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## Unveiling the relation between aesthetic experiences and attention through a cross-experiment validation of their processing biomarkers

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## Unveiling the relation between aesthetic experiences and attention through a cross-experiment validation of their processing biomarkers

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## 1 **Author contributions**

2 **PB:** Conceptualization; Data curation; Formal analysis; Investigation; Methodology; Writing-  
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13 Writing-review and editing.

## 15 **Competing interests statement**

16 The authors declare no competing interests.

## 18 **Classification**

19 Cognitive Neuroscience, Psychology.

## 21 **Keywords**

22 *Neuroaesthetics; Aesthetic attitude; Attention; Event Related Potential (ERP); Machine learning*

## 24 **Data availability statement**

25 Raw data collected in the pilot study and in Experiment 1 and 2 are fully available at these links  
26 (Mendeley: [https://data.mendeley.com/preview/rp7r2xhhp9?a=1fb49ba5-88c0-4f6f-8539-](https://data.mendeley.com/preview/rp7r2xhhp9?a=1fb49ba5-88c0-4f6f-8539-4c3f781511ed)  
27 [4c3f781511ed](https://data.mendeley.com/preview/rp7r2xhhp9?a=1fb49ba5-88c0-4f6f-8539-4c3f781511ed); OSF: <https://osf.io/uzh8r/>). All codes employed to analyse pilot and Experiment  
28 1 and 2 data are available for reviewers at these links (Mendeley:

1 <https://data.mendeley.com/preview/rp7r2xhhp9?a=1fb49ba5-88c0-4f6f-8539-4c3f781511ed>;  
2 OSF: <https://osf.io/uzh8r/>). The approved protocol for Stage 1 is available at this link (OSF,  
3 <https://osf.io/uzh8r/>).

#### 4 **Abstract**

5 A centuries-old tradition encompassing philosophy, psychology and artistic practice describes  
6 aesthetic experiences as characterised by a special state of heightened attention towards  
7 external stimuli (i.e., an “aesthetic attitude”). In recent years, this view has motivated wide-  
8 ranging claims about the nature of our aesthetic encounters and the cognitive benefits of  
9 exposure to art. Despite sustained efforts from a growing stream of interdisciplinary research,  
10 however, it is still unclear whether aesthetic experiences can be systematically linked to  
11 observable attentional enhancements. In this study we address this long-standing question  
12 using electroencephalography and advanced machine learning techniques. We performed a  
13 series of EEG experiments measuring brain activity elicited by synthetic and natural images  
14 during an aesthetic (beauty judgements) and a pragmatic (symmetry judgements) task. Visual-  
15 evoked potentials and neural oscillations were used to assess whether the aesthetic tasks  
16 induce attentional enhancements. In line with our hypotheses, the power of alpha and beta  
17 pre-stimulus oscillations significantly decreased in the aesthetic vs pragmatic task.  
18 Furthermore, larger Late Positive Potential and N170 (the latter for natural images only) were  
19 found in the aesthetic vs pragmatic task. Accordingly, machine learning analyses demonstrated  
20 that pre-stimulus neural oscillations and N170 were systematically able to predict the type of  
21 task. Overall, our results highlight the presence of a perceptual processing enhancement and a  
22 heightened state of attention in aesthetic contexts. The upshot is a clearer understanding of the  
23 dynamics and neural underpinnings of our aesthetic experiences.

24

25

## 1 **Significance statement**

2 Our study addresses a question that has haunted scholars for centuries: Do experiences of  
3 beauty make us more focused on the world around us? By looking at the neural correlates of  
4 attention in an aesthetic vs a pragmatic task (judging the beauty vs the symmetry of visual  
5 stimuli), we detected neural indexes of amplified attention in the former. Through machine  
6 learning, we demonstrated that the tasks were distinguishable based on EEG features,  
7 corroborating our results. By revealing a systematic attentional enhancement in aesthetic tasks,  
8 our findings might have a transformative impact on all contexts in which individuals could  
9 benefit from better employment of their attentional resources, such as learning, rehabilitation,  
10 psychotherapy, and the promotion of adaptation in times of distress.

## 12 **Introduction**

13 A centuries-old tradition encompassing philosophy, psychology and artistic practice describes  
14 our experiences of beauty in art and nature as characterised by a special state of heightened  
15 attention towards external stimuli (i.e., an “aesthetic attitude”, as some have called it)<sup>1</sup>. In  
16 philosophy, this idea is common currency at least since Kant, who describes judgements of  
17 taste as involving the careful engagement with the formal features of an object, with the sole  
18 purpose of prolonging its contemplation<sup>2-4</sup>. In line with this view, a recent strand of research  
19 suggests that aesthetic experiences demand high levels of attentional and working memory  
20 capacities, providing further support for the link between aesthetic appreciation and a  
21 heightened deployment of our attentional resources<sup>5,6</sup>. Previous neuroimaging studies have  
22 also indicated that aesthetic appreciation often corresponds to an increased activity along the  
23 neural perceptual hierarchy<sup>7-10</sup> similar to that underlying exogenous and endogenous  
24 attentional modulations<sup>9-11</sup>. Other neurophysiological studies found a magnification of well-  
25 established indexes of attentional amplification (i.e., the alpha event-related desynchronization  
26 – alpha ERD – and the early waves of the visual-evoked potentials – VEPs)<sup>11,12</sup> in subjects  
27 contemplating more appreciated abstract images<sup>7</sup>.

1 So far, however, the attentional enhancement found in response to aesthetically appreciated  
2 stimuli has mainly been regarded as a bottom-up, transient effect produced by the features of  
3 the stimulus. There are however reasons to think that the same attentional enhancement can  
4 be prompted by top-down, task-related modulations<sup>13</sup>. In other words, the anticipation of  
5 having an aesthetic experience might have the same effects on our attention as having an  
6 aesthetic experience itself. Consistently with this latter hypothesis, in a series of fMRI studies,  
7 greater activations in visual areas were found when the same pictures were presented as  
8 artworks than when they were not<sup>13</sup>. Moreover, a series of EEG studies<sup>14–16</sup> found a difference  
9 in the late components of the ERP when participants were asked to make aesthetic  
10 (beautiful/not-beautiful) as opposed to descriptive (symmetric/not-symmetric) judgements  
11 about a set of geometric shapes, suggesting that there might be a functional dissociation of the  
12 neural processes involved in the two kinds of judgements (see also<sup>17</sup> for an fMRI study  
13 pointing in a similar direction). Differences in EEG responses (coinciding with the latency of the  
14 Late Positive Potential) were also found in a study where the subjects were asked to evaluate  
15 their liking as opposed to the correctness of the last chord of a sequence<sup>18</sup>. Importantly,  
16 however, while there are several studies examining whether aesthetic judgements might be  
17 underpinned by specific neural processes distinct from those involved in descriptive  
18 judgements, experimental studies designed to test whether aesthetic/evaluative tasks can  
19 systematically induce observable attentional enhancements are still lacking.

20 The present research fills this gap by comparing different electrophysiological indexes of  
21 attention, both pre-and post-stimulus and unfolding at different timescales, during an aesthetic  
22 vs a pragmatic evaluation task (see Figure 1). In Experiment 1, we asked participants to evaluate  
23 either the beauty (aesthetic task) or the symmetry (pragmatic task) of 180 abstract visual  
24 stimuli<sup>10</sup> containing different profiles of spectral frequency. In Experiment 2, the same  
25 participants evaluated the beauty or symmetry of 180 photos of real landscapes. Using  
26 synthetic and natural images, we aimed to test the generalizability of findings across different  
27 stimuli. During the task, we registered the EEG signal to compute pre-stimulus and post-  
28 stimulus attention-related indexes. More specifically, we analysed pre-stimulus alpha  
29 oscillations, post-stimulus alpha ERD and the early components of the VEP (expressed in the

1 first 200 ms following stimulus onset) to assess the presence of endogenous attentional  
2 processes associated with the aesthetic evaluation.

3 In this respect, we made two hypotheses (see Figure 2B and Table 1). If we could induce an  
4 “aesthetic attitude” (i.e., a top-down, tonic attentional enhancement during the aesthetic task  
5 as compared to the pragmatic task), we expected to observe in both experiments decreased  
6 pre-stimulus inhibitory alpha power and increased post-stimulus alpha ERD and VEP early  
7 components in the aesthetic task compared to the pragmatic one (Hypothesis 1). Furthermore,  
8 to validate and generalize findings, we used all relevant electrophysiological measures obtained  
9 in Experiment 1 (i.e., employing synthetic images), as biomarkers to classify whether  
10 participants were judging the beauty or the symmetry of natural images in Experiment 2. We  
11 hypothesized (Hypothesis 2) that the task (aesthetic vs pragmatic) performed on both natural  
12 and synthetic images could be distinguished based on electrophysiological signals both with  
13 high sensitivity and specificity.

