

# Cognitive Resilience after Prolonged Task Performance: an ERP investigation

Endre Takács<sup>abc</sup> \*, Irén Barkaszi<sup>a</sup>, Anna Altbäcker<sup>a</sup>, István Czigler<sup>ab</sup>, László Balázs<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Institute of Cognitive Neuroscience and Psychology, Research Centre for Natural Sciences, Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Budapest, Hungary

<sup>b</sup> Institute of Psychology, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary

<sup>c</sup> Doctoral School of Psychology, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary

Correspondence:

Endre Takács

[takacs.endre@ttk.mta.hu](mailto:takacs.endre@ttk.mta.hu)

+36-1-3826816

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27 **ABSTRACT**

28

29 Deleterious consequences of cognitive fatigue might be avoided if people respond with  
30 increased effort to increased demands. In this study we hypothesized that the effects of  
31 fatigue would be more pronounced in cognitive functions reflecting compensatory effort.  
32 Given that the P3a event related potential is sensitive to the direction and amount of attention  
33 allocated to a stimulus array, we reasoned that compensatory effort would manifest in  
34 increased P3a amplitudes. Therefore, we compared P3a before (Pre-test) and after (Post-test)  
35 a 2 hour long cognitively demanding (fatigue group, n=18) or undemanding task (control  
36 group, n=18). Two auditory tasks, a three-stimulus novelty oddball and a duration  
37 discrimination two-choice response task were presented to elicit P3a. In the fatigue group, we  
38 used the Multi-attribute Task Battery as a fatigue-inducing task. This task draws on a broad  
39 array of attentional functions and imposed considerable workload. The control group watched  
40 mood-neutral documentary films. The fatigue manipulation was effective as subjective  
41 fatigue increased significantly in the fatigue group compared to controls. Contrary to  
42 expectations, however, fatigue failed to affect P3a in the Post-test phase. Similar null-effects  
43 were obtained for other neurobehavioral measures (P3b and behavioral performance). Results  
44 indicate that a moderate increase in subjective fatigue does not hinder cognitive functions  
45 profoundly. The lack of objective performance loss in the present study suggests that the  
46 cognitive system can be resilient against challenges instigated by demanding task  
47 performance.

48

49 **Keywords:**

50 mental fatigue, event related potentials, attention, oddball, distraction, effort

51

## 52 INTRODUCTION

53 Acute mental fatigue seems to be an inevitable experience in modern post-industrial society,  
54 as most professions require intensive mental work, while physical demands are decreasing.  
55 Mental fatigue is predictive of workplace accidents (Tucker et al. 2003) and is often  
56 hypothesized to have a detrimental effect on students' and professionals' cognitive  
57 performance in high-stakes situations (Kanfer 2011).

58 Acute mental fatigue can be defined as a multicomponent phenomenon with subjective,  
59 cognitive and behavioral aspects (van der Linden 2011). Subjectively mental fatigue is  
60 mainly associated with aversive states, such as lack of energy, boredom, and strain, and it  
61 typically includes a more or less explicit desire for stopping the current activity. On the  
62 behavioral level, mental fatigue is usually described as an inability to maintain performance,  
63 and it is characterized by slower and/or less accurate cognitive activity.

64 While people commonly report subjective fatigue even after short periods of mental exertion,  
65 behavioral fatigue is often less detectable under laboratory settings (Ackerman and Kanfer  
66 2009). One viable explanation is that at first, fatigue appears only on the subjective level  
67 signaling that cognitive performance could be hindered. For a limited amount of time,  
68 compensatory effort can prevent adverse behavioral effects by maintaining adequate  
69 performance (Hockey 2011). Effort thus seems to be a key component in understanding  
70 mental fatigue, therefore, in this study we aimed to investigate this construct using behavioral  
71 and electrophysiological methods.

72 Cognitive effort can be interpreted as the individual's voluntary activation of attention in  
73 order to overcome stressors that potentially cause performance decrements (Sarter et al.  
74 2006). Such stressors might include heightened task difficulty, sleepiness, or mental fatigue.  
75 While effort is traditionally measured by self-reported questionnaires and indicators of  
76 autonomic arousal (Venables and Fairclough 2009), it can also be associated with markers of  
77 the central nervous system. Among these, an important marker that can be administered by  
78 EEG is the P3b event related potential (ERP) component. Although the functional  
79 significance of P3b is still a matter of debate, increasing evidence support the view of P3b as  
80 the neural substrate of perceptual-cognitive decision making (Verleger et al. 2005; Kelly and  
81 O'Connell 2013). Accordingly, several studies show P3b amplitude to be correlated with the  
82 "amount of attention". For example, P3b is almost fully diminished when the subject ignores  
83 stimuli by paying attention to another task (Squires et al. 1973).

84 Attentional capacity can be voluntarily expanded (Esterman et al. 2014). Given the P3b's  
85 sensitivity to the amount of attentional resources, it can be hypothesized that the more  
86 attention is devoted voluntarily to task performance, the higher the P3b amplitude will be.  
87 This notion is supported by studies of Hopstaken and colleagues. They applied monotonous  
88 and slow paced but cognitively demanding tasks and found gradual decrement of P3b  
89 amplitude, indicating the waning of attentional processes potentially attributable to boredom  
90 and low task engagement. However, they managed to re-increase P3b amplitude after  
91 applying a manipulation that enhanced task engagement (Hopstaken et al. 2015a, b).

92 Based on these, P3b would be a perfect candidate for monitoring voluntary attentional  
93 allocation, however, there is a factor that limits its applicability. Besides being sensitive to  
94 the amount of attention, P3b is also sensitive to the degree of response certainty. If the subject  
95 is uncertain about the correctness of his/her response, either due to decreased alertness (Kelly  
96 and O'Connell 2013), or due to low detectability of the stimulus (Squires et al. 1973), the  
97 amplitude of P3b will be diminished. Therefore P3b amplitude varies unpredictably with task  
98 difficulty, depending on the balance between increasing effort and decreasing certainty (Kok

99 2001). Accordingly, P3b is less suitable for monitoring compensatory attentional effort in  
100 situations where compensation is no longer sufficient and task performance suffers  
101 significant impairment. Therefore, in the present study, we decided to examine compensatory  
102 effort with another component, as well. This component is the P3a, which is also thought to  
103 reflect attentional capacity.

