

1 **Broadscale dampening of uncertainty adjustment in the aging brain**
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14 **0. Abstract**

15
16 The ability to prioritize among input features according to relevance enables adaptive behaviors across the human
17 lifespan. However, relevance often remains ambiguous, and such uncertainty increases demands for dynamic control.
18 While both cognitive stability and flexibility decline during healthy ageing, it is unknown whether aging alters how
19 uncertainty impacts perception and decision-making, and if so, via which neural mechanisms. Here, we assess
20 uncertainty adjustment across the adult lifespan ($N = 100$; cross-sectional) via behavioral modelling and a theoretically
21 informed set of EEG-, fMRI-, and pupil-based signatures. On the group level, older adults show a broad dampening
22 of uncertainty adjustment relative to younger adults. At the individual level, older individuals with more young-like
23 neural responses also showed better maintained cognitive control. Our results highlight neural mechanisms whose
24 maintenance plausibly enables flexible task-set, perception, and decision computations across the adult lifespan.
25

26 **1. Introduction**

27
28 Prioritizing goal-relevant input features is central to cognitive control and adaptive behaviors. But how do we discern
29 relevant signals from distractions? While some contexts explicitly highlight specific features (e.g., a single road sign
30 emphasizing school children)¹, most contexts provide only sparse (e.g., a “!” sign) or contrasting cues (e.g., multiple
31 signs: school children, bicycles, construction, ...). Whereas selective cues enable us to prioritize individual features
32 with high acuity, ambiguity about which input features are goal-relevant (i.e., *task uncertainty*) demands broader levels
33 of sensitivity, even at the expense of precision^{2,3}. An adaptive system should track the moment-to-moment variations
34 in uncertainty, and tune perception, guide decisions, and select actions accordingly^{4,5}. Here, we examine whether a
35 failure to adapt computations to varying task uncertainty is a key characteristic of healthy human cognitive aging.
36

37 Behavioral observations support aging-related deficits in uncertainty adjustment. In contexts that cue specific task-
38 relevant features of compound stimuli, older adults remain sensitive also to irrelevant features^{6,7}, indicating challenges
39 in stable feature selection⁸⁻¹¹. Conversely, older adults show inflexibility when contexts require dynamic feature
40 switches¹²⁻¹⁴, and incur substantial “fade-out” costs when transitioning from dynamic to stable contexts¹⁵. Such
41 observations suggest that older adults may be stuck in a suboptimal ‘middle ground’ that neither affords stable task
42 selectivity when uncertainty is low, nor task flexibility in dynamic or uncertain contexts. Although age-related deficits
43 have been reported for aligning computations (e.g., learning rate) to uncertainty¹⁶, it remains unclear whether such
44 underutilization arises from challenges in estimating uncertainty, or from an inability to leverage adequate estimates.
45 For uncertainty to provide a principled and comprehensive lens on aging-related adaptivity constraints, first evidence
46 is required to establish whether and/or how neural responses to uncertainty differ in the older adult brain.
47

48 How brain function adjusts to variable uncertainty remains debated¹⁷, but emerging models implicate interacting
49 systems that define task sets, tune perception, and inform decision formation¹⁸⁻²⁰. Task-set management has been
50 localized to fronto-parietal cortex^{20,21}, with recent evidence suggesting additional thalamic contributions in uncertain
51 contexts^{22,23}. When task sets specify target features, perceptual networks can constrain relevant information by
52 combining distractor inhibition²⁴ with target enhancement²⁵. In contrast, high uncertainty about goal-relevant targets
53 may facilitate sensitivity to multiple features via broad increases in excitability²⁶. Such regime switches can be
54 orchestrated by diffuse neurotransmitter systems that adjust computational precision to changing demands²; for
55 example, pupil dilation (as a proxy)²⁷ transiently increases alongside uncertainty^{28,29}. In young adults, we observed
56 such an integrated response to rising uncertainty³⁰, encompassing increased fronto-thalamic BOLD activation,
57 increased pupil diameter, and increased EEG-based cortical excitability. These results indicate that interacting systems
58 enable adaptive responses to variable task uncertainty. But does the responsiveness of these systems differ across the
59 adult lifespan?

60
61 Initial behavioral evidence from reward-learning paradigms suggests that older adults are less able to represent and
62 use uncertainty¹⁶. Moreover, the general observation that older adults’ brain activity is less responsive to varying
63 demands³¹⁻³³ is suggestive of less adaptive responses per se. Senescence is marked by changes across multiple systems,
64 including diminished prefrontal cortex function³⁴, metabolic decreases in cognitive control networks³⁵⁻³⁷, progressive
65 deterioration of subcortical neurotransmitter systems³⁸⁻⁴⁰ alongside reduced pupil size modulation⁴¹, reduced cortical
66 inhibition^{42,43}, and structural declines of coordinating nodes such as the thalamus^{44,45}. Many of these systems can be
67 linked to the representation of, and adaptive response to, uncertainty³⁰. Yet, there is also a long-standing challenge in
68 the cognitive neuroscience of aging to identify, and distinguish between, competing functional explanations for
69 changes in adaptivity. Reductions in working-memory capacity⁴⁶, inhibition⁴⁷, or processing speed⁴⁸ have all been
70 proposed as general changes underlying a wide range of deficits. The fact that age differences usually occur even in
71 minimal-demand baseline conditions³² can additionally complicate inferences from observed age differences in
72 adaptivity. Here, we use convergent evidence from a broad spectrum of behavioral and neural signatures (decision
73 modeling, EEG, fMRI, pupillometry) alongside a host of controls to establish altered uncertainty processing as a core
74 feature of human brain aging.
75

76 In our approach, we tested whether we could explain individual differences in adaptivity among older adults.
77 Specifically, a “maintenance account of aging”⁴⁹ suggests that cognitive deficits with senescence emerge when neural
78 resources become insufficient to meet demands, which implies that older adults with more “young-like” resource

79 engagement should better maintain function. We test this account by examining the degree to which older adults
80 express a young-adult pattern of specific neuro-behavioral signatures when adapting to uncertainty.
81

82 **2. Results**

83
84 We examined multimodal signatures (decision modeling, EEG, fMRI, pupillometry) in 47 younger (avg. 26 years) and
85 53 older (avg. 69 years) adults to comprehensively test uncertainty adjustment across the adult lifespan. Participants
86 performed a perceptual decision task that manipulated uncertainty about which feature(s) of a compound stimulus
87 would become decision relevant. By assessing signatures that change under task uncertainty in younger adults' ³⁰, we
88 highlight damped uncertainty modulation in older adults along with more constrained changes to perceptual
89 evidence integration. Older adults with more "young-like" brain responses showed benefits in feature selection,
90 providing initial evidence that maintained uncertainty adjustment supports adaptive control in healthy ageing.
91

92 **2.1 Older adults express constrained uncertainty modulation of evidence integration.**
93

94 During EEG and fMRI acquisition, participants performed a **Multi-Attribute Attention Task** ("MAAT"; ³⁰; Figure 1a,
95 S1-0). Participants had to sample dynamic visual stimuli that varied along four features: color (green/red), movement
96 direction (left/right), size (small/large), and color saturation (low/high). Stimuli were presented for three seconds,
97 after which participants had to indicate the more prevalent of two options for a single probed feature. Valid pre-
98 stimulus cues indicated which features could be probed on the current trial. Uncertainty was parametrically
99 manipulated by increasing the number of cued features ^{50,51}. When participants received a single cue, they could attend
100 to only a single target feature during stimulus presentation (low uncertainty); whereas multi-feature cues reduced
101 information about which feature would be probed, thus necessitating (extra-dimensional) attention switches ^{52,53}
102 between up to four target features ("target load"; high uncertainty) to optimally inform probe-related decisions.
103 Younger and older adults performed above chance level for all visual features (Figure S1-1).

104

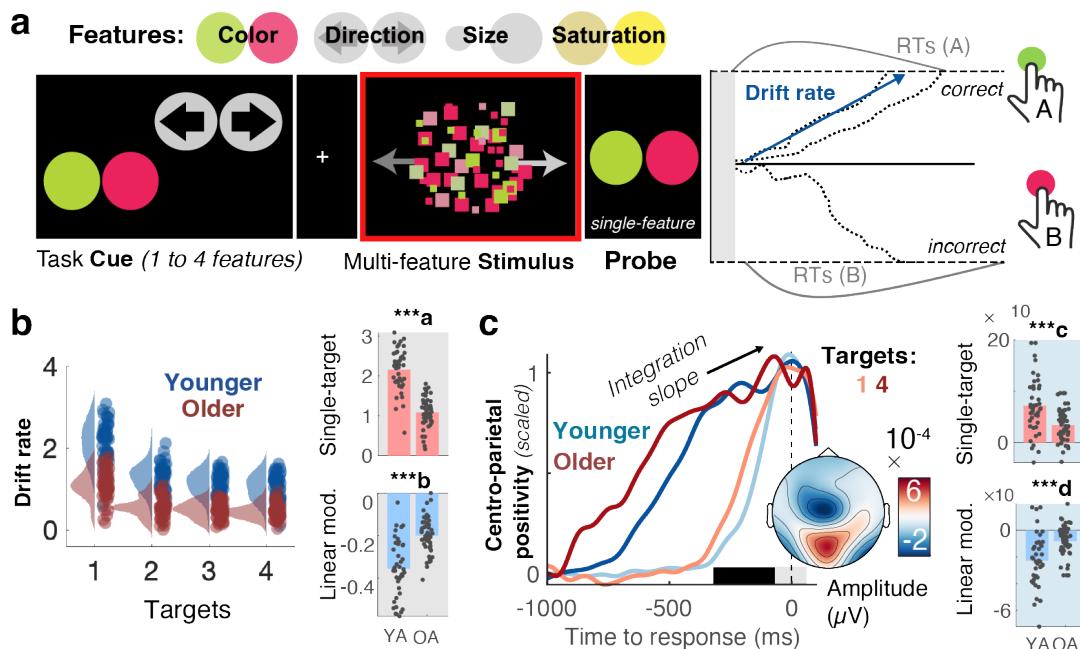


Figure 1. Older adults show constrained decision-related adjustments to rising uncertainty. (a) A Multi-Attribute Attention Task ("MAAT") requires participants to sample up to four visual features of a compound stimulus for a subsequent perceptual decision. On each trial, participants were first cued to the set of possible probe features (here: motion direction and colour). The compound stimulus (which always included all four features) was then presented for 3 s, followed by a single-feature probe (here: prevalence of red vs. green colour in the preceding stimulus). Uncertainty was manipulated as the number of target features (one to four) in the pre-stimulus cue (see also Figure S1-a). Behavioral data were modelled with a drift diffusion model, in which evidence for options is accumulated with a 'drift rate'. (b) Drift rate estimates from behavioural modelling. Older adults exhibited reduced accumulation rates for single targets (top) and were marked by more limited drift reductions under elevated uncertainty (bottom). Data points represent individual averages across EEG and fMRI sessions. Table S1 reports within-group statistics. (c) The Centro-parietal positivity (CPP) provides an *a priori* neural signature of evidence accumulation. The rate of evidence accumulation was estimated as the linear slope of the CPP during the time window indicated by the black bar. Older adults exhibited reduced integration slopes for single targets (top) and were marked by constrained load-related slope shallowing under elevated uncertainty (bottom). To illustrate age- and condition-differences in integration slope, responses have been rescaled to the [0, 1] range for visualization. Fig. S1-3 shows original traces. ***a $p = 1.0 \times 10^{-10}$ ***b $p = 5.1 \times 10^{-10}$ ***c $p = 4.5 \times 10^{-5}$ ***d $p = 2.8 \times 10^{-5}$.

