

## The Pupillary Light Response Reflects Eye-movement Preparation

Sebastiaan Mathôt, Lotje van der Linden, Jonathan Grainger, and Françoise Vitu

Aix-Marseille University, CNRS, LPC UMR 7290, Marseille, France

Address for correspondence:

Aix-Marseille University, CNRS

Laboratoire de Psychologie Cognitive, UMR 7290

3 Place Victor Hugo

Centre St. Charles, Bâtiment 9, Case D

13331 Marseille

France

Author note:

SM, JG, and FV were supported by ERC grant 230313 (<http://erc.europa.eu/>). LvdL was supported by a grant (‘allocation de recherche’) from the French ministry of research (2012–2015). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Manuscript type: Observation

Main-text word count: 2496

## Abstract

When the eyes are exposed to an increased influx of light, the pupils constrict. The pupillary light response (PLR) is traditionally believed to be purely reflexive and not susceptible to cognitive influences. In contrast to this traditional view, we report here that preparation of a PLR occurs in parallel with preparation of a saccadic eye movement towards a bright (or dark) stimulus, even before the eyes set in motion. Participants fixated a central gray area and made a saccade towards a peripheral target. Using gaze-contingent display changes, we manipulated whether or not the brightness of the target background was the same during and after saccade preparation. More specifically, on some trials we changed the brightness of the target background as soon as the eyes set in motion, thus dissociating the preparatory PLR (i.e. to the brightness of the target background before the saccade) from the ‘regular’ PLR (i.e. to the brightness after the saccade). We show that a PLR to the brightness of the to-be-fixated target background is prepared before the eyes set in motion. This reduces the latency of the PLR by approximately 100 ms. We link our findings to the pre-saccadic shift of attention: The pupil prepares to adjust its size to the brightness of a to-be-fixated stimulus as soon as attention covertly shifts towards that stimulus, about 100 ms before a saccade is executed. Our findings illustrate that the PLR is a dynamic movement that is tightly linked to visual attention and eye-movement preparation.

## Introduction

You need light in order to see. The more light enters the eye, the easier it is to distinguish visual signal from the intrinsic neural noise of the visual system (e.g., Burns & Baylor, 2001). Therefore, pupillary dilation improves the signal-to-noise ratio of vision, and consequently improves visual acuity, by increasing the amount of light that enters the eye. However, large pupils can also be disadvantageous, because various optical distortions are most pronounced when a large surface of the eye's lens is exposed (Campbell & Gregory, 1960; Denton, 1956). The optimal size of the pupil therefore depends on how much light is available. In darkness, visual acuity is limited by the scarcity of light, and the pupil dilates to increase light influx. In brightness, even a small pupil lets through sufficient light, and the pupil constricts to reduce optical aberrations. Among other things, the pupillary light response (PLR) is therefore a mechanism to optimize visual acuity under varying levels of ambient lighting.

However, given that we make three to four eye movements per second (Rayner, 1998), the PLR, which has a latency of 250 - 500 ms (Ellis, 1981), would seem to be too slow to serve its presumed function. When you make an eye movement towards a bright object, your pupil would seem to constrict only after your gaze has already shifted elsewhere.

Here we test the hypothesis that preparation is an important characteristic of the PLR. When you prepare a saccadic eye movement towards a stimulus, a PLR to that stimulus' brightness is prepared already before the eyes set in motion, during preparation of the saccade itself. Preparation could allow the visual system to rapidly track changes in brightness of visual input, despite the fact that the PLR is a relatively slow response.

There are two main findings that support this hypothesis. Firstly, every saccade is preceded by a covert shift of attention (Deubel & Schneider, 1996; Kowler, Anderson, Doshier, & Blaser, 1995): If you prepare a saccade towards a stimulus, you will start to perceive that stimulus more clearly sometime before the saccade is executed. Secondly, we and others have recently shown that a PLR is elicited by a covert shift of attention (Binda, Pereverzeva, & Murray, 2013a; Mathôt, van der Linden, Grainger, & Vitu, 2013; Naber, Alvarez, & Nakayama, 2013). In our

experiment, participants continuously fixated on the center of a display that was divided into a bright and a dark half (Mathôt et al., 2013). Participants identified a target stimulus that was presented on the bright or dark background. The target's probable location was indicated by a cue, which induced a covert shift of attention to the cued side. Crucially, the pupil constricted when attention was directed to the bright, as compared to the dark side of the display. This showed that a PLR is elicited by a covertly attended stimulus, even when eye position and visual input are controlled for.

