

# 1 Boosting Brain Signal Variability Underlies Liberal 2 Shifts in Decision Bias 3

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## 22 **Classification**

23 Biological Sciences / Neuroscience

## 24 **Keywords**

25 Brain signal variability, decision bias, perceptual decision making, signal detection  
26 theory, flexibility  
27

## 28 **Author Contributions**

29 Niels Kloosterman, Conceptualization, Data curation, Software, Formal analysis,  
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34 Conceptualization, Data curation, Software, Formal analysis, Supervision,  
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38 editing.

## 39 **Abstract**

40 Strategically adopting decision biases allows organisms to tailor their choices to  
41 environmental demands. For example, a liberal response strategy pays off when  
42 target detection is crucial, whereas a conservative strategy is optimal for avoiding  
43 false alarms. Implementing strategic bias shifts is presumed to rely on prefrontal  
44 cortex, but human evidence for this is scarce. We hypothesized that strategic liberal  
45 bias shifts during a continuous target detection task arise through a more  
46 unconstrained neural regime (higher entropy) suited to the detection of unpredictable  
47 events. Upregulation of entropy in frontal brain regions indeed strongly characterized  
48 the degree to which individuals shifted from a conservative to a liberal bias. EEG  
49 standard deviation and spectral power could not account for this  
50 relationship, highlighting the unique contribution of moment-to-moment neural  
51 variability to bias shifts. Modulation of neural variability through prefrontal cortex  
52 appears instrumental for permitting an organism to tailor its decision bias to  
53 environmental demands.

## 54 **Impact statement**

55 Moment-to-moment variability is a prominent feature of neural activity. Rather than  
56 representing mere noise, this variability might enable us to flexibly adapt our decision  
57 biases to the environment.

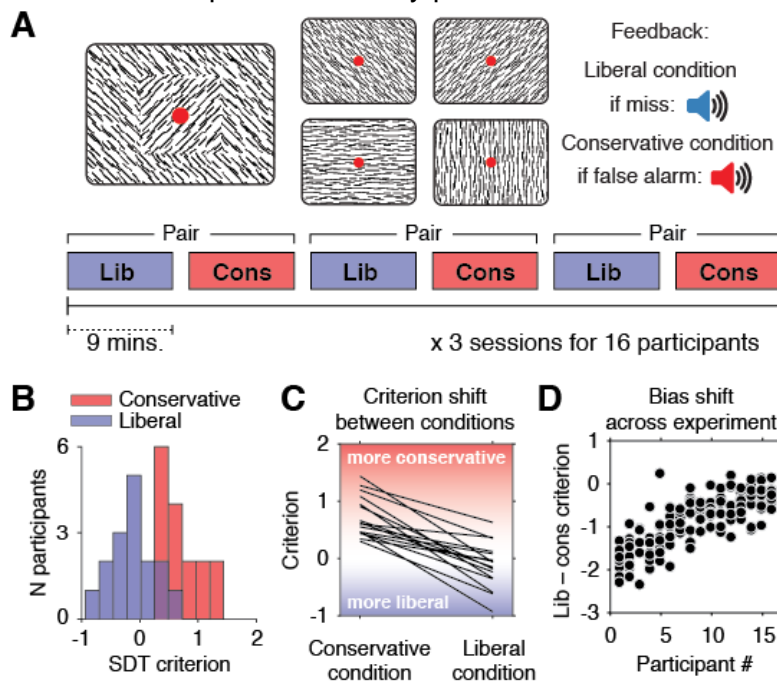
## 58 **Introduction**

59 We often reach decisions not only by objectively weighing different alternatives, but  
60 also by allowing subjective decision biases to influence our choices. Ideally, such  
61 biases should be under internal control, allowing us to flexibly adapt to changes in  
62 task context while performing a challenging task. Specifically, contexts which  
63 prioritize target detection benefit from a liberal response strategy, whereas a  
64 conservative strategy should be used at times when it is important to avoid errors of  
65 commission (e.g., false alarms). Strategic shifts in decision bias are presumed to rely  
66 on prefrontal cortex (Rahnev et al., 2016), but despite growing interest (Chen et al.,  
67 2015; Reckless et al., 2014; Windmann et al., 2002), the spatio-temporal neural  
68 signature of such within-person bias shifts is unknown. As such, how strategic  
69 decision biases are neuronally implemented and retained during a specific task  
70 context remain open questions.

71 One candidate neural signature of decision bias shifts that has not been  
72 considered thus far is moment-to-moment variability of brain activity. Temporal  
73 neural variability is a prominent feature in all types of neural recordings (single-cell,  
74 local field potentials, EEG/MEG, fMRI), which has traditionally been considered  
75 'noise' that corrupts neural computations. However, increasing evidence suggests  
76 that temporal variability can instead prove optimal for neural systems, allowing  
77 individuals to perform better, respond faster, and adapt quicker to their environment  
78 (Garrett et al., 2015, 2013, 2011). Here, we perform a crucial test of the utility of

79 moment-to-moment neural variability in the context of adaptive human decision  
 80 making. We hypothesized that within-person upregulation of neural variability would  
 81 implement a strategic, liberal bias shift that ‘opens up’ the decision-making process  
 82 more widely to target input from the environment (Marzen and DeDeo, 2017;  
 83 Młynarski and Hermundstad, 2018). Specifically, we reasoned that increased neural  
 84 variability might underlie a state of higher receptiveness to, and preparedness for,  
 85 events of interest that occur at unpredictable moments in time, thus allowing the  
 86 decision maker to adopt a more liberal bias towards deciding that such an event has  
 87 indeed occurred.

88 We tested this hypothesis using data from humans performing a challenging,  
 89 continuous target detection task under two different decision bias manipulations,  
 90 while non-invasively recording their electroencephalogram (EEG) (Kloosterman et  
 91 al., 2019). Sixteen participants (three experimental sessions each) were asked to  
 92 detect orientation-defined squares within a continuous stream of line textures of  
 93 various orientations and report targets via a button press (Figure 1A). In alternating  
 94 nine-minute blocks of trials, we actively biased participants’ perceptual decisions by  
 95 instructing them either to report as many targets as possible (liberal condition), or to  
 96 only report high-certainty targets (conservative condition). We played auditory  
 97 feedback after errors and imposed monetary penalties to enforce instructions.



98  
 99 **Figure 1 | Experimental paradigm and behavioral results** **A.** Top, target and non-target stimuli.  
 100 Subjects detected targets (left panel) within a continuous stream of diagonal and cardinal line stimuli  
 101 (middle panel), and reported targets via a button press. In different blocks of trials, subjects were  
 102 instructed to actively avoid either target misses (liberal condition) or false alarms (conservative  
 103 condition). Auditory feedback was played directly after the respective error in both conditions (right  
 104 panel). Bottom, time course of an experimental session. The two conditions were alternatingly  
 105 administered in blocks of nine minutes. In between blocks participants were informed about current  
 106 task performance and received instructions for the next block. Subsequent liberal and conservative

107 blocks were paired for within-participant analyses (see panel D, and Figure 3C). **B.** Distributions of  
108 participants' criterion in both conditions. A positive criterion indicates a more conservative bias,  
109 whereas a negative criterion indicates a more liberal bias. **C.** Corresponding within-person slopes. **D.**  
110 Within-person bias shifts for liberal–conservative block pairs (see panel A, bottom). Participants were  
111 sorted based on average criterion shift before plotting.

112 The following figure supplement is available for Figure 1:

113 **Figure supplement 1** | Perceptual sensitivity and relationship between decision bias and sensitivity.

