# Low-frequency direct cortical stimulation of left superior frontal gyrus enhances

## working memory performance

Sankaraleengam Alagapan<sup>1,7</sup>, Caroline Lustenberger<sup>1</sup>, Eldad Hadar<sup>2</sup>, Hae Won Shin<sup>2, 3</sup>, and Flavio Fröhlich<sup>1, 3, 4, 5, 6,7</sup>

Correspondence should be addressed to: Flavio Fröhlich, 115 Mason Farm Rd. NRB 4109F,

Chapel Hill, NC. 27599. Email: flavio\_frohlich@med.unc.edu

1 Department of Psychiatry, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill NC 27599, USA

2 Department of Neurosurgery, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill NC 27599, USA

3 Department of Neurology, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill NC 27599, USA

4 Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill NC 27599, USA

5 Department of Cell Biology and Physiology, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill NC 27599, USA

6 Neuroscience Center, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill NC 27599, USA

7 Carolina Center for Neurostimulation, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill NC 27599, USA

Authorship Statement: SA, HS, and FF designed the experiments; SA, EH, and HS performed the electrophysiological recordings; SA, CL analyzed the data; and SA, CL, EH, HS, and FF prepared the manuscript.

### Abstract

The neural substrates of working memory are spread across prefrontal, parietal and cingulate cortices and are thought to be coordinated through low frequency cortical oscillations in the theta (3 - 8 Hz) and alpha (8 - 12 Hz) frequency bands. While the functional role of many subregions have been elucidated using neuroimaging studies, the role of superior frontal gyrus (SFG) is not yet clear. Here, we combined electrocorticography and direct cortical stimulation in three patients implanted with subdural electrodes to assess if superior frontal gyrus is indeed involved in working memory. We found left SFG exhibited task-related modulation of oscillations in the theta and alpha frequency bands specifically during the encoding epoch. Stimulation at the frequency matched to the endogenous oscillations resulted in reduced reaction times in all three participants. Our results support the causal role of SFG in working memory and suggest that SFG may coordinate working memory through low-frequency oscillations thus bolstering the feasibility of targeting oscillations for restoring cognitive function.

### 1 Introduction

Working memory (WM), the ability to flexibly maintain and manipulate information for a short
period of time, forms an important component of cognition. It supports other higher-order cognitive
functions and has been tightly linked to fluid intelligence [1, 2]. Impairment in WM accompanies
many neurological and psychiatric disorders and significantly reduces the quality of life of affected
patients [3-7]. A mechanistic understanding of the causal role of circuit dynamics in WM will open
new therapeutic avenues.

8 Functional imaging studies have revealed that the neural substrate of WM is spread across 9 multiple cortical regions including dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, posterior parietal cortex and 10 anterior cingulate cortex. While early studies have suggested superior frontal gyrus (SFG) to be 11 involved in working memory [8-10], subsequent studies have often found the middle frontal gyrus 12 (MFG) to be the key node in working memory [11-15]. However, lesions in SFG have been shown 13 to result in working memory deficits [16]. In addition, electroencephalography (EEG) and 14 magnetoencephalography (MEG) studies have shown that oscillations in the theta frequency 15 band (4 – 8 Hz) observed on fronto-central regions [17-21] coordinate working memory. The 16 source of these oscillations is thought to be medial prefrontal cortex which includes SFG. 17 Modulations in WM performance by non-invasive brain stimulation like repetitive transcranial 18 magnetic stimulation (rTMS) [22, 23] and transcranial alternating current stimulation (tACS) [24-19 27] targeting prefrontal cortex also provide indirect evidence for the role of SFG in WM 20 performance.

21 Electrocorticography (ECoG) allows identification of activity signatures at temporal scale of a few 22 milliseconds with a spatial resolution of a few centimeters is an ideal tool to map functions of 23 cortical regions. Direct cortical stimulation, in which stimulation is applied through ECoG 24 electrodes allows for focal probing of cortex providing additional information through reversible 25 microlesions [28]. Combined recording and stimulation with implanted electrodes have greatly 26 contributed to revealing the substrate of long-term memory [29-32]. Low amplitude periodic 27 stimulation at 10 Hz has been demonstrated to engage ongoing cortical oscillations in a state-28 dependent manner and enhance oscillation strength measured by signal power [33]. In this study,

we employed a similar experimental paradigm to delineate the role of SFG on working memory.
We present results from three participants with subdural electrodes over left and right SFG in
whom we assessed the electrophysiological signatures of SFG and applied periodic stimulation
during a verbal working memory task. We found that left SFG exhibited a task-related modulation
in oscillation power and stimulation matched to the frequency of oscillation resulted in an
improvement in working memory performance.

35

### 36 Results

37 We leveraged the access to ECoG signals in three patients with epilepsy undergoing long term 38 monitoring in the Epilepsy monitoring unit at the N.C. Neurosciences Hospital, UNC Medical 39 Center, Chapel Hill. The participants (P1, P2 and P3) had electrodes over frontal, temporal and 40 parietal regions on both hemispheres (Figure 1A). The participants performed a Sternberg verbal 41 working memory task that has been previously used in ECoG research [34, 35] (Figure 1B). The 42 cognitive load, measured by the number of items (English letters) in a list to be held in memory (3, 43 4, or 5 for P1 and 3 or 5 for P2 and 5 or 7 for P3), was varied randomly for each trial. In participant 44 P1, we observed an increase in reaction times with increasing cognitive load (list length 3: 824 ± 45 31 ms, list length 4: 1119 ± 105 ms, list length 5: 1140 ± 78 ms) in the sham trials (Linear model 46 factor list length: F(2,34) = 4.864; p = 0.014). In participant P2, who performed a separate baseline 47 session of the task without stimulation, there was no significant difference between reaction times 48 for different cognitive loads (F(1,20) = 0.060; p = 0.809). In participant P3, who also performed a 49 separate baseline session without stimulation, there was a significant effect of cognitive load 50 (Linear mixed model factor list length: F(1,45) = 4.646; p = 0.036). The reaction time for trials with 51 5 items in the list was lower than trials with 7 items in the list (785  $\pm$  26 ms vs 902  $\pm$  48 ms).



