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Distinct oscillatory dynamics underlie different components of hierarchical cognitive control

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2 Distinct oscillatory dynamics underlie different components of hierarchical cognitive control

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Abstract

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37 Hierarchical cognitive control enables us to execute actions guided by abstract goals. Previous 38 research has suggested that neuronal oscillations at different frequency bands are associated 39 with top-down cognitive control, however, whether distinct neural oscillations have similar or different functions for cognitive control is not well understood. The aim of the current study was 40 41 to investigate the oscillatory neuronal mechanisms underlying two distinct components of 42 hierarchical cognitive control: the level of abstraction of a rule, and the number of rules that 43 must be maintained (set-size). We collected electroencephalography (EEG) data in 31 men and 44 women who performed a hierarchical cognitive control task that varied in levels of abstraction 45 and set-size. Results from time-frequency analysis in frontal electrodes showed an increase in 46 theta amplitude for increased set-size, whereas an increase in delta was associated with 47 increased abstraction. Both theta and delta amplitude correlated with behavioral performance in 48 the tasks but in an opposite manner: theta correlated with response time slowing when the 49 number of rules increased whereas delta correlated with response time when rules became 50 more abstract. Phase amplitude coupling analysis revealed that delta phase coupled with beta 51 amplitude during conditions with a higher level of abstraction, whereby beta band may potentially represent motor output that was guided by the delta phase. These results suggest 52 53 that distinct neural oscillatory mechanisms underlie different components of hierarchical 54 cognitive control.

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55 Significance Statement

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57 Cognitive control allows us to perform immediate actions while maintaining more abstract, 58 overarching goals in mind and to choose between competing actions. We found distinct 59 oscillatory signatures that correspond to two different components of hierarchical control: the level of abstraction of a rule and the number of rules in competition. An increase in the level of 60 abstraction was associated with delta oscillations, whereas theta oscillations were observed 61 when the number of rules increased. Oscillatory amplitude correlated with behavioral 62 63 performance in the task. Finally, the expression of beta amplitude was coordinated via the phase of delta oscillations, and theta phase coupled with gamma amplitude. These results 64 65 suggest that distinct neural oscillatory mechanisms underlie different components of hierarchical 66 cognitive control.

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67 Introduction

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69 Cognitive control orchestrates thoughts and actions according to internal goals (Norman and Shallice 1986, Braver 2012). The frontal cortex is central to cognitive control, where 70 71 representations of rules and goals provide top-down influences over motor and perceptual 72 systems to guide actions (Miller and Cohen 2001, Miller and D'Esposito 2005, Badre and Nee 73 2018, Vogelsang and D'Esposito 2018). Previous research findings suggest that the frontal 74 cortex is organized hierarchically along the rostral-caudal axis, where the caudal frontal cortex is 75 involved in the control of concrete action representations, whereas the rostral prefrontal cortex 76 is involved in the control of abstract rules, goals, and contexts (Badre and Nee 2018). We have 77 previously demonstrated that at any particular level of representation, an appropriate action can 78 be chosen from a number of competing rules (number of rules defined as set-size), and as 79 competition increases, cognitive control is required to adjudicate among alternatives (Badre and 80 D'Esposito 2007).

81 It is proposed that rhythmic neural oscillations support a diverse range of cognitive 82 functions, whereby oscillations in different frequency bands, ranging from slow delta oscillations 83 to faster gamma oscillations, are generated by distinct biophysical mechanisms and are 84 associated with different cognitive functions (for reviews see: (Sauseng, Griesmayr et al. 2010, 85 Roux and Uhlhaas 2014, Helfrich and Knight 2016, Sadaghiani and Kleinschmidt 2016, Helfrich, 86 Breska et al. 2019)). Phase amplitude coupling (PAC) between frequency bands, in which the 87 phase of a slow oscillation like theta can modulate the amplitude of faster oscillations like 88 gamma (Lisman and Jensen 2013, Nácher, Ledberg et al. 2013, Arnal, Doelling et al. 2014, Morillas-Romero, Tortella-Feliu et al. 2015, Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015, Heusser, Poeppel et al. 89 90 2016), further supports inter-areal communication and interactions between cognitive functions. 91 However, whether or not there are distinct neural oscillations associated with different 92 components of hierarchical cognitive control is unknown.

93 In our previous human electrocorticography (ECoG) study, we found that tasks that 94 required increased hierarchical cognitive control were associated with increased theta-band synchronization between the prefrontal and premotor/motor regions (Voytek, Kayser et al. 95 2015). Furthermore, the phase of prefrontal theta oscillations showed increased coupling with 96 97 the amplitude of gamma oscillations in the motor cortex (Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015). A series of 98 non-human primate experiments have also found that beta-band oscillations are associated with 99 rule representation in the frontal cortex, in which distinct neural populations represent different 100 rules, and become more synchronized in beta frequency when the rule is behaviorally relevant 101 (Buschman, Denovellis et al. 2012, Antzoulatos and Miller 2014, Antzoulatos and Miller 2016, 102 Wutz, Loonis et al. 2018). Furthermore, updating the active rule representation increases delta 103 oscillations in these same neural populations, preceded by a modulation in beta oscillations 104 (Antzoulatos and Miller 2016). Together, these findings suggest that theta-gamma and delta-105 beta band oscillations are associated with hierarchical cognitive control. However, in these 106 experiments, tasks that engaged more abstract rules also had higher set-size (higher number of 107 rules to select from), making it impossible to determine if the modulation of neural oscillations 108 and phase-amplitude coupling by these cognitive processes are driven by set size or 109 abstraction. In this study, our aim was to address this question.

