

Open access • Posted Content • DOI:10.1101/830067

Frontoparietal action-oriented codes support novel instruction implementation — Source link [2]

Carlos González-García, Silvia Formica, David Wisniewski, Marcel Brass Institutions: Ghent University Published on: 25 Nov 2020 - bioRxiv (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory) Topics: Cognitive flexibility

Related papers:

- Frontoparietal action-oriented codes support novel instruction implementation.
- · Frontoparietal action-oriented codes support novel task set implementation
- The effects of declaratively maintaining and proactively proceduralizing novel stimulus-response mappings.
- The effect of task demands on the neural patterns generated by novel instruction encoding
- · Declarative and procedural working memory updating processes are mutually facilitative



1	
2	
3	
4	Frontoparietal action-oriented codes support novel task set
5	implementation
6	
7	Carlos González-García*, Silvia Formica, David Wisniewski, and Marcel Brass
8	Department of Experimental Psychology, Ghent University, Belgium
9	
10	*Corresponding author: Carlos González-García

11 (carlos.gonzalezgarcia@ugent.be)

12 Abstract

A key aspect of human cognitive flexibility concerns the ability to rapidly convert 13 14 complex symbolic instructions into novel behaviors. Previous research proposes that this fast configuration is supported by two differentiated neurocognitive states, 15 namely, an initial declarative maintenance of task knowledge, and a progressive 16 17 transformation into a pragmatic, action-oriented state necessary for optimal task execution. Furthermore, current models predict a crucial role of frontal and parietal 18 brain regions in this transformation. However, direct evidence for such 19 20 frontoparietal formatting of novel task representations is still lacking. Here, we report the results of an fMRI experiment in which participants had to execute novel 21 instructed stimulus-response associations. We then used a multivariate pattern-22 tracking procedure to quantify the degree of neural activation of instructions in 23 24 declarative and procedural representational formats. This analysis revealed, for the first time, format-unique representations of relevant task sets in frontoparietal 25 areas, prior to execution. Critically, the degree of procedural (but not declarative) 26 activation predicted subsequent behavioral performance. Our results shed light on 27 28 current debates on the architecture of cognitive control and working memory systems, suggesting a contribution of frontoparietal regions to output gating 29 30 mechanisms that drive behavior.

31

32 INTRODUCTION

Some of the most advanced collaborative human achievements rely on our ability 33 34 to rapidly learn novel tasks. Instruction following constitutes a powerful instance of this ability as it combines the flexibility to specify complex abstract relationships 35 with an efficiency far superior to other forms of task learning such as trial and error, 36 37 or reinforcement learning. These unique characteristics make it a distinctive skill that separates humans from other species¹. While recent years have witnessed 38 substantial progress in our understanding of instruction following, the neural and 39 cognitive mechanisms underlying this rapid transformation of complex symbolic 40 information into effective behavior are still poorly understood. Specifically, a critical 41 question that remains unresolved is whether a declarative representation of task 42 information is sufficient or whether an additional representational state, closely 43 linked to action, precedes optimal performance. 44

Previous behavioral studies have consistently reported an intriguing signature of 45 instruction processing, namely, a reflexive activation of responses on the basis of 46 merely instructed stimulus-response (S-R) associations (defined as "intention-47 based reflexivity", or IBR). IBR occurs even when instructions are task-irrelevant 48 and have not been overtly executed before²⁻⁷, which suggests a rapid 49 configuration of instructed content predominantly towards action. Instruction 50 implementation also has a profound impact on brain activity, as shown by 51 electroencephalography and fMRI studies. In particular, the intention to execute an 52 instruction induces automatic motor activation^{8,9}, engages different brain regions to 53

coordinate novel stimuli and responses^{10–14}, and alters the neural code of the
 encoded instruction^{15,16}.

56 These and other findings propose a crucial role of a frontoparietal network (FPN) in 57 the instantiation of a highly efficient task readiness state^{11–17}. Accordingly, evidence coming from frontal patients¹⁸ and healthy participants^{10,15,19}, as well as 58 prominent theoretical models²⁰ support a *serial coding hypothesis*, a two-step 59 process in which the FPN first encodes instructed information into a primarily 60 declarative representation, that is, a persistent representation of the memoranda 61 conveyed by the instruction. Crucially, when this information becomes behaviorally 62 relevant, FPN declarative representations are transformed into an independent 63 state that is optimized for specific task demands²⁰. This *procedural* state would 64 entail a proactive binding of relevant perceptual and motor information into a 65 compound representation that leads to the boost of relevant action codes related to 66 behavioral routines¹⁶. 67

However, evidence for such serial coding in control regions is lacking, primarily 68 due to the fact that previous analytical approaches were unable to track 69 representational formats of specific nature. Previous work thus identified some 70 properties of the FPN during the implementation of novel instructions, such as 71 enhanced decoding of stimulus category^{11,16}, or altered similarity within to-be-72 implemented S-R associations^{13,15}, but failed to determine the functional state 73 underlying such representational effects. Therefore, currently, it cannot be 74 75 discerned whether novel task setting is achieved through the proposed frontoparietal formatting. In fact, at least two alternatives to the serial coding 76

77 hypothesis could explain previous results. First, an *amplification hypothesis* disputes the notion of two independent representational states and proposes that 78 the intention to implement rather induces deeper declarative processing of the 79 initial semantic information conveyed by the instruction². Under this proposal, the 80 FPN would support instruction implementation through the preservation of relevant 81 82 declarative signals rather than through a transformation of these signals into an action-oriented code. Last, an intermediate alternative concerns the possibility that 83 implementation involves both the boost of an independent action-oriented signal 84 85 and, additionally, the preservation of declarative representations. This *dual-coding* hypothesis thus predicts that novel task implementation is supported by non-86 overlapping declarative and procedural task representations in the FPN. 87 Here, we aimed at adjudicating between these three options. In the current study, 88 participants performed a task in which 4 novel S-R associations were presented at 89 the beginning of each trial (each S-R consisted of an image and a response finger; 90 for instance, the picture of a cat and the word "index"). After the encoding screen, a 91 retro-cue would select a subset of two S-Rs, prior to the onset of a target screen. 92 93 Target screens displayed the image belonging to one of the selected mappings (for example, a picture of a cat), prompting participants to execute the associated 94 response (Fig. 1). Based on recent experimental results^{7,21,22} and theoretical 95 models of working memory (WM)²³, we assumed that retro-cues (i.e. cues that 96 signal the relevance of one of the already encoded representations in WM) would 97 prioritize relevant S-R associations into a behavior-optimized state, akin to 98 implementation. As such, retro-cues served as a tool to locate in time the moment 99

100 after initial encoding in which implementation-specific signals should be magnified. Our primary goal was to capture which signals governed FPN activity during such 101 implementation stage, prior to execution²⁰. To discern the hypothesized procedural 102 and declarative traces, we had participants perform two functional localizers that 103 encouraged either a declarative or action-oriented maintenance of novel 104 instructions. Using data from the localizers, we derived a canonical multivariate 105 pattern of activity for each S-R in both declarative and procedural formats. We then 106 107 assessed the extent to which these traces were independently activated in the 108 main task, during the implementation stage. We first predicted that the intention to implement would boost the representation of 109 retro-cued S-R associations in the FPN, compared to encoded but not cued S-Rs. 110 We then tested whether this representational boost reflected the activation of the 111 relevant S-R in two unique formats, namely, declarative and procedural. If so, this 112 would indicate the extent to which multiple, non-overlapping representations of the 113 same instructed content underlie novel task setting. 114

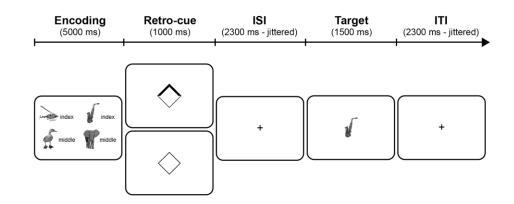
115

116 **RESULTS**

117 Task set prioritization enhances instruction execution

Twenty-nine healthy human participants (mean age = 23.28, 17 females; 3 more
participants were excluded after data acquisition, see Methods) were shown 4
novel S-R associations at the beginning of each trial. Importantly, even though
specific S-R associations were presented only once throughout the experiment,