104 P3a reflects the bottom-up process of the involuntary capture of attention, which is triggered  
105 by highly distinctive stimuli (for reviews see, Friedman et al. 2001; Escera and Corral 2007;  
106 Schomaker and Meeter 2015). Despite the fact that it reflects a bottom-up process and can be  
107 elicited in the absence of attention (Muller-Gass et al. 2007), a number of top-down effects  
108 can modulate P3a (Sussman et al., 2003; Chong et al., 2008). Similarly to P3b, an important  
109 predictor of P3a is the amount of attention available. Studies have shown that the amplitude  
110 of P3a decreases considerably if the person does not pay attention to the particular  
111 stimulation (Friedman et al. 1998). Under dual-task conditions, increased task difficulty in  
112 the primary task often results in decreased P3a in the to-be ignored or secondary task  
113 (Legrain et al. 2005; Zhang et al. 2006; SanMiguel et al. 2008). Based on all of this, P3a can  
114 also be considered a sensitive indicator of the direction and amount of attention. Furthermore,  
115 the potential advantage of P3a over P3b is that it is not affected by decision uncertainty, as in  
116 most experimental situations P3a is elicited by a clear, distinctive stimulus.

117 Thus, in the present experiment, we intended to monitor compensatory effort evoked by  
118 mental fatigue with the use of P3a (and to a lesser extent with P3b). We hypothesized that  
119 due to mental fatigue performance will decline, P3b will change depending on the  
120 unpredictable combination of uncertainty and effort, while P3a will increase as a pure  
121 reflection of effort.

122 The experiment was built on the fatigue inducing task - testing task scheme with control and  
123 experimental groups. Testing tasks were performed before and after a 2 hour Treatment phase  
124 in which the fatigue group performed a cognitively demanding task. The Multi-attribute Task  
125 Battery (MATB; Comstock and Arnegard, 1992) was applied to induce mental fatigue in the  
126 fatigue group. This multimodal task requires vigilance, auditory attention, continuous visuo-  
127 motor control, and complex processing, especially planning. MATB has been reported to  
128 effectively induce subjective fatigue (Harris et al. 1995). Scholars and most participants  
129 usually label MATB “engaging” (Wilson et al. 2007), which has the added value that MATB  
130 can evoke fatigue without a high degree of boredom. During the treatment phase, members of  
131 the control group watched emotionally neutral, non-arousing documentaries.

132 Two tasks were administered to elicit P3a, so that we can reliably demonstrate that P3a is  
133 sensitive to compensatory processes and not confounded by task-specific changes. One of  
134 them was a three-stimulus novelty oddball task, in which simple, frequent sounds are  
135 interspersed with rare higher simple sounds that require behavioral responses. Additionally,  
136 complex environmental noises with no response needed were infrequently presented, which  
137 are shown to reliably elicit the P3a component (Barkaszi et al. 2013). The other employed  
138 task was an auditory duration discrimination task, the so-called Distraction task, in which the  
139 appearance of an infrequent, task irrelevant stimulus feature (higher pitch) triggers P3a  
140 (Schröger and Wolff 1998). Although of secondary importance, with this task we were also  
141 able to study how mental fatigue and compensatory effort affect distractibility. In the  
142 Distraction task, responses to deviant stimuli that carry the task-irrelevant feature are  
143 typically slower and often less accurate than those to standard stimuli (referred to as  
144 distraction effect), which can be interpreted as a behavioral sign of distraction.

145 In addition to the P3a eliciting tasks, we also used a short version of the Psychomotor  
146 Vigilance Task (PVT; Dinges and Powell, 1985), so that we could exclude the possibility that

147 instead of inducing mental fatigue, our experimental manipulation reduced alertness. As the  
148 literature of sleep deprivation reveals, a decline in alertness impairs almost all cognitive  
149 functions, but the most significant deteriorations are observed in simple vigilance tasks, such  
150 as the PVT (Lim and Dinges 2010).

## 151 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 152 **Participants**

153 Thirty-six paid volunteers participated in the study, 18 in the fatigue (11 female, mean age  
154 22.17 years, range: 20-24 years) and 18 in the control group (8 female, mean age 22.53 years,  
155 range: 19-28 years). According to self-report, participants were free of neurological disorders  
156 and were not using drugs that affect the central nervous system. They had normal or corrected  
157 to normal vision and normal hearing thresholds. Participants signed an informed consent  
158 prior to the experiment, which conformed to the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by  
159 the Joint Ethical Committee of the Hungarian Psychology Institutes.

### 160 **Procedure**

161 The experiment consisted of three main sections, Pre-test, Treatment and Post-test phase (see  
162 Online Resource 1 for depiction). In the Pre- and Post-test phases both groups performed the  
163 same set of tasks. The order of tasks was fixed, with the exception that the order of the  
164 Oddball and Distraction tasks was counterbalanced. The Pre-test and Post-test phase was  
165 approximately 45-45 minutes long. During the Treatment phase, the fatigue group performed  
166 the Multi-attribute Task Battery (MATB), while the control group watched documentary  
167 films. This section was two hours long with no breaks allowed. A 10 minutes long mandatory  
168 break was scheduled after the Pre-test phase for both groups. After the completion of the  
169 Treatment phase, the Post-test phase began immediately. All participants stayed in the EEG  
170 booth for the entire duration of the experiment, except for the mandatory break. The EEG  
171 booth was moderately lit. Participants were seated in a reclining chair 1.2 meters from the  
172 computer monitor.