In sum, saccadic eye movements are preceded by covert shifts of attention (Deubel & Schneider, 1996; Kowler et al., 1995), and covert shifts of attention elicit a PLR (Binda et al., 2013a; Mathôt et al., 2013; Naber et al., 2013). Here we combine these findings and show that a PLR is prepared simultaneously with the preparation of a saccade towards a bright (or dark) stimulus.

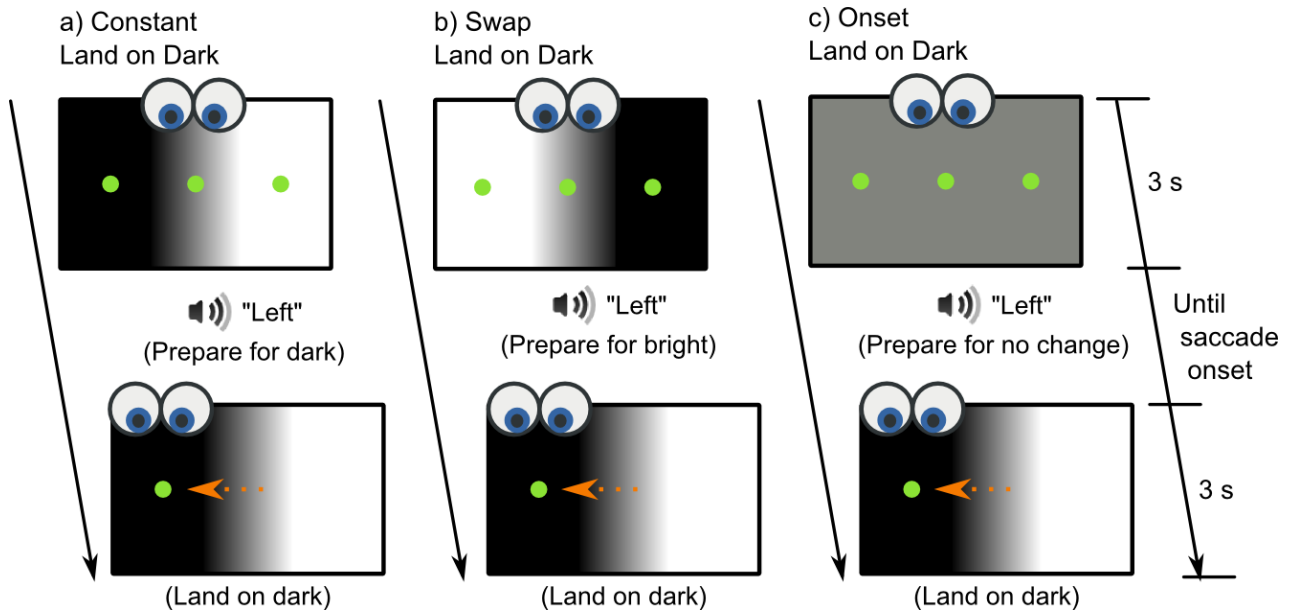
## Methods

### *Participants, software, and apparatus*

Eight observers (six naive participants and two authors; seven women; age range 20-30 years) participated in the experiment. Participants provided written informed consent. The experiment was conducted with approval of the Aix-Marseille Université ethics committee. The right eye was recorded with an EyeLink 1000 (SR Research, Mississauga, Canada, ON), a video-based eye tracker sampling at 1000 Hz. Stimuli were presented on a 21" ViewSonic pf227f CRT monitor (1024 x 768 px, 100 Hz) with OpenSesame (Mathôt, Schreij, & Theeuwes, 2012) / PsychoPy (Peirce, 2007). Data, materials, and supplementary analyses are available from [https://github.com/smathot/materials\\_for\\_P0001](https://github.com/smathot/materials_for_P0001).

### *Stimuli and procedure*

Before the experiment, a nine-point eye-tracker calibration was performed. Before each trial, a single-point re-calibration was performed.



