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Popov, Tzvetan; Jensen, Ole; Schoffelen, Jan-Mathijs

DOI:

[10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.05.054](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.05.054)

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Document Version

Peer reviewed version

Citation for published version (Harvard):

Popov, T, Jensen, O & Schoffelen, J-M 2018, 'Dorsal and ventral cortices are coupled by cross-frequency interactions during working memory' *NeuroImage*, pp. 277-286.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.05.054>

[Link to publication on Research at Birmingham portal](#)

Publisher Rights Statement:

Checked for eligibility 30/05/2018

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.05.054>

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1 **Dorsal and ventral cortices are coupled by cross-frequency interactions during**
2 **working memory**

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7 Tzvetan Popov¹, Ole Jensen^{2,3}, Jan-Mathijs Schoffelen²

8 Author's affiliations:

9 1- Department of Psychology, Universität Konstanz, Germany

10 2- Radboud University Nijmegen, Donders Institute for Brain, Cognition and Behaviour,
11 Center for Cognitive Neuroimaging, The Netherlands

12 3- School of Psychology, University of Birmingham, Hills Building, Birmingham B15 2TT

13

14

15 Corresponding author: Jan-Mathijs Schoffelen

16 e-mail: jan.schoffelen@donders.ru.nl

17 Corresponding address: Kapittelweg 29, 6525 EN Nijmegen, P.O. Box 91101, 6500 HB

18 Nijmegen, The Netherlands

19 Tel. +31 (0)24 3614793

20

21 Keywords: N-back task, working memory, alpha oscillations, gamma oscillations,

22 magnetoencephalography

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1
2 **Abstract**

3 | Oscillatory activity in the alpha and gamma bands is considered key in shaping
4 | functional brain architecture. Power increases in the high-frequency gamma band are
5 | typically reported in parallel to decreases in the low-frequency alpha band. However,
6 | their functional significance and in particular their interactions are not well
7 | understood. The present study shows that, in the context of an N-back working
8 | memory task, alpha power decreases in the dorsal visual stream were related to
9 | gamma power increase in early visual areas. Granger causality analysis revealed
10 | directed interregional interactions from dorsal to ventral stream areas, in accordance
11 | with task demands. Present results reveal a robust, behaviorally relevant, and
12 | architectonically decisive power-to-power relationship between alpha and gamma
13 | activity. This relationship suggests that anatomically distant power fluctuations in
14 | oscillatory activity can link cerebral network dynamics on trial-by-trial basis during
15 | cognitive operations such as working memory.

16

1 **Introduction**

2
3 Rhythmic neuronal activity is a ubiquitous phenomenon that underlies the spectral
4 components that can be readily observed in electrophysiological recordings. [In recent](#)
5 decades a large body of empirical evidence has been collected [that provides](#) a link between
6 oscillatory activity in specific frequency bands and their functional role in cognition. For
7 instance, amplitude fluctuations [in](#) alpha oscillatory activity (8-14Hz) have been found to be
8 related to cognitive processes such as perception, attention, and memory (Gevins et al.,
9 1997; Cooper et al., 2003; Klimesch et al., 2007; Jensen and Mazaheri, 2010; Saalman et al.,
10 2012; van Kerkoerle et al., 2014; Bastos et al., 2015; Michalareas et al., 2016; Popov et al.,
11 2017). Specifically, decreases in alpha amplitude have been proposed to index engagement
12 of a cortical area, whereas increases mark reduced processing capabilities. This has been
13 demonstrated in the visual (Adrian and Matthews, 1934; Foxe et al., 1998), sensorimotor
14 (Haegens et al., 2010; Haegens et al., 2011; van Ede et al., 2014), and auditory (Weisz et al.,
15 2011; Mazaheri et al., 2014) domains, suggesting an overarching principle for effective
16 neuronal resource allocation in [a regionally](#) specific manner.

17
18 [Faster](#) rhythms (gamma oscillations, $>30\text{Hz}$), on the other hand, have been frequently linked
19 to coherent stimulus processing (Tallon-Baudry and Bertrand, 1999; Fries, 2005), attention
20 (Bauer et al., 2014; Marshall et al., 2015a; Marshall et al., 2015b), and working memory
21 (Tallon-Baudry et al., 1998; Roux et al., 2012). It is well known that fast and slow rhythms
22 frequently co-occur and that they are often co-modulated (or anti-modulated) as a
23 consequence of an experimental manipulation. This has led to the idea that dynamic
24 interactions between slow and fast oscillatory activity might be a key mechanism [shaping](#)
25 functional interactions in cortical networks (Buzsaki and Draguhn, 2004; Canolty and Knight,
26 2010; Lisman and Jensen, 2013).

27
28 One possible mechanism [by](#) which fast rhythms could interact with slower rhythms is by
29 means of phase-amplitude coupling (PAC) (Jensen and Colgin, 2007; Canolty and Knight,
30 2010), where slow oscillations phasically modulate the amplitude of faster rhythms. PAC has
31 been identified in a variety of species, including rodents (Tort et al., 2009; Tort et al., 2010),
32 nonhuman primates (Whittingstall and Logothetis, 2009; Spaak et al., 2012), and humans
33 (Canolty and Knight, 2010). Moreover, PAC has been demonstrated during cognitive

1 operations such as item-context binding (Tort et al., 2009), spatial navigation and decision
2 making (Tort et al., 2008), working (Axmacher et al., 2010; Leszczynski et al., 2015) and
3 episodic memory (Staudigl and Hanslmayr, 2013; Park et al., 2016), sleep (Staresina et al.,
4 2015), and resting conditions (Florin and Baillet, 2015) and in a variety of clinical conditions
5 such as Parkinson's disease (van Wijk et al., 2016), schizophrenia (Allen et al., 2011; Kirihara
6 et al., 2012; Popov and Popova, 2015), autism (Berman et al., 2015), and affective disorders
7 (Miskovic et al., 2011).

8

9 Another view of the relationship between slow and fast oscillatory activity comes from
10 recent work investigating the network properties of directed oscillatory coupling [e.g.
11 Granger causality (GC)] between brain regions in humans and non-human primates. Long-
12 range inter-regional gamma synchronization has been shown to reflect feed-forward
13 interactions within the visual cortical hierarchy, whereas slower alpha-beta synchronization
14 reflects feedback interactions (van Kerkoerle et al., 2014; Bastos et al., 2015; Michalareas et
15 al., 2016). These findings are in line with generic anatomical connection profiles between
16 cortical layers, both within and between cortical areas, and with the cortical-layer-specific
17 distribution of different neuronal rhythms.