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111 Materials and Methods

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113 Experimental Design and Statistical Analysis

Thirty-one healthy participants (18 females; mean age = 20 years; range 18-34) with normal or corrected to normal vision were recruited from the University of California, Berkeley. Written consent was obtained prior to the start of the experiment and participants received monetary compensation for their participation. The study was approved by the University of California, Berkeley Committee for Protection of Human Subjects. 119 The experiment consisted of a single session of EEG during performance of the 120 hierarchical cognitive control task. Behavioral performance, response time and accuracy, was 121 analyzed using two-way repeated-measures ANOVA with two factors: abstraction (high and low) 122 and set-size (high and low). Time frequency analysis was conducted using stimulus and 123 response-locked epochs for the abstraction and set-size contrast. The time frequency analysis 124 was restricted to a midfrontal electrode cluster that was defined using hierarchical clustering of 125 the time frequency data independent of the contrasts of interest. We corrected for multiple 126 comparisons and spurious findings using permutation testing with significance determined by 127 cluster mass across all seven electrode clusters for the abstraction and set-size contrast. Next, 128 the significant time frequency bands were correlated with response time as a function of 129 abstraction and set-size using Pearson correlation. Finally, phase amplitude coupling (PAC) 130 was computed between delta phase and beta amplitude and theta phase and gamma amplitude 131 for each task condition. PAC values were inputted to a two-way repeated-measures ANOVA 132 with two factors: abstraction and set-size.

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134 Experimental Task

135 The task used in this study was adapted from two previously published studies (Badre 136 and D'Esposito 2007, Badre and D'esposito 2009, Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015). We manipulated 137 two components of hierarchical cognitive control, abstraction and set-size (see Figure 1A). 138 During the response task (low abstraction conditions), participants learned the association 139 between a colored square and a button response. The response task had two levels of set-size: 140 a low set-size condition (in which four colored squares had to be associated with four 141 responses) and a high set-size condition (in which eight different colored squares had to be 142 associated with eight response options; Figure 1A). In the dimension task (high abstract 143 conditions), participants were presented with a colored square that contained two objects. The 144 color of the square indicated the dimension (shape or texture) by which the participant had to

145 evaluate the two objects. Importantly, the abstraction task contained two levels of set-size 146 similar to the response task: a low level of set-size and yet still higher in abstraction and a 147 higher level of set-size and also high in abstraction (see Figure 1A). In the high abstraction, low set-size condition, participants made a judgement along only one dimension (either shape or 148 149 texture) as both colored squares mapped to a single dimension (e.g. a purple square or a green 150 square signal that participants must judge whether the two objects have the same or different 151 shape). In the high abstraction, high set-size condition, two colored squares mapped to two 152 different dimensions (e.g. the color red indicates a perceptual judgement along the shape 153 dimension, the color blue indicates the texture dimension).

154 Our previous versions of the experiment (Badre and D'Esposito 2007, Voytek, Kayser et 155 al. 2015) did not match performance between the low and high abstraction tasks, as the highest 156 set-size condition of a low abstraction task showed worse performance than the lowest set-size 157 of a high abstraction task. By matching performance across levels of abstraction, we remove a 158 potential confound of task difficulty in isolating the processing of abstract rule representations 159 (Todd, Nystrom et al. 2013). To match performance between levels of abstraction, we ran 160 multiple pilot experiments, in which we increased the difficulty of the response task into a 161 comparable performance range as the dimensions task. In particular, we iteratively increased 162 the number of competing rules in the response task and shorted the response window from 163 three to two seconds to increase response time and reduce the accuracy of participants for the 164 response task. At the completion of this pilot testing, we selected two conditions to be defined 165 as low set-size based on performance levels: the response task with four responses and the 166 dimensions task with one dimension. For the high set-size conditions, we used the response 167 task with eight responses and the dimension task with two dimensions.

168 In the experiment, participants performed eight blocks, two of each of the four 169 conditions. Each block contained 48 trials; thus, each participant completed 96 trials per 170 experimental condition. Each trial was presented on the screen for two seconds and participants were instructed to provide their response within that time window. Each trial was separated by a fixation cross that varied exponentially in length from three to ten seconds. The experiment was programmed in Psychtoolbox implemented in MatLab 2015a (The MathWorks, Inc.). Prior to the start of the experimental task, participants were instructed to maintain their gaze on a fixation point and to remain still for five minutes with eyes open followed by five minutes eyes closed. This resting-state EEG data was not analyzed for the purpose of this paper.

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178 EEG Recording and Preprocessing

EEG data was recorded from 64 active electrodes using a BioSemi ActiveTwo amplifier with Ag-AgCl pin-type active electrodes mounted on an elastic cap according to the extended 10-20 system (BioSemi, Amsterdam, Netherlands). In addition, four electrodes were used to monitor horizontal and vertical eye movements and two electrodes recorded electrical activity from the mastoids. Signals were amplified and digitized at 1,024 Hz and stored for offline analysis. Participants were trained before the experiment to minimize eye movements, blinking, and muscle movement before the experiment.