14

## 15 **Methods**

### 16 **Ethics information, sampling plan and pilot data**

17 36 subjects with normal or corrected to normal vision participated in the study. Participants  
18 performed both Experiment 1 and 2 in two separate sessions (aesthetic and pragmatic) and in a  
19 randomized order, counterbalanced across participants. All participants gave their written  
20 informed consent to participate in the study, which complied with the guidelines required by  
21 the Declaration of Helsinki (2006) and was approved by the University ethics committee (Prot.  
22 n. 0433380 del 21/07/2023; University of Turin, Italy). The number of participants was  
23 estimated via simulations. We used the procedure described in Wang et al.<sup>19</sup> to simulate a  
24 dataset with two conditions (aesthetic and pragmatic) of VEP data, which are known to provide  
25 good SNR. First, based on the effects observed on the 5 subjects of a pilot study identical to  
26 Experiment 1, we selected 32 electrodes of interest at posterior locations (see section 2.1 of the  
27 Supplementary Information, from now on SI). For the simulation, we chose a time window

1 within the first 0.2s of the VEPs as it comprised both C1 and N170 waves <sup>10</sup>. The amplitude  
2 values at the electrodes of interest for the two conditions were sampled from a bivariate  
3 normal distribution (within-subject design) where mean and standard deviation were chosen  
4 based on the results of the five participants who performed the pilot study, (mean voltage  
5 aesthetic = 0.87; mean voltage pragmatic= 1.41; std aesthetic = 0.79; std pragmatic = 0.94). As  
6 hypothesized, participants collected in the pilot study showed a significant magnification of the  
7 early and middle-latency components of the VEP response (including C1 and N170 components)  
8 during the aesthetic compared to the pragmatic evaluation task. We then ran a cluster-based  
9 permutation on simulated datasets to test whether any statistical cluster (t-values) exhibited a  
10 significant difference between the two conditions with an alpha level of 0.05 (see section 2.2 of  
11 the SI for more details). The simulation results showed that to obtain power above 0.80 a  
12 sample size of N= 36 was required. The original algorithm used to perform such analyses can be  
13 downloaded from this link: <https://osf.io/rmqhc/files/osfstorage>.

14 If, during data collection, technical problems occurred or registration was interrupted for any  
15 reason, we planned to discard the affected participants, and replace them with others to meet  
16 the required sample size (N = 36). Furthermore, a signal-to-noise ratio analysis was performed  
17 to discard noisy data. Specifically, we planned to exclude a participant's dataset if more than  
18 30% of the epochs in one condition were marked for rejection (see the § Analysis Plan for  
19 details on the procedure). Details on EEG data analysis (including all the indications about  
20 artefact rejection) are included in the § Analysis Plan and SI. During the piloting phase, no  
21 participant was discarded.

## 22 **Stimuli**

23 In Experiment 1 we employed 180 2D black and white random noise images, with different  
24 profiles of spectral frequency, created with the IDL software (Harris Geospatial Inc. USA). All  
25 stimuli were generated with the same resolution (300 dpi), dimension (960x540), luminance  
26 and contrast (see also section 1.2 of the SI). In Figure 2A we show some examples of  
27 representative stimuli.  
28

1 In Experiment 2 we employed 180 2D black and white photographs of natural landscapes (e.g.  
2 mountains, seashores). We chose images of natural landscapes for their ecological validity and  
3 because with this kind of stimuli judgements of symmetry and aesthetic appreciation seem to  
4 diverge more than with other stimulus categories<sup>20</sup>. We included a total of 180 stimuli  
5 homogenized for color spectrum (black and white), dimension, resolution, contrast and light  
6 reflection (see section 1.2 of the SI). Since some studies have shown that curved visual features  
7 generate a different response in the visual cortex compared to rectilinear stimuli<sup>21</sup> (something  
8 relevant to our examination of VEPs), stimuli in both sets were controlled for curvilinearity with  
9 the MLV Toolbox<sup>22</sup> (see SI for more details).

10 In Figure 2A we show five examples (2 from Experiment 1 and 3 from Experiment 2) of  
11 representative stimuli from the adjusted image set. Stimuli are available on Mendeley [doi:  
12 10.17632/p4gp7xdmm7.1].

13

#### 14 **Experimental procedures**

15 The setup and the procedures were identical for Experiments 1 and 2 and are represented in  
16 Figure 2B (please refer to sections 1.1 and 1.3 of the SI for further details on the apparatus).  
17 Participants sat at a table in a fixed position and were asked to look at and evaluate the  
18 abstract images (90 images, Experiment 1) or photographs (90 images, Experiment 2) presented  
19 on the screen while EEG data were recorded. Participants were presented with 2 different  
20 blocks (duration 40 minutes) for aesthetic and pragmatic evaluation and both the order of  
21 presentation of Experiment (synthetic and natural images) and Task (aesthetic and pragmatic  
22 evaluation) were randomized across participants. Visual stimuli were presented in a random  
23 order (stimulus duration 500 ms<sup>23</sup>), preceded by a cue (cue duration 500 ms<sup>23</sup>), preparing for  
24 the required evaluation. The experiment included a cue-stimulus delay period of 1 s<sup>23</sup>. A  
25 second delay period of 2 s followed the stimulus (see Figure 2B). A question mark then  
26 appeared on the blank screen, indicating to subjects that they should evaluate the beauty  
27 (during the aesthetic evaluation) or the symmetry (during the pragmatic evaluation) of the  
28 presented images on a 1 to 9 Likert scale<sup>10,24</sup> by pressing the corresponding numerical key on  
29 the computer keyboard. The evaluation scale ranged from 1 ('I completely dislike it' or 'it was

1 completely asymmetric') to 9 ('I like it very much' or 'it was very symmetric'). As soon as they  
2 responded, the next trial started.

3

## 4 **Analysis plan**

### 5 **Electrophysiological recordings and preprocessing**

6 EEG activity was recorded using 64 Ag-AgCl electrodes placed on the scalp of the participant  
7 according to the International 10-20 system and on-line referenced to FPz. Electrode  
8 impedances were kept below 5 k $\Omega$ . The electrooculogram (EOG) was recorded from two surface  
9 electrodes placed over the right below the lower eyelid and lateral to the outer canthus of the  
10 right eye. Signals were recorded and digitized by using a 64-channel EEG system BrainAmp DC  
11 (Brain Products Italia srl, Putignano, IT) with a sampling rate of 1000 Hz.

12

### 13 **Processing pipeline and analysis strategy**

14 The analysis was performed by implementing a previously validated pre-processing pipeline  
15 <sup>25,26</sup>. Raw EEG data were pre-processed with EEGLAB <sup>27</sup> (see section 3.1 of the SI). To detect  
16 stereotypical artifacts (eye movements, blinks, and heartbeat), we ran independent component  
17 analysis (ICA) <sup>28</sup> based on the extended Infomax <sup>29,30</sup>. Before computing ICA, data were lowpass  
18 filtered with a cut-off frequency of 40Hz (windowed sinc FIR filter, filter order 50),  
19 downsampled to 250Hz, and high pass filtered at 1Hz (windowed sinc FIR filter, filter order  
20 500)<sup>31</sup>. ICA weights were then attributed to the original raw EEG (continuous and unfiltered  
21 signal with original sampling rate). The ICA procedure is fully described in the SI (section 3.2).  
22 The cleaned signal was lowpass filtered at 40 Hz (windowed sinc FIR filter, filter order 50), and  
23 downsampled to 250 Hz to reduce further computational time. A high pass filter of 0.1 Hz  
24 (windowed sinc FIR filter, filter order 5000) was applied to remove DC offset and slow drifts. In  
25 order to attenuate the 50Hz line noise artifact we used the Zapline-plus plugin <sup>32,33</sup>. Finally,  
26 noisy channels were interpolated using an automatic custom algorithm by Lalor (2009) <sup>34</sup> and  
27 Diliberto (2015; <https://cnsp-workshop.github.io/website>). Bad channels were rejected via  
28 spherical interpolation based on high or low threshold criteria; that is, a channel was marked

1 for rejection when its standard deviation was higher than three or lower than six times the  
2 mean standard deviation across all channels.

3 The preprocessed EEG data were then divided into epochs of 3.5 s (total duration), including 1 s  
4 pre-cue interval, 500 ms cue presentation, 1 s cue-stimulus interval and 1 s post-stimulus  
5 interval. Epochs having a joint probability of activity greater than three standard deviations  
6 were automatically rejected. If for one experiment more than 30% of epochs were rejected, the  
7 data for that participant were excluded from further analysis.

8 Subsequently, electrophysiological data were analysed using the FieldTrip toolbox  
9 (<http://fieldtriptoolbox.org>)<sup>35</sup> for Matlab (Mathworks, Inc. USA).

10 Two analyses were performed on epoched data (i) by performing a time-frequency  
11 decomposition, and (ii) by calculating the VEPs. VEPs were generated by averaging at the  
12 individual level the activity across trials and applying a baseline correction (-100 to 0ms). To  
13 avoid biasing classification results, the VEPs of each participant in each experiment were  
14 normalized<sup>36</sup>.

15 Time-frequency analyses were conducted per channel using a wavelet transform, known to  
16 represent a compromise between time and frequency resolution<sup>37</sup>: the procedure is fully  
17 described in the SI (section 3.3). The wavelet transform was conducted on an interval from -1 to  
18 2.5 sec after stimulus onset, in time steps of 20 ms. The data transformation was performed  
19 before averaging across trials, separately for each frequency band. The total power of each  
20 frequency band represents both the phase-locked and the non-phase-locked signal with respect  
21 to the event. The resulting power was baseline corrected to obtain the relative signal change  
22 ( $P_{corr}$ ) which constituted the input of subsequent group-analyses. The pre-stimulus period  
23 between -300 to -200 ms was used as a baseline for all spectral analyses. This baseline avoids  
24 inclusions of slow frequency leakage occurring immediately before the stimulus onset (please  
25 refer to section 3.4 of the SI for further information).