18

19 A third type of interaction could involve a relationship between the oscillations' amplitudes.
20 In contrast to the PAC and GC measures, this type of functional interaction does not require
21 a strict relationship of the oscillations' phase between brain areas. In fact, a number of
22 studies have reported stimulus-induced increases in gamma band activity with a
23 concomitant decrease in alpha-beta power [e.g. (Schoffelen et al., 2005; Hoogenboom et al.,
24 2006; Swettenham et al., 2009; Hoogenboom et al., 2010; Muthukumaraswamy and Singh,
25 2013; Perry et al., 2013; Bauer et al., 2014; Kujala et al., 2015; Michalareas et al., 2016)].
26 These empirical observations suggest a negative correlation between the task-induced
27 amplitude modulations of slow versus fast rhythms.

28

29 Yet a functionally relevant mechanistic relationship between low- and high-frequency
30 oscillatory activity, where a temporary increase in low-frequency power leads to a
31 temporary reduction in high-frequency power, would suggest a negative correlation within
32 trials. Reports of this nature are far less frequent in the literature (de Lange et al., 2008; Park

1 | et al., 2011; Popov et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017), which may be a consequence of the fact
2 | that single-trial estimates of oscillatory amplitudes typically have low signal-to-noise ratio, in
3 | particular when estimated from non-invasively recorded data.

4 |
5 | **The present study** leveraged the availability of a large number of subjects (n = 83), analyzing
6 | MEG data from a publicly available dataset. Participants performed a visual working memory
7 | (WM) N-back task, which reliably induces modulations in both alpha and gamma activity
8 | (Roux and Uhlhaas, 2014). Thus, these data are well suited to investigate the relationship
9 | between WM-load-dependent local changes in low- and high-frequency oscillatory activity,
10 | both across time within trials and across subjects. We hypothesized that WM demands
11 | would manifest as power-power interactions, where reductions in alpha activity would be
12 | associated with a spatially specific power increase in gamma activity. Second, these power
13 | fluctuations should be related to behavioral performance both within and between trials.
14 | Third, “top-down” influence within key network nodes should be reflected in low-frequency
15 | activity, whereas “bottom-up” communication should be evident in high-frequency activity.

17 **Material and methods**

18 *Participants and experimental procedures*

19 Publicly available data provided by the human connectome consortium
20 (www.humanconnectome.org) were analyzed. Eighty-three subjects (37 female and 46 male,
21 | mean age 28.5 years, range 22-35) participated in the experiment. Most were right-handed
22 | as measured with the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory with an mean lateralization quotient
23 | of 65% and SD = 44% (Oldfield, 1971). **Participants gave written informed consent for
24 | participation in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. In two runs, participants
25 | performed an N-back WM paradigm, memorizing pictures of faces and tools. Subjects were
26 | presented with 16 blocks per run of 0-back and 2-back trials and were asked to indicate
27 | match and no-match responses via button press with their right index and right middle
28 | finger, respectively (Figure 1). An initial cue presented for 2500 ms signaled the beginning of
29 | either a 0- or a 2-back block. After this, a serial presentation of face or tool stimuli displayed
30 | for 2000 ms was intermixed with an inter-stimulus intervals (ISI) of 500 ms. Participants
31 | were asked to respond as fast as possible via button press after the presentation of each
32 | stimulus. Responses had to take place within the stimulus presentation window. Following a**

1 | fixation interval of 500 ms, the next trial was presented.

2

3 | *Data acquisition and analysis*

4 | Data were recorded using a whole-head 248-channel magnetometer system (MAGNES 3600
5 | WH, 4D Neuroimaging, San Diego, CA) with subjects supine. Data were continuously
6 | recorded with a sampling rate of 2034.5101 Hz and a bandwidth of DC-400Hz. Digitization of
7 | each head shape and of the locations of the fiducial coils was accomplished with a Polhemus
8 | 3Space Fasttrak system. The WM task was a part of a 3-hour session, where both task and
9 | resting-state MEG data were collected. Participants performed a sequence of tasks,
10 | described in detail in the reference manual provided by the human connectome consortium
11 | (<http://www.humanconnectome.org/documentation/S500/index.html>). Just prior to the N-
12 | back paradigm the participant underwent three runs of approximately 6 minutes of resting-
13 | state MEG recording.

14

15 | The analysis described below was performed on the ‘minimally preprocessed’ data that were
16 | downloaded from the human connectome database. In brief, epochs lasting from 1.5 s
17 | before to 2.5 s after each picture’s onset had been extracted from the continuous recording.
18 | Epochs containing superconducting quantum interference device (SQUID) jumps, bad
19 | sensors, or bad segments, defined as excessive signal amplitude changes $> \sim 10^{-12} T_z$ were
20 | excluded from further processing. Eye-movement-related signals and cardiac signals had
21 | been identified with independent component analysis (ICA) (Jung et al., 2001) and projected
22 | out of the data. All data was analysed using custom scripts in MATLAB and the FieldTrip
23 | toolbox (Oostenveld et al., 2011).

24

25 | *Spectral analysis*

26 | For each epoch, spectral analysis was performed using a windowed Fast Fourier Transform
27 | (FFT). For frequencies below 40 Hz, we used a 500 ms sliding window (sliding in steps of 50
28 | ms) multiplied by a Hanning taper, achieving an effective frequency resolution of ~ 2 Hz. For
29 | high frequency activity (>40 Hz), we used multitapers (Mitra and Pesaran, 1999). Eleven
30 | orthogonal Slepian tapers were used, resulting in a spectral smoothing of ± 10 Hz.

31

32 | *Source level analysis*

1 Source reconstruction of oscillatory activity was performed using the dynamic imaging of
2 coherent sources (DICS) algorithm (Gross et al., 2001). This algorithm uses the sensor-level
3 cross-spectral density matrix and a set of location-specific forward models to construct a set
4 of spatial filters optimized for a given frequency at the specific locations. The data of both
5 conditions were used for the spatial filter computation, which were subsequently used to
6 compute the pattern of oscillatory activity for each condition separately. A realistic, single-
7 shell brain model (Nolte, 2003) was constructed based on the individual anatomical MRI as
8 implemented in FieldTrip. Forward models were computed using the anatomical information
9 provided in the database, consisting of a subject-specific, realistically shaped single shell
10 volume conduction model and a 3-dimensional grid of dipole locations with equidistant
11 positions in normalized MNI-space (spacing of 8 mm).

12
13 For a set of predefined locations, we reconstructed time courses of neuronal activity using a
14 linearly constrained minimum variance (LCMV) beamformer (Van Veen et al., 1997). These
15 locations were identified by contrasting source-reconstructed power estimates of alpha and
16 gamma activity for the 2- vs. 0-back conditions resulting in differential effects in primary
17 visual areas (V1), intra-parietal sulcus (IPS), and fusiform gyrus (FF) (see Figure 1). [Local](#)
18 [maxima were identified in right FF \[MNI coordinates: 55 -58 -12\], right intraparietal sulcus](#)
19 [IPS \[MNI coordinates: 34 -76 28\], and primary visual cortex V1 \[MNI coordinates: 4 -80 8\].](#)
20 [Spatial filters were estimated based](#) on the unfiltered data covariance matrix [for all trials](#) and
21 forward models of the locations of interest. Subsequently, these filters were multiplied [by](#)
22 the data in order to obtain 'virtual channel' time series at the respective locations.

