

1 Threat-Related Corticocortical Connectivity Elicited
2 by Rapid Auditory Looms

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16 **Abstract**

17 While sounds of approaching objects are generally more salient than those of
18 receding ones, the traditional association of this auditory looming bias with
19 threat perception is subject to debate. Differences between looming and receding
20 sounds may also be learned through non-threatening multisensory information,
21 or influenced by confounding stimulus characteristics. To investigate, we analyzed
22 corticocortical connectivity patterns from electroencephalography, examining the
23 preferential processing of looming sounds under different attentional states. To
24 simulate rapid distance changes we used complementary distance cues, previously
25 studied in the looming bias literature. Notably, despite the absence of conscious
26 threat perception, we observed crucial involvement of frontal cortical regions
27 typically associated with threat and fear responses. Our findings suggest an
28 underlying bias towards the ventral 'what' stream over the dorsal 'where' stream
29 in auditory information processing, even when the participants' task was solely
30 focused on the discrimination of movement direction. These results support the
31 idea, that the perceptual bias towards looming sounds reflects an auditory threat
32 detection mechanism, while offering insights into the neural function involved in
33 processing ecologically relevant environmental cues.

34 **Keywords:** auditory looming bias, distance motion perception, brain connectivity,
35 fear, hazard protection, dual pathway model

36 1 Introduction

37 If a car is approaching from a distance, its timely detection and avoidance are essential
38 to our survival. It is presumably to improve warning capacity, that approaching stimuli
39 are more salient than receding ones. This perceptual asymmetry, often referred to as
40 the auditory looming bias, has been found present across species [1–5] and ages [6–
41 9], making it a rather universal trait. As an effective warning mechanism, the looming
42 bias should have the capacity to readily capture attention and be rather universal
43 across cue types. Corroborating this hypothesis, signatures of the bias have indeed
44 been found across attentional states and auditory distance cue types; they were present
45 already at the level of Heschl’s gyrus (HG), housing the primary auditory cortex [10].
46 Yet the bias’ relationship to threat detection remained a hypothesis, and discrepancies
47 in behavioral performance, timing, and attentional amplification, suggest that there
48 are differences in cortical processing depending on these factors.

49 The notion of stimulus-specificity has frequently been put forth with regards to
50 the selective advantage of the looming bias, and its function as a warning mechanism
51 for organisms facing potential collisions with sound sources. It tends to be observed
52 more consistently in response to stimuli with a natural overtone structure, in contrast
53 to Gaussian white noise stimuli, which sound arguably more artificial [4, 9, 11].
54 However, studies have also demonstrated looming biases in response to noise stimuli
55 when accounting for the natural acoustic filtering properties of listeners [12, 13]. This
56 suggests that the absence of natural spatial cues, rather than the source’s identity,
57 may be responsible for the failure to elicit the bias in certain cases. Additionally, some
58 investigations into the looming bias have employed auditory distance changes as short
59 as 10 ms [10, 12, 13], prompting questions about the necessary identity and ecological
60 validity required to evoke this effect.

61 From a neuroimaging perspective, increased amygdala activation in response to
62 slowly rising sound intensities has been an important argument for the bias’ warning
63 function [14]. Apart from Heschl’s gyrus and the amygdala, functional magnetic reso-
64 nance imaging (fMRI) has highlighted the involvement of the temporal plane, superior
65 temporal sulcus (STS), prefrontal cortex (PFC), and inferior parietal lobe (IPL) in the
66 preferential processing of looming sounds [14, 15]. In general, auditory stimuli have
67 been hypothesized to follow two parallel cortical processing streams: one following a
68 ventral and the other a dorsal path [16]. Originally stemming from visual research,
69 the dorsal pathway is associated with spatial perception (“where”), while the ven-
70 tral stream with object identification (“what”) [16, 17]. The inferior parietal lobe, as
71 part of the dorsal auditory pathway, is thought to play a crucial role in spatial hear-
72 ing [18, 19] and sound motion processing in particular [20], whereas superior temporal
73 sulcus and prefrontal cortex belong to the ventral pathway. Based on these findings,
74 the looming bias circuit emerges as an extended distributed cortical network.

75 Besides the mere activation increase induced by looming sounds, one crucial aspect
76 is the way in which the involved regions are at interplay. This question can be addressed
77 through functional connectivity investigations [21]; namely computational methods
78 exploring the information exchange among regions of interest (ROIs). Unlike structural
79 connectivity, which describes anatomical connections linking sets of neural elements,

80 functional connectivity is dynamic in nature. It represents changes in statistical inter-
81 dependencies between or among brain regions, within a specific time interval and
82 connected to an event of interest. The observed brain regions that are found to con-
83 tribute the most with regards to connectivity, relative to the others or the combinations
84 thereof, are defined as functional hubs. Those are also dynamic and may deviate from
85 an anatomical definition, as they can be a part of different functional clusters [22].
86 Findings stemming from available connectivity analyses of the auditory looming bias
87 circuit are inconclusive: a study based on intensity ramps argues that top-down direc-
88 tional causal influence from prefrontal cortex to Heschl’s gyrus enhances processing
89 of looming versus receding sounds [23], while prior investigations on spectral stimuli
90 argue for a bottom-up, temporofrontal connectivity [13].

