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Response control networks are selectively modulated by attention to rare events and memory load regardless of the need for inhibition

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ABSTRACT

Recent evidence has sparked debate about the neural bases of response selection and inhibition. In the current study, we employed two reactive inhibition tasks, the Go/Nogo (GnG) and Simon tasks, to examine questions 22 central to these debates. First, we investigated whether a fronto-cortical-striatal system was sensitive to the 23 need for inhibition per se or the presentation of infrequent stimuli, by manipulating the proportion of trials 24 that do not require inhibition (Go/Compatible trials) relative to trials that require inhibition (Nogo/Incompatible 25 trials). A cortico-subcortical network composed of insula, putamen, and thalamus showed greater activation on 26 salient and infrequent events, regardless of the need for inhibition. Thus, consistent with recent findings, key 27 parts of the fronto-cortical-striatal system are engaged by salient events and do not appear to play a selective 28 role in response inhibition. Second, we examined how the fronto-cortical-striatal system is modulated by work- 29 ing memory demands by varying the number of stimulus-response (SR) mappings. Right inferior parietal lobule 30 showed decreasing activation as the number of SR mappings increased, suggesting that a form of associative 31 memory – rather than working memory – might underlie performance in these tasks. A broad motor planning 32 and control network showed similar trends that were also modulated by the number of motor responses re- 33 quired in each task. Finally, bilateral lingual gyri were more robustly engaged in the Simon task, consistent 34 with the role of this area in shifts of visuo-spatial attention. The current study sheds light on how the fronto- 35 cortical-striatal network is selectively engaged in reactive control tasks and how control is modulated by 36 manipulations of attention and memory load. 37

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43 Introduction

Inhibitory control is a pervasive cognitive process. It is needed in the 44 context of immediate threats such as stopping entry into the street in 4546the face of an on-coming car, as well as to suppress urges so that we actively choose a more desirable response option over an alternative 47 prepotent response. Not surprisingly, inhibitory control changes 48 49 dramatically over development with robust individual differences in adulthood, and has been implicated in multiple forms of psychopathol-50ogy including attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (Aron, 2011; 5152Bhaijiwala et al., 2014) and obsessive-compulsive disorder (Tolin 53et al., 2014).

54 A central challenge to studying inhibitory control is that it comes in 55 many flavors. A recent review by Aron provides a useful taxonomy,

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2015.07.026 1053-8119/© 2015 Published by Elsevier Inc. classifying inhibitory control along two key dimensions (Aron, 2011). 56 The first dimension contrasts global control and selective control. In 57 global inhibitory control tasks (Aron and Verbruggen, 2008), global 58 inhibition of the motor system is required whenever a specific stimulus 59 is presented, while in selective control tasks, the specifics of the 60 stimulus determine the control needed to slow down the system to 61 give enough time for one particular set of response tendencies to win 62 out over another when conflict is detected (for detailed review, see 63 Aron (2011). 64

The second dimension in Aron's taxonomy contrasts reactive and 65 proactive control (Aron, 2011). In the former case, participants must 66 inhibit a behavior in reaction to a specific stimulus *after* a response 67 has been prepared. This type of control is often studied in a stop- 68 signal paradigm where participants are instructed to stop a previously 69 prepared response when a stop-signal is presented. Proactive control, 70 by contrast, occurs where there is some advance control process that 71 modulates behavior *before* the presentation of a response cue. Proactive 72 control often implicates attentional or working memory processes that 73

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modulate control in task-appropriate ways. For instance, actively
maintaining information in working memory (WM) can have inhibitory
consequences, suppressing the influence of potentially distracting
information.

Given the challenges of teasing apart different aspects of inhibitory 78 control at the behavioral level, many studies have examined inhibitory 79 control at the neural level. Data from both neurophysiology and fMRI 80 have revealed a fronto-cortical-basal ganglia network critically involved 81 82 in reactive control. This network includes the inferior frontal cortex 83 (IFC), the pre-supplementary motor area (preSMA), the basal ganglia, 84 and aspects of the motor system including thalamus and motor cortex (Aron et al., 2014a,b; Braver et al., 2001; Garavan et al., 2002, 2003; 85 McNab et al., 2008; Menon et al., 2001; Mostofsky et al., 2003; Rae 86 87 et al., 2015; Rubia et al., 2003; Simmonds et al., 2008). This same network may play a key role in 'braking' in proactive control tasks 88 (Aron, 2011), but proactive control likely also involves other WM 89 systems including the dorso-lateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) (Barber 90 91 et al., 2013; Hester et al., 2004; McNab et al., 2008).

