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Frontal alpha oscillations distinguish leaders from followers: Multivariate decoding of mutually interacting brains

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ABSTRACT

Successful social interactions rely upon the abilities of two or more people to mutually exchange information in 18 real-time, while simultaneously adapting to one another. The neural basis of social cognition has mostly been in-19 vestigated in isolated individuals, and more recently using two-person paradigms to quantify the neuronal dy- 20 namics underlying social interaction. While several studies have shown the relevance of understanding 21 complementary and mutually adaptive processes, the neural mechanisms underlying such coordinative behav- 22 ioral patterns during joint action remain largely unknown. Here, we employed a synchronized finger-tapping 23 task while measuring dual-EEG from pairs of human participants who either mutually adjusted to each other 24 in an interactive task or followed a computer metronome. Neurophysiologically, the interactive condition was 25 characterized by a stronger suppression of alpha and low-beta oscillations over motor and frontal areas in con-26 trast to the non-interactive computer condition. A multivariate analysis of two-brain activity to classify interac- 27 tive versus non-interactive trials revealed asymmetric patterns of the frontal alpha-suppression in each pair, 28 during both task anticipation and execution, such that only one member showed the frontal component. Analysis 29 of the behavioral data showed that this distinction coincided with the leader-follower relationship in 8/9 pairs, 30 with the leaders characterized by the stronger frontal alpha-suppression. This suggests that leaders invest more 31 resources in prospective planning and control. Hence our results show that the spontaneous emergence of 32 leader-follower relationships in dyadic interactions can be predicted from EEG recordings of brain activity 33 prior to and during interaction. Furthermore, this emphasizes the importance of investigating complementarity 34 in joint action. 35

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41 Introduction

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When two people engage in social interaction, they exchange infor-42mation with one another by producing actions and simultaneously 4344adapting to the other person's actions via a tightly coupled alignment of perception and action within- and between-individuals (Hari and 45 Kujala, 2009). It has been shown that both symmetrical and comple-46 47 mentary motor adaptation of interacting partners is used when working toward a common goal (Kokal et al., 2009; Masumoto and Inui, 2013; 48 Sacheli et al., 2013). However, the neural mechanisms underlying inter-4950personal real-time coordination remain largely unknown, as the methodological frameworks to study them have been underdeveloped (Hari 51et al., 2013; Konvalinka and Roepstorff, 2012). 52

* Corresponding author at: Section for Cognitive Systems, DTU Compute, Matematiktorvet, DTU Building 303 B, 2800 Kongens Lyngby, Denmark. *E-mail address:* ivana.konvalinka@gmail.com (I. Konvalinka). from studying individual minds in isolation responding to "social" 54 stimuli, toward studies of interacting minds and brains (Sebanz 55 et al., 2006). This movement was precipitated by the criticism that 56 social cognition is fundamentally different when people engage in 57 interaction, rather than remain mere observers (De Jaegher, 2009; 58 Schilbach et al., 2013). 59 In particular, a number of recent studies have begun to investigate 60

Research in social cognition has only recently started to depart 53

In particular, a number of recent studies have begun to investigate 60 the interdependencies of neural processes in the brains of two people simultaneously as they interact (see Babiloni and Astolfi, 2012; Dumas 62 et al., 2011; Konvalinka and Roepstorff, 2012 for reviews). These studies 63 have provided insight into both individual neural processes during ongoing interaction, as well as interpersonal processes of two interacting 65 brains, using hyperscanning techniques. One group of such studies has 66 employed pseudo-interactive scenarios, scanning one person at a time 67 in unidirectional interactions (Anders et al., 2011; Kuhlen et al., 2012; 68 Schippers et al., 2010; Stephens et al., 2010), while others have measured two-brain processes during either turn-based or continuous, 70

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I. Konvalinka et al. / NeuroImage xxx (2014) xxx-xxx

mutual interactions, employing fMRI (e.g. King-Casas et al., 2005;
Montague et al., 2002; Saito et al., 2010), EEG (e.g. Astolfi et al., 2010;
De Vico et al., 2010; Dodel et al., 2011; Dumas et al., 2010;
Lindenberger et al., 2009; Yun et al., 2012), or fNIRS (e.g. Cui et al.,
2012; Holper et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2012) recordings.

76More specifically, previous dual-EEG studies have consistently iden-77 tified amplitude-modulation of oscillations around 10 Hz (alpha-band) 78over centro-parietal electrodes during joint attention and social coordi-79nation (Dumas et al., 2012; Lachat et al., 2012; Tognoli et al., 2007), 80 which has also been reported in non-interactive experiments, during 81 execution and observation of motor tasks (Caetano et al., 2007; Cochin 82 et al., 1999) – corresponding to modulation in the rolandic mu rhythm (Gastaut, 1952). Interpersonally, two-brain studies have primarily fo-83 84 cused on quantifying functional similarities or temporal synchronization between brains (Hasson et al., 2012) during interaction, showing 85 evidence of inter-brain coupling when people engage in behaviorally 86 coupled interactions (Dumas et al., 2010). 87