91 Functional connectivity methods employed in previous research focus on a bidi-
92 rectional analysis process, albeit relying on a small preselection of brain regions
93 (Granger [24], Phase Transfer Entropy [25]). Although insightful regarding the inter-
94 play of the considered ROI pairs, further methods may offer an approach that is closer
95 to a network structure. They are nevertheless limited by either the number of regions
96 that can be considered (conditional Granger Causality [26]), the dimensionality (mul-
97 tivariate Granger [27]) or the amount of constraints enforced by parameters of a model
98 (e.g., Dynamic Causal Modeling [28]). Contrary to that, recent frameworks offer both
99 a holistic as well as data-driven approach [29, 30]. They provide the possibility to
100 investigate the whole brain on different levels, without the necessity of a predefined
101 set of ROIs or network structure parameters. Of those, the INSIDEOUT approach [29]
102 relies on the observation, that the environment drives hierarchically lower, sensory
103 regions, stronger than hierarchically higher ones. A system in equilibrium has seam-
104 less transitions between different states; thermodynamically, it is reversible in time.
105 Should the system get driven out of equilibrium, the transitions between states become
106 non-reversible and an arrow of time emerges. Measuring the effects of the extrin-
107 sic environment on the intrinsic brain dynamics through the non-reversibility of the
108 system, here the brain, can therefore help uncover variations in brain states under dif-
109 ferent conditions. The framework of normalized directed transfer entropy (NDTE) [30],
110 contrarily, works on a mesoscopic level: By considering the interconnectivity of all
111 defined brain regions, it draws assumptions about the most essential contributors, or
112 functional hubs, of the underlying networks.

113 In the current study, we investigate the cortical connectivity network underlying
114 the auditory looming bias under the individual factors of cue type and attention, in
115 search for overlapping patterns along spatial and/or identity-related cortical process-
116 ing streams. Through the high temporal resolution of electroencephalography (EEG)
117 in combination with recently proposed, data-driven approaches for connectivity anal-
118 yses, we investigate the brain at different levels of granularity [29, 30]: First as a
119 whole, and subsequently in search for the functional hubs that act as essential contrib-
120 utors in the looming network. High spatial resolution is achieved by complementing
121 source localisation of high-density EEG with individual brain anatomies and electrode
122 locations [31]. The present analyses are based on prior collected data, studying the
123 auditory looming bias at the level of HG under the aforementioned factors of atten-
124 tion and cue type [10]. In that paradigm (Fig. 1), participants listened to broadband

125 harmonic tones that rapidly changed in their simulated distance from the listener and
 126 thereby elicited a looming or receding percept. Distance cues comprised either overall
 127 sound intensity or spectral shape changes. Listeners were first passively exposed to
 128 the stimuli while watching a silent subtitled movie and later had to discriminate the
 129 sonic motion direction. We find that there is to be higher sensitivity for intensity stimu-
 130 li, while different main hubs, traditionally connected to threat and fear perception,
 131 emerge based on the factors considered.

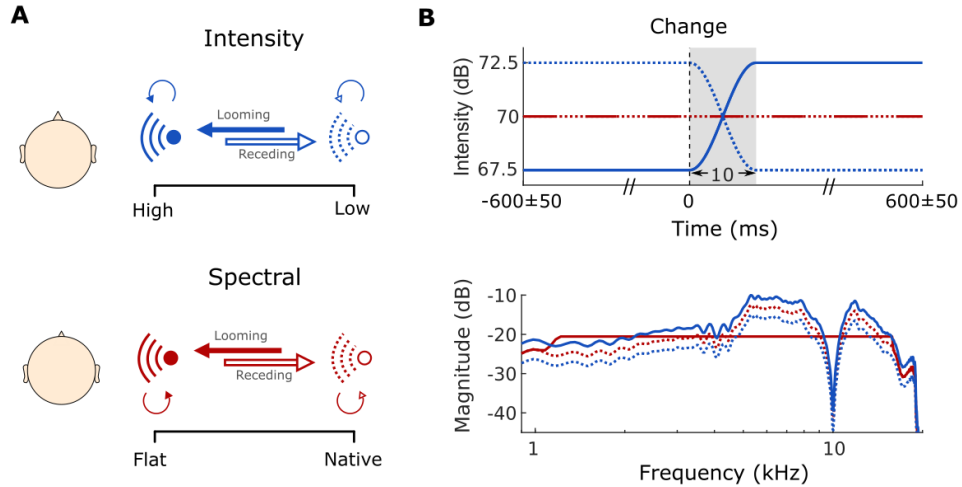


Fig. 1: Experimental design. **A)** Looming and receding percepts created through simulated transition between two sounds of different intensities (top, blue) or spectral shapes (bottom, red). Thick arrows represent 50% transition probability for motion trials (dark = looming; light = receding). **B)** Sound intensity over time (top panel) and magnitude spectrum (bottom panel) of all implemented stimuli. Figure adapted from [10].

132 2 Results

133 For the present connectivity investigations we extracted the source-localized EEG time
 134 series of all cortical regions, as defined by the Desikan-Killiany parcellation [32]. We
 135 considered the time interval between 0 and 300 ms relative to the event of distance
 136 change. This choice was made based on the finding, that this time window has shown
 137 significant biases evoked in HG in previous investigations [10].