173 Participants took part in a practice session one or two weeks before the experiment, when  
174 they were familiarized with the experimental tasks. As for the full length measurement,  
175 participants were instructed to arrive at the laboratory after a full night of sleep. Caffeine  
176 intake was not allowed during the experiment, but we did not impose strict requirements on  
177 the caffeine consumption preceding the experiment (in order to avoid caffeine withdrawal  
178 effects). All measurements started at the same time of the day, at 9 a.m.

### 179 **Tasks and scales**

#### 180 **Pre- and Post-test phase**

181 At the beginning of the Pre- and Post-test phases, fatigue was assessed with the 18 item VAS-  
182 F scale (Lee et al. 1991) translated to Hungarian and implemented in a computerized version.  
183 Participants responded by moving a small vertical bar along a horizontal line between two  
184 endpoints describing opposing statements (e.g. “not at all tired” vs. “extremely tired”).

185 Fatigue assessment was followed by resting state EEG. Resting state EEG measurements  
186 (eyes closed and eyes open states) were 90-90 seconds long; the results of these conditions  
187 will not be reported here.

188 Resting EEG was either followed by an Oddball or a Distraction task, given that the order of  
189 the two tasks was counterbalanced across participants. A three-stimulus auditory novelty  
190 oddball was administered (Oddball task). Frequent standards (80%), infrequent targets (10%),  
191 and infrequent novel (10%) sounds were presented in pseudo-random order (i.e. targets were  
192 always followed by at least one standard). Standards were low tones (composed of a 887 Hz  
193 fundamental frequency and the second and third harmonics), targets were high tones (938 Hz  
194 fundamental frequency and the second and third harmonics) and novel stimuli were various  
195 environmental sounds (e.g. glass breaking, engine starting, etc.). Participants were required to  
196 press a button with their dominant hand upon hearing the target sound. The duration of tones  
197 was 110 ms (5 ms rise and fall times).

198 The Distraction task was an auditory two-choice duration discrimination task (Schröger and  
199 Wolff 1998). Participants were presented with long (400 ms) and short (200 ms) tones of  
200 equal probability and were required to press buttons according to the duration of the tone.  
201 The pitch of the tones was 440 Hz in the majority of cases (86%; standard tones), and 480 Hz  
202 in rare cases (14%; deviant tones). The assignment of long and short tones to responding  
203 hands was counterbalanced between participants. The tones were presented in a pseudo-  
204 random order in which deviants were always followed by at least three standards. In both the  
205 Oddball and the Distraction task, the mean stimulus onset asynchrony was 1300 ms (jittered  
206 randomly between 1200-1400 ms). Sounds were presented binaurally via headphones, with  
207 an intensity of 60 dB above hearing level, individually adjusted for each participant.

208 We applied a shortened, 5 minute version of the classic PVT (Psychomotor Vigilance Task;  
209 Dinges and Powell 1985). Participants were required to press a button with their dominant  
210 hand when a number counter appeared in the center of the screen. The counter displayed the  
211 elapsed time since its onset at each screen refresh interval. In case of a valid response, the  
212 reaction time in ms was displayed on the screen as feedback. The inter-stimulus interval (ISI)  
213 was variable between 2 and 10 seconds; the distribution of ISIs was flat in this range.

## 214 **Treatment phase**

215 The fatigue group completed the Multi-attribute Task Battery (MATB; Comstock and  
216 Arnegard, 1992) during the Treatment phase. MATB is a multitasking platform designed to  
217 mimic the activities of aircraft pilots. Four subtasks have to be performed simultaneously. In  
218 the system monitoring task, participants detect rare off-nominal changes in static and  
219 dynamic displays. In the tracking task, participants control an erratically moving circle using  
220 a gamepad joystick. In the communications task, participants hear pre-recorded radio  
221 messages resembling standard aircraft communication messages and they are expected to  
222 tune their virtual radio to the received frequency. The resource management task requires  
223 continuous control of two tanks' fuel levels. The tanks are interconnected and receive input  
224 from each other through pumps. In case any pumps fail, participants have to find alternative  
225 routes to maintain the required fuel level. For the present experiment, we created a new  
226 schedule of task activities to impose increased workload. The tracking task was continuous  
227 during the two hours, and communication messages, system monitoring changes and pump  
228 fails were frequent. At three time points, the fatigue group also completed the NASA-TLX  
229 scale (Hart and Staveland 1988) as an assessment of subjective workload (see Online  
230 Resource 1).

231 The control group watched the following documentary films in fixed order: 1) Planet Earth  
232 Episode 7 Great plains (2007), 2) When we left Earth: The NASA missions: The Shuttle  
233 (2008), 3) Ocean oasis (2000). The films were chosen based on being cognitively  
234 undemanding, non-arousing and mood-neutral. All films were dubbed in Hungarian. Prior to

235 watching the documentaries, participants were instructed to pay attention to the films, as they  
236 might have to answer questions about them. This aimed to minimize decrements in attention  
237 during the non-arousing documentaries. The presented questions in fact were only assessing  
238 how interesting and informative the documentaries were.

## 239 **EEG recording**

240 EEG was recorded with a BrainAmp amplifier (Brain Products, Gilching, Germany), DC-100  
241 Hz, sampling rate 1000 Hz, with active electrodes (ActiCap) on 61 cortical sites positioned  
242 according to the extended 10-20 system. Reference electrode was placed at FCz, ground at  
243 AFz channel. Electro-oculogram was recorded with electrodes attached to the outer canthi of  
244 eyes and below the right eye.

## 245 **Data analysis**

### 246 **Fatigue Scale**

247 Subjective fatigue scores of the VAS-F scale were compared in a repeated measures  
248 ANOVA, using the between subject factor of Group (fatigue, control group) and the within  
249 subject factor of Phase (Pre-, Post-test).

