1 EEG-based visual deviance detection in freely behaving mice

2	Renate Kat ^a , Berry van den Berg ^b , Matthijs JL Perenboom ^c , Maarten Schenke ^d , Arn MJM
3	van den Maagdenberg ^{c,d} , Hilgo Bruining ^e , Else A Tolner ^{c,d*} , Martien JH Kas ^{a *}
4	^a Groningen Institute for Evolutionary Life Sciences (GELIFES), University of Groningen,
5	Nijenborgh 7, 9747 AG, Groningen, the Netherlands, r.kat@rug.nl, m.j.h.kas@rug.nl
6	^b Faculty of Behavioural and Social Sciences, Cognitive Neuroscience, Department of
7	Experimental Psychology, University of Groningen, Grote Kruisstraat 2/1, 9712 TS,
8	Groningen, the Netherlands, berry.van.den.berg@rug.nl
9	^c Department of Neurology, Leiden University Medical Center, Albinusdreef 2, 2300 RC,
10	Leiden, the Netherlands, M.J.L.Perenboom@lumc.nl,
11	A.M.J.M.van_den_Maagdenberg@lumc.nl, E.A.Tolner@lumc.nl
12	^d Department of Human Genetics, Leiden University Medical Center, Einthovenweg 20,
13	2300 RC, Leiden, the Netherlands.
14	^e Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Amsterdam University Medical Center,
15	University of Amsterdam, Postbus 7057, 1007 MB, Amsterdam, the Netherlands,
16	h.bruining@amsterdamumc.nl
17	*These authors have contributed equally to this work
18	
19	Corresponding author:
20	Prof. Dr. MJH Kas; Groningen Institute for Evolutionary Life Sciences (GELIFES),

20 Prof. Dr. MJH Kas; Groningen Institute for Evolutionary Life Sciences (GELIFES),
21 University of Groningen, Nijenborgh 7, 9747 AG Groningen, The Netherlands
22 m.j.h.kas@rug.nl

Abbreviations ERP: event related potential; MMN: mismatch negativity; TFR: time-frequency reponse; V1: primary visual cortex; VEP: visual evoked potential

23 Abstract

The mouse is widely used as an experimental model to study visual processing. To probe 24 how the visual system detects changes in the environment, functional paradigms in freely 25 behaving mice are strongly needed. We developed and validated the first EEG-based 26 method to investigate visual deviance detection in freely behaving mice. Mice with EEG 27 implants were exposed to a visual deviant detection paradigm that involved changes in 28 29 light intensity as standard and deviant stimuli. By subtracting the standard from the deviant evoked waveform, deviant detection was evident as bi-phasic negativity (starting 30 around 70 ms) in the difference waveform. Additionally, deviance-associated evoked 31 (beta/gamma) and induced (gamma) oscillatory responses were found. We showed that 32 the results were stimulus independent by applying a "flip-flop" design and the results 33 showed good repeatability in an independent measurement. Together, we put forward a 34 validated, easy-to-use paradigm to measure visual deviance processing in freely behaving 35 mice. 36

37

38 Keywords

39 visual processing, mismatch negativity, sensory processing deficits

40 **1. Introduction**

The experiments by Hubel and Wiesel on direction selectivity of neurons in the cat visual 41 cortex (Hubel, 1959; Hubel & Wiesel, 1968) have pioneered a growing scientific field on 42 the visual system and its processing abilities. Since then, the mouse is a widely used 43 animal model to investigate visual processing (Baker, 2013). One important reason is that 44 mice are particularly suitable for genetic modification, such as the use of advanced 45 46 genetically encoded tools for neuroimaging and neuromodulation that allow unravelling of neuronal network dynamics (Warden et al., 2014). Moreover, transgenic mouse 47 models allow to examine the role of specific cell types or neuronal populations (Sohya et 48 al., 2007; Hamm and Yuste, 2016), as well as to study altered visual processing in the 49 context of human psychiatric disorders (Zhang et al., 2017; Hamm et al., 2020; 50 Perenboom et al., 2020). However, visual processing has hardly been studied in awake, 51 freely behaving mice, as typically head-fixation is used to ensure that visual stimuli reach 52 the eye (Montijn et al., 2016; Carrillo-Reid et al., 2019; Fournier et al., 2020). Assessing 53 measures of visual processing in freely moving mice requires a behavioural setup in 54 which animals are constantly exposed to visual stimuli in their environment irrespective 55 of their bodily position. 56

57 Detecting changes in the environment is an important function of sensory systems. 58 The brain can shift attention to changes in the environment via either a passive reduction 59 in the response to redundant stimuli, or an active memory-based increased response to 60 unexpected, or deviant, stimuli (Garrido et al., 2009). The representation of deviance 61 detection in the EEG signal has also been called mismatch negativity (MMN; May et al., 62 1999). Deficits in deviance detection have been associated with various neuropsychiatric 63 disorders, mainly schizophrenia (Näätänen et al., 2014; Tada et al., 2019). Visual deviance

detection has gained substantially less attention compared to auditory deviance
detection and has only twice been studied in rodents (Hamm and Yuste, 2016; Vinken et
al., 2017). While these studies were able to assess visual deviance detection, the animals
were required to be head-fixated.

Here we set out to develop a novel paradigm to measure deviance-induced 68 differences in visual evoked potentials (VEPs) in freely behaving mice. Based on MMN 69 70 oddball concepts used in the context of auditory deviance detection (Harms et al., 2016), our visual deviant detection paradigm involves changes in light intensity as standard and 71 deviant stimuli. In order to use the measured EEG waveform difference features for 72 'deviance detection', the paradigm needs to comply with three principal criteria. First, the 73 paradigm should be able to elicit a *robust deviance response* as measured through the 74 difference between the deviant versus standard VEP responses. Second, the deviance 75 response needs to be *stimulus-independent*, meaning that the same response difference is 76 found when using either of the two stimuli - in our case increases versus decreases in 77 light intensity – as deviant. Third, the VEP deviance effect needs to be repeatable in an 78 independent measurement within the same subject (*repeatability*). After satisfying the 79 three criteria based on VEP waveforms, characteristics of the frequency responses for the 80 paradigm were explored to gain insight in visual deviance-induced oscillatory activity. In 81 addition, the influence of the repeated light stimulation was explored by assessing how 82 the strength of the observed deviance detection changed with increasing number of 83 standards preceding a deviant. 84