**Figure 1.** Schematic experimental paradigm. a) An example of a Land-on-Dark Constant trial, in which the pupil prepares for, and lands on, a dark target background. b) An example of a Land-on-Dark Swap trial, in which the pupil prepares for brightness, but lands on darkness. c) An example of a Land-on-Dark Onset trial, in which the pupil prepares for an intermediate (unchanged) luminance, but lands on darkness. The display change occurred as soon as the onset of a saccade was detected.

Each trial started with the presentation of three dim green dots ( $14.7 \text{ cd/m}^2$ ;  $0.1^\circ$ ) at the display center and  $10.0^\circ$  to the right and left of the center (see Figure 1). Participants fixated on the central dot. In the Constant and Swap conditions, the background was divided into a bright ( $88.5 \text{ cd/m}^2$ ) and a dark ( $0.2 \text{ cd/m}^2$ ) half, separated by a central luminance-gradient ( $10.0^\circ$  wide). In the Onset condition, the background was uniformly gray ( $20.8 \text{ cd/m}^2$ ). After 3 s, an auditory cue, *gauche* (left) or *droite* (right), instructed a leftwards or rightwards saccade. Saccades were detected on-line when horizontal gaze position deviated more than  $2.9^\circ$  from the central dot for at least two consecutive gaze samples. The target dot remained visible throughout the trial. The central and non-target dots were removed on saccade detection.

Upon saccade detection, one of three things happened. In the Constant condition, the display did not change (Figure 1a). Therefore, pre-saccadic preparation should result in a reduction of PLR latency. In the Swap condition, the dark side of the screen turned bright and vice versa

(Figure 1b). Therefore, preparation should result in a brief (seemingly) inverse PLR, reflecting the PLR's preparatory component. In the Onset condition, the uniformly gray display was divided into a bright and a dark half (Figure 1c). In this condition, preparation was impossible, because the central dot and the saccade target were (initially) on the same gray background. The trial ended 3 s after saccade detection.

Landing luminance (Land on bright, Land on Dark) and Condition (Constant, Swap, Onset) were equiprobable and randomly mixed within blocks. Saccade direction (Left or Right) was fully randomized. The experiment consisted of 360 trials across ten blocks, and lasted approximately 90 minutes.

## Results

### *Pupil-trace analysis*

Each trial was divided into three epochs: the baseline epoch, spanning the 100 ms prior to the presentation of the auditory cue; the pre-saccade epoch, from the cue until the detection of the saccade; and the post-saccade epoch, from the detection of the saccade until the end of the trial. We analyzed pupil surface relative to the mean pupil size during the baseline epoch (cf. Mathôt et al., 2013). Missing data during blinks was reconstructed, where possible, using cubic-spline interpolation (Mathôt, 2013). No signal smoothing was applied.

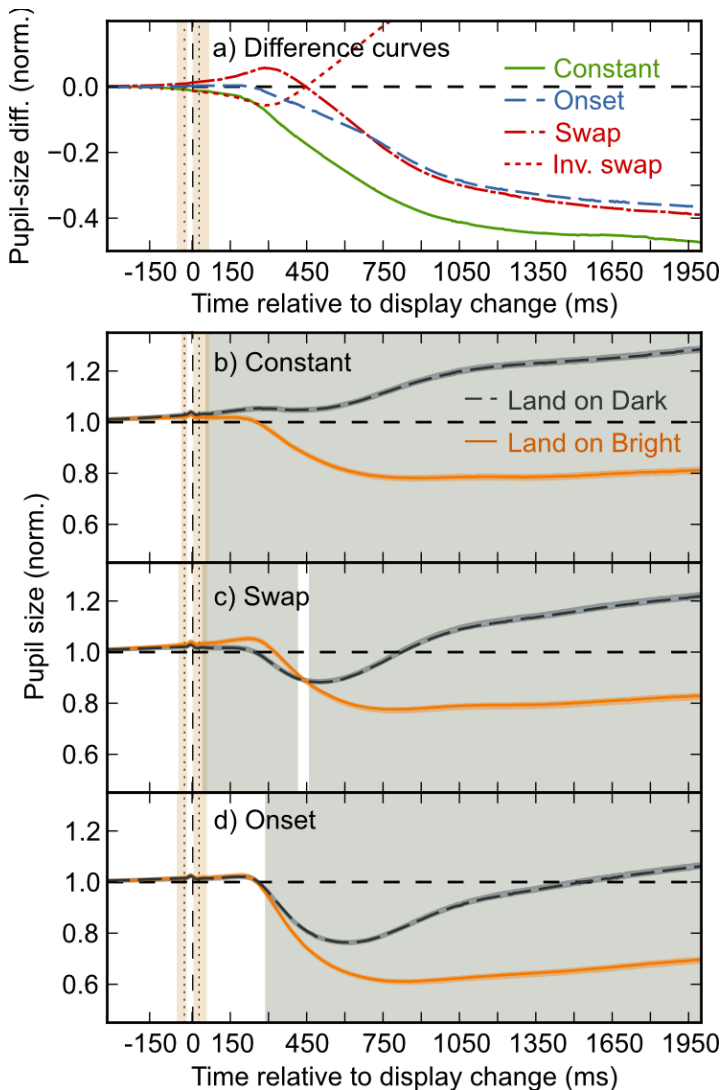
For the analysis, we used the EyeLink saccade-detection algorithm (velocity threshold: 35 °/s; acceleration threshold: 9500 °/s<sup>2</sup>), and considered the first saccade that was larger than 1.8°. Saccades were executed on average 543.6 ms ( $SD = 187.4$ ) after the auditory cue. Off-line verification of timing, based on a trigger that was sent to the eye tracker immediately after the display change, showed that the display change occurred 27.09 ms ( $SD = 3.906$ ) after saccade onset and 27.55 ms ( $SD = 7.852$ ) before saccade offset. In other words, the display change fully occurred during the saccade, even allowing for the monitor's phosphor persistence ( $< 10$  ms, Wang & Nikolic, 2011).

