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# Spatial and temporal relationships of electrocorticographic alpha and gamma activity during auditory processing

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### ABSTRACT

Neuroimaging approaches have implicated multiple brain sites in musical perception, including the posterior 22 part of the superior temporal gyrus and adjacent perisylvian areas. However, the detailed spatial and temporal 23 relationship of neural signals that support auditory processing is largely unknown. In this study, we applied a 24 novel inter-subject analysis approach to electrophysiological signals recorded from the surface of the brain (elec- 25 trocorticography (ECoG)) in ten human subjects. This approach allowed us to reliably identify those ECoG fea- 26 tures that were related to the processing of a complex auditory stimulus (i.e., continuous piece of music) and 27 to investigate their spatial, temporal, and causal relationships. Our results identified stimulus-related modula-28 tions in the alpha (8-12 Hz) and high gamma (70-110 Hz) bands at neuroanatomical locations implicated in au-29 ditory processing. Specifically, we identified stimulus-related ECoG modulations in the alpha band in areas 30 adjacent to primary auditory cortex, which are known to receive afferent auditory projections from the thalamus 31 (80 of a total of 15,107 tested sites). In contrast, we identified stimulus-related ECoG modulations in the high 32 gamma band not only in areas close to primary auditory cortex but also in other perisylvian areas known to be 33 involved in higher-order auditory processing, and in superior premotor cortex (412/15,107 sites). Across all im- 34 plicated areas, modulations in the high gamma band preceded those in the alpha band by 280 ms, and activity in 35 the high gamma band causally predicted alpha activity, but not vice versa (Granger causality,  $p < 1e^{-8}$ ). Addition-36 ally, detailed analyses using Granger causality identified causal relationships of high gamma activity between dis- 37 tinct locations in early auditory pathways within superior temporal gyrus (STG) and posterior STG, between 38 posterior STG and inferior frontal cortex, and between STG and premotor cortex. Evidence suggests that these re- 39 lationships reflect direct cortico-cortical connections rather than common driving input from subcortical struc- 40 tures such as the thalamus. In summary, our inter-subject analyses defined the spatial and temporal 41 relationships between music-related brain activity in the alpha and high gamma bands. They provide experimen- 42 tal evidence supporting current theories about the putative mechanisms of alpha and gamma activity, i.e., reflec-43 tions of thalamo-cortical interactions and local cortical neural activity, respectively, and the results are also in 44 agreement with existing functional models of auditory processing. 45

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### 46

- **49**
- 51 Introduction

52 Music is a perceptual experience that engages many cognitive pro-53 cesses within different regions of the brain (Stewart et al., 2006). Over 54 the past few decades, numerous studies using hemodynamic and

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2014.04.045 1053-8119/© 2014 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. electrophysiological imaging techniques (fMRI/PET and EEG/MEG, re- 55 spectively) have attempted to uncover the neural underpinnings of 56 music processing. For instance, a recent fMRI study by Alluri et al., 57 2012 investigated the BOLD responses related to the processing of tim- 58 bre, rhythm, and tone while subjects listened to music. Other neuroim- 59 aging studies investigated the relationship between sound intensity and 60 brain activity in auditory cortex (Brechmann et al., 2002; Hart et al., 61 2003; Mulert et al., 2005; Tanji et al., 2010; Thaerig et al., 2008; Yetkin 62 et al., 2004), and EEG studies determined relationships between rhythm 63 and pitch and EEG components during listening and imagination of mel-64 odies (Schaefer et al., 2009). 65

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Table 1

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66 These and other studies have made important progress in identify-67 ing those brain regions whose activity changes with the perception of different individual musical features (e.g., sound intensity, rhythm, 68 69 pitch), but most of them have been constrained to highly controlled experiments using artificial stimuli (e.g., presenting tones at different in-70 tensities or pitches). This is unfortunate, because cortical processing of 71 72artificial stimuli may differ in important ways from the processing of 73complex natural stimuli (such as music), and because evidence suggests 74that the brain employs general principles that govern the processing of 75complex natural stimuli (Hasson et al., 2004, 2010). In addition to ex-76perimental constraints, methodological limitations have not allowed to simultaneously evaluate the temporal and spatial dynamics related 77 to music processing. For instance, fMRI and PET measure brain metabol-78 79 ic activity with excellent spatial but reduced temporal resolution (several seconds). Thus, they cannot track the rapid moment-to-moment 80 variations related to processing of continuous music. Conversely, EEG 81 and MEG measure brain electrical activity with excellent temporal res-82 olution but poor spatial resolution (several centimeters) and cannot re-83 liably ascribe activity changes to particular brain areas. 84

Electrocorticographic (ECoG) recordings from the surface of the 85 brain have recently been used to study the neural dynamics during pro-86 cessing of complex sounds, in particular speech (Edwards et al., 2009; 87 88 Lachaux et al., 2007; Pasley et al., 2012; Sinai et al., 2009). This relatively 89 new imaging technique combines high temporal resolution with high spatial resolution and coverage. It can also detect different neurophysi-90 ological processes that subserve sensory, motor/language, or cognitive 91functions (Crone et al., 1998; Hermes et al., 2011). These processes in-9293 clude ECoG modulations in the alpha (8-12 Hz) and high gamma 94(70-110 Hz) frequency bands. Activity in the alpha band seems to re-95flect interactions between the thalamus and the cortex (Lopes Da 96 Silva, 1991; Steriade et al., 1990; Zhang et al., 2004), and may facilitate 97 information transfer to task-related cortical areas by inhibiting neural 98 activity in task-unrelated areas (Jensen and Mazaheri, 2010). On the other hand, activity in the high gamma band seems to reflect task-99 related activity of neural populations directly underneath the electrodes 100 (Crone et al., 1998, 2001; Miller et al., 2007, 2009; Schalk et al., 2007). 101