85

86 2. Materials and Methods

87 *2.1 Mice*

Male C57BL/6J mice (n=13) were used to implement and validate the newly developed 88 visual deviance detection paradigm. Animals were single-housed in individually 89 ventilated cages for at least one week prior to surgeries and maintained on a 12:12 light-90 dark cycle with *ad libitum* access to food and water. All experiments were approved by 91 the Animal Experiment Ethics Committee of Leiden University Medical Center and were 92 carried out in accordance with ARRIVE guidelines and EU Directive 2010/63/EU for 93 animal experiments. All efforts were made to minimize discomfort of the experimental 94 animals. 95

96 2.2 EEG implantation surgery

97 Stereotactic EEG electrode implantation surgery was performed in mice at the age of 2 months. Under isoflurane anaesthesia (1.5%, in oxygen-enriched air), three silver (Ag) 98 ball-tip electrodes were implanted epidurally above the right prefrontal cortex (bregma 99 +2.6 mm anterior, -1.6 mm lateral) and the right and left primary visual cortex (V1; 100 101 bregma -3.5 mm posterior, +/- 3.0 mm lateral). The relatively lateral V1 position was chosen since multiple studies indicate a role for the visual extra-striate areas (which are 102 103 located more laterally on the occipital cortex) in the visual deviance detection (reviewed in: Kimura, 2012; Vinken et al., 2017). Two epidural platinum electrodes were placed 104 105 above cerebellum to serve as reference and a ground electrode, respectively. Electromyogram (EMG) electrodes were placed on top of the neck muscles to record 106 muscle activity. Light-activated bonding primer and dental cement (Kerr optibond / 107 premise flowable, DiaDent Europe, Almere, the Netherlands) were used to attach 108 109 electrodes to the skull. Post-operative pain relief was achieved by a subcutaneous injection of Carprofen (5 mg/kg). EEG recordings started after a 14-day recovery period. 110

111 2.3 EEG and VEP recordings

Tethered EEG recordings were performed in a Faraday cage in which animals were 112 connected to the recording hardware via a counterbalanced, low-torque custom-build 113 electrical commutator. Signals were three times pre-amplified, band-pass filtered (0.05 114 to 500 Hz), then amplified 1200 times and thereafter digitized (Power 1401, Cambridge 115 116 Electronic Devices, Cambridge, UK) at a sampling rate of 5000 Hz. For the recording of VEPs, mice were placed inside a computer-controlled custom-built LED-illuminated 117 sphere in which tethered mice were able to move freely (Van Diepen et al., 2013). The 118 sphere (30 cm diameter) was coated with high-reflectance paint that spread light 119 produced by a ring of white monochromatic LEDs at the top of the sphere around an 120 opening for the swivel. A baffle prevented the mice from looking directly into the LEDs. 121 After connecting mice to the setup in the sphere, animals were allowed to habituate for 122 at least 10 min. Mice were tested once in an input-output paradigm and twice in an 123 oddball paradigm, all on separate days. The input-output paradigm, in which a train of 124 light flashes of increasing intensity was presented to the animals, was performed to 125 determine VEP signal quality. 60 flashes of 1 ms with increasing light intensity between 126 \sim 0.4 to 1.1 μ W/cm²/nm were presented at 2 Hz, and 5 flashes of increasing intensity 127 between ~1.4 to 2.2 μ W/cm²/nm at 0.5 Hz. The paradigm was repeated 50 times with 20 128 s rest in-between blocks. 129

130 2.4 Visual oddball paradigm

To measure visual deviance detection, a light intensity-based oddball paradigm with decreases and increases in light intensity was developed (Fig. 1). To ensure stable levels of light-adaptation before onset of the oddball sequence, the paradigm started with 10 min of constant light of medium intensity (0.15 μ W/cm²/nm). Subsequently a 7-minute sequence started in which 300-ms pulses of increased (1.7 μ W/cm²/nm) or decreased 136 light intensity (0.02 μ W/cm²/nm) stimuli were interspersed by a 500-ms inter-stimulus interval of the 0.15 μ W/cm²/nm constant light intensity (Fig. 1). The constant level of 137 light in between the sequence of standard and deviant stimuli was used to prevent 138 occurrence of dark adaptation between stimuli. The intensities of increases (1.7 139 140 μ W/cm²/nm) and decreases (0.02 μ W/cm²/nm) were chosen based on VEP amplitudes in the grand average input-output curve in such a way that the amplitude change from 141 decrease to ISI level was the same as the amplitude change from ISI to increase level. The 142 stimulus duration of 300 ms was based on earlier visual MMN studies that used stimulus 143 durations between 80 and 500 ms, in humans (Stagg et al., 2004; Kimura et al., 2010; 144 Sulykos and Czigler, 2014) and rodents (Hamm and Yuste, 2016; Vinken et al., 2017). 145 Deviant stimuli were semi-randomly spread through the sequence, with the constraint of 146 a minimum of two standard presentations before the next deviant. The first stimulation 147 block in the paradigm contained 500 stimuli, 473 (87.4%, the standard) of which were 148 intensity increases and 63 (12.6%, the deviant) of which were light intensity decreases. 149 After this block, the paradigm (including the 10 minutes constant light at the start) was 150 repeated with a swap of standard and deviant stimulus type. This so called 'flip-flop' 151 152 paradigm allowed for assessment of differences between standard and deviant stimuli irrespective of stimulus type (Harms et al., 2016), in our case increased vs decreased light 153 intensity. The visual oddball paradigm was performed twice for every animal on separate 154 days. The order of the first and second recording was counterbalanced over the morning 155 (1st half of the light phase) and the afternoon (2nd half of the light phase). 156

157 *2.5 Analysis*

No animals had to be excluded on the basis of low signal quality found in the input-outputparadigm. For two animals, positive-negative inverted signals were evident on one of the

160 visual cortex electrodes (once right V1 and once left V1); these electrodes were excluded from analysis. Next, recordings were manually checked to exclude recording periods with 161 artefacts, as well as periods of sleep, as deviance detection is known to be attenuated or 162 even absent in non-REM sleep (Sculthorpe et al., 2009). For sleep detection, recordings 163 were first screened for the presence of periods where an infrared motion detector did not 164 pick up non-specific locomotor activity. If periods without locomotor activity were 165 present during stimulus presentation, they were checked for the presence of non-REM 166 sleep, as defined by high amplitude delta (<4 Hz) waves, so called slow waves, in the 167 frontal EEG signal in combination with an absence of activity in the EMG signal. Two 168 recordings which contained periods of sleep were excluded from analysis (both being the 169 first recording of the animal). 170