**Figure 1.** (A) Surface model showing the coverage of electrodes for the three participants. (B) Schematic of a single trial of the working memory task used. The task consisted of 3 epochs – Encoding, Retention and Retrieval. Stimulation was applied through the entire trial. (C) Schematic of the periodic pulse stimulation. Stimulation consisted of train of biphasic pulses 400 µs in duration every 100 ms (P1 and P2) or 200 ms (P3) for 5s.

53 Oscillations in the theta (3 – 8 Hz) and alpha (8 – 12 Hz) bands have been shown to be modulated 54 during working memory tasks [19, 34, 36]. Spectral analysis revealed oscillations with a peak 55 frequency around 5 Hz in P1 and P3 and 9.5 Hz in P2. To assess if these observed oscillations 56 were modulated by the task, we computed power spectra for baseline, encoding and retention 57 epochs when no stimulation was being delivered (sham trials in P1 and baseline session trials in 58 P2 and P3). Modulation indices were computed relative to baseline epoch. The retrieval epoch 59 was not included in analysis as the epoch may be confounded with action planning and action. We 60 found that electrodes in frontal, temporal and parietal regions exhibited an enhancement of power 61 relative to baseline during sham trials in the theta band (3 – 8 Hz) in P1 and P3 and in alpha band 62 (8 - 10 Hz) in P2 (one sample t-test with FDR correction; p < 0.05). Specifically, electrodes over 63 the left superior frontal gyrus (ISFG) exhibited the task relevant enhancement of oscillation across

64 all three participants. Spectrograms of sample electrodes over SFG illustrating task-related 65 modulation are depicted in Figure 2A. Further analysis of data from electrodes over ISFG revealed 66 that power modulation during the encoding epoch was influenced by list length (Figure 2B; Linear 67 mixed model factor list length: F(3,370) = 3.417; p = 0.017). Post-hoc analysis revealed a 68 significant difference between modulation indices from list lengths 3 and 5 in participants P1 and 69 P2 (Pairwise t-test, p < 0.05). In contrast, power modulation during the retention epoch was not 70 influence by list length (Linear mixed model factor list length: F(3,228) = 1.029; p = 0.38). Taken 71 together, these results imply that the oscillations indeed reflect task relevant processing and 72 specifically contribute to encoding.



73

**Figure 2.** (A) Cortical model showing electrodes that exhibited task-related modulation. Red circle denotes the three electrodes in ISFG whose event related spectral perturbation are plotted. observed in left superior frontal gyrus electrodes during sham trials for P1 and baseline session trials for P2 and P3 indicating the modulation of signal in the band 3 – 12 Hz. Hot (red) colors indicate an increase and cold (blue) colors indicate a decrease in signal power relative to baseline. (B) Modulation indices during encoding epoch across all ISFG electrodes that exhibited significant task related modulation of signal power. In P1 and P2 there was a significant difference between modulation indices for list length 3 and list length 5.

To test if targeting oscillations that exhibited task-related modulation in SFG, periodic pulse stimulation was applied between pairs of electrodes over the left SFG. Stimulation consisted of pulse trains 2 mA in amplitude and 5 seconds in duration (Figure 1C) and the electrode pair being stimulated was randomly changed for each trial. Stimulation and sham trials were randomly interleaved and trial initiation was time-locked to stimulation initiation. Stimulation frequency was 10 Hz for P1 (chosen a priori), 9 Hz for P2 (due to technical issues) and 5 Hz for P3. A total of two 80 different pairs of electrodes in left SFG were stimulated in P1, one pair of electrodes in P2 and P3 81 (blue electrodes in Figure 1A). During the stimulation session, participants P1, P2 and P3 performed the task in which trials consisted of 3, 4 or 5 items, 3 or 5 items, 5 items respectively. 82 83 As a first step, the effect of stimulation on reaction times of participants P1 and P2 was analyzed 84 using a linear mixed model with fixed factors list length and stimulation condition and participant 85 as random factor as these participants had trials with 3 and 5 items. While there was no significant 86 effect of stimulation (F(2,108) = 1.042; p = 0.356), there was a significant effect of list length ( 87 F(1,108) = 9.072; p = 0.003) and interaction between list length and stimulation condition ( 88 F(2,108) = 6.536; p = 0.002). Next analysis was restricted to only trials with 5 items and the 89 reaction times of all 3 participants in sham trials were compared with that in stimulation trials. The 90 effect of stimulation was statistically significant (Linear Mixed Model F(1,97) = 13.414; p < 0.001) 91 with all participants showing a significant decrease in reaction times (P1: 1140  $\pm$  78 ms vs 852  $\pm$ 92 111 ms; P2: 1188 ± 93 ms vs 954 ± 54 ms; P3: 841 ± 48 ms vs 727 ± 27ms; Figure 3A) confirmed 93 by post-hoc analysis (Pairwise t-test, p < 0.05). Analysis of accuracy using chi-squared tests did 94 not reveal any significant interactions (Figure 3B) suggesting stimulation served to reduce reaction 95 times without affecting accuracy.

96 In most studies involving electrical stimulation, artifacts caused by stimulation prevent the analysis 97 of electrophysiological signals during stimulation. To overcome this, we developed an independent 98 component analysis (ICA) based method (see Methods and Experimental Procedures). 99 Stimulation artifacts were sufficiently suppressed (Figure S1) allowing us to study the signals in 100 the frequency band of interest. Power spectra and modulation indices in the endogenous 101 oscillation frequency band (3 – 8 Hz in P1 and P3 and 8 – 12 Hz in P2) were computed as 102 described before. Analysis of modulation indices of the electrodes over ISFG (restricted to trials 103 with 5 items in the list) across all participants did not reveal any significant effect of stimulation 104 (Figure 3C; Linear mixed model factor condition F(1,459) = 0.612; p = 0.434). To explore the 105 effects of stimulation on other regions that exhibited modulation of task-relevant oscillations, we ran analysis on individual participant data including list length as a factor. In P1, stimulation 106 107 induced a differential change in modulation indices (Linear mixed model factor condition F(1,672)

