

1 **Brain signatures indexing variation in internal processing during**
2 **perceptual decision-making**

3
4 Johan Nakuci^{1*}, Jason Samaha² and Dobromir Rahnev¹
5

6 ¹School of Psychology, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia, 30332, USA.

7 ²Department of Psychology, The University of California, Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, California,
8 95064, USA.

9
10 *Corresponding author. Email: jnakuci3@gatech.edu
11

12 **Acknowledgments:** This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (grant
13 R01MH119189 to DR) and the Office of Naval Research (grant N00014-20-1-2622 to DR).
14

15 **Author contributions:**

16 Conceptualization: JN, DR

17 Methodology: JN, DR

18 Data Curation: JS

19 Visualization: JN, JS, DR

20 Funding acquisition: DR

21 Writing – original draft: JN, DR

22 Writing – review & editing: JN, JS, DR
23

24 **Competing interests:** Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

25 **Abstract**

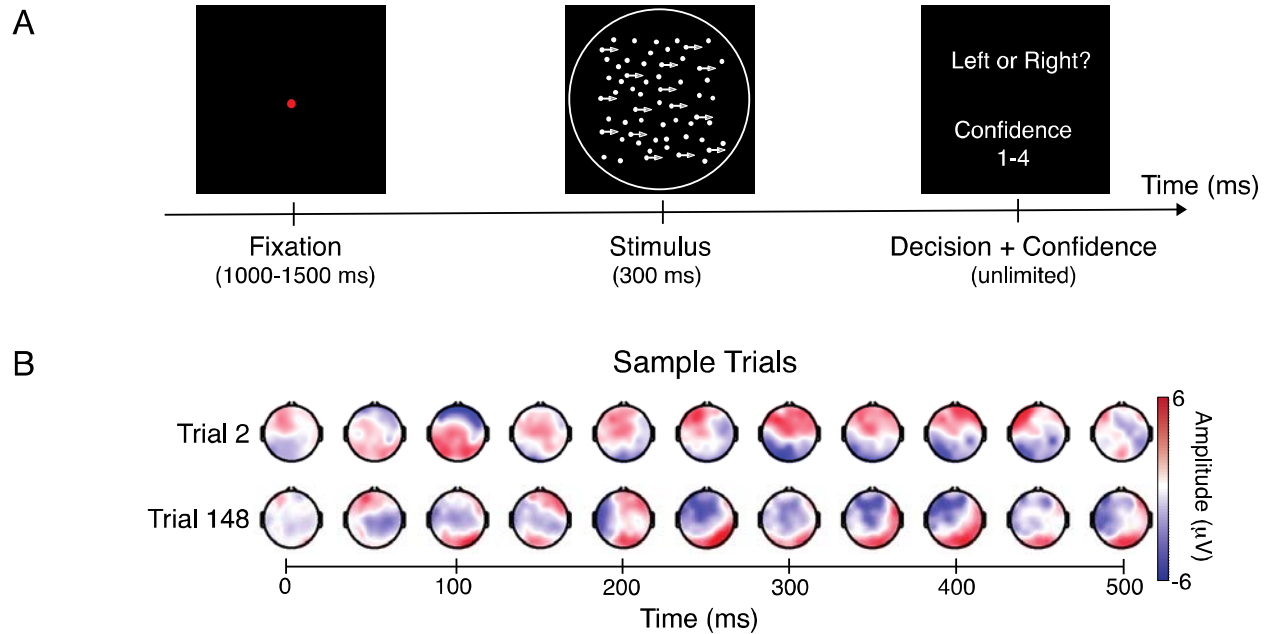
26 Meaningful variation in internal states remains challenging to discover and characterize. Using
27 modularity-maximization, a data-driven classification method, we identify two subsets of trials
28 with distinct spatial-temporal brain activity and differing in the amount of information required
29 to reach a decision. These results open a new way to identify brain states relevant to cognition
30 and behavior not associated with experimental factors.