122 they could be grouped in categories depending on the specific combination of stimulus and response dimensions (for instance, "animate item and index finger 123 response"; see Methods for a full description of S-R categories). Immediately after 124 the encoding screen, a retro-cue signaled the relevance of two specific mappings 125 (informative retro-cues in 75% of trials; in the remaining trials a neutral retro-cue 126 did not select any mapping). The two selected mappings always belonged to the 127 same S-R category, although the specific associations remained unique. Such 128 grouping was crucial for analysis purposes since it allowed us to identify the 129 130 selected, unselected, and not presented S-R categories on each trial. After the retro-cue, a target image prompted participants to provide the corresponding 131 response (Fig. 1). To ensure that participants encoded all 4 S-R associations, ~6% 132 of trials (regardless of the retro-cue validity) displayed a new, catch image, 133 prompting participants to press all four available buttons simultaneously. 134



135

Figure 1. Behavioral paradigm. On each trial, participants first encoded four novel

137 S-R mappings consisting in the association between an (animate or inanimate)

138	item and a response (index or middle fingers; response hand defined by the
139	position of the mapping on the screen; e.g. "helicopter-index" on the left-hand side
140	of the screen requested participants to press the left index if the target screen
141	displayed a helicopter). After the encoding screen, an informative retro-cue (75%
142	of the trials) signaled the relevance of two of the mappings. In the remaining 25%
143	of trials, a neutral retro-cue appeared, and none of the mappings were cued. Last,
144	after a jittered retro-cue-target interval, a target stimulus prompted participants to
145	provide the associated response (in this example, "right index" finger press).
146	

Analysis of participants' behavioral performance revealed that retro-cues helped participants in prioritizing novel S-Rs. Specifically, participants were faster ($t_{28,1} =$ 13.51, *p* < 0.001, Cohen's *d* = 2.51; Fig. 2a) and made less errors ($t_{28,1} =$ 7.96, *p* < 0.001, Cohen's *d* = 1.47; Fig. 2b, left panel) in trials with informative retro-cues, compared to neutral.

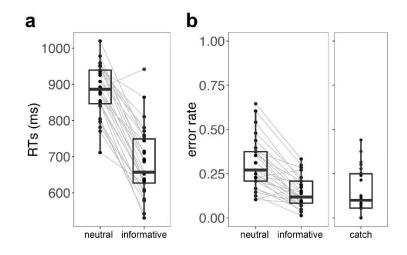


Figure 2. Behavioral results. (a) Reaction times in neutral and informative retrocue trials. (b) Error rates in neutral, informative, and catch trials. The thick line
inside box plots depicts the second quartile (median) of the distribution (n = 29).
The bounds of the boxes depict the first and third quartiles of the distribution.
Whiskers denote the 1.5 interquartile range of the lower and upper quartile. Dots
represent individual subjects' scores. Grey lines connect dots corresponding to the
same participant in two different experimental conditions.

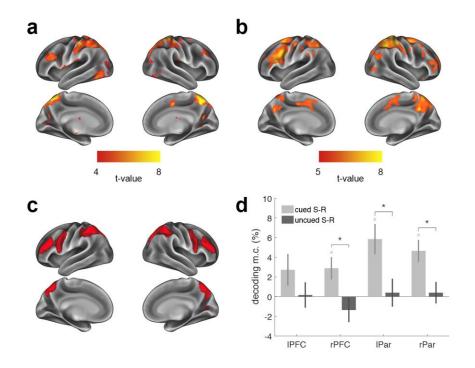
160

161 Identifying task set prioritization activity

162 As a first step, we investigated which brain regions were predominantly involved in 163 instruction prioritization. Our intuition was that prioritization would boost implementation signals and, as such, we expected a frontoparietal network to be 164 particularly crucial, as it is usually involved in the implementation of novel task 165 166 sets^{11,14–17,24}. We thus established a set of a priori candidate regions that encompassed frontal (inferior and middle frontal gyri) and (inferior and superior) 167 parietal cortices (see Fig. 3c, and the Region-of-interest definition section in the 168 Methods). We then performed two whole-brain analyses to find regions sensitive to 169 task set prioritization (defined as informative vs. neutral retro-cues) in their overall 170 171 activation magnitude or voxel-wise activity patterns, using a general linear model (GLM) and multivariate pattern analysis (MVPA), respectively. First, we found that 172 informative retro-cues elicited significantly higher activity in regions of the FPN, 173 174 including the inferior and middle frontal gyri, inferior and superior parietal cortices. as well as regions outside the FPN, such as the lateral occipital cortex (Fig. 3a, 175

176	primary voxel threshold [$p < 0.001$ uncorrected] and cluster-defining threshold
177	[FWE $p < .05$]). Furthermore, a searchlight decoding analysis ²⁵ revealed that the
178	FPN contained information in its patterns of activity about the prioritization status
179	(Fig. 3b, primary voxel threshold [$p < 0.0001$ uncorrected] and cluster-defining
180	threshold [FWE $p < .05$]; see also Methods for details on how this analysis
181	controlled for univariate differences in activity magnitude). Overall, the resulting
182	statistical maps of these two analyses roughly overlap with the set of a priori
183	defined regions of interest (ROIs; Fig. 3C), confirming the involvement of the FPN
184	in task set prioritization.

185 To test our hypothesis that implementation would boost the representation of retrocued S-R categories, we performed two similar decoding analyses in the 4 FPN 186 ROIs. First, we tested if in the moment of the retro-cue the patterns of activity in 187 these four regions carried information about the category of the cued S-R. We 188 found significant category decoding in the right PFC and bilateral parietal ROIs 189 (one-sample t-tests against chance level, all *p*s < 0.013, FDR-corrected for multiple 190 comparisons), and close to significance decoding in the left PFC ($t_{25,1} = 1.69$, p =191 0.052). Next, we tested the extent to which the FPN also carried information about 192 the encoded, but not cued category. In contrast with the previous results, decoding 193 did not reach significance in any of the ROIs (all ps > 0.6). Finally, we directly 194 195 compared the decoding accuracies for the cued and uncued categories. This analysis revealed significantly stronger decoding of the cued category compared to 196 the uncued one in right PFC and bilateral parietal cortices (paired t-tests, all ps < 1197 0.034, FDR-corrected; Fig. 3d). 198



199

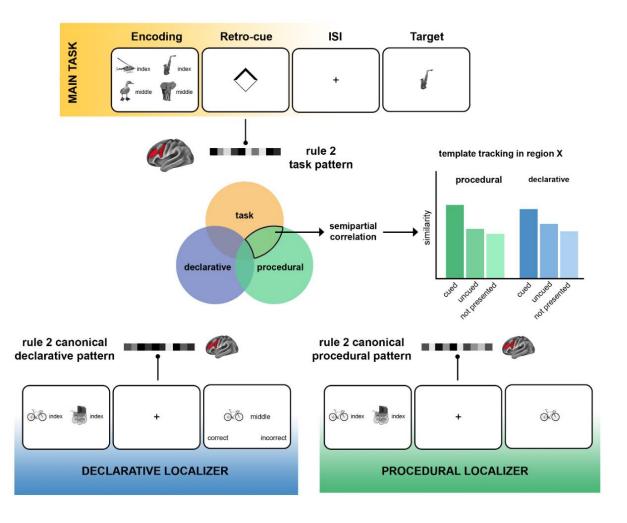
Figure 3. Task set prioritization induced changes in frontoparietal neural activity. 200 201 (a) GLM contrast of informative > neutral retro-cue trials. Warm colors show regions with significantly higher activity magnitude during informative compared to 202 neutral retro-cues (primary voxel threshold [p < 0.001 uncorrected] and cluster-203 defining threshold [FWE p < .05]). (b) Searchlight decoding of prioritization 204 (informative vs. neutral retro-cue). Warm colors show regions with significant 205 decoding (primary voxel threshold [p < 0.0001 uncorrected] and cluster-defining 206 207 threshold [FWE p < .05]). (c) Set of regions-of-interest defined prior to analyses, 208 encompassing frontal (inferior and middle frontal gyri) and (inferior and superior) parietal cortices. (d) Mean S-R category decoding (minus chance) within each 209 210 region of interest. Error bars denote between-participants s.e.m. Grey asterisks denote significant decoding (chance level = 25%, one-sample t-test, FDR-211