Trials were excluded when a saccade was executed before the cue or in the wrong direction

(8.4%), when saccade latency was less than 50 ms or more than 2000 ms (0.5%), when the display change did not occur during the saccade (4.9%; per off-line verification), or when blinks occurred and could not be reconstructed (4.5%). 2350 trials (81.4%) remained for further analysis.

### *The effect of eye-movement preparation on the PLR*

Pupil size depends on numerous factors, notably arousal (Loewenfeld, 1958) and visual change (Barbur, Harlow, & Sahraie, 1992), but here we focus only on the effect of luminance (i.e. the PLR). The PLR is a relative constriction on Land-on-Bright trials and shown as a negativity in Figure 2a.



**Figure 2.** *a) Mean difference in pupil size between Land-on-Bright and Land-on-Dark trials for the three conditions (solid lines) as a function of time relative to display change. The PLR is shown as a negativity. The dotted line shows the inverse of the Swap condition, and is shown for comparison with the Constant condition. b, c, d) Mean pupil size on Land-on-Dark and Land-on-Bright trials over time for the Constant (b), Swap (c), and Onset (d) conditions. The PLR is shown as a decreased pupil size on Land-on-Bright trials, relative to Land-on-Dark trials. Line widths indicate 95% confidence intervals, such that non-overlapping lines correspond to  $p < .05$ . Background shadings indicate significant ( $p < .05$ ) divergence between Land-on-Dark and Land-on-Bright trials for at least 200 consecutive samples. a, b, c, d) The vertical dotted lines correspond to mean saccade onset (left-most) and offset (right-most). The surrounding shadings indicate the full range of observed values. The display change (or a dummy change in the Constant condition) occurred at time 0, indicated by the dashed vertical line.*

To determine the earliest effects of luminance on pupil size, we conducted linear mixed-effects (LME) analyses with Participant as random effect, Target Luminance (post-saccadic; Land-on-Dark or Land-on-Bright) as fixed effect, and Pupil Size as dependent measure. This analysis was performed separately for each time point and condition. Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation was used to estimate  $p$  values and 95% confidence intervals (Baayen, Davidson, & Bates, 2008). We considered divergence between Land-on-Dark and Land-on-Bright trials to be significant when  $p < .05$  for at least 200 consecutive samples (cf. Mathôt et al., 2013).

Eye-movement preparation affected the PLR in two main ways. Firstly, divergence occurred much earlier in the Constant condition (from 58 ms after display change until trial end) than in the



Onset condition (292 ms - trial end). Since the latency of the PLR is at least 250 ms (Ellis, 1981), this extremely rapid modulation of pupil size clearly shows that a PLR was prepared before saccade onset.