114 In our previous paper on these data, we reported within-participant evidence that  
115 decision bias in each condition separately is implemented by modulating the  
116 accumulation of sensory evidence in posterior brain regions through oscillatory EEG  
117 activity in the 8-12 Hz (alpha) and gamma (60-100 Hz) frequency ranges  
118 (Kloosterman et al., 2019). In no brain region, however, did we find a change-change  
119 relationship between participants' liberal–conservative shifts in decision bias and in  
120 spectral power, despite substantial available data (on average 1733 trials per  
121 participant) and considerable individual differences in the bias shift. Reasoning that  
122 moment-to-moment variability of neural activity may instead better capture the bias  
123 shift from person to person and possibly reveal its hypothesized prefrontal signature,  
124 we here measured temporal variability in the EEG data using a novel algorithm  
125 based on multi-scale entropy (MSE)(Costa et al., 2002). We then tested for a  
126 change-change relationship by correlating within-person liberal–conservative shifts in  
127 decision bias with those estimated via our modified MSE (mMSE) measure.  
128 Furthermore, we explicitly investigated the unique contribution of moment-to-moment  
129 neural variability to the bias shift by statistically controlling for the standard deviation  
130 and spectral power of the EEG signal. Finally, following a different line of literature,  
131 previous work has also linked a transient variability reduction (referred to as  
132 'quenching') to improved cognitive ability (Arazi et al., 2017; Churchland et al., 2010;  
133 Schurger et al., 2015). We examined whether a transient variability reduction also  
134 occurs in entropy and to what extent it is related to behavior in our task.

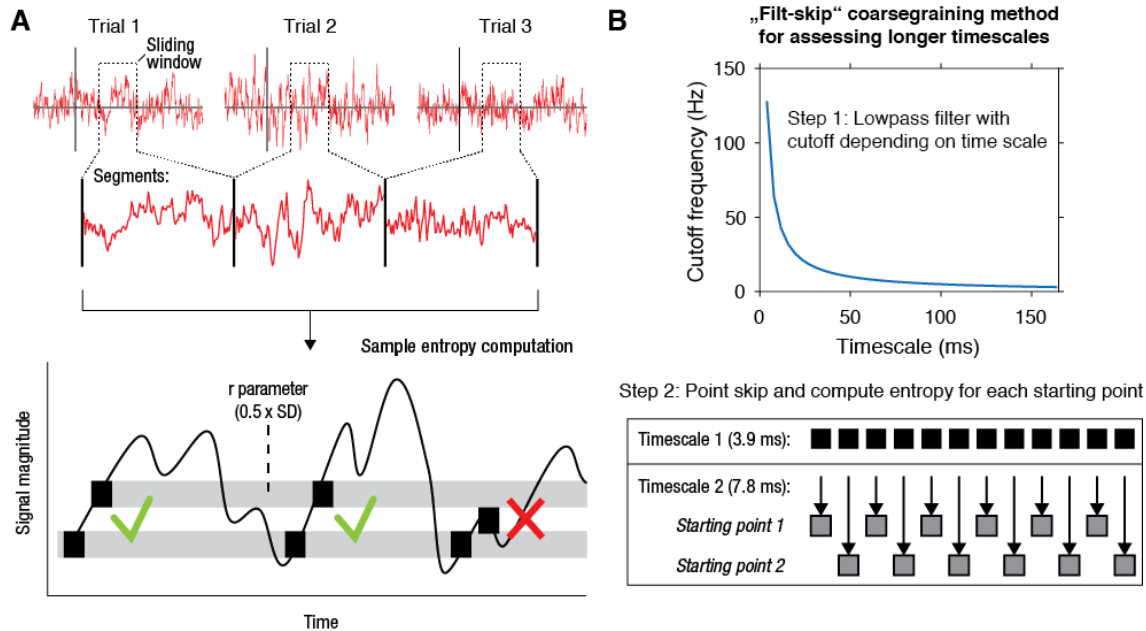
## 135 **Results**

136 Participants differentially adopted the intended decision biases in the respective  
137 conditions, as quantified by the criterion measure from signal detection theory (SDT)  
138 (Green and Swets, 1966). Subjects assumed a lower criterion (more liberal bias)  
139 when target detection was emphasized ( $c = -0.13$ , standard deviation (SD) 0.4) and  
140 adopted a higher criterion (more conservative bias) when instructed to avoid false  
141 alarms ( $c = 0.73$ , SD 0.36; liberal vs. conservative,  $p = 0.001$ , two-sided permutation  
142 test, 10,000 permutations)(Figure 1B). Participants varied substantially not only in  
143 the average criterion they used across the two conditions (range of  $c = -0.24$  to  
144 0.89), but also in the size of the criterion shift between conditions (range of  $\Delta c = -$   
145 1.54 to  $-0.23$ ). Highlighting the extent of individual differences, participant's biases in  
146 the two conditions were only weakly correlated (Spearman's  $\rho = 0.24$ ,  $p = 0.36$ ), as  
147 can be seen from the subjects' large variation in criterion intercept and slope  
148 between the two conditions in Figure 1C. Moreover, the bias shift also fluctuated to  
149 some extent within participants over the course of the experiment, as indicated by

150 variation in criterion differences between successive, nine-minute liberal and  
151 conservative blocks (participant-average SD 0.37, Figure 1D). Participants also  
152 varied widely in their ability to detect targets (range in SDT  $d'$  0.26 to 3.97), but  
153 achieved similar  $d'$  in both bias conditions ( $\rho = 0.97$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , Figure 1, figure  
154 supplement 1). Moreover, the liberal–conservative bias shift was only weakly  
155 correlated with a shift in sensitivity across participants ( $\rho = 0.44$ ,  $p = 0.09$ ),  
156 indicating that the bias manipulation largely left perceptual sensitivity unaffected. In  
157 our previous paper on these data (Kloosterman et al., 2019), we also quantified  
158 decision bias in terms of the ‘drift bias’ parameter within the drift diffusion model  
159 (Ratcliff and McKoon, 2008). We chose to focus on SDT criterion in the current  
160 paper due to its predominant use in the literature and its comparably simpler  
161 computation, while noting the substantial overlap between the two measures as  
162 indicated by their high correlation ( $\rho = -0.89$ , as reported in our previous paper).  
163 Taken together, we observed considerable variability in strategic decision bias shifts  
164 as a result of our bias manipulation, both at the group level and within single  
165 individuals.