- corrected). Black asterisks denote significantly higher decoding of cued compared
 to uncued S-R categories (paired t-test, FDR-corrected).
- 214

215 Tracking format-unique task set patterns

216 Altogether, these results show that instruction implementation has a profound 217 impact on FPN activity, boosting the representation of prioritized task sets over 218 encoded, but irrelevant ones. However, similarly to previous studies, they are 219 agnostic regarding the nature of the signals underlying such effect. The main goal 220 of our study was to test the extent to which, during this implementation stage, 221 relevant task information was represented in a declarative and/or procedural 222 format. In a first scenario (amplification hypothesis), implementation would merely preserve relevant declarative information. Alternatively, it could transform the initial 223 representation of task information into a primarily action-oriented format (serial 224 225 coding hypothesis). Last, action-oriented representations could coexist with preserved declarative representations (dual coding hypothesis). To adjudicate 226 227 between these options, we implemented a canonical template tracking procedure that allowed us to estimate the degree of neural activation of specific S-R 228 categories under the two functional formats of interest (see Figure 4, for a visual 229 230 representation of the procedure). To do so, for each subject, we first obtained whole-brain templates of each S-R category in procedural and declarative formats, 231 232 using data from two functional localizers. Subsequently, we estimated the extent to 233 which these two traces governed the data of the main task, specifically during the presentation of informative retro-cues. We performed this step in an ROI-based 234

235	fashion. For each ROI and trial type, we extracted the pattern of activity during the
236	retro-cue, keeping track of which S-R categories were either cued, uncued, or not
237	presented in that trial. Then, we computed the semi-partial correlation between this
238	pattern of activity and the declarative and procedural templates of each S-R
239	category. Importantly, we used semi-partial correlations as they allowed us to
240	estimate the amount of shared variance between task data and a given template
241	(e.g. S-R category 1 in procedural state) that is not explained by the same
242	template in the alternative state (e.g. S-R category 1 in declarative state).
243	Therefore, processes common to both localizers (e.g. arousal, domain-general
244	attention and/or task preparation) cannot inflate correlations, and any significant
245	result rather reflects the activation of S-R information in a specific format during the
246	main task.



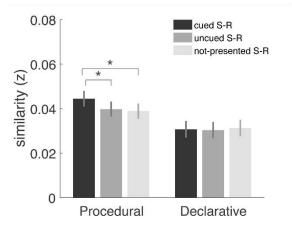
247

Figure 4. Schematic of the canonical template tracking procedure. For each region 248 249 of interest, we extracted the pattern of activity of specific S-R categories during informative retro-cues (upper panel, in yellow) and computed similarity with 250 251 canonical templates of such categories in declarative (bottom left, in blue) and 252 procedural (bottom right, in green) formats, obtained in two separate localizers. 253 Importantly, similarity was assessed via semi-partial correlations, obtaining the 254 proportion of uniquely shared variance between task and template data (middle, Venn diagram) of the cued, uncued and not-presented S-R categories. Graphs 255 represent a hypothetical set of results, in which implementation recruits non-256 257 overlapping procedural and declarative representations of cued S-R category. This

informational boost, relative to baseline (not-presented S-R categories), is superiorto that of the uncued category.

260

To validate this procedure outside the FPN, we created an ROI comprising the 261 primary motor cortex, since predictions for this regions were straightforward: (1) 262 boost of action-oriented information of the cued S-R category, compared to the 263 uncued and not-presented ones; and (2) no boost of declarative information. The 264 results obtained (Fig. 5) matched the predictions, revealing a specific 265 enhancement of procedural information of the cued category compared to the 266 uncued ($t_{25,1} = 4.08$, p < 0.001, Cohen's d = 0.80), and critically, to the empirical 267 baseline defined by the not-presented categories ($t_{25,1} = 5.45$, p < 0.001, Cohen's d 268 = 1.07). No reactivation of the uncued S-R category was found ($t_{25,1} = 1.32$, p = 269 0.2, Cohen's d = 0.26). As predicted, no differences between cued, uncued and 270 271 baseline categories were found in declarative signals (all $t_s < 1.53$, all $p_s > 0.14$).



272

Figure 5. Template tracking procedure results in the primary motor cortex. Bars

274 represent the normalized semi-partial correlation between task data and the

275	procedural and	d declarative	templates of	cued	, uncued a	and not	presented S-R
-----	----------------	---------------	--------------	------	------------	---------	---------------

- categories. Error bars denote within-participants s.e.m²⁶. Asterisks denote
- significant differences (p < 0.05, paired t-test).
- 278

279 Declarative and procedural representations in frontoparietal cortices (and

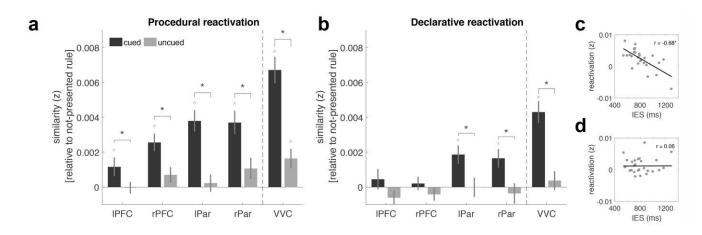
- 280 **beyond)**
- 281 To elucidate which signals govern implementation in control-related regions, we
- carried out the template tracking procedure on each FPN region separately.
- Furthermore, we decided to include the ventral visual cortex (VVC) in this analysis

to explore the effect of implementation in higher-order visual regions, since these

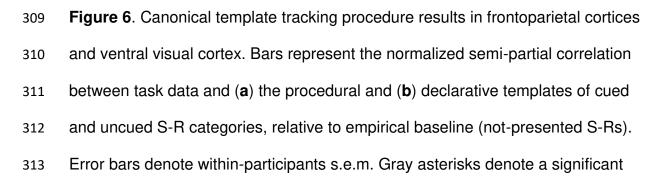
- have been consistently shown to be involved in instruction processing^{11,13,14,16}.
- 286 This analysis (Fig. 6a) revealed that all FPN regions contain unique action-oriented
- information of relevant S-R categories during the presentation of the retro-cue
- (two-tail paired t-test against empirical baseline [not-presented rules], all ts > 2.16,
- all ps < 0.04, all Cohen's d > 0.42). Critically, procedural information of cued
- categories was significantly more activated than uncued categories (all $t_s > 2.26$,
- all ps < 0.04, all Cohen's d > 0.44). Regarding declarative information (Fig. 6b),
- 292 parietal nodes of the FPN showed a specific enhancement of declarative
- information of the cued S-R category, compared to the uncued one (ts > 2.16, all
- $p_{\rm S} < 0.02$, all Cohen's d > 0.49), whereas no significant differences were found in
- the right (t = 1.24, p = 0.28) and left (t = 2.05, p = 0.051) frontal nodes. To assess
- the reliability of these not significant findings, we performed Bayesian paired t-tests

297	with the same factors as before. The BF_{10} (evidence in favor of H_1 against
298	evidence for H_0) for the Cued – Not presented comparison was 0.27 and 0.24 for
299	the left and right frontal nodes, respectively. Similarly, the comparison Cued –
300	Uncued yielded a $BF_{10} = 1.25$ in the left frontal node, and a $BF_{10} = 0.41$ in the right
301	frontal node. Overall, this constitutes moderate evidence ²⁷ for the null hypothesis
302	that declarative information of the cued category was not specifically enhanced in
303	frontal regions.

Last, higher-order visual regions showed a similar pattern to parietal nodes of the FPN, with significant enhancement of both procedural (t = 6.19, p < 0.001, Cohen's d = 1.21) and declarative (t = 5.84, p < 0.001, Cohen's d = 1.15) information of the cued S-R category, compared to the uncued one.