138 **2.1 Intensity looms induce stronger non-reversibility in**
 139 **cortical processing**

140 INSIDEOUT reflects how the environment (extrinsic, outside) affects the dynamics
 141 and equilibrium of the underlying brain state (intrinsic, inside) [29], by measuring the
 142 non-reversibility of a considered system.

143 We implemented this framework by accounting for the set of all ROIs of the con-
 144 sidered parcellation, hence the cortex as a whole (Sec. 4.4.1). Higher non-reversibility
 145 is thus understood as a quantification of the amount of change in causal interactions
 146 of the brain under each considered condition.

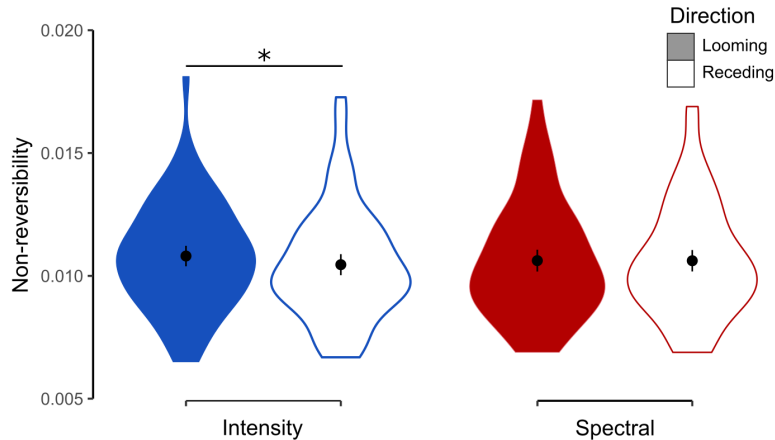


Fig. 2: Effects of cue type and movement direction on the temporal non-reversibility of cortical processing, as calculated by the INSIDEOUT framework. Points and bars represent the means and their standard errors within each violin plot. Asterisks indicate statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

147 Figure 2 shows the distributions of non-reversibility measures obtained for every
 148 considered condition. An ANOVA with the factors of attention, cue type and motion
 149 direction revealed the latter to be a significant factor ($F_{1,27} = 8.34$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.24$, $p =$
 150 0.008), as well as its interaction with the cue type ($F_{1,27} = 5.11$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.16$, $p = 0.032$).
 151 To further investigate this interaction, we performed a separate ANOVA for each cue
 152 type and adjusted the p-values for multiple comparisons using Bonferroni correction.
 153 For intensity, looming sounds were found to elicit higher non-reversibility than receding
 154 sounds ($F_{1,27} = 9.17$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.25$, $p = 0.011$). No significant factors or interactions
 155 thereof appeared for the spectral condition. Hence, looming stimuli appeared to disrupt
 156 the intrinsic equilibrium more than receding ones, in particular when they are based
 157 on intensity changes.

158 **2.2 Connectivity hubs relevant to the auditory looming bias**

159 To better understand the dependencies, we then applied the NDTE framework, as it
 160 offers a more granular view on the interacting brain regions. Following the procedure
 161 suggested in [30], we considered each ROI's connection to every other ROI in the
 162 cortical parcellation. The connectivity between each pair of regions was calculated
 163 on the actual data, and its significance assessed through a distribution of surrogate
 164 data stemming from the same ROI-pair. Aggregation of the connectivity information
 165 across subjects allowed for the construction of connectivity hubs, namely regions, or
 166 sets thereof, that are, as a whole, more connected compared to any other considered
 167 set comprising the same number of ROIs. We performed a connectivity analysis on
 168 the bias data by considering the factors of attention and cue type.

169 The two quantities of essence in this framework are termed inflow (G_{in} in [30])
 170 and outflow (G_{out} in [30]); they respectively represent the connectivity incoming to or
 171 outflowing from a ROI. If a set of ROIs is considered as a network, inflow is the sum
 172 of all incoming connectivity across all its constituent ROIs. The respective holds for
 173 the outflow.

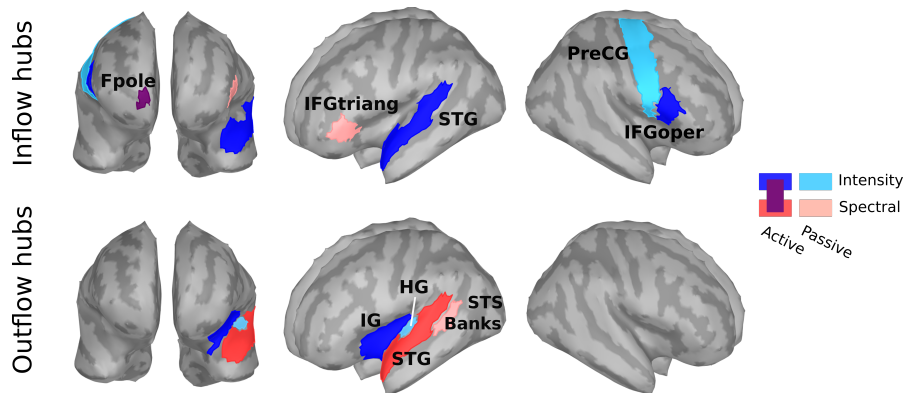


Fig. 3: Major inflow and outflow hubs of looming bias identified per considered condition. Fpole (magenta) is activated by both active intensity and spectral. Fpole - frontal pole, IFGtriang - pars triangularis, STG - superior temporal gyrus, PreCG - precentral gyrus, IFGoper - pars opercularis, IG - insular gyrus, BanksSTS - banks of the superior temporal sulcus, HG - Heschl's gyrus.