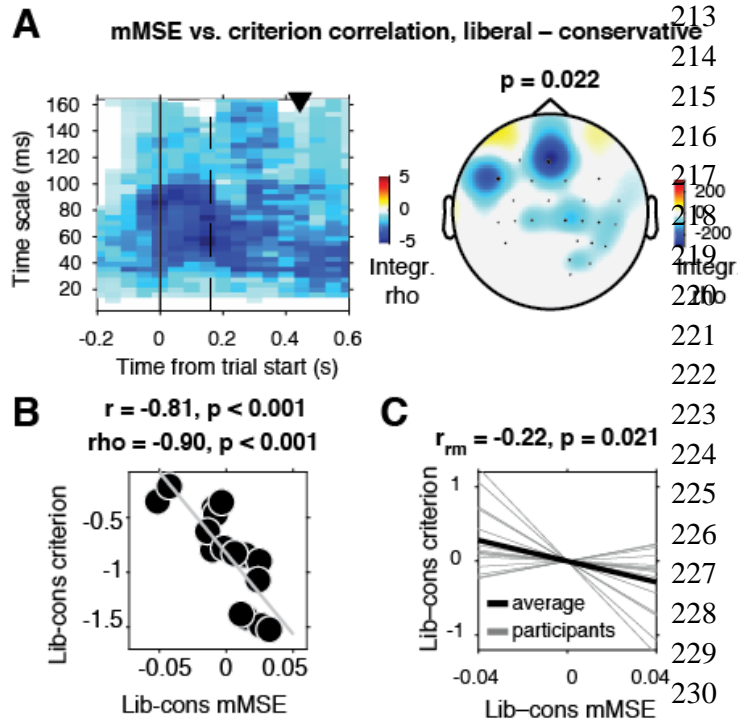
166 We exploited the between- and within-participant variations in liberal–  
167 conservative criterion differences to test our hypothesis that a boost in brain signal  
168 variability underlies a liberal bias shift. To this end, we developed a novel algorithm  
169 based on multi-scale entropy (MSE) that directly quantifies the temporal irregularity  
170 of the EEG signal at longer and shorter timescales by counting how often temporal  
171 patterns in the signal reoccur during the signal’s time course (Costa et al.,  
172 2002)(Figure 2A, bottom). In general, signals that tend to repeat themselves over  
173 time, such as neural oscillations, are assigned lower entropy, whereas more  
174 irregular, non-repeating signals yield higher entropy. We developed time-resolved,  
175 modified MSE (mMSE), that differs from traditional MSE in two ways. First, slower  
176 timescales are usually assessed by ‘coarsegraining’ the data by means of averaging  
177 of neighboring data samples and repeating the pattern counting operation depicted  
178 in Figure 2A. Although this method can remove faster dynamics from the data in a  
179 simple way, it is prone to aliasing artifacts and thereby possibly obscures genuine  
180 entropy effects in the data. Therefore, we instead coarsegrain the data using a  
181 Butterworth low-pass filter, followed by skipping of data points to coarsen the data  
182 (Figure 2B), thereby retaining better control over the frequencies present in the  
183 coarse-grained signal (Semmlow, 2004; Valencia et al., 2009). Second, conventional  
184 entropy analysis requires substantial continuous data (in the order of minutes) for  
185 robust estimation, which makes the standard method unsuitable for studying brief,  
186 transient cognitive processes such as decision-making. To investigate entropy  
187 dynamics over time, we calculated entropy across discontinuous data segments  
188 aggregated across trials via a sliding window approach (Grandy et al., 2016) (Figure  
189 2A, top). Prior to mMSE analysis, we removed stimulus-evoked EEG activity by  
190 subtracting the event-related potential (computed by averaging all trials within a  
191 condition), from each single trial. This was done to focus on ongoing neural activity

192 (Klimesch et al., 1998). Please see Materials and Methods for details on the various  
 193 analysis steps and our modifications of the MSE algorithm.



194 **Figure 2 | mMSE estimation procedure.** **A.** Discontinuous entropy computation procedure. Data  
 195 segments of 0.5 s duration centered on a specific time point from each trial's onset (top row) are  
 196 selected and concatenated (middle row). Entropy is then computed on this concatenated time series  
 197 while excluding discontinuous segment borders by counting repeats of both  $m$  (here,  $m = 1$  for  
 198 illustration purposes) and  $m+1$  (thus 2) sample patterns and taking the log ratio of the two pattern  
 199 counts (bottom row). We used  $m = 2$  in our actual analyses. The pattern similarity parameter  $r$   
 200 determines how lenient the algorithm is towards counting a pattern as a repeat by taking a proportion  
 201 of the signal's standard deviation (SD), indicated by the width of the horizontal gray bars. The  
 202 pattern counting procedure is repeated at each step of the sliding window, resulting in a time course  
 203 of entropy estimates computed across trials. **B.** „Filt-skip“ coarsegraining procedure used to estimate  
 204 entropy on longer timescales, consisting of low-pass filtering followed by point-skipping. Filter cutoff  
 205 frequency is determined by dividing the data sampling rate (here, 256 Hz i.e. 1 sample per 3.9 ms) by  
 206 the index of the timescale of interest (top row). The signal is then coarsened by intermittently skipping  
 207 samples (bottom row). In this example, every second sample is skipped at timescale 2, resulting in  
 208 two different time courses depending on the starting point. Patterns are counted independently in both  
 209 resulting time courses and summed before computing entropy.

210 We tested for a relationship between shifts in decision bias and neural variability  
 211 between the conservative and liberal conditions by Spearman-correlating joint  
 212 modulations of mMSE and criterion across participants (averaged over the three



232 located after trial initialization (solid vertical line in Figure 3A). To illustrate this  
 233 correlation, we averaged liberal-conservative mMSE within the significant cluster  
 234 and plotted the across-participant change-change correlation ( $\rho = -0.90$ ) with  
 235 criterion (Figure 3B).

236 **Figure 3 | Change-change correlation between liberal-conservative shifts in mMSE and bias.**  
 237 **A.** Significant negative electrode-time-timescale cluster observed via Spearman correlation between  
 238 liberal-conservative mMSE and liberal-conservative SDT criterion. Correlations outside the  
 239 significant cluster are masked out. Left, time-timescale representation showing the correlation cluster  
 240 integrated over the electrodes indicated by the black circles in the topographical scalp map. The solid  
 241 vertical line indicates the time of trial onset. The dotted vertical line indicates time of (non)target onset.  
 242 Right, scalp map of mMSE integrated across significant time-timescale bins. P-value above scalp  
 243 map indicates multiple comparison-corrected cluster significance using a permutation test across  
 244 participants. **B.** Scatter plot of the correlation after averaging mMSE within the significant cluster. Both  
 245 Pearson's  $r$  and Spearman's  $\rho$  are indicated. **C.** Single-subject mMSE vs. criterion slopes across  
 246 liberal-conservative block pairs.  $r_m$ , repeated measures correlation across all block pairs performed  
 247 after centering each subject's shifts in mMSE and criterion around zero.

248  
 249 The following source data and figure supplements are available for Figure 2:

250 **Source data 1.** This MATLAB file contains the data for Figure 3.

251 **Figure supplement 1.** Correlation between liberal – conservative mMSE and bias shift is reliable in  
 252 split data halves.

253 **Figure supplement 2.** Change-change correlations between liberal-conservative mMSE, criterion,  
 254 EEG signal SD and spectral power.

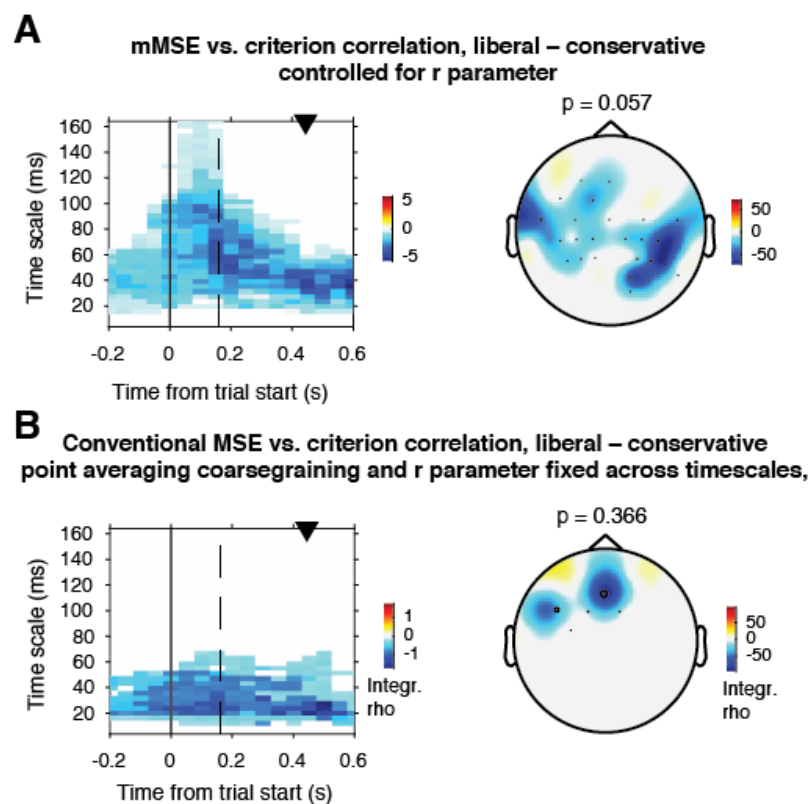
255 **Figure supplement 3.** EEG spectral power normalized with respect to the pre-trial baseline.

