TITLE: Differentiating the functional contributions of resting connectivity networks to memory decision-making: fMRI support for multi-stage control processes.

RUNNING TITLE: Differentiating connectivity networks in memory control

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS: This work was supported by the Scottish Imaging Network: A Platform for Scientific Excellence (SINAPSE), who provided a PhD studentship to Ravi D. Mill.

Abstract

Neural substrates of memory control are engaged when participants encounter unexpected mnemonic stimuli (e.g. a *new* word when told to expect an *old* word). The present fMRI study ($n=18$) employed the likelihood cueing recognition task to elucidate the role of functional connectivity (fcMRI) networks in supporting memory control processes engaged by these unexpected events. Conventional task-evoked BOLD analyses recovered a memory control network similar to that previously reported, comprising medial prefrontal, lateral prefrontal and inferior parietal regions. These were split by their differential affiliation to distinct fcMRI networks ('conflict detection' and 'confirmatory retrieval' networks). Subsequent region-of-interest (ROI) analyses clarified the functional significance of this connectivity differentiation, with 'conflict' network-affiliated regions specifically sensitive to cue strength but not response confidence, and 'retrieval' network-affiliated regions showing the opposite pattern. BOLD timecourse analyses corroborated the segregation of memory control regions into 'early' conflict detection, and 'late' retrieval analysis, with both processes underlying the allocation of memory control. Response specificity and timecourse findings generalized beyond task-recruited ROIs to clusters within the large-scale fcMRI networks, suggesting that this connectivity architecture could underlie efficient processing of distinct processes within cognitive tasks. The findings raise important parallels between prevailing theories of memory and cognitive control.

KEYWORDS: Decision making, Functional MRI, Memory: Declarative/Explicit

Introduction

Cognitive control enables flexible and adaptive memory use (Johnson, Hashtroudi & Lindsay, 1993) and is preferentially heightened when expectations of encountering *old* or *new* stimuli are not met in the environment. In support of this, a recent fMRI study manipulated memory expectation and content by providing participants with Posner-like anticipatory cues (e.g. “likely old”; Posner, Snyder & Davidson, 1980) that were mostly valid in predicting the mnemonic status of ensuing test probes (O’Connor, Han & Dobbins, 2010). Using this ‘likelihood cueing’ paradigm, the authors found that brain regions previously linked with the recovery of content for *old* probes (‘retrieval success’; Vilberg & Rugg, 2008) showed greater activation when participants correctly rejected invalid cues relative to correctly endorsing valid ones. This ‘invalid cueing’ effect prominently recruited prefrontal and parietal brain regions, and occurred for both *old* and *new* probes. O’Connor et al.’s findings contribute to growing research scrutinising the dedicated neural system underlying the engagement of memory control. However, the precise control sub-processes mediated by this neural system, as well as how these sub-processes interact with core retrieval processes in reaching a final memory decision, are in need of further elucidation.

The likelihood cueing paradigm is uniquely suited to address the above aims, as it operationalizes memory control mechanisms that are left unconstrained in standard single item recognition. Control demands are reliably heightened in invalid cue trials, given the need to resolve the response conflict between the cued expectation and the probe-provoked memory analysis. Indeed, the prefrontal and parietal regions of the invalid cueing network identified in the O’Connor et al. paper have been repeatedly linked with the resolution of response conflict in fMRI studies in non-episodic tasks, including medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC; Ridderinkhof, Ullsperger, Crone & Nieuwenhuis, 2004), lateral prefrontal cortex (LPFC; Koechlin, Ody & Kouneiher, 2003) and inferior parietal lobule (IPL; Bunge, Dudukovic, Thomason, Vaidya & Gabrieli, 2002). Activation in these

regions is often elevated in parallel (Botvinick, Braver, Barch, Carter & Cohen, 2001; Kerns et al., 2004) yet the potential for each to mediate different control sub-processes has been conjectured (Miller & Cohen, 2001; Ridderinkhof et al., 2004). One prominent account posits the need for two controlled processes to resolve response conflict: the initial detection of conflict followed by the allocation of control (Botvinick et al., 2001). However, direct fMRI evidence for regional differentiation amongst these two functions has been mixed (Brass & von Cramon, 2002; cf. Macdonald, Cohen, Stenger & Crone, 2000).

The equivocation in the fMRI control literature is contrary to the considerable electrophysiological evidence favouring a two-process control framework. A number of event-related potentials (ERPs) have been linked with aspects of control, including the P300 (detection of unexpected stimuli; Sutton et al., 1965) and the N200 (pre-response conflict; Näätänen & Gaillard, 1983), which are maximal at frontal and parietal electrode sites. Conjunct elicitation of these ERPs, such as the N2-P3 complex (Squires, Wickens, Squires & Donchin, 1976), and their distinct spatio-temporal sub-components, such as the early frontal N2b/P3a and later parietal N2c/P3b (Suwazono, Machado & Knight, 2000), highlight the enmeshed nature of these ERP correlates of control. These 'early' and 'late' ERPs putatively map onto the conflict detection and control allocation processes implicated in the resolution of response conflict (Polich, 2007). Nevertheless, the potential involvement of these processes in the resolution of mnemonic conflict as induced by expectancy violations in the likelihood cueing paradigm has yet to be investigated.

Further, the distributed topographies of ERPs underpinning the proposed two processes of conflict resolution highlight a limitation of fMRI studies of control in both memory and non-memory domains. fMRI attempts at ascribing more specific control functions to fronto-parietal regions have been hampered by a predominant reliance on task-evoked analytic methods that summarize activation changes in isolated brain regions. Such approaches obliquely support a 'modular' view

of cognition and, concordant with a wider transition towards a 'network' view (Raichle, 2010), a greater emphasis on functional connectivity analyses might prove fruitful in refining neural models of control. Indeed, the distinct patterns of anatomical interconnectivity between sub-regions of mPFC and LPFC (Petrides & Pandya, 1999), and between LPFC and IPL (Cavada & Goldman-Rakic, 1989), suggest that control sub-processes might arise from the dynamics of large-scale networks in which these cortical regions are nested, rather than from isolated activation changes.

In this regard, analyses of functional connectivity in the resting-state (fcMRI) have already proved useful in formalizing brain networks underpinning memory and control processes. By computing the spontaneous BOLD correlations amongst brain voxels while subjects were at rest (fcMRI), a number of studies have outlined a convergent network of prefrontal and parietal regions that elevate when on-task control demands increase (Nelson et al., 2010; Vincent, Kahn, Snyder, Raichle & Buckner, 2008; Yeo et al., 2011). This 'conflict detection' network (also termed the 'fronto-parietal control' network) has been distinguished from another fcMRI network comprising distinct prefrontal, parietal and medial temporal lobe regions that is more directly involved in retrieval (also termed the 'hippocampo-cortical' network, and referred to hereafter as a 'confirmatory retrieval' network; Nelson et al., 2010; Vincent et al., 2006; Yeo et al., 2011). Indeed, previous variants of the likelihood cueing paradigm have highlighted the selective connectivity of particular invalid cueing regions to similar 'conflict' and 'retrieval' networks (O'Connor et al., 2010). It is the aim of the present experiment to interrogate the precise functional significance of this differential network affiliation amongst invalid cueing regions, and its correspondence with the previously described detection/allocation framework implicated in the resolution of response conflict. Such clarification would not only aid our understanding of task-evoked memory control activations, but also yield reciprocal insight into the properties of the large-scale resting-state networks from which these activations emerge.

We hence adopted a multi-analytic approach, wherein analyses of task-evoked amplitudes and regional timecourses were complemented by analyses of resting-state functional connectivity. To enable a more precise elucidation of task-evoked activations, we incorporated two novel manipulations to the likelihood cueing paradigm: cue strength and response confidence. Firstly, cue strength was varied by the presentation of ‘strong’ old-worded (“likely old” and “unlikely old”) and ‘weak’ new-worded cues (“unlikely new” and “likely new”). Prior evidence suggests that old-worded cues instil stronger expectations than new-worded ones, even when both cue types are equally valid in predicting probe status (Dobbins, Jaeger, Studer & Simons, 2012). Given that cues in the Dobbins et al. (2012) study were only of the type “likely new” or “likely old”, we instantiated a more rigorous test of the relationship between cue wording and resultant expectation in an independent behavioural study involving both “likely” and “unlikely” variants of the old- and new-worded cues (see Results). The behavioural study validated our cue strength assumptions for the fMRI study, which held that invalid cueing regions also sensitive to cue strength are ideally disposed for the ‘early’ detection of mnemonic expectation violations, given their unique access to cued expectations at the time to-be-judged probes appears. Secondly, we solicited response confidence to identify invalid cueing regions sensitive to confirmatory retrieval processes engaged after the expectancy violation has been detected. Correct invalid cueing decisions rendered with high confidence are likely to reflect the satisfactory result of controlled memory processing undertaken subsequent to an expectancy violation, as supported by prior links between high confidence and successful memory processing (Kim & Cabeza, 2007). These task manipulations aided the segregation of the invalid cueing network into regions affiliated with broader ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ networks.