308



314	increase from baseline ($p < 0.05$, paired t-test, FDR-corrected). Black asterisks
315	denote significant differences between cued and uncued categories ($p < 0.05$,
316	paired t-test, FDR-corrected). (c) Across-participant correlation of Inverse
317	Efficiency Scores and procedural activation index in frontoparietal cortices. (\mathbf{d})
318	Correlation of Inverse Efficiency Scores with declarative activation index in
319	frontoparietal cortices. In ${f c}$ and ${f d}$, dots represent individual participants, thick lines
320	depict the linear regression fit, and asterisks denote significant Pearson's
321	correlation ($p < 0.05$).

322

323 Action-oriented codes support novel task setting

324 What might be the behavioral relevance of declarative and procedural signals? We reasoned that if action-oriented representations are boosted during implementation 325 in control-related regions, and implementation can be conceived as a behavior-326 optimized state, then the degree of action-oriented activation should predict the 327 efficiency of instruction execution. To test this hypothesis, we first converted RTs 328 and error rates of informative retro-cue trials into a single compound measure 329 (Inverse Efficiency Scores; IES. IES were obtained by dividing each participant's 330 mean RT by the percentage of accurate responses²⁸). Then, we derived a 331 template activation index by subtracting the degree of activation of cued categories 332 to that of uncued categories for each region and format (procedural and 333 declarative). Finally, we correlated individual IES with the activation indices on 334 335 each region of the FPN. This analysis revealed significant negative correlations in all FPN regions between IES and procedural activation (all Pearson's $r_{s} > -0.475$, 336

337	all $ps < 0.02$). In contrast, IES did not correlate with declarative activation in any
338	region (all $r_s < -0.34$, all $p_s > 0.09$). When averaging activation indices across FPN
339	regions, an identical pattern was found, namely, a significant correlation of IES with
340	procedural ($r = -0.679$, p < 0.001) but not declarative ($r = 0.06$, $p = 0.77$) activation
341	(Fig. 6c-d). Similar results were obtained when using RTs (procedural: $r = -0.67$, p
342	< 0.001; declarative: r = 0.076, p = .71) and error rates (procedural: r = -0.54, p =
343	0.004; declarative: $r = -0.019$, $p = 0.93$) as behavioral measures. Altogether, these
344	results show that the more the FPN represented procedural information of relevant
345	S-Rs, the faster and more accurate participants executed the instruction. In
346	contrast, the strength of declarative signals of the same S-R association did not
347	predict behavioral performance.

348

349 **DISCUSSION**

In the current study, we report a pervasive effect of novel task sets implementation across behavioral and neural data. Our results provide support for a frontoparietal dual coding of instructed task information. A canonical template tracking procedure revealed the boost of unique declarative and procedural representations in the FPN, prior to execution. This boost was specific to prioritized S-Rs and did not happen for irrelevant mappings. Critically, our results show that procedural (but not declarative) activation in the FPN predicted efficient execution of novel instructions.

357 Frontoparietal flexible coding of relevant task sets

358 Previous research has highlighted the important role of the FPN in the implementation of novel instructions^{10–16,29}. Accordingly, our results show that FPN 359 involvement during implementation reflects the boost of relevant S-R categories. 360 However, these results remain agnostic regarding the nature of the signals 361 underlying this effect. In principle, as proposed by the serial-coding hypothesis, 362 363 they could reflect the emergence of procedural representations, in detriment of merely declarative signals^{16,20}. However, the same pattern of results could be 364 explained by a mere amplification of preserved declarative representations². Last. 365 366 the results could reflect both declarative preservation and procedural activation, as predicted by a dual-coding hypothesis. Using a canonical template tracking 367 analysis we were able to adjudicate between these options and, for the first time, 368 obtain evidence in favor of the dual coding hypothesis. As such, our results show 369 that implementation engages independent procedural and declarative 370 representations of relevant task information in the FPN. 371 A first consideration concerns the exact nature of the reactivated signals. In the 372 declarative localizer, participants had to remember specific S-R associations and 373 374 match them to another S-R probe. In contrast, in the procedural localizer, participants' goal was to execute the correct response associated with a target 375 376 stimulus. The different readout from WM thus encouraged different strategies, as suggested by previous studies^{3,7,16}. Therefore, it is conceivable that templates will 377 contain unique information: a persistent maintenance of the memoranda in the 378 declarative localizer, and a proactive action-oriented representation, in the 379 procedural localizer. However, templates likely share further information, for 380

381 instance, related to specific perceptual stimulation and general-domain processes, such as arousal or attention. We took several measures to reduce the influence of 382 information not specifically related to declarative or procedural components. First, 383 template reactivation was derived from semi-partial correlations between data from 384 the main task and the localizers. Thus, our measure reflects unique shared 385 variance between the task and the representation of an S-R category in a given 386 localizer, partialling out the variance explained by the representation of the same 387 S-R in the remaining localizer. Shared variance between both localizers and the 388 389 main task could induce spurious similarity increases. For instance, domain-general selective attention is likely engaged towards selected mappings in the main task, 390 as well as during the preparation interval of the localizers. Such a scenario would 391 inflate the correlations between the templates of the cued S-R associations and the 392 data from the main task, potentially leading to a significant difference from 393 baseline. In contrast, semi-partial correlations ensured that procedural and 394 declarative activation indices were derived from non-overlapping signals. Second, 395 templates were built for S-R categories rather than unique mappings, and therefore 396 397 a contribution of perceptual features to template reactivation seems unlikely. Moreover, semi-partial correlations were computed between data from the retro-398 cue screen (in the main task), and inter-stimulus interval (in the localizers), which 399 400 reduces the likelihood of significant correlations due to perceptual similarity between templates and specific S-Rs. Therefore, we believe it is the most 401 straightforward interpretation to consider that our procedure succeeded at tracking 402 403 specific declarative and procedural signals, as also hinted by the validation results

in the motor cortex. From this standpoint, our results suggest that during task set
implementation, FPN regions can maintain the declarative memoranda conveyed
by the instruction and, simultaneously, an independent action-oriented S-R code
that primarily drives task execution.

408 Heterogeneous task set coding within the FPN

Although we did not have specific hypotheses for the role of individual FPN 409 regions, a second important finding concerns the heterogeneity of results within 410 this network. Whereas parietal nodes carried both procedural and declarative 411 412 information in their patterns of activity, only action-oriented representations were found in frontal nodes. Given the overall low signal-to-noise ratio and pattern 413 reliability in prefrontal cortices³⁰, one potential interpretation could be that slight 414 differences inherent in the templates could affect the reactivation measures. For 415 instance, it could be argued that signal quality of procedural templates in frontal 416 417 nodes is intrinsically higher than that of declarative templates, which in turn might induce a lack of power to detect the reactivation of declarative templates in the 418 same regions during the task. To rule out these concerns, and inspired by previous 419 studies using similar canonical template tracking procedures³¹, for each template 420 421 and region of the FPN, we compared the signal-to-noise ratio (computed as mean t-value across voxels of the ROI divided by the standard deviation), informational 422 content (computed as Shannon entropy) and correlationability of the templates (i.e. 423 the degree to which individual templates correlated with other templates from the 424 425 same localizer). This analysis revealed that procedural and declarative FPN templates did not differ in any of these measures (Supplementary Table 1). 426

Thus, our results suggest, first, that prefrontal representations carry action-oriented 427 information during instruction following. This is line with previous studies that 428 propose a crucial role of the frontolateral cortex in the integration of stimulus and 429 response information into a task set based on verbal instructions^{12,32,33}, as well as 430 in representing task rules^{17,24} and goals³⁴. In contrast, parietal cortices contained 431 both declarative and procedural information of relevant S-Rs. Whereas the role of 432 parietal regions in representing goals and task set information is widely 433 acknowledged^{11,13,16,17,24,34,35}, it is unclear what drives such declarative activation. 434 One possibility is that it reflects a category-specific top-down selection scheme, 435 driven by increased attention towards the cued S-R^{36,37}. The fact that a similar 436 pattern was found in higher-order visual regions, which usually coordinate with 437 parietal cortices to represent relevant task dimensions in anticipation of future 438 demands^{38–40}, further supports this possibility. This tentative interpretation would 439 be coherent with goal neglect effects reported in patients with frontal lobe 440 damage¹⁸. These patients are capable of selecting, maintaining, and remembering 441 task-relevant information, yet their ability to transform relevant information into 442 443 goal-driven actions is impaired. Such dissociation goes at least partially in line with our results in that (1) prioritization of goal-oriented representations depends 444 critically on prefrontal cortices (impaired in goal neglect patients), and (2) the 445 446 involvement of other control-related regions, intact in these patients, boosts the declarative representation of specific task information, such as particular S-R 447 categories, presumably in coordination with posterior category-selective regions. 448