31 **Main Text**

32 Brain activity is highly variable during simple and cognitively demanding tasks^{1,2} impacting
33 performance^{3,4}. This variability is present in the activity of individual neurons⁵ up to changes
34 among large-scale neural networks⁶. Discovering, characterizing, and linking variability in brain
35 activity to internal processes has primarily relied on experimentally inducing changes (e.g., via
36 attention manipulation) to identify neuronal and behavioral consequences⁷ or studying
37 spontaneous changes in ongoing brain dynamics⁸. However, changes in internal processing could
38 arise from many factors, such as variation in strategy or arousal⁹ that are independent of
39 experimental conditions but are relevant to cognition and behavior¹⁰. Moreover, traditional
40 approaches often rely on knowing, a priori, what features of brain activity (e.g., oscillations) or
41 cognition (e.g., attention) are relevant to measure or manipulate.

42

43 Here, we leverage a data-driven approach to characterize the variability in brain activity among
44 individual trials and link this variability to behavior and underlying latent cognitive processes.
45 Subjects performed a motion discrimination task where they judged the global direction of a set
46 of moving dots (left/right) with six levels of coherence (**Fig. 1A**). Even in a simple task such as
47 this, trial-to-trial spatial and temporal variation in brain activity measured with
48 electroencephalography (EEG) is evident (**Fig. 1B**).