Materials and Methods

Participants: Eighteen right-handed, native English-speaking participants (12 women; age 19-24 years) were included in the main analysis. Two additional participants were excluded due to (i) technical difficulties during fMRI data acquisition and (ii) failure to complete all experimental runs. Two participants did not use the low confidence response option as instructed and were excluded from the confidence analyses (one gave 100% and the other 99% high confidence responses). Informed consent was obtained in a manner approved by the University Teaching and Research Ethics Committee at the University of St Andrews, and the Tayside Committee on Medical Research Ethics, Ninewells Hospital and Medical School.

Stimuli and Procedures: Participants first underwent structural scans and completed practice versions of the experimental tasks. This was followed by two resting scans either side of four on-task scans, comprising one run of a standard single-item recognition task and three runs of a likelihood cueing recognition task. For the unscanned study phase of the single-item recognition run, participants counted the syllables of 56 words (see Figure 1). The scanned test phase followed immediately, and participants rated 112 word probes (56 studied *old* probes and 56 *new* probes) as “old” or “new” and gave their confidence in this judgement (“high” or “low”) with a single response. This run merely acted to familiarize participants with the recognition task before cues were introduced and is not analysed further.

The cued runs used a variation of the likelihood cueing task in which participants make recognition judgements for single word probes presented alongside cues to their likely mnemonic status (see O'Connor et al, 2010). The study phase procedure was identical to that used in the single-item recognition run. In the ensuing scanned test phase, each probe was preceded by a cue which suggested that the probe was either “old” (“likely old” or “unlikely new”) or “new” (“likely new” or “unlikely old”) with an accuracy of 75%. Cue-probe jitter ranged from 0.5s to 4.5s in increments of 0.66s. Participants were fully informed of the cue accuracy probabilities, but were not instructed

as to which cues were likely strong or weak. Response mappings were made using a four-button response box. For each participant, a different set of words was randomly drawn from a pool of 2001 singular, common nouns from the English Lexicon Project (minimum log Hyperspace Analogue to Language frequency: 8.02; Balota et al., 2007).

----- FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE -----

fMRI Acquisition and Preprocessing: Scanning was performed on a 3T Siemens Trio whole-body MRI scanner (Siemens Medical Solutions, Erlangen, Germany) using a standard 12 channel receive-only whole-head coil. On-task functional data were acquired using a descending echo-planar pulse sequence (TR = 2000ms, TE = 30ms, 90 degree flip angle, 35 axial slices parallel to the AC-PC plane with 3.5 x 3.5 x 4mm voxels, no inter-slice gap). Head motion was minimized using foam padding. The two resting-state scans were carried out with participants fixating on a cross for the duration of each 6 minute session. fMRI images were acquired using a sequence with parameters identical to the on-task functional sequence. All BOLD data were processed with SPM8 (Wellcome Department of Imaging Neuroscience, London). Slice acquisition timing correction was carried out by temporally resampling relative to the middle slice collected, followed by rigid body motion correction. Functional volumes were then spatially normalized to a canonical echo-planar template using 12-parameter affine and cosine basis transformations, and resampled to 3mm isotropic voxels. Volumes were then spatially smoothed with a 6mm Gaussian kernel.

fMRI Task-Evoked Amplitude Summary Analysis: The amplitude summary analysis is the traditional method of rapid event-related fMRI analysis in which participants are treated as a random effect and volumes as a temporally correlated time series. Summary amplitudes were modelled by convolving a canonical haemodynamic response function with a series of delta functions marking the onset of each condition of interest. Cues were modelled as 0s duration events and memory

probes were modelled as 3s duration epochs from their respective onsets. Incorrect responses were grouped into a single variable of no interest and not further considered. The β parameter estimates of the best-fitting canonical hemodynamic response function for each condition were used in pairwise contrasts and stored as a separate image for each participant. These contrast images were tested against the null hypothesis of no difference between contrast conditions using one-tailed, repeated measures t -tests. The initial whole-brain invalid cueing contrast (invalid > validly cued probes) was thresholded at $p < .001$ (uncorrected) for 5 contiguous voxels; a typical threshold for recognition memory research. This contrast collapsed across cue strength and disregarded response confidence (high and low confidence correct responses were modelled together, and incorrect responses as a variable of no interest), meaning that the general effects of invalid cueing were unbiased with respect to cue strength and response confidence. The sensitivity of invalid cueing regions to these latter manipulations was then explored in ROIs inclusive to both the task-evoked invalid cueing effect and the functional connectivity analyses described below.

fcMRI Resting-State Connectivity Analyses: Resting-state functional connectivity (fcMRI) was examined by entering timecourses extracted from 8mm diameter seed ROIs (using the MARSBAR toolbox for SPM8; Brett, Anton, Valabregue & Poline, 2002) as covariates of interest alongside 18 sources of nonspecific variance (six movement parameters; signal from spheres in the left lateral ventricle, in left hemisphere deep cerebral white matter and averaged across the whole brain; and the nine first derivatives of these covariates) in a general linear model. Seeds used to recover the ‘conflict detection’ and ‘confirmatory retrieval’ networks were centred on posterior and anterior maxima from the invalid cueing contrast, as in O’Connor et al (2010)¹. The ‘conflict’ network used

¹Prior research supports this anterior/posterior seed choice within mPFC, given similar differentiations between these mPFC sub-regions observed in independent studies of comparable retrieval and control networks (e.g. Vincent et al., 2008; Yeo et al., 2011); the reported relationship between task-evoked activation in posterior and anterior mPFC regions with conflict detection (e.g. Ridderinkhof et al., 2004) and retrieval processing (e.g. Cabeza & St Jacques, 2007) respectively; and the differential anatomical

the most posterior mPFC maximum ([0, 23, 52] in MNI space; BA8) whereas the ‘retrieval’ network used the most anterior mPFC maximum ([3, 53, 43] in MNI space; BA9). fcMRI analyses were collapsed across pre- and post-task connectivity runs after model-free principal component analyses failed to find any differences across these runs. Resulting maps were thresholded identically to the on-task data and depict areas whose activation reliably covaries with the seed region, on a scan-by-scan basis, after nonspecific effects have been controlled. We also conducted analyses of amplitude and timecourse properties of aggregated clusters within each fcMRI network, which are detailed in the ‘network-level cluster analyses’ section of the Results.

Online Behavioural Validation Study: An online study was conducted in an independent sample of 202 participants (138 women, 62 men, 2 did not report sex; age range 18-70, mean 29.7 years, 4 did not report age) to validate the manipulation of cue strength by cue wording. This was conducted over the same period as the fMRI study, with informed consent procedures approved by the University Teaching and Research Ethics Committee at the University of St Andrews.

The online study comprised a single modified run of the likelihood cueing task used in the fMRI study. It was coded in JavaScript and presented to participants via their internet browsers. In the study phase, participants counted the syllables of 60 words. The test phase followed immediately, in which a cue preceded each of 120 word probes (60 *old* and 60 *new*) by 1s. The cues were “likely old”, “unlikely new”, “likely new”, “unlikely old” and a neutral cue (“?”) and were presented with equal frequency. In all cases, cues were random and not predictive of the mnemonic status of the ensuing probe. Participants were not explicitly informed that the cues were uninformative, and were instructed to “use this advice to help you make your mind up about whether or not you recognize each word”. At test, they judged the mnemonic status of the probes and the confidence

connectivity of anterior mPFC with retrieval-linked medial temporal lobe regions (Petrides & Pandya, 2007) and posterior mPFC with attention- and conflict-linked frontal, parietal and occipital regions (Petrides & Pandya, 1994).

in this judgement (“sure old”, “probably old”, “guess old”, “guess new”, “probably new”, “sure new”). Responses were self-paced and made using the mouse.