256 We next employed several approaches to strengthen evidence for the observed link  
257 between shifts in neural variability and decision bias. First, we asked whether mMSE  
258 and bias were also linked within participants across the nine liberal–conservative  
259 block pairs (see Figure 1A, bottom and 1D). Critically, we observed a negative  
260 repeated measures correlation (Bakdash and Marusich, 2017) between within-  
261 participant shifts in criterion and mMSE ( $r_{rm} = -0.19$ ,  $p = 0.039$ , Figure 3C), providing  
262 convergent within-person evidence for a link between shifts in decision bias and  
263 neural variability. Second, correlating across a relatively low number of observations  
264 can be unreliable (Yarkoni, 2009) depending on the amount of data underlying each  
265 observation. We therefore tested whether the correlation across participants was  
266 present within two separate halves of the data after an arbitrary split based on odd  
267 and even trials. We found significant correlations in both data halves, indicating  
268 reliable between-subject associations (odd,  $\rho = -0.61$ ,  $p = 0.013$ ; even,  $\rho = -$   
269  $0.64$ ,  $p = 0.009$ , see Figure 3, figure supplement 1).

270 Third, we investigated whether the correlation could alternatively be explained  
271 by potential confounds. Specifically, entropy estimates can be influenced by the  
272 time-domain signal SD through the pattern similarity ( $r$ ) parameter (see Figure 2),  
273 even when this parameter is recomputed for each timescale after coarsegraining, as  
274 done here (Kosciessa et al., 2019). In addition, E/MEG data is often quantified in  
275 terms of oscillatory spectral power in canonical delta (1-2 Hz), theta (3-7 Hz), alpha  
276 (8-12 Hz), beta (13-30 Hz) and gamma (60-100 Hz) bands (see Kloosterman et al.  
277 (Kloosterman et al., 2019) for detailed spectral analysis of the current dataset), which  
278 might be able to explain the entropy results through a similar dependency.  
279 Therefore, we tested whether the  $\Delta$ bias- $\Delta$ entropy correlation could be explained by  
280 broadband signal SD and band-specific spectral power. To make the computation of  
281 spectral power and entropy as similar as possible, we used the same 0.5 s sliding  
282 window and 50 ms step size for spectral analysis (1 s window to allow delta power  
283 estimation, see methods), and selected spectral power within the same electrodes  
284 and time points in which the mMSE effect was indicated. Strikingly, we found that the  
285  $\Delta$ bias- $\Delta$ entropy correlation remained strong and significant both when controlling for  
286 signal SD (partial  $\rho = -0.82$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ), and even when controlling for all major  
287 power bands simultaneously (delta, theta, alpha, beta, gamma; partial  $\rho = -0.68$ ,  $p$   
288  $= 0.02$ ). See Figure 3, figure supplement 2 for correlations between mMSE and  
289 various potentially confounding factors. Moreover, we found no significant clusters  
290 when correlating the bias shift with liberal–conservative spectral power modulation  
291 computed by normalizing spectral power using the pre-stimulus baseline, indicating  
292 that power modulation also does not track bias shifts (Figure 3, figure supplement 3).  
293 Interestingly, explicitly controlling for overall signal variation (SD) in each time-scale  
294 bin in each electrode via partial Spearman correlation narrowed the cluster of  
295 significant correlations down to timescales from 20-100 ms (Figure 4A), suggesting  
296 that the slower timescales implicated in the mMSE correlation in Figure 3A are  
297 primarily driven by overall signal variation rather than moment-to-moment variability,



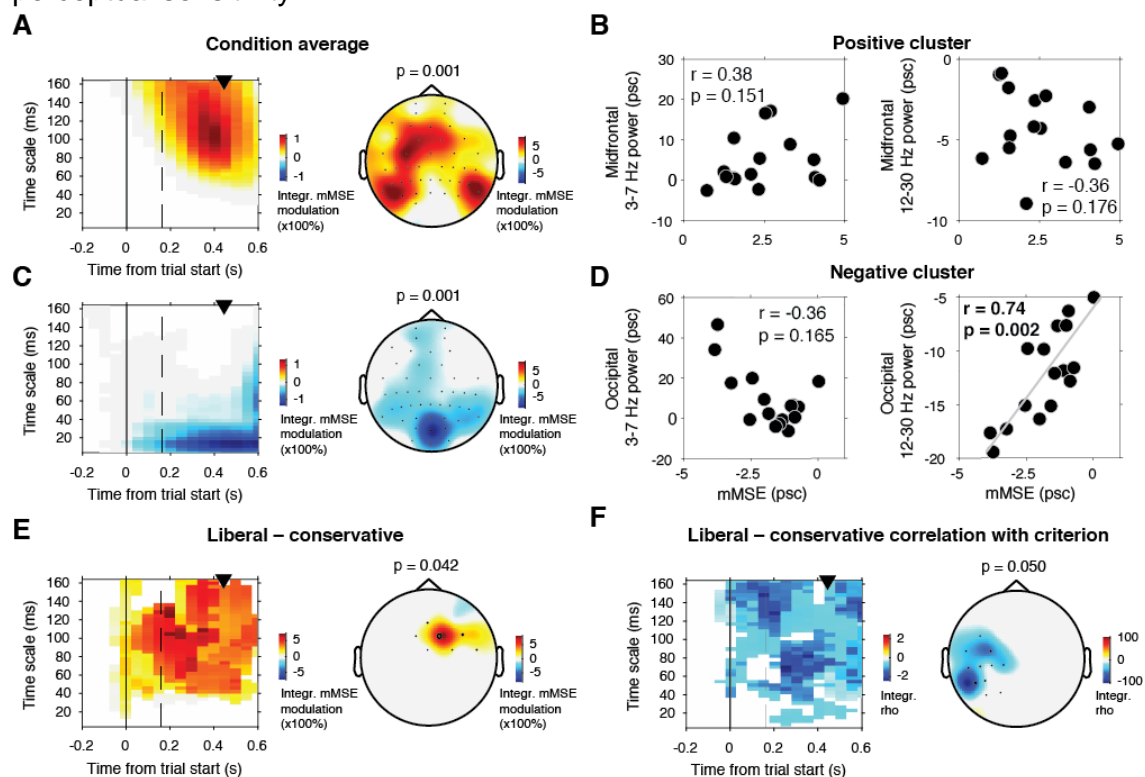
298 whereas intermediate timescales are more driven by moment-to-moment variability.  
299 Spatially, the SD-controlled correlation cluster more prominently involved temporal  
300 and occipital electrodes, suggesting involvement of sensory and association cortex.  
301 Importantly, the results did depend on our modified entropy estimation method, since  
302 the frontal correlation cluster was smaller and non-significant when performing the  
303  $\Delta$ bias- $\Delta$ entropy correlation using conventional MSE (cluster  $p = 0.37$ )(Costa et al.,  
304 2002)(Figure 4B). Note that we still employed our novel sliding window approach for  
305 comparison with the principal mMSE correlation analysis. Statistically controlling for  
306 the participants' perceptual ability to detect targets, quantified as the liberal-  
307 conservative shift in SDT sensitivity measure  $d'$  (Green and Swets, 1966) did not  
308 affect the relationship (partial  $\rho = -0.88$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ), indicating that perceptual  
309 sensitivity could not explain our results.



310  
311 **Figure 4 | A.** Liberal – conservative mMSE vs. criterion correlation when statistically controlling for the  
312 r parameter (signal SD) across participants. The cluster remains significant and the topography is  
313 similar, but the effect is more widespread across electrodes, and less widespread across timescales.  
314 **B.** As A. but using traditional MSE, including coarse graining through point averaging to assess longer  
315 timescales and a fixed r parameter across timescales. The cluster does not reach significance.