### 250 **Behavioral measures**

251 Reaction time (RT) was defined as the time between stimulus onset and button press with a  
252 minimum duration of 150 ms in all three tasks (Oddball, Distraction and PVT task). Median  
253 of correct responses was calculated in tasks as a RT measure. In the Oddball and Distraction  
254 task, accuracy was calculated as percent of correct responses. Standards directly following  
255 targets, novels (Oddball task) or deviants (Distraction task) were excluded from the analyses  
256 of accuracy to maintain full compatibility between the analyses of behavioral and ERP data.  
257 Participants made no incorrect responses to novel stimuli in the Oddball task during the Post-  
258 test phase, therefore we omitted this variable from the analysis. In the PVT task we only  
259 report RT, as the number of misses and lapses (RTs longer than 500 ms) were negligible.

260 Data in all tasks were compared with repeated measures ANOVAs, with the between subject  
261 factor of Group (fatigue or control group) and the following within subject factors. RT to  
262 targets in the Oddball task was analyzed with the within-subject factor of Phase (Pre-, Post-  
263 test). Accuracy in the Oddball task was compared with the within-subject factors of Phase  
264 and Stimulus (standard, target stimuli). The analysis of RT and accuracy in the Distraction  
265 task was accomplished with the within-subject factors of Phase, Deviance (standard, deviant  
266 stimuli) and Duration (long, short stimuli). Finally, the PVT task was analyzed with the  
267 within subject factor of Phase. All statistical analysis focused on interactions that involve the  
268 Group  $\times$  Phase interaction in line with the a priori hypotheses. Moreover, we checked the  
269 presence of a significant distraction-effect (i.e. slower and less accurate responses to deviants  
270 than to standards) in the Distraction task with t-tests against zero. Greenhouse-Geisser  
271 correction was applied when appropriate. We report partial eta squared ( $\eta_p^2$ ) as measure of  
272 effect size.

### 273 **Event Related Potentials**

274 We analyzed event related potentials (ERPs) in the Oddball and Distraction tasks. EEG  
275 analysis was performed with EEGLAB (Delorme and Makeig 2004) in MATLAB  
276 (Mathworks, Natick, USA). After offline 0.5-40 Hz (highpass: Kaiser window, transition

277 bandwidth: 0.5 Hz, passband deviation: 0.001 Hz; lowpass: Kaiser window, transition  
278 bandwidth: 10 Hz, passband deviation: 0.001 Hz) bandpass filtering, noisy channels and  
279 segments affected by non-stereotyped artifacts were removed and extended independent  
280 component analysis was carried out. Resulting independent components were automatically  
281 classified to be cortical or artifactual with the MARA plugin (Winkler et al. 2011), using a  
282 threshold that a component was classified neural if the probability of being artifactual was  
283 maximum 10%.

284 After MARA data treatment, similar number of ICs remained in the datasets across groups  
285 before and after the Treatment phase (see Online Resource 1). After resampling to 512 Hz,  
286 missing channels were interpolated by spherical interpolation. All electrodes were re-  
287 referenced to the average of cortical electrodes. Subsequently, epochs (100 ms before and  
288 1000 ms after stimulus onset) containing correct response and voltage not exceeding +/-70  
289  $\mu\text{V}$  at any channel were selected for each phase and stimulus type. Only standards not  
290 directly following novels, targets and deviants were selected for further analysis. The mean  
291 voltage of the -100 to 0 ms interval was subtracted from epochs as baseline correction. The  
292 average number of epochs included in one ERP is presented in Online Resource 1.

293 As deviant-minus-standard waveforms computed from long and short stimuli are typically  
294 highly similar in the Distraction task (Schröger et al. 2000), we followed the standard  
295 approach in the field and collapsed data across the stimulus length factor. Afterwards,  
296 deviant-minus-standard difference potentials were computed.

297 Amplitude measurement windows were identified using the “collapsed localizer” approach  
298 (Luck and Gaspelin 2017). The amplitude of components was measured as the mean voltage  
299 in 100 ms wide time windows centered around the grand-average peak latency. P3a was  
300 measured at Cz, P3b at Pz, where components reached their respective maxima. The latency  
301 of P3b in the Oddball task was measured on individual low-pass filtered (6 Hz cutoff  
302 frequency) waveforms at Pz channel. Latency was defined by the most positive value  
303 between 300 and 700 ms. The statistical analysis of mean ERP amplitudes and latencies was  
304 carried out using ANOVA with factors Phase (Pre-, Post-test) and Group (fatigue, control  
305 group).

## 306 **Correlations**

307 An exploratory analysis investigated the correspondence between pre-post changes in P3a  
308 and P3b with pre-post changes in subjective fatigue and task performance (see Online  
309 Resource 1 for details).

## 310 **RESULTS**

### 311 **Fatigue scale**

312 One control group participant’s data were missing, thus we report 17 datasets in that group.  
313 Subjective fatigue increased more in the fatigue (from 34.44, SE: 3.09 to 51.08 SE: 2.96) than  
314 in the control group (from 31.43, SE: 3.18 to 37.97 SE: 3.05), confirmed by the significant  
315 Group  $\times$  Phase interaction ( $F(1,33)=7.04$ ,  $p=0.012$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.18$ ). Post-hoc Tukey test showed  
316 that the increase in fatigue level was significant only in the fatigue group ( $p<0.001$ , control  
317 group:  $p=0.098$ ). These results verify that the fatigue manipulation was successful.

318 The results of the NASA-TLX workload scale are presented in Online Resource 1.



## 319 Behavioral measures

320 Table 1 and Figure 1 summarize the results of the behavioral measures (RT and accuracy) for  
321 each Pre/Post-test tasks. Summing up shortly, we obtained no statistically significant effect  
322 involving the Group  $\times$  Phase interaction, revealing that the experimental manipulation (i.e.  
323 fatigue inducement) had no effect on any behavioral measures.

324 As the normality assumption of the ANOVA was violated to a large extent in the case of  
325 accuracy both in the Oddball and the Distraction tasks, we ensured the validity of the above  
326 findings by conducting additional non-parametric analyses (see Online Resource 1).

