EEG Many Pipelines - Code Mechanics

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Author Note

Authorship order was randomly determined via the sample function in R.

SS preprocessed the data and performed time-frequency analysis (research questions 2b, 2c, 3b, 4b). AS preprocessed the data and performed ERP analysis (research questions 1, 2a, 3a, 4a). AM was responsible for project management, GitHub repository, and reproducibility. SS, AS, and AM wrote the report.

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Abstract

One or two sentences providing a basic introduction to the field, comprehensible to a

scientist in any discipline.

Two to three sentences of more detailed background, comprehensible to scientists

in related disciplines.

One sentence clearly stating the **general problem** being addressed by this particular

study.

One sentence summarizing the main result (with the words "here we show" or their

equivalent).

Two or three sentences explaining what the **main result** reveals in direct comparison

to what was thought to be the case previously, or how the main result adds to previous

knowledge.

One or two sentences to put the results into a more **general context**.

Two or three sentences to provide a **broader perspective**, readily comprehensible to

a scientist in any discipline.

Keywords: EEG Many Pipelines, scene categorization, vision, EEG, ERP,

time-frequency analysis, Bayesian multilevel linear regression, TFCE

Word count: X

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1 Introduction

Timeline of our contribution to the EEGManyPipelines project:

- we registered for the EEGManyPipelines project on 2021-09-15, and received the confirmation email 2021-09-20.
- instructions for downloading the data and for analysis were sent 2021-10-08. These are saved within the repository at data_in_repo/original_data/instructions.
- we received the link to the submission portal on 2022-05-02
- we've submitted the pre-processed data on

2 Methods

2.1 Preprocessing - ERP

For each participant, the continuous EEG data was assigned electrode coordinates and filtered with two consecutive Hamming windowed sinc FIR filters (high-pass 0.1 Hz, low-pass 40 Hz). Bad or noisy channels were detected using several approaches implemented in the PREP pipeline (Bigdely-Shamlo, Mullen, Kothe, Su, & Robbins, 2015), including flat or missing signal, "bad-by-high-frequency-noise" (frequency components above 50 Hz considerably higher than median channel noisiness, as calculated using a robust Z-scoring method and default threshold z > 5), "bad-by-correlation" (maximum correlation with another channel below the default r = .4; fraction of bad correlation windows above the default threshold of 0.01), "bad-by-deviation" (amplitude deviates from the median channel amplitude, as calculated using a robust Z-scoring method and default threshold z > 5), and signal prediction based on signals and spatial locations of other

channels lower than default threshold of r = .75 (random sample consensus approach, RANSAC; Fischler and Bolles (1987)). Channels identified as noisy using this procedure were removed from the data and subsequently interpolated via a spherical spline procedure (Perrin, Pernier, Bertrand, & Echallier, 1989).

Afterwards, the EEG data were re-referenced to the average signal across channels. Ocular artifacts were then corrected by means of independent component analysis via the picard algorithm (Ablin, Cardoso, & Gramfort, 2018) and then correlating the resulting components with the EOG channels to identify which components best represented horizontal eye movements and blinks. The components that correlated the highest with the EOG channels were then removed from the EEG data before re-conversion into channel space.

The EEG data was subsampled by a factor of four (i.e., from 512 Hz to 128 Hz) and segmented into epochs extending from -200ms to +500ms time-locked to scene onset, and baseline correction was applied using the pre-stimulus interval. The epoched data was then subjected to Autoreject, an automated artifact detection algorithm based on machine-learning classifiers and cross-validation to estimate the optimal peak-to-peak threshold (Jas, Engemann, Bekhti, Raimondo, & Gramfort, 2017). This algorithm was implemented to remove artifacts not identified by previous preprocessing steps and, depending on the number of bad sensors for a given trial, either repairs the trial based on spherical spline interpolation or excludes it from further analysis.²

Finally, the clean epoched data were separated into 8 conditions to investigate each research question:

• RQ1

1. manmade: scenes categorized as man-made, presented for the first time or

¹ For more details, see the documentation of NoisyChannels.

² For more details, see the documentation of autoreject.

previously (new and old), subsequently remembered or forgotten (subsequent_remembered and subsequent_forgotten), excluding NA in behavioral responses (although scene category is independent from response, NA may reflect drops in attention and, consequently, incomplete stimulus perception)

2. natural: scenes categorized as natural, new and old, subsequent_remembered and subsequent forgotten, excluding NA in behavior

• RQ2

- 3. new: man-made and natural scenes, presented for the first time (new), subsequent_remembered and subsequent_forgotten, excluding NA in behavior
- 4. old: man-made and natural scenes, presented previously (old), subsequent_remembered and subsequent_forgotten, excluding NA in behavior

• RQ3

- 5. old-hit: man-made and natural scenes, presented previously (old), successfully recognized as such (hit), can include NA in memory (the image has been successfully categorized as old, regardless of whether it is recognized as such in subsequent presentations)
- 6. old-miss: man-made and natural scenes, presented previously (old), not recognized as such (miss), can include NA in memory

• RQ4

- 7. remembered: man-made and natural scenes, new and old, subsequent remembered, include all behavior
- 8. forgotten: man-made and natural scenes, new and old, subsequent_forgotten, include all behavior

2.2 Preprocessing - TFR

Signal preprocessing for time-frequency analysis followed a similar procedure, with the following exceptions: (i) high-pass filter cut-off 1 Hz; (ii) continuous data segmented into 800 ms epochs (-300ms to +500ms time-locked to scene onset) and baseline corrected using the pre-stimulus interval.