23
24 *Correlation analyses*

25 *Brain-behavior relationships*

26 The relationship between behavioral measures (average reaction times, [RT](#), or [RT](#)
27 differences) and trial-averaged neural data were computed [as](#) Spearman's rank correlation
28 across participants. This relationship was computed for each sensor, time, and frequency
29 bin, and statistical inference was done using cluster-based permutation tests (see below).
30 [Within-subject Spearman](#) correlations across trials, using single trial RTs and neural data at
31 sensor level, [were also computed.](#)

32

1 *Cross-frequency power-power correlations*

2 In order to assess cross-frequency power-power correlations, [Spearman correlations](#)
3 [characterized cross-frequency](#) alpha-gamma power-[power relationships](#). At the sensor level,
4 stimulus-induced gamma activity (60-80Hz) in visual areas was correlated [with](#) the estimated
5 power at each sensor, time [point](#), and frequency bin (up to 40 Hz). Gamma power was
6 quantified as a single value per participant, computed as the mean over occipito-parietal
7 sensors, frequencies, and time points. The inclusion criteria for sensors, [time points, and](#)
8 frequencies were based on the condition differences (2-back vs. 0-back) in gamma activity
9 (see Figure [1A](#)). In addition, trial-by-trial relationships were evaluated at source level. First,
10 generators of alpha and gamma oscillatory signals were determined by a spatial filtering
11 algorithm (see below) and time courses of neuronal activity at these locations were
12 extracted. Next, within participants, two sets of high and low alpha trials per location were
13 identified on the basis of a median split [on alpha power](#). Finally, the null hypothesis of no
14 group differences in gamma amplitudes in high and low alpha trials was evaluated using the
15 cluster-based permutation framework.

16

17 *Granger causality analysis [and parcellation of source-reconstructed activity](#)*

18

19 Spectrally resolved [Granger causality \(GC\)](#) analysis (Granger, 1969; Ding et al., 2006)
20 was used to dissociate potential directionality in inter-nodal communication. Briefly, GC
21 represents the result of a model comparison where the predictive strength of past values of
22 time series x [predicting the](#) future behavior of time series x (a univariate auto-regressive
23 model) is evaluated against the past values of time series x and another time series y (a
24 bivariate auto-regressive model) [predicting the](#) future behavior of time series x . Initially
25 formulated in the time domain, GC can also be estimated in the frequency domain (Geweke,
26 1982; Kaminski et al., 2001; Chen et al., 2006) [see for detailed review (Bastos and
27 Schoffelen, 2015) and (Ding et al., 2006)], which requires the estimation of the spectral
28 transfer matrix between a set of signals.

29 A whole-cortex all-to-all GC analysis was performed. In a first step, the dimensionality
30 of the data was reduced by applying an atlas-based parcellation scheme (Glasser et al.,
31 2016). This atlas discretizes the neocortex into 180 parcels per hemisphere, which can [be](#)
32 further grouped into 22 modality-specific areas, e.g. auditory, somatosensory, visual, task-

1 positive, and task-negative. Following procedures [similar to those of](#) (Schoffelen et al.,
2 2017), single-dipole-specific spatial filters were concatenated across vertices comprising a
3 parcel, yielding a set of 22 multivariate time courses of activity per hemisphere. For each
4 parcel, the spatial components explaining 95% of the variance within the corresponding
5 parcel were selected. [Out of these preselected components, only the first \(largest\)](#)
6 [component was considered for further analysis. This step is motivated by the fact that](#)
7 [differences in local dipole orientations preclude averaging over a set of components within a](#)
8 [parcel, potentially leading to cancelation of effects.](#) For comparability purposes, source
9 power analysis of alpha and gamma activity was re-computed as described above followed
10 by whole-brain (all to all parcels) conditional GC analysis. [Parcel time series were re-](#)
11 [segmented to include 1 to 2 seconds post-stimulus-onset \(the post-stimulus task window\).](#)
12 [For each trial, Fourier coefficients were computed for the entire spectrum up to the Nyquist](#)
13 [frequency. Non-parametric matrix factorization of the cross-spectral density matrix \(Wilson,](#)
14 [1972; Dhamala et al., 2008\) estimated the spectral transfer matrix. For a given pair of](#)
15 [locations, GC was computed conditional on the rest of locations,](#) similar to the procedures
16 applied in (Wen et al., 2013) and (Bastos et al., 2015). [In addition, GC influences were](#)
17 [computed twice: once on the original and once on the time-reversed time series.](#) The latter
18 strategy proposed by (Haufe et al., 2013; Winkler et al., 2015) accounts for the presence of
19 so-called weak asymmetries as a possible interpretational confound, contributing to an
20 apparent dominant directional drive between two areas. Briefly, as opposed to strong
21 asymmetries, which are caused by actual time-lagged relations between signals, weak
22 asymmetries are the consequence of differences in univariate signal properties (for instance,
23 [the local signal-to-noise ratio\).](#) [Time reversal of the signals does not affect these univariate](#)
24 [signal properties, whereas it should reverse the dominant direction of interaction. In other](#)
25 [words, if similar patterns of GC are observed after the time reversal, these are most likely](#)
26 [artificial, whereas a reversal of the direction of the asymmetry implies true time-lagged, thus](#)
27 [directed relationships. Only relationships surviving the contrast \[forward minus backward vs.](#)
28 [forward_{flip} minus backward_{flip}\] are presented and evaluated in this report.](#)