186 The EEG data were analyzed with the software package EEGLab14 (Delorme and 187 Makeig, 2004) which utilized MatLab2015a (The MathWorks, Inc.). The continuous EEG data 188 were re-referenced to an average of the mastoid electrodes and filtered digitally with a 189 bandpass of 0.1-100Hz (two-way least-squares finite impulse response filter). The continuous 190 data were then divided into epochs ranging from -1000 milliseconds before stimulus onset until 191 2000 milliseconds post-stimulus onset. The epochs in the EEG data were visually inspected and 192 trials that contained excessive noise, such as muscle artifacts, were removed, resulting in an 193 average of 4.5% of trials that were removed across participants. Furthermore, electrode 194 channels with excessive noise were identified by visual inspection and reconstructed using the 195 average of neighboring electrodes. Eye-blinks and other EEG related artifacts were identified

and rejected using the extended info-max independent component analysis using the EEGLab
toolbox with default mode training parameters (Delorme and Makeig 2004).

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199 Electrode clustering

200 Electrode clusters were defined based on a data-driven hierarchical clustering approach 201 that grouped electrodes based on the similarity of the evoked oscillatory amplitude that ranged 202 from 2-30Hz (see for similar procedure (Clarke, Roberts et al. 2018). Time-frequency 203 decomposition was averaged across all trials, conditions, and participants. Data from each 204 electrode was vectorized such that it included all time points and frequencies. A distance metric 205 was calculated for each electrode based on the similarity in evoked spectral response. An 206 agglomerative hierarchical clustering algorithm was applied that grouped pairs of electrodes 207 with the most similar spectral response. The two most similar electrode pairs were averaged. 208 This process continued until all electrodes were paired under a single tree. A dendrogram of the 209 hierarchical clusters was created and only clusters that fit an a priori cluster scheme based on 210 Clarke et al. (2018) were included in the time-frequency analysis. Each electrode cluster was 211 defined to only included contiguous electrodes and we excluded electrode clusters with less 212 than three electrodes. This hierarchical clustering approach resulted in six electrode clusters 213 that were used in the main analysis (Figure 2). Results reported here for an electrode cluster is 214 the averaged spectral response of all electrodes within the cluster. Our previous evidence using this task in fMRI (Badre and D'Esposito 2007) and electrocorticography (Voytek, Kayser et al. 215 216 2015) found task-modulated activity related to cognitive control in lateral prefrontal cortex. 217 However, due to the problem of volume conduction and electric field properties in EEG, 218 activation of bilateral sites is commonly found in the midline (Sasaki, Tsujimoto et al. 1996, 219 Stropahl, Bauer et al. 2018, Riddle, Ahn et al. 2020). Therefore, we focused our analysis on the 220 frontal midline electrode cluster and capitalized on the temporal resolution afforded by EEG. We

hypothesized that the frontal midline electrode clusters (highlighted in Figure 2) would show the
 strongest effects of hierarchical cognitive control (see (Cavanagh and Frank 2014) for review).

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224 Time-frequency Analysis

225 Time-frequency analysis was applied using six cycle Morlet wavelet in the frequency 226 range of 2 to 50 Hz with steps of 1 Hz between each wavelet center. The Morlet wavelets were 227 applied to sliding time windows of 20 milliseconds increments in the entire epoch ranging from -228 1000 milliseconds to 2000 milliseconds with stimulus onset set as time 0. To minimize the 229 problem of edge artifacts, we concatenated mirrored (i.e. time inverted) segments before and 230 after the task epoch (Cohen 2014). Time-frequency analysis was performed on these extended 231 epochs and mirrored segments were discarded from the final analysis (see for similar procedure 232 (Fell and Axmacher 2011, Vogelsang, Gruber et al. 2018). Results reported here were not 233 baseline corrected since we were interested in differences across conditions and therefore 234 baseline correction is not necessary (see for similar approaches (Fell and Axmacher 2011, 235 Gruber, Watrous et al. 2013, Vogelsang, Gruber et al. 2018)). For each of the four experimental 236 conditions, only trials in which the participant made a correct response were included in the 237 analysis. Trial numbers used in the analysis were: low abstraction, low set-size mean(std) = 238 92.4(4.8), range 76 - 96; low abstraction, high set-size mean(std) = 88.1(8.0), range 56-96; high 239 abstraction, low set-size mean(std) = 91.8(6.8), range 68-96; high abstraction, high set-size 240 mean(std) = 87.1(7.4), range 68-96. Our main analysis was two contrasts, one for "abstraction" 241 (high versus low) and one for "set-size" (high versus low).

An across participant non-parametric statistical approach was applied to test for significant time-frequency differences between the contrasts of interest. We ran cluster-mass permutation testing in which the average t-value within a significant cluster (p < 0.05) is used to evaluate significance. The permutation testing procedure consisted of the following steps. First, we computed the cluster mass for each of the contrasts of interest (abstraction and set-size) for 247 each of the six electrode clusters. Second, the experimental conditions for the abstraction (or 248 set-size) contrast were randomly swapped for 50% of the participants such that any systematic 249 differences between the conditions were eliminated. We ran the contrast for this randomized 250 pairing and calculated the largest absolute cluster mass across all electrode clusters. This 251 randomization process was repeated 1000 times to create a null distribution of the largest 252 negative and positive cluster mass values. Using an alpha level of .05 with 1000 permutations, 253 we used the 25th and 975th values to represent the critical mass values, and values below or 254 higher than these values were considered to be significant effects. This stringent procedure 255 allowed us to control for multiple comparisons across the electrode clusters (Blair and Karniski 256 1993, Maris and Oostenveld 2007).