The aim of the online study was to verify whether old-worded cues (“likely old” and “unlikely old”) led to stronger expectations than equivalent new-worded ones (“unlikely new” and “likely new”). Strength of expectation was assessed via response bias ‘ c ’ estimated from the equal variance signal detection model (corrected for errorless responding; Snodgrass & Corwin, 1988; Macmillan & Creelman, 2005). Greater deviations in c from 0 indicate greater bias, with sign denoting its direction, such that negative c values reflect a greater bias towards responding “old”. To isolate the effects of cue wording on c , the validity manipulation was removed in the online study i.e. cue validity was set at chance 50% levels for all cue types. This modification was important in validating inferences of cue strength in the fMRI experiment, which were based *solely* on cue wording and the associated ease of constructing cues to aid recognition responding. Evidence that cue wording led to differing degrees of bias even when all cues were as uninformative as each other would provide clear evidence of the hypothesised relationship between cue wording and strength. Additionally, a neutral cue (‘???’) was included to measure the cue-driven shift in expectation from an appropriate baseline (given that criterion placement in the neutral cue condition captured any uncontrolled sources of bias that varied between subjects). The strength of cued expectation was hence calculated as the *absolute* deviation in criterion placement in each cue condition from that observed in the neutral “???” condition (i.e. adjusted bias for “likely old” and “unlikely new” cues was calculated as neutral c minus cued c , adjusted bias for “unlikely old” and “likely new” cues was cued c minus neutral c).

Results

Behavioural Validation of Manipulations

Invalid Cueing. Table 1 provides a summary of all ensuing results sections. We first confirmed that participants in the fMRI study were incorporating cues into their memory evaluations. A 2 (mnemonic status: *old* or *new*) x 2 (cue validity: valid or invalid) repeated measures ANOVA was conducted on accuracy (see Figure 2A). There were significant main effects of cue validity, $F(1,17) = 44.16, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .722$, and mnemonic status, $F(1,17) = 5.65, p = .029, \eta_p^2 = .250$, such that valid cues led to greater accuracy than invalidly cues (valid $M = .79, SD = .06$; invalid $M = .57, SD = .12$), and *old* probes led to greater accuracy than *new* probes (*old* $M = .72, SD = .13$; *new* $M = .64, SD = .06$). A significant interaction suggests that invalid cueing reduces accuracy for *new* probes more than *old* probes, $F(1,17) = 11.50, p = .003, \eta_p^2 = .404$. Similar item-wise asymmetries in behavioural cueing effects have been reported previously (Jaeger, Cox & Dobbins, 2012). Despite the interaction, post-hoc t-tests recovered invalid cueing effects on accuracy for both *old* probes, $t(17) = 4.71, p < .001, d = 1.11$, and *new* probes, $t(17) = 7.22, p < .001, d = 1.70$. As expected, valid cues lead to greater decision accuracy than invalid ones.

Cue Strength. The online study assessed whether “old”-worded cues led to stronger expectations, as indexed by response bias c . Figure 2B shows response bias for the five cue types presented. As anticipated, graded c parameters were observed such that relative to the neutral cue (“?” $M = 0.06, SD = 0.56$), “likely old” and “unlikely new” cues increased the tendency to respond “old” ($M = -0.15, SD = 0.62$ and $M = -0.08, SD = 0.58$ respectively) and the “unlikely old” and “likely new” cues reduced this tendency ($M = 0.41, SD = 0.51$ and $M = 0.30, SD = 0.56$ respectively). Absolute bias values were adjusted according to c placement in the neutral “???” condition (see Method for more details) and entered in a 2 (cue wording: old [“likely old” and “unlikely old”] or new [“unlikely new” and “likely new”]) x 2 (bias direction: old-suggesting [“likely old” and “unlikely new”] or new-suggesting [“likely new” and “unlikely old”]) repeated measures ANOVA. A significant main effect of cue wording confirmed that ‘strong’ old-worded cues shift response bias

reliably more than ‘weak’ new-worded cues, $F(1,201) = 11.27, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .053$ (old-worded cue $M = 0.28, SD = 0.39$; new-worded cue $M = 0.19, SD = 0.38$). Neither a significant main effect of bias direction nor an interaction was observed, $F(1,201) = 2.49, p = .116, \eta_p^2 = .012$ and $F < 1$ respectively. These findings validate the subsequent classification of old-worded cues as strong cues eliciting greater expectation than the correspondingly weak new-worded cues².

Response Confidence. We also verified that increased response confidence reflects increased accuracy in the fMRI sample, which would render it appropriate as a measure of controlled memory analysis undertaken after an expectation violation. A 2 (mnemonic status: *old* or *new*) $\times$ 2 (confidence: high or low) repeated measures ANOVA was conducted on accuracy (see Figure 2C). There was neither a significant main effect of mnemonic status, $F(1,15) = 4.18, p = 0.059, \eta_p^2 = .218$, nor a significant interaction, $F(1,15) = 4.50, p = 0.051, \eta_p^2 = .231$. Crucially, there was a significant main effect of confidence, $F(1,15) = 129.66, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .896$, with high confidence responses associated with greater accuracy (high confidence $M = .86, SD = .04$; low confidence $M = .65, SD = .07$), which validates its use as an index of fine-grained memory analysis.

----- TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE -----

----- FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE -----

fMRI Task-Evoked Amplitude Analysis: Recovering the Invalid Cueing Network

The invalid cueing contrast (invalid > validly cued probes; see Figure 3A) yielded extensive activation in the PFC, including bilateral dorsolateral PFC (~BA 9/46), medial PFC (mPFC; ~BA 8/9) and bilateral insula and inferior frontal gyrus (~BA 47; see Table 2). Additionally, activation in the

² Analyses of the online study also revealed that overall performance was reliably above chance, and that reductions in old and new item accuracy under invalid cueing were equivalent to the fMRI task effects. Further, analyses of a restricted online sample that was age- and gender-matched with the fMRI sample revealed identical effects of ‘strong’ old-worded cues in eliciting greater bias shifts. Both findings highlight the generalizability of the online validation results to the main fMRI sample.

IPL was observed bilaterally in supramarginal gyrus (SMG; ~BA 40), and in the right hemisphere extending into angular gyrus (AG; ~BA 7). Relative to previous studies using this paradigm (e.g. O'Connor et al. 2010), the extent of the temporo-parietal invalid cueing response was reduced, though the strong PFC activation remained intact. In subsequent analyses, the task-evoked invalid cueing map presented in Figure 3A was segregated according to resting-state network affiliation, and the network-based functional heterogeneity was systematically explored at the regional level.

----- FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE -----

----- TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE -----

fcMRI Resting-State Connectivity Analysis

We first independently mapped the ‘conflict detection’ and ‘confirmatory retrieval’ fcMRI networks within our sample. The seeds used and the networks recovered are shown in Figure 3B. The two networks are highly similar in extent and threshold to those recovered in previous invalid cueing studies (O'Connor et al., 2010) and stand-alone fcMRI examinations (e.g. Nelson et al., 2010; Vincent et al., 2008; Yeo et al., 2011). The ‘conflict’ network encompassed more lateral frontal regions and extended bilaterally from the posterior midline PFC regions surrounding its seed (~BA 8) through DLPFC and along middle frontal gyrus (~BA 9/46) to frontopolar regions (~BA 10). The posterior aspect of the ‘conflict’ network was largely restricted to bilateral SMG (~BA 40) with a small region recruited in a bilateral posterior region of inferior temporal gyrus (~BA 37). The ‘retrieval’ network recruitment in the PFC included a large swathe along the midline extending from superior frontal gyrus (~BA 8/9/10) ventrally into anterior cingulate (~BA 32) and laterally into DLPFC (~BA 9). In the posterior aspect, the ‘retrieval’ network recruited precuneus (~BA 31) extending ventrally into posterior cingulate (~BA 23). Lateral posterior recruitment to the

‘retrieval’ network included angular gyrus within the IPL (~BA 39) and a region extending down the middle temporal gyrus towards the temporal pole (~BA 20/21).

Overlap between the invalid cueing contrast map and the two connectivity maps is shown in Figure 3C. Notable convergence between the two maps was observed in mPFC, bridging the locations of the two seeds, though neither of the local maxima around which seed ROIs were constructed were in regions of overlap. Task-evoked activation in middle and inferior frontal gyrus was largely restricted to the ‘conflict’ network, though there were pockets of network overlap in bilateral DLPFC (~BA 9). ROIs identified from these overlap maps were used to assess how resting network affiliation of invalid cueing regions relates to their on-task functional heterogeneity.