102 Despite this body of work, the most salient spatial and temporal re-103 lationships of these neural processes during processing of a complex natural auditory stimulus remain undefined. To address this issue, we 104 recorded electrical activity from electrodes implanted on the brain's 105surface of ten human subjects while they were listening to music. We 106 107 used these data to define the cortical locations that modulate their alpha or gamma activity during auditory processing and to define 108 their temporal and causal relationships. Our results implicate 109 perisylvian structures as well as superior premotor cortex, and establish 110 the differing spatial and temporal contributions of alpha and gamma 111 112 activity.

#### Materials and methods 113

#### Subjects and data collection 114

We recorded electrical activity from intracranial electrodes of ten 115subjects (4 men, 6 women) with intractable epilepsy who were listen-116ing to a complex natural auditory stimulus (the song "Another Brick in 117the Wall – Part 1" (Pink Floyd, Columbia Records, 1979)). These sub-118 119 jects underwent temporary implantation of subdural electrode arrays to localize the epileptogenic focus and to delineate it from eloquent 120(i.e., functional) cortical areas prior to brain resection. Table 1 summa-121 rizes the subjects' clinical profiles. All of the subjects gave informed con-122sent to participate in the study, which was approved by the Institutional 123Review Board of Albany Medical College. None of the subjects had a his-124tory of hearing impairment. The implanted electrode grids consisted of 125platinum-iridium electrodes that were 4 mm in diameter (2.3-3 mm 126exposed) and spaced with an inter-electrode distance of 0.6 or 1 cm. 127128 The total numbers of implanted electrodes were 96, 83, 109, 58, 120,

Clinical profiles of the subjects that participated in the study. All of the subjects had normal cognitive capacity and were functionally independent.						t t
Subject	Age	Sex	Handedness	Seizure Focus	# of Elec.	t
А	29	F	R	Left temporal	86	t
В	30	М	R	Left temporal	82	t
С	26	F	R	Left temporal	103	t
D	45	М	R	Left temporal	56	t
E	29	F	R	Left temporal	108	t
F	45	F	L	Left temporal	57	t

Left temporal

Left temporal

Left temporal

Left temporal

53

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110

92

58, 59, 98, 134, and 98 for the different subjects, respectively. Elec- 129 trodes were implanted on the left hemisphere for all subjects (see 130 Fig. 1 for electrode coverage). ECoG signals were digitized at 131 1200 Hz, synchronized with stimulus presentation, and stored 132 using the BCI2000 software platform (Schalk and Mellinger, 2010; 133 Schalk et al., 2004). ECoG signals were recorded while the subjects 134 were listening to the song, which was 3:00 min long, digitized at 135 44.1 kHz in waveform mono audio file format, and binaurally 136 presented to each subject using in-ear monitoring earphones. In ad- 137 dition, we recorded the same amount of ECoG signals while subjects 138 were at rest with eyes open. We visually inspected the recordings 139 and removed those electrodes that did not contain clean ECoG sig- 140 nals or had interictal activity, which left 86, 82, 103, 56, 108, 57, 53, 141 93, 110, and 92 electrodes for the different subjects. 142

### Cortical mapping

We defined the brain anatomy of each subject using pre-operative 144 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans, and the location of the elec- 145 trodes using post-operative computer tomography (CT) imaging. We 146 then created a 3D surface model of each subject's cortex from the MRI 147 images, co-registered it with the location of the electrodes given by 148 the CT images using Curry Software (Compumedics NeuroScan), and 149 transformed the 3D model and electrode locations into Talairach space 150 (see Fig. 1). 151

### Extraction of ECoG and sound features

To extract the time course of alpha and high gamma activity, we first 153 filtered ECoG signals from each electrode at each specific frequency 154 band (i.e., 8-12 Hz and 70-110 Hz) using an IIR band-pass filter and re- 155 moved spatially distributed noise common to all ECoG electrodes using 156 a common average reference (CAR) spatial filter. We then computed the 157 envelope of the ECoG signal (i.e., the magnitude of the analytic signal) in 158 each frequency band. Finally, we computed the natural logarithm of the 159 envelope power (i.e., squaring each element of the envelope and then 160 computing the natural logarithm) and resampled the result to 10 Hz. 161 To extract the song's sound intensity, we computed the average 162 power derived from non-overlapping 10 ms segments of the song. We 163 then smoothed the sound intensity by applying a low pass IIR filter at 164 5 Hz and resampled the result to 10 Hz. The total length of the alpha, 165 high gamma, and sound intensity time courses are 1800 samples each. 166 All filtering operations were performed forwards and then backwards 167 (using Matlab's filtfilt command) to avoid an introduction of a group 168 delay. The following analyses then determined those locations or inter- 169 actions across locations that contained alpha or gamma activity that was 170 related to auditory processing. 171

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t1.2

t1.11

t1 12

t1.13

t1.14

t1.1

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