Secondly, in the Swap condition there was initially a (seemingly) inverse PLR, again arising very rapidly (46 - 411 ms). This reflects a preparatory response to the pre-saccadic brightness of the target background, before the display had changed (Figure 1b). Strikingly, the (inverse of the) Swap condition was indistinguishable from the Constant condition until about 250 ms after the saccade (compare the dotted and solid lines in Figure 2a). This suggests that it takes about 250 ms for the pupil to respond to the post-saccadic luminance, which is roughly consistent with the latency of the PLR in the Onset condition (292 ms, see above) as well as previous estimates of the PLR latency (e.g., Ellis, 1981). From about 600 ms onwards the Swap condition was indistinguishable from the Onset condition (compare the solid and dashed lines in Figure 2a), suggesting that by this time the preparatory component of the PLR had fully dissipated. Crucially, the results from the Swap condition show that when you prepare an eye movement towards a stimulus on a bright (or dark) background, a preparatory PLR is (partly) elicited even when the luminance of the target background is changed before the target is brought into central vision.

### *Modeling the PLR using exponential decay*

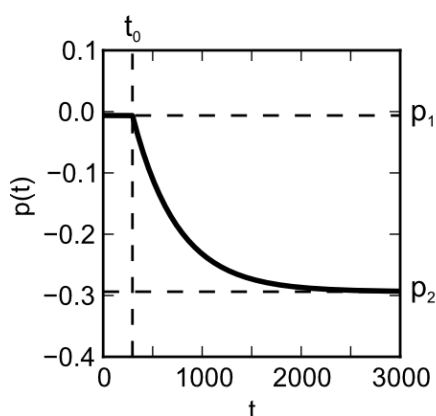
A visual inspection of Figure 2a suggests that preparation qualitatively alters the PLR's shape, rather than merely reduces its latency. More specifically, in the constant condition, the PLR appeared to consist of a small initial bias, followed later by a larger response, which we call the 'full PLR'. By modeling the PLR, we can investigate whether the effect of preparation is limited to this initial bias, or whether the latency of the full PLR is reduced as well. In addition, modeling allows us to ascertain that the differences found with LME were not due to differences in noise level.

We chose an exponential-decay function, adapted from Hoeks & Levelt (1993), which models the difference in pupil size between Land-on-Bright and Land-on-Dark trials ( $p(t)$ ) as a function of time since display change ( $t$ ; see Figure 3). There are several other functions that fit

the PLR about equally well, but the advantage of exponential decay is that its parameters have clear interpretations: full PLR latency ( $t_0$ ), initial pupil-size difference ( $p_1$ ), final pupil-size difference ( $p_2$ ), and response speed (the inverse of  $s$ ). Because the Swap condition is a combination of two opposite responses (to the pre- and post-saccadic brightness of the target, see [Figure 2c](#)), it is not properly modeled in a way that allows for direct comparison with the other conditions. Therefore, we model only the Constant and Onset conditions.

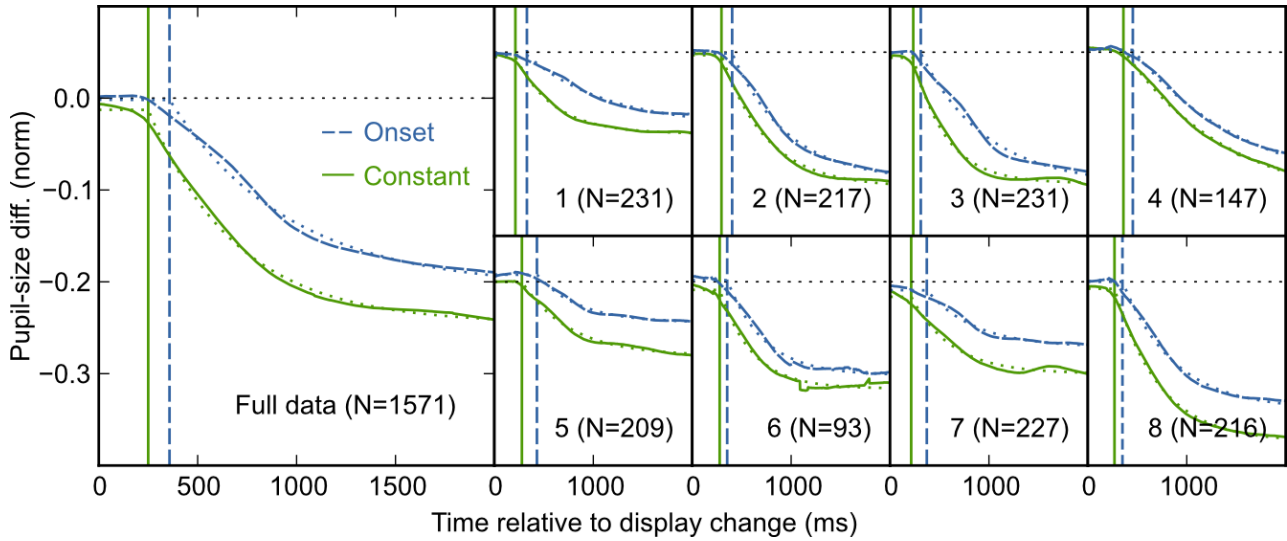
$$\text{where } t \geq t_0 : p(t) = e^{\frac{-t+t_0}{s}} \cdot (p_1 - p_2) + p_2$$