The preprocessed data were then submitted to a Morlet wavelet analysis to transform the data into the time-frequency domain with 18 log-scaled frequency bins ranging from 4 to 40 Hz, to increase sensitivity at lower frequency ranges such as the theta band. To optimize both spectral and temporal resolution, the number of cycles to include in the sliding time window were defined by dividing each individual frequency by two. After transforming the data to the time-frequency domain, the data were decimated by a factor of two (sampling every second time point) to increase computational efficiency.

3 Analysis

3.1 RQ1

The first hypothesis we were asked to test was the following:

There is an effect of scene category (i.e., a difference between images showing man-made vs. natural environments) on the amplitude of the N1 component, i.e. the first major negative EEG voltage deflection.

To address this question, we identified the N1 ERP component by visually inspecting topographies and waveforms of the grand-average signal (i.e., collapsed across all participants and both man-made and natural conditions). This unbiased collapsed localizer approach (Luck & Gaspelin, 2017, p. 150) revealed a negative deflection at electrodes PO7, PO3, O1, PO4, PO8, O2 (region of interest, ROI), and a time window between 130 - 180

ms after stimulus onset. Participant- and condition-specific N1 amplitude was extracted by averaging values recorded at this ROI and time window.

Subsequently, we fit a Bayesian multilevel linear model on N1 amplitude values, with condition (2 levels: man-made, natural) as constant (a.k.a. fixed) effect and participant and trial as varying (a.k.a. random) effects. We allowed intercepts and slopes to vary as a function of participant and trials, to model general and condition-specific inter-individual differences. As a likelihood function, we chose a Gaussian distribution.

An important aspect of Bayesian analysis is the choice of priors (e.g., Natarajan & Kass, 2000). Given the susceptibility of the electrophysiological signal to inter-individual differences (e.g., skull thickness, skin conductance, or hair), we decided to base our priors on the current data by visually inspecting the collapsed localizer (see above). For the main analysis, we placed **informative priors** on the intercept – a normal distribution with mean $\mu = 4$ and standard deviation $\sigma = 2$: Normal(4, 2) – and β coefficient, Normal(0, 1). To assess whether our chosen informative prior would bias parameter estimates (and, consequently, the interpretation of the results; Depaoli and van de Schoot (2017)), we ran the same multilevel linear model with **weakly informative** priors (intercept: Normal(4, 4); β : Normal(0, 4)) and **uninformative** priors (intercept: Normal(4, 10); β : Normal(0, 10)). We anticipated that the choice of prior would have negligible effects on the posterior distributions, because the influence of the prior washes out with a large amount of data (Edwards, Lindman, & Savage, 1963).

Since we had no prior knowledge regarding the standard deviation of participant and trials, we placed a **weakly informative prior** on these varying effects: a t-distribution with degrees of freedom $\nu = 3$, location $\mu = 0$, and scale $\sigma = 2$, Student(3, 0, 2).

Models were fitted in R using the brms package (Bürkner, 2018), which employs the probabilistic programming language Stan (Carpenter et al., 2017) to implement a Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm (i.e., No-U-Turn sampler; Homan and Gelman (2014)) to estimate posterior distributions of the parameters of interest. Four MCMC

chains with 4000 iterations (2000 warm-up) and no thinning were run to estimate parameters in each of the fitted models. Model convergence was assessed as follows: (i) visual inspection of trace plots, rank plots, and graphical posterior predictive checks (Gabry, Simpson, Vehtari, Betancourt, & Gelman, 2019); (ii) Gelman-Rubin \hat{R} statistic (Gelman et al., 2013) – comparing the between-chains variability to the within-chain variability – between 1 and 1.05 (see also Nalborczyk, Batailler, Lœvenbruck, Vilain, & Bürkner, 2019).

Posterior distributions of the model parameters were summarized using the mean and 95% credible interval (CI). Differences between conditions were calculated by computing the difference between posterior distributions of the respective conditions.

Statistical inference was performed using the **HDI** + **ROPE** decision rule (Kruschke, 2018): values were accepted or rejected against a null hypothesis considering a small effect as practically equivalent to zero (Region of Practical Equivalence; ROPE). To mitigate the inevitable subjectivity intrinsic in arbitrarily choosing the range of negligible values, we explored a range of plausible ROPEs, from $\pm 0.05 \mu V$ to $\pm 0.5 \mu V$ in steps of $0.01 \mu V$. If the percentage of the posterior differences within the full ROPE was smaller than 5%, the null hypothesis was rejected.