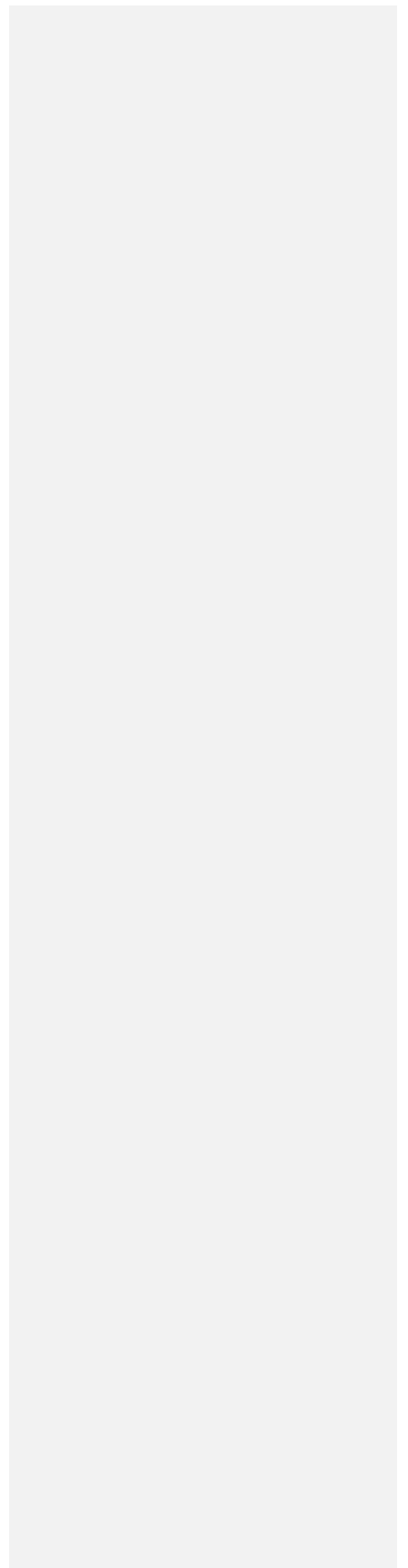
29 *Statistical analysis*

30 [Inferential statistical](#) evaluation was carried out by non-parametric permutation tests
31 (Maris and Oostenveld, 2007). [A cluster-based approach, clustering across space, time](#)
32 [points,](#) and frequency (wherever appropriate) [controlled](#) for multiple comparisons, [using](#)

1 | [1000 permutations and an alpha threshold of 0.025.](#)
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Results

The present study evaluated publicly available neuromagnetic data from human participants performing an alternating WM task. In a block design, participants performed either 0 or 2-back task. Each block began with a cue indicating the WM load condition for 2.5 s followed by presentation of face or tool stimuli. Stimulus duration was 2 s separated by a 0.5 s interstimulus interval (offset to onset) during which participants were asked to provide a response (Figure 1).

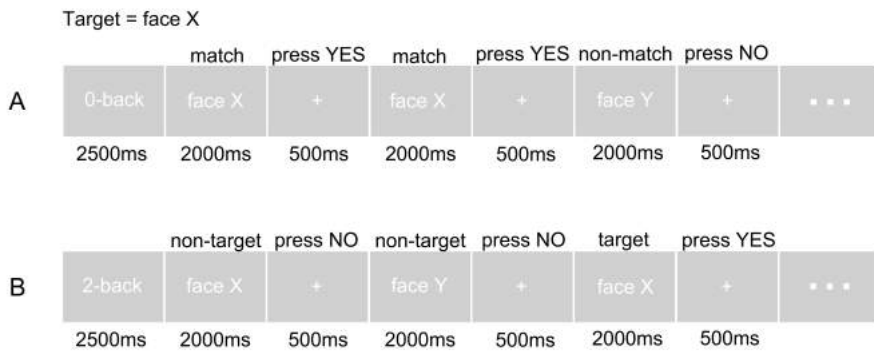


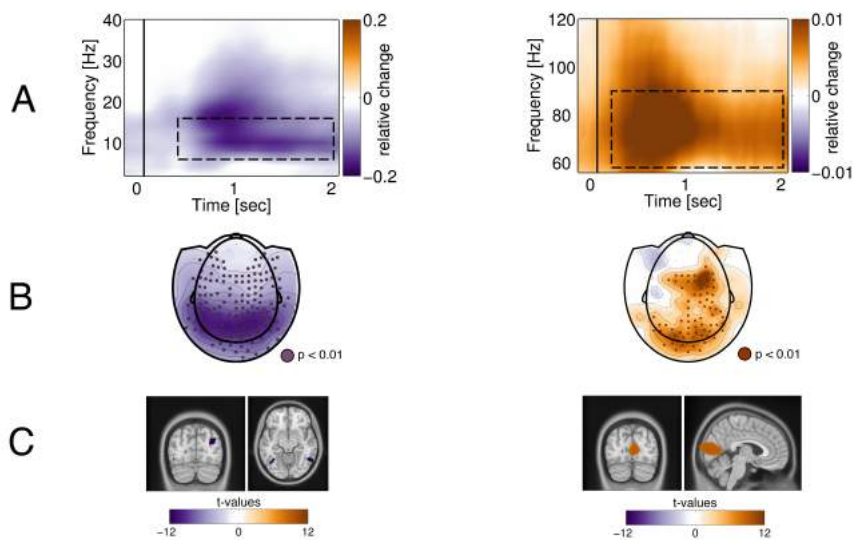
Figure 1: Experimental task. A- At the beginning of the 0-back block, participants are presented with a target face X. On subsequent trials different faces are presented. After each face, participants indicate via button press whether the presented stimulus matches the target stimulus. Responses had to occur within 500 ms after the stimulus offset. B- 2-back blocks were signaled by a presentation of "2-back" for 2500 ms. Participants indicated whether the presented stimulus matched the stimulus two trials earlier. Responses had to occur in 500 ms after stimulus offset.

Alpha_beta and gamma activity in object-selective areas scale with working memory load

As a first step, we evaluated the effect of WM load on the time-frequency response of the brain. Compared to the 0-back condition, the 2-back condition was associated with an amplitude decrease in alpha_beta power (8-15Hz) and an increase in gamma power (60-80 Hz) ($p < 0.01$, non-parametric randomization)(Figure 2A). Sensor-level effects were widespread, with the largest difference at occipital sensors (Figure 2B). Source reconstruction of these effects, however, suggests different cortical generators of the observed topographies (Figure 2C). Alpha_beta condition differences

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1 were strongest in bilateral fusiform gyri and right intra parietal sulcus (IPS). In contrast,
 2 gamma effects were strongest in early visual areas around the primary visual cortex
 3 (V1). The chosen threshold of 80 % of maximum is arbitrary, and source extent
 4 be interpreted with caution. The largest observed power difference occur on average
 5 at peak minimum of 800 ms for alpha and peak maximum of 650 ms for gamma
 6 activity. Button responses following stimulus presentation occurred on average at 631
 7 ms for 0-back (min/max = 394/1053 ms, SD = 128 ms) and 827 ms for 2-back (min/max
 8 = 511/1161 ms, SD = 131 ms).
 9



10 **Figure 2: High- and low-frequency activity scales with WM load.** A- Time-frequency representations of memory-load-
 11 dependent differences in power for low (left) and high (right) frequencies. The color bar indicates difference in oscillatory
 12 power (2-back vs. 0-back), with dashed rectangles approximating the time-frequency range contributing to the largest
 13 extent of the cluster providing the basis for the rejection of the null-hypothesis, at a p-value of 0.01. Dots highlight the spatial
 14 extent of the cluster providing the basis for the rejection of the null-hypothesis, at a p-value of 0.01. B- Scalp topographical
 15 representation of condition differences highlighting the strongest (80% of minimum) effects with respect to alpha activity
 16 (left) in bilateral fusiform (FF) gyri as well as right intra-parietal sulcus (IPS). In contrast, gamma modulation by WM load
 17 was strongest (80% of maximum) in early visual (V1) areas (right graphs). MNI coordinates: right FF [55 -58 -12], right IPS
 18 [34 -76 28], V1 [4 -80 8]. Note: alpha activity shows two different loci, whereas the maxima of gamma band activity is
 19 predominantly localized in the primary visual cortex.
 20

21
 22

23 **Alpha-beta and gamma oscillations are inversely related to behavioral performance**
 24 **between and within participants**

25
 26

On average, an increase in WM load resulted in increased RT to the target stimulus.