108	= 20.827; p <0.001, factor list length $F(1, 672) = 15.793$ ; p = 0.001, interaction $F(1,672) = 10.536$ ;
109	p = 0.004). Further analysis revealed that there was a significant effect of stimulation in trials with
110	5 items in list, with stimulation inducing a decrease in modulation indices (Linear mixed model
111	factor condition $F(1,305 = 27.742; p < 0.001)$ . Similarly in P2, stimulation induced a difference
112	change in modulation indices (Linear mixed model factor condition $F(1,1738) = 0.495$ ; p = 0.482,
113	factor list length $F(1, 1738) = 33.190$ ; p < 0.001, interaction $F(1,1738) = 11.134$ ; p < 0.001).
114	Stimulation caused significant decrease in modulation indices in trials with 3 items (Factor
115	condition $F(1,908) = 9.04$ ; p = 0.003) while stimulation caused a trend-level significant increase in
116	modulation indices in trials with 5 items (Factor condition $F(1,830) = 3.13$ ; p = 0.077). There was
117	no significant effect of stimulation in P3 (Factor condition F(1,215) = 0.005; p = 0.946).



**Figure 3.** (A) Reaction times in trials with 5 items showing a decrease with stimulation. (B) Accuracy was not affected by stimulation (C) Stimulation did not result in any changes in modulation indices in electrodes over ISFG. (D) Differential effect of stimulation on modulation indices in electrodes that exhibited task-relevant modulation of low frequency oscillations.

119

## 120 Discussion

121 In this study, we show evidence for the role of superior frontal gyrus (SFG) in working memory 122 using a combination of ECoG and DCS. Electrodes over left SFG exhibited modulation of cortical 123 oscillations in the canonical theta and alpha frequency bands. The degree of modulation, 124 measured using modulation index, depended on the cognitive load, specifically in the encoding 125 epoch. Stimulation of ISFG with frequency matched to the fundamental frequency or harmonic of 126 the endogenous oscillations, led to an enhancement in working memory performance. However, 127 analysis of data obtained during stimulation did not provide any conclusive evidence for 128 modulation of task-relevant oscillations. Taken together, the results suggest SFG may be an 129 important node in brain network that coordinates working memory.

130 While there is an abundance of evidence for the role of middle frontal gyrus (MFG; Brodmann 131 Area 9/46) in working memory from neuroimaging studies [11, 15, 37, 38], the role of SFG is not 132 clear. There have been a few neuroimaging studies that suggest SFG may be involved in working 133 memory [8-10, 39]. SFG gray matter volume has been linked to working memory activation in 134 intra-parietal sulcus [40]. The strongest evidence for the role of SFG in working memory has come 135 from a lesion study [16] in which patients with lesions in ISFG exhibited deficits in working memory 136 involving verbal, spatial and face stimuli. Our results strengthen the evidence for SFG's role in 137 working memory. However, the proximal location our stimulation targets to MFG may confound 138 our interpretation of the results. Diffusion tensor tractography has revealed that SFG can be 139 divided into subregions with strong connectivity to ACC, a key node in cognitive control network 140 and MFG, a key node in executive control network [41]. As both networks are essential to working 141 memory processes [42-44], stimulation of SFG may have distributed effects across multiple 142 regions including MFG. The lack of sufficient coverage of these areas in these three patients

143 limited our ability to examine this idea. Previous studies have observed oscillations in the range 3 144 - 15 Hz to be modulated during working memory tasks [34, 45, 46] and the strength of oscillations 145 to reflect working memory load [19, 35, 36]. Frontal midline theta (FMT) is a commonly observed 146 oscillatory signature in EEG studies of working memory [18] typically in Fz and neighboring 147 electrodes in the 10-20 electrode system. The sources of FMT are thought to include lateral PFC 148 and ACC [47]. The theta oscillations we observed in our study may be related to FMT although we 149 did not have any scalp electrodes to confirm this. We found task-related modulation specifically in 150 the encoding period. Analysis of oscillation strength in the retention epoch did not reveal any 151 significant difference between the cognitive loads. This suggests that SFG may play a role that is 152 different from that of MFG/IFG which is known to predominantly be active during the retention 153 epoch [15].

154 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study where effects of intracranial stimulation on 155 working memory and on oscillation strength were investigated. Periodic pulse stimulation of 156 entorhinal region has been shown to improve performance in a spatial learning task [31]. 157 Concurrently there was an increase in theta-phase resetting. In another study, stimulation with 158 very weak sinusoidal currents (0.01mA) produced trend level effects in memory performance 159 although no improvement compared to sham was seen [48]. Impairment of performance has been 160 more commonly reported than improvement especially for hippocampal stimulation. One study 161 showed that single pulse stimulation of hippocampus impaired episodic memory [49]. In another 162 study, stimulation at 50 Hz impaired recognition of specific stimuli depending on whether left or 163 right hippocampus was stimulated [50]. More recently, stimulation of entorhinal/ hippocampal and 164 medial temporal regions was shown to affect both verbal and spatial memory [32, 51]. One key 165 difference between the studies described above and our current study is the frequency of 166 stimulation used. Often, 50 Hz was chosen as the stimulation frequency as opposed to the low 167 frequency used in our study. A study that utilized low frequency stimulation showed that 168 stimulation at 5 Hz resulted in improvement of delayed recall [52]. Another study in which theta 169 burst stimulation (100 ms trains of 0.1 ms pulses at 200 Hz repeated 5 times per second) of fornix 170 resulted in improvement of visual-spatial memory [53]. These results suggest that frequency of

171 stimulation might be crucial to the effects observed. Intracranial stimulation studies have often 172 focused on episodic memory and stimulation of hippocampus. In contrast, non-invasive stimulation 173 studies have focused on working memory specifically and target cortical regions such as dIPFC, 174 PPC, inferior frontal gyrus. Transcranial magnetic stimulation, which produces local 175 suprathreshold effects, i.e., evoking action potentials like those expected in intracranial 176 stimulation, has been shown to enhance working memory performance based on the stimulation 177 frequency, location and specific epoch within the task or before the task [54-61]. It must also be 178 noted that many studies report impairments of working memory and episodic memory by TMS as 179 well [62-65]. Transcranial alternating current stimulation, which likely produces more global 180 subthreshold effects, has been shown to increase performance by targeting dIPFC and PPC [24, 181 26]. The neurophysiological underpinnings of the effects in these studies are often unclear [27, 182 60]. Recently, rTMS applied at theta frequency to left intraparietal sulcus was shown to entrain

183 theta oscillations with a concurrent improvement in auditory working memory [66].