Data pre-processing was performed in Matlab (Versions 2018a & 2018b, 171 MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA). EEG data were low-pass filtered at 70 Hz with a fourth 172 order Butterworth filter. For evoked potential waveform analysis, VEPs were extracted 173 from the data of each recording electrode from 50 ms before until 300 ms after stimulus 174 onset. Subsequently, VEPs were grouped into deviant and standard stimuli, irrespective 175 176 of being a light intensity increase or a light intensity decrease. Within those two categories, all VEPs were averaged, and baseline corrected, using a latency window that 177 ranged from -50 to 0 to ms prior to the change in light intensity. Difference waves were 178 calculated by subtracting the standard from the deviant VEP. A comparison between the 179 difference waves of the right and left V1 electrode (using cluster-based permutation 180 analysis) did not reveal any time windows of significant differences (data not shown). In 181 subsequent analyses VEPs from the right and left electrode were averaged. 182

For analysis of time-frequency responses (TFRs), single trial data (i.e. from a single
stimulation; either a standard or deviant) were extracted from the EEG signal from 1 s

before to 1.5 s after stimulus onset. For time-frequency analysis, the data was low-pass 185 filtered at 150 Hz. Like with the VEP analysis, trials were grouped into standards and 186 deviants irrespective of the stimulus being a light increase or decrease. Using the 187 FieldTrip toolbox for EEG/MEG-analysis (Oostenveld et al., 2011; Donders Institute for 188 189 Brain, Cognition and Behaviour, Radboud University, the Netherlands), Hanning window convolution was performed with 5ms time windows. Frequencies were extracted from 4 190 - 150 Hz with 1-Hz linear steps. The number of cycles increased from 2 to 10 with 191 increasing frequency. Next, power was converted to a log10 scale and an absolute 192 baseline correction was performed using a window from 200 until 100 ms before 193 stimulus onset as the baseline. This window was chosen to avoid including stimulus 194 related activity that would be smeared (in time) due the width of the Hanning window. 195 The average time-frequency map of standard trials was subtracted from the average 196 time-frequency map of deviant trials. Additionally, to assess non-phase-locked TFRs, per 197 condition the *average* VEP response was subtracted from individual trials in the time 198 domain before performing the same time-frequency analysis as described above 199 (Stothart and Kazanina, 2013). 200

201 *2.6 Statistics*

To test whether deviance detection was significantly different from zero for both the VEPs and TFRs, cluster-based permutation analysis was used as previously described (Maris and Oostenveld, 2007). In short, dependent *t*-test statics were obtained for every time- (0.2-ms steps) or time-frequency point (5-ms to 1-Hz steps) and were clustered over time (and frequency) along adjacent points that reached above the *t*-value threshold corresponding to an alpha-level of 0.05. The sum of all *t*-values in a cluster was used as the cluster statistic. To assess significance of these clusters, a 'null' distribution was created by performing 1000 random permutations with the individual animal difference waves/maps and zero. Cluster statistics were extracted for every permutation in the same manner as described above. Both the largest positive and the largest negative cluster from each permutation were used to create two distributions. Clusters in the actual data were considered significant when exceeding the 97.5-percentile threshold for cluster size in either the positive or negative distribution.

Comparable procedures were used to compare VEP features between right and 215 left electrodes, light intensity increases and decreases, and first and second recordings. 216 However, in these cases permutations were performed by randomly exchanging the data 217 between the two conditions in the comparison. Clusters were reported when p<0.2, were 218 p<0.05 was considered significant. Cluster-based permutation analysis does not have a 219 good level of precision for finding exact on- and off-sets, therefore borders of the time, 220 as well as time-frequency, windows of reported clusters should be interpreted carefully 221 (Sassenhagen and Draschkow, 2019). To explore the effects of the number of standards 222 since the last deviant, in other words the number of preceding standards, on neural 223 responses (both VEPs and TFRs) and deviance detection amplitude, linear mixed 224 225 modelling was performed (Bates et al., 2015; Kuznetsova et al., 2017). Models were estimated and analysed using package lme4 (RStudio, version 1.2.5042 (R-version 4.0), 226 Boston, MA, USA; lme4 package version 1.1-23) and lmerTest. Using mixed models 227 allowed taking into account the number of individual trials that contribute to a condition 228 (as opposed to calculating the unpoled means per subject, per condition, losing this type 229 of information). The VEP waveform mean amplitudes were extracted from each 230 individual trial in the latency windows that were found to be significant clusters in the 231 evoked potential analysis, resulting in two separate models for an early (40 to 60 ms) 232 and a late (70 to 150 ms) latency window. Similarly, the mean frequency power from 233

each of the TFR clusters (across frequencies and time) that were found to be significant 234 was also extracted. These mixed modelling analyses should be viewed as exploratory 235 only; by using a time and frequency window defined by an earlier statistical analysis, we 236 are increasing type I error-rate by an unknown amount (Kriegeskorte et al., 2009). 237

The amplitude of the VEP waveforms and power of the TFRs were inspected as a 238 function of the number of trials since the last deviant, for both standards and deviants, 239 and light increases and decreases. Fewer observations were available for increasing 240 number of trials since the last deviant. A model was constructed with model selection 241 based on Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) to control for type I error rate, with 242 statistical significance assessed using Satterthwaite estimation of effective degrees of 243 freedom (pooled degrees of freedom) (Matuschek et al., 2017). 244

 $mV_n \mid cluster \ power_n$

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 $= \beta_{0,j} + \beta_1 \# trials_{j[n]} + \beta_2 stimulus_{j[n]} + \beta_3 light_n + \beta_4 \# trials_n. stimulus_n$ + β_5 #trials_n. light_n + β_6 stimulus_n. light_n + β_6 #trials_n. stimulus_n. light_n + ϵ_n

In this formula, for each trial n, the VEP and TFR amplitudes were described by an 248 intercept β_0 which indicates a random intercept per animal, β_1 which indicates the 249 number of trials since last deviant (1-30), β_2 which relates to whether the trial was a 250 deviant or a standard and β_3 which indicates whether the trial was a light increase or 251 decrease. Finally, β_{4-7} are the interactions between those terms and ϵ_n is the residual 252 error term. 253