$$\text{where } t < t_0 : p(t) = p_1$$



**Figure 3.** We used an exponential-decay function to model the difference in pupil-size between Land-on-Bright and Land-on-Dark trials ( $p(t)$ ) as a function of time since display change ( $t$ ). This function has four free parameters: full PLR latency ( $t_0$ ), initial pupil-size difference ( $p_1$ ), final pupil-size difference ( $p_2$ ), and response speed (the inverse of  $s$ ).

For each participant separately, we determined the model parameters for the mean difference response in the Constant and Onset conditions ([Figure 4](#)). Next, we used paired-samples  $t$  tests to test for differences between model parameters, using a Bonferroni-corrected alpha level of .0125 ( $= .05 / 4$  comparisons).



**Figure 4.** Observed difference in pupil size between Land-on-Bright and Land-on-Dark trials (solid and dashed lines) and model fits (dotted lines) for the Constant and Onset conditions. Vertical lines indicate full PLR latencies ( $t_0$ ) for the Constant (solid) and Onset (dashed) conditions. The left pane depicts the grand mean response. The eight rightward panes show the mean responses for each of the eight participants.

Crucially, full PLR latency ( $t_0$ ) was 107 ms lower on Constant trials ( $M = 268$ ,  $SE = 16.0$ ) than on Onset trials ( $M = 375$ ,  $SE = 16.6$ ,  $t(7) = 9.33$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). In addition, initial pupil-size difference ( $p_1$ ) was slightly smaller (i.e. more negative) on Constant ( $M = -0.0110$ ,  $SE = 0.0038$ ) than on Onset trials ( $M = -0.0004$ ,  $SE = 0.0032$ ,  $t(7) = 4.17$ ,  $p = .0042$ ), as was final pupil-size difference ( $p_2$ ; Constant:  $M = -0.2542$ ,  $SE = 0.0236$ ; Onset:  $M = -0.2187$ ,  $SE = 0.0268$ ;  $t(7) = 3.56$ ,  $p = .0093$ ). Response speed was slightly higher (i.e. a lower  $s$ ) in the Constant condition ( $M = 491.3$ ,  $SE = 79.64$ ) than in the Onset condition ( $M = 623.5$ ,  $SE = 83.96$ ), but this difference was not reliable ( $t(7) = 2.295$ ,  $p = .0554$ ).

In sum, the exponential-decay model confirms and extends the LME analyses by showing that preparation both induces an initial bias ( $p_1$ ) and reduces the latency of the PLR ( $t_0$ ).

## Discussion

Here we report, for the first time, that the pupillary light response (PLR) is partly preparatory. When you prepare a saccadic eye movement towards a bright (or dark) stimulus, the

pupil prepares to adjust its size to the impending luminance change already before the eyes set in motion. This finding contrasts with the traditional view that the PLR is a low-level reflex to light, and shows that the PLR is tightly linked to visual attention and eye movements (see also Binda et al., 2013a; Mathôt et al., 2013; Naber et al., 2013).

The effect of preparation on the PLR is twofold. Firstly, when preparation was possible, pupil size was affected almost instantaneously by the luminance of a newly fixated surface, 20 - 30 ms after saccade offset (Figure 2b). Given that it takes 250 - 500 ms for the pupil to respond to luminance changes (Ellis, 1981), this initial response must result from preparation. Strikingly, we could ‘trick’ the pupil into preparing for a luminance that was never brought into central vision, by changing the display brightness during the saccade (Figure 2c). This again suggests that the PLR has a preparatory component.