105

106 To characterize probe-related decision processes, we fitted a hierarchical drift-diffusion model ⁵⁴ (HDDM) to
 107 participants' responses. The model estimates (a) the drift rate at which evidence is integrated towards a decision bound,
 108 (b) the distance between correct and incorrect decision bounds, and (c) the non-decision time of probe processing
 109 and response execution. Across sessions and age groups the best fitting models (see Figure S1-2) consistently included
 110 uncertainty effects in all three parameters. Here, we focused on the drift rate based on its close association to sampled
 111 evidence ³⁰. Text S1-2 reports the remaining parameters. With rising uncertainty, drift rates decreased for both age
 112 groups, indicating that uncertainty generally constrained choice evidence for the probed feature. Crucially, relative to
 113 younger adults, older participants' drift rates were reduced when only a single feature was cued as relevant and
 114 decreased less alongside increasing uncertainty (Figure 1b). These effects remained present when only features with
 115 age-matched single-target accuracies were included in the model (Text S1-3a). In relative terms, such damped
 116 adjustment reflected larger relative performance decreases when transitioning into more uncertain contexts in older
 117 than younger adults (Text S1-3b). Neither accuracy nor drift rate variations between individual features could account
 118 for the observed age effects (Text S1-4).

119
 120 We assessed the convergence of behavioral results with an *a priori* neural proxy signature of evidence integration, the
 121 slope of the EEG's centroparietal positive potential (CPP)
 122 ⁵⁵; Figure 1c, see also Figure S1-5) prior to decisions.
 123 Consistent with behavioral modeling, CPP slopes were
 124 flatter for older relative to younger participants in single-
 125 target contexts, and older adults' uncertainty-related
 126 modulation of CPP slopes was minimal (Figure 1c). In line
 127 with both indices capturing latent evidence integration,
 128 CPP and drift estimates were inter-individually related
 129 (Fig. S1-5), both for single targets ($r(93) = 0.51$, 95%CI =
 130 $[0.34, 0.64]$, $p = 1.4e-07$; *age-partial*: $r(92) = 0.34$, 95%CI =
 131 $[0.14, 0.5]$ $p = 9.3e-04$), and their uncertainty modulation
 132 ($r(93) = 0.45$, 95%CI = $[0.27, 0.59]$, $p = 6.1e-06$; *age-partial*:
 133 $r(92) = 0.27$, 95%CI = $[0.08, 0.45]$, $p = 0.01$; Fig S1-5c).
 134 We also investigated contralateral beta power as a
 135 signature of motor response preparation ⁵⁶ (Figure S1-6)
 136 but did not observe clear relations to drift rate or CPP
 137 estimates (Text S1-6), suggesting that it may be a less
 138 suitable evidence integration index here. Reduced
 139 modulation of pre-response slopes in older adults was
 140 observed (at both central and parietal sites) also after
 141 controlling for overlapping potentials locked to probe
 142 onset (Text S1-7). Taken together, older adults' decisions
 143 were marked by reduced evidence integration rates for
 144 single targets, and more constrained absolute drift rate
 145 reductions under uncertainty.
 146

148 2.2 Decoding indicates uncertainty-induced trade- 149 offs between feature specificity and sensitivity.

150 Higher single-target drift rates and larger drift reductions
 151 may reflect an adaptive trade-off between reduced single-
 152 target specificity and elevated sensitivity to *multiple* features
 153 under higher uncertainty. However, as decisions were
 154 linked to the probed feature, they cannot elucidate how
 155 unprobed features were processed. To clarify this
 156 question, we performed fMRI decoding analyses. We
 157 created pairwise classifiers that targeted the sensory representation of each feature's prevalent option (e.g., left vs.
 158 rightward movement) based on BOLD responses in visual cortex (see *Methods: fMRI decoding of prevalent feature options*).

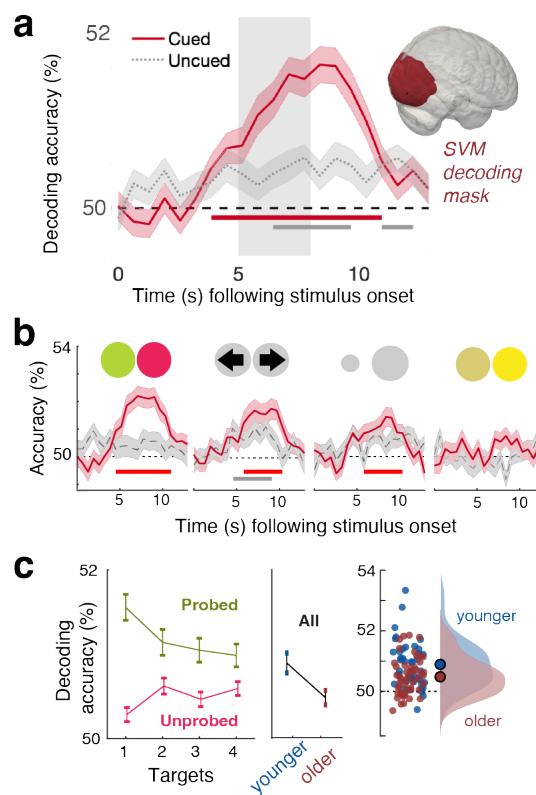
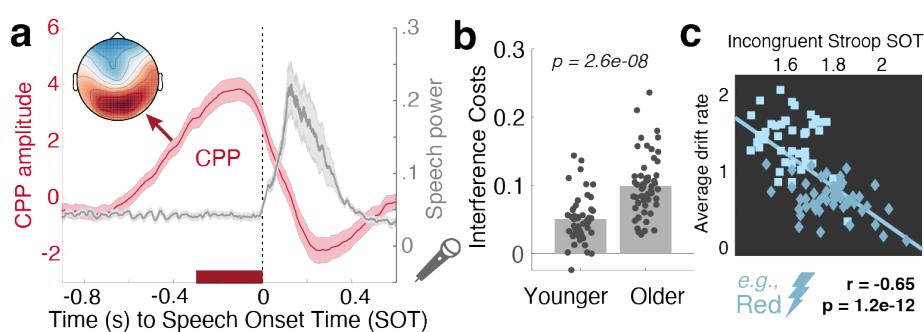


Figure 2. Decoding of prevalent options from visual cortex. (a) Decoding accuracy for cued and uncued features across age groups (means +/- SEM). Grey shading indicates the approximate timing of stimulus presentation considering the temporal lag in the hemodynamic response. Lines indicate periods of statistically significant differences from chance decoding accuracy (50%) as assessed by cluster-based permutation tests. The inset highlights the visual cortex mask from which signals were extracted for decoding. (b) Same as in a, but for separate feature probes. Bars indicate sign. above-chance accuracy during the approximate time of stimulus presentation. (c) Decoding accuracy for probed and unprobed features as a function of the number of cued targets; and decoding accuracy for all features as a function of age. Accuracy was averaged across significant decoding timepoints for cued features. Means +/- within-subject SEM for (un)probed features, means +/- SEM for age analysis.

160 The prevalent option of individual features could be decoded above chance during stimulus presentation (Fig. 2a).
161 Robust decoding was observed for all cued features except for saturation, for which discrimination was also
162 behaviorally most challenging (Fig. S1-1). Above-chance decoding in the same time window of interest was not
163 observed for uncued feature options, except for motion discrimination (see Fig. 2b), indicating that participants mainly
164 discriminated task-relevant feature options¹⁸.

165 Next, we assessed uncertainty and age effects on decoding accuracy. First, we applied classifiers to trials in which
166 target features were probed, which mirrors the behavioral task. A linear mixed effects model indicated a significant
167 reduction in decoding accuracy with increasing uncertainty ($\beta = -0.18$, SE = 0.05, $t = -3.56$, $p = 0.00037$; Figure 2c),
168 as well as reduced decoding accuracy for older adults ($\beta = -0.862$, SE = 0.31, $t = -2.77$, $p = 0.007$), but no significant
169 interaction ($p = 0.76$). Crucially, such uncertainty-related precision losses may trade-off against sensitivity to other
170 cued, but ultimately unprobed features. We tested this possibility by considering decoding accuracy across all *unprobed*
171 features in any given trial. This analysis indicated that uncertainty indeed slightly increased decoding accuracy across
172 unprobed features ($\beta = 0.077$, SE = 0.026, $t = 2.94$, $p = 0.0033$). Decoding accuracy tended to be lower in older
173 compared to younger adults ($\beta = -0.259$, SE = 0.134, $t = -1.92$, $p = 0.0574$). Again, no significant interaction was
174 observed ($p = 0.434$). Consistent with opposing uncertainty effects on probed and unprobed features, no significant
175 uncertainty effect was indicated when all trials were considered ($\beta = 0.012$, SE = 0.024, $t = 0.53$, $p = 0.5927$), but
176 decoding accuracy was globally reduced in older adults ($\beta = -.41$, SE = 0.144, $t = -2.84$, $p = 0.0056$). Decoding analyses
177 thus suggest that rising uncertainty increased sensitivity to more diverse features in both age groups, albeit at the cost
178 of reduced precision for single features.
179

180 2.3 MAAT performance generalizes to feature selection in the context of low perceptual demands. 181



182 **Figure 3. MAAT evidence integration relates to prepotent response inhibition.** (a) Centro-Parietal
183 Positivity (CPP) traces and speech signal power suggest high validity for the semi-automatically labeled
184 speech onset times (SOTs). The CPP trace has been averaged across age and congruency conditions and
185 displays means +/- SEM. The inset shows the mean EEG topography during the final 300 ms prior to speech
186 onset. (b) The voiced Stroop task indicated robust interference costs whose magnitude was larger in older
187 adults. Table S1 reports within-group statistics. (c) Participants with larger MAAT drift rates showed faster
188 responses to incongruent trials (e.g., responding blue to the inset stimulus), also after accounting for
189 categorical age (squares: younger; diamonds: older) and covariation with congruent SOTs (see main text).

182 Relative to younger adults, older adults appear to have encoded less single-target evidence for downstream decisions.
183 However, the multifaceted demands of the MAAT do not resolve whether such differences arise from task
184 idiosyncrasies such as the necessity to resolve high perceptual uncertainty for each feature, or whether they capture
185 differences related to flexible feature selection. To adjudicate between these accounts, participants also performed a
186 Stroop task, which probes the capacity to inhibit prepotent responses to one of two features (the color vs. semantics)
187 of a presented word⁵⁷. We recorded voice responses as a more naturalistic modality for older adults⁵⁸. To estimate
188 speech onset times (SOTs ~ reaction times), we labeled the voice onset in each trial's recording (see methods). Labeled
189 SOTs showed high validity as the neural CPP peaked immediately prior to SOTs (Fig. 3a). In line with the Stroop
190 literature⁵⁸, older adults incurred larger behavioral interference costs (Fig. 3b) than younger adults. These behavioral
191 results were mirrored by neural CPP slopes: interference made pre-response CPP slopes shallower in both age groups,
192 but to a larger extent in older adults, and the magnitude of individual slope reductions tracked behavioral interference
193 costs (Fig. S3-1). Crucially, participants with higher MAAT drift rates were also faster responders in the incongruent
194 condition (Fig. 3c), pointing to a better capacity to inhibit prepotent responses. Notably, relations between MAAT
195 drift rates and SOTs in the Stroop interference condition ($r(93) = -0.65$, 95%CI = [-0.75,-0.51], $p = 1.2e-12$) held after
196 controlling for age and SOTs in the congruent condition ($r(91) = -0.29$, 95%CI = [-0.46,-0.09], $p = 0.01$), whereas the

197 opposite was not observed (congruent SOTs-drift: $r(93) = -0.4$, 95%CI = [-0.56,-0.22], $p = 4.7e-05$, *age- and incongruent*
198 *SOT-partial*: $r(91) = 0.13$, 95%CI = [-0.07,0.33], $p = 0.2$). As such, selective inhibition of interfering features, as
199 opposed to processing speed, appears to be a key contributor to individual MAAT drift rates. Taken together, these
200 findings suggest that individual and age differences in MAAT drift rates generalize to flexible feature selection also in
201 perceptually unambiguous contexts.