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258 Phase Amplitude Coupling Analysis

259 In addition to a time-frequency analysis, we also sought evidence for how different 260 frequency bands may interact with each other during hierarchical cognitive control. One possible 261 mechanism is phase amplitude coupling (PAC), which involves examining the relationship 262 between the phase of a lower frequency band (e.g. delta and theta) and the amplitude of a 263 higher frequency band (e.g. beta and gamma). To examine whether the phase of slow 264 oscillatory bands modulated the amplitude of faster frequency bands as a function of increased 265 rule abstraction and rule set-size, we computed PAC for the phase of slow frequency bands in 266 the range of 2-7 Hz, which includes delta and theta, with the amplitude of the higher frequency 267 spectrum ranging from 10-49 Hz separately for each task condition. We narrowed our analysis 268 to the coupled pairs motivated by our time-frequency analysis and a priori based on our 269 previous findings (Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015).

To compute PAC, we extracted the phase of the delta and theta frequency bands using a three cycle Morlet wavelet convolution and the amplitude of the higher frequencies using a five cycle Morlet wavelet convolution. We selected these parameters such that the half width full mass of the low and high frequencies were more closely matched (Cohen 2019). We calculated PAC using the phase and amplitude values from the significant time windows observed in the time-frequency contrast for delta band (200 to 1400 milliseconds) and theta band (600 to 1200 milliseconds). For each participant, the phase (θ) and amplitude (M) values of each trial were concatenated into a single continuous time series (n is the number of time points) and PAC was calculated according to **Formula 1**.

279 Formula 1.
$$PAC = \left| \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} M * e^{i\theta}}{n} \right|$$

280 We applied nonparametric permutation testing to determine whether the obtained PAC 281 values would be expected given the null hypothesis of no relationship between phase and 282 amplitude. The permutation procedure involved temporally shifting the amplitude values with a 283 random temporal offset of at least 10% the length of the time series and calculating PAC 284 (Cohen 2014). After 1000 repetitions, PAC is converted into a z-score from the null distribution, 285 resulting in PACz. We were interested in changes in PACz with increased abstraction and set-286 size. In order to reduce multiple comparisons, we used a priori coupled pairs for the 287 hypothesized coupled frequencies based on the time-frequency analysis and ran a two-way 288 repeated-measures ANOVA of within-participant factors: abstraction and set-size.

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290 Code and Data Availability

291 Custom code used for these analyses are available upon request to the corresponding 292 author. The authors assert that all requests for raw data within reason will be fulfilled by the 293 corresponding author.

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295 Results

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297 Behavioral Results

298 The task was designed to separately manipulate abstraction and set size during 299 hierarchical cognitive control. To test the effects of our behavioral manipulation, we performed 300 separate two-way repeated-measures ANOVA. We entered two independent variables: 301 abstraction (low, high) and set-size (low, high), and response time (RT) and accuracy as 302 dependent variables. For RT, the ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of abstraction (high 303 abstraction mean = 1132.0, sd = 105.3 milliseconds; low abstraction mean = 974.1, sd = 95.0 304 milliseconds; F(1,30) = 398, p < 0.0001, $\eta_{e}^{2} = 0.93$), a main effect of set-size (high set-size mean 305 = 1176.0, sd = 95.7 milliseconds; low set-size mean = 930.1, sd = 95.5 milliseconds; F(1,30) = 306 92.1, p < 0.0001, η_{ρ}^2 = 0.75), and an interaction (F(1,30) = 53.1, p < 0.0001, η_{ρ}^2 = 0.64) (Figure 307 1B). Participants were slower as a function of abstraction and set-size. For accuracy, the 308 ANOVA revealed a main effect of set-size (high set-size mean = 94.7%, sd = 5.0%; low set-size 309 mean = 97.7%, sd = 2.9%; F(1,30) = 10.2, p = 0.003, η_{z}^{2} = 0.25), but did not reveal a significant 310 main effect of abstraction (F(1,30) = 0.11, p = 0.75, η_{2}° = 0.0036) or interaction (Figure 1C). 311 Participants were less accurate for the conditions that required maintenance of a larger set-size, 312 but behavior was matched across levels of abstraction.

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314 Time-Frequency Results

315 We performed time-frequency analyses to determine how set-size and abstraction 316 modulates patterns of neural oscillations during hierarchical cognitive control. The time-317 frequency analyses focused on the spectral amplitude differences ranging from 2 to 50 Hz in the 318 entire epoch time window (-1000 to 2000 milliseconds relative to stimulus onset) for both the 319 abstraction and set-size contrast (high versus low abstraction and high versus low set size). For 320 the abstraction contrast (Figure 3A), across all electrode clusters, there was a significant 321 increase in the delta frequency band (2-3 Hz) from 100 to 2000 milliseconds post stimulus onset 322 and a significant decrease in the beta frequency band (peak at 12-22 Hz) from 500 to 1500 323 milliseconds post stimulus onset (peak at 500 to 1000 milliseconds) for all electrode clusters. In