In addition to quantifying synchronized and symmetric brain-88 networks between brains, some dual-EEG studies have also shown 89 asymmetric brain-coupling patterns between leader-follower partici-90 pants of a dyad (Astolfi et al., 2010; Babiloni et al., 2007; Dumas et al., 91 922012; Sanger et al., 2012, 2013). This asymmetry has been reported ei-93 ther as functional connectivity (i.e. partial directed coherence) between different brain areas: prefrontal areas of a leader and ACC/parietal areas 94 of the leader's partner in a card game (Astolfi et al., 2010); or as directed 95phase coupling in the alpha frequency band from frontal electrodes of 96 leaders' brains to those of the followers' (Sanger et al., 2013). However, 9798 to what extent these phase-connectivity patterns might constitute a brain mechanism of social interaction (and in particular the establish-99 ment of leader and follower roles), and to what extent they may be 100 linked to the difference in movement initiation times, remains unre-101 102solved. In contrast, we were interested whether two-brain analyses on 103 oscillatory power - reflecting neuronal activation states - could reveal 104 complementary patterns of individual, rather than coupled, brain mechanisms in a dyad, where the participants may take on symmetric 105or complementary roles. 106

We thus set out to investigate both the brain processes underlying 107 108 mutual adaptation, and the potential inter-individual differences of interacting members within each pair. We employed a minimal inter-109action paradigm in order to investigate a simple interpersonal action-110 perception loop, whereby one person's action output became another's 111 perceptual input, and vice-versa. This was done by asking pairs of par-112 ticipants to engage in a mutually interactive finger-tapping task with 113 each other, or non-interactively with a computer metronome, while 114 dual-EEG was recorded. While this synchronization paradigm typically 115 engages symmetrical mechanisms between people when mutually 116 117 adapting to each other during extended tapping (Konvalinka et al., 2009, 2010), it also allows the two members to spontaneously take on 118 leader or follower roles, thereby potentially engaging complementary 119leader/follower behavioral and neural mechanisms. 120

A recent fMRI study investigated neural mechanisms underlying 121122leadership, as participants engaged in a tapping paradigm with an adap-123tive stimulus (Fairhurst et al., 2013). The study revealed that leading and perceiving leadership correlated with right-frontal brain activity, 124areas engaged in self-initiated action. Here, we wanted to develop a 125two-brain analysis, which could pick out features that could be specific 126127to leading or following behavior in an interactive dyad. To investigate within-pair inter-individual differences, we used a novel multivariate 128decoding approach, which allowed the classifier to pick up differences 129 in brain activity during interactive versus non-interactive behaviors in 130either member of each pair. 131

The goal of our study was two-fold: to explore how ongoing brainactivity is modulated within-participants, when the task is done interactively with another person versus non-interactively with a computer; and second, to investigate how complementary forms of interactive behaviors are reflected in the brain activity of each member of a pair.

Materials and methods

Participants

Eighteen right-handed participants (15 male; 3 female), comprising 139 nine pairs, volunteered for the study, recruited from Aarhus University, 140 Denmark. They all gave written, informed consent. Ethics approval 141 was obtained from the Science Ethics Committee for Aarhus County 142 (Videnskabsetisk Komite for Aarhus Amt). 143

Task and procedure

The participants were seated with their backs to one another, and received no visual feedback from each other. The experiment explored 2 146 conditions, 1) an interactive and 2) a computer control condition. In 147 the interactive condition, each participant received auditory feedback 148 only of the beats generated by the other member of the pair. In the computer condition, both participants received auditory feedback of steady, 150 computer-generated beats. The participants never received auditory 151 feedback of self-generated taps. The computer control was chosen 152 because the participants received the same auditory stimulation and 153 performed the same motor task, hence controlling for these factors. 154 Each condition was repeated 60 times, with the order randomized. Participants were informed of their auditory feedback prior to each trial. 156 The experimental design is shown in Fig. 1 (a).

The trial was initiated by 5 steady beats from the computer, at a 158 tempo of 120 beats per minute (bpm). The stimulus then ceased in 159 the interactive condition, and the members only heard each other. In 160 the computer condition, the stimulus continued at the steady tempo. 161 The participants were given two instructions: to keep the given beat 162 as precisely as possible, while at the same time synchronizing with 163 their auditory feedback, by tapping with their right index finger for 10 164 beats following the 5 beat stimulus.

All participants tapped on response keys of Lumina response pads, 166 connected to the computer via a serial port. The stimuli were sent 167 using the Presentation software (Neurobehavioral Systems, Albany, 168 NY, USA). One member of the pair was given two "right" earphones, 169 and the other member was given two "left" earphones, which were connected to an earphone splitter. Therefore, tapping feedback of member 171 one was sent to the left earphones, and feedback of member two to the right earphones, enabling the bidirectional interaction. The participants were asked to sit still, and avoid blinks and exploratory eye movements during tapping as much as possible.

EEG recordings

Simultaneous EEG was recorded from both members of each pair, 177 using two 32-channel caps with Ag/AgCl impedance-optimized active 178 electrodes (ActiCap, Brain Products, Gilching, Germany). The electrodes 179 were placed at the positions of the international 10–20 system, with a 180 nasal reference. Two identical Brainamp MR amplifiers with separate 181 grounds were used, which were optically coupled to the computer 182 and recorded through the same software interface, ensuring synchronization between the two sets of electrodes. The recording bandwidth 184 was set at 0.16–250 Hz and the data were sampled at 1000 Hz. 185

EEG data preprocessing

The data were processed and analyzed using Fieldtrip (Oostenveld 187 et al., 2011), a MATLAB software toolbox for MEG/EEG analyses, devel-188 oped at the Centre for Cognitive Neuroimaging of the Donders Institute for Brain, Cognition and Behaviour. All the trials were epoched from -1 190 to 7.5 s. The trials were baseline corrected in the time domain, 191 subtracting the mean of each entire epoch, in order to remove arbitrary DC offsets. 193

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