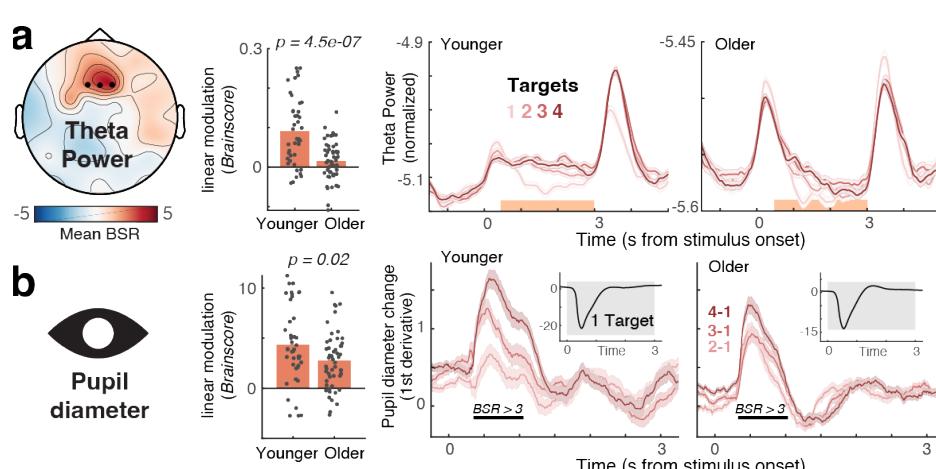
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203 2.4 Theta power and pupil diameter upregulation with elevated uncertainty dampens in old age.

204

205 Our results indicate age-related constraints in perceptual and decision adjustment to uncertainty. To test whether such
206 constraints are rooted in a reduced neural uncertainty response as expected under a maintenance account of cognitive
207 and brain aging, we assessed several *a priori* signatures (see ³⁰) during MAAT stimulus presentation by means of two-
208 group task partial-least-squares analyses (PLS, see methods). First, we assessed the effect of uncertainty on
209 frontocentral theta power, an index of cognitive control ⁵⁹ and exploration under uncertainty ⁶⁰. Uncertainty increased
210 theta power in both age groups (Figure 4a), but to a lesser extent in older adults (Figure 4a). Next, we assessed phasic
211 changes in pupil diameter, a signature that covaries with neuromodulation and arousal ^{61,62}, has been related to frontal
212 control ^{2,29,30,63,64}, and is sensitive to rising demands ⁶⁵ such as dynamically changing and uncertain contexts ^{28,66}. Once
213 again, we observed that uncertainty increased pupil diameter in both age groups, with more constrained upregulation
214 in older adults (Fig. 4b). This effect could not be explained by a “spill-over” of differential luminance responses during
215 the cueing phase (see Fig. S4-2). The magnitude of pupil modulation was related to individual theta power increases
216 ($r(98) = .28$, 95%CI = [0.09, 0.46], $p = 0.005$; *age-partial*: $r(97) = .19$, 95%CI = [0, 0.38], $p = 0.05$), indicating a joint
217 uncertainty modulation. These results indicate that both age groups were sensitive to rising uncertainty, albeit older
218 adults to a dampened extent.

219



220

221 **Figure 4. Uncertainty increases theta power (a) and pupil diameter (b) across the adult lifespan, but**
222 **increases are attenuated in older age.** (Left) The topography indicates mean bootstrap ratios (BSR) from
223 the task partial least squares (PLS) model. “Brainscores” summarize the expression of this pattern into a
224 single score for each condition and participant (see methods; Fig. S4-1 shows condition-wise Brainscores).
225 (Center) Age comparison of linear Brainscore changes under uncertainty (–age x load interaction; p -values
226 refer to unpaired t-tests). Both signatures exhibited significant uncertainty modulation in younger, as well
227 as older adults (as assessed via one-sample t-tests; see Table S1), with constrained modulation in older
228 adults. (Right) Time series data are presented as means +- within-subject S.E.Ms. Orange shading in a
229 indicates the timepoints across which data have been averaged for the task PLS. Black lines in b indicate
230 time points exceeding a BSR of 3 (~99% threshold). The uncertainty modulation of pupil diameter occurred
231 on top of a general pupil constriction due to stimulus-evoked changes in luminance upon task onset (see
232 inset). Luminance did by stimulus design not systematically differ across load levels.

233

234 2.5 Only younger adults adjust posterior cortical excitability to varying uncertainty.

235 Elevated uncertainty may impact perception by altering sensory excitability. To test this, we focused on three indices
236 related to cortical excitability: alpha power, sample entropy, and aperiodic 1/f slopes ^{30,67}. We constrained analyses to

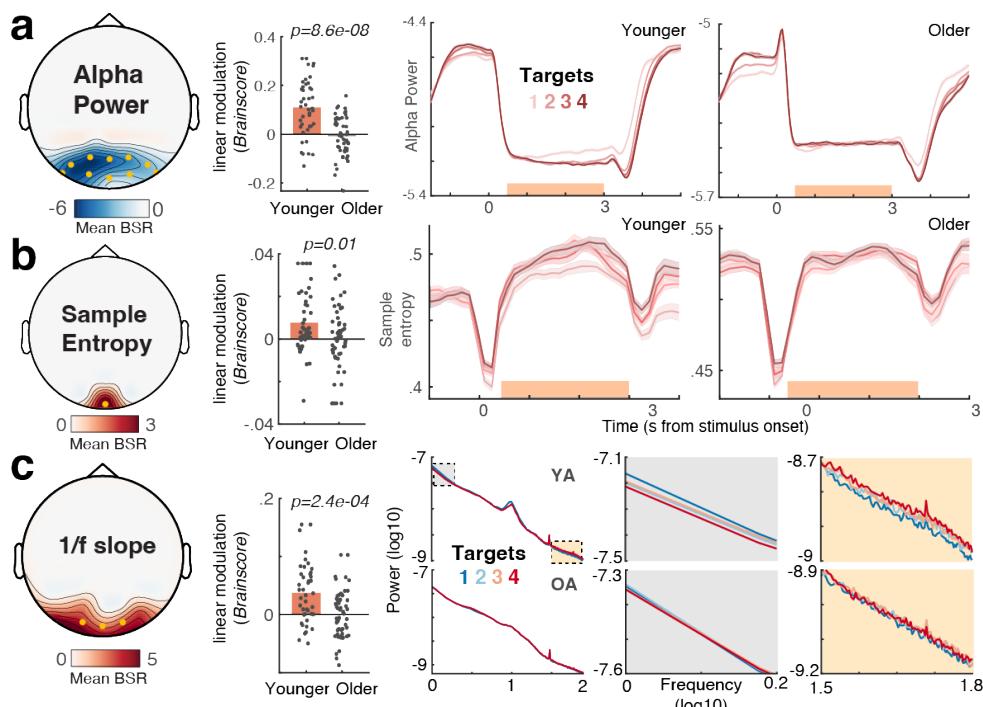


Figure 5. Only younger adults upregulate cortical excitability under increased uncertainty. (a-c) Results of task partial least squares (PLS) models, assessing relations of alpha power (a), sample entropy (b) and aperiodic $1/f$ slope (c) to uncertainty. (Left) Topographies indicate mean bootstrap ratios (BSR). Orange dots indicate the sensors across which data were averaged for data visualization. (Center) Age comparison of linear uncertainty effects (~age x uncertainty interaction). Statistics refer to unpaired t-tests. For condition-wise *Brainscores*, see Fig. S4-1. All three signatures exhibited significant uncertainty modulation in younger, but not in older adults. Table S1 reports within-group statistics. (Right) Time series data are presented as means +- within-subject S.E.Ms. Orange shading in a indicates the timepoints across which data have been averaged for the respective task-PLS. Black lines in b indicate time points exceeding a BSR of 3 (~99% threshold).

225 posterior sensors as we targeted visual-parietal cortices. *Text S5-3* reports whole-channel analyses. In younger adults,
 226 we observed uncertainty effects on all three signatures (Fig. 5 a-c), akin to those we previously reported³⁰. In line with
 227 putative excitability increases, posterior alpha power decreased alongside uncertainty, while sample entropy increased
 228 and the aperiodic spectral slope shallowed. However, we found no evidence of a similar modulation in older adults
 229 for any of the probed signatures (Fig. 5, see also Fig. S4-1), indicating a failure of the aged system to adjust to changing
 230 uncertainty demands. Such failure may be rooted in a less precise estimation of environmental uncertainty in the aged
 231 neural system¹⁶. However, we reduced inference demands in our design by providing overt cues on each trial, and
 232 keeping the cue set identical for eight consecutive trials. In line with age-invariant sensitivity to uncertainty cues, we
 233 observed comparable increases in pre-stimulus alpha power alongside uncertainty in both age groups (Fig. S5-1, see
 234 also *Text S5-1*). However, these increases were not associated with subsequent behavioral drift rate adjustments (Fig.
 235 S5-1 and *Text S5-1*), arguing against a direct role of pre-stimulus alpha power in adjudicating uncertainty. We
 236 additionally considered the steady-state visual evoked potential (SSVEP) as a proxy of bottom-up processing. Despite
 237 robust and comparable SSVEPs in both age groups, we found no evidence of uncertainty modulation in either group
 238 (Fig. S5-2, see also *Text S5-2*). Given that the 30 Hz flicker frequency was shared between all stimulus features, this
 239 suggests that sensory processing of the compound stimulus was similar between uncertainty conditions and age
 240 groups. Taken together, our results suggest that older adults may have suffered from a relative failure to adjust
 241 perceptual excitability to changing feature relevance, rather than insensitivity to uncertainty information or an inability
 242 to encode the undifferentiated stimulus.