1 The difference in RT ($\Delta RT = RT_{2\text{-back}} - RT_{0\text{-back}}$) was on average 131 ms (range 175 to 432 ms; $p <$
2 0.0001, $t_{82} = 10.05$, paired t -test). Figure 3 shows the analysis of the correlation, across
3 subjects, between the behavioral effect and the effect on the time-frequency response. The
4 left panel of Figure 3A illustrates the association between posterior alpha-beta power
5 modulations and RT differences. This indicates that, across participants, stronger alpha
6 power modulations (larger memory-load-dependent decreases) were associated with a
7 larger behavioral penalty (ΔRT), reflecting the increase in WM demands. Participants
8 characterized by stronger alpha-beta decrease with load were also those with a larger RT
9 increase with load. The opposite was observed for gamma activity (Figure 3A right panels). A
10 strong WM-load induced increase in gamma band power was related to an increase in RT
11 differences. Next, we investigated the correlations across trials. The left panels in Figure 3B
12 illustrate the trial-to-trial relationship between alpha-beta oscillations and RT for 0- and 2-
13 back conditions separately. Each line indicates the correlation across trials as a function of
14 time per participant, sorted along the mean reaction time of the respective participant. Prior
15 to the button press there was a positive relationship between alpha-beta power modulation
16 and RT and negative one after response indication. Thus, WM-induced alpha/beta
17 modulations were predictive for individual performance on a trial-by-trial basis. Moreover,
18 this brain-behavior relationship was modulated by WM load (Figure 2B, bottom left panel, p
19 < 0.01 cluster-permutation approach). Similar association differentiating between memory
20 loads was also evident for gamma band activity and RT (Figure 3B, right panels, $p < 0.01$).

21
22 In summary, WM load dependent modulations of alpha-beta and gamma oscillations were
23 found related to behavioral performance both between and within participants. Condition
24 specific differences in alpha-beta and gamma oscillations were characterized by different
25 activation patterns: alpha-beta activity was most pronounced in IPS, whereas maxima of
26 condition differences in gamma band activity were more confined to early visual areas. The
27 correlation between the WM-load dependent gamma response and alpha-beta modulation
28 observed at the sensor-level, combined with the neural sources of the observed effects
29 suggests a cross-frequency interaction between “early” (visual) and “late” (ventral and
30 dorsal) hierarchical levels, which we explored next.

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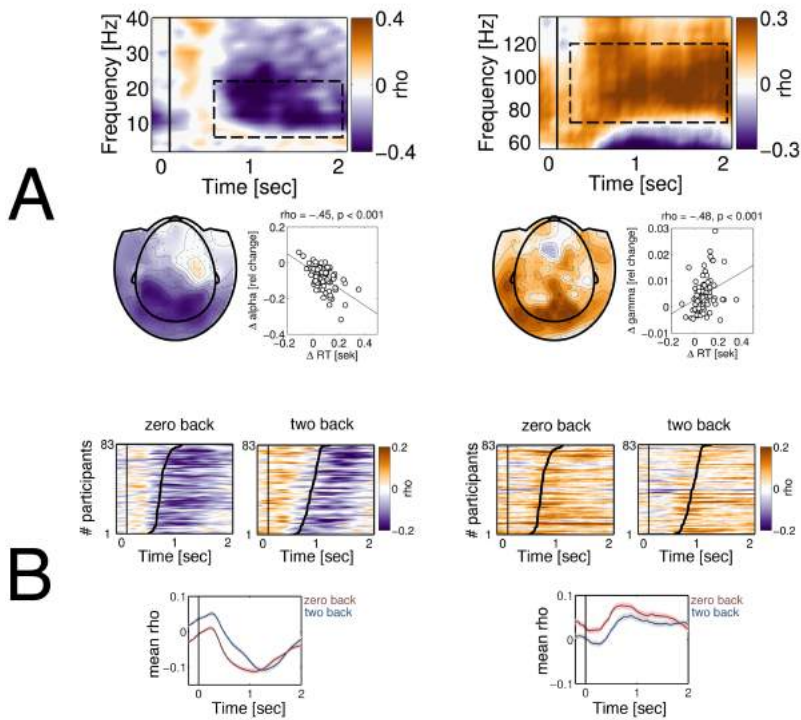


Figure 3: Relationship between neural data and overt performance, and between alpha and gamma power. A) Between-subject relationships. Time-frequency representation of the correlation between RT differences and differences in low- (left) and high- (middle) frequency activity (alpha and RT $p < 0.001$; gamma and RT $p < 0.03$; gamma and alpha $p < 0.001$; cluster-permutation approach). The scatterplots in A are an additional illustration of the respective effects, with each dot corresponding to an individual participant. Time-frequency spectrograms are averaged over occipito-posterior sensors with the following labels: A75, A105, A106, A107, A138, A139, A140, A166, A167, A189, A136, A137, A138, A139, A164, A165. **B- Within-subject relationships.** Time by participant graphs illustrating the variation of the association between RT and alpha-beta power (left) and RT and gamma power (right). Each line represents a single subject. The color bar indicates correlation coefficients. Participants are sorted according to mean RT time (indicated by the thick black lines). Bottom graphs provide mean correlation over participants with shading indicating ± 1 SEM.