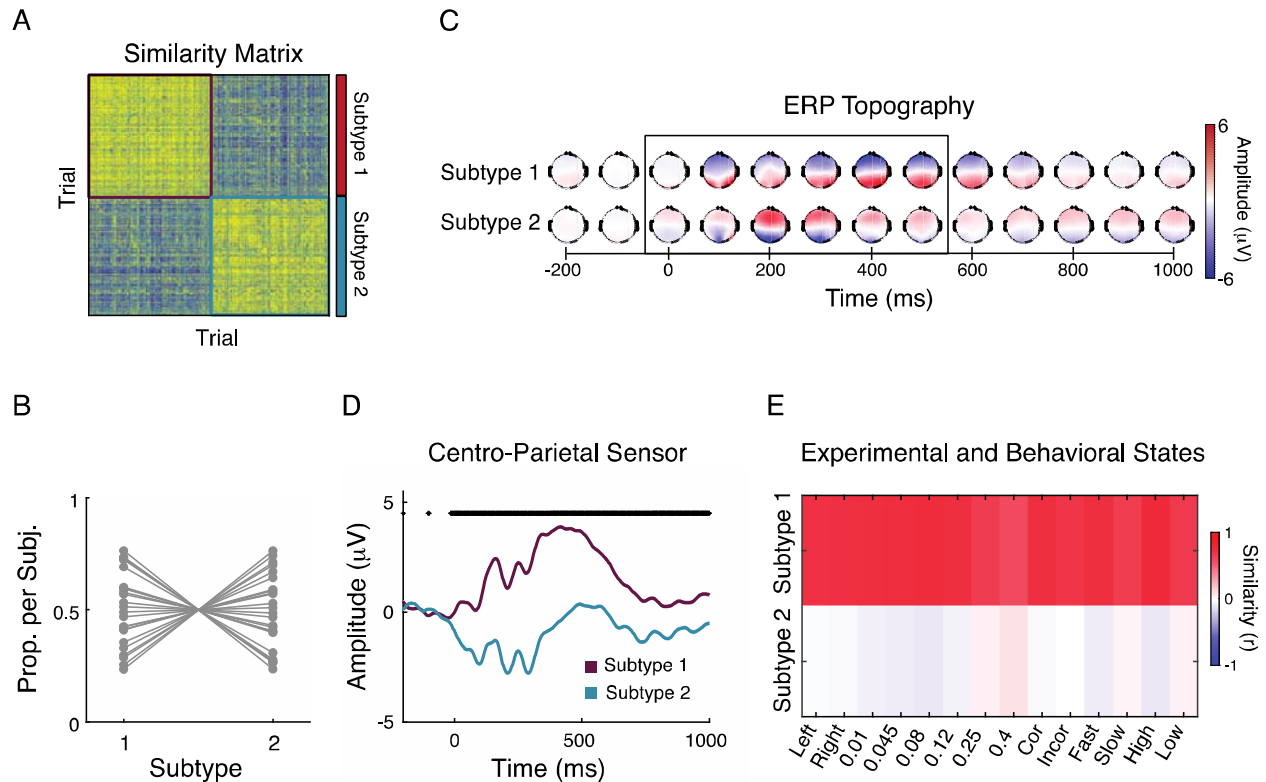
49
50

51 **Figure 1.** Task description and trial-to-trial spatial-temporal variation. A) Subjects viewed a dot
52 motion stimulus for 300 ms with net motion direction either to the left or the right at varying
53 levels of motion coherence (arrowed dots). Using a single button press, subjects provided a
54 choice and confidence (1-4) judgment. B) EEG activity from two trials from stimulus onset (0
55 ms) to 500 ms after onset from the same subject. The brain activity between the trials exhibits
56 stark differences.

57

58 We explore the link between trial-to-trial variation and decision-making processes using a data-
59 driven classification method we developed previously¹¹. Briefly, modularity-maximization is
60 used to identify consistent patterns of activity among trials¹². Trials from all subjects were
61 pooled together to calculate the spatial and temporal similarity using Pearson correlation from
62 stimulus onset (0 ms) to 500 ms after onset. The modularity-maximization classification
63 procedure identified two subgroups of trials, Subtype 1 ($N_{\text{trials}} = 10674$) and Subtype 2 ($N_{\text{trials}} =$
64 10284; **Fig. 2A**), across all subjects (**Fig. 2B**).

65



66

67 **Figure 2.** Subtypes of individual trials in motion perception task. A) Modularity-maximization
 68 based clustering identified two subtypes of trials, Subtype 1 and Subtype 2. The colored squares
 69 correspond to the trials composing each subtype. Pearson correlation was used to calculate the
 70 spatial-temporal similarity of the EEG activity among individual trials from 0 to 500 ms post-
 71 stimulus. B) The proportion of trials in each subject classified as either subtype 1 or 2. C) ERP
 72 topographies of Subtype 1 and Subtype 2 from 200 ms before stimulus onset to 1000 ms after
 73 stimulus offset. Note that the clustering algorithm was applied to the data from stimulus onset (0
 74 ms) to 500 ms, black box. D) ERP activity from the centro-parietal sensor per subtype. Each
 75 waveform shows the mean (thick line) and standard error of the mean (shaded area). Statistical
 76 testing was conducted using independent samples t-tests, and FDR corrected for multiple
 77 comparisons. Statistically significant differences in amplitude are marked at the top of the panel.
 78 E) The topographical similarity between subtype-derived ERPs to ERPs derived from
 79 experimental – motion direction (Left/Right), motion coherence (0.01, 0.045, 0.08, 0.12, 0.25
 80 0.4) – and behavior factors – Correct/Incorrect response, Fast/Slow response time, High/Low
 81 confidence. Pearson correlation was used to calculate the spatial-temporal similarity of the EEG
 82 activity from individual trials for 0 to 1000 ms after the stimulus. The ERP from one of the
 83 subtypes, Subtype 1, exhibits strong similarity ($r > 0.60$) to ERPs derived from experimental and
 84 behavioral factors highlighting the utility of Modularity-Maximization based clustering to
 85 identify variation in internal processing relevant to cognition.

86

87 To understand the nature of the two subtypes, we plotted their average event-related potentials

88 (ERPs) to test for differences in stimulus-driven activity¹³. Qualitatively, the ERPs for each

89 subtype exhibited an opposite pattern of anterior vs. posterior event-related potentials (**Fig. 2C**).
90 These qualitative topographical differences were present even when comparing ERPs for each
91 motion coherence level (**Fig. S1A, B**). To confirm these impressions, we compared ERPs from
92 the centro-parietal sensor, which has been linked with decision-making processes¹⁴ and evidence
93 accumulation^{15,16}. Significant differences were present in amplitude between the subtypes
94 (independent samples t-tests, $p < 0.001$, FDR corrected; **Fig. 2D**) and for each motion coherence
95 level (independent samples t-tests $p < 0.001$, FDR corrected; **Fig. S1C**). Subtype 1 contained
96 significant positive amplitude in the parietal area compared to Subtype 2 from stimulus onset (0
97 ms) to 1000 ms after the stimulus extending beyond the 500 ms window used in the clustering.

