

1 **Metacognitive ability predicts hippocampal and prefrontal microstructure**

2 Micah Allen<sup>1,2</sup>, James C. Glen<sup>1</sup>, Daniel Müllensiefen<sup>3</sup>, Dietrich Samuel Schwarzkopf<sup>1,4</sup>,  
3 Martina F. Callaghan<sup>2</sup>, Geraint Rees<sup>1,2</sup>

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5 <sup>1</sup>Institute of Cognitive Neuroscience, UCL

6 <sup>2</sup>Wellcome Trust Center for Neuroimaging at UCL

7 <sup>3</sup>Department of Psychology, Goldsmiths, University of London

8 <sup>4</sup>Experimental Psychology, 26 Bedford Way, WC1H 0AP

9  
10 **Abstract:**

11 The ability to introspectively evaluate our experiences to form accurate metacognitive beliefs,  
12 or insight, is an essential component of decision-making. Previous research suggests  
13 individuals vary substantially in their level of insight, and that this variation predicts brain  
14 volume and function, particularly in the anterior prefrontal cortex (aPFC). However, the  
15 neurobiological mechanisms underlying these effects are unclear, as qualitative, macroscopic  
16 measures such as brain volume can be related to a variety of microstructural features. Here we  
17 used a newly developed, high-resolution (800µm isotropic) multi-parameter mapping  
18 technique in 48 healthy individuals to delineate quantitative markers of *in vivo* histological  
19 features underlying metacognitive ability. Specifically, we examined how neuroimaging  
20 markers of local grey matter myelination, macromolecular and iron content relate to insight.  
21 Extending previous volumetric findings, we found that metacognitive ability, as determined by  
22 a signal-detection theoretic model, was positively related to the myelo-architectural integrity  
23 of aPFC grey matter. Interestingly, perceptual metacognition predicted decreased  
24 macromolecule content coupled with increased iron in the hippocampus and precuneus, areas  
25 previously implicated in meta-memory rather than meta-perception. Further, the relationship  
26 of hippocampal-precuneus and prefrontal microstructure to an auditory memory measure was  
27 respectively mediated or suppressed by metacognitive ability, suggesting a dynamic trade-off  
28 between participant's memory and metacognition. These results point towards a novel  
29 understanding of the relationship between memory, brain microstructure, and metacognition.

30  
31 **Significance Statement:**

32 By combining a signal-theoretic model of individual metacognitive ability with state of the art  
33 quantitative neuroimaging, our results shed new light on the neurobiological mechanisms  
34 underlying introspective insight. Myelination and iron are core determinants of both healthy  
35 brain maturation and neurodegeneration; particularly in the hippocampus where iron  
36 accumulation is linked to oxidative stress and inflammation. Our results may thus indicate that  
37 metacognition depends upon the development and integrity of a memory-related brain network,  
38 potentially revealing novel biomarkers of neurodegeneration. These results highlight the power  
39 of quantitative mapping to reveal neurobiological correlates of behaviour.

40  
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## 43 **Introduction**

44 The metacognitive capacity for self-monitoring is at the core of learning and decision-making  
45 (Flavell, 1979). As a general capacity, metacognition is thought to enable the flexible  
46 monitoring and control of memory, perception and action (Fernandez-Duque et al., 2000). An  
47 efficient approach to quantifying this ability lies in the application of signal-detection theory  
48 to estimate the sensitivity of self-reported confidence to objective discrimination performance  
49 (Fleming and Lau, 2014). Individual differences in metacognitive sensitivity thus quantified  
50 are related to the morphological structure, function, and connectivity of the brain (for review,  
51 see Fleming and Dolan, 2012). Here we expand on these findings using a newly developed  
52 multi-parameter mapping (MPM) and voxel-based quantification (VBQ) technique to better  
53 elucidate the neurobiological mechanisms underpinning these effects.