Alpha_beta oscillations in IPS regulate gamma amplitudes in early visual cortex

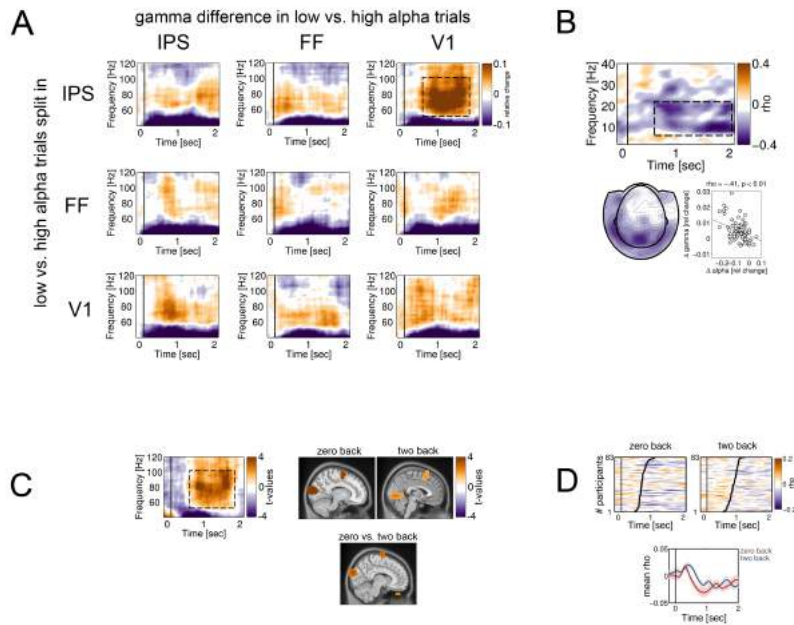
The results so far suggest an inverse relationship between memory-load-dependent changes in alpha-beta activity on the one hand and the changes in gamma activity on the other. We reconstructed the broadband neural activity at the source locations identified and illustrated in Figure 2. This yielded three virtual sensors per subject, in right IPS, fusiform (FF), and visual (V1) areas. For each participant and brain location, we computed single-trial alpha power averaged between 0.5-2 s and 8-15 Hz. For each of the sets of single-trial alpha power estimates, we performed a median split, dividing the trials into region-specific high

1 | and low alpha power trials [for each](#) participant. Subsequently, we computed time-frequency
2 | representations of power in the gamma range (40-120 Hz) for subsets of trials with low and
3 | high alpha power.

4 | The outcome of this analysis is illustrated in Figure [4A](#). Alpha power decreases in IPS
5 | were associated with a sustained relative increase of gamma band activity in V1. That is, on
6 | trials [with less](#) alpha activity in IPS, gamma amplitude in V1 was [higher](#). This finding was
7 | observed only for the IPS-V1 [relationships](#) and not for the other possible pairs illustrated in
8 | Figure [4A](#). A control analysis confirmed a robust [cross-participant](#) relationship between
9 | alpha_beta and gamma activity ([60-80Hz](#)) (Figure [4B](#), $p < 0.02$ cluster-permutation
10 | approach). Whole_brain analysis confirmed that this effect was [most pronounced in](#) early
11 | visual areas [in addition to activation of left motor areas, potentially reflecting the](#)
12 | [preparation for right-hand button press](#). Specifically, gamma band activity was reconstructed
13 | for high and low IPS alpha trials and subsequently contrasted, resulting in [a](#) difference in
14 | gamma activity per voxel and per load. Figure [3C](#) illustrates this contrast for 0_ and 2-back_
15 | respectively as well as their interaction (IPS alpha $_{[high, low]} \times$ WM Load $_{[0-back, 2-back]}$). Finally,
16 | Figure [4D](#) illustrates this trial-to-trial relationship as [a](#) function of time for 0_ and 2-back
17 | conditions. Each line indicates the correlation across trials as a function of time per
18 | participant, sorted along the mean [RT](#) of the respective participant. In line with the source_
19 | space results, there was significant condition difference between the alpha/gamma
20 | correlations in 0_ vs. 2-back (Figure [4D](#), $p < 0.02$ cluster-permutation approach).

21 | This cross-frequency power relationship is correlative in nature and does not permit
22 | conclusions about the potential directionality of effects. These findings suggest a cross-
23 | frequency anti-correlation between alpha oscillations in IPS and gamma oscillations in early
24 | visual cortex. The extent to which this effect is mediated by top-down (e.g._ IPS to V1) or
25 | bottom_up (e.g._ V1 to IPS) interactions [can](#) not be addressed with [the analyses reported](#)
26 | [above, so](#) Granger causality (GC) between the regions of interest derived from [that](#) analyses
27 | [was undertaken](#).

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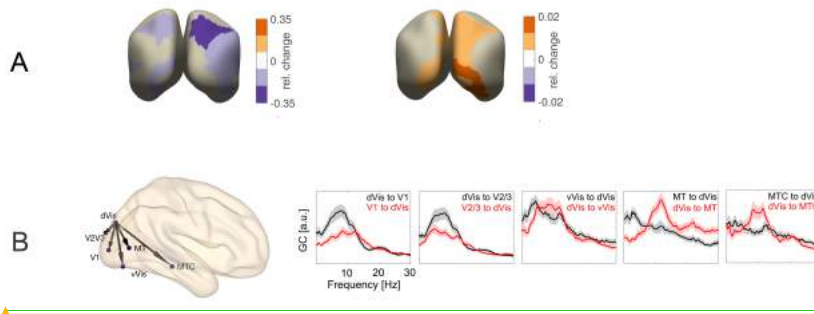


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3 **Figure 4: Inter-regional power-power correlation of alpha and gamma activity.** A- Time-frequency representation of power
4 differences in high-frequency activity between high and low alpha trials as a function of median split location collapsed
5 across conditions. Color bar illustrates the strength of the observed differences, and dashed rectangle approximates the
6 time-frequency cluster of significant condition differences ($p < 0.05$, cluster-based permutation approach). B- Time-
7 frequency representation of correlation strength between alpha-beta (??-?? Hz) and gamma activity (60-80 Hz)
8 predominantly over occipital sensors ($p < 0.01$, cluster-based permutation approach). C- Whole-brain analysis of gamma
9 activity as a function of high vs. low IPS alpha. Effects were located primarily in early visual areas with spectro-temporal
10 characteristics similar to those illustrated by the spectrogram on the left. WM load and gamma in high vs. low alpha trials
11 interacted ($p < 0.01$, uncorrected). The data used in the time-frequency spectrogram are derived from V1 (MNI 4 -80 8). D-
12 Time by participant graphs illustrating the variation of the association between alpha-beta and gamma power based on
13 sensor level data. In the upper panels, time is depicted on the abscissa and participant number on the ordinate. Each row
14 represents a single subject. The color bar indicates correlation coefficients. Participants are sorted according to mean RT
15 (indicated by the thick black lines). Bottom panel depicts mean correlation over participants in 0-back (red) and 2-back
16 (blue) with shading indicating SEM.