449 Implementation as a selective output gating process

450 Remarkably, despite both signals coexisted in the FPN during implementation, only procedural representations predicted efficient behavior. The fact that 451 implementation is signaled by retro-cues renders this effect relevant to current 452 debates on information prioritization and WM architecture. In this regard, our 453 results are consistent with the notion of an output gating mechanism. Similar to the 454 idea of an input gate that limits what information enters WM, some computational 455 models propose an additional gate that determines which pieces of this information 456 will drive behavior⁴¹. Recent theoretical frameworks suggest a role of prioritization 457 458 not only in selecting relevant content from WM but also in reformatting such content into a "behavior-guiding representational state"²³, analogous to an output 459 gating mechanism. Interestingly, these models propose that whereas other control-460 related regions might be involved in attention-driven representations of relevant 461 content, frontal regions are thought to be especially important in transferring this 462 content into a state that is optimal for behavior. In line with these ideas, we show 463 that an action-oriented representation of task sets dominates activity in frontal 464 cortices and that this representational format, and not a declarative one, is tightly 465 466 linked to behavioral efficiency. Importantly, our results reveal, first, that the neural substrate of task set prioritization involves further brain regions, such as category-467 selective and parietal cortices. Second, action-oriented representations might 468 469 coexist with declarative-like information in some of these regions. It should be noted, however, that fMRI data lacks the temporal resolution to discern whether 470 471 these two signals fully overlap in time or whether action-oriented, behavior-472 optimized representations emerge after declarative information of relevant task

sets has been prioritized. Future studies should employ time-resolved techniques
that can succeed at characterizing the dynamical contribution of different brain
regions to separate control and WM processes⁴².

In summary, the present study reveals the strong impact of novel task setting in

477 frontoparietal regions. Following task prioritization, we observed a boost in

information of the relevant S-R category in detriment of the irrelevant ones. This

479 boost was accompanied by the activation of two non-overlapping neural codes in

the FPN, one reflecting the declarative maintenance of task, and another, more

481 pragmatic, action-oriented coding of the instruction. Importantly, only this

482 procedural activation predicted behavioral performance. Altogether, our results

support the idea that novel instructed content can be represented in multiple

formats, and highlight the contribution of frontoparietal regions to output gating

485 mechanisms that drive behavior.

486

487 **METHODS**

Methods are reported, when applicable, in accordance with the Committee on Best
Practices in Data Analysis and Sharing (COBIDAS) report⁴³.

490 Participants

Thirty-two participants (mean age = 23.16, range = 19-33; 20 females) recruited from the participants' pool from Ghent University participated in exchange of 40 euros. They were all right-handed (confirmed by the Edinburgh handedness inventory), clinically healthy and MRI-safe. The study was approved by the UZ

Gent Ethics Committee and all participants provided informed consent before
starting the experiment. Of the initial 32 participants, 3 were excluded after
acquisition (1 participant performed at chance during the task; 1 participant had an
error rate of 1 in catch trials (see below); 1 participant's within-run head movement
exceeded voxel size), resulting in a final sample of 29 participants. Due to an
incomplete orthogonalization of the cued and uncued S-R categories, the first three
participants were excluded from multivariate analyses (n = 26).

502 *Materials*

S-R associations were created by combining images with words that indicated the 503 response finger. Each S-R association was presented just once during the entire 504 experiment to prevent the formation of long-term memory traces⁶. Given this 505 prerequisite, images of animate (non-human animals) and inanimate (vehicles and 506 instruments) items were compiled from different available databases^{44–48}, creating 507 a pool of 1550 unique pictures (770 animate items, 780 inanimate). To increase 508 perceptual similarity and facilitate recognition, the background was removed from 509 all images, items were centered in the canvas, and images were converted to 510 black and white. 511

The response dimension was defined by the combination of a word ("index" or "middle") and the position of the mapping in the encoding screen. For instance, if an S-R pair containing the word "index" was displayed on the left-hand side of the screen, this informed participants that the correct response associated with that particular stimulus would be "*left* index". This allowed us to have 2 mappings on

screen that involved the same *response category* (e.g. index finger) but different
effectors (e.g. *left* index finger vs *right* index finger).

The combination of the 2 stimulus dimensions (animate/inanimate items) and the 2 response dimensions (index/middle finger) lead to 4 *S-R categories*: Category 1 (animate-index), Category 2 (inanimate-index), Category 3 (animate-middle), and Category 4 (inanimate-middle). Although images were always unique and therefore the specific image-finger mapping changed on every trial, S-R associations were grouped into these 4 categories for analysis purposes.

525 Task and design specifications

526 Each trial started with an encoding screen (5000 ms) that displayed 4 S-R 527 associations. The two mappings on the upper half of the encoding screen belonged to one S-R category, and the other two belonged to another S-R 528 category. Immediately after the encoding screen, a retro-cue appeared. Informative 529 530 retro-cues (75% of trials) consisted of an arrow centered in the middle of the screen pointing either upwards or downwards. Therefore, informative retro-cues 531 did not select a specific S-R mapping but rather two mappings belonging to the 532 same S-R category (e.g. "animate - index finger"). Neutral retro-cues did not select 533 any mapping. The retro-cue was displayed for 1000 ms and was followed by a 534 535 fixation point (cue-target interval; CTI), which duration was jittered following a pseudo-logarithmic distribution (mean duration = 2266 ms, SD = 1276 ms, range = 536 537 [600-5000]). Directly after the CTI, a target was on screen for 1500 ms. Target 538 screens displayed the image belonging to one of the selected mappings, prompting participants to execute the associated response by pressing the corresponding 539

540 button in an MRI-compatible button box. In neutral trials, the target could be the stimulus of any of the 4 S-R encoded mappings. Additionally, in ~6% of trials, a 541 catch target appeared. This consisted of a new image, different from any of the 542 encoded stimuli, to which participants had to answer by pressing the 4 available 543 buttons in the response box. Catch trials were included to ensure that participant 544 545 encoded all four S-R associations. Last, after the target screen, a fixation point was shown between trials (inter-trial interval, ITI) for a jittered duration (following the 546 same parameters as the CTI jitter). Each trial lasted on average 12 seconds. 547

The main task was divided into 4 runs. Each run contained 51 trials (48 regular and 548 3 catch trials). Of the 48 regular trials, 75% contained an informative retro-cue, and 549 the remaining trials displayed neutral retro-cues. The S-R categories selected and 550 unselected by the retro-cue were fully counterbalanced, resulting in 36 trials per 551 category across the entire experiment. For instance, there were 36 trials in which 552 Category 1 mappings were selected by the retro-cue. Of these 36 trials, in one 553 third, the unselected mappings (that is, mappings shown in the encoding screen 554 but not selected by the retro-cue) belonged to Category 2, another third to 555 556 Category 3, and the last third to Category 4. Each run lasted around 10 minutes, and the main task, containing 204 trials, lasted around 40 minutes in total. Prior to 557 the main task, outside of the scanner, participants performed a practice session 558 559 with trials following the same structure described above with the exception that feedback was included to help familiarization. The practice session was structured 560 in blocks of 11 trials. Participants performed these blocks until they achieved at 561

least 9 correct responses. S-R mappings used during the practice were never usedagain.