98
99 One possibility is that these subtypes reflect different experimental or behavioral factors, such as
100 leftward/rightward moving trials or fast/slow responses. To better assess the nature of these
101 subtypes, we compared the topographical similarity between subtype-derived ERPs to ERPs
102 derived by averaging trials associated with experimental (motion direction and coherence levels)
103 and behavioral (accuracy, response times, and confidence) factors. The topographical similarity
104 was estimated between ERPs from stimulus onset (0 ms) to 1000 ms after the stimulus.
105 Interestingly, a strong similarity was found in Subtype 1 ($r > 0.60$), but not in Subtype 2 ($r <$
106 0.10) to ERPs derived from experimental and behavioral factors, indicating that the variation in
107 the stimulus-locked ERP in 43% of trials in our study were induced by other factors (**Fig. 2E**).

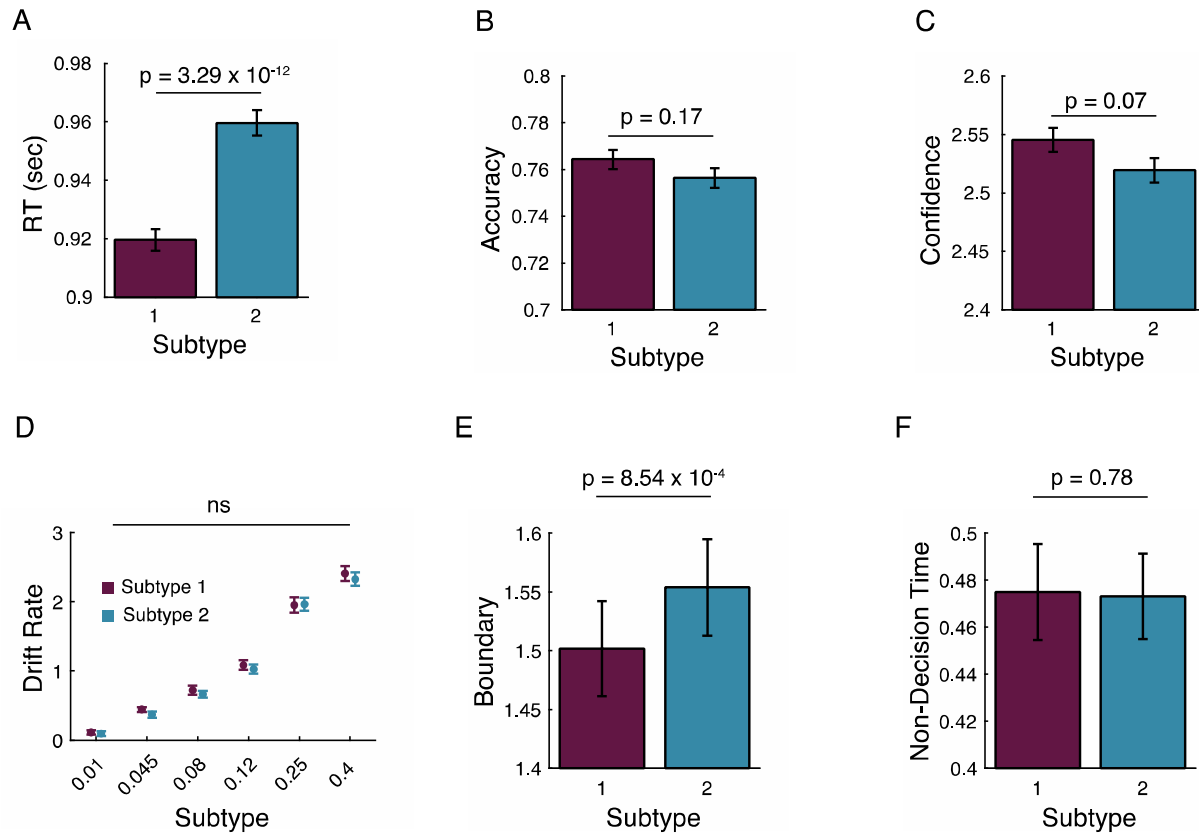
108
109 We then investigated if these differences between the two subtypes were due to underlying
110 differences in the composition of trials. The distribution of trials with leftward and rightward
111 motion was the same between subtypes (Wilcoxon rank sum test: $Z = 0.13$; $p = 0.89$; **Fig. S2A**).