17
18 **Dorsal stream exerts top-down control over ventral stream**

19 Conditional GC differentiates direct and mediated influences (Chen et al., 2006; Wen
20 et al., 2013) using a late post-stimulus time window (1 to 2 s) in order to avoid interference
21 from stimulus- and response-locked components. Directed connectivity during WM was
22 probed by a parcellation-based GC analysis (see Granger causality analysis method section
23 above). Figure 5A confirms the primary condition difference in alpha-beta power in posterior
24 parietal cortex (Figure 5A, left), whereas differences in gamma activity with load were
25 confined mainly to early visual areas (Figure 5A, right). Directed interactions between

1 cortical structures that survived the time-reversal test are shown in Figure 5B. Dorsal-stream
 2 structures such as dorsal visual cortex exhibited directed interactions with ventral-stream
 3 structures, such as ventral visual cortex (vVis), medial temporal gyrus (MTG), and area MT as
 4 well as visual areas V1, V2/V3 (Figure 5B). This connectivity architecture was evident during
 5 both WM conditions. Moreover, this directed communication was predominantly
 6 established in the alpha-beta bands (Figure 5B). No GC gamma effects (40+ Hz) were
 7 observed. Overall, GC results complement the power-power findings reported above,
 8 strengthening the evidence that the dorsal stream exerts top-down control of visual and
 9 ventral stream regions via alpha-beta oscillations.



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Figure 5: Whole-cortex GC analysis. **A-** Source-level representation of cortical parcels illustrating the strongest condition differences with respect to alpha (left) and gamma (right). **B- Left panel:** Directed connectivity architecture collapsed across WM load. Only connections surviving the time-reversal procedure (see methods) are shown. **Right panels:** GC spectra (original data) collapsed across WM load averaged over participants per area pair. Red indicates “bottom-up” and black “top-down” directions. Shading depicts SEM. 0-back and 2-back conditions analyzed separately (not shown) showed similar GC spectral profiles.

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 Schriftfarbe: Automatisch

1 Discussion

2 | The present [study](#) examined the relationship between low- and high-frequency
3 | oscillatory activity during a working memory task. Participants performed an N-back working
4 | memory task under low and high load conditions (0-back and 2-back), which allowed us to
5 | compare WM-load-dependent stimulus-related changes in oscillatory activity. A large
6 | sample of 83 human participants [showed](#) modulations of alpha-beta and gamma oscillatory
7 | activity [that 1\)](#) were related to each other across participants, 2) [were related to each other](#)
8 | across trials [within participants](#), and 3) functionally [connected](#) distant brain areas by means
9 | of power-power interactions. Moreover, [Granger causality analyses showed](#) directed
10 | interactions from dorsal-stream parietal areas to ventral-stream areas.

11 [Within- and between-subject relationships between power modulations and reaction time](#) 12 [index effortful processing](#)

13 | A key finding of the present report is a robust relationship between the neural and
14 | [overt performance](#) data, both across subjects and across [time within](#) trials (Figure 2B).
15 | [Cognitive](#) effort was quantified as the increase in [RT](#) due to the number of items to be held
16 | in memory. [This](#) increase in cognitive demand was associated with [more](#) decrease [in](#) alpha-
17 | beta power in IPS and a concurrent increase in gamma power in V1 (Figure 2A). This [pattern](#)
18 | fits well with the interpretation that decreases in alpha-beta power and increases in gamma
19 | power indicate the involvement and overall activation level of task-relevant cortical areas.

20 | Yet, across participants, larger differences in WM-load-dependent power were
21 | related to a larger behavioral penalty, i.e. slower RTs with increasing WM load. [There was a](#)
22 | [stronger positive alpha to RT correlation prior to the actual response in the 2-back as](#)
23 | [compared to the 0-back conditions \(Figure 3B\). It is conceivable that the parameters of the](#)
24 | [response-related rebound event-related synchronization \(ERS\) at alpha-beta frequencies in](#)
25 | [response to stimulus N-1 correlate with the RT to stimulus N. The magnitude of the ERS](#)
26 | [indexes the overall readiness of the motor system for a fast response, where higher](#)
27 | [amplitude is associated with slow responses. Consequently, the observed positive](#)
28 | [correlation in the 2-back condition at early latencies is increased. Due to the overall slower](#)
29 | [responses in the 2-back condition, this effect may persist until after onset of the next](#)
30 | [stimulus](#). This finding challenges the often tacitly assumed expectation of a positive
31 | relationship between oscillatory power modulations and cognitive performance. A number

1 of studies have demonstrated that the amount of [alpha-beta](#) power reduction relates to
2 faster [RT](#) (Gonzalez Andino et al., 2005; Schoffelen et al., 2005; van Ede et al., 2011; van Ede
3 et al., 2012; Buchholz et al., 2014). A common feature of these studies is the explicit
4 manipulation of attention prior to the behavioral response. Anticipatory attention and/or
5 informative sensory cues might [facilitate](#) an anticipatory state, [including](#) a decrease in alpha-
6 beta activity. This anticipatory state will result in faster [RT](#) to an upcoming target stimulus.
7 One important difference between the [present](#) experimental paradigm and the referenced
8 literature is the distinction between stimulus-induced changes in power (induced by task-
9 relevant stimuli that may require a response) and power modulations [in](#) oscillatory activity in
10 anticipation [of](#) a behaviorally relevant stimulus. Thus, in the [results](#) reported here, the
11 increase in gamma/decrease in alpha-beta may reflect increased allocation of local
12 computational resources to process the incoming stimulus and to plan the appropriate
13 response, while having to keep and continuously update [two](#) stimuli in memory. Rather
14 than [being](#) directly linked to the speed of behavioral responses, oscillatory power
15 modulations [may](#) reflect the increased level of simultaneous item maintenance [efforts](#). The
16 reported decrease [in](#) alpha activity [may](#) reflect the engagement of the visual system in active
17 information processing, with the predominant interplay between ventral and dorsal brain
18 areas potentially reflecting the visual imagery involved in the context of the present task.

19 [Alternatively, instead of neural processes supporting WM that correlate with RT,](#)
20 [present findings may reflect motor response processes. In fact, processes related to motor](#)
21 [response and WM update processes can co-occur and are not readily dissociable in the](#)
22 [present task. However, the strongest condition-specific effects were observed at latencies](#)
23 [within the range of the RTs \(0.4-1.2 s\), thus surrounding the actual motor response.](#)
24 [Furthermore, the clear occipito-parietal topography of the correlations and the well-known](#)
25 [involvement of these regions during WM tasks suggest that the findings reflect engagement](#)
26 [of cortical areas that subservise the more core WM-related processes.](#)

27 ***Parietal alpha-beta power fluctuations are related to gamma activity in early visual areas***

28 Extending previous reports showing concurrent stimulus-induced power modulations
29 of alpha and gamma band activity, [present](#) findings support a mechanistic view [of](#)
30 [relationships](#) between neuronal oscillations in different frequency bands and between
31 neuronal oscillations and cognitive performance. Specifically, participants with a stronger