184 As any scientific study, our study has a set of limitations. First, the results presented here are from 185 three participants. The major obstacle in our case was the heterogeneity in electrode distribution 186 as the electrode locations were dictated by clinical needs. Second, although the stimulation 187 frequency was 10 Hz, oscillations in the frequency band 3 – 8 Hz were significantly modulated 188 concurrently with changes in WM performance. This discrepancy is hard to reconcile if 189 entrainment is thought to be the underlying mechanism of interaction between stimulation and 190 oscillation [67, 68]. However, the interaction between stimulation and an ongoing oscillation has 191 been found to be nonlinear and the effects depend on the strength of the prevailing oscillations 192 [33]. When there is a strong ongoing oscillation, stimulation tends to increase the strength of the 193 endogenous oscillation and only in cases where the strength of the oscillation is low, entrainment 194 is possible. This state-dependent effect of stimulation is likely the underlying mechanism in the 195 current study as well. Alternatively, 10 Hz stimulation may have engaged with the strong 5 Hz 196 oscillation through subharmonic entrainment as predicted in computational models [69]. Third, the 197 present experimental paradigm is limited to applying stimulation during the entire trial due to 198 technical limitations of the FDA-approved cortical stimulator used in the study. This limitation

199 precluded us from identifying if stimulation during an epoch within a trial, i.e. encoding or retention, 200 is more effective than stimulation during the entire trial. Moreover, the frequency of stimulation 201 was restricted to a few discrete frequencies that did not allow matching of the stimulation 202 frequency to frequency of endogenous oscillations in P1. Fourth, a limitation of the current study 203 design is that it used only a single stimulation amplitude and stimulation frequency. Given the 204 large parameter space, it is prohibitively difficult to try all possible parameters in studies with 205 limited participant pools as the current study. For P1, we chose stimulation regions based on 206 previous literature due to technical limitations. A more effective strategy was followed for P2 and 207 P3 where we identified electrodes that exhibited task-related modulation in low frequency bands 208 and applied stimulation accordingly. Also, the stimulation used in our study was restricted to a 209 single site. However, memory processes are distributed across different brain regions and the 210 most effective strategy would likely involve stimulation of multiple regions to produce more of a 211 network effect [29, 70] or an adaptive approach using closed-loop stimulation based on the state 212 of the network [71, 72]

213 In conclusion, we show that periodic pulse stimulation of cortex through subdural electrodes at low 214 frequency can enhance working memory. Despite the limitations, the study provides valuable 215 insights into the feasibility of using oscillations as brain stimulation targets. The importance is 216 highlighted by the emerging interest in using invasive recordings and electrical stimulation to 217 understand and alter pathological signatures of brain activity, whether it be neurological disorders, 218 like epilepsy and Parkinson's disease, or psychiatric disorders, like depression and obsessive-219 compulsive disorder. Our results suggest that the same technology could be leveraged to also 220 address cognitive impairment.

221

### 222 Experimental Procedures

### 223 ECoG Data Collection and Direct Cortical Stimulation

All experimental procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board of University of

North Carolina at Chapel Hill (IRB Number 13-2710) and written informed consent was obtained

from the participant. The participants underwent implantation of intracranial EEG electrodes
 followed by long-term monitoring at the Epilepsy Monitoring Unit in UNC Neuroscience hospital for
 surgical resection planning.

229 Strips of electrodes were implanted over bilateral frontal, temporal and parietal lobes as shown in 230 Figure 1A. Depth electrodes were implanted in bilateral parahippocampal gyri in P1 and strip 231 electrodes were implanted over bilateral occipital lobe in P2 (not shown in figure). The locations of 232 the electrodes were completely dictated by the clinical needs of the participant. The electrodes, 4 233 mm in diameter (2.5 mm exposed), were made of platinum-iridium alloy and embedded in silicone 234 (Ad-Tech Medical, Racine, Wisconsin, United States). The electrodes in each strip were separated 235 by 10 mm. Signals from electrodes that were over seizure foci (Table 1) were excluded from 236 analysis.

237 ECoG data from participant P1 was recorded using a 128-channel acquisition system (Aura LTM

238 64, Grass Technologies, Warwick, Rhode Island, United States) at 800 Hz sampling rate.

Electrical stimulation consisted of 5 second train of biphasic pulses, 2 mA in amplitude, 400 μs in
duration and 10 Hz in frequency. The pulses were generated by a cortical stimulator (S12x cortical
stimulator, Grass Technologies, Warwick, Rhode Island, United States) and applied between pairs
of adjacent electrodes (blue electrodes in Figure 1A).

ECoG data from participants P2 and P3 were recorded using a different 128-channel EEG system
(NetAmps 410, Electrical Geodesics Inc, Eugene, Oregon, United States) at 1000 Hz sampling
rate. Stimulation was delivered using Cerestim M96 cortical stimulator (Blackrock Microsystems,
Salt Lake City, Utah, United States). Stimulation parameters (except frequency) remained the
same as in P1 except for the duration which was adjusted to encompass the encoding and
retention epochs.