VEP figures were constructed in GraphPad Prism (Version 8, GraphPad Software, 254 San Diego, CA, USA). Figures of the TFR were constructed in Matlab. Figures of the mixed 255 linear modelling data were constructed in RStudio. All data and analysis code (R and 256 Matlab) is available on the OSF data repository (<u>www.osf.io/6bhwf/</u>). 257

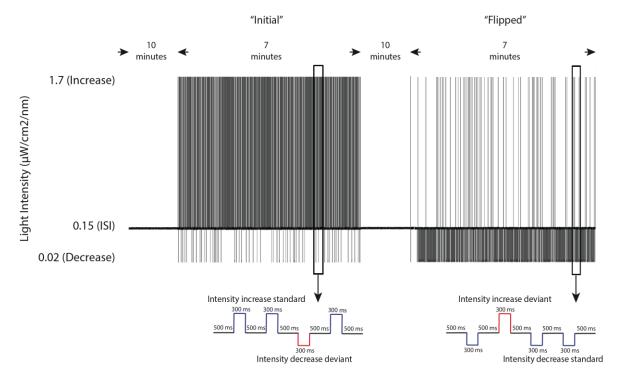
259 **3. Results**

260 3.1 Visual deviance detection can be assessed in freely behaving mice

For the development of the visual deviance detection paradigm for freely behaving mice, 261 we designed an oddball paradigm with sequences of 300-ms white light pulses of 262 increased (1.7 μ W/cm²/nm) or decreased (0.2 μ W/cm²/nm) light intensity, interspersed 263 by a 500-ms interstimulus interval at constant light of intermediate intensity (0.15 264 265 μ W/cm²/nm, Fig. 1). Deviant stimuli (63 of 500 stimuli, 12.6%) were semi-randomly spread throughout the sequence with the constraint of a minimum of two standard 266 presentations before the next deviant. In the paradigm both increases and decreases in 267 light intensity were presented once as standard and once as deviant ('flip-flop' paradigm; 268 Harms et al., 2016, Fig. 1). The paradigm was presented twice, on separate days. For the 269 first analysis, VEP responses were averaged for, respectively, all standard and deviant 270 stimuli, regardless of being a response to a light increase or light decrease. VEPs recorded 271 from the right and left primary visual cortex (V1), and the first and the second 272 measurement were combined. 273

Visual inspection of the averaged VEPs revealed a clear distinction between 274 standard and deviant waveforms (Fig. 2A). Both for deviant and standard stimuli, VEPs 275 showed an initial N1 negativity around 30 ms after stimulus onset, followed by a broad 276 positivity between \sim 50 and \sim 150 ms. Compared to the response to standard stimuli, the 277 deviant N1 deflection was slightly broadened, while the later broad positivity was of 278 lower amplitude than observed for the standard response. Consequently, the difference 279 280 wave, computed by subtracting the standard from the deviant response, consisted of a biphasic negative component, between \sim 35 and \sim 150 ms, with a maximum peak amplitude 281 of -0.048 ± 0.027 mV (Fig. 2B). Cluster-based permutation analysis revealed two 282

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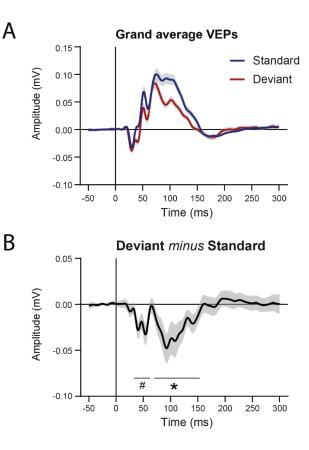
285 Figure 1 Graphical representation of the light-intensity oddball paradigm used for visual deviance 286 detection in freely behaving mice. Mice were presented with an oddball paradigm with increases (1.7 287 μ W/cm²/mm) and decreases (0.02 μ W/cm²/mm) in light intensity as stimuli, with intermittent 288 intermediate intensity levels ($0.15 \,\mu$ W/cm²/mm). The paradigm was presented as a 'flip-flop' in which the "initial" presentation with intensity increase standards and intensity decrease deviants (left), was followed 289 by a "flipped" presentation with intensity decrease standards and intensity increase deviants (right). Initial 290 291 and flipped stimulation blocks lasted ~ 7 min each. Before the initial stimulation block and in between the 292 initial and flipped stimulation blocks, 10 min of constant intermediate light (0.15 μ W/cm²/nm) was 293 presented. For the analysis, standards of increased intensity were compared to deviants of increased 294 intensity, and standards of decreased intensity are compared to deviants of decreased intensity.

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deviance-associated components. The early negative component in the difference wave, ~35-60 ms after stimulus onset, showed a trend towards significance (p=0.072), whereas the late negative component, ~70-150 ms after stimulus onset, was significantly different from zero (p=0.004). Our visual oddball paradigm thus meets the first criterion of *yielding a robust deviance response*, as a significant difference in the response to deviant compared to standard light stimuli could be assessed from VEPs recorded from V1 in freely

behaving mice. Compared to the V1 EEG recordings, the oddball paradigm elicited no
apparent VEP responses at the prefrontal electrode, nor a distinguishable difference
wave (data not shown), indicating specificity of the test paradigm to the visual system.

Figure 2 Visual deviance detection in the visual 304 305 evoked potential responses to an intensity 306 oddball paradigm in freely behaving mice. (A) 307 Grand average VEP waveforms in response to 308 standard and deviant stimuli. Responses were 309 averaged for, respectively, all standard or all 310 deviant stimuli, independent of the standard or deviant representing a stimulus of increased or 311 decreased light intensity. Responses of the right 312 and left V1, as well as the first and second 313 314 recording were combined. Data are presented as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM). (B) 315 316 Deviant minus standard difference wave for the 317 combined 'intensity increase' and 'intensity



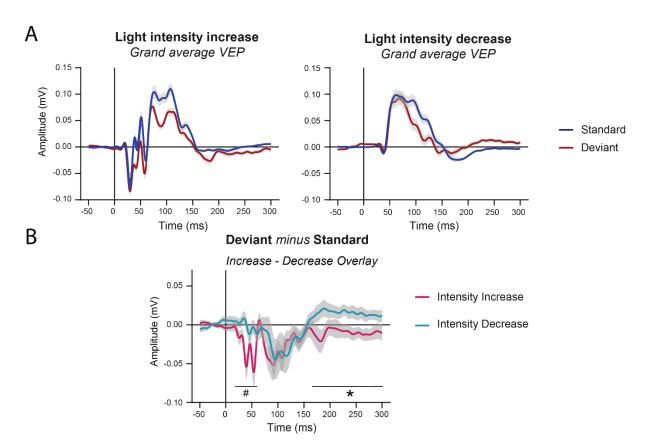
decrease' deviants and standards. Data are presented as mean ± 95% confidence interval. n = 13, *p<0.01,
#p<0.1.