26

27

## 1 **Statistical analyses**

2 Each of the data analyses described below was repeated for Experiment 1 and 2. Analyses were  
3 focused on exploring VEPs and time-frequency modulation as a function of the different  
4 evaluation tasks (aesthetic vs. pragmatic).

5 **Statistical analyses in the time-frequency domain.** Oscillatory fingerprints<sup>38</sup> of aesthetic vs.  
6 pragmatic evaluations were separately assessed for the (i) pre- and (ii) post-stimulus onset  
7 period with the same statistical approach. To investigate the possible effects of the evaluation  
8 task (aesthetic vs. pragmatic) separately on pre (from -1s to 0) and post-stimulus (from 0 to 1s)  
9 oscillations, we employed a cluster-based permutation approach that accounts for the multiple  
10 comparison problem<sup>39</sup>. The effect at the sample level was quantified by means of two-tailed t-  
11 tests for dependent samples comparing the time-frequency oscillation between conditions  
12 (aesthetic and pragmatic) in a wide spectrum (2-40 Hz) and at each time point and channel  
13 (n=62). Further details on the statistical approach (i.e., the two-tailed t-test corrected by  
14 cluster-based permutations) are included in the SI (section 3.5). We hypothesized that aesthetic  
15 and pragmatic evaluations affected alpha oscillations in both the pre-stimulus onset period and  
16 the post-stimulus onset period.

17 **Statistical analyses in the time domain.** To investigate the effects of the evaluation task  
18 (aesthetic vs. pragmatic) on the magnitude in time of the brain response, first, we extracted  
19 two average waveforms (VEPs) for each participant, one corresponding to the aesthetic  
20 judgements and the other to the symmetry ones. Group-level statistics and correction for  
21 multiple comparisons were performed via cluster-based permutation testing<sup>39</sup>, analogously to  
22 the time-frequency analyses described above. Specifically, differences between conditions  
23 (aesthetic vs. symmetric) in the time domain were quantified by means of two-tailed t-tests for  
24 dependent samples. We compared the baseline corrected evoked response between tasks  
25 (aesthetic and pragmatic) at all latencies (from 0 to 2.5s) and channels (n=62). Clusters were  
26 identified based on temporal and spatial proximity, and the algorithm selected the t-values  
27 exceeding a specified threshold (cluster alpha= 0.05), as explained above in the previous section  
28 and the SI (section 3.6).

## 1 **Machine learning approach**

2 In the binary classification problem, our goal was to employ the features of alpha power  
3 measured pre and post stimulus onset (pre-stimulus inhibitory alpha power and post-stimulus  
4 alpha ERD) and the VEP recorded in the first 200 ms post stimulus onset (including the C1 and  
5 the N170) to predict the pragmatic vs. aesthetic nature of the task. The classification was  
6 performed first within Experiment 1 and then using the data of Experiment 1 as the training set  
7 and the data of Experiment 2 as the test set. The precise mathematical model that we used in  
8 the machine learning analysis is fully described in the SI (section 4).

9

10

## 11 **Results**

12 All participants (N=36) recruited in the study were included in the group level analysis. As  
13 descriptive analyses of the images employed, we investigated the aesthetic judgements  
14 provided during the aesthetic task. The statistical comparison between the average aesthetic  
15 appreciation of synthetic (mean = 4.53; s.d. = 1.155) and natural (mean = 5.47; s.d. = 0.900)  
16 images revealed that they differed significantly. More specifically, natural images showed  
17 significantly higher appreciation than synthetic ones (paired-sample t-test results: mean = -  
18 1.10; s.d. = 0.179;  $t_{35} = -6.16$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ; Cohen's  $d_z = 1$ ). With the aim of exploring possible  
19 determinants of participants' aesthetic judgements beside other low-level statistical features  
20 (such as contrast and luminosity, which were counterbalanced across blocks and conditions -  
21 see Methods and Stimuli), through Mid-level Vision ToolBox <sup>22</sup>, we quantified the curvature  
22 value of each image, since image curvature has often been associated with image beauty <sup>40</sup>. In  
23 the present study too, we found a significant relation between natural (but not synthetic)  
24 images and curvilinearity in the aesthetic task (for further details on these descriptive analyses,  
25 please refer to the SI).

26

27

## 1 **Testing Hypothesis 1: Results in the time-frequency domain**

2 The time-frequency transformation of the neural signal obtained in both tasks (aesthetic and  
3 pragmatic) within each experiment revealed the expected frequency-power spectrograms as a  
4 function of time, expressed through a logarithmic distribution. Figures 4A and 4D show the  
5 differences in average power spectrum between the aesthetic and the pragmatic task,  
6 respectively in Experiment 1 and 2, in the pre-stimulus comparison (i). Figures 4B and 4E  
7 instead present the spectrograms of the same contrast (aesthetic vs pragmatic task in both  
8 Experiment 1 and 2) estimating the percent change in post-stimulus neural oscillation (ER%)  
9 relative to the baseline (-0.3 to -0.2 s before stimulus onset). ER% changes constituted the  
10 input for subsequent post-stimulus analyses (ii).

11 **Experiment 1 (synthetic images).** (i) The cluster-based statistical comparison of the pre-  
12 stimulus power spectrum (from -1 to 0 s) displayed a significant decrease in alpha and beta  
13 frequency power in the aesthetic task compared to the pragmatic task (cluster  $p = 0.03$ ; Figure  
14 4C). More specifically, this analysis (aesthetic vs pragmatic task) revealed a significant negative  
15 cluster indicating a significant decrease of alpha power (between 8 and 11 Hz), in a time  
16 window between -0.7 and -0.5 s over a cluster of centro-parietal channels (P3, Pz, P1, p2, CP3,  
17 CP1, CPz, C1, FC5, P4). Additionally, the statistical comparison revealed a significant decrease of  
18 beta power (between 18 and 35 Hz) in two different time windows: the first between -0.8 and -  
19 0.6 s and the second between -0.5 and -0.3 s, over a cluster of centro-occipital channel (P3, P7,  
20 CP1, CP5, P1, CP3, P5, O1, PO3, PO7, FC5, C5, C1, TP9, Oz).

21 However, when restricting the statistical comparison to the alpha frequency band (8-12 Hz)  
22 only, the resulting negative cluster did not reach statistical significance ( $p = 0.065$ ).

23 (ii) The cluster-based comparison of the post-stimulus power spectrum (from 0 to 1 s) between  
24 aesthetic and pragmatic evaluation tasks revealed no significant difference (negative cluster,  $p$   
25 = 0.11). The statistical comparison on the alpha frequency band only (8-12 Hz) did not reveal  
26 any significant cluster (negative cluster,  $p = 0.3$ ).

1 **Experiment 2 (natural images).** (i) The statistical comparison of the pre-stimulus power  
2 spectrum (from -1 to 0 s) displayed a significant decrease in alpha and beta power in the  
3 aesthetic vs pragmatic task (cluster  $p = 0.04$ ; Figure 4F). The analysis (aesthetic vs pragmatic)  
4 revealed a significant decrease of alpha power (between 10 and 12 Hz), in a time window  
5 between -0.8 and -0.2 s, within a large cluster of centro-parietal channels (O1, O2, Iz, Oz, PO4,  
6 P4, P2, CP3, C3, C5, FC5, F5, TP9, P7, PO5, P5). Furthermore, the same comparison (aesthetic vs  
7 pragmatic) also revealed a significant decrease of beta power (between 25 and 35 Hz), in a time  
8 window comprised between -0.8 and -0.4 s over a cluster of parieto-occipital channels (P3, P4,  
9 Pz, P1, p2, PO3, PO4, POz, Oz, O2, C3, Cz, C1, P5, CP1, CP3, CP2).

10 The statistical comparison restricted to the alpha frequency band (8-12 Hz) revealed a  
11 significant negative cluster ( $p = 0.03$ ) involving parieto-occipital channels (C3, P3, P4, O1, O2,  
12 F7, T7, P7, Pz, Iz, FC1, CP1, CP2, FC5, CP5, TP9, P1, P2, CP4, PO3, PO4, F5, C5, P5, AF7, FT7, TP7,  
13 PO7, PO8, CPz, POz, Oz) in a time window between -0.68 and -0.3.

14 (ii) The comparison of the post-stimulus power spectrum (from 0 to 1 s) between aesthetic and  
15 pragmatic evaluation tasks did not reveal any significant cluster (positive cluster,  $p = 0.21$ ). The  
16 comparison restricted to the alpha frequency band (8-12 Hz) also revealed no significant  
17 difference (positive cluster,  $p = 0.06$ ).

18

### 19 **Testing Hypothesis 1: Results in the time domain (VEPs)**

20 The grand average waveforms elicited during the evaluation tasks in both experiments are  
21 shown in Figure 3 and reveal a typical VEP response associated with visual stimulus processing<sup>9</sup>  
22 and evaluation<sup>14,15</sup>. We observed the expected early components within the first 200 ms,  
23 namely the C1 and N170 components<sup>10</sup>, followed by a slow rising positivity, emerging around  
24 0.3 s, and most likely corresponding to the Late Positive Potential (LPP), a component often  
25 associated with evaluation tasks<sup>14,15</sup>.