249

250

251

### 252 Table 1. Clinical Information of Participants

Participant	Age	Sex	Handedness	Clinical Seizure Focus	Stimulation Frequency	Number of Trials
P1	23	F	R	Bilateral parahippocampal gyri	10 Hz	24 Sham, 13 Stimulation
P2	57	Μ	R	Bilateral inferior occipital, posterior temporal	9 Hz	27 Sham, 26 Stimulation
P3	26	Μ	R	Unknown Seizure Focus	5 Hz	30 Sham, 30 Stimulation

#### 253

### 254 Working Memory Task

255 We adopted a classical Sternberg working memory task previously used in other ECoG studies 256 [34, 35, 73] (Figure 1C). The task consisted of 3 epochs. In the first epoch, lists of 3 to 5 pseudo-257 randomly chosen letters from the English alphabet were presented sequentially. This was termed 258 the encoding epoch and each alphabet was displayed for 500 ms with 200 ms between each 259 alphabet (the inter-alphabet interval was not present for P2 and P3). Following this, was a 260 retention epoch where a blank screen was presented for 1 second. The final epoch was the 261 retrieval epoch where a single probe (another English alphabet) was shown for 5 seconds and the 262 participants had to indicate if they thought that the probe was present in the list by pressing a 263 specified key on the keyboard. If they did not think the probe was present in the list, they did not 264 have to press any key. The task was programmed in Matlab using Psychtoolbox [74] and 265 presented in a laptop. For the experiment in which P1 participated, triggers from the cortical 266 stimulator were detected by an ethernet DAQ (National instruments, Austin, TX, USA) connected 267 to the task computer and used to initiate trials. Sham trials, in which no electrical pulses were 268 delivered, were initiated using a pulse generator and were randomly interleaved with stimulation 269 trials. For the experimental session in which P2 and P3 participated, triggers were generated 270 within the Psychtoolbox task code and sent to Cerestim through the ethernet DAQ. In sham trials,

Page 14 of 22

no triggers were sent to Cerestim. Stimulation was applied for 5 seconds in P1 and the duration of
encoding and retention epochs in P2 and P3. In P1 electrodes over right SFG and bilateral
temporal cortices were stimulated as well. However, the low number of stimulation trials did not
allow any meaningful analysis to be performed and hence was not included in the study here. In
P2, a pair of electrode over right SFG was stimulated and the results are not included here.
Participants P2 and P3 completed 2 sessions – a baseline session and a stimulation session. The
baseline session did not include any stimulation and consisted of 40 trials of two different list

- 278 lengths to assess the baseline performance level as well as determine the parameters for the279 stimulation session.
- 280 Data Analysis

294

281 Data analysis was performed using custom written Matlab scripts (The MathWorks Inc., Natick,

MA, United States). The recording setup consisted of switching circuits designed to protect the
amplifier during stimulation which prevented recording of data from stimulating electrodes. Hence,
data from stimulating electrodes were not included in the analysis.

285 Stimulation artifacts, present in channels adjacent to stimulated electrodes, were removed using 286 an independent component analysis (ICA) based approach (Figure S). Since artifacts were 287 observed as stereotypical waveforms, ICA resulted in components that contained only artifact 288 waveforms which were then rejected, and the remaining components were used to reconstruct 289 artifact free signals. We used the infomax algorithm [75] available as a part of EEGLab toolbox 290 [76] for computing independent components. Following artifact suppression, the signals were low 291 pass filtered with an FIR filter (cutoff frequency 50 Hz) and re-referenced to common average. 292 Signal power spectra was computed with a multi-taper fft based approach using Chronux toolbox

[77]. To quantify the change induced by stimulation, modulation index was computed as

Modulation Index = 
$$\frac{(S_e - S_b)}{(\overline{S}_e + \overline{S}_b)}$$

- 295 Where  $\overline{S}_e$  and  $\overline{S}_b$  are average power in specified frequency band in specific epoch (task,
- encoding or retention) and baseline epoch respectively. The baseline epoch was defined as 5
- second interval before the beginning of encoding epoch.
- 298 Time-frequency representations were computed by convolving Morlet wavelets with the time
- series of each trial. Event related spectral perturbation was calculated as

$$ERSP = 10log_{10}(\frac{S_e}{\overline{S}_b})$$

- Where  $S_e$  is the spectra at each time point within an epoch and  $\overline{S}_b$  is the average power in the baseline epoch.
- 303 Statistics
- All statistical analyses were performed using R. Linear mixed effects models were fitted using the
   Imertest package [78] which uses Satterthwaite's approximation to degrees of freedom to
   determine the F statistics of the fixed effects.

307 For the effect of list length on reaction times, we fitted a linear model with reaction time as 308 dependent variable and list length as the factor for each participant separately. For the effect of list 309 length on modulation indices, we fitted linear mixed model with modulation index as the dependent 310 variable and list length as the fixed factor and participant and electrodes as nested random 311 factors. To study the effect of stimulation on reaction time, we fitted a linear mixed model with 312 reaction time as dependent variable and stimulation as fixed factors and participant as the random 313 factor. As post hoc analysis we performed a two-sample t-test to compare the difference between 314 reaction times during sham and stimulation trials for each participant. To study the effect of 315 stimulation on modulation index, we fitted linear mixed models with modulation index as 316 dependent variable, stimulation as fixed factor and electrodes and participants as nested random 317 factors and also with modulation index as dependent variable and list length (3 levels) and 318 stimulation regions (3 levels - sham, frontal region, temporal region) as fixed factors and 319 electrodes as a random factor. As post-hoc analysis, we performed paired t-tests.

320 Extraction of Electrode Location from Neuroimaging Data

321 3D Slicer [79] was used to analyze and extract electrode locations from CT images obtained after 322 implantation of subdural electrodes. The post-operative MRI was co-registered to post-operative CT 323 in Slicer followed by registering to standard MNI atlas [80]. Skull stripping was performed using 324 ROBEX [81], and the gray matter and white matter were then segmented using ITK-Snap [82]. The 325 surface model of the MNI atlas brain was generated using Slicer and used for visualization 326 purposes. The anatomical locations of the electrodes were determined by co-registering the MRI 327 Image to the MNI Atlas [83], recomputing electrode locations in the MNI space, transforming these 328 locations to Talairach space, and using the Talairach Client [84] to obtain the label of the gray matter 329 nearest to the coordinate representing electrode location.