327 The distraction-effect in the Distraction task was also unaffected by the experimental  
328 manipulation. This effect was significant in the Pre-test phase: the RT advantage of standards  
329 compared to deviants (data collapsed over the Group and Duration factor) was 8.68 ms  
330 ( $t(35)=3.61$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.27$ ), while the accuracy advantage was 1.75% ( $t(35)=3.13$ ,  
331  $p<0.01$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.22$ ). As the nonsignificant Group  $\times$  Phase  $\times$  Deviance interactions in the  
332 ANOVAs shows, the fatigue manipulation did not evoke differential changes in these effects  
333 for the Post-test phase between the groups.

334

## 335 Event related potentials

### 336 Oddball task

337 Figure 2 shows ERP waveforms and their scalp distribution in the Oddball task. Novel  
338 stimuli elicited a very early, sharp, centrally maximal P3a, with 244 ms peak latency at Cz.  
339 Target stimuli evoked a parietal P3b, with 422 ms peak latency on Pz. Both the P3a and P3b  
340 peak was strongly right “skewed” (i.e. had a steep gradient from left); to prevent earlier  
341 components to be included in the measurement, the measurement window was centered on  
342 the peak latency of the 6 Hz lowpass filtered grand-average waveform, corresponding to a  
343 215-315 ms and 372-472 ms measurement window, respectively. Standard stimuli elicited no  
344 discernable P3a or P3b, therefore we did not perform a formal analysis of these stimuli.

345 Table 1 displays the results of statistical analyses of amplitudes (P3a and P3b) and latencies  
346 (P3b). We obtained no significant Group  $\times$  Phase interactions on any tests, which indicates  
347 that the mental fatigue manipulation had no effect on ERPs in the Oddball task.

### 348 Distraction task

349 In this task, we concentrated on the deviant-minus-standard difference potentials depicted on  
350 Figure 2. The raw standard and deviant waveforms can be found in Online Resource 1. As  
351 Figure 2e and 2f illustrate, P3a was elicited in this task over frontal and central leads with 324  
352 ms peak latency on Cz.

353 The result of the statistical analysis of the P3a amplitude is also listed in Table 1. The Group  
354  $\times$  Phase interaction was nonsignificant, indicating the lack of effects on P3a amplitude in this  
355 task as well.

### 356 Correlations

357 We found weak and nonsignificant correlations between changes in ERPs, subjective fatigue  
358 and task performance (see Online Resource 1 for details).

## 359 DISCUSSION

360 The primary purpose of this experiment was to investigate whether mental fatigue induces  
361 compensatory effort, which we intended to measure with the P3a ERP component. As an  
362 experimental manipulation, the fatigue group performed a demanding cognitive task, while  
363 the control group performed a light, non-demanding task. The success of the manipulation is  
364 demonstrated by the fact that the self-rated fatigue significantly increased in the fatigue group  
365 compared to the control group. However, the experimental manipulation failed to affect task  
366 performance during the Post-test phase. Event related potentials also remained preserved,  
367 even though we anticipated that mental fatigue would result in increased P3a amplitudes  
368 reflecting compensatory effort. Similarly to behavioral performance and P3a, P3b also  
369 remained unchanged. We interpret these findings as evidence that the fatigue group was able  
370 to maintain neurobehavioral performance, despite previously having been working on a  
371 cognitively demanding task for 2 hours.

372 Our result contradicts a substantial body of findings that revealed a deterioration of cognitive  
373 performance or a change in specific ERP components using either time-on-task (Lorist et al.  
374 2000; Boksem et al. 2005, 2006, Hopstaken et al. 2015a, b; Borragán et al. 2017) or fatigue  
375 inducing task - testing task designs (Benoit et al., 2017, Experiment2; Gergelyfi et al., 2015;  
376 Kato et al., 2009; Persson et al., 2007, 2013, van der Linden et al., 2003, 2006). However, a  
377 smaller number of studies are in line with present results (Ackerman et al., 2010; Ackerman  
378 and Kanfer, 2009; Benoit et al., 2017, Experiment1; Brewer et al., 2011), as these  
379 investigators obtained intact cognitive functioning even after long and demanding task  
380 performance.

381 An apparent limitation of our study is that present results cannot provide a definitive answer  
382 whether A) fatigue group participants did in fact invoke compensatory effort during Post-test  
383 phase, allowing cognitive performance to be maintained, but P3a and P3b were not sensitive  
384 to these changes or B) performance was maintained without any compensatory effort. In our  
385 view, the present study is more informative in terms of factors influencing behavioral fatigue  
386 in a fatigue inducing task - testing task design. Since our experimental design was based on a  
387 series of premises, it is possible that we failed to induce significant effects in the testing tasks  
388 as some of these premises were false. In the following, we will look at these premises in more  
389 detail.

### 390 **1. premise: The fatigue manipulation created a suboptimal state for task** 391 **performance**

392 We interpret the detected changes in subjective fatigue as they represent a state in which  
393 conditions for task performance are suboptimal. This idea is rooted in the view that subjective  
394 mental fatigue, similarly to other subjective feelings, for example, emotions (Oatley et al.  
395 1992), is a function that may provide useful signals to the organism. A common assumption  
396 regarding mental fatigue is that it is a "stop-emotion" whose function is to inform the  
397 individual about the imbalance between the cost and rewards associated with task  
398 performance (Meijman 2000; van der Linden 2011). High level of subjective fatigue  
399 represents a suboptimal state for task performance, as costs are not balanced with rewards. In  
400 addition, subjective fatigue can also add to the cognitive load of the task, as the individual  
401 must repeatedly make a decision about ignoring the signal or modifying his/her behavior.  
402 Taken together, we conclude that our first premise can be considered true.

403 A somewhat independent question is whether the effect of our fatigue manipulation was large  
404 enough compared to other experiments. Previous studies in which the control group watched

405 documentaries (Rozand et al. 2015; Benoit et al. 2017) reported significant increases in  
406 subjective fatigue, however, as these studies have not included effect size estimates, we  
407 cannot compare the magnitude of our effect to theirs.