26 **Experiment 1 (synthetic images).** Point-by-point, group-level analyses over the time window 0 -  
27 1 s revealed a significant positive cluster ( $p = 0.045$ ) extending from 0.472 to 0.712 s post-

1 stimulus onset, indicating more positive neural response during the aesthetic vs pragmatic task.  
2 This cluster was distributed across a broad group of fronto-parietal channels (F3, C3, F7, T7, T8,  
3 P7, Iz, FC5, TP9, TP10, AF3, FC3, PO3, F5, C5, AF7, FT7, TP7, TP8, PO7, PO8, O1, Oz).

4 The cluster-based statistic limited to the first 0.2 s (0 - 0.2 s) did not reveal any significant  
5 differences (negative cluster,  $p = 0.2$ ). Similarly, when directly comparing the peak amplitudes  
6 of the C1 and N170 components across the two evaluation conditions, no significant cluster was  
7 found.

8 **Experiment 2 (natural images).** Point-by-point, group-level analyses over the post-stimulus  
9 time window (0 – 1 s) revealed two different clusters of significance (aesthetic vs pragmatic).  
10 The first cluster of significance (i.e., positive cluster,  $p = 0.03$ ) encompassed a broad scalp  
11 distribution (FP2, F3, F4, P4, O1, O2, T7, T8, P7, P8, Fz, Iz, FC2, CP2, FC5, FC6, CP5, CP6, TP9,  
12 TP10, P2, AF3, FC3, FC4, CP3, CP4, PO3, PO4, C6, P5, P6, TP7, TP8, PO7, PO8, Oz) in a time  
13 window interval between 0.380 and 0.500 s. The second positive cluster ( $p = 0.006$ ) involved a  
14 large number of fronto-central channels (F3, C3, C4, P3, P4, O1, O2, T7, T8, P7, P8, Fz, Iz, FC2,  
15 CP2, FC5, FC6, CP5, CP6, TP9, TP10, P2, AF3, FC3, FC4, CP3, CP4, PO3, PO4, C6, P5, P6, TP7, TP8,  
16 PO7, PO8, Oz) in a time window between 0.596 and 0.980 s.

17 The cluster-based statistic restricted to the 0 - 0.2 s interval did not reveal any significant  
18 differences (negative cluster,  $p = 0.2$ ). When directly comparing the peak amplitudes of the C1  
19 and N170 components across the two evaluation conditions, the point-by-point statistics  
20 revealed two significant clusters, within the time window centred on the peak of the N170  
21 component (0.128 - 0.168 s). The first positive cluster ( $p = 0.01$ ) involved a number of fronto-  
22 parietal channels (Fp1, Fp2, F3, F7, T7, FC5, CP5, TP9, F1, AF3, F5, C5, AF7, FT7, TP7, Fpz) in the  
23 time window between 0.128 and 0.164 s, while the second positive cluster ( $p = 0.03$ ) involved a  
24 cluster of parieto-occipital channel (O1, O2, P8, Iz, TP10, F6, C6, TP8, PO8, Oz) in the same time  
25 window.

26 To sum up, with Hypothesis 1 we expected to observe in both experiments decreased pre-  
27 stimulus inhibitory alpha power and increased post-stimulus alpha ERD and VEP early

1 components in the aesthetic task compared to the pragmatic one. Results on the pre-stimulus  
2 activity fully confirmed our hypothesis, both for Experiment 1 and 2, demonstrating the  
3 presence of a different preparatory activity across tasks. However, we did not find any  
4 difference in the neural oscillatory activity of the post-stimulus. Results on VEPs (0-1 s time  
5 window) revealed a significant difference across the two tasks encompassing the LPP time  
6 window. Significant differences within VEP early components were found for Experiment 2  
7 selectively, within the N170 time window.

8

### 9 **Testing Hypothesis 2: Machine learning approach**

10 To assess whether the aesthetic and pragmatic tasks could be predicted within conditions and  
11 across experiments by the neural activity, we implemented four different analytical approaches  
12 that exploited in different manners information contained across participants, features and  
13 electrodes, and using two different classifiers (linear binary classifier and SVM).

14 (1) First, as described in the supplementary material we employed a linear binary classifier  
15 across participants (using a half-split approach) and across features, to investigate the  
16 possibility of distinguishing between pragmatic and aesthetic judgments separately for each  
17 experimental condition (i.e., synthetic and natural images), as well as across conditions through  
18 cross-decoding (i.e., training on synthetic images and testing on natural ones).

19 More specifically, features were employed in a multivariate classifier, neglecting the spatial  
20 informativeness of the channels. Given the visual nature of the task, we averaged the activity of  
21 evoked and oscillatory neural responses across two posterior channels (O1 and O2), which well  
22 capture visual responses for both ERPs and time-frequency data. For the whole set of the  
23 aforementioned features (i.e., C1, N170, alpha pre-stimulus, and alpha post-stimulus, which  
24 were the average of the activity within the relative time windows), we trained and tested a  
25 linear binary classifier across participants (half the subjects as training and half as test), based  
26 on the data associated with synthetic images coming from Experiment 1, using the procedure  
27 described in the supplementary material, hence including  $|H| = 161051$  candidate classifiers in  
28 the optimization process. For completeness, we repeated the procedure using data associated

1 with natural images coming from Experiment 2. Then, based on the same procedure, we  
2 trained a linear binary classifier using data associated with synthetic images coming from  
3 Experiment 1 for the training set (including data from all subjects in that set), and data  
4 associated with natural images coming from Experiment 2 as test set (including data from all  
5 subjects in that set). For each analysis, to assess the performance of the best classifier on the  
6 test set, we applied again Hoeffding's bound, this time with the empirical risk evaluated on the  
7 test set, and with the Statistical Learning Theory (SLT)-based confidence half-interval  $\varepsilon$   
8 evaluated using  $|H| = 1$ , since only one classifier had to be tested. Finally, for the first two  
9 analyses, the procedure was repeated, exchanging the training and test sets. In this way, it was  
10 possible to estimate the (best-classifier) classification error rate per subject. For the third  
11 (cross-experimental) analysis, this exchange was not needed, being it was already possible to  
12 estimate the (best-classifier) classification error rate per subject. Significance was tested against  
13 chance level (i.e., 50%) using a one-sample, one-tailed t-test ( $n = 36$ , right-tailed).

14 **ML Results.** (1) Starting from the raw data, feature vector normalization was obtained by  
15 dividing each feature vector by its  $l_1$ -norm (i.e., the sum of the absolute values of its  
16 components). For Experiment 1, the size of the training set turned out to be slightly smaller  
17 than 3136, since some low-quality acquisitions (among the 180 trials obtained per subject)  
18 were not included in the dataset. As a consequence, the SLT-based confidence half-interval  $\varepsilon$  in  
19 Hoeffding's bound was recalculated, taking into account the actual training set size, turning out  
20 to be slightly larger than 0.05 or 5% (which is the value reported in the supplementary  
21 material). In the application of Hoeffding's bound, the confidence parameter was chosen as  
22  $\eta = 0.05$ . The results are summarized as follows:

23 a) For Experiment 1, the minimum classification error rate on the training set was 47.4%, with  
24 an SLT-based confidence half-interval  $\varepsilon$  equal to 5.3%. Hence, based on data coming from the  
25 training set, Hoeffding's bound on the classification error rate of the best classifier turned out  
26 to be 52.7%. The classification error rate of the best classifier on the test set was 50.6%,  
27 whereas the associated SLT-based confidence half-interval  $\varepsilon$  was 2.6%. Hence, based on data  
28 coming from the test set, Hoeffding's bound on the classification error rate of the best classifier

1 turned out to be 53.2%. Test-set classification error rates extracted for each participant and  
2 tested against 50% revealed that the classification was not different from chance level.

3 b) For Experiment 2, the minimum classification error rate on the training set was 47.5%, with  
4 an SLT-based confidence half-interval  $\varepsilon$  equal to 5.3%. Hence, based on data coming from the  
5 training set, Hoeffding's bound on the classification error rate of the best classifier turned out  
6 to be 52.8%. The classification error rate of the best classifier on the test set was 47.6%,  
7 whereas the associated SLT-based confidence half-interval  $\varepsilon$  was 2.6%. Hence, based on data  
8 coming from the test set, Hoeffding's bound on the classification error rate of the best classifier  
9 turned out to be 50.2%. As for Experiment 1 test-set classification error rates extracted in each  
10 participant tested against 50% revealed that the classification was not different from chance  
11 level and test-set classification error rates per subjects and tested against 50% revealed that  
12 the classification was not different from chance level.

13 c) For the cross-experimental analysis, the minimum classification error rate on the training set  
14 was 48.3%, with an SLT-based confidence half-interval  $\varepsilon$  equal to 3.7%. Hence, based on data  
15 coming from the training set, Hoeffding's bound on the classification error rate of the best  
16 classifier turned out to be 52.0%. The classification error rate of the best classifier on the test  
17 set was 49.0%, whereas the associated SLT-based confidence half-interval  $\varepsilon$  was 1.8%. Hence,  
18 based on data coming from the test set, Hoeffding's bound on the classification error rate of  
19 the best classifier turned out to be 50.8% and test-set classification error rates per subjects  
20 tested against 50% revealed that the classification was not different from chance level.