330

### 331 Acknowledgments

The authors thank the members of the Frohlich Lab for their valuable input, with special thanks to Sangtae Ahn for verifying the accuracy of the codes used for analysis and providing valuable feedback on the manuscript. The authors also thank the EEG technicians at the UNC Epilepsy monitoring unit for their generous help with the ECoG recordings.

336

### 337 Funding

338 Research reported in this publication was supported in part by the National Institute of Mental Health 339 of the National Institutes of Health under Award Numbers R01MH101547 and R21MH105557, 340 National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke of the National Institutes of Health under 341 award number R21NS094988-01A1, Translational Team Science Award (TTSA) with funding 342 provided by the UNC School of Medicine and the National Center for Advancing Translational 343 Sciences (NCATS), National Institutes of Health, through Grant Award Number UL1TR001111, 344 Helen Lyng White Postdoctoral Fellowship (S.A.) and Swiss National Science Foundation (grant 345 P300PA\_164693; C.L.). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not 346 necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.

347

### 348 Supplementary Figures



**Figure S1:** An example illustrating performance of ICA based artifact suppression algorithm. (A) Raw signal from channels adjacent to stimulation channels before artifact suppression (B) Signal after removal of stimulation artifacts. Visually, the artifact has been reduced to noise level. (C) Trace from a single channel highlighting the suppression of artifact waveform (D) Power spectra computed from the signal shown in (C) before and artifact suppression.

350

349

## 351 Bibliography

- 3521.Unsworth, N., et al., Working memory and fluid intelligence: capacity, attention353control, and secondary memory retrieval. Cogn Psychol, 2014. 71: p. 1-26.
- Ackerman, P.L., M.E. Beier, and M.O. Boyle, *Working memory and intelligence: the same or different constructs?* Psychol Bull, 2005. **131**(1): p. 30-60.
- 356 3. Forbes, N.F., et al., *Working memory in schizophrenia: a meta-analysis.* Psychol Med, 2009. **39**(6): p. 889-905.
- Campo, P., et al., Network reconfiguration and working memory impairment in mesial temporal lobe epilepsy. Neuroimage, 2013. **72**: p. 48-54.
- 3605.Lee, J. and S. Park, Working memory impairments in schizophrenia: a meta-<br/>analysis. J Abnorm Psychol, 2005. **114**(4): p. 599-611.
- Snyder, H.R., Major Depressive Disorder Is Associated With Broad Impairments on Neuropsychological Measures of Executive Function: A Meta-Analysis and Review.
  Psychological Bulletin, 2013. 139(1): p. 81-132.
- 365 7. Uhlhaas, P.J. and W. Singer, Neuronal dynamics and neuropsychiatric disorders:
  366 toward a translational paradigm for dysfunctional large-scale networks. Neuron,
  367 2012. **75**(6): p. 963-80.
- Braver, T.S., et al., A parametric study of prefrontal cortex involvement in human
  working memory. Neuroimage, 1997. 5(1): p. 49-62.
- Awh, E., E.E. Smith, and J. Jonides, *Human rehearsal processes and the frontal lobes: PET evidence.* Structure and Functions of the Human Prefrontal Cortex,
   1995. **769**: p. 97-117.
- 373 10. Cornette, L., et al., *The neural substrate of orientation working memory.* Journal of
  374 Cognitive Neuroscience, 2001. **13**(6): p. 813-828.
- Wager, T.D. and E.E. Smith, *Neuroimaging studies of working memory: a meta- analysis.* Cogn Affect Behav Neurosci, 2003. 3(4): p. 255-74.
- D'Esposito, M., From cognitive to neural models of working memory. Philos Trans
  R Soc Lond B Biol Sci, 2007. 362(1481): p. 761-72.
- 379 13. Ranganath, C., et al., Inferior temporal, prefrontal, and hippocampal contributions
  380 to visual working memory maintenance and associative memory retrieval. J
  381 Neurosci, 2004. 24(16): p. 3917-25.
- 382 14. Curtis, C.E., *Prefrontal and parietal contributions to spatial working memory.*383 Neuroscience, 2006. **139**(1): p. 173-80.
- 384 15. Curtis, C.E. and M. D'Esposito, *Persistent activity in the prefrontal cortex during* 385 *working memory.* Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 2003. 7(9): p. 415-423.
- du Boisgueheneuc, F., et al., *Functions of the left superior frontal gyrus in humans: a lesion study.* Brain, 2006. **129**(Pt 12): p. 3315-28.
- Krause, C.M., et al., *The effects of memory load on event-related EEG desynchronization and synchronization.* Clin Neurophysiol, 2000. **111**(11): p. 2071 8.
- Hsieh, L.T. and C. Ranganath, *Frontal midline theta oscillations during working memory maintenance and episodic encoding and retrieval.* Neuroimage, 2014. 85
  Pt 2: p. 721-9.
- Jensen, O., et al., Oscillations in the alpha band (9-12 Hz) increase with memory
  load during retention in a short-term memory task. Cereb Cortex, 2002. 12(8): p.
  877-82.
- 397 20. Tesche, C.D. and J. Karhu, *Theta oscillations index human hippocampal activation during a working memory task.* Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2000. **97**(2): p. 919-24.
- 399 21. Gevins, A., et al., *High-resolution EEG mapping of cortical activation related to* 400 *working memory: effects of task difficulty, type of processing, and practice.* Cereb
   401 Cortex, 1997. 7(4): p. 374-85.