## 408 **2. premise: The suboptimal state for task performance persisted long** 409 **enough**

410 Our second premise was that induced state of mental fatigue persisted at least for the duration  
411 of the testing tasks (45 minutes). Unfortunately, very little is known about how the brain  
412 recovers from mental fatigue and few studies are available that assessed subjective fatigue  
413 throughout longer periods of time after the experimental manipulation. Massar et al. (2010)  
414 report that 40 minutes after the fatigue manipulation, subjective fatigue has dropped to the  
415 baseline level. During the 40 minutes, participants either listened to an oddball sequence or  
416 drove a driving simulator while the oddball sequence was played in the background. Both  
417 tasks are considered fairly easy, making the observed reduction in fatigue reasonable. In the  
418 present experiment, we did not measure subjective fatigue during or after the Post-test phase.  
419 However, in our case, it is less likely that the fatigue group recovered from fatigue in the  
420 Post-test phase, as the Distraction task is highly demanding, and the other two tasks also  
421 require a substantial amount of focused attention.

## 422 **3. premise: The applied measurements are sensitive to the induced** 423 **suboptimal state**

424 The difficulty of the fatigue-inducing task - testing task design is that it is not enough to  
425 choose the fatigue-inducing task appropriately, but the testing task should also be sensitive  
426 enough. A variety of theoretical considerations exists concerning the selection of proper  
427 fatigue inducing task - testing task pairs. According to the domain-general idea, the fatigue  
428 effect should appear largely independent of the type of testing task (Baumeister 2002). In  
429 contrast, the domain-specific approach suggests that the more similar cognitive functions are  
430 mobilized, the more likely the transfer of fatigue is between the two tasks (Persson et al.  
431 2007; Anguera et al. 2012).

432 In the present study, we followed an intermediate approach between the domain-general and  
433 domain-specific proposals, as the fatigue inducing task was not closely matched with the  
434 testing tasks regarding their cognitive domain. However, as the MATB is a multi-domain  
435 task, there was still a considerable overlap between the cognitive functions taxed by MATB  
436 and the testing tasks. Besides multimodal stimulus presentation (visual and auditory), MATB  
437 subtasks require the activation of several cognitive functions: vigilance is involved in the  
438 system monitoring task, continuous perceptuo-motor control is essential for the tracking task,  
439 auditory verbal processing is needed in the communication task, and complex information  
440 processing is activated in the resource management task. Additionally, executive functions  
441 are required for the multitasking aspect of the MATB, and for the planning and error  
442 detection in the resource management task itself. Among our testing tasks, the Distraction  
443 and Oddball tasks demand high degree of auditory attention. In the Distraction task, the  
444 deviant stimuli are able to distract attention, and frontal lobe mediated (potentially executive)  
445 functions are assumed to be necessary to avoid the involuntary capture of attention (Andrés et  
446 al. 2006). In the Oddball and the PVT tasks, vigilance is particularly required for successful  
447 task performance.

448 Previous studies demonstrated performance deterioration in testing tasks with a similar  
449 degree of testing task - fatigue inducing task overlap as in our experiment. Klaassen et al.

450 (2014) used a multi-task package (including Stroop, 2-back, 3-back, arithmetic and so-called  
451 brain teaser tasks) to induce mental fatigue. These tasks are mainly focused on executive  
452 functions, but also require an array of other cognitive functions. The testing task was a  
453 Sternberg working memory task, which mainly tests working memory maintenance. Van der  
454 Linden et al. (2006) used a modified continuous performance task to induce mental fatigue,  
455 which, according to the authors, requires working memory and sustained attention. The  
456 testing task was a prepulse inhibition task. Prepulse inhibition is a basic and automatic  
457 function, but, to some extent, can be related to executive functions. Both Klaassen et al. and  
458 Van der Linden et al. did demonstrate performance deterioration in the testing tasks, thus we  
459 can conclude that close functional overlap is not a necessary precondition for behavioral  
460 fatigue effects.

## 461 **Cognitive resilience**

462 There are two main ways of interpreting our results: we either obtained no significant  
463 changes in the testing tasks due to some methodological issues, or the lack of mental fatigue  
464 induced changes represent a real phenomenon. As discussed above, however, none of our a  
465 priori assumptions proved to be false, making methodological deficiency a less plausible  
466 explanation. Thus, present results suggest that performance loss is not an inevitable  
467 consequence of subjective mental fatigue.

468 This interpretation is in line with the emerging view that the human cognitive system can be  
469 resilient in many ways. Despite significant chronic hypoxia, isolation and confinement,  
470 people may have preserved cognitive functions (Barkaszi et al. 2016). Participants have  
471 shown intact executive functions even after being sleep deprived for two nights (Tucker et al.  
472 2010). In the field of fatigue, cognitive resilience is supported by studies that point out that  
473 subjective fatigue is not a direct function of working hours. A moderate amount of overtime  
474 does not lead to fatigue if it is voluntary and/or adequately compensated with rewards (i.e.  
475 time and money) (Van Der Hulst and Geurts 2001; Beckers et al. 2008). Likewise, the  
476 seminal study of Ackerman and Kanfer (2009) has shown that the high level of cognitive  
477 performance required by the SAT college admission test can be sustained for up to 5.5 hours  
478 without performance deterioration. A particularly interesting study reported fatigue  
479 manipulations on different time scales (Blain et al. 2016). Authors demonstrated that only six  
480 hour-long fatigue inducing sessions resulted in poorer testing task performance, while one-  
481 hour long sessions failed to produce such effects, which suggests that cognitive resilience  
482 might be prevalent at shorter time scales. Taken together, present results support the view that  
483 in some situations we are able to preserve an adequate level of performance despite previous  
484 mental exertion and subjective fatigue.