21 In sum, results of the first ML approach did not allow to classify pragmatic and aesthetic  
22 judgments once for Experiment 1, 2 and across experiments.

23 **Exploratory ML analysis.** We further assessed whether the machine learning approach would  
24 allow distinguishing the two tasks (aesthetic and pragmatic) by running three additional tests,  
25 starting from the use of all available information, and decrementally exploiting less information  
26 contained in the datasets. This allowed to infer the relative importance of each data dimension.

27 (2) We run a Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier to assess, within each experimental  
28 condition (i.e., synthetic and natural images) and separately for each feature of interest, the

1 capacity to distinguish between pragmatic and aesthetic judgments, across electrodes and  
2 participants, and conditions through cross-decoding (i.e., training on synthetic images and  
3 testing on natural ones). Specifically, for each of the aforementioned features (i.e., C1, N170,  
4 alpha pre-stimulus, and alpha post-stimulus), we trained and tested an SVM classifier across all  
5 EEG channels, separately for synthetic and natural images, participants, and folds (for the cross-  
6 validation).

7 (3) The same approach as in (2) was run at the single participant level but across features.  
8 Specifically, we used all features in a multivariate model (i.e., C1, N170, alpha pre-stimulus, and  
9 alpha post-stimulus; note in the previous approach ML was performed for each feature  
10 independently) and we trained and tested an SVM classifier across all EEG channels, separately  
11 for synthetic and natural images, participants, and folds.

12 (4) Finally, we run a Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier using a half-split approach  
13 (analogously to the first method reported in *Testing Hypothesis 2: Machine learning*  
14 *approach*) and across features after averaging the activity of evoked and oscillatory neural  
15 responses across two posterior channels (O1 and O2).

16 For approaches using single participant data (2 and 3), we employed a 10-fold cross-validation  
17 (with stratified sampling; linear kernel; C hyperparameter - BoxConstraint - optimized during  
18 training via a 50-step grid search). For the cross-decoding procedure (again of 2 and 3), in each  
19 participant, we trained the SVM classifier using all the synthetic images and tested on the  
20 natural ones (linear kernel; C hyperparameter optimized via a 50-step grid search). Data from  
21 62 EEG channels were normalized (z-scoring each channel using mean and standard deviation  
22 estimated only in the training set the data) independently for channel each using mean and  
23 standard deviation estimated only in the training set, trial and used as predictors, while the  
24 target variable was a binary vector encoding pragmatic and aesthetic judgments across trials.  
25 Accuracy and F1-score (i.e., the harmonic mean of precision and recall for the aesthetic class)  
26 were calculated for each participant and condition. Average accuracy, F1-score, and their  
27 standard errors were estimated across all the participants. Significance was tested against  
28 chance level (i.e., 50%) using a one-sample, one-tailed t-test ( $n = 36$ , right-tailed). P-values were

1 corrected for multiple comparisons across features and experimental conditions using the  
2 Bonferroni method.

3 Overall, the different ML approaches (1-4) allowed to infer the role of the shared  
4 informativeness of the type of image (with cross experiment decoding), participants (with half  
5 split or single subject analyses), features (testing them in isolation or as a multivariate input),  
6 and electrodes (all of them or only posterior).

7  
8 **ML Results of the exploratory analysis.** (2) Results for the ML approach exploiting all  
9 informativeness of the dataset (single subjects, single feature, across all electrodes) showed  
10 that for both synthetic and natural images, post-stimulus evoked and pre-stimulus oscillatory  
11 neural activity allowed disentangling between pragmatic and aesthetic judgments (see Figure  
12 5). In particular, accuracy for synthetic images was significantly different from chance for  
13 feature N170 (mean Accuracy  $\pm$  Standard Error =  $55.7 \pm 1.4$  %,  $p_{\text{Bonf}} = 0.002$ ,  $F_1$ -score =  $54.5 \pm$   
14  $1.9$  %), and for pre-stimulus alpha activity (Accuracy  $r = 61.1 \pm 1.8$  %,  $p_{\text{Bonf}} = 0.000001$ ,  $F_1$ -score  
15 =  $61.3 \pm 1.9$  %). Accuracy for natural images was significantly different from chance for N170  
16 (Accuracy =  $55.0 \pm 1.0$  %,  $p_{\text{Bonf}} = 0.0001$ ,  $F_1$ -score =  $51.8 \pm 2.3$  %), and for pre-stimulus alpha  
17 activity (Accuracy =  $59.4 \pm 1.5$  %,  $p_{\text{Bonf}} = 0.000003$ ,  $F_1$ -score =  $60.0 \pm 1.6$  %). For both synthetic  
18 and natural images the feature C1 and alpha post-stimulus were not providing significant  
19 results. Conversely, cross-decoding (i.e., training on synthetic images and testing on natural  
20 ones, independently for each participant) was not successful for any of the features.

21 (3) Results showed that for both synthetic and natural images, the four features combined  
22 allowed disentangling between pragmatic and aesthetic judgments. In particular, accuracy for  
23 both synthetic and natural images was significantly different from chance (mean Accuracy  $\pm$   
24 Standard Error =  $54.4 \pm 1.2$  %,  $p_{\text{Bonf}} = 0.002$ ,  $F_1$ -score =  $49.9 \pm 3.6$  %; Accuracy =  $53.3 \pm 0.8$  %,  $p_{\text{Bonf}} = 0.0005$ ,  $F_1$ -score =  $43.6 \pm 3.6$  %). As for the previous analytical approach, cross-decoding  
25 (i.e., training on synthetic images and testing on natural ones across features and  
26 independently for each participant) was not successful.

27  
28 (4) Results showed that with this approach, only for natural images the four features combined  
29 allowed disentangling between pragmatic and aesthetic judgments (mean Accuracy  $\pm$  Standard

1 Error =  $52.1 \pm 0.8$  %,  $p_{\text{Bonf}} = 0.03$ , F1-score =  $53.7 \pm 1.4$  %). As for all analytical approaches, cross-  
2 decoding (i.e., training on synthetic images and testing on natural ones across features and  
3 independently for each participant) was not successful.

4  
5  
6

## 7 **Discussion**

8 The present study aimed to explore, with solid a priori assumptions and a fully pre-registered  
9 design, the age-old intuition that aesthetic experiences are characterised by a state of  
10 heightened attention towards external stimuli (i.e., an “aesthetic attitude”). Specifically, we  
11 examined whether engaging in sustained aesthetic evaluation, as opposed to pragmatic one,  
12 recruits distinct neural processes and generates a top-down, tonic attentional enhancement  
13 observable by measuring pre-stimulus and post-stimulus attention-related indexes in the EEG  
14 signal. Overall, our findings both in the time and time-frequency domains support this  
15 hypothesis, revealing different evoked response and oscillatory activity across tasks, even  
16 though not all our predictions were confirmed (see § Results, “Testing Hypothesis 1”). The  
17 machine learning approaches, solved the binary classification problem only when run at the  
18 single participant level, showing that the N170 component and alpha oscillatory activity before  
19 stimulus onset can predict the assigned task within the same experiment, but not across  
20 different experiments (see § Results - Testing Hypothesis 2), suggesting highly consistent effects  
21 across trials, within the same experiment.

22

### 23 **Neural oscillatory dynamics during aesthetic evaluation**

24 The pre-stimulus time-frequency results of both experiments (synthetic and natural images)  
25 revealed a significant tonic decrease in alpha (8 - 12 Hz) and beta (20 - 30 Hz) frequency power  
26 during aesthetic compared to pragmatic evaluation, fully supporting our first hypothesis. This  
27 result points out that participants’ oscillatory activity differs significantly even before the onset  
28 of the image, suggesting the emergence of a specific “attitude” during the evaluation task, in  
29 full support of our first hypothesis. Importantly, pre-stimulus alpha power reduction has been

1 associated in the literature with attentional engagement <sup>41</sup> and perceptual processing  
2 facilitation (enhanced gain of the visual stream <sup>41</sup>). It is therefore possible that one of the  
3 processes characterizing aesthetic evaluation is an enhanced allocation of neural resources  
4 toward the processing of attended stimuli. Moreover, the observed pre-stimulus tonic  
5 reduction in alpha and beta power has frequently been reported during preparatory activity  
6 and is typically associated with the so-called *Readiness potential* (RP) <sup>42-44</sup>. The RP, traditionally  
7 linked to motor preparation <sup>42</sup>, has more recently been observed in cognitive tasks as well <sup>42-45</sup>,  
8 such as preparing for mental operations on numbers <sup>43</sup>. Therefore, in line with previous studies  
9 investigating the preparatory activity indexed by RP <sup>42,44,46</sup> in motor and cognitive tasks, it is  
10 possible that the reduction in beta power during the aesthetic task reflects an enhanced  
11 preparatory process, while the accompanying decrease in alpha power may be interpreted as  
12 the complementary attentional engagement, both promoting a sensory-oriented engagement  
13 with the upcoming stimuli. To sum up, our results on the pre-stimulus interval reveal a distinct  
14 neural signature, likely reflecting attentional and preparatory processes, linked with the  
15 aesthetic task.