112 Although Subtype 1 contained a higher proportion of trials with lower motion coherence
113 (Wilcoxon rank sum test: $Z = -4.06$; $p = 4.72 \times 10^{-5}$; **Fig. S2B**), this difference accounted for
114 less than 3% of trials per condition (**Fig. S2C**). Thus, experimental factors were not the main
115 driver of the spatial-temporal variation in brain activity among trials.

116

117 However, the subtypes reflect alterations in underlying cognitive and decision-making processes.
118 Subtype 1 trials consistently exhibited faster response times across all motion coherence levels
119 (independent samples t-test: $t(20956) = -6.97$; $p = 3.29 \times 10^{-12}$; **Fig. 3A, Fig. S2A**). On the other
120 hand, there was no significant difference between the two subtypes in accuracy (independent
121 samples t-test: $t(20956) = 1.35$; $p = 0.17$; **Fig. 3B, Fig. S2B**), and only marginally higher
122 confidence in Subtype 1 trials (independent samples t-test: $t(20956) = 1.79$; $p = 0.07$; **Fig. 3C,**
123 **Fig. S2C**).

124



125

126 **Figure 3.** Behavioral differences between subtypes. Differences in (A) response times, (B)
127 accuracy, and (C) confidence between subtypes. Error bars show the mean \pm sem. Drift-diffusion
128 parameters showed that (D) the drift rate was the same between subtypes, (E) the response
129 boundary was higher in Subtype 2, and (F) the non-decision time exhibited no differences
130 between subtypes. Statistical testing was conducted using independent samples t-tests, and FDR
131 corrected for multiple comparisons. ns = not significant
132

133 Having identified two trial subtypes with underlying differences in stimulus-dependent brain
134 activity and decision-making processes, we sought to identify the latent cognitive processes that
135 would give rise to the behavioral differences by computationally modeling the response times
136 and accuracy using the drift-diffusion model¹⁷. We fit the drift-diffusion model to the behavioral
137 data from each subtype separately. We let the drift rate vary with motion coherence level, but the
138 decision boundary and non-decision time were fixed across the different coherence levels.
139 Examining the latent factors, we found the drift rate was the same between subtypes
140 (independent samples t-test; $p > 0.05$; **Fig. 3D**), but Subtype 2 trials featured significantly higher

141 response boundary (independent samples t-test: $t(24) = -3.81$; $p = 0.001$; **Fig. 3E**). Further, no
142 differences were present in the non-decision time (independent samples t-test: $t(24) = 0.28$; $p =$
143 0.81 ; **Fig. 3F**).

144

145 To ensure our results are generalizable and robust, we conducted two additional analyses. First,
146 we trained a Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier by randomly separating trials into 5 bins
147 containing 20% of trials. The classifier was trained on EEG data from four of the bins (80% of
148 trials) and tested on the remaining bin (20% of the trials). The procedure was repeated until each
149 bin was tested. The SVM classifier correctly predicted subtype labels with greater than 98%
150 accuracy (**Fig. S4**). Second, we replicated the analysis using a longer time window (1000 ms) to
151 verify that the results were not dependent on the time range used in the clustering analysis. The
152 classification similarity between the 500 ms and 1000 ms time windows was strong ($>84\%$; **Fig.**
153 **S5A-C**) which is reflected in the ERP and behavioral analysis (**Fig. S5D-O**).

154

155 Through a combination of data-driven classification of brain activity, behavior, and
156 computational modeling, we identify two brain states with differing stimulus-driven activity.
157 These states reflect changes in latent cognitive factors which could indicate different modes of
158 processing during perceptual decision-making in humans¹⁸ and other animals¹⁹. These modes
159 could arise from changes in a single information processing sequence induced by alteration in the
160 balance between top-down²⁰ and bottom-up signaling²¹. Alternatively, the different stimulus-
161 driven activity could indicate the existence of two independent information processing
162 sequences. Taken together, the analytical approach and findings open a new avenue for
163 understanding the brain-behavior relationship.