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## 487 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

488 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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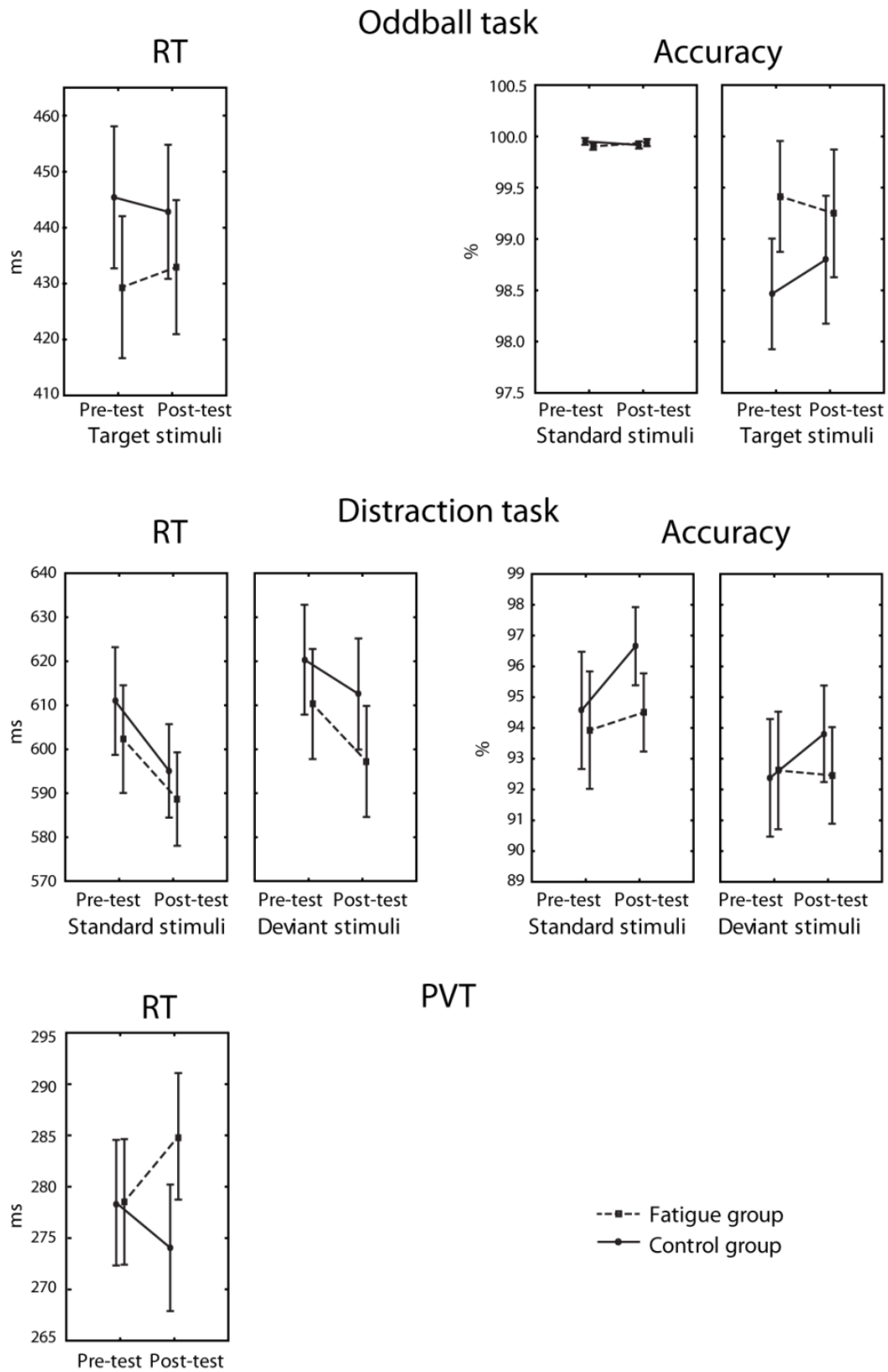
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630