174 We determined the major inflow and outflow hubs per condition by following the
 175 concept and search procedure of functional rich clubs (Sec. 4.4.2; FRICs in [30]). Fol-
 176 lowing the procedure for their definition based on the inflow, we respectively defined
 177 the major hubs based on the connectivity outflow (Fig. 3, Sec. 4.4.2). As demon-
 178 strated in figure 3A, the major inflow was attributed to one region, except for the
 179 active intensity condition. The ROIs receiving the most inflow spanned over tempo-
 180 ral regions (STG), frontal regions (pars opercularis - IFGoper, frontal pole - Fpole),

181 and both hemispheres. Across both active conditions, only the frontal pole emerged
 182 as a crucial inflow hub for looming bias. In the passive conditions, the relevant inflow
 183 hubs comprised the right precentral gyrus (PreCG) for intensity and the left pars
 184 triangularis (IFGtriang) for spectral stimuli. Regarding the outflow hubs, one region
 185 emerged per condition and all regions were located in the left hemisphere. Apart from
 186 the active intensity condition, where the insular gyrus (IG) was identified as the main
 187 hub, temporal regions were identified for the remaining cases: superior temporal gyrus
 188 (STG) for active spectral, transverse temporal gyrus (Heschl's Gyrus, HG) for pas-
 189 sive intensity, and the banks of the superior temporal sulcus (BanksSTS) for passive
 190 spectral.

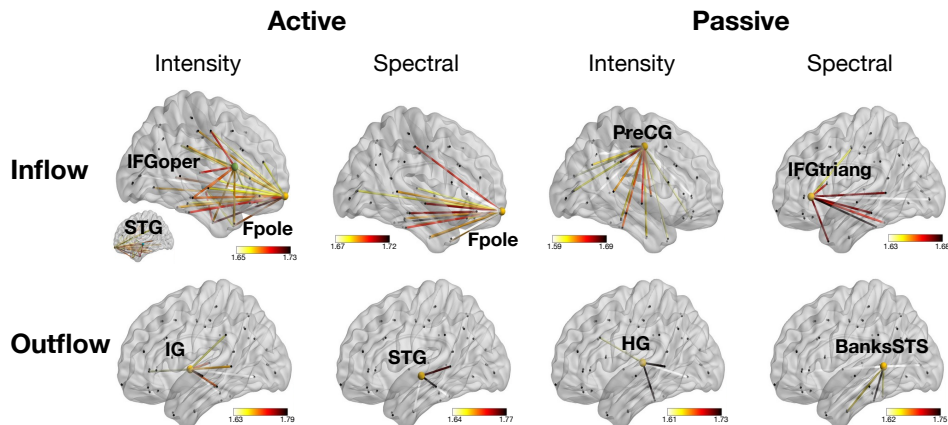


Fig. 4: Detailed connectivity for major inflow and outflow hubs identified per condition. Displayed connections correspond to the top 30% of connectivity strength per condition. Color bars were adjusted accordingly and normalized connectivity values were scaled up by a factor of 100.

191 We further extracted the pattern of hub connections that emerged, separately for
 192 inflow and outflow connectivity in each considered condition (Fig. 4). On a large scale,
 193 the inflow hubs, localized to the frontal cortices (Fpole, IFG, PreCG), dominantly
 194 received information from more distant regions of the sensory temporal regions such
 195 as the superior temporal gyrus, Heschl's gyrus or inferior temporal cortices. In con-
 196 trast, the outflow hubs, localized to the temporal regions (IG, STG, HG, STS), tended
 197 to send information to more local areas within the temporal cortex. All those con-
 198 nections occurred mainly within hemisphere, reflecting rather weak inter-hemispheric
 199 connections to and from the hubs.

200 3 Discussion

201 Looming sounds exhibit remarkable salience, consistently eliciting a perceptual bias
 202 compared to equivalent receding sounds. This bias is commonly hypothesized to signify

203 a mechanism for threat detection and hazard protection. In this study, we employed
204 two data-driven, state-of-the-art functional connectivity approaches, to examine cor-
205 tical responses to simulations of rapid changes in auditory distance. We examined the
206 responses during both passive and active listening, and while utilizing either inten-
207 sity or spectral cues. Analyzing macroscopic brain states, temporal non-reversibility
208 tests revealed a more pronounced impact of looming sounds on the overall functional
209 connectivity when intensity was employed to simulate motion in distance. Taking a
210 more granular approach, we identified functional connectivity hubs for each condition,
211 shedding light on the intricate neural networks underlying these perceptual processes.