316 Finally, improved perceptual sensitivity has been linked to a transient, post-stimulus  
317 decrease in neural variability, referred to as variability 'quenching' (Arazi et al., 2017;  
318 Churchland et al., 2010; Schurger et al., 2015). Quenching is directly predicted by  
319 attractor models of brain organization (Wang, 2002), and is consistent with SDT's  
320 main principle that suppression of neural noise enhances perception (Green and  
321 Swets, 1966). Quenching has also been reported in the human EEG in terms of a

322 variance reduction across trials in visual cortex following stimulus onset (Arazi et al.,  
 323 2017), although this type of quenching can be attributed to the well-known  
 324 suppression of low-frequency spectral power following stimulus onset (Daniel et al.,  
 325 2019). In the mMSE modulation with respect to prestimulus baseline we found both a  
 326 midfrontal and lateral occipital and temporal enhancement of mMSE modulation  
 327 (Figure 5A) that could not be explained by spectral power (Figure 5B), as well as an  
 328 mMSE quenching cluster in shorter mMSE timescales (Figure 5C) that was  
 329 significantly correlated with low-frequency (beta) power (Figure 5D). However, we  
 330 found significant clusters neither when correlating liberal-conservative mMSE  
 331 quenching with shifts in bias, nor with shifts in  $d'$ . Furthermore, controlling for signal  
 332 SD (which is most strongly affected by low-frequency power due to the  $1/f$  nature of  
 333 EEG signals) completely abolished the mMSE quenching, again indicating that this  
 334 effect could indeed be explained by low-frequency spectral power. When contrasting  
 335 the conditions, we did find a significant positive cluster in midfrontal electrodes,  
 336 indicating a stronger transient increase in entropy following trial onset in the liberal  
 337 condition (Figure 5E). Finally, when change-change correlating mMSE and criterion,  
 338 we found a left-lateralized negative cluster in temporal electrodes (Figure 5F). Taken  
 339 together, these various control analyses suggest a unique contribution of moment-to-  
 340 moment neural variability to bias shifts in human decision making, over and above  
 341 overall brain signal variation, oscillatory neural dynamics, variability quenching, and  
 342 perceptual sensitivity.



343

344 **Figure 5 | mMSE modulation with respect to pre-trial baseline.** A. Significant positive cluster  
 345 observed in longer timescales after normalizing mMSE values to percent signal change (psc)  
 346 units with respect to the pre-trial baseline (−0.2 to 0 s) and averaging across conditions. B. Correlation

347 between mMSE modulation in the positive cluster depicted in A. and spectral power modulation in  
348 midfrontal electrodes. Left panel, 3-7 Hz; right panel, 12-30 Hz. **C. D.** As B. but for the posterior  
349 negative cluster. **E.** Significant positive cluster observed in mid-frontal electrodes in the liberal-  
350 conservative contrast of mMSE modulation. **F.** Significant cluster resulting from the correlation  
351 between liberal-conservative mMSE modulation with liberal-conservative SDT criterion. Conventions  
352 as in Figure 3.

## 353 **Discussion**

354 Strategic decision biases allow organisms to adapt their choices to the context in  
355 which decisions are made. Frontal cortex has previously been shown to be involved  
356 in strategic bias shifts in humans (Rahnev et al., 2016a) and monkeys (Ferrera et al.,  
357 2009), but its spatiotemporal neural signature has to date remained elusive. Here,  
358 we provide first evidence that flexible adjustment of moment-to-moment variability in  
359 frontal regions may underlie such strategic shifts in decision bias, independent of  
360 brain signal SD and oscillatory neural dynamics. The observed relationship between  
361 shifts in bias and neural variability in anterior brain regions complements our  
362 previous findings in the frequency domain that humans can intentionally control  
363 prestimulus 8–12 Hz (alpha) oscillatory power in posterior cortex to strategically bias  
364 decision making (Kloosterman et al., 2019). Notably, we previously observed  
365 increased oscillatory 2–6 Hz (theta) power in the liberal compared to the  
366 conservative condition in the same midfrontal electrodes implicated here in the  
367  $\Delta$ bias- $\Delta$ entropy correlation, but this theta power difference was not correlated with  
368 the bias shift. This suggests that the bias shift may be reflected both in low-  
369 frequency spectral power and entropy in midfrontal regions, but that only entropy is  
370 linked to the magnitude of the decision-maker's bias shift. One possible explanation  
371 for such a dissociation is that spectral power exclusively reflects the amplitude of the  
372 signal's oscillatory fluctuations while discarding its phase information. In contrast,  
373 entropy is sensitive to both variations in the magnitude as well as the phase of EEG  
374 signal fluctuations, since more frequent phase resets will result in a more irregular  
375 time-domain signal that will yield higher entropy. Moreover, whereas spectral  
376 analysis strictly assumes a sinusoidal waveform of EEG signal fluctuations (Cole and  
377 Voytek, 2017; Jones, 2016), entropy is agnostic to the shape of the waveforms  
378 present in the signal. Entropy thus provides a more unrestricted description of  
379 moment-to-moment fluctuations in neural activity that is highly predictive of decision  
380 bias shifts across participants in our data.

381 In contrast with the central idea in this study that neural variability facilitates  
382 cognition, previous work has suggested that a temporary stabilization of neural  
383 activity after stimulus onset ('quenching') is beneficial for perception (Arazi et al.,  
384 2017; Schurger et al., 2015). Although we also observed quenching after baseline-  
385 correcting mMSE, we found no evidence for a change-change relationship between  
386 quenching and decision bias or perceptual sensitivity. This suggests that in contrast  
387 to our finding that rising variability facilitates a strategic bias shift, the degree to  
388 which individuals quench is not related to behavior in our data. We note, however,  
389 that quenching and rising of neural variability should not be mutually exclusive

390 concepts, but can in principle occur simultaneously if one considers the different  
391 timescales in which these phenomena seem to occur: shorter scales (< 40 ms) for  
392 quenching and longer scales (> 40 ms) for rising variability. Furthermore, the  
393 relations between quenching observed in neural spiking (Churchland et al., 2010),  
394 trial-by-trial variance of E/MEG (Arazi et al., 2017) and mMSE are currently unclear,  
395 and require further future investigation. Future studies could also explore how neural  
396 variability quenching and rising in different timescales are related to various aspects  
397 of decision making, such as perceptual sensitivity, different kinds of biases (Fleming  
398 et al., 2010; Talluri et al., 2018; Urai et al., 2019), but also confidence and  
399 metacognitive processes (Fleming and Dolan, 2012; Yeung and Summerfield, 2012).  
400 Finally, individual decision bias has also been linked to the magnitude of transient  
401 dilations of the eye's pupil (de Gee et al., 2017, 2014), also in relation to entropy of  
402 EEG (Waschke et al., 2019), suggesting that pupil-linked neuromodulation (Joshi et  
403 al., 2015) is possibly linked to decision bias through moment-to-moment neural  
404 variability. Further investigation of the relationship between neural variability and  
405 neuromodulation could prove fruitful to shed light on the mechanisms underlying  
406 higher-order cognitive function (Garrett et al., 2015).

407 Our results suggest that dynamic adjustment of neural variability in frontal  
408 regions is crucial for adaptive behavior. Based on our findings, we propose that  
409 heightened frontal entropy results from a more dynamic, irregular neural regime that  
410 enables an individual to be more prepared to process and act upon uncertain, yet  
411 task-relevant information. In the current study, variability (entropy) provides a  
412 theoretically driven quantification of the neural instantiation of human decision  
413 making (Marzen and DeDeo, 2017; Młynarski and Hermundstad, 2018). We argue  
414 that quantifying shifts in neural entropy could help elucidate the mechanisms  
415 allowing organisms to adapt to their environment and ultimately increase their  
416 chances of survival.