243

244 **2.6 BOLD modulation links neuro-behavioral responses to uncertainty across the adult lifespan.**

245

246 Finally, we investigated uncertainty-related changes in whole-brain fMRI BOLD activation during stimulus
 247 presentation, extending sensitivity also to subcortical areas like the thalamus that are considered critical for managing
 248 task uncertainty^{30,68,69}. We targeted associations between uncertainty-related BOLD modulation and the *a priori*
 249 neurobehavioral signatures (i.e., uncertainty-induced changes in drift rate, theta power, pupil diameter, alpha power,

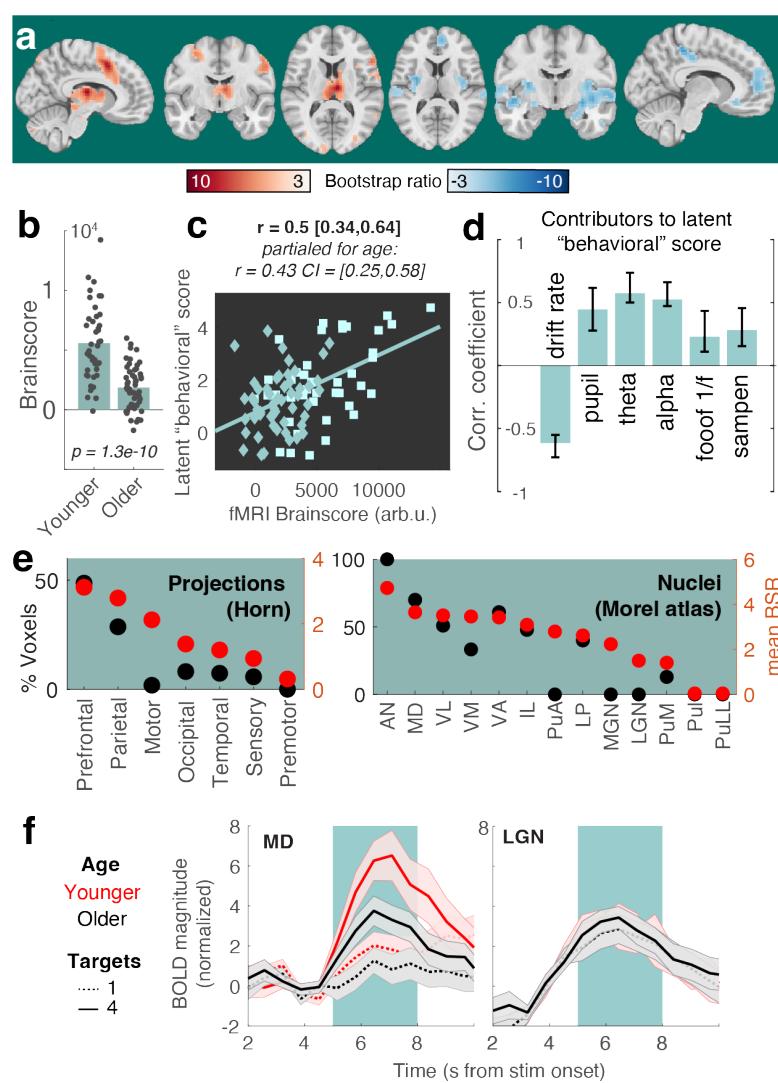


Figure 6: Multivariate relation of EEG/pupil/behavioral signatures to fMRI BOLD uncertainty modulation. (a) Results of a behavioral partial least squares (PLS) analysis linking linear changes in BOLD activation to interindividual EEG, pupil, and behavioral differences. Table S4 lists peak coordinates. (b) The multivariate expression of BOLD changes alongside rising uncertainty was reduced in older compared with younger adults. Table S1 reports within-group statistics. (c) Individual *fMRI Brainscore* differences related to behavioral composite scores, also after accounting for age covariation. Squares = younger individuals; diamonds = older individuals. (d) Contributing signatures to the *fMRI Brainscore*. All signature estimates refer to linear uncertainty changes. Error bars represent bootstrapped 95% confidence values. (e) Major nuclei and projection zones in which behavioral relations are maximally reliable according to average Bootstrap ratios (red) and the percentage of voxels in each subregion exceeding a BSR of 3. See Methods for abbreviations. Strongest expression is observed in nuclei that project to fronto-parietal cortical targets. (f) Visualization of uncertainty modulation for the mediodorsal nucleus, a “higher order” nucleus, and the LGN, a visual relay nucleus. Traces display mean +/- SEM. The green shading indicates the approximate stimulus presentation period after accounting for the delay in the hemodynamic response function.

1/f slopes, and sample entropy) using a multivariate behavioral PLS analysis (see *Methods*; Text S4-1 reports a task PLS targeting the main effect of uncertainty). We identified a single latent variable (LV; *permuted p* < 1e-3) with positive frontoparietal and thalamic loadings, and most pronounced negative loadings in medial PFC and hippocampus (Fig. 6a, Table S5). Loadings on this inter-individual difference LV resembled the main effect of uncertainty on BOLD activation (Fig. S6-1a). Older adults expressed this LV to a lesser extent than younger adults as indicated by lower *fMRI Brainscores* (Fig. 6b), indicating dampened BOLD modulation in the face of changing uncertainty. *Brainscores* were associated with the latent score of neurobehavioral input signatures (Fig. 6c), such that less dampened, more “young-like” BOLD modulation tracked a larger modulation of decision, EEG, and pupil signatures. Fig. 6d depicts relations to the individual signatures of the model: across age groups, greater BOLD modulation corresponded to larger drift rate reductions, more pronounced theta power and pupil diameter increases, and larger excitability modulation (see

260 Fig. S6-2a for more signatures). Brainscores did not significantly vary by gender (Fig. S6-2b). As the PLS model
261 captured variance both within and across age groups, we used linear-mixed-effects models to assess the age-
262 dependency of these relations. These models indicated that all *a priori* signatures, except sample entropy and 1/f
263 modulation, predicted *Brainscores* also after accounting for the shared main effects of age (Table 1). This indicates a
264 robust coupling of uncertainty effects between most signatures, while aligning with unobserved posterior excitability
265 modulation in older adults. Control analyses indicate that within- and between-group differences in BOLD modulation
266 did not reflect differential choice difficulty (i.e., accuracy) for individual features (Figs. S6-3 & S1-4c).
267

Predictor	t-value	p-value	partial η^2
Behavioral score	4.6043	1.32e-05	0.1962
age	-6.3809	7.00e-09	0.3192
Drift mod.	-4.3334	3.74e-05	0.2308
age	-3.9624	0.0001	0.2006
Pupil mod.	4.171	6.86e-05	0.1622
age	-6.7664	1.20e-09	0.3375
Theta mod.	4.2533	5.05e-05	0.2005
age	-4.8662	4.69e-06	0.2471
Alpha mod.	3.2185	0.0017	0.1294
age	-4.934	3.57e-06	0.2589
1/f mod.	0.10914	0.91	1.4502e-04
age	-6.7591	1.24e-09	0.3574
SampEn mod.	1.5944	0.11	0.0279
age	-6.7385	1.37e-09	0.3390

268
269 **Table 1: Summary of Brainscore predictors, while controlling for categorical age.** Separate
270 linear-mixed-effects models assessed effects of target signature, categorical age, and age \times
271 signature interactions on Brainscores. We observed no significant interaction in any of the models
272 (all $p > 0.05$), pointing to consistent relations across age groups; therefore, all reported models
273 only include main effects of signature and age. Fig. S6-2 reports similar results using partial
274 regressions. Degrees of freedom: 92 (all models).
275

276 Behavioral relations were closely tracked by thalamic BOLD activation. To obtain insights within this differentiated
277 structure, we assessed regional loadings based on projection zones and nucleus segmentations (Fig. 6e). Loadings were
278 highest in subregions with frontoparietal projections, including the mediodorsal nucleus (Fig. 6f). In contrast, a
279 traditional visual “relay” nucleus of the thalamus, the lateral geniculate nucleus, did not show sensitivity to our
280 uncertainty manipulation (Fig. 6f). This indicates a specificity of thalamic effects that coheres with functional
281 subdivisions and alludes to uncertainty-invariant sensory processing of the compound stimulus. These results indicate
282 that the mediodorsal thalamus contributes to maintained uncertainty adjustments across the adult lifespan.

283 Task uncertainty is a contextual challenge ¹⁷ that necessitates flexible control, including attentional and
284 working memory adjustment (see also *Supplementary Text 7*). We probed whether the fMRI activation observed here
285 can be reduced to either of these processes. In line with our operationalization capturing latent uncertainty, reverse
286 inference analyses indicate relations between spatial loadings of the behavioral PLS and prior “state entropy”²⁹
287 activation (Fig. S6-4) and meta-analytic “uncertainty” maps. This overlap was larger than with either “working
288 memory” or “attention” maps (see Text S6-4), suggesting that task uncertainty introduces multifaceted demands ⁷⁰
289 that do not fully converge with traditional working memory or attention manipulations.
290

291 3. Discussion

292 Managing uncertainty is vital for navigating the flux of life. While some environments help us to prioritize specific
293 inputs over others, many contexts provide few, contrasting, or ambiguous cues. Here, we manipulate task uncertainty
294 via unambiguous cues that are repeated on each trial. This design allows us to ask how task uncertainty impacts
295 downstream processing, in contrast with prior designs that ask how perceptually ambiguous task cues impact
296 processing of unambiguous inputs ^{68,71-73}. We show that healthy older adults exhibit markedly dampened adaptations
297 to explicit uncertainty variations across coupled EEG/fMRI/pupil signatures. Our results thereby extend observations
298 that older adults rely less on uncertainty representations to guide internal computations ¹⁶ by characterizing several
299 plausible mechanisms for this shortfall. Specifically, our results suggest that such computational constraints do not
300 exclusively stem from an inadequate sensitivity to latent uncertainty, as overt uncertainty cues were similarly processed
301

302 across age groups. Rather, our findings support the maintenance account of cognitive and brain aging ⁷⁴, wherein
303 individuals with a more “young-like” response more dynamically adjust perceptual and decision computations
304 according to momentary uncertainty.

305

306 **3.1 Age differences in selecting features of multi-task stimuli.**

307

308 In our retro-cue design, evidence integration towards perceptual choices indirectly indexes how multi-task stimuli were
309 processed. Older adults showed reduced modulation of evidence integration as a function of uncertainty but were also
310 marked by reduced drift rates in response to single-target cues. This is consistent with age-related problems of goal
311 selection in the context of inherently ambiguous multi-task stimuli ^{13,14,75}. Mayr (2001) indicated that “even when
312 people have complete knowledge about the type of action to perform in the immediate future, they have problems
313 implementing this knowledge in an optimal manner when more than one action rule may be relevant in principle” (p.
314 105). The MAAT’s multi-dimensional stimuli constantly feature such rule ambiguity, thus requiring internal
315 segregation and prioritization among possible task goals. A question concerns the relation of such “global set-selection
316 costs” to working memory capacity ^{13,14,75}, given that multi-task stimuli (and their cues) also require maintenance of
317 larger task sets. While the MAAT does not fully resolve this debate (*Supplementary Text 7*), it uses single-trial cues and
318 homogeneous cue blocks to limit working memory demands. As such, results for the single-target condition
319 conceptually replicate prior observations of large age differences in static set selection costs. In tandem, our uncertainty
320 manipulation indicates age differences in *dynamic* task set management, indicated by reduced adjustment of
321 downstream decision processes and larger relative performance costs in older as compared to younger adults.