164 **References**

165

- 166 1. Arieli, A., Sterkin, A., Grinvald, A. & Aertsen, A. *Science* (1979)
167 (1996).doi:10.1126/science.273.5283.1868
- 168 2. Goris, R.L.T., Movshon, J.A. & Simoncelli, E.P. *Nat Neurosci* (2014).doi:10.1038/nn.3711
- 169 3. Reinhart, R.M.G. & Nguyen, J.A. *Nat Neurosci* **22**, 820–827 (2019).
- 170 4. Mišić, B., Mills, T., Taylor, M.J. & McIntosh, A.R. *J Neurophysiol* **104**, 2667–2676 (2010).
- 171 5. Ribault, C., Sekimoto, K. & Triller, A. *Nat Rev Neurosci* (2011).doi:10.1038/nrn3025
- 172 6. Clare Kelly, A.M., Uddin, L.Q., Biswal, B.B., Castellanos, F.X. & Milham, M.P. *Neuroimage*
173 (2008).doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2007.08.008
- 174 7. Renart, A. & Machens, C.K. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **25**, 211–220 (2014).
- 175 8. Samaha, J., lemi, L., Haegens, S. & Busch, N.A. *Trends Cogn Sci* **24**, 639–653 (2020).
- 176 9. Fontanini, A. & Katz, D.B. *J Neurophysiol* (2008).doi:10.1152/jn.90592.2008
- 177 10. Waschke, L., Kloosterman, N.A., Obleser, J. & Garrett, D.D. *Neuron* **109**, 751–766 (2021).
- 178 11. Nakuci, J., Covey, T.J., Shucard, J.L., Shucard, D.W. & Muldoon, S.F. *bioRxiv*
179 2022.05.03.490545 (2022).doi:10.1101/2022.05.03.490545
- 180 12. Mucha, P.J., Richardson, T., Macon, K., Porter, M.A. & Onnela, J.P. *Science* (1979)
181 (2010).doi:10.1126/science.1184819
- 182 13. Luck, S.J. (Steven J. *The MIT Press* (2014).doi:10.1118/1.4736938
- 183 14. Ratcliff, R., Philiastides, M.G. & Sajda, P. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*
184 **106**, 6539–6544 (2009).
- 185 15. Parés-Pujolràs, E., Travers, E., Ahmetoglu, Y. & Haggard, P. *Neuroimage* **232**, 117863
186 (2021).
- 187 16. Twomey, D.M., Murphy, P.R., Kelly, S.P. & O’Connell, R.G. *European Journal of*
188 *Neuroscience* **42**, 1636–1643 (2015).
- 189 17. Ratcliff, R. & McKoon, G. *Neural Comput* **20**, 873–922 (2008).
- 190 18. Weilhhammer, V., Stuke, H., Standvoss, K. & Sterzer, P. *bioRxiv* 2021.08.20.457079
191 (2022).doi:10.1101/2021.08.20.457079
- 192 19. Ashwood, Z.C. et al. *Nat Neurosci* **25**, 201–212 (2022).
- 193 20. Zanto, T.P., Rubens, M.T., Thangavel, A. & Gazzaley, A. *Nat Neurosci* **14**, 656–661 (2011).
- 194 21. Mechelli, A., Price, C.J., Friston, K.J. & Ishai, A. *Cerebral Cortex* **14**, 1256–1265 (2004).
- 195 22. Delorme, A. & Makeig, S. *J Neurosci Methods*
196 (2004).doi:10.1016/j.jneumeth.2003.10.009
- 197 23. Jeub, L.G.S., Bazzi, M., Jutla, I.S. & Mucha, P.J. (2011).at
198 <<http://netwiki.amath.unc.edu/GenLouvain>,
199 <https://github.com/GenLouvain/GenLouvain>>
- 200 24. Bassett, D.S. et al. *Chaos* (2013).doi:10.1063/1.4790830

201

202