417

## 418 **Materials and Methods**

419 We report a novel analysis of a previously published dataset involving a target  
420 detection task during two different decision bias manipulations (Kloosterman et al.,  
421 2019).

422 **Subjects** Sixteen participants (eight females, mean age 24.1 years,  $\pm$  1.64) took part  
423 in the experiment, either for financial compensation (EUR 10 per hour) or in partial  
424 fulfillment of first year psychology course requirements. Each participant completed  
425 three experimental sessions on different days, each session lasting ca. 2 hours,  
426 including preparation and breaks. One participant completed only two sessions,  
427 yielding a total number of sessions across subjects of 47. Due to technical issues, for  
428 one session only data for the liberal condition was available. One participant was an  
429 author. All participants had normal or corrected-to-normal vision and were right  
430 handed. Participants provided written informed consent before the start of the

431 experiment. All procedures were approved by the ethics committee of the University  
432 of Amsterdam.

433 **Stimuli** Stimuli consisted of a continuous semi-random rapid serial visual  
434 presentation (rsvp) of full screen texture patterns. The texture patterns consisted of  
435 line elements approx.  $0.07^\circ$  thick and  $0.4^\circ$  long in visual angle. Each texture in the  
436 rsvp was presented for 40 ms (i.e. stimulation frequency 25 Hz), and was oriented in  
437 one of four possible directions:  $0^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$ ,  $90^\circ$  or  $135^\circ$ . Participants were instructed to  
438 fixate a red dot in the center of the screen. At random inter trial intervals (ITI's)  
439 sampled from a uniform distribution (ITI range 0.3 – 2.2 s), the rsvp contained a fixed  
440 sequence of 25 texture patterns, which in total lasted one second. This fixed  
441 sequence consisted of four stimuli preceding a (non-)target stimulus (orientations of  
442  $45^\circ$ ,  $90^\circ$ ,  $0^\circ$ ,  $90^\circ$  respectively) and twenty stimuli following the (non-)target  
443 (orientations of  $0^\circ$ ,  $90^\circ$ ,  $0^\circ$ ,  $90^\circ$ ,  $0^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$ ,  $0^\circ$ ,  $135^\circ$ ,  $90^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$ ,  $0^\circ$ ,  $135^\circ$ ,  $0^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$ ,  $90^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$ ,  
444  $90^\circ$ ,  $135^\circ$ ,  $0^\circ$ ,  $135^\circ$  respectively) (see Figure 1A). The fifth texture pattern within the  
445 sequence (occurring from 0.16 s after sequence onset) was either a target or a  
446 nontarget stimulus. Nontargets consisted of either a  $45^\circ$  or a  $135^\circ$  homogenous  
447 texture, whereas targets contained a central orientation-defined square of  $2.42^\circ$   
448 visual angle, thereby consisting of both a  $45^\circ$  and a  $135^\circ$  texture. 50% of all targets  
449 consisted of a  $45^\circ$  square and 50% of a  $135^\circ$  square. Of all trials, 75% contained a  
450 target and 25% a nontarget. Target and nontarget trials were presented in random  
451 order. To avoid specific influences on target stimulus visibility due to presentation of  
452 similarly or orthogonally oriented texture patterns temporally close in the cascade, no  
453  $45^\circ$  and  $135^\circ$  oriented stimuli were presented directly before or after presentation of  
454 the target stimulus. All stimuli had an isoluminance of  $72.2 \text{ cd/m}^2$ . Stimuli were  
455 created using MATLAB (The Mathworks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA) and presented using  
456 Presentation version 9.9 (Neurobehavioral systems, Inc., Albany, CA, USA).

457 **Experimental design** The participants' task was to detect and actively report targets  
458 by pressing a button using their right hand. Targets occasionally went unreported,  
459 presumably due to constant forward and backward masking by the continuous  
460 cascade of stimuli and unpredictability of target timing (Fahrenfort et al., 2007). The  
461 onset of the fixed order of texture patterns preceding and following (non-)target  
462 stimuli was neither signaled nor apparent. At the beginning of the experiment,  
463 participants were informed they could earn a total bonus of EUR 30, -, on top of their  
464 regular pay of EUR 10, - per hour or course credit. In two separate conditions within  
465 each session of testing, we encouraged participants to use either a conservative or a  
466 liberal bias for reporting targets using both aversive sounds as well as reducing their  
467 bonus after errors. In the conservative condition, participants were instructed to only  
468 press the button when they were relatively sure they had seen the target. The  
469 instruction on screen before block onset read as follows: 'Try to detect as many  
470 targets as possible. Only press when you are relatively sure you just saw a target.'  
471 To maximize effectiveness of this instruction, participants were told the bonus would  
472 be diminished by 10 cents after a false alarm. During the experiment, a loud aversive  
473 sound was played after a false alarm to inform the participant about an error. During

474 the liberal condition, participants were instructed to miss as few targets as possible.  
475 The instruction on screen before block onset read as follows: ‘Try to detect as many  
476 targets as possible. If you sometimes press when there was nothing this is not so  
477 bad’. In this condition, the loud aversive sound was played twice in close succession  
478 whenever they failed to report a target, and three cents were subsequently deducted  
479 from their bonus. The difference in auditory feedback between both conditions was  
480 included to inform the participant about the type of error (miss or false alarm), in  
481 order to facilitate the desired bias in both conditions. After every block, the  
482 participant’s score (number of missed targets in the liberal condition and number of  
483 false alarms in the conservative condition) was displayed on the screen, as well as  
484 the remainder of the bonus. After completing the last session of the experiment,  
485 every participant was paid the full bonus as required by the ethical committee.

486 Participants performed six blocks per session lasting ca. nine minutes each.  
487 During a block, participants continuously monitored the screen and were free to  
488 respond by button press whenever they thought they saw a target. Each block  
489 contained 240 trials, of which 180 target and 60 nontarget trials. The task instruction  
490 was presented on the screen before the block started. The condition of the first block  
491 of a session was counterbalanced across participants. Prior to EEG recording in the  
492 first session, participants performed a 10-min practice run of both conditions, in  
493 which visual feedback directly after a miss (liberal condition) or false alarm  
494 (conservative) informed participants about their mistake, allowing them to adjust their  
495 decision bias accordingly. There were short breaks between blocks, in which  
496 participants indicated when they were ready to begin the next block.

497 **Behavioral analysis** We defined decision bias as the criterion measure from SDT  
498 (Green and Swets, 1966). We calculated the criterion  $c$  across the trials in each  
499 condition as follows:

$$c = -\frac{1}{2} [Z(\text{Hit-rate}) + Z(\text{FA-rate})]$$

500 where hit-rate is the proportion target-present responses of all target-present trials,  
501 false alarm (FA)-rate is the proportion target-present responses of all target-absent  
502 trials, and  $Z(\dots)$  is the inverse standard normal distribution. Furthermore, we  
503 calculated perceptual sensitivity using the SDT measure  $d'$ :

504

$$d' = Z(\text{Hit-rate}) - Z(\text{FA-rate})$$

505 **EEG recording** Continuous EEG data were recorded at 256 Hz using a 48-channel  
506 BioSemi Active-Two system (BioSemi, Amsterdam, the Netherlands), connected to a  
507 standard EEG cap according to the international 10-20 system. Electrooculography  
508 (EOG) was recorded using two electrodes at the outer canthi of the left and right  
509 eyes and two electrodes placed above and below the right eye. Horizontal and  
510 vertical EOG electrodes were referenced against each other, two for horizontal and  
511 two for vertical eye movements (blinks). We used the FieldTrip toolbox (Oostenveld

512 et al., 2011) and custom software in MATLAB R2016b (The Mathworks Inc., Natick,  
513 MA, USA; RRID:SCR\_001622) to process the data. Data were re-referenced to the  
514 average voltage of two electrodes attached to the earlobes. We applied a  
515 Butterworth high-pass filter (fourth order, cutoff 0.5 Hz) to remove slow drifts from the  
516 data.