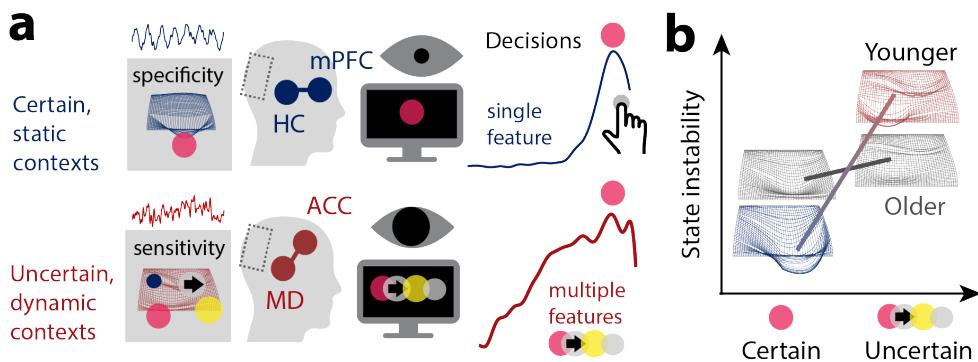
322

323 **3.2 Fronto-thalamic circuits may enable stable and flexible feature selection across the adult lifespan.**

324

325 As part of the neural uncertainty response, we observed a behaviorally relevant upregulation of anterior cingulate
326 cortex (ACC) BOLD activation and (presumably ACC-based ^{59,76}) mediofrontal theta power. By charting the
327 progression through multiple task contexts ⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹, the ACC can estimate contextual volatility ⁸⁰ and uncertainty ^{16,81} to
328 guide exploration of alternative goals, strategies, and attentional targets ^{60,82-84}. Non-human animal studies suggest that
329 high task uncertainty switches ACC dynamics to a state of increased excitability ^{67,85} and stochastic activity ⁸⁶, which
330 benefits concurrent sensitivity to alternate task rules ⁸⁷. Also in humans, the ACC is sensitive to stimulus features
331 before they behaviorally guide task strategies ^{86,88}, suggesting that the ACC contributes to the exploration of alternate
332 task strategies ^{89,90}. While our results align with such contribution, we also localize high uncertainty sensitivity in the
333 mediodorsal (MD) thalamus, which aligns with the MD being a key partner for selecting, switching, and maintaining
334 cortical task representations ^{23,91,92} especially in uncertain contexts that require multifaceted computational adjustments
335 ^{30,68,69}. Extrapolating from this emerging perspective, the MD-ACC circuit may regulate the extent of task set stability
336 vs. flexibility ⁹³⁻⁹⁵ according to contextual demands (Fig. 7a). Partial evidence for such a notion is provided by models
337 that link task stability in low-uncertainty contexts to thalamic engagement ⁹⁶. The current observations suggest a
338 complementary thalamic role in flexible task set management. While maintained across the adult lifespan, BOLD and
339 theta power signals indicated that such MD-ACC upregulation dampened in older age ^{97,98}. Indeed, the ACC network
340 is particularly susceptible to age-related metabolic declines ³⁵⁻³⁷ as well as structural atrophy ⁴⁴. Retained ACC function
341 on the other hand is a hallmark of cognitive reserve ⁹⁹, relates to maintained executive function ³⁷, and is a fruitful
342 target of cognitive interventions in older adults ⁹⁸. Given evidence of a key role of the MD thalamus in the coordination
343 of ACC engagement and our observations of reduced MD-ACC sensitivity to uncertainty in older age, the thalamus
344 may be an underappreciated site for cascading age-related deficits in cognitive stability and flexibility.

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Figure 7. Schematic model summary. (a) In static contexts, prefrontal-hippocampal networks may signal high confidence in the current task state, which enables stable task sets, and a targeted processing of specific sensory representations with high acuity. Such selective processing of specific task-relevant features benefits their efficient evidence integration. Such selectivity would be suboptimal in contexts with uncertain or changing task sets, however. An MD-ACC circuit may track such uncertainty and enhance stochastic task set flexibility in changing or ambiguous contexts. In coordination with posterior-parietal cortex, this feasibly enables more diverse albeit less precise perceptual representations. (b) The neural system of younger adults may more dynamically adjust feature fidelity during stimulus presentation to the degree of uncertainty. Observed effects align with a switch between a specific high-acuity processing of individual features (blue), and a more diverse, if less precise processing of multiple features (red; see also Thiele & Bellgrove, 2018). In contrast, the aged neural system may be stuck in a suboptimal middle ground that affords neither stable precision, nor flexible imprecision. mPFC = medial prefrontal cortex; HC = hippocampus; ACC = anterior cingulate cortex; MD = mediodorsal thalamus.

3.3 Neuromodulation may sculpt the dynamic range of uncertainty adjustments.

Neurotransmitter systems provide a candidate substrate for computational adjustments under uncertainty. In response to rising uncertainty, phasic norepinephrine release can sensitize the system to incoming signals^{100,101} by increasing neuro-behavioral activation^{61,102,103}. Pupil diameter, an index that is partially sensitive to noradrenergic drive⁶⁵, robustly increases alongside uncertainty during learning²⁸ and attention¹⁰⁴, environmental exploration¹⁰⁵, and change points in dynamic environments^{28,66,106}. Notably, increases have been observed in contexts that require an agent to learn more or less about a single option¹⁰⁷; i.e., conditions in which sensitivity for *one* option increases. Here, pupil increases precede *decreases* in evidence integration for single features. Under the notion that uncertainty requires exploration of a larger space of options, we argue that this is akin to a lower learning rate for an individual feature at the benefit of distributed learning across uncertain features. Non-selective gain increases, e.g., provided by global arousal, can favor such distributed learning¹⁰⁸. We observe that pupil sensitivity to rising uncertainty is retained across the adult lifespan but dampens in older age. Such dampening hints at declining noradrenergic responsiveness in older age^{41,109,110}, arising from reduced LC integrity^{111,112}, and/or decreased LC engagement¹¹³. Notably, pupil sensitivity to volatility has been related to the ACC as a primary source of cortical LC input^{27,114}, and joint increases of ACC activation and pupil diameter in uncertain, or dynamic contexts has consistently been observed in studies that record both signals^{2,29,30,63,64}. While future studies need to clarify the origin of constrained pupil adjustments in older age, our results affirm the relevance of the extended LC system for attentional function across the lifespan⁴¹. In contrast to noradrenaline's potential role in sensitizing, cholinergic innervation from the basal forebrain may foster selectivity via cortical gain increases^{115,116}. Notably, basal forebrain BOLD activation decreased under uncertainty alongside regions such as the medial prefrontal cortex and hippocampus, that are sensitive to subjective confidence¹¹⁷, suggesting that these regions may support stable task beliefs when uncertainty is low^{85,118,119} (Fig. 7a). The constrained BOLD modulation observed in older adults may thus point to reduced task set stability in low-uncertainty contexts (Fig. 7b)¹¹, plausibly as a consequence of limited cholinergic gain control. Similar ideas have been captured in the cortical gain theory of aging¹²⁰, but in the context of the dopamine system^{39,121}. Computational models and pharmacological studies indeed support a role of dopamine availability in task set stability and flexibility^{122,123}. For instance, amphetamines (operating via the DA system) can in- and decrease task set stability in ACC^{124,125} depending on baseline dopamine levels in frontoparietal cortex and thalamus¹²⁶. Given that our results align with the fronto-thalamic system being a primary neural substrate of cognitive aging^{39,45,127}, the potential contribution of age-related dopamine depletion to constrained uncertainty adjustments deserves future clarification.

391 **3.4 Excitability as a neural mechanism for acuity/sensitivity trade-offs.**

392
393 Uncertainty motivates sensitivity to multiple features at the cost of selective precision (or “acuity”) ³. Our decoding
394 results cohere with this notion, suggesting that representational fidelity depends on whether a feature is included in
395 the current task set ¹⁸, but also on competition with other elements for shared neuro-computational resources ¹²⁸.
396 Excitability changes in parietal/sensory cortices provide a candidate neural implementation for such trade-off. One
397 index of (decreased) cortical excitability is alpha power. Models suggest that broad alpha power increases reflect active
398 inhibition of irrelevant information ¹²⁹⁻¹³³, while targeted alpha desynchronization can selectively disinhibit relevant
399 information ⁴⁴. With advancing adult age, alpha power decreases broadly, which has been linked to inhibitory filtering
400 deficits ^{41,134-137} that manifest in maladaptive sensitivity also to irrelevant ⁷ and non-salient features ¹³⁸ of compound
401 stimuli ⁶. Decoding and decision analyses indeed indicate that older adults’ task performance suffered from reduced
402 single-target information, in line with selective filtering deficits ^{139,140}. Alpha desynchronization, in turn, is thought to
403 reflect increased sensitivity when multiple input features ²⁶ have to be jointly tracked ^{141,142} and retained in working
404 memory ¹⁴³⁻¹⁴⁶. In addition to alpha power, aperiodic dynamics such as the spectral slope of the EEG potential ¹⁴⁷ and
405 signal entropy ¹⁴⁸ may also index levels of neural excitability ^{67,147}. Here, we reproduce uncertainty-guided excitability
406 increases as indexed by all three signatures in younger adults ³⁰, but find no evidence for a comparable modulation in
407 older age. Such deficit may be rooted in age-related declines of GABAergic inhibition ^{42,43}. Aperiodic dynamics at rest
408 suggest increased excitatory tone in older age ¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵¹, including in the current sample ¹⁴⁸. Such imbalances ¹⁵² may
409 constrain the dynamic range of excitability modulation in older age, both on- and off-task ^{33,153}. It is also possible that
410 the consistently high level of perceptual uncertainty, i.e., the difficulty of arbitrating between choice options of each
411 feature, was overly taxing especially for older participants. Based on behavioral and decoding results, younger adults
412 were indeed better able to arbitrate feature-specific options across uncertainty levels, relative to older adults. In this
413 scenario, preserved excitability modulation may be observed if choice evidence was less ambiguous for individual
414 features. However, performance on the Stroop task suggests that age-related deficits (and individual differences) in
415 feature selection generalize to contexts of low perceptual ambiguity. Moreover, variations in perceptual difficulty
416 across features could not explain inter-individual and age differences in neural uncertainty modulation. As perceptual
417 uncertainty resolution relies on partially dissociable circuits from those implicated in feature selection ¹⁵⁴⁻¹⁵⁶, future
418 work needs to chart the ability to resolve either type across the lifespan.

419
420 **3.5 The role of working memory**

421
422 It is notoriously challenging to distinguish the explanatory power of competing functional mechanisms that could
423 explain age-related differences in cognition. In the current paradigm the manipulation of uncertainty was accomplished
424 by varying the number of potentially relevant features, which arguably may also increase working memory load.
425 However, there are several reasons why we believe that uncertainty is the primary driver of the observed pattern of
426 results. First, the increase of age differences was greatest when transitioning from one to two possible features. While
427 both one and two features should remain well within working memory capacity, the difference between these two
428 conditions is highly significant on the uncertainty dimension (i.e., the contrast between certainty and uncertainty).
429 Further, our reversed-inference analyses indicate that the neuroanatomical results are more consistent with age effects
430 in uncertainty processing than in working-memory functioning. On a more theoretical level, it is important to note
431 that when it comes to aging, working memory is not a simple, unidimensional construct. For example, the fact that
432 age-independent individual differences and age differences express themselves in markedly different manners ¹⁵⁷⁻¹⁵⁹,
433 makes this construct much less attractive as a general, candidate mechanism. Instead, an age-related failure to
434 dynamically respond to uncertainty has the potential of providing a unifying explanation of age differences across
435 paradigms and domains.

436
437 **3.6 Conclusion**

438
439 Uncertainty provides an important signal for adaptive cognitive control. We highlight that implementing such
440 uncertainty-based control presents a principled challenge for the aged brain. Our results thus argue that uncertainty
441 provides a useful lens on healthy cognitive aging and underline the need to better understand the integrated neural
442 basis of estimating and computationally leveraging uncertainty signals across the lifespan.

