% (*p* = .0013).

Figure 4. Results of the DTW analysis for the P3 component.

Plotting conventions follow those presented in Figure 3, again the DTW warping path as well as the reference and query time series in Panel A, and the original and absolute (null-) permutation DTW area distributions in Panels B and C. The P3 component was found to be delayed in intrusion trials by 73 ms, which was again statistically significant (p = .0003). These results are therefore in line with those presented in Figure 3 and provide initial evidence for the N2pc and P3 component to be correlated in time.

Figure 5. Bootstrap analysis of correlated N2pc and P3 latencies.

Top and bottom panels show scatterplots of bootstrapped pairs of z-scored DTW areas and the line of best linear fit for correct and intrusion trials, respectively. We furthermore present the marginal distributions of true-observed & surrogate ERP-components on their respective axes in both panels. We provide variance, skewness and kurtosis values of all marginal distributions in the bottom of the figure. In correct trials, the correlation values after Pearson and Spearman were .33 and .4, respectively. In intrusion trials, the correlation values were .15 (Pearson) and .14 (Spearman).

Figure 6. Distributions of z-scored DTW areas of our bootstrap DTW procedure. Note
that these distributions were previously presented as the marginal distribution in Figure 5. As
in Figure 5, each value of these distributions measures the latency difference between a
given bootstrap GA ERP component and the corresponding true observed GA ERP.
Bootstrap samples were kept fixed for analyses of the N2pc and P3. Left and right panels

present the marginal distributions of the N2pc and the P3, respectively and different 813 814 response conditions are plotted as black (correct reports) and red (intrusion errors) lines. The standard deviations of distributions are plotted as horizontal bars above the corresponding 815 816 distribution. The dots within these horizontal bars indicate the means, which were all close to 817 zero (due to a given bootstrap ERP being equally likely to unfold earlier or later than the corresponding true observed ERP). The P3 marginals included values ±4 standard 818 deviations, which were not plotted, but are indicated by stars. Particularly large DTW area 819 820 values in the analysis of the correct P3 are visible as a large black bin on the right. These indicate 86 values (out of 10000 bootstrap repetitions) that led to DTW area values larger 821 than 0.25 (equalling 4 standard deviations). Note that computing the standard deviations that 822 are presented as horizontal lines above marginal distributions did include these extreme 823 values. Also note that these extreme values were previously evident as a group of outlier 824 points for high x values in the scatterplot presented in Figure 5's top panel. We argue that 825 these points furthermore led to the multimodality of the P3's DTW permutation distribution 826 presented in Figure 4B. 827

828 Figure 7. DTW simulations with noise scalars ranging from 0 (i.e., no noise, only the latency shift) to 0.95. The top panels plot the original intrusion N2pc in red and the shifted 829 N2pc at each noise level in blue. Note, the changes in y-axis scales as noise amplitude 830 increases. The bottom left panel plots signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs) as a function of the noise 831 level, with the SNRs of correct and intrusion N2pcs plotted as dashed lines. The bottom 832 middle panel plots the latency estimate after DTW as a function of the noise level and the 833 bottom right panel plots the latency estimate as a function of SNR, plotting the intrusion 834 N2pc's SNR as a dashed line. The robustness of DTW to noise levels associated with the 835 Intrusion SNR suggest that the differently strong N2pc-P3 correlations after correct and 836 837 intrusion trials were likely driven by differences in the cortical processes generating an 838 intrusion or correct response.





N2pc