- 402 22. Mottaghy, F.M., et al., *Segregation of areas related to visual working memory in the* 403 *prefrontal cortex revealed by rTMS.* Cerebral Cortex, 2002. **12**(4): p. 369-375.
- 404 23. Oliveri, M., et al., Parieto-frontal interactions in visual-object and visual-spatial
  405 working memory: evidence from transcranial magnetic stimulation. Cereb Cortex,
  406 2001. 11(7): p. 606-18.
- 407 24. Polania, R., et al., *The importance of timing in segregated theta phase-coupling for cognitive performance.* Curr Biol, 2012. **22**(14): p. 1314-8.
- 409 25. Jausovec, N., K. Jausovec, and A. Pahor, *The influence of theta transcranial*410 *alternating current stimulation (tACS) on working memory storage and processing*411 *functions.* Acta Psychol (Amst), 2014. **146**: p. 1-6.
- 412 26. Vosskuhl, J., R.J. Huster, and C.S. Herrmann, *Increase in short-term memory*413 *capacity induced by down-regulating individual theta frequency via transcranial*414 *alternating current stimulation.* Front Hum Neurosci, 2015. **9**: p. 257.
- 415 27. Violante, I.R., et al., *Externally induced frontoparietal synchronization modulates* 416 *network dynamics and enhances working memory performance.* Elife, 2017. **6**.
- 417 28. Borchers, S., et al., *Direct electrical stimulation of human cortex the gold standard* 418 *for mapping brain functions?* Nat Rev Neurosci, 2012. **13**(1): p. 63-70.
- 419 29. Kim, K., A.D. Ekstrom, and N. Tandon, A network approach for modulating memory
  420 processes via direct and indirect brain stimulation: Toward a causal approach for
  421 the neural basis of memory. Neurobiol Learn Mem, 2016.
- 422 30. Suthana, N. and I. Fried, *Deep brain stimulation for enhancement of learning and* 423 *memory.* Neuroimage, 2014. **85 Pt 3**: p. 996-1002.
- 424 31. Suthana, N., et al., *Memory enhancement and deep-brain stimulation of the* 425 *entorhinal area.* N Engl J Med, 2012. **366**(6): p. 502-10.
- 426 32. Kucewicz, M.T., et al., *Evidence for verbal memory enhancement with electrical* 427 *brain stimulation in the lateral temporal cortex.* Brain, 2018.
- 428 33. Alagapan, S., et al., *Modulation of Cortical Oscillations by Low-Frequency Direct*429 *Cortical Stimulation Is State-Dependent.* PLoS Biol, 2016. 14(3): p. e1002424.
- 430 34. Raghavachari, S., et al., *Gating of human theta oscillations by a working memory*431 *task.* J Neurosci, 2001. **21**(9): p. 3175-83.
- 432 35. Meltzer, J.A., et al., *Effects of working memory load on oscillatory power in human*433 *intracranial EEG.* Cereb Cortex, 2008. **18**(8): p. 1843-55.
- 434 36. Jensen, O. and C.D. Tesche, *Frontal theta activity in humans increases with*435 *memory load in a working memory task.* Eur J Neurosci, 2002. **15**(8): p. 1395-9.
- 436 37. Owen, A.M., et al., *N-back working memory paradigm: a meta-analysis of*437 *normative functional neuroimaging studies.* Hum Brain Mapp, 2005. 25(1): p. 46438 59.
- 439 38. D'Esposito, M. and B.R. Postle, *The cognitive neuroscience of working memory.*440 Annu Rev Psychol, 2015. **66**: p. 115-42.
- 441 39. Rypma, B., et al., *Load-dependent roles of frontal brain regions in the maintenance of working memory.* Neuroimage, 1999. **9**(2): p. 216-26.
- 443 40. Harms, M.P., et al., Structure-function relationship of working memory activity with
  444 hippocampal and prefrontal cortex volumes. Brain Struct Funct, 2013. 218(1): p.
  445 173-86.
- 446 41. Li, W., et al., Subregions of the human superior frontal gyrus and their connections.
  447 Neuroimage, 2013. **78**: p. 46-58.
- 448 42. Cole, M.W. and W. Schneider, *The cognitive control network: Integrated cortical* 449 *regions with dissociable functions.* Neuroimage, 2007. **37**(1): p. 343-60.
- 43. Harding, I.H., et al., *Effective connectivity within the frontoparietal control network*451 *differentiates cognitive control and working memory.* Neuroimage, 2015. **106**: p.
  452 144-53.

- 453 44. Engle, R.W. and M.J. Kane, *Executive attention, working memory capacity, and a*454 *two-factor theory of cognitive control.* Psychology of Learning and Motivation:
  455 Advances in Research and Theory, Vol 44, 2004. 44: p. 145-199.
- 456 45. Jensen, O. and J.E. Lisman, *An oscillatory short-term memory buffer model can* 457 *account for data on the Sternberg task.* J Neurosci, 1998. **18**(24): p. 10688-99.
- 458 46. Sauseng, P., et al., *Brain oscillatory substrates of visual short-term memory* 459 *capacity.* Curr Biol, 2009. **19**(21): p. 1846-52.
- 460 47. Mitchell, D.J., et al., *Frontal-midline theta from the perspective of hippocampal*461 *"theta".* Prog Neurobiol, 2008. **86**(3): p. 156-85.
- 462 48. Fell, J., et al., *Memory modulation by weak synchronous deep brain stimulation: a* 463 *pilot study.* Brain Stimul, 2013. **6**(3): p. 270-3.
- 464 49. Lacruz, M.E., et al., Single pulse electrical stimulation of the hippocampus is
  465 sufficient to impair human episodic memory. Neuroscience, 2010. **170**(2): p. 623466 32.
- 46750.Coleshill, S.G., et al., Material-specific recognition memory deficits elicited by468unilateral hippocampal electrical stimulation. J Neurosci, 2004. 24(7): p. 1612-6.
- 469 51. Jacobs, J., et al., Direct Electrical Stimulation of the Human Entorhinal Region and
  470 Hippocampus Impairs Memory. Neuron, 2016. 92(5): p. 983-990.
- 471 52. Koubeissi, M.Z., et al., *Low-frequency electrical stimulation of a fiber tract in temporal lobe epilepsy.* Ann Neurol, 2013. **74**(2): p. 223-31.
- 473 53. Miller, J.P., et al., *Visual-spatial memory may be enhanced with theta burst deep*474 *brain stimulation of the fornix: a preliminary investigation with four cases.* Brain,
  475 2015. **138**(Pt 7): p. 1833-42.
- 476 54. Luber, B., et al., *Facilitation of performance in a working memory task with rTMS*477 *stimulation of the precuneus: Frequency- and time-dependent effects.* Brain
  478 Research, 2007. **1128**(1): p. 120-129.
- 479 55. Guse, B., et al., The effect of long-term high frequency repetitive transcranial
  480 magnetic stimulation on working memory in schizophrenia and healthy controls--a
  481 randomized placebo-controlled, double-blind fMRI study. Behav Brain Res, 2013.
  482 237: p. 300-7.
- 483 56. Bagherzadeh, Y., et al., *Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of the*484 *dorsolateral prefrontal cortex enhances working memory.* Exp Brain Res, 2016.
  485 234(7): p. 1807-18.
- 486 57. Blumenfeld, R.S., T.G. Lee, and M. D'Esposito, *The effects of lateral prefrontal*487 *transcranial magnetic stimulation on item memory encoding.* Neuropsychologia,
  488 2014. 53: p. 197-202.
- 489 58. Esslinger, C., et al., Induction and Quantification of Prefrontal Cortical Network
  490 Plasticity Using 5 Hz rTMS and fMRI. Human Brain Mapping, 2014. 35(1): p. 140491 151.
- 492 59. Yamanaka, K., et al., Effect of parietal transcranial magnetic stimulation on spatial
  493 working memory in healthy elderly persons--comparison of near infrared
  494 spectroscopy for young and elderly. PLoS One, 2014. **9**(7): p. e102306.
- 495 60. Yamanaka, K., et al., *Transcranial magnetic stimulation of the parietal cortex*496 *facilitates spatial working memory: near-infrared spectroscopy study.* Cereb Cortex,
  497 2010. **20**(5): p. 1037-45.
- Hoy, K.E., et al., Enhancement of Working Memory and Task-Related Oscillatory
   Activity Following Intermittent Theta Burst Stimulation in Healthy Controls. Cereb
   Cortex, 2016. 26(12): p. 4563-4573.
- 501 62. Postle, B.R., et al., *Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation dissociates working*502 *memory manipulation from retention functions in the prefrontal, but not posterior*503 *parietal, cortex.* J Cogn Neurosci, 2006. **18**(10): p. 1712-22.