631 **FIGURE LEGENDS**



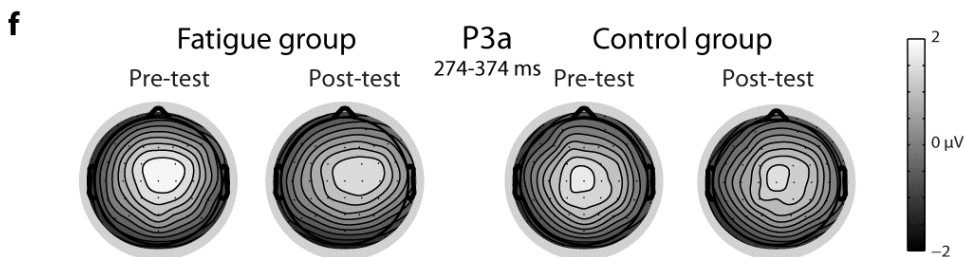
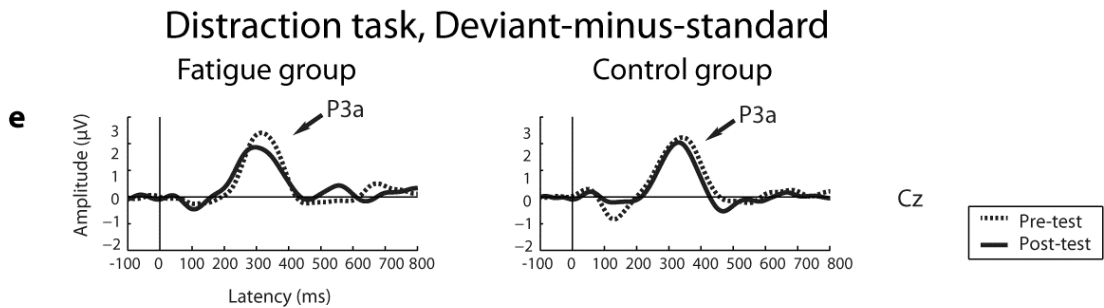
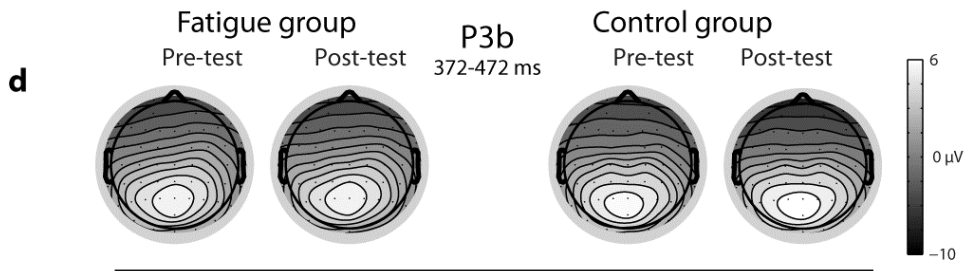
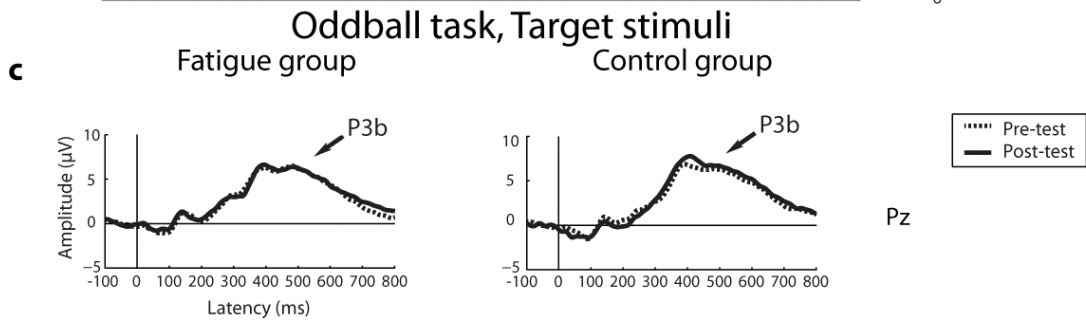
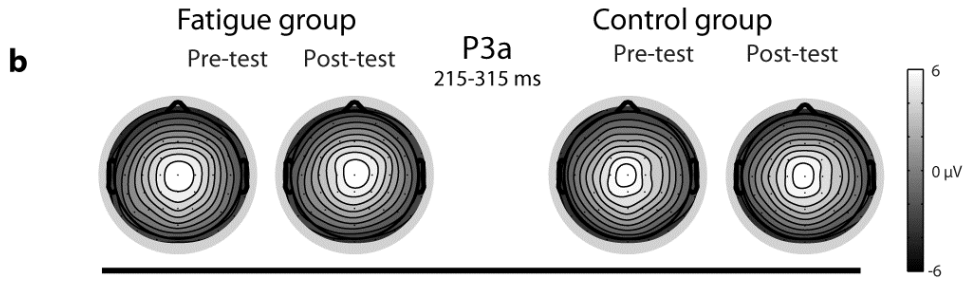
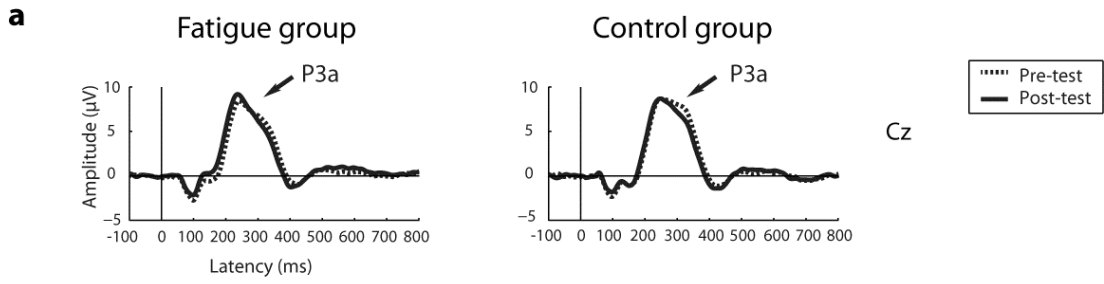
## Behavioral measures



632

633 **Fig. 1** RT and accuracy in the three Pre/Post-tasks. Vertical bars denote standard errors

## Oddball task, Novel stimuli



635 **Fig. 2** (a) and (c) Grand-average ERPs in the Oddball task elicited by novel and target  
636 stimuli, respectively. (e) Grand-average deviant-minus-standard waveforms in the Distraction  
637 task. The waveform was low-pass filtered at 10 Hz for display purposes. (b) (d) and (f)  
638 Topographical distribution of ERPs

639

640 **TABLES**

641

642 Table 1 Statistical results for the behavioral and ERP measures in the three Pre/Post-test  
643 tasks. G: Group factor, P: Phase factor, St: Stimulus factor, D: Deviance factor, Du: Duration  
644 factor.

645

Task	Measure	Effect	df	F	p	$\eta_p^2$
Oddball	RT	G × P	1, 34	0.57	0.46	0.02
	accuracy	G × P	1, 34	0.4	0.52	0.01
		G × P × St	1, 34	0.7	0.39	0.02
	P3a amplitude (novel ERPs)	G × P	1, 34	0.69	0.41	0.02
	P3b amplitude (target ERPs)	G × P	1, 34	1.28	0.27	0.04
	P3b latency (target ERPs)	G × P	1, 34	0.18	0.67	< 0.01
Distraction	RT	G × P	1, 34	0.06	0.84	< 0.01
		G × P × D	1, 34	1.73	0.20	0.05
		G × P × Du	1, 34	0.22	0.64	0.01
		G × P × D × Du	1, 34	0.02	0.88	< 0.01
	accuracy	G × P	1, 34	2.47	0.13	0.07
		G × P × D	1, 34	0.01	0.94	< 0.01
		G × P × Du	1, 34	2.68	0.11	0.07
		G × P × D × Du	1, 34	2.64	0.11	0.07
	P3a amplitude (deviant-minus- standard wave)	G × P	1, 34	0.67	0.42	0.02
	PVT	RT	G × P	1, 34	2.87	0.099

646