16 On the other hand, the post-stimulus time-frequency analysis of Experiments 1 and 2 did not  
17 support our a priori hypothesis. We observed no significant difference in alpha ERD between  
18 the aesthetic and pragmatic evaluation tasks. This suggests that the oscillatory activity following  
19 stimulus onset was not modulated by the specific evaluation task. However, when considered  
20 alongside the significant differences observed in VEP responses (see below), our findings  
21 indicate that post-stimulus neural activity differs markedly in terms of amplitude and latency  
22 across tasks, even though not in the frequency band hypothesized. Several factors may account  
23 for the discrepancies observed between time domain and time-frequency responses. One  
24 possibility is that the significant pre-stimulus difference in the alpha and beta bands affected  
25 post-stimulus analyses, potentially limiting the detection of significant ER% effects. Future  
26 studies could be directed to disentangle pre- and post- stimulus time-frequency dynamics by  
27 designing both the experimental protocol and the statistical approach to address this issue  
28 more effectively.

29

## 1 **VEP responses modulation between aesthetic and pragmatic tasks**

2 The time domain results partially confirmed our first hypothesis, revealing significant  
3 differentiation of the VEPs between aesthetic and pragmatic tasks (see § Results and Figure 3).  
4 Aesthetic vs pragmatic evaluation of synthetic images (Experiment 1) elicited a significant  
5 modulation of the LPP, predominantly over the left hemisphere. However, the earlier time  
6 window (0-200 ms) did not reveal a significant difference between tasks, suggesting that the  
7 aesthetic evaluation did not modulate the C1 and N170 early components in synthetic images.  
8 On the other hand, VEPs elicited by natural images (Experiment 2) revealed three clusters of  
9 significant difference, encompassing a larger and distributed scalp topography, and involving  
10 both the LPP (from its onset) and the N 170 component. The findings from Experiment 2  
11 support our first hypothesis, suggesting that during the aesthetic evaluation of natural images,  
12 participants engaged in distinct neural processes as early as 200 ms post-stimulus. To sum up,  
13 aesthetic evaluation consistently enhanced the LPP across both experiments, confirming  
14 previous findings and extending them by revealing an earlier onset and a broader scalp  
15 distribution<sup>14,15</sup>. The LPP is a well-established ERP component emerging between 300 and 1200  
16 ms after stimulus onset and is associated with sustained attentional and evaluative processes,  
17 especially in response to emotionally salient stimuli<sup>47</sup>. Notably, both the latency and scalp  
18 distribution of the LPP provide valuable information for distinguishing its functionally distinct  
19 temporal components<sup>48</sup>. The early LPP (300 – 600 ms), typically associated with a posterior  
20 topography, is thought to reflect automatic attentional engagement and emotional reactivity  
21<sup>48-51</sup>; the late LPP (600 – 1200 ms), characterized by a broader anterior-posterior distribution, is  
22 generally connected with prefrontal cortical involvement and is associated with cognitive  
23 regulation and deliberative evaluation<sup>48,52</sup>. Crucially, task instructions, such as providing  
24 information about stimulus valence, have been shown to differentially modulate these LPP  
25 components, affecting both appraisal and reappraisal processes<sup>48,53,54</sup>. Our findings revealed an  
26 earlier onset of LPP differentiation compared to prior studies on aesthetic appreciation  
27 processes<sup>14,16,18</sup>, indicating that our design might have induced modulation of both the early  
28 and late LPP components. Moreover, while Jacobsen and colleagues reported a predominantly  
29 right-hemisphere distribution, our results showed a left-lateralized topography in Experiment 1

1 and a broader, more distributed activation in Experiment 2<sup>14</sup>. We speculate that our paradigm,  
2 specifically designed to induce sustained aesthetic evaluation over time, successfully elicited a  
3 stronger aesthetic attitude, persisting throughout the entire experimental block. This enduring  
4 state likely modulated both early and late LPP components and thus influenced both affective  
5 and higher-order cognitive evaluative processes.

6 As indicated in the Results, image type (synthetic vs natural) influences the VEP responses  
7 during aesthetic and pragmatic evaluation, showing distinct temporal and spatial clusters of  
8 significance across experiments. Specifically, the sustained aesthetic evaluation of natural  
9 images when compared to synthetic images elicited a broader (i.e., bilateral) and earlier  
10 differentiation, also involving the N170 component. This finding suggests that the aesthetic  
11 attitude effect was amplified by natural images. One contributing factor may be the generally  
12 higher aesthetic appreciation of these stimuli compared to synthetic ones (see Results).  
13 Participants' clear preference for natural scenes may have fostered the engagement with the  
14 aesthetic evaluation task. Additionally, the semantic richness typically associated with  
15 landscapes (and fully absent in synthetic images) may have further enhanced the effect  
16 observed in Experiment 2. Future studies should investigate the influence of aesthetic  
17 appreciation on the establishment of a strong aesthetic attitude, ideally by controlling for both  
18 stimulus low-level features and subjective preferences.

### 20 **Neural signatures differentiate between aesthetic and pragmatic tasks**

21 The machine learning approach successfully addressed the binary classification problem, but  
22 only partially fulfilled the two a priori predictions. Specifically, the N170 component and pre-  
23 stimulus alpha oscillatory activity were able to predict the assigned task within the experiment,  
24 but failed to generalize across experiments (see Figure 5). Note that this finding emerged only  
25 once the analysis was performed at the single participant level, suggesting variability across  
26 individuals of the effects.

27 This finding reinforces previous discussions, suggesting that neural signatures in both pre-  
28 stimulus and early post-stimulus windows (within 200 ms) are reliable task predictors. Notably,

1 the ML also identified a role for the N170 in the synthetic experiment, an effect not detected by  
2 the VEP cluster-based statistical analysis, thereby highlighting the enhanced sensitivity of the  
3 ML approach. The lack of predictive accuracy across experiments provides empirical  
4 confirmation of previously observed differences in the neural signals between Experiments 1  
5 and 2 and thus between the neural activity associated with the use of synthetic and natural  
6 stimuli. Variations in pre-stimulus oscillatory activity, VEP latency and amplitude, as well as  
7 differences in scalp distribution, make it impossible to generate predictions across tasks.  
8 Nevertheless, the ML approach provided further evidence of the possibility to use biomarkers  
9 to differentiate between aesthetic experiences from other forms of visual judgments.

### 11 **The neural underpinnings of the aesthetic attitude**

12 Overall, our results shed some light on the age-old philosophical idea that our experiences of  
13 beauty are characterised by the adoption of a special mode of attention - heightened,  
14 contemplative and focused on the object's formal or expressive qualities (i.e., the "aesthetic  
15 attitude")<sup>1,2,13</sup>. This idea, central to classical aesthetics especially in the Kantian tradition, is  
16 increasingly gaining traction in psychology and neuroscience, where evidence for a distinctive  
17 attentional state in aesthetic contexts is beginning to accumulate. Previous neuroscientific  
18 findings have suggested that a state of heightened attention during engagement with art may  
19 be supported by alpha-band oscillation<sup>55,56</sup>. Distinctive neural responses in aesthetic contexts  
20 appear to be generable through top-down processes, such as engaging in aesthetic evaluation  
21<sup>15,16,18</sup> or being exposed to aesthetically appealing stimuli that generate expectations of  
22 encountering other appealing stimuli<sup>55-57</sup>. However, many aspects of the relationship between  
23 aesthetic experiences and attention remain unclear. In particular, it is unclear whether tasks of  
24 aesthetic evaluation can systematically induce observable attentional enhancements.

25 Our results contribute to filling this gap by offering a rigorous, data-driven exploration of how  
26 an aesthetic evaluation task can produce a top-down modulation of well-established EEG  
27 indexes of perceptual and attentional enhancement. The systematic modulation of neural  
28 oscillatory activity in both alpha and beta frequency bands prior to stimulus presentation, the  
29 predictive role of early VEP components in distinguishing the task (aesthetic vs pragmatic), and

1 the observed enhancement of both the early and late components of the LPP, all support the  
2 idea that participants were adopting a distinctive processing mode when evaluating images for  
3 their aesthetic appeal. This extends previous findings on the neural correlates of evaluative  
4 tasks <sup>14–16,18</sup> and shed some new light on the neural underpinnings of the aesthetic attitude.

5 In this respect, our study may represent the experimental evidence of a growing body of  
6 research linking aesthetic experience to enhanced perceptual processing and attentional  
7 magnification. According to several recent theoretical frameworks, we experience aesthetic  
8 pleasure when we are particularly effective in processing sensory information (i.e., we process  
9 information fluently, we find new patterns in our sensorium, we make larger updates to our  
10 models of the world, we experience faster reduction in uncertainty about the causes of our  
11 sensations) <sup>7,58–60</sup>. Aesthetic pleasure acts as a kind of hedonic feedback that signals which  
12 portions of the world are more informatively profitable and worth exploring further <sup>7</sup>.