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321 *3.2 Visual deviance detection in the late VEP component is stimulus-independent*

To meet the deviance detection criterion of stimulus independency, the difference between VEP responses to standard and deviant stimuli of intensity increases and intensity decreases should contain similar components. Visual inspection of the standard and deviant VEP waveforms (averaged over the responses from V1 left and right, and the two different recording days) revealed different features in the context of intensity increase or decrease stimuli, in particular with respect to the early latencies. Specifically,
the VEP in response to an intensity increase, for both standard and deviant stimuli,
contained additional early latency components between 20 and 60 ms that were not
evident in the VEP in response to an intensity decrease (Fig. 3A).

While the early components of standard and deviant VEP waveforms for light 331 increases and decreases differed, when subtracting the standard from the deviant 332 response for stimuli of the same light change (i.e. increase or decrease), the deviant-333 minus-standard difference waves were remarkably similar for both light intensity 334 changes with respect to the late component around 100 ms (Fig. 3B). The late component 335 336 of the difference wave, at a latency range of \sim 70-150 ms, was significantly different from zero for both the intensity increase (p=0.04) as well as the intensity decrease responses 337 (p=0.032). On the other hand, the early component of the difference wave was only 338 evident in the difference wave of an intensity increase (p=0.024). For the difference wave 339 of the intensity decrease responses, the shape of the early component was visible but did 340 not differ in amplitude from zero (cluster-based permutation analysis found two clusters 341 due to the return to baseline: p=0.528 and p=0.602, a one-sample *t*-test on the mean 342 amplitude of the whole latency window 43-62 ms: p=0.071). After 150 ms, the difference 343 waves from the intensity increase and decrease responses showed slow shifts in opposite 344 direction which was most evident beyond the \sim 200 ms latency range of the original VEPs 345 (intensity increase: p=0.034; intensity decrease: p=0.002). When comparing the features 346 of the light increase and the light decrease difference waves directly, a trend-significant 347 difference was found for the early component (\sim 20-60 ms, p=0.054), but no differences 348 were found for the late component (p=0.72). In addition, outside the identified window 349 of deviance detection (~30-150 ms), a significant difference between the intensity 350 increase and decrease difference found for 351 waves was



353 Figure 3 Visual deviance detection in the visual evoked potential responses to light pulses of 354 increased or decreased intensity. (A) The VEP waveforms for, respectively, 'intensity increase' (left) and 355 'intensity decrease' (right) deviants and standards. Data are presented as mean ± standard error of the 356 mean (SEM). (B) Overlay of the intensity increase and intensity decrease difference waves. The early 357 negative wave component between 20-60 ms is present only in the difference wave for intensity increase 358 deviants and standards, the late negative wave component around 100 ms is present in both difference 359 waves. A trend level difference between the two difference waves is observed for the early latencies 360 between 20-60 ms. For latencies between 170-300 ms, the waveforms of the intensity increase and 361 decrease difference waves are significantly different. Data are presented as mean ± 95% confidence 362 intervals. Responses were averaged for right and left V1, as well as the first and second recording. n = 13, 363 *p<0.01, #p<0.1.

the additional late component between ~170-300 ms (p=0.004). In conclusion, although the early latency component was more pronounced in light intensity increase difference waves, the late negative component at ~100 ms was highly similar for the responses to light intensity increases and decreases. With the use of this component of the deviant-

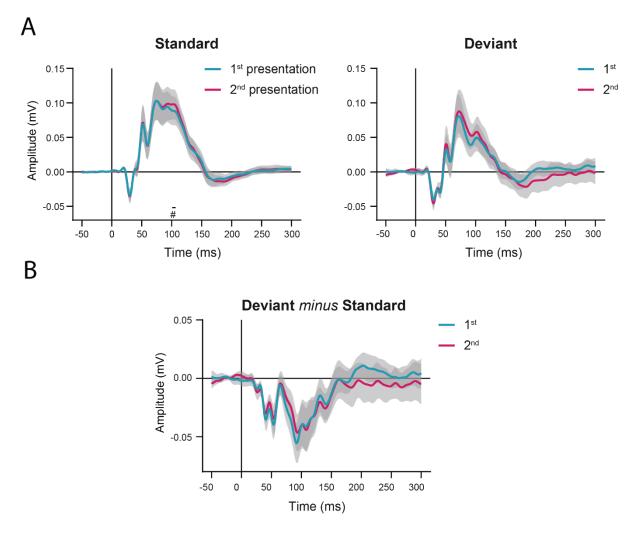
368 minus-standard difference waves, our visual deviance detection paradigm thus satisfies
369 our second criterion of *stimulus independency*.

The comparison of the intensity increase and decrease responses also revealed, 370 perhaps not surprisingly, that the 'off-response' to an intensity increase – in essence 371 being an intensity decrease – showed a VEP similarly shaped as the 'on-response' of the 372 intensity decrease and vice versa (Supplementary Fig. 1). Increases and decreases in light 373 intensity thus seemed to be processed as *shifts* in light intensity rather than as flashes of 374 *different* intensities. The on- and off-responses to a light increase showed slightly higher 375 amplitudes compared to the on- and off-responses to a light decrease. The chosen 376 magnitude of the intensity shifts, which was larger for increases than decreases (i.e. a 377 shift from 0.15 to 1.7 compared to 0.15 to 0.02 μ W/cm²/mm), was selected based on tests 378 with a 1-ms flash VEP paradigm that showed an equal amplitude difference for both 379 increase and decrease intensities compared to the VEP amplitude response to the ISI 380 intensity. However, in the deviant paradigm the larger intensity shifts still evoked a 381 slightly higher amplitude response. As the latencies of all identified deviance detection 382 components fall within the 300-ms duration of the light stimuli, these off-responses do 383 not affect our deviance detection. 384

385 3.3 Visual deviance detection shows repeatability in an independent measurement

Our third criterion for a deviance detection paradigm concerns repeatability of the outcome in independent measurements. To assess this, each animal was subjected to the visual oddball paradigm twice on two separate days. Using cluster-based permutation analysis, no differences between the first and second recording were observed for either the standard VEPs, deviant VEPs or difference waves for the combined responses to intensity increases and decreases (Fig. 4). Only one small cluster with a trend towards

significance was found for the standard VEP (~100-110 ms, p=0.066). These outcomes
indicate that our visual oddball paradigm has a good *test-retest reliability* and therefore
also meets the third criterion.