Functional Heterogeneity of the Invalid Cueing Response: ROI Analysis

To reiterate, the present experiment allowed control demands to be varied and assessed at early and late stages of each trial. Manipulation of cue wording generated differing degrees of bias, reflecting differing strengths of expectation. Cue strength hence served as an index of expectancy-induced response conflict, with strong invalid cues generating greater conflict than weak invalid ones, as a result of the greater bias towards the incorrect response elicited by the former. Further, the confidence measure allowed more targeted identification of brain regions underlying the controlled retrieval analysis than that afforded by a reliance on response accuracy alone.

These manipulations laid the foundation for the ROI analysis, which directly probed how the differential connectivity of invalid cueing regions to the ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ fMRI networks related to on-task sensitivity to cue strength and response confidence. Firstly, regions from the invalid cueing map that also overlapped with the ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ networks were identified (see Figure 3c and previous Results section), and their differential responses to cue strength (strong > weak) and confidence level (high > low) were extracted. The first ROI pair consisted of

the mPFC ROIs used to seed the fcMRI analyses: the ‘conflict’-affiliated mPFC region in the posterior aspect [0, 23, 52] (~BA 8); and the ‘retrieval’-affiliated mPFC region in its anterior aspect [3, 53, 43] (~BA 9; see Figure 4A). The second ROI pair used the left hemispheric lateral PFC cluster: the ‘conflict’ lateral PFC region was this time in the most ventral aspect [-54, 20, 34] (~BA 44) and the ‘retrieval’ lateral PFC region was in the dorsal aspect [-51, 17, 43] (~BA 9/44; see Figure 4B). Note that whilst the mPFC ROIs and the ventrolateral PFC ROI were each solely affiliated with the ‘conflict’ network, the DLPFC ROI lay within both fcMRI networks. However, this was the only region proximal to the ventrolateral ROI that was both active in the invalid cueing contrast and recruited by the ‘retrieval’ network. This DLPFC ROI was hence included in subsequent analyses as a retrieval fcMRI region. A final invalid cueing ROI was identified in the IPL [-45, -37, 46; ~BA40], which was wholly affiliated to the ‘conflict’ network (See Figure 4C).

For these invalid cueing ROI pairs, response amplitudes from each ‘conflict’-affiliated ROI and each ‘retrieval’-affiliated ROI were extracted by binning the data according to i) cue strength and ii) response confidence. Invalid cueing effects were summarized by subtracting validly from invalidly cued probe amplitudes, yielding an invalid cueing differential (ICD). These were compared to establish regions whose amplitudes were more sensitive to the violation of strong than weak cues, and regions whose amplitudes were more sensitive to the countermanding of expectation with high than low confidence. Timecourses were then extracted from ROIs for contrasts that yielded significant differences in their ICDs, to establish whether differences in invalid cueing activations were linked to temporal profiles consistent with ‘early’ and ‘late’ memory control processes.

mPFC response amplitudes and timecourses. Figure 4A depicts ICDs for each mPFC ROI according to cue strength and response confidence. Amplitude differentials for the ‘conflict’-affiliated mPFC region were significantly greater for strongly cued items ($M = 0.65$, $SD = 0.61$) than weakly cued ones ($M = 0.31$, $SD = 0.48$), $t(17) = 2.33$, $p = .032$, $d = 0.55$. However, no significant difference was

observed in the 'retrieval'-affiliated mPFC region's response to the different cues (strong cues: $M = 0.36$, $SD = 0.54$; weak cues: $M = 0.22$, $SD = 0.42$), $t < 1$. For the same mPFC ROIs, the opposite sensitivity pattern was observed when responses were binned by response confidence. The 'retrieval'-affiliated mPFC region yielded significantly larger ICDs for high ($M = 0.55$, $SD = 0.41$) than low confidence responses ($M = 0.23$, $SD = 0.50$), $t(15) = 2.28$, $p = .038$, $d = 0.57$. Conversely, the 'conflict'-affiliated mPFC region showed no difference in its sensitivity to high and low confidence responses (high confidence: $M = 0.53$, $SD = 0.59$; low confidence: $M = 0.43$, $SD = 0.52$), $t < 1$. The same broad region of mPFC that increases when probes are invalidly cued hence shows a posterior-anterior dissociation: the posterior, 'conflict'-affiliated region is exclusively sensitive to cue strength and the anterior, 'retrieval'-affiliated region is exclusively sensitive to confidence.

According to the control sub-processes hypothesized within the invalid cueing response, the detection of response conflict by the cue-sensitive ROI should be rapid, whereas the controlled analysis of memory evidence underpinned by the confidence-sensitive ROI should be slower. Timecourses extracted from the 'conflict'-affiliated mPFC ROI sensitive to cue strength and the 'retrieval'-affiliated mPFC ROI sensitive to response confidence are presented in Figure 4A. The difference in peak latencies was tested by comparing the time-to-peak for the conflict ROI responsive to invalidly and strongly cued probes, and the retrieval ROI responsive to invalidly cued probes to which a high confidence response was given (with the peak defined as the single highest point within the extracted 24s timecourse). The conflict response peaked significantly earlier (4.50s, $SD = 1.55s$) than the retrieval response (11.88s, $SD = 6.75s$), $t(15) = 4.22$, $p < .001$, $d = 4.22$. These analyses show that the coupling of sub-regions within the same task-evoked mPFC cluster to different fcMRI networks reflects dissociable control sub-functions within the invalid cueing response. The timecourse analyses suggest that this differentiation is reflected in each region's temporal properties, consistent with the hypothesized 'early' and 'late' control framework.

Lateral PFC response amplitudes and timecourses. Equivalent analyses were conducted on the lateral PFC ROI pair, with identical outcomes (see Figure 4B). The ‘conflict’-affiliated ROI’s ICD was sensitive to cue strength (strong: $M = 0.47$, $SD = 0.43$; weak: $M = 0.21$, $SD = 0.25$), $t(17) = 2.35$, $p = .031$, $d = 0.55$, but not response confidence (high: $M = 0.37$, $SD = 0.42$; low: $M = 0.13$, $SD = 0.34$), $t < 1$. Conversely, the ‘retrieval’-affiliated ROI had an ICD insensitive to cue strength (strong: $M = 0.27$, $SD = 0.36$; weak: $M = 0.20$, $SD = 0.24$), $t(17) = 1.68$, $p = .114$, $d = .42$, but sensitive to response confidence (high: $M = 0.46$, $SD = 0.34$; low: $M = 0.07$, $SD = 0.39$), $t(15) = 2.59$, $p = .020$, $d = 0.65$.

The timecourses also displayed the same pattern of peak latencies (see Figure 4B), such that the ‘conflict’-affiliated lateral PFC region’s ICD to strong cues peaked significantly earlier (5.63s, $SD = 3.95$ s) than the ‘retrieval’ region’s ICD to high confidence decisions (8.88s, $SD = 5.66$ s), $t(15) = 2.23$, $p = .042$, $d = 0.56$. Identical patterns of connectivity-mediated response sensitivity and activation latency to those shown in the mPFC were therefore also present in the lateral PFC.

IPL response amplitudes and timecourses. A final ROI analysis examined cue strength and response confidence activations in the IPL region sensitive to invalid cueing. As this region lay solely in the ‘conflict’ network, it was expected that the ICDs would be sensitive to cue strength and not to response confidence. This expectation was confirmed by data presented in Figure 4C, with significant differences according to cue strength (strong: $M = 0.29$, $SD = 0.28$; weak: $M = 0.09$, $SD = 0.26$), $t(17) = 2.69$, $p = .015$, $d = 0.64$, but not response confidence (high: $M = 0.04$, $SD = 0.31$; low: $M = 0.17$, $SD = 0.33$), $t(15) = -1.07$, $p = .301$, $d = -0.27$. The timecourse was not subjected to formal analyses as there was no corresponding ‘retrieval’-affiliated ROI within parietal cortex with which to contrast peak latencies. Nevertheless, examination of Figure 4C reveals an early peak consistent with the other ‘conflict’ network regions previously described ($M = 6.66$ s, $SD = 4.55$ s).

----- FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE -----

Influence of behavioural response times. An alternative explanation for the timecourse differences seen in the ROIs is that these simply reflect the different response time (RT) profiles for the conditions in question. That is, words cued by strong cues might be responded to faster than words to which high confidence responses were given – a discrepancy which could manifest as a difference in the time taken for the respective timecourses to peak. To investigate this, we calculated mean RTs for strongly cued items and items responded to with high confidence and compared them within-subjects. In fact, we found the opposite difference in RTs: strongly cued items were responded to significantly more slowly ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .22$) than items responded to with high confidence ($M = 1.55$, $SD = .20$), $t(15) = 6.35$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.60$. This suggests that a difference in condition RT profiles is unlikely to account for the difference in timecourse peak latencies between ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ network-affiliated ROIs.

Functional Heterogeneity of the Invalid Cueing Response: Network-level Cluster Analysis

Network specificity analysis. We have thus far argued for a functional dissociation between invalid cueing regions according to separate memory control processes mediated by separate fcMRI networks: the initial detection of expectation-induced conflict and later controlled retrieval analysis. Nonetheless the use of a selection of ROIs, however representative they are of their broader networks, necessarily ignores a great deal of data. To overcome this, we complemented the ROI analyses with analyses involving *all* clusters recovered in the two resting-state networks. Once again, we expected ‘conflict’ network clusters to be specifically sensitive to cue strength and not response confidence, with ‘retrieval’ network clusters showing the opposite pattern.

We first defined independent ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ network clusters by exclusively masking each resting-state network by the other (each map thresholded at $p < .001$, 5 contiguous voxels). The masking procedure recovered 10 ‘conflict’ clusters and 16 ‘retrieval’ clusters. Response amplitudes

were extracted on a participant-by-participant basis for each network cluster and binned according to cue strength and response confidence. Subtraction of validly from invalidly cued amplitudes yielded invalid cueing differentials (ICDs) for each cluster. We then calculated two parameters to illustrate the specificity of ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ cluster activations (averaged across participants) to conflict detection and controlled respectively: a cue specificity parameter and a confidence specificity parameter. These parameters were calculated from two t -statistics based on the participant-wide differences between the network cluster ICDs t_{cue} (the paired-samples t -statistic for strong cue ICD [I_{strong}] > weak cue ICD [I_{weak}]; shown in Equation 1 below, where σ represents the standard deviation of the differences between the two ICDs) and t_{conf} (the t -statistic for high confidence ICD [I_{high}] > low confidence ICD [I_{low}]; Equation 2). The cue specificity parameter was then calculated by subtracting the absolute value of t_{conf} from t_{cue} , and the confidence specificity parameter was calculated by subtracting the absolute value of t_{cue} from t_{conf} .

$$t_{cue} = \frac{\sum(I_{strong} - I_{weak}) / n}{\sigma_{(I_{strong} - I_{weak})} / \sqrt{n}} \quad (1)$$

$$t_{conf} = \frac{\sum(I_{high} - I_{low}) / n}{\sigma_{(I_{high} - I_{low})} / \sqrt{n}} \quad (2)$$

To illustrate, consider hypothetical Cluster Y which shows a greater ICD for high than low confidence trials, yielding a t_{conf} of 2.0. This region also displays a weaker ICD for strong than weak cues, yielding a t_{cue} of -1.0, meaning that cluster Y’s confidence specificity parameter would be 1.0 and its cue specificity parameter would be -3.0. Cluster Y would hence be deemed confidence specific, although to a lesser extent than would be suggested by examination of the t_{cue} and t_{conf} parameters alone. This demonstrates that a positive specificity parameter reflects a hypothesized

amplitude differential in one response factor greater than any amplitude differential (hypothesized or otherwise) in the second factor. These parameters afford a robust test of the proposed functional dissociation of ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ networks.

Figures 5a and 5b render the specificity parameters at the cluster level (based on the averaged cluster ICDs across 16 participants) for the ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ networks respectively. These figures illustrate that the functional heterogeneity observed in the previously presented ROIs carries over to the network level, such that cue-sensitive clusters are most prominent in the ‘conflict’ resting-state network whereas confidence-sensitive clusters are most prominent in the ‘retrieval’ network. A 2 (specificity parameter: cue or confidence) x 2 (resting-state network: ‘conflict’ or ‘retrieval’) mixed factorial ANOVA for each cluster yielded a significant interaction term only, $F(1,24) = 12.65$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .345$ (the main effects of sensitivity parameter and resting-state network were $F < 1$ and $F(1,24) = 1.15$, $p = .294$, $\eta_p^2 = .046$ respectively). Consistent with this functional heterogeneity account, planned comparisons found that for clusters within the ‘conflict’ network, the cue specificity parameter ($M = .95$, $SD = .90$) was significantly greater than the confidence specificity parameter ($M = -1.35$, $SD = .95$), $t(9) = 3.69$, $p = .005$, $d = 1.38$, whilst a numerical trend in the opposite direction was observed for clusters in the ‘retrieval’ network (cue specificity: $M = -1.26$, $SD = 1.48$; confidence specificity: $M = .19$, $SD = 1.91$), $t(15) = 1.98$, $p = .067$, $d = 0.50$.

Network timecourse analysis. As a final parallel to the ROI analyses, we examined timecourse peak latencies at the network level. Trial timecourses were extracted for each cluster within the respective resting-state networks, as is shown separately for the ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ networks in the lower panels of Figures 5a and 5b. Peak latencies were averaged across participants for each resting-state network cluster and subjected to statistical analysis. We could then assess whether the peak latency differences in task-related activations observed in the ROI analysis could be

expected over all clusters within an fcMRI network. Once again, we found the anticipated pattern of network heterogeneity, with ‘conflict’ clusters (responding to strong invalid cues trials) showing significantly faster response latencies ($M = 8.40$, $SD = 1.82$) than ‘retrieval’ clusters (responding to high confidence invalid trials; $M = 11.50$, $SD = 2.53$), $t(24) = 3.36$, $p = .003$, $d = 1.35$.

The network cluster analyses confirm that the functional heterogeneity prominent in ROIs selected from ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ fcMRI networks persists at the network level. Furthermore, a supplementary set of fcMRI analyses highlighted the generalizability of our findings, such that similar patterns of network affiliation across invalid cue regions and associated network cluster specificity effects were observed even with fcMRI networks recovered from seeds taken from previous studies (see Supplementary Information S1 for further details).

As a final consideration, it is important to note that the cluster-level analyses underestimate the amplitude and timecourse findings described above within each fcMRI network. Given that we collapsed across clusters of unequal size, we underweighted voxels within both large mPFC clusters relative to the voxels comprising other smaller clusters. These mPFC clusters showed extremes of response (both amplitude and timecourse) in the hypothesised directions, meaning that voxels chosen at random from within each fcMRI network are likely to be more heterogeneous in their functional responses than would be predicted from these cluster-level data alone. Regardless, the fact that the activation patterns from the ROI analyses persist at the network level supports our assertions of distinct mnemonic control sub-processes mediated by independent resting-state networks³.

----- FIGURE 5 ABOUT HERE -----

³ We also conducted network cluster analyses for those regions at the overlap of the ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ fcMRI networks, which revealed a lack of clear amplitude specificity for either cue strength or confidence manipulations, and an averaged network timecourse that was temporally interposed between the early conflict and late retrieval networks. These findings suggest that the overlap regions might serve to integrate the operation of conflict and retrieval networks in the service of memory control – a possibility in need of future exploration

Discussion

Theories of cognitive control typically formalize two core components – detection of the need for control followed by engagement of controlled processing (Botvinick et al., 2001). Nonetheless, direct evidence of separable neural substrates underlying these two processes is rare (cf. Macdonald et al., 2000). In the present experiment we empirically substantiated just such a segregation as applied to memory control. We employed a modified version of the likelihood cueing paradigm to specify more precise control sub-processes for regions within the previously reported invalid cueing network (O'Connor et al., 2010). Our manipulations explicitly sought mnemonic analogues of the two key control processes likely involved when participants are invalidly cued: the initial detection of mnemonic expectancy violation and associated response conflict, and the subsequent engagement of controlled retrieval processing. Conventional task-evoked amplitude analyses were combined with resting-state connectivity methods to elucidate the neural substrates of these processes. The findings from these convergent analytic approaches are now discussed with reference to prior research in memory and cognitive control.