517 **Trial extraction** We extracted trials of variable duration from 1 s before target  
518 sequence onset until 1.25 after button press for trials that included a button press  
519 (hits and false alarms), and until 1.25 s after stimulus onset for trials without a button  
520 press (misses and correct rejects). The following constraints were used to classify  
521 (non-)targets as detected (hits and false alarms), while avoiding the occurrence of  
522 button presses in close succession to target reports and button presses occurring  
523 outside of trials: 1) A trial was marked as detected if a response occurred within 0.84  
524 s after target onset; 2) when the onset of the next target stimulus sequence started  
525 before trial end, the trial was terminated at the next trial's onset; 3) when a button  
526 press occurred in the 1.5 s before trial onset, the trial was extracted from 1.5 s after  
527 this button press; 4) when a button press occurred between 0.5 s before until 0.2 s  
528 after sequence onset, the trial was discarded. After trial extraction the mean of every  
529 channel was removed per trial.

530 **Artifact rejection** Trials containing muscle artifacts were rejected from further  
531 analysis using a standard semi-automatic preprocessing method in Fieldtrip. This  
532 procedure consists of bandpass-filtering the trials of a condition block in the 110–125  
533 Hz frequency range, which typically contains most of the muscle artifact activity,  
534 followed by a Z-transformation. Trials exceeding a threshold Z-score were removed  
535 completely from analysis. We used as the threshold the absolute value of the  
536 minimum Z-score within the block, + 1. To remove eye blink artifacts from the time  
537 courses, the EEG data from a complete session were transformed using  
538 independent component analysis (ICA), and components due to blinks (typically one  
539 or two) were removed from the data. In addition, to remove microsaccade-related  
540 artifacts we included two virtual channels in the ICA based on channels Fp1 and  
541 Fp2, which included transient spike potentials as identified using the saccadic  
542 artefact detection algorithm from (Hassler et al., 2011). This yielded a total number of  
543 channels submitted to ICA of  $48 + 2 = 50$ . The two components loading high on  
544 these virtual electrodes (typically with a frontal topography) were also removed.  
545 Blinks and eye movements were then semi-automatically detected from the  
546 horizontal and vertical EOG (frequency range 1–15 Hz; z-value cut-off 4 for vertical;  
547 6 for horizontal) and trials containing eye artefacts within 0.1 s around target onset  
548 were discarded. This step was done to remove trials in which the target was not  
549 seen because the eyes were closed. Finally, trials exceeding a threshold voltage  
550 range of 200 mV were discarded. To attenuate volume conduction effects and  
551 suppress any remaining microsaccade-related activity, the scalp current density  
552 (SCD) was computed using the second-order derivative (the surface Laplacian) of  
553 the EEG potential distribution (Perrin et al., 1989).

554 **ERP removal** We removed stimulus-evoked EEG activity related to external events  
555 by computing the event-related potential (ERP) and subtracting the ERP from each  
556 single trial prior to entropy or spectral analysis. This was done to focus on ongoing  
557 (termed “induced”, (Klimesch et al., 1998)) activity and eliminate large-amplitude  
558 transients from the data that would increase the signal standard deviation and thus  
559 affect the  $r$  parameter that is used for determining pattern matches. To eliminate  
560 differences in evoked responses between sessions and conditions, we performed  
561 this procedure separately for ERPs computed in each condition, session, and  
562 participant.

563 **Entropy computation** We measured temporal neural variability in the EEG using  
564 multiscale entropy (MSE) (Costa et al., 2002). MSE characterizes signal irregularity  
565 at multiple time scales by estimating sample entropy (SampEn) at each time scale of  
566 interest. The estimation of SampEn involves counting how often patterns of  $m$   
567 successive data points reoccur in time ( $p^m$ ) and assessing how many of those  
568 patterns remain similar when the next sample  $m+1$  is added to the sequence  
569 ( $p^{(m+1)}$ ). Given that amplitude values are rarely exactly equal in physiological time  
570 series, a similarity bound defines which individual data points are considered similar.  
571 This step discretizes the data and allows to compare data patterns rather than exact  
572 data values. The similarity bound is defined as a proportion  $r$  of the time series  
573 standard deviation (SD; i.e., square root of signal variance) to normalize the  
574 estimation of sample entropy for total signal variation. That is, for any data point  $k$ , all  
575 data points within  $k \pm r \times SD$  are by definition equal to  $k$ , which forms the basis  
576 for assessing sequence patterns. SampEn is finally given as the natural log of  
577  $p^m(r) / p^{(m+1)}(r)$ . Consequently, high SampEn values indicate low temporal  
578 regularity as many patterns of length  $m$  are not repeated at length  $m+1$ . In our  
579 applications,  $m$  was set to 2 and  $r$  was set to .5, in line with prior recommendations  
580 (Richman and Moorman, 2000) and EEG applications (Courtiol et al., 2016; Heisz  
581 and McIntosh, 2013; Kosciessa et al., 2019; McIntosh et al., 2008).

582 **Discontinuous MSE computation** An important limitation of MSE is the need for  
583 substantial continuous data for robust estimation. Heuristically, the recommended  
584 number of successive data points for estimation at each scale is 100 (minimum) to  
585 900 (preferred) points using typical MSE parameter settings (Grandy et al., 2016).  
586 This limitation precludes the application of MSE to neuroimaging data recorded  
587 during cognitive processes that unfold over brief periods of time, such as perceptual  
588 decisions. Grandy et al. (Grandy et al., 2016) showed that the pattern counting  
589 process can be extended to discontinuous data segments that are concatenated  
590 across time, as long as the counting of artificial patterns across segment borders is  
591 avoided (as these patterns are a product of the concatenation and do not occur in  
592 the data itself). We applied the MSE computation across discontinuous segments of  
593 0.5 s duration (window size). To track the evolution of MSE over the trial, we slid this  
594 window across the trials in steps of 50 milliseconds from -0.2 s until 0.6 s, each time  
595 recomputing MSE across segments taken from the time window in each trial.



596 **Multi-scale implementation through time series coarsegraining** By counting the  
597 reoccurrences of patterns of adjacent data points, SampEn measures entropy at the  
598 time scale of the signal's sampling rate, which is in the order of milliseconds or  
599 shorter in EEG data. To enable estimation of entropy at longer time scales, the time  
600 series is typically coarsegrained by averaging groups of adjacent samples ('point  
601 averaging') and repeating the entropy computation (Costa et al., 2002). However,  
602 despite its simplicity, this method is suboptimal for eliminating short temporal scales.  
603 Point averaging is equivalent to low-pass filtering using a finite-impulse response  
604 filter, which does not effectively eliminate higher frequencies and can introduce  
605 aliasing (Semmlow, 2004; Valencia et al., 2009). For this reason, an improved  
606 coarse graining procedure was introduced involving replacement of the multi-point  
607 average by a low-pass Butterworth filter, which has a well-defined frequency cutoff  
608 and precludes aliasing (Valencia et al., 2009)(Figure 2B, top). The filter cutoff  
609 frequency is determined by the ratio of 1 and the scale number, such that an  
610 increasingly larger portion of the higher frequencies is removed for slower time  
611 scales. Notably, low-pass filtering affects the temporal structure of the time-domain  
612 signal, which could hamper the interpretation of the EEG dynamics due to smearing  
613 of responses (VanRullen, 2011). This issue is largely mitigated, however, due to the  
614 liberal-conservative subtraction that we perform before correlating with behavior,  
615 since this issue presumably affects both conditions similarly. Filtering is followed by a  
616 point-skipping procedure to reduce the signal's sampling rate (Figure 2B, bottom).  
617 Since point-skipping omits increasingly large portions of the filtered time series  
618 depending on the starting point of the point-skipping procedure, we counted patterns  
619 separately for each starting point within a scale, summed their counts for two-point  
620 and three-point matches separately and computed entropy as described above.  
621 Given our segments of 0.5 s window length sampled at 256 Hz, we computed MSE  
622 for scales 1 (129 samples within the window) until 42 (three or four samples within  
623 the window, depending on the starting point). Note that using a pattern parameter of  
624  $m = 2$ , a minimum of three samples within a segment is required to estimate entropy  
625 across the segments of continuous data, yielding a maximum possible scale of 42. In  
626 line with the MSE literature (Courtiol et al., 2016), we converted the time scale units  
627 to milliseconds by taking the duration between adjacent data points after each  
628 coarsegraining step. For example, time scale 1 corresponds to  $1000 \text{ ms} / 256 \text{ Hz} =$   
629  $3.9 \text{ ms}$ , and scale 42 to  $1000 / (256/42) = 164 \text{ ms}$ .