212 Throughout our conditions, frontal regions emerged as the main inflow hubs
213 (frontal pole, IFG including the pars opercularis, pars triangularis also known as
214 Broca’s area-BA45), and temporal regions as the major outflow hubs (primary and
215 secondary auditory cortices such as the superior temporal gyrus, transverse tempo-
216 ral gyrus including the PAC, banks STS). Prior studies have argued regarding the
217 directionality of the connectivity in the looming bias, with results divided between
218 bottom-up processing [13] or a top-down intervention [23]. The here-identified hubs
219 support the bottom-up notion, as temporal regions act more as sources (outflow hubs)
220 and frontal regions as receivers (inflow hubs) in response to looming sounds. Moreover,
221 those hubs mostly appear to belong to the ventral auditory pathway. As seen in the
222 case of passive intensity, the motor cortex is additionally present, while no hubs appear
223 in our findings that could be clearly associated with the dorsal auditory pathway. This
224 result is intriguing, as it suggests that, in the considered context, priority is given to
225 recognizing and identifying the auditory sound source (“what”) rather than its loca-
226 tion (“where”); even though listeners were solving a spatial auditory task during the
227 active listening part of their study participation. The to be expected high involvement
228 of the dorsal pathway in spatial perception might have been canceled out by the bias
229 calculation (difference between looming and receding). The importance of source iden-
230 tity on the elicitation of auditory looming bias has previously also been demonstrated
231 by comparisons between different types of source stimuli: tones elicited stronger biases
232 than noise [4, 5, 9, 33, 34]. The here identified connectivity hubs seem to reflect the
233 crucial role of source identity in the manifestation of the auditory looming bias.

234 **3.1 Emerging looming bias hubs relate to fear responses**

235 The analysis of sound source identity is governed by cortical hubs that are congru-
236 ent to various literature findings in the context of threat and fear. Among the frontal
237 regions, the anterior part of the frontal cortex (Fpole) emerged as the major inflow
238 hub in both active conditions, which is in agreement with its recognized function for
239 executive cognitive processing and action selection [35, 36]. Other auditory studies
240 also demonstrated its involvement in the context of threatening sentences and emo-
241 tionally salient pictures [37]. Apart from the frontal pole, parts of the inferior frontal
242 gyrus appear as essential in facilitating the bias: the right pars orbitalis for the active
243 intensity and left pars triangularis for passive spectral. More generally, studies of visu-
244 ally presented threat-related words have reported activation of the left inferior frontal
245 gyrus [37, 38]. Inferior frontal gyrus has additionally been activated in the context

246 of fear conditioning [39] and the downregulation of psychophysiological reactions to
247 threat [40].

248 The information received by the major inflow hubs primarily appeared as coming
249 from primary and secondary auditory cortical regions on the temporal lobe. Concor-
250 dantly, the main outflow hubs we identified were localized in the temporal areas. Being
251 an auditory task, areas such as the PAC may be especially involved; yet previous
252 research has also implicated it in threatening sound paradigms [37]. Superior tempo-
253 ral ROIs, emerging in our considered active (attentive) conditions, have additionally
254 been connected to attention linked to threatening voices [41].

255 In contrast to mainly temporal regions as outflow hubs, the insula appeared as
256 a key outflow node in the intensity stimuli. As a ROI, it has been associated with
257 fear and anxiety conditioning [37, 39, 42], while animal studies have demonstrated its
258 implication in fear or extinction memory [43]. Intensity stimuli have behaviorally and
259 neurally emerged as more salient than their spectral counterparts, in both adult and
260 newborn listeners [10]. Implication of the insula only in the perception of intensity
261 stimuli might act as a contributor of that manifestation.

262 Finally, frontotemporal activations have generally been linked to the basolateral
263 amygdala (BLA), an essential hub of the limbic system, in the context of automatic
264 fear detection [44]. The amygdala itself has, in turn, been further implicated in the
265 looming perception [14] in a warning role. As we conducted our study with the use of
266 EEG, subcortical activations, consequently also the amygdala, are either inaccessible
267 or unreliable; the direct verification of the BLA-frontotemporal link in the context of
268 the bias can thus not be made through our findings. Yet the emerging frontal and tem-
269 poral connectivity hubs may be a manifestation of the BLA-frontotemporal exchange,
270 congruently to previous findings: Invasive studies on animals have specifically impli-
271 cated the medial prefrontal cortex and BLA in the discrimination between harmful
272 and safe stimuli, and highlighted that the corticocortical dialogue between sensory and
273 prefrontal areas is essential for fear-discrimination processes [45]. Taken together, the
274 functional relevance of the major hubs we identified along the ventral auditory path-
275 way suggests that, regardless of cue type, looming sounds elicit the perceptual bias by
276 rapidly recognizing the sound as a potential threat.

277 **3.2 Methodology and limitations**

278 In the current study, we utilized direct (NDTE) and indirect (INSIDEOUT) connec-
279 tivity metrics in order to obtain an image of the bias-related processes on the cortical
280 surface. Depending on the method at hand, investigations can be done at different
281 levels of granularity.

282 INSIDEOUT captures the breaking of causal connections through non-reversibility
283 and the arrow of time in order to measure brain connectivity. Compared to other
284 approaches, it has the big advantage that no underlying constraints (e.g., ROIs or
285 networks) or models (e.g., directionality or node assumptions) are necessary for its
286 implementation. It can additionally give a coarse representation of the different brain
287 states based on the whole cortex in a significantly less computationally complex and
288 time-consuming manner than conventional approaches would demand. In terms of
289 non-reversibility, the looming bias was found mainly for the intensity stimuli. Broadly

290 considered in looming studies, intensity stimuli have generally appeared more salient
291 than spectral ones; the latter seem to be more complex in their understanding and cog-
292 nitively processed in a much more subtle manner [46–48]. As INSIDEOUT is reflective
293 of subjective conscious awareness [29], our result corroborates the difference in percep-
294 tion depending on cue type. The greater intervention of intensity stimuli, in terms of
295 disruption in causal interactions, highlights their salience as already emerged through
296 prior behavioral as well as neural studies [6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 23, 49, 50]. The effects
297 we found from the INSIDEOUT framework, although present, are small in size. This
298 is likely due to our highly specific paradigm (auditory looming bias), rendering the
299 brain states only subtly, but not fundamentally, different. Despite this highly specific
300 approach, though, INSIDEOUT still revealed significant effects in line with previous
301 findings.