443 **Methods**

444

445 **Sample.** 47 healthy young adults (mean age = 25.8 years, SD = 4.6, range 18 to 35 years; 25 women) and 53 healthy
446 older adults (mean age = 68.7 years, SD = 4.2, range 59 to 78 years; 28 women) performed a perceptual decision task
447 during 64-channel active scalp EEG acquisition. 42 younger adults and all older adults returned for a subsequent 3T
448 fMRI session. We recruited a combined total of N = 100 participants, with approximately age-matched and gender-
449 matched sample sizes informed by our prior inter-individual work ³⁰. Gender of participants was determined based
450 on self-report. Participants were recruited from the participant database of the Max Planck Institute for Human
451 Development, Berlin, Germany (MPIB). Participants were right-handed, as assessed with a modified version of the
452 Edinburgh Handedness Inventory ¹⁶⁰, and had normal or corrected-to-normal vision. Participants reported to be in
453 good health with no known history of neurological or psychiatric incidences and were paid for their participation (10
454 € per hour). All older adults had Mini Mental State Examination (MMSE) ^{161,162} scores above 25. All participants gave
455 written informed consent according to the institutional guidelines of the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Psychologie
456 (DGPS) ethics board, which approved the study.

457

458 **Procedure: EEG Session.** Participants were seated 60 cm in front of a monitor in an acoustically and electrically
459 shielded chamber with their heads placed on a chin rest. Following electrode placement, participants were instructed
460 to rest with their eyes open and closed, each for 3 minutes. Afterwards, participants performed a Stroop task (see
461 below), followed by the visual attention task instruction & practice (see below), the performance of the task and a
462 second Stroop assessment. Stimuli were presented on a 60 Hz 1920x1080p LCD screen (AG Neovo X24) using
463 PsychToolbox 3.0.11 ¹⁶³⁻¹⁶⁵. The session lasted ~3 hours. EEG was continuously recorded from 60 active (Ag/AgCl)
464 electrodes using BrainAmp amplifiers (Brain Products GmbH, Gilching, Germany). Scalp electrodes were arranged
465 within an elastic cap (EASYCAP GmbH, Herrsching, Germany) according to the 10% system ¹⁶⁶, with the ground
466 placed at AFz. To monitor eye movements, two additional electrodes were placed on the outer canthi (horizontal
467 EOG) and one electrode below the left eye (vertical EOG). During recording, all electrodes were referenced to the
468 right mastoid electrode, while the left mastoid electrode was recorded as an additional channel. Online, signals were
469 digitized at a sampling rate of 1 kHz. In addition to EEG, we simultaneously tracked eye movements and assessed
470 pupil diameter using EyeLink 1000+ hardware (SR Research, v.4.594) with a sampling rate of 1kHz.

471

472 **Procedure: MRI session.** A second testing session included structural and functional MRI assessments. First,
473 participants received a short refresh of the task (“MAAT”, see below) instructions and practiced the task outside the
474 scanner. Then, participants were placed in the TimTrio 3T scanner and were instructed in the button mapping. We
475 collected the following sequences: T1w, task (4 runs), T2w, resting state, DTI, with a 15 min out-of-scanner break
476 following the task acquisition. The session lasted ~3 hours. Whole-brain task fMRI data (4 runs á ~11,5 mins, 1066
477 volumes per run) were collected via a 3T Siemens TrioTim MRI system (Erlangen, Germany) using a multi-band EPI
478 sequence (factor 4; TR = 645 ms; TE = 30 ms; flip angle 60°; FoV = 222 mm; voxel size 3x3x3 mm; 40 transverse
479 slices. The first 12 volumes (12 × 645 ms = 7.7 sec) were removed to ensure a steady state of tissue magnetization
480 (total remaining volumes = 1054 per run). A T1-weighted structural scan (MPRAGE: TR = 2500 ms; TE = 4.77 ms;
481 flip angle 7°; FoV = 256 mm; voxel size 1x1x1 mm; 192 sagittal slices) and a T2-weighted structural scan were also
482 acquired (GRAPPA: TR = 3200 ms; TE = 347 ms; FoV = 256 mm; voxel size 1x1x1 mm; 176 sagittal slices).

483

484 **The multi-attribute attention task (“MAAT”).** The MAAT requires participants to sample up to four visual
485 features in a compound stimulus, in the absence of systematic variation in bottom-up visual stimulation (see Figure
486 1). Participants were shown a dynamic stimulus that combined four features of visual squares: their color (red/green),
487 movement direction (left, right), size (small, large) and saturation (low, high). The task incorporates features from
488 random dot motion tasks which have been extensively studied in both animal models ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁶⁹ and humans ^{55,170}.
489 Following stimulus presentation, a probe queried the prevalence of one feature (e.g., color: whether the stimulus
490 contained more red or green squares) via 2-AFC (alternative forced choice). Before stimulus onset, a valid cue
491 informed participants about the feature set, out of which the probe feature would be selected. We parametrically
492 manipulated task uncertainty by including between one and four features in the cue. Participants were instructed to
493 respond as fast and accurately as possible to increase their chance of bonus. They were instructed to use cue
494 information to guide their attention during stimulus presentation between “focusing on a single feature” vs.
495 “considering multiple features” to optimally prepare for the upcoming probe.

496 The perceptual difficulty of each feature was determined by (a) sensory differences between the two options
497 and (b) the relative evidence for either option. For (a) the following values were used: high (RGB: 128, 255, 0) and
498 low saturation green (RGB: 192, 255, 128) and high (RGB: 255, 0, 43) and low saturated red (RGB: 255, 128, 149) for
499 color and saturation, 5 and 8 pixels for size differences and a coherence of .2 for directions. For (b) the relative choice
500 evidence was chosen as follows: color: 60/40; direction: 80/20; size: 65/35; saturation: 60/40. Parameter difficulty
501 was established in a pilot population, with the aim to produce above-chance accuracy for individual features.
502 Parameters were held constant across age groups to equate bottom-up inputs.

503 Each session included four approx. 10 min task runs, each including eight blocks of eight trials (i.e., a total
504 of 32 trial blocks; 256 trials). The size and constellation of the cue set was held constant within eight-trial blocks to
505 reduce set switching and working memory demands. At the onset of each block, the valid cue set, composed of one
506 to four target features, was presented for 5 s. Each trial was structured as follows: recuing phase (1 s), fixation phase
507 (2 s), dynamic stimulus phase (3 s), probe phase (incl. response; 2 s); ITI (un-jittered; 1.5 s). At the offset of each
508 block, participants received performance feedback for 3 s. The four features spanned a constellation of 16 feature
509 combinations (4x4), of which presentation frequency was matched within participants. The size and type of the cue
510 set was pseudo-randomized: Within each run, every set size was presented once, but never directly following a block
511 of the same set size. In every block, each feature in the active set acted as a probe in at least one trial. Moreover, any
512 feature served as a probe equally often across blocks. The dominant options for each feature were counterbalanced
513 across all trials of the experiment. To retain high motivation during the task and encourage fast and accurate responses,
514 we instructed participants that one response would randomly be drawn at the end of each block; if this response was
515 correct and faster than the mean RT during the preceding block, they would earn a reward of 20 cents. However, we
516 pseudo-randomized feedback such that all participants received an additional fixed payout of 10 € per session. This
517 bonus was paid at the end of the second session, at which point participants were debriefed.

518

519 **Stroop performance.** Participants performed a voiced Stroop task before and after the main MAAT task in the EEG
520 session. EEG signals were acquired during task performance. One participant did not complete the second Stroop
521 acquisition. In the Stroop task, we presented three words (RED, GREEN, BLUE) either in the congruent or
522 incongruent display color. Each of the two runs consisted of 81 trials, with fully matched combinations, i.e., 1/3rd
523 congruent trials. Stimuli were presented for two seconds, followed by a one-second ITI with a centrally presented
524 fixation cross. Participants were instructed to indicate the displayed color as fast and accurately as possible following
525 stimulus onset by speaking into a microphone. During analysis, speech on- and offsets were pre-labeled automatically
526 using a custom tool (**Computer-Assisted Response Labeler (CARL)**; doi: 10.5281/zenodo.7505622), and manually
527 inspected and refined by one of two trained labelers. Voiced responses were manually labeled using the CARL GUI.
528 Speech onset times (SOTs) were highly reliable across two Stroop sessions preceding and following the MAAT ($r = .83$, $p = 5e-26$), as were individual interference costs ($r = .64$, $p = 5e-13$). We therefore averaged SOTs estimates across
529 both runs, where available. For EEG analyses, single-trial time series were aligned to SOTs, and averaged according
530 to coherence conditions. The centroparietal positive potential was extracted from channel POz, at which we observed
531 a maximum potential during the average 300 ms prior to SOT (see inset in Fig. 3a).

532

533 **Behavioral estimates of probe-related decision processes.** Sequential sampling models, such as the drift-diffusion
534 model, have been used to characterize evolving perceptual decisions in 2-AFC random dot motion tasks ⁵⁵, memory
535 retrieval ¹⁷¹, and probabilistic decision making ¹⁷². We estimated individual evidence integration parameters within the
536 HDDM 0.6.0 toolbox ⁵⁴ to regularize relatively sparse within-subject data with group priors based on a large number
537 of participants. Premature responses faster than 250 ms were excluded prior to modeling, and the probability of
538 outliers was set to 5%. 7000 Markov-Chain Monte Carlo samples were sampled to estimate parameters, with the first
539 5000 samples being discarded as burn-in to achieve convergence. We judged convergence for each model by visually
540 assessing both Markov chain convergence and posterior predictive fits. Individual estimates were averaged across the
541 remaining 2000 samples for follow-up analyses. We fitted data to correct and incorrect RTs (termed ‘accuracy coding’
542 in Wiecki, et al. ⁵⁴). To explain differences in decision components, we compared four separate models. In the ‘full
543 model’, we allowed the following parameters to vary between conditions: (i) the mean drift rate across trials, (ii) the
544 threshold separation between the two decision bounds, (iii) the non-decision time, which represents the summed
545 duration of sensory encoding and response execution. In the remaining models, we reduced model complexity, by
546 only varying (a) drift, (b) drift + threshold, or (c) drift + NDT, with a null model fixing all three parameters. For
547 model comparison, we first used the Deviance Information Criterion (DIC) to select the model which provided the
548 best fit to our data. The DIC compares models based on the maximal log-likelihood value, while penalizing model
549

550 complexity. The full model provided the best fit to the empirical data based on the DIC index (Figure S1c) in both
551 the EEG and the fMRI session, and in either age group. Posterior predictive checks indicated a suitable recovery of
552 behavioral effects using this full solution. Given the observation of high reliability between sessions³⁰ (see also Figure
553 S1-2), we averaged parameter estimates across the EEG and fMRI sessions for the main analysis. In contrast with
554 previous work³⁰, we did not constrain boundary separation estimates¹⁷³ here given our observation of CPP threshold
555 differences in older adults (see Figure S1-3a). See also Text 1-2 for a brief discussion of NDT and boundary separation.
556

557 **EEG preprocessing.** Preprocessing and analysis of EEG data were conducted with the FieldTrip toolbox
558 (v.20170904)¹⁷⁴ and using custom-written MATLAB (The MathWorks Inc., Natick, MA, USA) code. Offline, EEG
559 data were filtered using a 4th order Butterworth filter with a passband of 0.5 to 100 Hz. Subsequently, data were
560 downsampled to 500 Hz and all channels were re-referenced to mathematically averaged mastoids. Blink, movement
561 and heart-beat artifacts were identified using Independent Component Analysis (ICA;¹⁷⁵) and removed from the
562 signal. Artifact-contaminated channels (determined across epochs) were automatically detected using (a) the FASTER
563 algorithm¹⁷⁶, and by (b) detecting outliers exceeding three standard deviations of the kurtosis of the distribution of
564 power values in each epoch within low (0.2-2 Hz) or high (30-100 Hz) frequency bands, respectively. Rejected channels
565 were interpolated using spherical splines¹⁷⁷. Subsequently, noisy epochs were likewise excluded based on a custom
566 implementation of FASTER and on recursive outlier detection. Finally, recordings were segmented to stimulus onsets
567 and were epoched into separate trials. To enhance spatial specificity, scalp current density estimates were derived via
568 4th order spherical splines¹⁷⁷ using a standard 1005 channel layout (conductivity: 0.33 S/m; regularization: 1⁻⁰⁵; 14th
569 degree polynomials).