13 Interestingly for our purposes, according to several of these approaches, aesthetic pleasure  
14 does not merely act as a feedback of effective perceptual processing, but can also generate the  
15 expectation that future perceptual encounters will be specially profitable, making us more  
16 attentive, curious, and inclined to learn. Previous studies have shown that exposure to  
17 aesthetically pleasing stimuli enhance attention, perceptual learning processing and curiosity in  
18 subsequent tasks. <sup>55,57,61,62</sup>. Our study extends this result by showing that the mere framing of a  
19 task in terms of aesthetic appreciation can lead to appreciable perceptual and attentional  
20 enhancements. In particular, our findings suggest that an aesthetic attitude can be induced by a  
21 purely top-down instruction, and then be sustained and increased by the pleasantness of the  
22 stimuli presented, in a sort of non-linear but exponential process. We speculate that this may  
23 be particularly relevant in the context of profound aesthetic experiences, such as those elicited  
24 by museum visits, music, cinema and theatre, where both the expectation to encounter beauty  
25 and the sustained encounter with beautiful stimuli contribute significantly to the overall  
26 experience.

27 This study has the potential to inform different fields that could benefit from a better  
28 understanding of the way in which we deploy our attentional resources, such as education,

1 psychotherapy <sup>63</sup>, neurocognitive rehabilitation <sup>64</sup> and social adaptation in times of distress <sup>65</sup>.  
2 Adopting an aesthetic perspective may prepare the neural system to embrace the sensory,  
3 cognitive, and affective complexity of the environment, effectively tuning the perceiver to its  
4 informativeness.

5

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14

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## 2 **Figure Captions**

3

4 **Figure 1. Experimental questions and summary of the main results.**

5

6 **Figure 2A. Stimuli.** Images (a) and (b) are two examples of a stimulus category with a different  $B$  exponent value:  
7 (a)  $B=1$ , (b)  $B=2.5$ . Images (c) are three examples of photographs (Experiment 2) with homogenized color spectrum,  
8 dimension, resolution, luminance, contrast and light reflection.

9 **Figure 2B. Experimental procedures, hypotheses and analyses.** The top panel depicts the experimental  
10 procedures (the analysis plan is described in Table 1).

11

12 **Figure 3. Results in the time domain (VEP).** Experiment 1 (left panel) and Experiment 2 (right panel). Grand  
13 average VEP waveforms ( $N = 36$ ) elicited by aesthetic (green) and pragmatic (grey) evaluation of synthetic stimuli  
14 are depicted in the figure. The green and grey shadow along the waveforms signals the standard error (SE). The  
15 waveforms showed early components within the first 200 ms time window (C1 and N170), followed by a LPP  
16 emerging around 300 ms. Scalp-maps topographies represent average amplitudes across aesthetic and pragmatic  
17 conditions within four time windows. The grey-shaded areas outlined in different colours indicate significant  
18 clusters that survived cluster-based permutation correction. The scalp maps display the  $t$ -value distribution within  
19 these significant clusters. The scalp maps outlined in the box with matching colours display the  $t$ -value  
20 distributions of the effect and the coordinate layout above marks all significant electrodes (coloured dots) that  
21 survived the comparison.

22

23 **Figure 4. Results in the time-frequency domain.** Experiment 1 (top panels) and Experiment 2 (bottom panels). Top  
24 images of each panel (A, B, D, E) show the time-frequency spectrogram obtained by subtracting the average  
25 spectrogram of the pragmatic task from that obtained from the aesthetic task, averaged across all significant  
26 channels. Panels A and D illustrate pre-stimulus TFR activity (-1 - 0 s). Panels B and E represent the post-stimulus  
27 TFR results (0 - 1 s), with the estimated event-related synchronization (ERS) and desynchronization (ERD). Panels C  
28 and F display the results of the pre-stimulus statistical analysis (no significant clusters were detected in the post-  
29 stimulus window). These plots show the  $p_{\text{clust}}$  value mask, indicating the frequency-bands and the temporal  
30 intervals where significant differences in power emerged between aesthetic and pragmatic conditions. Colour  
31 intensity (i.e., in our case blue, indicating lower power in the aesthetic condition) reflects higher average  $p$ -values

1 and greater consistency of significant temporal and frequency clusters across channels. The red and green boxes  
 2 alongside the significant cluster plot showed the average p-value topography of respectively beta and alpha  
 3 frequencies, extracted in the time and frequency interval signaled from the box with matching colour.

4  
 5 **Figure 5: Results of the SVM classifier.** Boxes represent interquartile ranges, the horizontal segments the medians,  
 6 whiskers are min-to-max ranges after outliers removal, and dots refer to single subjects.

## 10 Tables

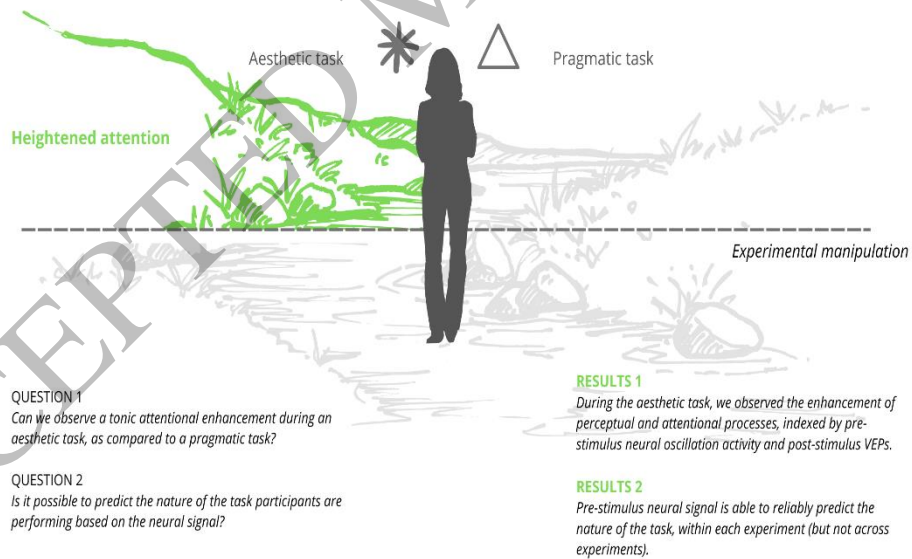
Hypotheses	Analysis Plan	Interpretation given to different outcomes
(1) Images presented during the aesthetic task will trigger decreased pre-stimulus inhibitory alpha power and increased post-stimulus alpha ERD, as well as larger VEPs within the first 200 ms post-stimulus onset, compared to images presented during the pragmatic task.	To investigate the effects of the evaluation task (aesthetic vs. pragmatic), we will employ a cluster-based permutation approach. Single subjects' pre-processed EEG signals averaged across trials will be fed into group-level point-by-point t-tests evidencing clusters that contain voltage amplitude or power that significantly differ across conditions at specific latencies, channels, and/or frequency ranges.	Larger early components of VEPs and alpha ERD during the aesthetic task as compared to pragmatic task will be interpreted as the electrophysiological correlates of attentional enhancement during an aesthetic experience.  Otherwise, if such indexes will not differ significantly, the attentional enhancement hypothesis should be discarded.
(2) By training a classifier to distinguish between aesthetic and pragmatic judgements on Experiment 1, we should be able to predict the nature of the task	A linear binary classifier will be trained to distinguish between the two tasks, based on four features: power of pre-stimulus alpha, post stimulus alpha ERD, and amplitude of early waves of	The prediction of the type of evaluation (aesthetic vs pragmatic) performed on natural and synthetic images, based on electrophysiological signals, will be interpreted as a further

based on EEG data from the VEPs, also using a bound on confirmation of the different nature of the tasks and of the misclassification probability of the tasks and of the coming from statistical learning electrophysiological pathways theory. involved.

If otherwise the nature of the task cannot be predicted based on EEG signal, hypothesis 2 should be discarded.

1 **Table 1. Hypotheses and analysis plan.** The hypotheses, the analysis plan and the interpretations proposed for  
 2 different possible outcomes are presented in the table.

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**Figure 1**

508x286 mm ( x DPI)