3.1.1 ADD SCORING OF N1.

3.2 RQ2

To test whether there are effects of image novelty (RQ2; i.e., between images shown for the first time/new vs. repeated/old images) we conducted a multilevel analysis contrasting the EEG data from trials with old images against trials with new images. To test for differences in theta power at fronto-central channels we focused on the frequency range from 4-8 Hz and all frontocentral channels (FC1, FCz, FC2). At the first level (i.e., the participant level), we computed the averaged time-frequency maps for each of the two conditions. We then tested the resulting averaged maps at the second level for significant

group effects, using a paired-sample t-test. We used cluster-based permutation testing as a stringent control for multiple comparisons (Maris & Oostenveld, 2007). Specifically, for every sample across the three channels, we quantified the experimental effect by a t value. Selection of samples for inclusion in a cluster was implemented using threshold-free cluster enhancement (TFCE) (Smith & Nichols, 2009). TFCE eliminates the free parameter initial threshold value that determines which points are included in clustering by approximating a continuous integration across possible threshold values with a standard Riemann sum. We subsequently clustered selected samples in connected sets based on temporal and spectral adjacency, and we computed cluster-level statistics by taking the sum of the t values within every cluster. Subsequently, we performed permutation testing using the Monte Carlo method to compute the posterior significance probability of our observed effect (Maris & Oostenveld, 2007). This analysis results in a cluster of adjacent data points across time, frequencies, and channels, which significantly differs in activity between old and new images. To test for differences in alpha power at posterior channels we focused on the frequency range from 8-13 Hz and all posterior channels (P7, P5, P3, P1, P2, P4, P6).

3.3 RQ3

The same analysis approach as described for RQ2 was implemented for RQ3. Specifically, to test whether there are effects of successful recognition of old images on spectral power, at any frequencies, at any channel, at any time, we contrasted time-frequency decomposed EEG data from trials containing old images that were correctly recognized as old with old images incorrectly recognized as new. Here we included all frequencies, timepoints, and channels in the analysis. The same thresholding procedure and permutation testing approach as above was used.

3.4 RQ4

To test whether there are effects of subsequent memory, we conducted exactly the same analysis as described in RQ3, with the only difference that here we contrasted trial containing images that will be successfully remembered vs. forgotten on a subsequent repetition.

4 Results

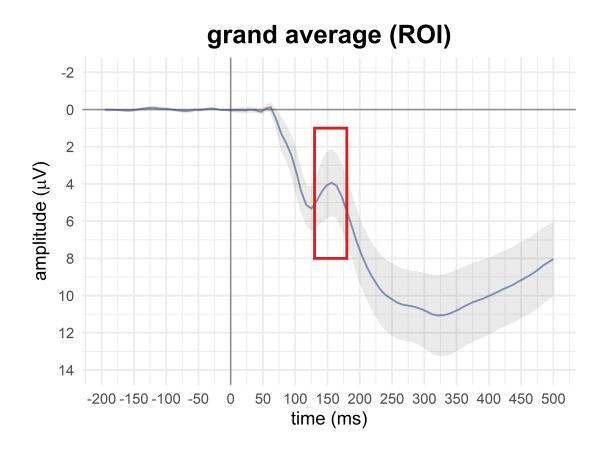


Figure 1. My caption.

No significant clusters were identified for any of the research questions (at $\alpha = 0.05$).

5 Discussion

ADD DISCUSSION HERE

6 Software

EEG preprocessing was carried out using MNE-Python (Gramfort, 2013) in Python v3.9.7 (Van Rossum & Drake, 2009) and $Spyder\ IDE\ v5.1.5$ (Raybaut, 2009). Analysis, visualization, and report generation were carried out in $R\ v4.1.3$ (R Core Team, 2022) and $RStudio\ IDE\ v2022.02.1+461$ (RStudio Team, 2020). We used the following R packages:

- data wrangling and analysis: here v1.0.1 (Müller, 2020), Rmisc v1.5 (Hope, 2022), tidyverse v1.3.1 (Wickham et al., 2019) in particular tibble v3.1.6 (Müller & Wickham, 2022), tidyr v1.2.0 (Wickham & Girlich, 2022), readr v2.1.2 (Wickham, Hester, & Bryan, 2022), dplyr v1.0.9 (Wickham, François, Henry, & Müller, 2022) –, brms v2.17.0 (Bürkner, 2018), eegUtils v0.7.0 (Craddock, 2022), emmeans v1.7.3 (Lenth, 2022), bayestestR v0.11.5.1 (Makowski, Ben-Shachar, & Lüdecke, 2019)
- visualization: ggplot2 v3.3.6 (Wickham, 2016), eegUtils v0.7.0 (Craddock, 2022),
 bayesplot v1.9.0 (Gabry & Mahr, 2022), viridis v0.6.2 (Garnier et al., 2021-04-11,
 2021-04), tidybayes v3.0.2 (Kay, 2022), patchwork v1.1.1 (Pedersen, 2020)
- report generation: knitr v1.39 (Xie, 2022), rmarkdown v2.14 (Allaire et al., 2022), papaja v0.1.0.9999 (Aust & Barth, 2022)

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