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the topographic plots, it can be seen that in the abstraction contrast, delta amplitude showed the strongest increase in mid and right frontal electrode clusters (Figure 3B) whereas beta amplitude showed the strongest decrease in the mid frontal electrode cluster (Figure 3C). For the set-size contrast (Figure 3D), across all electrode clusters, there was a significant increase in amplitude in the theta frequency band (4-6 Hz) from 850 to 1700 milliseconds post stimulus onset. There was a significant decrease in amplitude in the beta frequency band (12-30 Hz) around 500 to 1500 milliseconds after stimulus onset in frontal midline electrode cluster, and 500 to 1800 milliseconds after stimulus onset in central and posterior electrode clusters. In the

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332 topographic plots, it can be seen that in the set-size contrast, theta amplitude showed the 333 strongest increase in the frontal midline electrode cluster and beta amplitude showed the 334 strongest decrease in the frontal midline and central midline electrode clusters. Altogether, two 335 different low frequency bands increased in amplitude in the midfrontal electrode cluster. Delta 336 amplitude increased for abstraction and theta amplitude increased for set-size. However, beta-337 band amplitude decreased for both higher abstraction and higher set size, but with a slightly 338 different spread in frequency within the beta-band. Peak beta amplitude modulation for the 339 abstraction contrast occupied a lower frequency range, from 12-18 Hz, compared to the wider 340 frequency range in peak beta amplitude modulation for the set-size contrast from 12-22 Hz.

341 In order to better understand the timecourse of amplitude modulations found for the 342 contrasts of interest, the time course for the amplitude of delta, theta and beta frequency bands 343 in the frontal midline cluster is plotted in Figure 4. Approximately 500 milliseconds after stimulus 344 onset, the high abstraction, high set-size condition showed the greatest delta amplitude 345 increase followed by high abstraction, low set-size and then both low abstraction conditions (Figure 4A). Approximately 1200 to 1800 milliseconds after stimulus onset, the two high set-size 346 347 conditions showed an increase in theta amplitude (Figure 4B). Thus, both delta and theta 348 frequency bands showed increased amplitude sustained throughout stimulus processing for 349 greater abstraction or set-size. Finally, there was a decrease in amplitude in the beta frequency

band for all four conditions for the first 600 milliseconds (Figure 4C). However, only the high abstraction, high set-size condition showed a significant and prolonged decrease in beta amplitude relative to the other three conditions from 600 to 1600 milliseconds after stimulus onset.

354 Since the stimulus-locked time-frequency effects persist after the probe for over a 355 second, it is possible that decreased beta amplitude was related to a systematic difference in 356 response time between conditions, and low-frequency activity in delta and theta band might only 357 be significantly elevated after a response is made reflecting post-response monitoring 358 processes. If decreased beta amplitude was indeed driven by motor-related processes, then it 359 would not be observed in a response-locked analysis. If low frequency activity reflects post-360 response monitoring processes, then it would only be observed after the response in a 361 response-locked analysis. We performed a response-locked time-frequency analysis on the 362 abstraction and set-size contrast in the midfrontal electrode cluster (Figure 5). For the 363 abstraction contrast (Figure 5A), there was a significant decrease in amplitude in the beta 364 frequency band (10-20 Hz) just prior to a response, whereas there was no change in beta band 365 amplitude for the set-size contrast (Figure 5B). Thus, the modulation of beta amplitude by set-366 size was most likely driven by a difference in response time, whereas the modulation of beta 367 amplitude as a function of task abstraction is more likely driven by stimulus processing. No 368 significant delta band amplitude was observed time-locked to the period just prior to the 369 response. For the set-size contrast (Figure 5B), there was a significant increase in amplitude in 370 the theta frequency band (3-8 Hz), starting at 1500 milliseconds prior to a response and 371 persisted after the response. Thus, the significant change in theta amplitude as a function of 372 set-size most likely does not only reflect post-response processes, but also related to pre-373 response stimulus processing.

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375 Relationship between neuronal oscillations and behavior

376 Next, we investigated whether the significant changes in spectral amplitude during different task conditions correlated with behavior. To test this, we extracted spectral amplitude 377 378 values from the significant time-frequency clusters for the abstraction (2-3 Hz delta and 18-22 379 Hz beta; Figure 3A) and set-size (4-6 Hz theta and 18-22 Hz beta; Figure 3B) contrasts from the 380 frontal midline electrode cluster, since this cluster showed the strongest peak in these contrasts 381 (Figure 3C-F). We correlated the change in beta and delta amplitude with the change in RT as a 382 function of abstraction. RT was analyzed since accuracy was at ceiling for many participants. 383 For the abstraction contrast, task differences in beta band amplitude was significantly negatively 384 correlated with RT (r(30) = -0.59, p = 0.001) and task differences in delta band amplitude was 385 significantly positively correlated with RT (r(30) = 0.45, p = 0.012; Figure 6A). For the set-size 386 contrast, we correlated the change in beta and theta amplitude with the change in RT as a 387 function of task set-size. We found that the increase in theta band amplitude was significantly 388 positively correlated with RT (r(30) = 0.36, p = 0.047), whereas there was no significant 389 relationship between beta band amplitude and behavior (r(30) = -0.24, p = 0.20; Figure 6B). Our 390 time frequency results (Figure 3) found that peak beta amplitude decreased from 12-18 Hz by 391 abstraction and decreased from 12-22Hz by set-size. Therefore, we examined whether the 392 observed behavioral correlation was consistent for the high (18-22Hz) and low (12-18Hz) beta 393 bands. Just as with the high beta band, amplitude in the low beta band significantly negatively 394 correlated with abstraction (r(30) = -0.47, p = 0.008) but did not show a significant relationship 395 with set-size (r(30) = -0.15, p = 0.41). Thus, we do not find evidence that low and high beta 396 serve different functional roles. Altogether, increased delta and decreased beta amplitude 397 correlated with increased response time as a function of rule abstraction, and increased theta 398 amplitude correlated with increased response time as a function of task set-size.