630 **Pattern similarity parameter computation at each time scale** By increasingly  
631 smoothing the time series, coarse-graining affects not only on the signal's entropy,  
632 but also its overall variation, as reflected in the decreasing standard deviation as a  
633 function of time scale (Nikulin and Brismar, 2004). In the original implementation of  
634 the MSE calculation, the similarity parameter  $r$  was set as a proportion of the original  
635 (scale 1) time series' standard deviation and applied to all the scales (Costa et al.,  
636 2002). Because of the decreasing variation in the time series due to coarse graining,  
637 the similarity parameter therefore becomes increasingly tolerant at slower time  
638 scales, resulting in more similar patterns and decreased entropy. This decreasing

639 entropy can be attributed both to changes in signal complexity, but also in overall  
640 variation (Kosciessa et al., 2019; Nikulin and Brismar, 2004). To overcome this  
641 limitation, we recomputed the similarity parameter for each scale, thereby  
642 normalizing MSE with respect to changes in overall time series variation at each  
643 scale.

644 **Spectral analysis** We used a sliding window Fourier transform; step size, 50 ms;  
645 window size, 500 ms; frequency resolution, 2 Hz) to calculate time-frequency  
646 representations (spectrograms) of the EEG power for each electrode and each trial.  
647 We used a single Hann taper for the frequency range of 3–35 Hz (spectral  
648 smoothing, 4.5 Hz, bin size, 1 Hz) and the multitaper technique for the 36 – 100 Hz  
649 frequency range (spectral smoothing, 8 Hz; bin size, 2 Hz; five tapers)(Mitra and  
650 Bokil, 2007). See (Kloosterman et al., 2019) for similar settings. Finally, to  
651 investigate spectral power between 1-3 Hz (delta band), we performed an additional  
652 time-frequency analysis with a window size of 1 s (i.e. frequency resolution 1 Hz)  
653 without spectral smoothing (bin size 0.5 Hz). Spectrograms were aligned to the onset  
654 of the stimulus sequence containing the (non)target. Power modulations during the  
655 trials were quantified as the percentage of power change at a given time point and  
656 frequency bin, relative to a baseline power value for each frequency bin. We used as  
657 a baseline the mean EEG power in the interval 0.4 to 0 s before trial onset,  
658 computed separately for each condition. If this interval was not completely present in  
659 the trial due to preceding events (see Trial extraction), this period was shortened  
660 accordingly. We normalized the data by subtracting the baseline from each time-  
661 frequency bin and dividing this difference by the baseline (x 100 %).

662 **Statistical significance testing of EEG power modulations and correlations**  
663 **across space, time and timescale/frequency.** To determine clusters of significant  
664 modulation with respect to the pre-stimulus baseline without any a priori selection,  
665 we ran statistics across space-time-frequency bins using paired t-tests across  
666 subjects performed at each bin. Single bins were subsequently thresholded at  $p <$   
667 0.05 and clusters of contiguous time-space-frequency bins were determined. For the  
668 correlation versions of this analysis, we correlated the brain measure at each bin  
669 with the criterion and converted the r-values to a t-statistic using the Fisher-  
670 transformation (Fisher, 1915). We used a cluster-based procedure (Maris and  
671 Oostenveld, 2007) to correct for multiple comparisons using a cluster-formation  
672 alpha of  $p < 0.05$  and a cluster-corrected alpha of  $p = 0.05$ , two-tailed. For  
673 visualization purposes, we integrated (using MATLAB's trapz function) power or  
674 entropy values in the time-frequency/entropy representations (TFR/TTR) across the  
675 highlighted electrodes in the topographies. For the topographical scalp maps,  
676 modulation was integrated across the saturated time-frequency bins in the  
677 TFRs/TTRs. See (Kloosterman et al., 2019) for a similar procedure in the time-  
678 frequency domain.

679 **Correlation analysis** We used both Pearson correlation and robust Spearman  
680 correlation across participants to test the relationships between the behavioral

681 variables as well as with the EEG entropy and power (modulation). To test whether  
682 behavior and EEG activity were linked within participants, we used repeated  
683 measures correlation. Repeated measures correlation determines the common  
684 within-individual association for paired measures assessed on two or more  
685 occasions for multiple individuals by controlling for the specific range in which  
686 individuals' measurements operate, and correcting the correlation degrees of  
687 freedom for non-independence of repeated measurements obtained from each  
688 individual (Bakdash and Marusich, 2017; Bland and Altman, 1995). To test whether  
689 spectral power could account for the observed correlation between criterion and  
690 mMSE, we used partial Spearman and Pearson correlation controlling for other  
691 variables.

692 **Data and code sharing** The data analyzed in this study are publicly available on  
693 Figshare (Kloosterman et al., 2018). We programmed mMSE analysis in a MATLAB  
694 function within the format of the FieldTrip toolbox (Oostenveld et al., 2011). Our  
695 ft\_entropyanalysis.m function takes as input data produced by Fieldtrip's  
696 ft\_preprocessing.m function. In our function, we employed matrix computation of  
697 mMSE for increased speed, which is desirable due to the increased computational  
698 demand with multi-channel data analyzed with a sliding window. The function  
699 supports GPU functionality to further speed up computations. The function is  
700 available online (<https://github.com/LNDG/mMSE>).

701

702 **Acknowledgments: Funding:** Emmy Noether Grant to Douglas D Garrett, Max  
703 Planck UCL Centre for Computational Psychiatry and Ageing Research to Douglas  
704 Garrett, Niels Kloosterman, and Max Planck Society. **Author contributions:** Niels  
705 Kloosterman, Conceptualization, Data curation, Software, Formal analysis,  
706 Investigation, Visualization, Methodology, Writing—original draft, Project  
707 administration, Writing—review and editing; Julian Kosciessa, Software, Formal  
708 analysis, Writing—review and editing; Ulman Lindenberger, Resources, Funding  
709 acquisition, Writing—review and editing; Johannes Jacobus Fahrenfort,  
710 Conceptualization, Data curation, Software, Formal analysis, Supervision,  
711 Visualization, Methodology, Writing—original draft, Project administration, Writing—  
712 review and editing; Douglas Garrett, Conceptualization, Resources, Formal analysis,  
713 Supervision, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Writing—review and  
714 editing. **Competing interests:** Authors declare no competing interests. **Data and  
715 materials availability:** All data analyzed during this study are publicly available  
716 (Kloosterman et al., 2018). Analysis scripts are publicly available on Github  
717 (<https://github.com/kloosterman/critEEGentropy>, <https://github.com/LNDG/mMSE>). A  
718 tutorial for computing mMSE within the FieldTrip toolbox has been published on the  
719 FieldTrip website ([http://www.fieldtriptoolbox.org/example/entropy\\_analysis/](http://www.fieldtriptoolbox.org/example/entropy_analysis/)).

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