564 After the main task, participants performed two localizer tasks aimed at obtaining a canonical representation of each S-R category in the two formats of interest 565 (declarative and procedural). The structure of the task was almost identical in the 566 567 two localizers and was designed to encourage either implementation or memorization strategies. In both localizers, trials started with an encoding screen 568 (2000 ms) that contained two mappings of the same S-R category, followed by an 569 570 inter-stimulus interval of jittered duration (same parameters as in the main task). Last, a target screen appeared (1500 ms) followed by a jittered ITI. The target 571 screen differed in the two localizers and was inspired by previous studies 572 investigating the dissociation of implementing vs. memorizing new instructions^{2,3,16}. 573 In the procedural localizer, the target was identical to the one in the main task. It 574 consisted of a single image that prompted participants to execute the associated 575 response. The declarative localizer, in contrast, displayed a memory probe 576 consisting of one image and one response finger. Participants were trained to 577 578 answer whether the displayed mapping was correct (same association as the encoded one) or incorrect (different association) by pressing both left-hand buttons 579 (when "correct") or both right-hand buttons (when "incorrect"). Therefore, in the 580 581 memorization localizer, participants never had to prepare to execute the encoded mapping but rather just maintain its information. As in the main task, catch trials 582 consisted of new images, to which participants had to respond by pressing all 4 583 available buttons. Each trial lasted around 8 s on average, and each localizer 584

contained 66 trials (15 per rule + 6 catch trials), resulting in a total of 9 minutes per
localizer.

587 All tasks were presented in PsychoPy 2⁴⁹ running on a Windows PC and back-

588 projected onto a screen located behind the scanner. Participants responded using

an MRI-compatible button box on each hand (each button box contained two

590 buttons, on which participants placed their index and middle fingers).

591 Data acquisition and preprocessing

592 Imaging was performed on a 3T Magnetom Trio MRI scanner (Siemens Medical 593 Systems, Erlangen, Germany), equipped with a 64-channel head coil. T1 weighted 594 anatomical images were obtained using a magnetization-prepared rapid acquisition gradient echo (MP-RAGE) seguence (TR=2250 ms, TE=4.18 ms, TI=900 ms, 595 acquisition matrix=256 × 256, FOV=256 mm, flip angle=9°, voxel size=1 × 1 × 1 596 mm). Moreover, 2 field map images (phase and magnitude) were acquired to 597 correct for magnetic field inhomogeneities (TR=520 ms, TE1=4.92 ms, TE2=7.38 598 ms, image matrix=70 x 70, FOV=210 mm, flip angle=60°, slice thickness=3 mm, 599 voxel size=3 x 3 x 2.5 mm, distance factor=0%, 50 slices). Whole-brain functional 600 images were obtained using an echo planar imaging (EPI) sequence (TR=1730 601 ms, TE=30 ms, image matrix=84 × 84, FOV=210 mm, flip angle=66°, slice 602 thickness=2.5 mm, voxel size=2.5 x 2.5 x 2.5 mm, distance factor=0%, 50 slices) 603 with slice acceleration factor 2 (Simultaneous Multi-Slice acquisition). Slices were 604 orientated along the AC-PC line for each subject. 605

606 For each run of the main task, 373 volumes were acquired, whereas 330 volumes were acquired during each localizer. In all cases, the first 8 volumes were 607 discarded to allow for (1) signal stabilization, and (2) sufficient learning time for a 608 noise cancellation algorithm (OptoACTIVE, Optoacoustics Ltd, Moshav Mazor, 609 Israel). Before data preprocessing, DICOM images obtained from the scanner 610 were converted into NIfTI files using HeuDiConv 611 (https://github.com/nipy/heudiconv), in order to organize the dataset in accordance 612 with the BIDS format⁵⁰. Further data preprocessing was performed in SPM12 613 (v7487) running on Matlab R2016b. First, anatomical images were defaced to 614 ensure anonymization. They were later segmented into gray matter, white matter 615 and cerebro-spinal fluid components using SPM default parameters. In this step, 616 617 we obtained inverse and forward deformation fields to later (1) normalize functional images to the atlas space (forward transformation) and (2) transform ROIs from the 618 atlas on to the individual, native space of each participant (inverse transformation). 619 Regarding functional images, preprocessing included the following steps in the 620 following order: (1) Images were realigned and unwarped to correct for movement 621 622 artifacts (using the first scan as reference slice) and magnetic field inhomogeneities (using fieldmaps); (2) slice timing correction; (3) coregistration 623 with T1 (intra-subject registration): rigid-body transformation, normalized mutual 624 information cost function; 4th degree B-spline interpolation; (4) registration to MNI 625 space using forward deformation fields from segmentation: MNI 2mm template 626 space, 4th degree B-spline interpolation; and (5) smoothing (8-mm FWHM kernel). 627 628 Multivariate analyses were conducted on the unsmoothed, individual subject's

629 functional data space and results were later normalized and smoothed (in

630 searchlight analyses) or pooled across participants (in region-of-interest analyses).

631 General Linear Model (GLM) estimations

Four GLMs were estimated for each participant in SPM. First, a GLM was used to 632 assess changes in activation magnitude between informative and neutral retro-633 cues during the main task. A model was constructed including, for each run, 634 regressors for the encoding screen (zero duration), informative/neutral retro-cues 635 (with duration), informative/neutral CTI interval (with duration), probe (zero 636 duration) and ITI interval (with duration). Trials with errors were included as a 637 different regressor that encompassed the total duration of the trial. All regressors 638 639 were convolved with a hemodynamic response function (HRF). At the population level, parameter estimates of each regressor were entered into a mixed-effects 640 analysis. To correct for multiple comparisons, first we identified individual voxels 641 that passed a 'height' threshold of p < 0.001, and then the minimum cluster size 642 was set to the number of voxels corresponding to p < 0.05, FWE-corrected. This 643 combination of thresholds has been shown to control appropriately for false-644 positives⁵¹. A second GLM was estimated on the non-normalized and unsmoothed 645 main task data for all multivariate analyses. This GLM contained beta estimates 646 that specified the cued/uncued S-R categories during informative retro-cues. For 647 each participant and run, a model was built including the following regressors: 648 encoding (zero duration), neutral retro-cues (with duration), probes (zero duration), 649 650 CTI and ITI (with duration). For informative retro-cues, a regressor that 651 encompassed the total duration of the retro-cue was created for each S-R category

652 combination (e.g. CuedCategory1 UncuedCategory2), resulting in a total of 12 regressors (3 per category). Errors were included as a different regressor 653 encompassing the full duration of the trial. Last, a third and fourth GLMs were 654 performed on the non-normalized and unsmoothed data from the two localizers. 655 For each localizer, we built a model that contained regressors for the encoding 656 screen (zero duration), encoding-probe interval (ISI, with duration) for each S-R 657 category (total of 4 regressors), probe (zero duration), ITI (with duration), and 658 errors (full trial). As in the previous GLM, these models were not used in a 659 660 population-level GLM and were estimated for later use in the canonical template tracking procedure. 661

662 Multivariate pattern analysis (MVPA)

MVPA was performed on the beta images of the second GLM using The Decoding 663 Toolbox⁵² (v3.99). First, to identify regions that contained information in their 664 patterns of activity about the validity of the retro-cue (informative vs. neutral retro-665 cues), a whole-brain searchlight analysis was conducted using 3-voxel radius 666 spheres and following a leave-one-run-out cross-validation scheme. In each fold, 667 all beta images but two (one from each class) were used to train the classifier 668 (linear support vector machine (SVM); regularization parameter = 1) which was 669 then tested on the remaining two samples. To rule out the effect of univariate 670 magnitude differences between classes, we z-scored the values of each condition 671 across voxels before the analysis (therefore, each condition that entered the 672 673 analysis had a mean activation of 0 and an s.d. of 1). The accuracy value was averaged across folds and assigned to the center voxel of each sphere. To assess 674

significance at the population level, accuracy maps were normalized to the atlas space and smoothed. The same analysis strategy as in the GLM analysis was used to threshold the statistical map (given the magnitude of the effect, a clusterdefining threshold of p < 0.0001 instead of p < 0.001 was used, and the minimum cluster size was set to the number of voxels corresponding to p < 0.05, FWEcorrected).