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400 Phase Amplitude Coupling Results

401 Our results thus far provide evidence that delta and beta oscillations may reflect the 402 cognitive processes related to increased abstraction, whereas theta may reflect the cognitive processes related to increased set-size. To further probe the interactions between these 403 404 oscillations in different frequency bands, we conducted a phase amplitude coupling (PAC) analysis. We investigated the coupling strength of the phase of the slower frequency bands, 405 406 delta and theta, with the amplitude of the higher frequency bands, beta and gamma. The 407 comodulograms for each condition were calculated for the phase of low frequencies (2-7 Hz) to 408 the amplitude of high frequencies (10-49 Hz) (Figure 7). Since both delta and beta amplitude 409 were modulated as a function of the abstraction of the task condition, we focused our statistical 410 analysis on the coupling between delta phase (2-3 Hz) coupled to beta amplitude (18-22 Hz). 411 Given that we found theta-gamma PAC in our previous electrocorticography study with a similar 412 task (Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015), we also analyzed coupling of the phase of the theta frequency 413 band (4-6 Hz) with the amplitude of the gamma frequency band (40-49 Hz). We found a 414 significant increase in delta-beta PAC with increased abstraction (F(1,30) = 7.62, p = 0.00976, η_{ρ}^{2} = 0.203; Figure 7A,B), but not set-size (F(1,30) = 2.63, p = 0.115, η_{ρ}^{2} = 0.0807), and there 415 was no interaction (F(1,30) = 2.79, p = 0.105, η_{ρ}^2 = 0.0852). For theta-gamma PAC, we found a 416 417 significant increase in PAC for the low abstraction conditions relative to the high abstraction conditions (F(1,30) = 4.56, p = 0.0409, η_p^2 = 0.132; Figure 7C,D), but no effect of theta-gamma 418 PAC for set-size (F(1,30) = 1.16, p = 0.290, η^2_p = 0.0372), and no interaction (F(1,30) = 0.591, p 419 420 = 0.448 η_{ρ}^2 = 0.0193). During the high abstraction, high set-size condition, we found a significant increase in delta-beta PAC (t(30) = 2.377, p = 0.012, d = 0.427), one-tailed; Figure 421 422 7B) and beta amplitude was strongest at the trough and rise of delta phase (Figure 8A). During 423 the low abstraction, high set-size condition, we found a moderate increase in theta-gamma PAC 424 (t(30) = 1.665, p = 0.053, d = 0.299, one-tailed; Figure 7D) and gamma amplitude was strongest at the rise of theta phase (Figure 8B). Therefore, delta-beta coupling may be how low frequency 425

426 oscillations modulate high frequency oscillations to execute abstract rules, whereas theta-427 gamma coupling may be relevant for maintaining task rules with higher set size.

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429 Discussion

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431 In this experiment, we investigated the oscillatory neural dynamics associated with two 432 dissociable components of hierarchical cognitive control: rule abstraction and set-size. Previous 433 studies found that various frequency bands from low frequency delta to high frequency gamma 434 are associated with cognitive control (Helfrich and Knight 2016), but the specific contribution of 435 each of these bands to different control processes remains underspecified. We found that the 436 abstraction and set-size of task rules are each associated with distinct oscillatory mechanisms. 437 Specifically, when the abstractness of the rule increased, delta amplitude increased and beta 438 amplitude decreased; whereas when the number of rules (set-size) increased, theta amplitude 439 increased and beta amplitude decreased. These task-dependent changes in oscillatory 440 amplitude correlated with behavioral performance. When the abstraction of the rule increased, 441 slower response times correlated with increased delta amplitude and decreased beta amplitude. 442 When the set-size increased, slower response times correlated with increased theta amplitude. 443 Prior to the motor response, increased abstraction decreased beta amplitude, and increased set-size increased theta amplitude. Finally, coupling between the phase of delta oscillations and 444 445 the amplitude of beta oscillations strengthened as a function of task abstraction.

446 Cognitive control is organized hierarchically such that superordinate abstract 447 representations influence subordinate, concrete action representations. In our previous study 448 using electrocorticography with a similar version of the task (Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015), we 449 found that tasks that engaged more abstract task rules increased theta synchrony between the 450 prefrontal cortex (PFC) and premotor cortex. Furthermore, we found theta phase in the PFC 451 coupled with gamma amplitude in premotor regions, suggesting that the PFC communicates 452 with the motor cortex for hierarchical control via theta-gamma phase amplitude coupling 453 (Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015). However, one important limitation of this previous study is that 454 tasks that required more abstract rules also had increased set-size; therefore, we could not 455 discern whether changes in oscillatory activities were driven by differences in abstraction or set-456 size. An important feature of our current experiment was to separately manipulate the 457 abstraction of the rule and the number of competing rules (set-size). We further matched the 458 performance (accuracy) between high and low abstraction. Therefore, we were able to 459 dissociate these two components of hierarchical cognitive control.