302 Contrary to the coarse granularity offered by INSIDEOUT, the fine-grained
303 method of NDTE yielded insights into which regions are the main hubs in manifest-
304 ing the looming bias, and does so in a data-driven way. By considering all ROIs of a
305 given parcellation, the cross-connectivity is calculated. By, then, ranking regions based
306 on their outflow (sources) or inflow (receivers) and iteratively comparing networks
307 (Sec. 4.4.2), conclusions about ROIs, or networks thereof, with the most essential con-
308 tribution per considered condition emerge. It should be noted that the timescale of
309 all effects is defined by the calculated minimum of the autocorrelation function. As
310 shown in previous research, this is a solid approach to our investigations [29, 30]. In a
311 more ideal way, though, and although computationally significantly more costly, this
312 parameter could be set individually for each considered time series.

313 In our investigation we adhered to the rather coarse parcellation of the Desikan-
314 Killiany atlas [32]. Our selection relies on both aiming to compare outcomes to prior
315 literature [13, 23] as well as reduce complexity, especially in the case of NDTE calcu-
316 lations. Finer parcellations, such as the one from Destrieux [51], could offer different
317 insights depending on the question at hand; yet they come with higher amount of
318 regions and therefore complexity. Finer parcellations may additionally be more prone
319 to wrongful activity attribution if the precision of the source localization is insufficient.
320 Although we used individualised anatomical information to aid the performed EEG
321 source localization [31], spatial imprecisions are inevitable. An example thereof is the
322 depth-weighting done by algorithms for sources that are intricately placed on the cor-
323 tex. Additionally, should activity arise from subcortical surfaces at greater distances
324 from the sensors, EEG may wrongfully attribute the recorded activity. Our results are
325 in good agreement with relevant literature, yet different imaging methods, selected
326 parcellations or implemented algorithms may lead to slightly altered outcomes.

327 4 Methods

328 4.1 Participants

329 Thirty-five healthy young adults were invited for study participation. Exclusion crite-
330 ria comprised self-reported indications of psychological and neurological disorders or
331 acute or chronic heavy respiratory diseases that may prevent the participant from sit-
332 ting still during the EEG recording. Participants’ hearing thresholds between 1 and

333 12.5 kHz were measured via pure tone audiometry (Sennheiser HDA200; AGRA Exp-
334 suite application [52]), with a deviation of more than 20 dB from the age mean [53]
335 leading to subject exclusion. Six participants were excluded (29 remaining subjects, 15
336 females: 25.0 ± 2.60 years old (mean \pm standard deviation); 14 males: 25.1 ± 2.77 years
337 old). An error rate in recognition of static sounds (catch-trials) exceeding 20% resulted
338 in one additional exclusion (female, 45.2% errors).

339 In total, 28 participants were included in this study. They were informed of the pro-
340 cedure and their rights (no deception nor harm, freedom to interrupt the experiment
341 without justification or repercussions) and signed informed consent prior to testing.
342 The study was conducted in accordance with the standards of the Declaration of
343 Helsinki. No additional ethics committee approval was required given the non-medical
344 non-invasive nature of our study, as per the Austrian Universities Act of 2002. Exper-
345 iments lasted around five hours per subject and participants were remunerated after
346 testing.

347 4.2 Stimuli

348 The auditory stimuli were complex harmonic tones [54] ($F_0 = 100$ Hz, bandwidth
349 $1 - 16$ kHz), filtered with listener-specific head-related transfer functions (HRTFs) to
350 sound as coming from either the right or left direction on the interaural axis when
351 presented over earphones. Stimulus duration was 1.2 s with 10 ms onset and offset
352 ramps of raised-cosine shape. Inter-stimulus intervals lasted 500 ms. Trials were ran-
353 domized throughout the experiment and balanced over blocks, with 50% looming and
354 50% receding sounds. Those were created by either modifying the intensity or the
355 spectral shape of a sound and crossfading between the final simulated sound source
356 positions (from far to near for the looming, and near to far for the receding condition).
357 The intensity manipulation resulted in a sound appearing to recede while its intensity
358 decreased with time. We presented sounds crossfading between $+2.5$ dB (near position)
359 and -2.5 dB (far position) to induce looming and receding sensations (e.g., 11). For
360 changes in spectral shape, we manipulated the individually recorded HRTFs follow-
361 ing the procedure introduced in [12]. The different cue types were applied block-wise.
362 Apart from movement and spatial cue type, we block-wise manipulated whether the
363 sound source was presented from the left or the right side of the listener. The exper-
364 iment consisted of two parts: an initial passive listening part, during which subjects
365 were watching a silent subtitled movie while being exposed to 600 trials and a sub-
366 sequent active part, in which subjects performed a spatial discrimination task on the
367 presented sounds.