Task-evoked amplitude analyses recovered a network of brain regions that elevate for invalidly cued trials over validly cued ones, comprising similar regions of prefrontal and parietal cortices to those previously observed (O'Connor et al., 2010). Constituents of this network included mPFC, lateral PFC and IPL - all regions that have been recurrently linked with aspects of controlled processing in memory (Buckner, 2003; Nieuwenhuis & Takashima, 2011) and response conflict (Miller & Cohen, 2001; Ridderinkhof et al., 2004). Much debate has centred on whether these isolated regions underpin dissociable control sub-processes, however evidence in support of this modular view has been mixed (Brass & von Cramon, 2002; Macdonald et al., 2000). Rather, considering the functional networks to which these regions are connected offers an alternative avenue of clarification. In support of this, we found that the mPFC and lateral PFC regions of the

invalid cueing network were split by their affiliation to either the 'conflict' or 'retrieval' resting-state connectivity networks. This connectivity dissociation amongst memory control regions is consistent with that observed in a prior likelihood cueing study (O'Connor et al., 2010) and a recent study probing the neural substrates of source monitoring (Barredo et al., 2013).

Our task manipulations then allowed us to directly link the observed connectivity differentiation with an on-task dissociation of the invalid cueing regions by their involvement in the two formalized control processes. We firstly varied cue strength by the presentation of old-worded and new-worded cues, which have been suggested to respectively instil strong and weak mnemonic expectations in prior research (Dobbins et al., 2012), as validated by the independent online study. Regions heightened by invalid cueing at the time when probes appear (to initiate the evaluation of memory) that are also sensitive to the strength of preceding cues are ideally disposed to detect violations of mnemonic expectancy, given their access to both the cued expectation and the probe-provoked memory analysis. We also elicited response confidence to probe neural sensitivity to secondary, confirmatory retrieval processes. Importantly, these manipulations were orthogonal, enabling us to collapse across the alternate sensitivity category for each of the cue strength and response confidence contrasts, and thereby maximised the utility of the unavoidably lower number of invalid cue trials. Consistent with our predictions, we observed an fcMRI-gated dissociation within both medial and lateral prefrontal invalid cueing regions: 'conflict'-affiliated regions were sensitive to cue strength but not response confidence, whereas 'retrieval'-affiliated regions were sensitive to confidence but not cue strength.

Our manipulations extended prior fMRI investigations in which control demands were assumed to be heightened for 'low' compared to 'high' confidence decisions in otherwise standard recognition task formats (Henson, Rugg, Shallice & Dolan, 2000; Fleck, Daselaar, Dobbins & Cabeza, 2006). In focusing on the low > high confidence contrast, these previous studies relied on a general

functional inference as the basis of identifying memory control regions, in the absence of more systematic manipulation of control demands. As noted by Henson and colleagues themselves (2000), this basic design recovers low confidence-sensitive brain regions that are broadly linked with some form of memory control, without enabling specification of the precise control sub-processes underpinned by these regions. The cueing manipulation employed in the present study permitted a more thorough interrogation, such that regions linked with the general heightening of memory control were recovered by the invalid > valid cue contrast, and were more precisely characterised through nested analyses of cue strength and response confidence. Indeed, the cueing manipulation led to a reversal of prior confidence contrasts, such that invalid cueing regions that additionally elevate for high compared to low confidence regions were linked with controlled memory processing undertaken after violations of memory expectation. To clarify, satisfactory resolution of the mnemonic conflict instilled by invalid cues requires controlled analysis of memory evidence, the results of which could conceivably have led to increased decision confidence. The combination of cueing and confidence manipulations therefore enabled more precise functional specification of brain regions previously linked in broader terms with aspects of memory control.

Implicit in the proposed distinction between detection and allocation of control is an 'early' and 'late' temporal ordering of these processes. Our analyses confirmed that, within the prefrontal and parietal ROIs, the response of 'conflict'-affiliated sub-regions to cue strength peaked significantly earlier than the 'retrieval'-affiliated sub-regions' response to confidence. The observed temporal order of control parallels that postulated for contiguously elicited fronto-parietal ERPs in the cognitive control literature, with the N2-P3 complex (Squires et al., 1976) and the P3a-P3b complex (Polich, 2007) all highlighted as potential substrates for the early-late control process dichotomy. Indeed, the late P3b has been dissociated from the early P3a by its selective

correlation with reaction time (Conroy & Polich, 2007) – an association between a neural marker and an overt behavioural measure that mirrors our reported sensitivity of the later ‘retrieval’-affiliated activation with response confidence. A similar processing dichotomy has been proposed to underlie the controlled processing of language (i.e. the comprehension of syntactically incongruous sentences; Hahne & Friederici, 1999) and even recognition memory (Jacoby, Kelley & McElree, 1999). Indeed, it is worth highlighting the overlap between the early-late control processes delineated here and the dual processes of familiarity and recollection in recognition memory (Henson et al., 2000; Yonelinas, 2002). However, this characterization fails to capture the potentially broad applications of the reported processes and their neural substrates in signalling control in cognitive domains beyond memory.

Further, the persistence of regional amplitude and timecourse differences at the network cluster level also yield insight into the general functional properties of the ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ resting-state networks themselves. The findings directly link the ‘conflict’ network with the detection of mnemonic response conflict, as would be expected of a network previously observed to be sensitive to heightened control demands in both non-memory (Vincent et al., 2008) and memory tasks (Spreng, Stevens, Chamberlain, Gilmore & Schacter, 2010). The ‘retrieval’ network is involved in the engagement of controlled memory analysis subsequent to conflict being detected, consistent with intrinsic connections of its prefrontal/parietal nodes with medial temporal lobe regions linked with memory encoding and retrieval processes (Vincent et al, 2006; Kahn, Andrews-Hanna, Vincent, Snyder & Buckner, 2008). Indeed, our findings contribute to an emerging network approach in the study of control, combining traditional task-evoked amplitude analyses with task-evoked methods of network localization, such as structural equation models of effective connectivity (Koechlin et al., 2003) and on-task functional connectivity (Barredo et al., 2013). We

report similar prefrontal and parietal network interactions when localizing on the basis of task-independent resting-state connectivity methods.

The findings also address the general lack of understanding as to how the dynamics of intrinsic connectivity networks – recovered by task-free correlation methods in the resting-state – relate to the actual performance of a cognitive task (Buckner, Krienen & Yeo, 2013). Indeed, conventional task-evoked fMRI analyses are restricted to the examination of suprathreshold task activations, and hence prevent scrutiny of nuanced response patterns of larger networks. As outlined by Jernigan and colleagues (Jernigan, Gamst, Fennema-Notestine & Ostergaard, 2003), this concealment arises as many regions displaying functionally-consistent responding might nevertheless display 'subthreshold' task-evoked activations, if the estimated effect sizes fail to reach the adopted criterion for significance. We therefore combined conventionally thresholded analyses with more unorthodox fcMRI-gated analyses (at the ROI and network cluster level), to examine the global distribution of invalid cueing effects across functional networks. The findings support a more general interpretation of the separate control functions subserved by the 'conflict' and 'retrieval' brain networks, beyond the specifics of the employed task.

Future research involving different imaging methods will be necessary to validate the described network-gated control processes and their underlying temporal dynamics. To this end, the improved temporal resolution afforded by simultaneous EEG-fMRI has already proven beneficial in the study of control (Debener et al., 2005), and would enable a direct test of the speculated correspondence between present fMRI activations and established ERPs. Nevertheless, the present findings highlight the interaction between retrieval-specific and more general 'higher-order' processes in constraining evaluations of the past. Further investigation of the overlapping neural correlates of seemingly diverse psychological processes should continue to provide insight into the adaptive and flexible nature of cognition.

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Figures

Figure 1. Design schematic for likelihood cueing recognition paradigm.

Each study phase comprised a self-paced syllable counting task for 56 *old* words. The cued test phase followed immediately, with participants making “old” or “new” decisions for 112 word probes (56 studied *old* words and 56 unstudied *new* words) and registering their confidence in that decision with a single response. Response options included ‘HN’ (high confidence new), ‘LN’ (low confidence new), ‘LO’ (low confidence old) and ‘HO’ (high confidence old). Note that abbreviations of available responses options are provided here for illustrative purposes, and the response prompt shown to participants actually comprised an image of the four-button response box with “new” and “old” labels to the left and right respectively, overlaid by directional arrows to

denote variations in confidence. Cues to the likely mnemonic status of ensuing probes were presented at the start of each trial. These were randomly intermixed in each run and were of four types according to cue strength (strong old-worded cues and weak new-worded cues) and the response suggested (old-suggesting and new-suggesting cues). Participants were informed that cues were correct (i.e. valid) in predicting probe status on 75% of trials. This led to instances where the cue gave incorrect (i.e. invalid) predictions of probe status on 25% of trials. Probe onset was jittered from cue onset within a range of 0.5-4.5s in increments of 0.66s. Participants had 3s in which to respond ('max RT') and the intertrial-interval (ITI) was 0.5s.