570
571 **Electrophysiological estimates of probe-related decision processes.**

572
573 **Centro-Parietal Positivity (CPP).** The Centro-Parietal Positivity (CPP) is an electrophysiological signature of
574 internal evidence-to-bound accumulation^{55,173,178}. We investigated the task modulation of this established signature
575 and assessed its convergence with behavioral parameter estimates. To derive the CPP, preprocessed EEG data were
576 low-pass filtered at 8 Hz with a 6th order Butterworth filter to exclude low-frequency oscillations, epoched relative to
577 response and averaged across trials within each condition. In accordance with the literature, this revealed a dipolar
578 scalp potential that exhibited a positive peak over parietal channel POz (Fig. 1c). We temporally normalized individual
579 CPP estimates to a condition-specific baseline during the final 250 ms preceding probe onset. As a proxy of evidence
580 drift rate, CPP slopes were estimated via linear regression from -250 ms to -100 ms surrounding response execution,
581 while the average CPP amplitude from -50 ms to 50 ms served as an indicator of decision thresholds (i.e., boundary
582 separation; e.g.,¹⁷³).
583

584 **Contralateral mu-beta.** Decreases in contralateral mu-beta power provide a complementary, effector-specific
585 signature of evidence integration^{56,173}. We estimated mu-beta power using 7-cycle wavelets for the 8-25 Hz range with
586 a step size of 50 ms. Spectral power was time-locked to probe presentation and response execution. We re-mapped
587 channels to describe data recorded contra- and ipsi-lateral to the executed motor response in each trial, and averaged
588 data from those channels to derive grand average mu-beta time courses. Individual average mu-beta time series were
589 baseline-corrected using the -400 to -200 ms prior to probe onset, separately for each condition. For contralateral
590 motor responses, remapped sites C3/5 and CP3/CP5 were selected based on the grand average topography for
591 lateralized response executions (see inset in Figure S2a). Mu-beta slopes were estimated via linear regression from -
592 250 ms to -50 ms prior to response execution, while the average power from -50 ms to 50 ms indexed decision
593 thresholds (e.g.,¹⁷³).
594

595 **Electrophysiological indices of top-down modulation during sensation**
596

597 **Low-frequency alpha and theta power.** We estimated low-frequency power via a 7-cycle wavelet transform (linearly
598 spaced center frequencies; 1 Hz steps; 2 to 15 Hz). The step size of estimates was 50 ms, ranging from -1.5 s prior to
599 cue onset to 3.5 s following stimulus offset. Estimates were log10-transformed at the single trial level¹⁷⁹, with no
600 explicit baseline-correction. For statistics, data were averaged across time windows of interest (see respective Figure
601 captions) and entered a task-PLS analysis (see “Multivariate partial least squares analyses”) to quantify the magnitude
602 of power modulation as a function of target load without the need to pre-specify relevant channels.
603

604 **Steady State Visual Evoked Potential (SSVEP).** The SSVEP characterizes the phase-locked, entrained visual
605 activity (here 30 Hz) during dynamic stimulus updates (e.g.,¹⁸⁰). These features differentiate it from induced broadband
606 activity or muscle artefacts in similar frequency bands. We used these properties to normalize individual single-trial
607 SSVEP responses prior to averaging: (a) we calculated an FFT for overlapping one second epochs with a step size of
608 100 ms (Hanning-based multitaper) and averaged them within each uncertainty condition; (b) spectrally normalized
609 30 Hz estimates by subtracting the average of estimates at 28 and 32 Hz, effectively removing broadband effects (i.e.,
610 aperiodic slopes), and; (c) we subtracted a temporal baseline -700 to -100 ms prior to stimulus onset. Linear uncertainty
611 effects on SSVEPs were assessed by paired t-tests on linear uncertainty slope estimates across posterior channel
612 averages.

613
614 **Time-resolved sample entropy.** Sample entropy¹⁸¹ quantifies the irregularity of a time series of length N by assessing
615 the conditional probability that two sequences of m consecutive data points will remain similar when another sample
616 ($m+1$) is included in the sequence (for a visual example see Figure 1A in¹⁴⁸). Sample entropy is defined as the inverse
617 natural logarithm of this conditional similarity: The similarity criterion (r) defines the tolerance within which two points
618 are considered similar and is defined relative to the standard deviation (\sim variance) of the signal (here set to $r = .5$).
619 We set the sequence length m to 2, in line with previous applications¹⁴⁸. An adapted version of sample entropy
620 calculations implemented in the mMSE toolbox (available from <https://github.com/LNDG/mMSE>) was used^{148,182},
621 wherein entropy is estimated across discontinuous data segments to provide time-resolved estimates. The estimation
622 of scale-wise entropy across trials allows for an estimation of coarse scale entropy also for short time-bins (i.e., without
623 requiring long, continuous signals), while quickly converging with entropy estimates from continuous recordings¹⁸³.
624 To remove the influence of posterior-occipital low-frequency rhythms on entropy estimates, we notch-filtered the 8-
625 15 Hz alpha band using 6th order Butterworth filter prior to the entropy calculation¹⁴⁸. Time-resolved entropy
626 estimates were calculated for 500 ms windows from -1 s pre-stimulus to 1.25 s post-probe with a step size of 150 ms.
627 As entropy values are implicitly normalized by the variance in each time bin via the similarity criterion, no temporal
628 baseline correction was applied.

629
630 **Aperiodic (1/f) slopes.** The aperiodic 1/f slope of neural recordings is closely related to the sample entropy of
631 broadband signals¹⁴⁸ and has been suggested as a proxy for cortical excitation-inhibition balance¹⁴⁷. Spectral estimates
632 were computed by means of a Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) over the final 2.5 s of the presentation period (to exclude
633 onset transients) for linearly spaced frequencies between 2 and 80 Hz (step size of 0.5 Hz; Hanning-tapered segments
634 zero-padded to 20 s) and subsequently averaged. Spectral power was log10-transformed to render power values more
635 normally distributed across participants. Power spectral density (PSD) slopes were estimated using the fooof toolbox
636 (v1.0.0-dev) using default parameters¹⁸⁴.

637
638 **Pupil diameter.** Pupil diameter was recorded during the EEG session using EyeLink 1000 at a sampling rate of 1000
639 Hz and was analyzed using FieldTrip and custom-written MATLAB scripts. Blinks were automatically indicated by
640 the EyeLink software (version 4.40). To increase the sensitivity to periods of partially occluded pupils or eye
641 movements, the first derivative of eye-tracker-based vertical eye movements was calculated, z-standardized, and
642 outliers ≥ 3 STD were removed. We additionally removed data within 150 ms preceding or following indicated
643 outliers. Finally, missing data were linearly interpolated, and data were epoched to 3.5 s prior to stimulus onset to 1 s
644 following stimulus offset. We quantified phasic arousal responses via the rate of change of pupil diameter traces as
645 this measure (i) has higher temporal precision and (ii) has been more strongly associated with noradrenergic responses
646 than the overall response¹⁸⁵. We down-sampled pupil timeseries to 100 Hz. First derivative pupil traces were
647 smoothed using a 300 ms moving median. For statistics, timeseries were entered into a task-PLS (see “Multivariate
648 partial least squares analyses”) to quantify the magnitude of pupil modulation as a function of target load without the
649 need to pre-specify a relevant time window.

650
651 **fMRI-based analyses**

652
653 **Preprocessing of functional MRI data.** fMRI data were preprocessed with FSL 5 (RRID:SCR_002823)^{186,187}. Pre-
654 processing included motion correction using McFLIRT, smoothing (7mm) and high-pass filtering (.01 Hz) using an
655 8th order zero-phase Butterworth filter applied using MATLAB’s filtfilt function. We registered individual functional
656 runs to the individual, ANTs brain-extracted T2w images (6 DOF), to T1w images (6 DOF) and finally to 3mm
657 standard space (ICBM 2009c MNI152 nonlinear symmetric)¹⁸⁸ using nonlinear transformations in ANTs 2.1.0¹⁸⁹ (for

658 one participant, no T2w image was acquired and 6 DOF transformation of BOLD data was preformed directly to the
659 T1w structural scan). We then masked the functional data with the ICBM 2009c GM tissue prior (thresholded at a
660 probability of 0.25), and detrended the functional images (up to a cubic trend) using SPM12's *spm_detrend*. We also
661 used a series of extended preprocessing steps to further reduce potential non-neural artifacts ^{153,190}. Specifically, we
662 examined data within-subject, within-run via spatial independent component analysis (ICA) as implemented in FSL-
663 MELODIC ¹⁹¹. Due to the high multiband data dimensionality in the absence of low-pass filtering, we constrained
664 the solution to 30 components per participant. Noise components were identified according to several key criteria:
665 a) Spiking (components dominated by abrupt time series spikes); b) Motion (prominent edge or “ringing” effects,
666 sometimes [but not always] accompanied by large time series spikes); c) Susceptibility and flow artifacts (prominent
667 air-tissue boundary or sinus activation; typically represents cardio/respiratory effects); d) White matter (WM) and
668 ventricle activation ¹⁹²; e) Low-frequency signal drift ¹⁹³; f) High power in high-frequency ranges unlikely to represent
669 neural activity ($\geq 75\%$ of total spectral power present above .10 Hz); and g) Spatial distribution (“spotty” or
670 “speckled” spatial pattern that appears scattered randomly across $\geq 25\%$ of the brain, with few if any clusters with \geq
671 80 contiguous voxels). Examples of these various components we typically deem to be noise can be found in ¹⁹⁴. By
672 default, we utilized a conservative set of rejection criteria; if manual classification decisions were challenging due to
673 mixing of “signal” and “noise” in a single component, we generally elected to keep such components. Three
674 independent raters of noise components were utilized; $> 90\%$ inter-rater reliability was required on separate data
675 before denoising decisions were made on the current data. Components identified as artifacts were then regressed
676 from corresponding fMRI runs using the *regfilt* command in FSL. To reduce the influence of motion and physiological
677 fluctuations, we regressed FSL's 6 DOF motion parameters from the data, in addition to average signal within white
678 matter and CSF masks. Masks were created using 95% tissue probability thresholds to create conservative masks. Data
679 and regressors were demeaned and linearly detrended prior to multiple linear regression for each run. To further
680 reduce the impact of potential motion outliers, we censored significant DVARS outliers during the regression as
681 described by ¹⁹⁵. We calculated the ‘practical significance’ of DVARS estimates and applied a threshold of 5 ¹⁹⁶. The
682 regression-based residuals were subsequently spectrally interpolated during DVARS outliers as described in ¹⁹⁵ and
683 ¹⁹⁷. BOLD analyses were restricted to participants with both EEG and MRI data available (N = 42 YA, N = 53 OA).
684