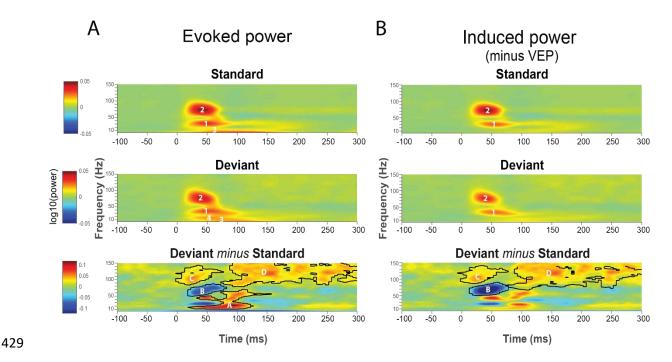
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Figure 4. Comparison of the visual evoked potential responses from the 2 independent
measurements. The same light intensity oddball paradigm was presented to all mice twice, on separate
days (i.e. 1st and 2nd presentation). (A) VEPs in response to standard and deviant stimuli, averaged for,
respectively, the 1st and the 2nd presentation. (B) Overlay of the deviant minus standard difference waves.
n = 11, data are presented as mean ± 95% confidence interval. Cluster-based permutation analysis did not
reveal any significant differences between the 1st and the 2nd presentation.

402 3.4 Visual deviance detection is also evident from the light-triggered time-frequency

403 response

In addition to examining VEP waveform features from the deviant-standard difference 404 405 waves, we analysed the EEG TFR. Human studies showed that visual deviance detection has oscillatory components that are not phase-locked to the stimulus and would 406 therefore cancel out when averaging over trials that is part of classical event-related 407 408 potential (ERP) analysis (Stothart and Kazanina, 2013). TFRs are time-locked, but in contrast to ERP waveforms, not necessarily phase-locked to the stimulus and can 409 therefore give a more complete picture of stimulus-associated activity. Visual inspection 410 of the frequency spectra in response to standards and deviants revealed activity in 411 several frequency ranges. The EEG response to standard stimuli – combined for intensity 412 increases and decreases - showed an apparent increased power for the beta-lower 413 gamma (~20-40 Hz, labelled with '1' in Fig. 5A) and the gamma range (~50-100 Hz, 414 labelled with '2' in Fig. 5A) at a latency between \sim 20 and \sim 70 ms after stimulus onset. In 415 addition, a broad increase in power was seen for the theta range (\sim 4-9 Hz, labelled with 416 '3' in Fig. 5A), evident from stimulus onset to a latency of \sim 200 ms. While the TFR to 417 deviant stimuli showed an overall comparable pattern (Fig. 5A), comparison between 418 deviant and standard TRFs in a deviant minus standard heatmap revealed multiple 419 420 clusters with significantly different frequency components (Fig. 5A). Most evident was a cluster between \sim 20-120 ms, indicating increased EEG power in the range from \sim 10-70 421 Hz in response to deviants (p=0.022, labelled with 'A' in Fig. 5A). This cluster seemed to 422 be the result of a combination of an altered shape of the beta/gamma response (labelled 423 with '1') to the deviant compared to the standard stimuli, as well as an additional deviant 424 response in the alpha/beta band (\sim 10-20 Hz, labelled with '4' in Fig. 5A) which was not 425 evident in the response to the standard. The gamma response (\sim 50-100 Hz) contained 426 less power in response to deviant compared to standard stimuli (p=0.048, labelled with 427 'B' in Fig. 5A). Lastly, increased EEG power in 428



430 Figure 5. Visual deviance detection in the time-frequency response. Panels show clusters of the power 431 of both overall evoked oscillatory activity (A), as well as induced oscillatory activity (B) in the visual 432 deviance detection paradigm. To isolate induced oscillatory activity, the averaged waveform was 433 subtracted from each individual trial before running a time-frequency analysis. From top to bottom panel time-frequency responses to standard stimuli, deviant stimuli, and a deviant minus standard difference 434 plot are shown. TFRs were obtained by performing Hanning-window convolution 4-150 Hz with 5 ms time 435 436 steps. Absolute baseline-correction was performed using -0.2 - -0.1 ms as the baseline. TFRs to light 437 increases and decreases, the right and left V1 as well as and second recording were averaged. Y-axis lower 438 cut-off is 4 Hz. In the difference plot, significant (p<0.05) time-frequency clusters are outlined. n=13.

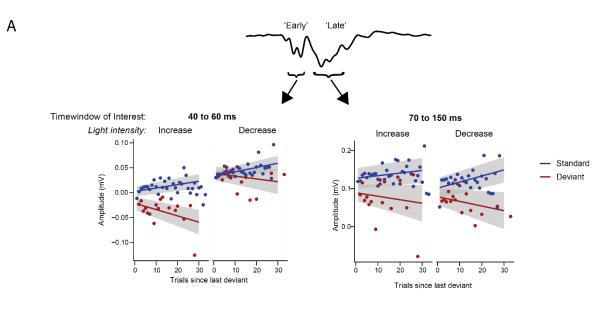
the high gamma range (~80-150 Hz) was seen in response to the deviant compared to
the standard, both shortly following stimulus onset between ~0-60 ms (p=0.036, labelled
with 'C' in Fig. 5A) and in a later window between ~90 and ~300 ms (p=0.002, labelled
with 'D' in Fig. 5A).

Oscillatory activity can be divided into evoked power, which is the direct frequency representation of the VEP waveform response, and induced power, which is the oscillatory activity that is non-phase-locked to the stimulus and thus not found in the VEP waveforms (Jones, 2016). To asses which oscillatory clusters in our analysis

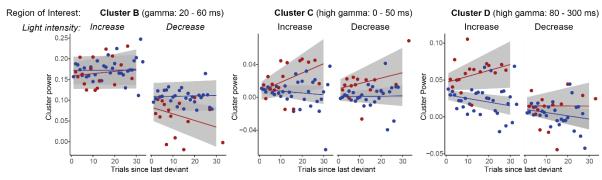
represented evoked power and which clusters represented induced power, the time-447 frequency analysis was also ran after subtracting the average VEP waveform from every 448 single trial per condition (Park et al., 2018). Clusters 3 and 4 in the TFR and cluster A in 449 the difference plot were no longer present after this analysis (Fig. 5B) and thus represent 450 451 evoked power. On the other hand, clusters 1 and 2 in the TFR and clusters B, C and D in the difference plot were still present after running time-frequency analysis on mean-452 subtracted data and represent the power of induced oscillatory activity. With our visual 453 oddball paradigm in freely behaving mice, deviance detection was thus not only reflected 454 in the VEP waveforms, but also in evoked as well as induced power in the EEG time-455 456 frequency responses.