460 Our findings suggest a relationship between theta oscillations and set-size, and this 461 finding is consistent with previous studies that reported theta oscillations scale with working 462 memory load (Jensen and Tesche 2002, Meltzer, Negishi et al. 2007, So, Wong et al. 2017, 463 Berger, Griesmayr et al. 2019). Other studies have also found that theta oscillations (presumably from frontal cortex) increase during tasks that required cognitive control (Cohen 464 465 2011, Hsieh, Ekstrom et al. 2011, Kikumoto and Mayr 2018). Theta-gamma coupling has been 466 suggested as a mechanism by which multiple representations are organized for working 467 memory (Bahramisharif, Jensen et al. 2018) and long-term memory (Heusser, Poeppel et al. 468 2016). Therefore, the increased theta-gamma PAC for higher set-size in our task could reflect 469 the maintenance or retrieval of an increased number of rules. It should be noted that in our 470 previous study using electrocorticography, we found increased theta phase to high gamma 471 amplitude coupling for the high abstraction, high set-size condition (Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015). 472 While we were unable to measure theta to high gamma coupling due to the limitations of EEG, 473 we did find increased theta amplitude for this condition consistent with these findings. 474 Furthermore, this previous study did not separately manipulate abstraction and set-size, which 475 we investigated in the current study (see Methods).

476 We observed that beta amplitude decreased after stimulus onset as a function of 477 increased abstraction and increased set-size. For the response-locked analysis, beta 478 oscillations decreased only as a function of increased abstraction, but not increased set-size. 479 Many studies have found that beta oscillations decrease when the motor system executes an 480 action (Little and Brown 2012). While we also observed that beta band amplitude decreased 481 before the button press, higher abstraction conditions showed a greater beta amplitude 482 decrease when compared to lower abstraction conditions. We also found decreased beta 483 amplitude as a function of abstraction in the stimulus-locked analysis. Together, these 484 abstraction dependent results indicate a role for beta oscillations beyond motor preparation. We 485 propose that beta oscillations may reflect top-down inhibitory signals for guiding action that are 486 most robustly disengaged when guided by hierarchical goal representations.

487 Our findings of increased delta and decreased beta oscillations with increased 488 abstraction are consistent with a previous study that examined performance of a delayed-489 match-to-sample task in which monkeys had to evaluate an object according to two different 490 categorical judgements: left versus right or up versus down (Antzoulatos and Miller 2016). This 491 study reported that distinct neural populations carry information for each of these two 492 categories: vertically selective populations and horizontally selective populations. For the cued 493 category, beta coherence increased between the neural populations that coded for the relevant 494 category. This pattern of activity led the authors to conclude that beta oscillations were encoding 495 rule categories. Our task also required the maintenance of abstract rules and similarly found an 496 abstraction-related modulation of beta amplitude in prefrontal cortex. Furthermore, when there 497 was a shift in the boundary between what was defined as "up" and "down," there was an 498 increase in delta synchrony between prefrontal and parietal cortex. This suggests that updates 499 to abstract categorical rules modulates delta oscillations. In our experiment, for the high 500 abstraction, high set-size condition, participants had to evaluate the similarity of two different 501 objects based on different stimuli attributes (e.g., judge the similarity in texture or shape), and 502 the relevant attribute that participants should focus on was instructed by a supraordinate task 503 rule cued by the color of the square surrounding the stimuli. Based on the findings from

504 Antzoulatos & Miller 2016, the increase in delta oscillations in our study may reflect an update to 505 the relevant supraordinate rule, and the change in beta oscillations may reflect rule selection.

Participants with the greatest increase in response time when responding to the increased abstraction conditions showed the greatest increase in delta amplitude and decrease in beta amplitude. Similarly, participants with the greatest increase in response time when responding to the increased set-size conditions showed the greatest increase in theta amplitude. These findings emphasize the behavioral relevance of these low frequency neuronal oscillations and provide further support for a role of delta oscillations in processing task abstraction and theta oscillations in processing increased set-size.

513 The interplay between slow and fast neuronal oscillations has been investigated as a 514 mechanism for cognitive control (Sauseng, Klimesch et al. 2009, Sauseng, Griesmayr et al. 515 2010, Roux, Wibral et al. 2012, Voytek, Kayser et al. 2015) as long-range, low frequency 516 cognitive control signals from prefrontal cortex couple to more local high frequency oscillations 517 (Canolty and Knight 2010, Sauseng, Griesmayr et al. 2010). Our PAC analysis revealed that 518 delta phase coupled with beta amplitude when task conditions became more abstract. 519 Specifically, delta-beta coupling increased in the high abstraction, high set-size condition in 520 which participants decide between two task rules (e.g., focus on texture or shape). We observed 521 that beta amplitude decreased around the peak of the delta phase (see Figure 8A). This finding 522 is similar to Helfrich et al. (2017) in which alpha-beta amplitude was lowest at peak delta-phase 523 in prefrontal cortex during a perceptual judgement (Helfrich, Huang et al. 2017). Wyart et al. 524 (2012) also reported that the distribution of beta oscillations in motor cortex was updated every 525 cycle of a prefrontal delta signal, and the amplitude of beta was inversely related to the 526 probability of action of the underlying motor cortex (Wyart, de Gardelle et al. 2012). Consistent 527 with Wyart et al. 2012, our PAC finding suggests that delta phase in frontal regions may guide 528 action selection via modulating beta-band amplitude when cognitive tasks are hierarchically

529 organized, and participants have to rely on supraordinate, abstract rules to guide concrete 530 actions.