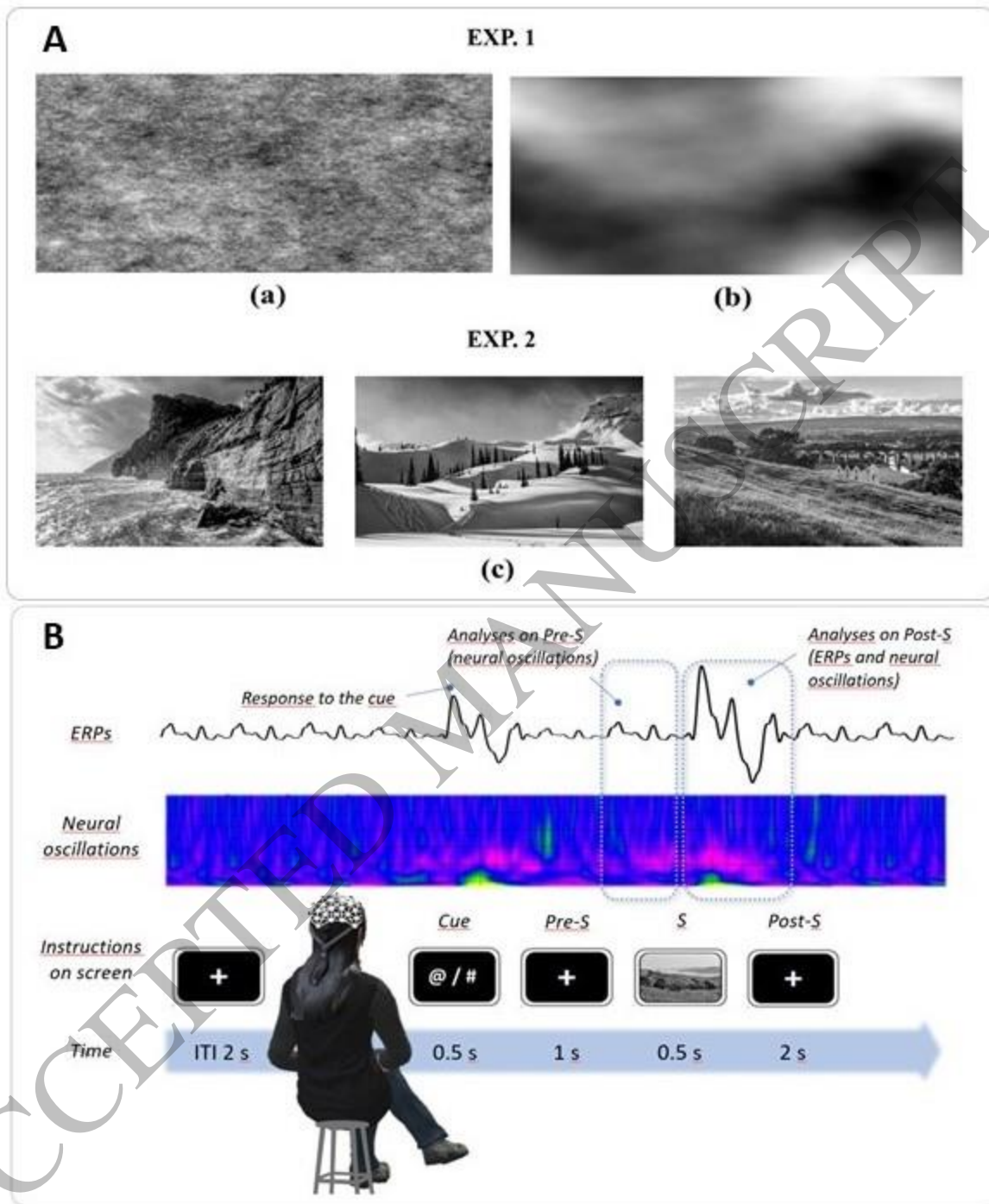


Figure 2

155x188 mm ( x DPI)

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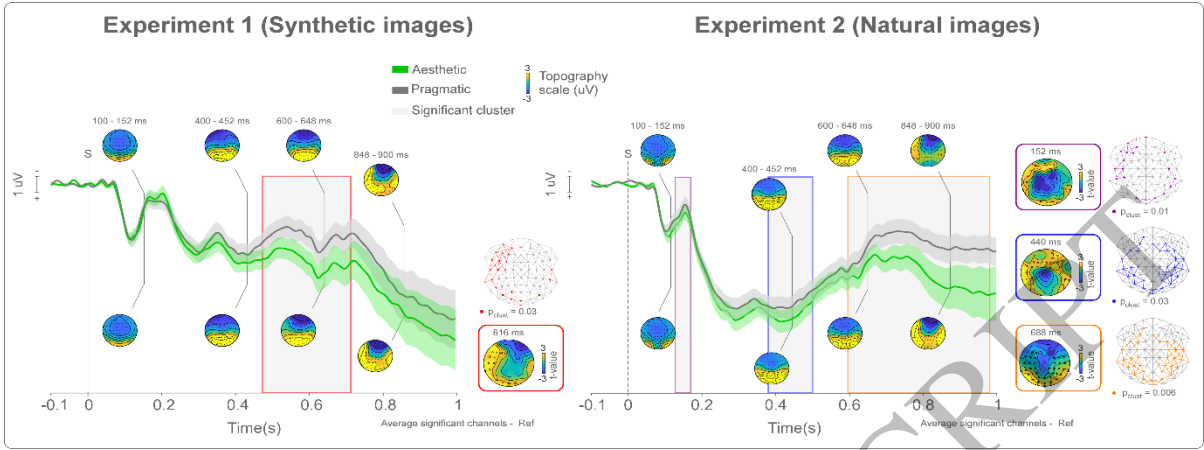


Figure 3

559x225 mm ( x DPI)

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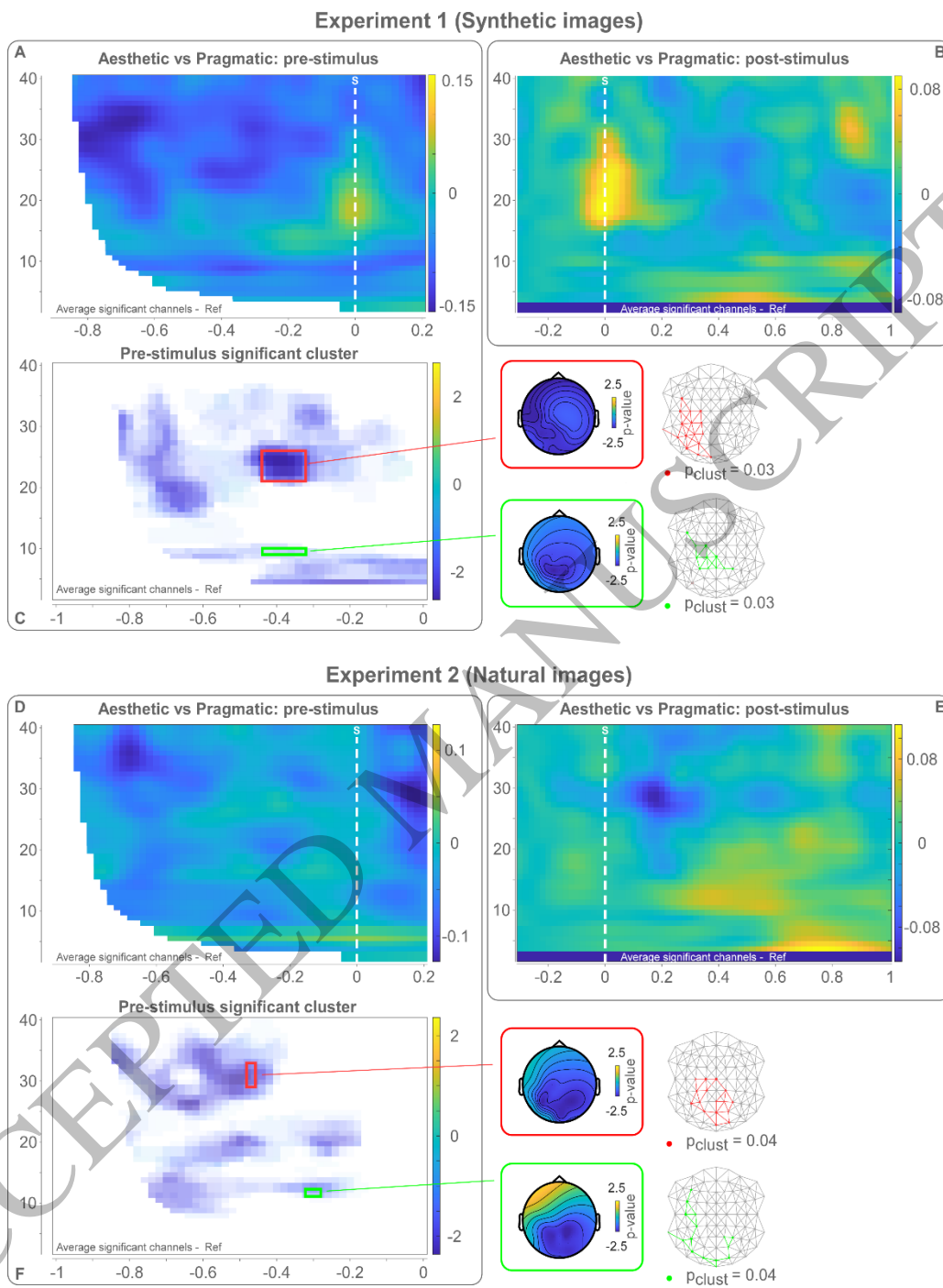


Figure 4

376x491 mm ( x DPI)

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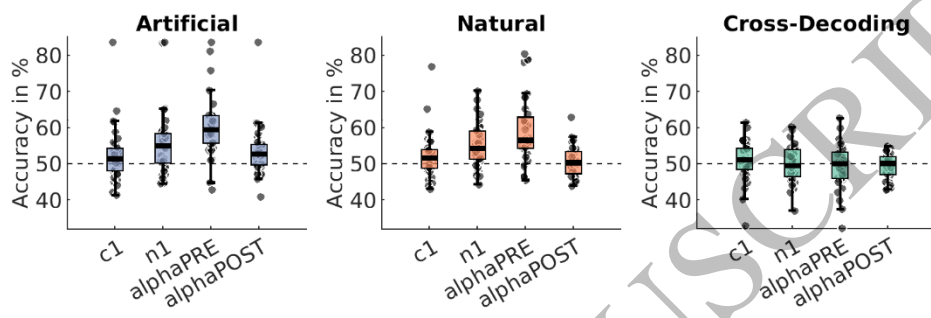


Figure 5

148x111 mm ( x DPI)

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