457 *3.5 Higher numbers of standards preceding a deviant strengthen visual deviance detection*

458 In light of the ongoing debate about the role of adaptation to the repeatedly presented standards in deviance detection paradigms (Garrido et al., 2009; Grimm et al., 2016), we 459 460 assessed whether stimulus history influenced our VEP-based visual deviance detection. We explored whether the deviance detection amplitude (VEP- and TRF-based) changed 461 with varying numbers of standards preceding the deviant. In addition, we assessed 462 whether this was potentially also affected by the stimulus types, i.e., an intensity increase 463 464 or decrease. The mean amplitude and oscillatory power of standard and deviant VEPs and TFRs were extracted from each trial, for both the cluster-based defined early (40-60 465 ms) and late (70-150 ms) latency windows rounded to the nearest ten, and the identified 466 gamma (B, ~50-100 Hz) and high gamma (C and D, ~80-150 Hz) induced frequency 467 468 clusters.







469

470 Figure 6. Exploration of effects of stimulus history on the various VEP- and TFR-based deviance 471 detection features. Analyses were performed for the earlier found VEP (A, separated for the early and late negativity) and TFR (B) components. Each of the different graphs depicts the mean amplitude (for VEP 472 473 features) or power (for TFR features) as a function of the number of preceding standards since the occurrence of the last deviant. The deviance detection amplitude is, for both VEP and TFR features, the 474 475 difference between the standard and deviant amplitude, which was in some cases found to increase with 476 an increasing number of preceding standards. Data are presented separately for standard and deviant 477 stimuli, as well as for intensity increases and decreases. n = 13, data is presented as mean $\pm 95\%$ confidence 478 interval.

Early negativity (40-60 ms): the amplitude of the difference negativity (deviant minus
standard) in the early latency increased with an increase in the number of trials since the
last deviant, in other words an increase in the number of preceding standards (oddball ×

trials since last deviance: F(1,25957)=24.6, p<0.0001, Fig. 5A). Post-hoc analysis revealed that the increase in amplitudes of standard VEPs with increasing preceding standards was significant (t-ratio(13.9)=4.453, p=0.0006). Interestingly, the deviant amplitude was also affected, but decreased with a higher number of preceding standards (tratio(218.7)=2.549, p=0.0115). Furthermore, we confirmed our earlier observation that the amplitudes in the early latency window, irrespective of stimulus history, were stimulus specific (oddball × stimulus type: F(1,25957)=22.1, p<0.0001).

Late negativity (70-150 ms): amplitudes of the difference negativity in the late latency 489 window paralleled the observations for the early component with respect to a 490 modulation of the deviance detection by stimulus history (oddball × trials since last 491 deviant: F(1, 25958)=9.90, p=0.002). However, post-hoc analysis revealed that while the 492 increase of the amplitude of standard VEPs with decreasing novelty was also significant 493 (t-ratio(14.2)=3.295, p=0.0052), contrary to the early latency, the deviant amplitude did 494 not show a significant decrease in amplitude (t-ratio(270.9)=-1.544, p=0.1237). In this 495 latency window no overall effect of stimulus type on deviant processing was observed 496 (oddball \times stimulus type: F(1,25958=1.39, p=0.24). To further address the stimulus 497 independency, it was tested whether the effects of stimulus history on the late component 498 differed between the stimulus types. Addition of this interaction to the model did not 499 improve the fit of the model (Δ AIC=+2.1; Δ BIC=+26.4; a decrease indicating improvement 500 of the model), supporting the claim that the amplitudes in the late component were 501 indeed stimulus non-specific. 502

Oscillatory clusters: for the TRF-based analysis only the high gamma clusters (C and D, 80150 Hz) showed a trend-significant relationship between stimulus history and deviance
detection (C: oddball × trials since last deviant: F(1, 25980)=4.18, p=0.04; D: oddball ×

trials since last deviant: F(1, 25980)=2.94, p=0.09, Fig. 5B). However, the large variation
and p-values close to the significance threshold suggest that these analyses were
underpowered and therefore should be interpreted carefully.

509

510 4. Discussion

Deviance detection is an important function of the brain to identify environmental 511 changes that may require subsequent appropriate behavioural and/or physiological 512 513 responses. The goal of this study was to develop and validate a method for assessing visual deviance detection in freely behaving mice. The developed paradigm met all three 514 pre-defined criteria: a robust deviance response, stimulus-independence, and repeatability. 515 First, the light intensity-based oddball paradigm evoked a bi-phasic negativity in the VEP 516 517 difference wave, of which the late 70-150 ms component was significantly different from zero, indicating that the paradigm was able to assess the ability of mice to differentiate 518 between standard and deviant flashing light stimuli. *Second*, deviance detection in this 519 late component was found to be independent of the type of stimulus (i.e., light increase 520 or decrease) that was used a deviant. *Third*, the paradigm showed good repeatability in a 521 second recording performed on a separate day. 522

The visual deviance detection presented with our paradigm matches well with previously reported visual deviance detection in both human and rodent EEG. The only other EEG-based visual deviance detection study in mice, in which a pattern-based oddball paradigm was used in head-fixed animals, also showed bi-phasic responses (Hamm and Yuste, 2016). They identified the differences in response to standard and deviant stimuli in early latencies to reflect stimulus-specific adaptation, while differences in later latencies reflected deviance detection activity. Also human visual ERP studies

indicated that early components of sensory processing represented adaptation effects, 530 while later components were specifically associated with violations of expectation 531 (Czigler et al., 2006; File et al., 2017). The onset and timing of the early and late phases 532 differed for each of the studies, as well as the present study, both between and within 533 species. Besides differences in neuronal pathways between species, deviance detection 534 latencies may also be influenced by the stimulus complexity (Kojouharova et al., 2019). 535 For example, Hamm and Yuste (2016), which used visual pattern stimuli instead of the 536 light flashes used in our study, found longer latencies (between ~ 40 and 240 ms) in their 537 mouse visual deviance detection features compared to the latencies observed in our 538 paradigm. In our freely-moving deviance detection paradigm, we could not assess the 539 contribution of stimulus-specific adaptation, as the 'many standards control paradigm' 540 (Czigler et al., 2006; Hamm and Yuste, 2016; Harms et al., 2016; File et al., 2017) was not 541 used. We were however able to show that the early component was sensitive to stimulus 542 properties (i.e. a larger deviance detection effect for light intensity increases), while the 543 late component was stimulus-type-independent. Taken together, our visual deviance 544 detection matches well with that observed in human as well as in mice. Our data show 545 that head fixation is not required for measuring visual deviance detection in mice, and 546 that the implemented paradigm and observed responses in mice have translational value. 547