531 Taken together, low frequency oscillations in the theta and delta frequency band may reflect different components of hierarchical cognitive control that couple to different high 532 533 frequency oscillations. Gamma oscillations play a primary role in carrying feedforward sensory 534 processing signals (Börgers and Kopell 2008, Michalareas, Vezoli et al. 2016). Theta 535 oscillations in prefrontal cortex couple with gamma oscillations to support the organization of 536 perceptual information during memory encoding and retrieval (Osipova, Takashima et al. 2006, 537 Hsieh and Ranganath 2014). When multiple items must be held in mind, theta-gamma coupling 538 is increased (Alekseichuk, Turi et al. 2016, Tamura, Spellman et al. 2017, Bahramisharif, 539 Jensen et al. 2018). Our findings suggest that increasing the set-size of a task may recruit a 540 similar neural mechanism. Beta oscillations play a role in sensory feedback (Bastos, Vezoli et 541 al. 2015, Michalareas, Vezoli et al. 2016) and motor control (Zhang, Chen et al. 2008, Picazio, 542 Veniero et al. 2014). Therefore, delta to beta coupling may be a mechanism by which low 543 frequency oscillations in prefrontal cortex guide future action according to abstract goals. 544 Theoretical models on the role of gamma and beta oscillations in bottom-up and top-down 545 attention (Fries 2015, Riddle, Hwang et al. 2019) may be extended to include theta and delta 546 oscillations that show task-related modulations in the frontal cortex.

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702	
703	Figure 1. Hierarchical cognitive control task
704	(A) The hierarchical cognitive control task used a two by two design with four conditions. On the
705	X-axis, the set-size increases within a fixed level of abstraction. On the Y-axis, the level of

707 S.E.M.

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Figure 2. Electrode clusters used for EEG analysis

Hierarchical clustering of the time-frequency data for each electrode revealed six distinct
electrode clusters. The analysis focused on the frontal midline electrode cluster
(outlined). The other electrode clusters were used for cluster-mass permutation testing in
time-frequency analysis.

714

Figure 3. Time-frequency analysis of hierarchical cognitive control along two dimensions: abstraction and set-size

717 In the frontal-midline electrode cluster, there was a significant increase in delta and 718 decrease in beta amplitude as a function of task abstraction (A). The dark outline 719 highlights time-frequency clusters that were found to be significant at p < 0.05 and 720 survived correction for multiple comparisons. Delta amplitude increase was localized to 721 the frontal-midline and right frontal (B). Beta amplitude decrease was localized to the 722 frontal- and central-midline (C). In the frontal-midline electrode cluster, there was a 723 significant increase in theta amplitude and decrease in beta amplitude as a function of 724 task set-size. The increase in theta amplitude was localized to the frontal-midline 725 electrodes (E). The decrease in beta amplitude was localized to frontal-midline 726 electrodes (F).

727

728 Figure 4. Time course of task-evoked oscillatory amplitude

At time 0, the stimulus for the task is presented. (A) Delta amplitude showed the greatest increase in the two high abstraction conditions (red and orange). (B) Theta amplitude showed the greatest in the response task (dark blue and light blue) in the first 0.5 abstraction, high set-size condition (red). Error bars are S.E.M.

735

736 Figure 5. Response-locked time frequency analysis

The response-locked time frequency analysis for the abstraction (A) and set-size (B) contrast in the midfrontal electrode cluster found a significant decrease in low beta amplitude prior to response for abstraction and increase in theta amplitude prior to and after response for set-size. The line at time 0 is the time that the participant made a response. The dark outline highlights time-frequency clusters that were found to be significant at p < 0.05 with a cluster correction of k = 100.

743

744 Figure 6. Behavior to brain correlations

Correlation analysis for response time to spectral density for the significant clusters in
abstraction (A) and set-size (B). Error bars are 95% confidence intervals. * p < 0.05, ** p
< 0.005, n.s. = not significant.

748

749 Figure 7. Comodulograms of phase amplitude coupling for each task condition

For the high abstraction conditions, there was increased coupling between delta phase (2-3 Hz) and beta amplitude (18-22 Hz) in the high-set (B), but not low set-size condition (A). For the low abstraction conditions, there was increased coupling between theta phase (4-6 Hz) and gamma amplitude (40-49 Hz) in the low and high set-size conditions (C, D).

755

756 Figure 8. Distribution of beta and gamma amplitude across delta and theta phase

Rose plots of delta phase coupled to beta amplitude (A) for the high abstraction, high set-size condition and theta phase coupled to gamma amplitude (B) for the low abstraction, high set-size condition. Amplitude values (z) were binned into 30 phase angles, averaged, and z-scored across phase bins. Error bars are within-participant SEM. Legends depict the peak and trough values in radians.





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