Furthermore, to assess the boost of cued S-R categories during implementation, 681 we carried out ROI-based multiclass decoding of S-R categories. In each fold of 682 683 the leave-one-run-out procedure, we trained a classifier on the identity of the *cued* S-R category using all informative retro-cue betas but four (one from each class). 684 The classifier was then tested on the remaining samples. The accuracy was 685 averaged across folds. Only one decoding was performed per ROI, using all 686 voxels. To assess significance at the population level, for each ROI, we performed 687 an across-participant one-sample t-test against chance level (25%). We then 688 repeated the same procedure but now training and testing the classifier on the 689 identity of the *uncued* S-R category. Finally, we compared the decoding accuracies 690 691 of cued vs. uncued categories using across-participants paired t-tests. All statistical tests were FDR-corrected for multiple comparisons. 692

693 Canonical template tracking procedure

The main goal of the current study was to assess the extent to which procedural and declarative signals were activated during implementation. To do so, we followed a canonical template tracking procedure³¹. The main rationale of this analysis was (1) to obtain canonical representations of the different S-R categories

698 under the two different formats of interest (procedural and declarative), and later (2) estimate the extent of variance during implementation uniquely explained by 699 each of these representations. The functional localizers performed after the main 700 task allowed us to obtain a participant-specific canonical pattern of activation for 701 each S-R category in declarative and procedural formats. All patterns were derived 702 from beta weights of the GLMs described in the section General Linear Model 703 estimations. Prior to analysis, betas were converted into t-maps and, to increase 704 the reliability of our estimation, we performed multivariate noise normalization on 705 each individual run of the main task and template separately⁵³. To do so, we used 706 the residuals of each participant's GLMs to estimate the noise covariance between 707 voxels. These estimates, regularized by the optimal shrinkage factor⁵⁴, were used 708 to spatially pre-whiten the t-maps. 709

To measure the reactivation of the canonical patterns during the main task, for 710 each region, we computed the semi-partial correlation between the pattern of 711 activity during the retro-cue in the main task and the canonical template of each S-712 R category in the two formats. Since our GLM included different retro-cue 713 714 regressors depending on the selected S-R category, we could obtain a specific reactivation value for cued, uncued and not-presented categories. Importantly, 715 semi-partial correlations were used to obtain the amount of variance shared 716 717 between the main task and a template of an S-R category (e.g. in procedural state) that is not explained by the template of that same category in the opposite state 718 719 (e.g. declarative). To statistically test the boost of cued information, we first 720 normalized the semi-correlation scores by using Fisher's z transformation and then

721	performed	paired t-tests	between the cued	. uncued and not-	presented S-R
/ 2 1	periornica				

- categories activation (FDR-corrected for multiple comparisons).
- 723 Region-of-interest (ROI) definition
- Frontoparietal ROIs were obtained from a parcellated map of the multiple-demand
- network⁵⁵. Specifically, frontal ROIs comprised the inferior and middle frontal gyrus
- regions of the map, and parietal ROIs comprised the inferior and superior parietal
- cortex regions. All ROIs were registered back to the native space of each subject
- using the inverse deformation fields obtained during segmentation.
- We obtained a ventral visual cortex ROI by extracting the following regions in the
- 730 WFU pickatlas software (<u>http://fmri.wfubmc.edu/software/PickAtlas</u>): bilateral
- inferior occipital lobe, parahippocampal gyrus, fusiform gyrus, and lingual gyrus (all
- bilateral and based on AAL definitions). The primary motor cortex ROI was also
- obtained using WFU pickatlas by extracting the bilateral M1 region.

734

735 Data availability

- The data that support the findings of this study are available from the
- corresponding author upon reasonable request.

739 **References**

740	1.	Cole, M. W., Laurent, P. & Stocco, A. Rapid instructed task learning: A new
741		window into the human brain's unique capacity for flexible cognitive control.
742		Cogn. Affect. Behav. Neurosci. 13, 1–22 (2013).
743	2.	Liefooghe, B. & De Houwer, J. Automatic effects of instructions do not
744		require the intention to execute these instructions. J. Cogn. Psychol. 1–14
745		(2018). doi:10.1080/20445911.2017.1365871
746	3.	Liefooghe, B., Wenke, D. & De Houwer, J. Instruction-based task-rule
747		congruency effects. J. Exp. Psychol. Learn. Mem. Cogn. 38, 1325–1335
748		(2012).
749	4.	Liefooghe, B., Houwer, J. De & Wenke, D. Instruction-based response
750		activation depends on task preparation. Psychon. Bull. Rev. 20, 481–487
751		(2013).
752	5.	Meiran, N., Cole, M. W. & Braver, T. S. When planning results in loss of
753		control: intention-based reflexivity and working-memory. Front. Hum.
754		<i>Neurosci.</i> 6 , 104 (2012).
755	6.	Meiran, N., Pereg, M., Kessler, Y., Cole, M. W. & Braver, T. S. The power of
756		instructions: Proactive configuration of stimulus-response translation. J. Exp.
757		Psychol. Learn. Mem. Cogn. 41, 768–786 (2015).
758	7.	González-García, C., Formica, S., Liefooghe, B. & Brass, M. Attentional
759		prioritization reconfigures novel instructions into action-oriented task sets.

760 *Cognition* **194**, 104059 (2020).

761	8.	Everaert, T., Theeuwes, M., Liefooghe, B. & De Houwer, J. Automatic motor
762		activation by mere instruction. Cogn. Affect. Behav. Neurosci. 14, 1300-
763		1309 (2014).
764	9.	Meiran, N., Pereg, M., Kessler, Y., Cole, M. W. & Braver, T. S. Reflexive
765		activation of newly instructed stimulus-response rules: evidence from
766		lateralized readiness potentials in no-go trials. Cogn. Affect. Behav.
767		<i>Neurosci.</i> 15 , 365–373 (2015).
768	10.	Demanet, J. et al. There is more into 'doing' than 'knowing': The function of
769		the right inferior frontal sulcus is specific for implementing versus memorising
770		verbal instructions. Neuroimage 141, 350-356 (2016).
771	11.	González-García, C., Arco, J. E., Palenciano, A. F., Ramírez, J. & Ruz, M.
772		Encoding, preparation and implementation of novel complex verbal
773		instructions. Neuroimage 148, 264–273 (2017).
774	12.	Hartstra, E., Kühn, S., Verguts, T. & Brass, M. The implementation of verbal
775		instructions: An fMRI study. Hum. Brain Mapp. 32, 1811–1824 (2011).
776	13.	Palenciano, A. F., González-García, C., Arco, J. E. & Ruz, M. Transient and
777		Sustained Control Mechanisms Supporting Novel Instructed Behavior.
778		Cereb. Cortex bhy273 (2018). doi:10.1093/cercor/bhy273
779	14.	Palenciano, A. F., González-García, C., Arco, J. E., Pessoa, L. & Ruz, M.
780		Representational organization of novel task sets during proactive encoding.

781		J. Neurosci. 719–725 (2019). doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0725-19.2019
782	15.	Bourguignon, N. J., Braem, S., Hartstra, E., De Houwer, J. & Brass, M.
783		Encoding of Novel Verbal Instructions for Prospective Action in the Lateral
784		Prefrontal Cortex: Evidence from Univariate and Multivariate Functional
785		Magnetic Resonance Imaging Analysis. J. Cogn. Neurosci. 30, 1170–1184
786		(2018).
787	16.	Muhle-Karbe, P. S., Duncan, J., Baene, W. De, Mitchell, D. J. & Brass, M.
788		Neural Coding for Instruction-Based Task Sets in Human Frontoparietal and
789		Visual Cortex. Cereb. Cortex bhw032 (2016). doi:10.1093/cercor/bhw032
790	17.	Woolgar, A., Afshar, S., Williams, M. A. & Rich, A. N. Flexible Coding of Task
791		Rules in Frontoparietal Cortex: An Adaptive System for Flexible Cognitive
792		Control. J. Cogn. Neurosci. 27, 1895–1911 (2015).
793	18.	Duncan, J., Emslie, H., Williams, P., Johnson, R. & Freer, C. Intelligence and
794		the frontal lobe: the organization of goal-directed behavior. Cogn. Psychol.
795		30 , 257–303 (1996).
796	19.	Bhandari, A. & Duncan, J. Goal neglect and knowledge chunking in the
797		construction of novel behaviour. Cognition 130 , 11–30 (2014).
798	20.	Brass, M., Liefooghe, B., Braem, S. & De Houwer, J. Following new task
799		instructions: Evidence for a dissociation between knowing and doing.
800		Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev. 81, 16–28 (2017).
801	21.	Yu, Q. & Postle, B. R. Different states of priority recruit different neural codes