Figure 2. Behavioural validation results.

A. Invalid cueing. Plot of proportion correct by mnemonic status and cue validity. Grey bars represent accuracy for valid cues and white bars represent accuracy for invalid cues. **B. Cue strength.** Plot of response criterion (c) estimates from the equal variance signal detection model for cue types presented in the online study: likely old, unlikely new, neutral cue ("?"), likely new

and unlikely old. Positive c values indicate an increased likelihood of responding “new” and negative c values indicate an increased likelihood of responding “old” (as indicated by the arrows to the right of the graph). **C. Response confidence.** Plot of proportion correct by mnemonic status and response confidence. Grey bars represent accuracy for high confidence responses and white bars represent accuracy for low confidence responses. In all plots error bars represent standard error of the mean.

Figure 3. Task-evoked activations recovering the invalid cueing network and resting-state network overlap.

A. Regions demonstrating significant activation in the invalid cueing contrast (invalid > valid cue trials; $p < .001$, 5 contiguous voxels). 'R' = right sagittal view for all panels. **B.** Recovered resting-state networks with relevant seed regions marked ($p < .001$, 5 contiguous voxels). The 'conflict detection' network shown in blue, used the posterior local maximum of the mPFC invalid cueing activation (an 8mm diameter sphere centred on [0, 23, 52] in MNI space; denoted by the blue ring in the middle panel) whereas the 'confirmatory retrieval' network (shown in red), used a seed located in the anterior mPFC maximum (an 8mm diameter sphere centred on [3, 53, 43] in MNI

space; denoted by the red ring in the middle panel). Overlap between these networks is shown in purple. **C.** Regions active in the invalid cueing contrast ($p < .001$, 5 contiguous voxels) masked by their affiliation to the 'conflict' (shown in blue; $p < .001$, 5 contiguous voxels) or 'retrieval' (shown in red; $p < .001$, 5 contiguous voxels; overlap in purple) resting-state networks.

Figure 4. ROI analyses demonstrating functional differentiation of the invalid cueing clusters between cue strength and response confidence.

Functional differentiation is shown in **A.** medial PFC, **B.** lateral PFC and **C.** inferior parietal lobule (IPL) invalid cueing clusters by their affiliation to the ‘conflict’ or ‘retrieval’ connectivity networks. The left panel shows response conflict sensitivity plots for each region’s invalid cueing cluster θ

differential: cue strength (strong invalid cue - weak invalid cue; for which 'conflict' ROIs are selective) above response confidence (high confidence invalid cue - low confidence invalid cue; for which 'retrieval' ROIs are selective). Error bars represent standard error of the mean and asterisks represent significant conflict sensitivity effects ($p < .05$). The centre panel shows the 'conflict' ROI (blue ring) and the 'retrieval' ROI (red ring) overlaid on the relevant brain sections (note that the IPL cluster was solely affiliated to the 'conflict' network). The right panel shows the extracted BOLD timecourses for each invalid cueing cluster averaged across subjects and plotted for a 0-16s portion of the total 24s post-probe duration that was extracted. For each invalid cueing region, the 'conflict' ROIs' response to strong cues is presented above the 'retrieval' ROIs' response to high confidence, with separate lines within each sensitivity plot for valid and invalid cue trials (as conveyed by the plot legends). Timecourse error bars represent standard error of the mean. 'L' = left sagittal view.

Figure 5. Network-level cluster analyses showing cue strength and response confidence specificities.

Network-level activation maps showing **A.** cue specificity of the 'conflict' network-affiliated invalid cueing response and **B.** confidence specificity of the 'retrieval' network-affiliated invalid cueing response, as calculated from the invalid cueing differentials for each network cluster averaged across participants. The colourbar in each panel illustrates the colour-coding of the overlaid specificity of regions within each network in respectively signalling cue strength and response

confidence during invalidly cued trials. The calculation of these specificity parameters is outlined in Equations 1-4 in the Results section. The lower portion of each panel plots the relevant averaged network response, across constituent clusters, underlying the relevant invalid cueing specificity, with solid lines denoting the invalid cueing response and dashed lines denoting the valid cue response. Timecourse error bars represent standard error of the mean. 'R' = right sagittal view.

Tables

Table 1. Summary of presented analyses and results.

Results section	Analysis details	Summary
1. Behavioural validation of manipulations	Decision accuracy under invalid cueing, response bias across cue strength, and decision accuracy under ratings of response confidence	Invalid cues reduced decision accuracy; strong cues (i.e. 'old'-worded cues) led to greater shifts in response bias than weak cues (i.e. 'new'-worded cues); and higher confidence increased accuracy
2. fMRI Task-Evoked Amplitude Analysis: Recovering the Invalid Cueing Network	Task-evoked whole-brain amplitude contrast: invalid > valid cue trials	Invalid cues increased activation in an established network prominently encompassing medial frontal, lateral frontal and parietal regions
3. fcMRI Resting-State Connectivity Analysis	Whole-brain correlation of mPFC invalid cueing seed regions with all other voxels in the brain, computed during the pre-task resting condition	Invalid cueing regions were split by their affiliation to two fcMRI networks: 'conflict detection' and 'confirmatory retrieval' networks
4. Functional Heterogeneity of the Invalid Cueing Response: ROI Analysis	Invalid cueing amplitude differentials (invalid – valid, ICDs) and activation timecourses were calculated for ROIs identified in <i>both</i> the task-evoked invalid cueing effect (section 2 above) and the fcMRI networks (section 3), and compared across cue strength and confidence conditions	Invalid cueing ROIs affiliated with the 'conflict' fcMRI network were sensitive to manipulations of cue strength (strong > weak) and peaked 'early', while those affiliated with the 'retrieval' fcMRI network were sensitive to confidence (high > low) and peaked 'late'
5. Functional Heterogeneity of the Invalid Cueing Response: Network-level Cluster Analysis	Extracted specificity amplitudes (based on ICDs as in section 4) and averaged timecourses of clusters within 'conflict' and 'retrieval' fcMRI networks (defined in section 3) were compared across cue strength and confidence conditions	Clusters nested in the 'conflict' network were specifically sensitive to cue strength (but not confidence) and peaked 'early', whereas clusters nested in the 'retrieval' network were specifically sensitive to confidence (but not cue strength) and peaked 'late'
6. Supplementary Information	Replication of fcMRI analyses (sections 3 and 5) with different 'conflict' and 'retrieval' network seed pairs taken from two previous studies (Nelson et al., 2010; Yeo et al., 2011)	Invalid cueing regions were similarly split by networks recovered from both these prior seed pairs as the main fcMRI analyses, and network clusters also showed identical amplitude specificity and timecourse properties (i.e. early peaking 'conflict' clusters sensitive to cue strength and late peaking 'retrieval' clusters sensitive to confidence)

Table 2. Regions demonstrating significant increases in activation for correct responses to invalidly cued probes versus validly cued probes.

Region	Lat.	BA	x	y	z	Vox.	Z score
PFC							
IFG/Insula	R	47	27	20	-17	250	5.27
IFG/Insula	L	47	-33	20	-17	123	4.83
Superior medial/SFG	L/R	8/9/32	9	41	55	463	4.72
MFG/IFG	L	44	-54	20	34	109	4.26
MFG/IFG	R	9/44/46	36	23	55	257	3.93
IFG	L	45	-54	29	19	5	3.51
Cerebellum							
Posterior lobe	L	-	-27	-82	-44	172	4.03
Posterior lobe	R	-	30	-79	-47	19	3.82
Posterior lobe	R	-	12	-79	-29	12	3.51
Occipital							
IOG/Fusiform	L	19	-39	-91	-11	24	3.96
Parietal							
AG/SMG	R	7/40	36	-61	49	41	3.63
SMG	L	40	-45	-37	46	8	3.49
Temporal							
MTG	R	21	66	-40	-8	12	3.45

Note: Listed regions are SPM clusters containing at least 5 significant voxels. x, y, and z coordinates refer to cluster maxima. Lat., Laterality; BA, approximate Brodmann's area; Vox., number of significant voxels; PFC, prefrontal cortex; IFG, inferior frontal gyrus; SFG, superior frontal gyrus; MFG, middle frontal gyrus; IOG, inferior occipital gyrus; AG, angular gyrus; SMG, supramarginal gyrus; MTG, middle temporal gyrus. Coordinates are in MNI space.