368 Stimuli and experimental procedures were programmed in MATLAB (R2018b,
369 Mathworks, Natick, Massachusetts) with the use of the Auditory Modeling Tool-
370 box [55] and Psychtoolbox [56].

371 4.3 Recordings and processing

372 EEG recordings were done with a 128-channel system (actiCAP with actiCHamp;
373 Brain Products GmbH, Gilching, Germany) at a sampling rate of 1 kHz. Noisy
374 channels were being noted during the recordings. All saved EEG data were visually

375 inspected to detect potential additional noisy channels, which were then spherically
376 interpolated. Inspected data were bandpass-filtered between 0.5 – 100 Hz (Kaiser win-
377 dow, $\beta = 7.2$, $n = 462$) and epoched ($[-200, 1500]$ ms) relative to stimulus onset. We
378 applied hard thresholds at -200 and $800 \mu V$ to detect and inspect extremely noisy
379 trials. An additional check for the identification of additional bad channels was imple-
380 mented, via an automatic channel rejection step; detected channels would then be
381 visually inspected and interpolated. No additional noisy channels were detected for
382 any of the subjects at this step. Independent component analysis (ICA) was followed
383 by a manual artifact inspection and rejection of oculomotor artifacts (removal of up
384 to 3 components per subject). The cleaned data were thereafter re-referenced to their
385 average. Within each subject, trials were equalized to match the condition with the
386 minimum amount within the subject after trial rejection. This was achieved within
387 each subject by pseudo-selection aiming to maintain an equal distribution across the
388 recordings. This resulted in an average of 569 clean trials ($SD = 27.7$) per subject. All
389 preprocessing steps were undertaken on the EEGLAB free software (57) in MATLAB
390 (R2018b, Mathworks, Natick, Massachusetts).

391 Twenty-five (25) of 28 participants had their individual anatomical structures and
392 electrode positions recorded. Anatomical magnetic resonance images (MRIs) were seg-
393 mented via Freesurfer [58] and used to create a study protocol on Brainstorm [59].
394 For the remaining 3 subjects, the default anatomical models of Brainstorm were used
395 (ICBM152 brain template); individual MRIs could not be recorded due to incompati-
396 bilities with the scanner (suspicion of metallic parts in the body). Anatomical models
397 were created via OpenMEEG [60] with following parameters: boundary element model
398 (BEM) surfaces had 1922 vertices per layer for scalp, outer skull and inner skull, and
399 a skull thickness of 4 mm. The relative conductivity was set to 0.0125 for the outer
400 skull and to 1 for the remaining layers. Manual co-registration between head model
401 and individual electrode locations was done for each subject individually. Recorded
402 activity was inferred to the cortical surface via dynamic statistical parametric map-
403 ping (dSPM) [61]. The noise covariance was calculated from a 200 ms pre-stimulus
404 interval. Dipole orientations were considered constrained to the surface and source
405 signals were reconstructed at 15000 vertices describing the pial surface. Following pre-
406 vious literature [13, 23], cortical mapping was done according to the Desikan-Killiany
407 parcellation [32]. We extracted all ROI time series from the 68 areas of the atlas, as
408 defined in Brainstorm. Based on the evoked time courses at the level of the transverse
409 temporal gyrus, taken from [10], a time window of 300 ms post-change was defined as
410 the time window of interest.

411 4.4 Connectivity calculations

412 Our NDTE connectivity analyses, being based on Granger causality, assume station-
413 ary signals as input. In order to fulfill this stationarity requirement, we tested our
414 time courses for this property. Following the recommendations of Brainstorm [59],
415 each time-series was subjected to both the Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin test
416 (KPSS) for trend-stationarity and the unit root Augmented Dickey Fuller test (ADF),

417 as implemented in MATLAB 2018b (`kpsstest`, `adftest`; Mathworks, Natick, Mas-
418 sachusetts). As broadband EEG signals are highly non-stationary, stationarity of all
419 signals was restored through double differencing of the individual time-series [24].

420 4.4.1 INSIDEOUT

421 The INSIDEOUT framework [29] is based on the time-shifted correlation matrices
422 between each considered time series and its time-reversed version, thereby echoing the
423 asymmetry in temporal processing. The arrow of time captures the interaction with
424 the environment: a system that remains unperturbed by external factors maintains its
425 intrinsic equilibrium and is therefore characterised by high reversibility. Higher dissim-
426 ilarity of the forward and reverse time series corresponds to higher non-reversibility,
427 and thereby higher impact of the external environment on the intrinsic dynamics.

428 Reversed time series were obtained by inverting the original ones in time, for
429 each condition, subject, ROI and trial. Correlations between time series were cal-
430 culated through the MATLAB function `corr`, for both the forward as well as the
431 reverse time-shifted correlations. If $FS_{forward}(T)$ and $FS_{reversal}(T)$, expressed as
432 mutual information based on the time-shifted correlations, are the matrices repre-
433 senting the causal dependencies of the system, here across ROIs, the non-reversibility
434 (non-equilibrium) per condition is calculated as

$$NR = \|FS_{forward}(T) - FS_{reversal}(T)\|_2 \quad (1)$$

435 and is hence equal to the mean of the absolute squared difference between the for-
436 ward and reversed matrices (cf. [29] for detailed calculations). Time-shift T is defined
437 as the decay to the first minimum of the autocorrelation function across conditions
438 and subjects [29, 30].