802		in visual working memory. <i>bioRxiv</i> 334920 (2018). doi:10.1101/334920
803	22.	Myers, N. E., Chekroud, S. R., Stokes, M. G. & Nobre, A. C. Benefits of
804		flexible prioritization in working memory can arise without costs. J. Exp.
805		Psychol. Hum. Percept. Perform. 44, 398–411 (2018).
806	23.	Myers, N. E., Stokes, M. G. & Nobre, A. C. Prioritizing Information during
807		Working Memory: Beyond Sustained Internal Attention. Trends Cogn. Sci.
808		21 , 449–461 (2017).
809	24.	Jackson, J. B. & Woolgar, A. Adaptive coding in the human brain: Distinct
810		object features are encoded by overlapping voxels in frontoparietal cortex.
811		<i>Cortex</i> 108 , 25–34 (2018).
812	25.	Kriegeskorte, N., Goebel, R. & Bandettini, P. Information-based functional
813		brain mapping. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 103, 3863–3868 (2006).
814	26.	Morey, R. D. Confidence Intervals from Normalized Data: A correction to
815		Cousineau (2005). Tutor. Quant. Methods Psychol. (2008).
816		doi:10.20982/tqmp.04.2.p061
817	27.	Jeffreys, H. The theory of probability. (OUP Oxford, 1998).
818	28.	Townsend, J. & Ashby, F. G. Stochastic modeling of elementary
819		psychological processes. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press., 1983).
820	29.	Ruge, H. & Wolfensteller, U. Rapid Formation of Pragmatic Rule
821		Representations in the Human Brain during Instruction-Based Learning.
822		<i>Cereb. Cortex</i> 20 , 1656–1667 (2010).

- 30. Bhandari, A., Gagne, C. & Badre, D. Just above Chance: Is It Harder to
- 824 Decode Information from Human Prefrontal Cortex Blood Oxygenation Level-
- dependent Signals? *J. Cogn. Neurosci.* 1–26 (2018).
- 826 doi:10.1162/jocn_a_01291
- 31. Wimber, M., Alink, A., Charest, I., Kriegeskorte, N. & Anderson, M. C.
- 828 Retrieval induces adaptive forgetting of competing memories via cortical
- pattern suppression. *Nat. Neurosci.* **18**, 582–589 (2015).
- 32. Hartstra, E., Waszak, F. & Brass, M. The implementation of verbal
- instructions: Dissociating motor preparation from the formation of stimulus-
- response associations. *Neuroimage* **63**, 1143–1153 (2012).
- 33. De Baene, W., Albers, A. M. & Brass, M. The what and how components of
 cognitive control. *Neuroimage* 63, 203–211 (2012).
- 835 34. Muhle-Karbe, P. S., Andres, M. & Brass, M. Transcranial Magnetic
- 836 Stimulation Dissociates Prefrontal and Parietal Contributions to Task
- 837 Preparation. J. Neurosci. **34**, 12481–12489 (2014).
- 338 35. Wisniewski, D., Reverberi, C., Tusche, A. & Haynes, J.-D. The Neural
- 839 Representation of Voluntary Task-Set Selection in Dynamic Environments.
- 840 *Cereb. Cortex* **25**, 4715–4726 (2015).
- 36. Nobre, A. C. *et al.* Orienting Attention to Locations in Perceptual Versus
 Mental Representations. *J. Cogn. Neurosci.* **16**, 363–373 (2004).
- 37. Tamber-Rosenau, B. J., Esterman, M., Chiu, Y.-C. & Yantis, S. Cortical

844		Mechanisms of Cognitive Control for Shifting Attention in Vision and Working
845		Memory. J. Cogn. Neurosci. 23, 2905–2919 (2011).
846	38.	Lepsien, J. & Nobre, A. C. Attentional Modulation of Object Representations
847		in Working Memory. Cereb. Cortex 17, 2072–2083 (2007).
848	39.	Kuo, BC., Stokes, M. G., Murray, A. M. & Nobre, A. C. Attention Biases
849		Visual Activity in Visual Short-term Memory. J. Cogn. Neurosci. 26, 1377-
850		1389 (2014).
851	40.	González-García, C., Mas-Herrero, E., de Diego-Balaguer, R. & Ruz, M.
852		Task-specific preparatory neural activations in low-interference contexts.
853		Brain Struct. Funct. (2015). doi:10.1007/s00429-015-1141-5
854	41.	Chatham, C. H., Frank, M. J. & Badre, D. Corticostriatal Output Gating
855		during Selection from Working Memory. Neuron 81, 930–942 (2014).
856	42.	Quentin, R. et al. Differential Brain Mechanisms of Selection and
857		Maintenance of Information during Working Memory. J. Neurosci. 39, 3728
858		LP – 3740 (2019).
859	43.	Nichols, T. E. et al. Best practices in data analysis and sharing in
860		neuroimaging using MRI. Nat. Neurosci. 20, 299–303 (2017).
861	44.	Brady, T. F., Konkle, T., Alvarez, G. A. & Oliva, A. Visual long-term memory
862		has a massive storage capacity for object details. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 105,
863		14325–14329 (2008).
864	45.	Brady, T. F., Konkle, T., Alvarez, G. A. & Oliva, A. Real-world objects are not

865		represented as bound units: Independent forgetting of different object details
866		from visual memory. J. Exp. Psychol. Gen. 142, 791 (2013).
867	46.	Brodeur, M. B., Guérard, K. & Bouras, M. Bank of Standardized Stimuli
868		(BOSS) phase ii: 930 new normative photos. <i>PLoS One</i> 9 , e106953 (2014).
869	47.	Griffin, G., Holub, A. & Perona, P. Caltech-256 object category dataset.
870		Caltech Technical Report (2006). doi:10.1021/jp953720e
871	48.	Konkle, T., Brady, T. F., Alvarez, G. A. & Oliva, A. Conceptual
872		distinctiveness supports detailed visual long-term memory for real-world
873		objects. J. Exp. Psychol. Gen. 139, 558 (2010).
874	49.	Peirce, J. W. PsychoPy-Psychophysics software in Python. J. Neurosci.
875		Methods (2007). doi:10.1016/j.jneumeth.2006.11.017
876	50.	Gorgolewski, K. J. et al. BIDS apps: Improving ease of use, accessibility, and
877		reproducibility of neuroimaging data analysis methods. PLOS Comput. Biol.
878		13 , e1005209 (2017).
879	51.	Eklund, A., Nichols, T. E. & Knutsson, H. Cluster failure: Why fMRI
880		inferences for spatial extent have inflated false-positive rates. Proc. Natl.
881		<i>Acad. Sci.</i> 113 , 7900–7905 (2016).
882	52.	Hebart, M. N., Görgen, K. & Haynes, JD. The Decoding Toolbox (TDT): a
883		versatile software package for multivariate analyses of functional imaging
884		data. Front. Neuroinform. 8, (2015).
885	53.	Walther, A. et al. Reliability of dissimilarity measures for multi-voxel pattern

886	analysis.	Neuroimage 137,	188–200	(2016).
-----	-----------	-----------------	---------	---------

- 54. Ledoit, O. & Wolf, M. A well-conditioned estimator for large-dimensional
 covariance matrices. *J. Multivar. Anal.* 88, 365–411 (2004).
- Fedorenko, E., Duncan, J. & Kanwisher, N. Broad domain generality in focal
 regions of frontal and parietal cortex. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 110, 16616–
- 891 16621 (2013).

892

893 Acknowledgements

- 894 C.G.G. and S.F. were supported by the Special Research Fund of Ghent
- University BOF.GOA.2017.0002.03. D.W. was supported by FWO and the
- 896 European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Program under the
- Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant agreement no. 665501. We thank Senne Braem for
- feedback on previous drafts of the manuscript.

899 Author contributions

- All authors contributed to the design of the study. C.G.G and S.F. collected the
- 901 data, which was analyzed by C.G.G. Data interpretation was done in conjunction
- with all other authors. C.G.G. wrote the manuscript and all authors were involved inrevisions.

904 **Competing interests**

⁹⁰⁵ The authors declare no competing interests.