Exploratory analysis of the effect of stimulus history showed that an increased number of trials since the last deviant, in other words a longer stretch of preceding standard presentations, increased the amplitude of the deviance detection. This was the result of an increased amplitude of standard VEP responses and a decreased amplitude of deviant VEP responses with a higher number of preceding standards. These changes seem to suggest that our VEP-based deviance detection paradigm was sensitive to how deviant a deviant stimulus is; as it showed larger responses when the previous deviant

was presented a longer time ago. The observed positive relationship between deviance 555 detection amplitude and number of preceding standards could be a result of stimulus-556 specific adaptation of the standard, in our paradigm leading to increased amplitudes after 557 more repetitions. However, larger deviance detection after more preceding standards 558 559 could also result from the brain's response to the violation of a stronger memory-based expectation of the standard (Garrido et al., 2009). Although counterintuitive, violation-560 alerting activity in our data would actually be represented by the observed reduction in 561 deviant amplitude, resulting in an increased difference with a standard. Further studies 562 are needed to determine which of these two processes primarily drives the deviance 563 564 detection features in our paradigm.

Larger differences in responses to standard and deviant visual pattern stimuli 565 with more preceding standards have previously also been shown in rats, although this 566 difference was dominantly driven by alterations in the responses to the deviant without 567 a change in responses to the standard (Vinken et al., 2017). Also in human auditory MMN 568 paradigms the amplitude of the MMN increases when the overall probability of deviants 569 is decreased from 30% to 10% or from 13% to 1.5% (Sato et al., 2000; Sabri and 570 Campbell, 2001), as well as with a higher number of standards preceding a deviant within 571 a paradigm with a stable overall deviant probability of 20% (Matuoka et al., 2006). 572 Together, these findings suggest that the effect size of our deviant detection paradigm 573 could be further increased by having a higher minimum number of standards between 574 deviants than the two currently used in our experiments. 575

In addition to the VEP waveforms, deviance detection was also found to be represented in both evoked and induced oscillatory activity. Human visual and mouse auditory studies have previously shown oscillatory responses related to deviance

detection, but the paradigms and corresponding responses showed large variability
(Stothart and Kazanina, 2013; Ahnaou et al., 2017; Hesse et al., 2017; Yan et al., 2017).
Differences across paradigms and species, as well as the fact that some of these studies
use auditory while others use visual stimuli, make a direct comparison of findings from
the studies assessing frequency response in deviance detection paradigms difficult.

In the TFR the higher gamma clusters between 50-150 Hz represented induced 584 (i.e. non-phase-locked) oscillatory activity. This is in line with the fact that induced power, 585 thought to represent top-down connections, concerns higher frequencies over longer 586 latencies, while evoked power, thought to represent bottom-up connections, concerns 587 lower frequencies over shorter latencies (Chen et al., 2012). The broad increase in high 588 gamma power (80-150 Hz) showed a tendency to be enhanced with more preceding 589 standards, although this effect was not statistically significant. Gamma frequency cortical 590 activity has generally been linked to increased spiking activity and network excitation 591 (Yizhar et al., 2011; Cho et al., 2015; Vogt et al, 2015). In the visual cortex of freely 592 behaving mice, 30-100 Hz broadband gamma activity was found to functionally 593 discriminate between segregated cortical layers of visual processing (Senzai et al., 2019). 594 595 It was showed that gamma activity can be subdivided into functionally distinct broad-(30-90 Hz) and narrowband (60 Hz) gamma oscillations, which show complementary 596 responses to changes in visual contrast (Saleem et al., 2017). While narrowband gamma 597 has been associated with thalamocortical communication, broadband gamma power is 598 thought to represent corticocortical communication. Although our recordings did not 599 600 allow to distinguish between underlying network mechanisms, the broad increase in high gamma band activity we observed in the TFR deviant minus standard difference plots 601 could reflect increased corticocortical network activity during deviance processing. This 602 could suggest involvement of the prefrontal cortex, in line with what was found in human 603

visual deviance detection studies (Yucel et al., 2007; Kimura et al., 2010; Kimura et al.,
2011), although no robust visual evoked responses were recorded from our prefrontal
cortex electrode. The presence of induced broadband gamma responses thus seems to
suggest communication between the visual cortex and other cortical areas during visual
deviance detection. Whether this concerns frontal cortical areas remains to be studied.

In conclusion, we developed the first, robust and repeatable visual deviance 609 detection paradigm based on changes in light intensity in freely behaving mice. Our 610 paradigm provides a functional outcome measure for visual processing in these mice. 611 Because no head fixation is needed, our paradigm minimizes animal discomfort while 612 increasing behavioural relevance. The paradigm can easily be implemented to assess 613 sensory processing deficits in mouse models of brain disease, and has the possibility to 614 be compared with experiments in humans which increases translatability of preclinical 615 outcomes. 616

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618

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622

623 **Declaration of interest**

624 None

626 Author contribution statement

methodology, investigation, formal 627 Renate **Kat:** Conceptualization, analysis. visualization, writing - original draft **Berry van der Berg:** Formal analysis, visualization, 628 writing – reviewing & editing **Matthijs JL Perenboom:** Methodology, software **Maarten** 629 Schenke: Investigation Arn MJM van den Maagdenberg: Resources, funding 630 acquisition, writing - review & editting Hilgo Bruining: Funding aquisition, writing -631 632 review & editting Else A Tolner: Conceptualization, writing – reviewing & editting, supervision **Martien JH Kas:** Conceptualization, funding aquisition, writing – reviewing 633 & editting, supervision 634

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809 Supplementary Material