685 **fMRI decoding of prevalent feature options.** We performed a decoding analysis to analyze the extent to which
686 participants' visual cortices contained information about the prevalent option of each feature. N = 2 older adults with
687 two missing runs each were not included in this analysis due to the limited number of eligible trials. We trained a
688 decoder based on BOLD signals from within a visual cortex mask that included Jülich parcellations ranging from V1
689 to area MT. We resliced the mask to 3mm and created an intersection mask with the cortical grey matter mask used
690 throughout the remaining analyses. For classification analyses, we used linear support-vector machines (SVM) ¹⁹⁸
691 implemented with libsvm (www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvm). As no separate session was recorded, we trained
692 classifiers based on all trials (across uncertainty conditions) in which the target feature was probed, therefore
693 necessitating but not exhaustively capturing trials on which the respective feature was also cued. By experimental
694 design, the number of trials in which a target feature was probed was matched across uncertainty levels. We used a
695 bootstrap classification approach in the context of leave-one-out cross-validation to derive single-trial estimates of
696 decoding accuracy. To increase the signal-to-noise ratio for the decoders, we averaged randomly selected trials into
697 three folds (excluding any trial used for testing) and concatenated two pseudo-trials from each condition to create the
698 training set. Trained decoders were then applied to the left-out trial. This train-and-test procedure was randomly
699 repeated 100 times to create bootstrapped single-trial estimates. Finally, decoding accuracy was averaged across trials
700 based on condition assignment (e.g., whether a given feature was cued or uncued). To assess above-chance decoding
701 accuracy in time, we used univariate cluster-based permutation analyses (CBPAs). These univariate tests were
702 performed by means of dependent samples t-tests, and cluster-based permutation tests ¹⁹⁹ were performed to control
703 for multiple comparisons. Initially, a clustering algorithm formed clusters based on significant t-tests of individual data
704 points ($p < .05$, two-sided; cluster entry threshold) with the spatial constraint of a cluster covering a minimum of three
705 neighboring channels. Then, the significance of the observed cluster-level statistic (based on the summed t-values
706 within the cluster) was assessed by comparison to the distribution of all permutation-based cluster-level statistics. The
707 final cluster p-value was assessed as the proportion of 1000 Monte Carlo iterations in which the cluster-level statistic
708 was exceeded. Cluster significance was indicated by p-values below .025 (two-sided cluster significance threshold). To
709 test uncertainty and age effects, we initially fitted linear mixed effects models with random intercepts and fixed effects
710 of uncertainty, age, and an uncertainty x age interaction. As no significant interaction was indicated for any of the
711 models (probed: $p = 0.760$; unprobed: $p = 0.434$; all: $p = 0.625$), we removed the interaction term for the main effect

712 estimation. We constrained analysis to timepoints for which the cluster-based permutation analysis indicated above-
713 chance decoding for cued features (Fig. 2a; 4.5-11.5 s post-stimulus onset). We focused on probed and unprobed
714 feature trials, as they are matched in trial number at each uncertainty level.

715
716 **BOLD uncertainty modulation and relation to multi-modal signatures.** We conducted a 1st level analysis using
717 SPM12 to identify beta weights for each condition separately. Design variables included stimulus presentation (4
718 volumes; separate regressors for each uncertainty condition; parametrically modulated by sequence position), onset
719 cue (no mod.), and probe (2 volumes, parametric modulation by RT). Design variables were convolved with a
720 canonical HRF, including its temporal derivative as a nuisance term. Nuisance regressors included 24 motion
721 parameters²⁰⁰, as well as continuous DVARS estimates. Autoregressive modelling was implemented via FAST. Output
722 beta images for each uncertainty condition were finally averaged across runs. At the group (2nd) level, we examined
723 the relationship between voxel-wise 1st level beta weights and uncertainty conditions within a task PLS analysis; and
724 probed links between linear BOLD modulation and interindividual differences in multi-modal signatures of interest
725 via a behavioral PLS (see *Multivariate partial least squares analyses*). For visualization, spatial clusters were defined based
726 on a minimum distance of 10 mm, and by exceeding a size of 25 voxels. We identified regions associated with peak
727 activity based on cytoarchitectonic probabilistic maps implemented in the SPM Anatomy Toolbox (Version 2.2c)²⁰¹.
728 If no assignment was found, the most proximal assignment to the peak coordinates was reported.
729

730 **Temporal dynamics of thalamic engagement.** To visualize the uncertainty modulation of thalamic activity, we
731 extracted signals within a binary mask of thalamic divisions extracted from the Morel atlas²⁰². Preprocessed BOLD
732 timeseries were segmented into trials, spanning the period from the stimulus onset to the onset of the feedback phase.
733 Given a time-to-peak of a canonical hemodynamic response function (HRF) between 5-6 seconds, we designated the
734 3 second interval from 5-8 seconds following the stimulus onset trigger as the stimulus presentation interval, and the
735 2 second interval from 3-5 s as the fixation interval, respectively. Single-trial time series were then temporally
736 normalized to the temporal average during the approximate fixation interval.
737

738 **Thalamic loci of behavioral PLS.** To assess the thalamic loci of most reliable behavioral relations, we assessed
739 bootstrap ratios within two thalamic masks. First, for nucleic subdivisions, we used the Morel parcellation scheme as
740 consolidated and kindly provided by Hwang et al.²⁰³ for 3 mm data at 3T field strength. The abbreviations are as
741 follows: AN: anterior nucleus; VM: ventromedial; VL: ventrolateral; MGN: medial geniculate nucleus; LGN: lateral
742 geniculate nucleus; MD: mediodorsal; PuA: anterior pulvinar; LP: lateral-posterior; IL: intra-laminar; VA: ventral-
743 anterior; PuM: medial pulvinar; PuL: pulvinar proper; PuL: lateral pulvinar. Second, to assess cortical white-matter
744 projections we considered the overlap with seven structurally derived cortical projection zones suggested by Horn &
745 Blankenburg²⁰⁴, which were derived from a large adult sample ($N = 169$). We binarized continuous probability maps
746 at a relative 75% threshold of the respective maximum probability, and re-sliced masks to 3mm (ICBM 2009c
747 MNI152).

748
749 **Statistical analyses**

750
751 **Outlier handling.** For each signature, we defined outliers at the subject-level as individuals within their respective
752 age group whose values (e.g., estimates of linear modulation) exceeded three scaled median absolute deviations (MAD)
753 as implemented in MATLAB. Such individual data points were winsorized prior to statistical analysis. For repeated
754 measures analyses, such individuals were removed prior to statistical assessment.
755

756 **Linear uncertainty effect estimates.** To estimate the linear uncertainty modulation of dependent variables, we
757 calculated 1st level beta estimates ($y = \text{intercept} + \beta * \text{target load} + e$) and assessed the slope difference from zero at the
758 within-group level (see Table S1) using two-sided paired t-tests. Similarly, we compared linear uncertainty effect
759 estimates between groups using two-sides unpaired t-tests. We assessed the relation of individual linear load effects
760 between measures of interest via Pearson correlations.
761

762 **Within-subject centering.** To visually emphasize effects within participants, we use within-subject centering across
763 repeated measures conditions by subtracting individual cross-condition means and adding global group means. For
764 these visualizations, only the mean of the dependent values directly reflects the original units of measurement, as
765 individual data points by construction do not reflect between-subject variation averaged across conditions. This

766 procedure equals the creation of within-subject standard errors ²⁰⁵. Within-subject centering is exclusively used for
767 display and explicitly noted in the respective legends.
768

769 **Multivariate partial least squares analyses.** For data with a high-dimensional structure, we performed multivariate
770 partial least squares analyses. PLS is a multivariate statistical technique used to identify relationships between two sets
771 of variables. In neuroimaging studies, task PLS is often employed to relate brain activity (measured by techniques like
772 fMRI, EEG, or MEG) to experimental conditions (task PLS) or behavioral measures (behavioral PLS) ^{206,207}.

773 To assess main effects of uncertainty, we performed Task PLS analyses. Task PLS begins by calculating a
774 between-subject covariance matrix (COV) between conditions and a ‘*neural*’ index. This covariance matrix is then
775 decomposed using singular value decomposition (SVD). This yields a left singular vector of experimental condition
776 weights (U), a right singular vector of brain weights (V), and a diagonal matrix of singular values (S). Task PLS
777 produces orthogonal latent variables (LVs) that reflect optimal relations between experimental conditions (e.g., target
778 load) and (neural) data of interest. We ran a task PLS version in which group means were removed from condition
779 means to highlight how conditions were modulated by group membership, i.e., condition and condition-by-group
780 effects. Separate task PLS analyses were performed for ‘*neural*’ values of theta power (Fig. 4), pupil diameter (Fig. 4),
781 excitability signatures (Fig. 5), fMRI BOLD (S4), and pre-stimulus alpha power (S5).

782 To examine multivariate relations between BOLD signal changes under uncertainty and interindividual
783 differences in decision, excitability, and pupil modulation, we performed a behavioral PLS analysis (Fig. 6). This
784 analysis initially calculates a between-subject correlation matrix (CORR) between (1) a ‘*neural*’ index and (2) a ‘*behavioral*’
785 variable of interest (although called ‘*behavioral*’, this variable can reflect any variable of interest). As the *neural* index, we
786 estimated linear coefficients between 1st level beta estimates ~ uncertainty, fitted within each voxel. As behavioral
787 variables, we included the signatures reported on the left of Figure 6c, incl. drift estimates, pupil diameter, spectral
788 power, and excitability indices). Analogous to task PLS, CORR is decomposed using SVD: $SVD_{CORR} = USV'$, which
789 produces a matrix of left singular vectors of behavioral weights (U), a matrix of right singular vectors of neural weights
790 (V), and a diagonal matrix of singular values (S).

791 Across PLS variants, each LV (ordered strongest to weakest in S) is characterized by a data pattern that
792 depicts the strongest available relation between brain and conditions/behavioral data. Significance of detected
793 relations of both PLS model types was assessed using 1000 permutation tests of the singular value corresponding to
794 the LV. Subsequent bootstrapping indicated the robustness of within-LV neural saliences across 1000 data resamples
795 ²⁰⁸. By dividing each brain weight (from V) by its bootstrapped standard error, we obtained “bootstrap ratios” (BSRs)
796 as normalized robustness estimates. We generally threshold BSRs at values of ± 3.00 ($\sim 99.9\%$ confidence interval).
797 We obtained a summary measure of each participant- and condition-wise expression of a LV’s pattern (a “*Brainscore*”)
798 by multiplying the vector of weights (V) by each participant’s and condition’s vector of input data values (P): $Brainscore = VP'$. To summarize uncertainty modulation, task PLS *Brainscores* were analyzed as described in “Linear uncertainty
799 effect estimates”.
800

801 **Data availability.** Primary EEG, fMRI, and behavioral data will be made available upon publication (for younger
802 adults see <https://osf.io/ug4b8/>). Structural MRI data are exempt from public sharing according to obtained
803 informed consent. All data are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.
804

805 **Code availability.** Experiment code is available from <https://git.mpib-berlin.mpg.de/LNDG/multi-attribute-task>.
806 Analysis code is available from <https://git.mpib-berlin.mpg.de/LNDG/stateswitchage/stsw>.
807

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816
817
818

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820 Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review and editing, Validation, Data Curation; UM:
821 Conceptualization, Writing – review and editing, UL: Conceptualization, Resources, Writing – review and editing,
822 Supervision, Funding acquisition; DDG: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Resources, Writing—review and
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824

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829

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831

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