504 63. Osaka, N., et al., Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) applied to left 505 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex disrupts verbal working memory performance in humans. Neurosci Lett, 2007. 418(3): p. 232-5. 506 507 64. Gagnon, G., et al., Paired-pulse transcranial magnetic stimulation over the 508 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex interferes with episodic encoding and retrieval for 509 both verbal and non-verbal materials. Brain Res, 2010. 1344: p. 148-58. 510 65. Mottaghy, F.M., Interfering with working memory in humans. Neuroscience, 2006. 511 **139**(1): p. 85-90. 512 Albouy, P., et al., Selective Entrainment of Theta Oscillations in the Dorsal Stream 66. 513 Causally Enhances Auditory Working Memory Performance. Neuron, 2017. 514 67. Thut, G., P.G. Schyns, and J. Gross, Entrainment of perceptually relevant brain 515 oscillations by non-invasive rhythmic stimulation of the human brain. Front Psychol, 516 2011. **2**: p. 170. 517 68. Helfrich, R.F., et al., Entrainment of brain oscillations by transcranial alternating 518 current stimulation. Curr Biol, 2014. 24(3): p. 333-9. 519 69. Li, G., C.S. Henriquez, and F. Frohlich, Unified thalamic model generates multiple 520 distinct oscillations with state-dependent entrainment by stimulation. PLoS Comput 521 Biol, 2017. 13(10): p. e1005797. 522 70. Kim, K., et al., Network-based brain stimulation selectively impairs spatial retrieval. 523 Brain Stimul, 2018. 11(1): p. 213-221. 524 71. Ezzyat, Y., et al., Direct Brain Stimulation Modulates Encoding States and Memory 525 Performance in Humans. Curr Biol, 2017. 27(9): p. 1251-1258. 526 72. Ezzyat, Y., et al., Closed-loop stimulation of temporal cortex rescues functional 527 networks and improves memory. Nat Commun, 2018. 9(1): p. 365. 528 73. Raghavachari, S., et al., Theta oscillations in human cortex during a working-529 memory task: evidence for local generators. J Neurophysiol, 2006. 95(3): p. 1630-530 8. 531 74. Brainard, D.H., The Psychophysics Toolbox. Spat Vis, 1997. 10(4): p. 433-6. 532 75. Lee, T.W., et al., A unifying information-theoretic framework for independent 533 component analysis. Computers & Mathematics with Applications, 2000. 39(11): p. 534 1-21. 535 76. Delorme, A. and S. Makeig, EEGLAB: an open source toolbox for analysis of 536 single-trial EEG dynamics including independent component analysis. J Neurosci 537 Methods, 2004. **134**(1): p. 9-21. 538 77. Bokil, H., et al., Chronux: a platform for analyzing neural signals. J Neurosci 539 Methods, 2010. **192**(1): p. 146-51. 540 Kuznetsova, A., P.B. Brockhoff, and R.H.B. Christensen, ImerTest Package: Tests 78. 541 in Linear Mixed Effects Models. Journal of Statistical Software, 2017. 82(13): p. 1-542 26. 543 79. Fedorov, A., et al., 3D Slicer as an image computing platform for the Quantitative 544 Imaging Network. Magn Reson Imaging, 2012. 30(9): p. 1323-41. 545 80. Fonov, V.S., et al., Unbiased nonlinear average age-appropriate brain templates 546 from birth to adulthood. NeuroImage, 2009. 47, Supplement 1: p. S102. 547 81. Iglesias, J.E., et al., Robust brain extraction across datasets and comparison with 548 publicly available methods. IEEE Trans Med Imaging, 2011. **30**(9): p. 1617-34. 549 82. Yushkevich, P.A., et al., User-guided 3D active contour segmentation of anatomical 550 structures: significantly improved efficiency and reliability. Neuroimage, 2006. 551 **31**(3): p. 1116-28. 552 83. Fonov, V., et al., Unbiased average age-appropriate atlases for pediatric studies. 553 Neuroimage, 2011. 54(1): p. 313-27. 554 84. Lancaster, J.L., et al., Automated Talairach atlas labels for functional brain 555 mapping. Hum Brain Mapp, 2000. 10(3): p. 120-31.