In the present report, we focus on a recent controversy regarding the 92neural systems that underlie reactive inhibitory control. A large body of 93 evidence suggests that a fronto-cortical-striatal network is actively in-94 volved in inhibitory control, with a specific part of this network - rIFC 95 96 and preSMA (Rae et al., 2015) – playing a breaking function in reactive 97 tasks. But a recent paper suggests that this fronto-striatal network is also engaged in attentionally-demanding conditions that do not have 98 obvious inhibitory requirements (Erika-Florence et al., 2014). For in-99 stance, these researchers found increased activation in the rIFC network 100 101 in response to infrequent cues across four task variants, even in tasks with no inhibitory demands. These data are consistent with prior stud-102ies that also suggested an attentional/WM role for the fronto-striatal 103 network (Erika-Florence et al., 2014; Hampshire, 2015; Hampshire 104 105et al., 2010; McNab et al., 2008). More recently, Swick and Chatham have pointed out that tasks need to be designed such that they contain 106conditions matched for saliency and attentional demands amongst 107other elements (Swick and Chatham, 2014). Thus, at the heart of this 108 controversy is whether there is a right-lateralized network for inhibito-109ry control or a network involved in a broader class of control operations, 110 111 including attention to rare events and the modulation of processing via task goals in working memory. 112

Here, we examine this controversy using two different reactive control tasks – one task that requires global reactive control – the GnG task – and one that requires selective reactive control – the Simon task. By studying tasks along the global-to-selective control dimension,¹ we hope to tap a range of tasks relevant to daily life that may have broad implications for populations with deficits in inhibitory control.

We examined two central questions about how the role of fronto-119120cortical-striatal system may differ during selective versus global reactive control. First, is the fronto-cortical-striatal system sensitive to 121 the need for inhibition per se or the need for control on rare, 122attentionally-demanding trials? To address this question, we varied 123the response frequency of trials that do not require motoric inhibition 124125(Go trials). In a frequent condition, participants completed a block of 126GnG trials with many Go trials and few Nogo trials. We contrasted performance in this condition with a block of trials with frequent 127Nogo trials and few Go trials. If fronto-cortical-striatal networks are sen-128sitive to the inhibitory demands of the task, we expected to see greater 129130activation on trials that require inhibition than during trials that do not require inhibition. By contrast, if fronto-cortical-striatal networks are 131 sensitive to the need for control during rare, attentionally-demanding 132 events, we expected to see greater activation during infrequent trials, 133 regardless of whether these trials occurred during a frequent Go block 134

or a frequent Nogo block. An important question is whether such effects 135 generalize across tasks. Thus, the same participants completed a Simon 136 task where the frequencies of Compatible and Incompatible trials were 137 manipulated across blocks in an analogous fashion. 138

The second question we examined was whether activation of the 139 fronto-cortical-striatal system is modulated by the need for inhibition 140 per se or by the WM demands of the task. To examine this issue, we var- 141 ied the memory load, while holding attentional demands constant 142 (i.e., equal numbers of Go/Compatible and Nogo/Incompatible trials). 143 In particular, we changed the number of stimulus-response (SR) 144 mappings that participants had to maintain in both the GnG and 145 Simon tasks. Previous studies have demonstrated that WM mainte- 146 nance has a particular neural signature – activation increases as the 147 WM load increases (Pessoa et al., 2002; Pessoa and Ungerleider, 2004; 148 Todd and Marois, 2004). Thus, if WM is critically involved in these 149 tasks, we would expect to see an increase in activation as the load in- 150 creases within WM-specific regions of the fronto-cortical-striatal net- 151 work. Data from several studies are consistent with this hypothesis. 152 For instance, an increase in activation was observed within middle 153 frontal gyrus, left middle temporal gyrus, thalamus, and rostral and 154 dorsal ACC/preSMA as the memory load was increased in a GnG task 155 (Hester et al., 2004). 156

Materials and methods	157

Participants

Twenty right-handed native English-speaking participants (age159range 25±4 years; 9 women) took part in the experiment. All of them160were students at the University of Iowa. All participants had normal or161corrected vision. All participants signed an informed consent form approved by the Ethics Committee at the University of Iowa.163

Procedure

The experimental paradigms were created using E-prime version 2.0 165 and were run on an HP computer (Windows 7). Participants were 166 instructed that they would be given a set of response mappings that 167 would be indicated before the start of each block. There were no 168 practice trials, but participants were shown the sequence of events for 169 a couple of trials to make sure they knew what they were going to do 170 in the scanner. 171

In the GnG task, observers were asked to press a button when they 172 saw a Go stimulus and withhold their response when they saw a Nogo 173 stimulus (see Fig. 1B). In the Simon task, participants were asked to 174 press the left button for one set of colors and the right button for a sec-175 ond set of colors (see Fig. 1C). On half the trials, stimuli were presented 176 in the compatible hemifield (i.e., the color associated with a left button 177 press was presented in the left hemifield), while on the other half of 178 trials, stimuli were presented in the incompatible hemifield (i.e., the 179 color associated with a left button press was presented in the right 180 hemifield).

Stimuli were all the same shape and varied in color. The colors were 182 equally distributed in CIELAB 1976 color space, a perceptually uniform 183 color space and color-appearance model developed by the Commission 184 Internationale de l'E clairage. The shape was chosen from Drucker and 185 Aguirre (Drucker and Aguirre, 2009). Colors used for the GnG task 186 were separated by 30 degrees in color space from those colors used in 187 the Simon task (see Fig. 1A). Within a task, the colors associated with 188 specific responses (i.e., Go color and Nogo color) were chosen by 189 going around the color wheel in a clockwise direction. The chosen colors 190 were separated by 60 degrees in color space such that directly adjacent 191 colors were associated with different response types. This prevents participants from adopting any sort of color category response strategy. 193 Participants indicated the response for each trial using left and right 194

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¹ Note that although the GnG and Simon tasks differ along this key dimension, these tasks can be conceptualized in other ways as well. For instance, the Simon task is often discussed as a 'resistance to interference' task. Critically, these different conceptualizations are not mutually exclusive.

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