Supplementary Information (S1): Alternative resting-state fcMRI seed analyses

Overview

This supplementary section details analyses involving resting-state fcMRI networks recovered via alternative seeds to those reported in the main text. Given that seed choice has been previously highlighted as a thorny issue in fcMRI research (as noted previously, Power et al., 2011), demonstrating that similar ‘conflict detection’ and ‘confirmatory retrieval’ networks are recovered by different seeds to the anterior/posterior regions selected from the on-task invalid cueing activation would confirm the generalizability of the reported connectivity architecture. Furthermore, illustrating the dissociable functional sensitivities of these two fcMRI networks to mnemonic conflict (indexed by the cue strength manipulation) and fine-grained memory analysis respectively (indexed by confidence) would also attest to the general significance of our findings in clarifying functional interpretations of fcMRI networks.

We therefore selected likely ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ seeds from two prominent fcMRI studies, which affected fine-grained resting-state connectivity parcellations in large samples – Nelson et al (2010) and Yeo et al (2011). Nelson and colleagues selected their seeds on the combined basis of a meta-analysis of previous recognition memory task activations and a parcellation scheme that identifies separate fcMRI networks over isolated regions, with the overall aim of outlining distinct fcMRI networks associated in broad terms with memory retrieval. Yeo and colleagues based their seed selection on a combination of prior task-evoked activations and clustering methods based on established anatomical connectivity, with the overall

aim of elucidating ‘local’ and ‘global’ patterns of functional connectivity. The fcMRI networks recovered via these prior seeds were subjected in the present analyses to equivalent network-level cluster analyses as those described in the main text, involving amplitude specificity parameters and averaged network timecourses. The similarity of these supplementary fcMRI analyses to those reported in the main manuscript provides clear evidence of the general significance of our fcMRI findings.

Alternative resting-state fcMRI analyses

The seeds taken from Nelson et al (2010) to recover likely ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ networks were located at left anterior PFC (-44, 41, 4; all coordinates in MNI space; ~BA46) and anteromedial PFC (-3, 50, 24; ~BA32/10) respectively. ‘Conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ seeds taken from Yeo et al (2011) were located at left inferior parietal lobule (-43, -50, 46; BA40) and left temporoparietal junction (-51, -57, 27; ~BA39) respectively. The resting-state fcMRI maps calculated from the spontaneous low frequency BOLD correlation of all brain voxels with the Nelson and Yeo seed regions are displayed in Figure S1 (all maps thresholded at $p < .001$, 5 contiguous voxels). The overlap between both Nelson and Yeo connectivity schemes, and networks emerging from the anterior/posterior mPFC seeds used in the main fcMRI analyses, highlights the broad correspondence between the various ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ networks irrespective of particular seed choice. All seeds led to the same broad connectivity differentiation, such that the various ‘conflict’ and ‘retrieval’ networks respectively split mPFC into anterior/posterior regions, and lateral PFC into ventral/dorsal regions. The ‘conflict’-affiliated IPL cluster was also recovered in both Nelson and Yeo connectivity schemes. The similarity in extent and threshold of the

supplemental networks is notable given the different anatomical locations of the Nelson and Yeo seeds, with the former pair situated in PFC and the latter pair in the parietal lobe.

Figure S1. Resting-state fcMRI networks recovered in the supplementary analyses via seeds taken from **A.** Nelson et al., 2010, and **B.** Yeo et al., 2011. 'Conflict' and 'retrieval' networks in both panels are overlaid in blue and red respectively (with overlap regions in purple). All activations are thresholded at $p < .001$, 5 contiguous voxels. 'R' = right sagittal view.

Alternative network cluster-level analyses

Supplementary network-level cluster analyses were also conducted to relate the above Nelson and Yeo resting-state networks with our task manipulations. Cue strength and confidence specificity parameters were calculated from the task-evoked BOLD amplitudes of the ‘conflict’ network clusters (12 clusters in the Nelson scheme and 11 clusters in the Yeo scheme) and the ‘retrieval’ network clusters (17 clusters in the Nelson scheme and 11 clusters in the Yeo scheme), as described in the relevant Results section of the main manuscript. These specificity parameters were entered in a 2 (specificity parameter: cue or confidence) x 2 (resting-state network: ‘conflict’ or ‘retrieval’) mixed factorial ANOVA, separately for the Nelson and Yeo connectivity schemes. The ANOVA of the Nelson network clusters revealed a significant main effect of specificity parameter, such that cue parameters ($M = 0.20$, $SD = 0.95$) were overall greater than confidence parameters ($M = -0.79$, $SD = 1.52$), $F(1,27) = 6.36$, $p = .018$, $\eta_p^2 = .19$. Crucially, this main effect was tempered by a significant specificity by network interaction, $F(1,27) = 11.08$, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .29$. Pairwise comparisons confirmed that the interaction was driven by the significantly greater cue specificity of ‘conflict’ network clusters ($M = 1.00$, $SD = 0.88$) compared to confidence specificity ($M = -1.32$, $SD = 0.91$), $t(11) = 4.91$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.58$. A non-significant difference in the opposite direction was observed for the Nelson ‘retrieval’ clusters (cue specificity $M = -0.59$, $SD = 0.97$; confidence specificity $M = -0.27$, $SD = 1.79$), $t < 1$. No significant main effect of network was observed, $F(1,27) = 1.13$, $p = .297$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$.

A similar pattern was observed in the 2 x 2 ANOVA involving the Yeo network clusters, which revealed a significant main effect of amplitude specificity reflecting greater values for cue ($M = 0.38$, $SD = 1.01$) compared to confidence parameters ($M = -0.74$, $SD = 1.17$), $F(1,20) = 7.24$, $p = .014$, $\eta_p^2 = .27$. This main effect was once again tempered by a significant specificity by network interaction, $F(1,20) = 9.71$, $p = .005$, $\eta_p^2 = .33$. Pairwise t-tests confirmed the significantly greater specificity of the 'conflict' network to cue strength ($M = 1.04$, $SD = 0.85$) compared to confidence ($M = -1.38$, $SD = 1.15$), $t(10) = 4.21$, $p = .002$, $d = 2.40$, and a non-significant effect in the opposite direction for the 'retrieval' network (cue specificity $M = -0.28$, $SD = 1.15$; confidence specificity $M = -0.10$, $SD = 1.19$), $t < 1$. No significant main effect of network was observed, $F < 1$. Hence, the pattern of network cluster amplitude effects in both Nelson and Yeo fcMRI schemes is virtually identical to those presented in the main analyses, and once again highlights the dissociable sensitivity of the 'conflict' and 'retrieval' fcMRI networks to cue strength and confidence task manipulations respectively.

Finally, we also analysed the timecourse peaks of the fcMRI networks averaged across their constituent clusters. As with the main network timecourse analyses, the 'conflict' network response to strong cues peaked significantly earlier than the 'retrieval' network response to high confidence, for both the Nelson scheme (strong cue peak $M = 8.04$, $SD = 1.41$; high confidence peak $M = 11.58$, $SD = 2.84$), $t(26) = 3.81$, $p = .001$, $d = 1.50$, and the Yeo scheme (strong cue peak $M = 7.97$, $SD = 2.03$; high confidence peak $M = 10.89$, $SD = 2.31$), $t(20) = 3.15$, $p = .005$, $d = 1.41$. These supplementary network timecourse findings are also concordant with the main fcMRI

timecourse analyses, and highlight temporal properties of fcMRI networks consistent with their functional specificities¹.

Overall, the findings detailed in this supplemental section suggest that the fcMRI effects recovered and scrutinised in the main manuscript are indeed reflective of fundamental functional connectivity networks in the human brain.

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¹ We also conducted analyses of network cluster amplitudes and timecourses in regions at the overlap of the two supplementary networks, and observed identical effects as with the overlap analyses in the main text, namely an equivalent specificity to cue strength and confidence, and a timecourse peak temporally interposed between early conflict and later retrieval clusters.