The small initial response is followed by a much more pronounced response, which we have called the ‘full PLR’. Preparation reduces the latency of the full PLR by about 100 ms (based on model estimates of  $t_0$ , shown in Figure 4). This latency reduction closely matches the finding that a covert shift of attention precedes every saccade by approximately 100 ms (Deubel, 2008; Rolfs & Carrasco, 2012). We therefore suggest that the preparatory PLR is driven by the pre-saccadic shift of attention.

Our results complement recent studies that have demonstrated high-level effects on the PLR. Most relevant here is the recent finding that the PLR is modulated by covert visual attention (Binda et al., 2013a; Mathôt et al., 2013; Naber et al., 2013): Merely attending to a bright stimulus from the corner of your eye triggers a pupillary constriction. Another striking result, which dates back almost a century, but has recently been re-discovered, comes from binocular rivalry. In these studies, stimuli of different brightness are presented to each eye (Fahle, Stemmler, & Spang, 2011; e.g., Harms, 1937; Naber, Frassle, & Einhauser, 2011). The crucial finding is that the pupil constricts when the brighter stimulus dominates awareness, relative to when the darker stimulus dominates. This shows that the PLR reflects visual awareness, rather than objective luminance. A related finding is that the pupil constricts when viewing images that

are interpreted as very bright, such as pictures of the sun, compared to equiluminant control images (Binda, Pereverzeva, & Murray, 2013b; Laeng & Endestad, 2012; Naber & Nakayama, 2013). Finally, and perhaps most strikingly, merely thinking about a bright stimulus induces a pupillary constriction (Laeng & Sulutvedt, 2014). Taken together, these very different studies converge on a very similar conclusion: The PLR is not just a reflexive response to light, but reflects what we (covertly) attend to, what we are aware of, how we interpret visual input, and even what we think about. Our study complements these findings by showing that the PLR is linked to saccade preparation. Functionally, the preparatory PLR may allow the visual system to track the rapid changes in input brightness that result from saccadic eye movements.

In conclusion, we have shown that the pupil prepares for the brightness of stimuli before they are brought into central vision. We have suggested that this finding is linked to the pre-saccadic shift of attention (Deubel & Schneider, 1996; Kowler et al., 1995): The pupil prepares a light response as soon as attention shifts towards the target of an upcoming saccadic eye movement.

## References

- Baayen, R. H., Davidson, D. J., & Bates, D. M. (2008). Mixed-effects modeling with crossed random effects for subjects and items. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 59(4), 390–412. doi:[10.1016/j.jml.2007.12.005](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2007.12.005)
- Barbur, J. L., Harlow, A. J., & Sahraie, A. (1992). Pupillary responses to stimulus structure, colour and movement. *Ophthalmic and Physiological Optics*, 12(2), 137–141. doi:[10.1111/j.1475-1313.1992.tb00276.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-1313.1992.tb00276.x)
- Binda, P., Pereverzeva, M., & Murray, S. O. (2013a). Attention to bright surfaces enhances the pupillary light reflex. *Journal of Neuroscience*, 33(5), 2199–2204. doi:[10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3440-12.2013](https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3440-12.2013)
- Binda, P., Pereverzeva, M., & Murray, S. O. (2013b). Pupil constrictions to photographs of the sun. *Journal of Vision*, 13(6), e8. doi:[10.1167/13.6.8](https://doi.org/10.1167/13.6.8)
- Burns, M. E., & Baylor, D. A. (2001). Activation, Deactivation, and Adaptation in Vertebrate

Photoreceptor Cells. *Annual Review of Neuroscience*, 24(1), 779–805.

doi:[10.1146/annurev.neuro.24.1.779](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.neuro.24.1.779)

Campbell, F. W., & Gregory, A. H. (1960). Effect of size of pupil on visual acuity. *Nature*, 4743, 1121–1123. doi:[10.1038/1871121c0](https://doi.org/10.1038/1871121c0)

Denton, E. J. (1956). The responses of the pupil of *Gekko gekko* to external light stimulus. *Journal of General Physiology*, 40(2), 201.