439 Statistical differences among the conditions were assessed based on ANOVA with
440 the factors of attention, cue type and motion direction.

441 4.4.2 NDTE

442 The data used in the assessment of NDTE were based on the extracted looming bias
443 on a single trial basis for each ROI. All subsequent calculations were done following the
444 pipeline described by Deco et al. [30]. In it, the statistical causal interaction between
445 any two ROIs is assessed based on the measure of mutual information. Considering X
446 and Y to denote the activity of the source and target ROIs, respectively, the mutual
447 information is calculated as

$$I(Y_{i+1}; X^i | Y^i) = H(Y_{i+1} | Y^i) - H(Y_{i+1} | X^i, Y^i) \quad (2)$$

448 where $I(Y_{i+1}; X^i | Y^i)$ corresponds to the degree of statistical dependence between
449 the source's past $X^i = [X_i, X_{i-1}, \dots, X_{i-(T-1)}]$ and the target's immediate future
450 Y_{i+1} [30]. $H(Y_{i+1} | Y^i)$ and $H(Y_{i+1} | X^i, Y^i)$ express the respective conditional entropies,
451 that are, in the implemented framework, estimated based on covariance matrices [62].
452 The time interval defined by T stems from the autocorrelation of the time series.
453 Following Deco et al. [30], the corresponding order ("maximum lag") was calculated

454 based on the decay to the first minimum of the autocorrelation function across con-
 455 ditions and subjects; in our case $T = 6$. In order to be able to compare and combine
 456 NDTE values across ROI pairs, calculated connectivity values were normalised as

$$F_{XY} = I(Y_{i+1}; X^i | Y^i) / I(Y_{i+1}; X^i, Y^i) \quad (3)$$

457 namely by the total mutual information the past of both source X and target Y
 458 hold about the future of target Y . This is the quantity considered throughout our
 459 calculations and yields, for each trial, an NDTE matrix with the bidirectional flow
 460 among all 68 ROIs of the parcellation.

461 As the whole cortical surface and all bidirectional connections therein are consid-
 462 ered, the high amount of comparisons is susceptible to spurious correlation outcomes.
 463 For that reason, circular-shift surrogate data were generated for each considered ROI
 464 pair. P-values for each connection were assessed based on the distribution of connec-
 465 tivity data resulting from 100 independent circular time-shifted surrogate iterations.
 466 Statistical significance of connections between ROIs was calculated through p-value
 467 aggregation done by Stouffer’s method [63] in two steps; initially at a subject level
 468 with a within-condition aggregation across trials of a subject, and subsequently at a
 469 group level, with aggregation across all subjects of a condition. For each considered
 470 condition, the multiple comparison correction was performed by the false discovery
 471 rate method (FDR) [64]. The corrected values were then used as a binary ”signifi-
 472 cance mask”, to select the significant connections per condition. The resulting data
 473 comprised one NDTE matrix of dimensions ROI x ROI per condition, containing the
 474 averaged connectivity values for the ROI pairs that survived the significance evalua-
 475 tions. Inflow ROIs are positioned along the first, while outflow ROIs along the second
 476 dimension of the NDTE matrix, termed C_{All} .

477 For each ROI i of C_{All} , the total inflow from all remaining ROIs j of the cortical
 478 parcellation is defined as the sum of connectivity across all columns of the matrix:
 479 $G_{in}(i) = \sum_j C_{All_{i,j}}$. The respective holds for the total outflow per ROI j : $G_{out}(j) =$
 480 $\sum_i C_{All_{i,j}}$.

481 The major hubs are identified through an iterative process. After sorting the regions
 482 based on their inflow (for inflow hubs) or outflow (for outflow hubs), an algorithm
 483 searches for the largest subset of ROIs k that have a value G_{hub} significantly larger than
 484 any other set, comprising the same amount of regions. The significance value of each
 485 $G_{hub}(k)$ is assessed via 1000 Monte Carlo simulations, where for each permutation,
 486 one member of the current subset k is substituted with any of the remaining ones from
 487 the parcellation, and the $G_{hub}(k)$ is calculated anew. The in- and outflow values are
 488 calculated as

$$G_{hub}(k) = \sum_k C_{All_k} + a * \sum_k G_{in}(k) - b * \sum_k G_{out}(k) \quad (4)$$

489 where $\sum_k C_{All_k}$ is the total flow within the considered subset, $\sum_k G_{in}(k)$ repre-
 490 sents the total inflow to the considered subset from all ROIs of the parcellation and
 491 $\sum_k G_{out}(k)$ the total outflow of the subset to the rest of the ROIs. For the inflow hubs
 492 the multipliers are $[a = 1; b = 1]$ and for the outflow hubs $[a = -1; b = -1]$.

493 By progressively adding one ROI ("node" in [30]) to the considered subset ($k =$
494 $[i_1, \dots, i_l]$, where l is the whole set of ROIs), the major hubs emerge as the set for which
495 the in- or outflow is still within significance limits (i.e., smaller than 0.05).

496 **Data availability.** Data are available under <https://osf.io/4gdy2/>.

497 **Code availability.** Analysis scripts are available and will be updated under
498 <https://osf.io/4gdy2/>. Codes for the NDTE framework [30] are available under
499 <https://github.com/decolab/nhb-ndte>.

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510 and offered consultation throughout the implementations. K.I., R.Baru, R.Baum and
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