1 WM-load-dependent decrease in alpha-beta power were also characterized by a stronger
2 increase in gamma power. Whereas neuronal generators of gamma activity were confined
3 mainly to early visual areas, the strongest alpha-beta power reduction was predominantly in
4 higher-order parietal areas (Figure 2C). These power-power relationships between low- and
5 high-frequency activity were anatomically specific and are in line with previous reports,
6 highlighting one possible role of parietal brain regions, exerting a top-down control over
7 task-relevant visual cortex (Liu et al., 2014; Michalareas et al., 2016). Furthermore, previous
8 MEG work also considering interactions between gamma and alpha band activity during
9 working memory operations identified the superior temporal gyrus (STG) as a hub region
10 coordinating network activity during maintenance (Park et al., 2011). We observed little
11 engagement of the STG. However, there were several differences in the tasks used. The
12 executive component of the present task involves IPS-V1 interaction, where WM
13 maintenance is typically reflected in frontal to parietal communication (Christophel et al.,
14 2017). Importantly, on a trial-by-trial basis, more alpha power decrease in parietal cortex
15 was associated with a more increase in gamma power in early visual areas (Figure 4),
16 suggesting a direct functional relationship between spatially distant brain areas. Observing a
17 negative correlation in both conditions suggests an involvement of and coordinated
18 interaction between parietal and early visual areas, in line with task requirements. This
19 correlation was stronger for the 0-back than the 2-back condition (Figure 4C). However, the
20 interpretability of this difference is not straightforward. This reflects estimates of both mean
21 power and variance, and on the other hand there was an overall increase in gamma power
22 during the 2-back conditions. Thus, a ceiling effect on gamma power potentially resulted in a
23 smaller difference between low and high alpha power trials. The extent to which this reflects
24 a behaviourally relevant functional architecture or rather more stimulus-related perceptual
25 processes remains to be demonstrated. On the basis of this functional power to power
26 relationship between IPS alpha and V1 gamma, we next examined the effective
27 communication between these nodes.

28

29 ***Dorsal-stream-to-ventral-stream interactions at alpha-beta frequencies***

30 GC analysis indicated a unidirectional relationship from dorsal visual to ventral visual
31 areas relying on alpha-beta frequencies (Figure 5B), with no clear GC spectral peak at
32 gamma frequencies. Early visual areas were receiving input from dorsal areas primarily at

1 | alpha-beta frequencies (Figure 4A). These results are partially in line with reports from
2 | human and animal research, demonstrating that feedback interactions operate in the
3 | intermediate alpha-beta range (Saalman et al., 2012; van Kerkoerle et al., 2014; Bastos et
4 | al., 2015; Michalareas et al., 2016; Popov et al., 2017). [Previous literature suggests that, for](#)
5 | perceptual [tasks](#) strongly engaging the dorsal stream, dorsal regions affect mid-level ventral-
6 | stream regions [more](#) than early visual areas (Michalareas [et al., 2016](#)). Present findings are
7 | consistent with this, demonstrating that, during high WM load, [dorsal alpha activity is a](#)
8 | [mechanism of](#) top-down [control](#) over ventral regions, despite an experimental arrangement
9 | strongly engaging the ventral stream (e.g., face identity).

10 | **Conclusions**

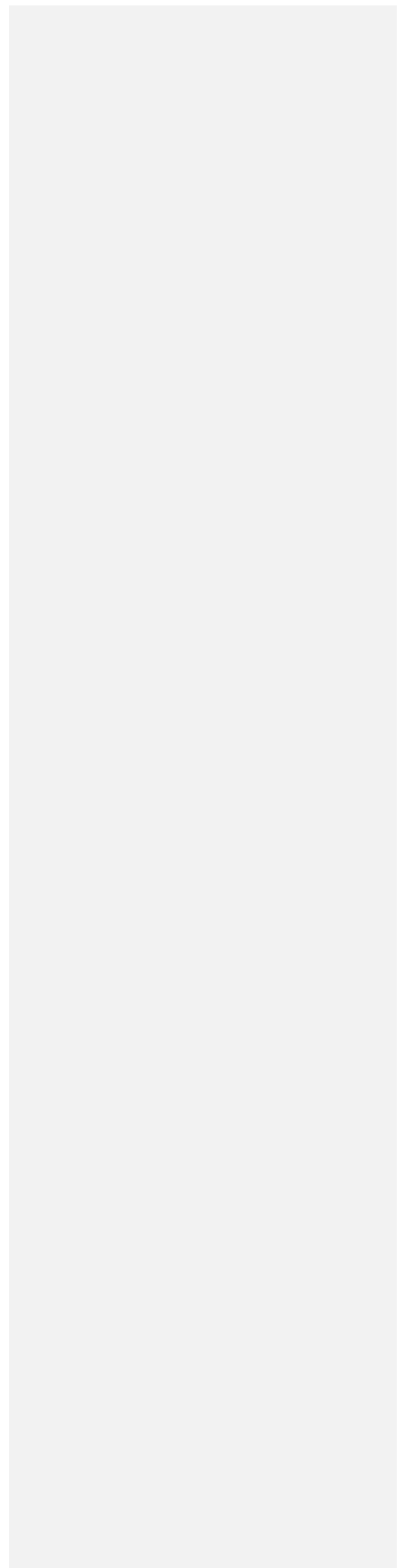
11 | In summary, the present study analyzed publicly available MEG data from 83
12 | [participants](#) while they performed an N-back task. We investigated the relationship between
13 | neural activity (low- and high frequency oscillations) and [overt performance](#) (task condition
14 | and [RT](#)). Increased working memory demands resulted in alpha-beta and gamma power
15 | modulations in early visual cortex and brain regions in the dorsal and ventral visual [streams](#).
16 | [Robust](#) cross-frequency power-to-power interactions between these brain areas and
17 | between alpha-beta and gamma activity during WM scaled with WM demands. Granger
18 | [causality](#) interactions were most prominent in the alpha band, from dorsal stream to ventral
19 | stream areas. Overall, these data confirm earlier findings [and](#) provide additional support for
20 | the notion that fluctuations in band-limited neural activity reflect behaviorally relevant local
21 | and [inter-regional](#) neural processing. In addition, this work shows the utility of employing
22 | publicly available, task-based MEG data for exploratory and confirmatory purposes.

23 | **Acknowledgments**

24 | [The authors thank Gregory A. Miller for providing valuable discussion and comments on](#)
25 | [earlier versions of the manuscript](#). T.P. was supported by the German national funding
26 | agency Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (Ro805/17). O.J. was supported by the James S.
27 | McDonnell Foundation Understanding Human Cognition Collaborative Award Grant No.
28 | 220020448. J.-M.S. was supported by the Dutch Organization for Scientific Research (NWO
29 | VIDI: 864.14.011).

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