Deubel, H. (2008). The time course of presaccadic attention shifts. *Psychological Research*, 72(6), 630–640. doi:[10.1007/s00426-008-0165-3](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00426-008-0165-3)

Deubel, H., & Schneider, W. X. (1996). Saccade target selection and object recognition: Evidence for a common attentional mechanism. *Vision Research*, 36(12), 1827–1837. doi:[10.1016/0042-6989\(95\)00294-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0042-6989(95)00294-4)

Ellis, C. J. (1981). The pupillary light reflex in normal subjects. *British Journal of Ophthalmology*, 65(11), 754–759. doi:[10.1136/bjo.65.11.754](https://doi.org/10.1136/bjo.65.11.754)

Fahle, M. W., Stemmler, T., & Spang, K. M. (2011). How much of the “unconscious” is just pre-threshold? *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 5. doi:[10.3389/fnhum.2011.00120](https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2011.00120)

Harms, H. (1937). Ort und Wesen der Bildhemmung bei Schielenden. *Graefe's Archive for Clinical and Experimental Ophthalmology*, 138(1), 149–210. doi:[10.1007/BF01854538](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01854538)

Hoeks, B., & Levelt, W. J. (1993). Pupillary dilation as a measure of attention: A quantitative system analysis. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 25(1), 16–26. doi:[10.3758/BF03204445](https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03204445)

Kowler, E., Anderson, E., Doshier, B., & Blaser, E. (1995). The role of attention in the programming of saccades. *Vision Research*, 35(13), 1897–1916. doi:[10.1016/0042-6989\(94\)00279-U](https://doi.org/10.1016/0042-6989(94)00279-U)

Laeng, B., & Endestad, T. (2012). Bright illusions reduce the eye's pupil. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 109(6), 2162–2167. doi:[10.1073/pnas.1118298109](https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1118298109)

Laeng, B., & Sulutvedt, U. (2014). The eye pupil adjusts to imaginary light. *Psychological Science*, 25(1), 188–197. doi:[10.1177/0956797613503556](https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797613503556)

- Loewenfeld, I. E. (1958). Mechanisms of reflex dilatation of the pupil. *Documenta Ophthalmologica*, 12(1), 185–448. doi:[10.1007/BF00913471](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00913471)
- Mathôt, S. (2013). *A Simple Way to Reconstruct Pupil Size During Eye Blinks*. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.688001>
- Mathôt, S., Schreij, D., & Theeuwes, J. (2012). OpenSesame: An open-source, graphical experiment builder for the social sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, 44(2), 314–324. doi:[10.3758/s13428-011-0168-7](https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-011-0168-7)
- Mathôt, S., van der Linden, L., Grainger, J., & Vitu, F. (2013). The pupillary response to light reflects the focus of covert visual attention. *PLoS ONE*, 8(10), e78168. doi:[10.1371/journal.pone.0078168](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0078168)
- Naber, M., & Nakayama, K. (2013). Pupil responses to high-level image content. *Journal of Vision*, 13(6), e7. doi:[10.1167/13.6.7](https://doi.org/10.1167/13.6.7)
- Naber, M., Alvarez, G. A., & Nakayama, K. (2013). Tracking the allocation of attention using human pupillary oscillations. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 4. doi:[10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00919](https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00919)
- Naber, M., Frassle, S., & Einhauser, W. (2011). Perceptual rivalry: Reflexes reveal the gradual nature of visual awareness. *PloS ONE*, 6(6), e20910. doi:[10.1371/journal.pone.0020910](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0020910)
- Peirce, J. W. (2007). PsychoPy: Psychophysics software in Python. *Journal of Neuroscience Methods*, 162(1-2), 8–13. doi:[10.1016/j.jneumeth.2006.11.017](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2006.11.017)
- Rayner, K. (1998). Eye movements in reading and information processing: 20 years of research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124, 372–422. doi:[10.1037/0033-2909.124.3.372](https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.124.3.372)
- Rolfs, M., & Carrasco, M. (2012). Rapid simultaneous enhancement of visual sensitivity and perceived contrast during saccade preparation. *Journal of Neuroscience*, 32(40), 13744–13752a. doi:[10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2676-12.2012](https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2676-12.2012)
- Wang, P., & Nikolic, D. (2011). An LCD monitor with sufficiently precise timing for research in vision. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 5, e85. doi:[10.3389/fnhum.2011.00085](https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2011.00085)