54 The anterior prefrontal cortex (aPFC) (Fleming et al., 2010, 2012, 2014; Sinanaj et al.,  
55 2015) and precuneus (Baird et al., 2013; McCurdy et al., 2013) have been repeatedly related to  
56 metacognitive ability. Notably, several studies found a positive relationship between right  
57 APFC volume and metacognition (Fleming et al., 2010; McCurdy et al., 2013; Sinanaj et al.,  
58 2015). While convergent evidence from anatomical, lesion-based, and functional connectivity  
59 studies suggest that the right aPFC is specific to perceptual metacognition, metacognition for  
60 memory has instead been related to midline cortical (e.g., mPFC and PCC/precuneus) and  
61 hippocampal structures. (Fleming et al., 2012, 2014; Baird et al., 2013; McCurdy et al., 2013).  
62 Although these studies suggest that the ability to introspect on perception and memory depends  
63 on the development of a neural mechanism involving both domain-specific and general aspects,  
64 the underlying neurobiology driving the relationship between neuroanatomy and  
65 metacognition remains unclear.

66 This uncertainty lies partly in the inherent lack of specificity offered by volumetric  
67 measures of brain structure, which are fundamentally qualitative in nature. Indeed, voxel-based

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68 morphometry (VBM) yields measures in arbitrary units which can be driven by a variety of  
69 macroscopic factors such as cortical thickness and variability in cortical folding, owing to a  
70 non-specific variety of microstructural features (Ashburner, 2009). It has recently been shown  
71 that microstructural properties of brain tissue, such as myelination levels and iron content can  
72 lead to the detection of spurious morphological changes (Lorio et al., 2014, 2016). The  
73 emerging field of *in vivo* histology aims to combine maps of specific MRI parameters measured  
74 via quantitative imaging (qMRI) with biophysical models to provide direct indicators of the  
75 microstructural mechanisms driving morphological findings, and ultimately to quantify  
76 biologically relevant metrics such as myelination and iron concentrations, oligodendrocyte  
77 distributions, and the g-ratio of fibre pathways (Mohammadi et al., 2015; Weiskopf et al.,  
78 2015).

79         In the present study we used qMRI to map a number of key contrast parameters with  
80 differential sensitivity to underlying biological metrics, in order to better understand the  
81 microstructural correlates of metacognitive ability. To do so, we acquired high-resolution  
82 (800 $\mu$ m isotropic) data using the Multi-Parametric Mapping (MPM) qMRI protocol (Weiskopf  
83 et al., 2013). Respecting the quantitative nature of these data, we conducted voxel-based  
84 quantification (VBQ) analysis (Draganski et al., 2011) in 48 healthy participants to relate these  
85 microstructural markers to individual differences in metacognitive sensitivity during an  
86 adaptive visual motion discrimination task. Our results confirmed that right aPFC markers of  
87 myelo-architecture positively predict metacognitive ability, whereas left hippocampus and  
88 precuneus showed effects consistent with both decreased macromolecule and increased iron  
89 content. Further clarifying the domain-general role of memory in metacognition, the  
90 relationship of hippocampus and precuneus microstructure with auditory memory was  
91 mediated by metacognitive ability. These results extend our understanding of the

92 computational neuroanatomy of metacognition and provide novel targets for future clinical  
93 research.

94

## 95 **Methods**

### 96 *Participants*

97 48 healthy participants (29 female) were recruited from University College London and the  
98 surrounding community. As age is a strong determinant of micro-architecture and grey matter  
99 volume (Callaghan et al., 2014), we restricted our inclusion criteria to 20-40 years, resulting in  
100 a mean age of 24 (SD = 5). All participants were right handed, and were mentally and  
101 physically healthy with no history of neurological disorders and with normal (or corrected-to  
102 normal) vision and hearing. Participants were recruited from a local participant database using  
103 broadcast emails. All participants gave informed written consent to all procedures. In  
104 accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, the University College London Research Ethics  
105 Committee approved all procedures.

106

### 107 *Study Design*

108 Participants completed the experiment in two sessions, consisting of a 2-hour appointment at  
109 the Wellcome Trust Center for Neuroimaging to acquire all imaging data, and a separate 1-  
110 hour appointment to complete the metacognition task, a brief non-verbal auditory memory  
111 measure (Müllensiefen et al., 2014), and other behavioural measures (data not reported here).  
112 The neuroimaging session involved 30 minutes of multi-parameter mapping (MPM) while  
113 subjects silently viewed a muted nature documentary (to promote stillness). During the  
114 behavioural session, participants completed an adaptive psychophysical visual metacognition  
115 task (see *Behaviour*, below) lasting 30 minutes.

116

117 *Behaviour – Metacognition Global Motion Task*

118 To measure participants' metacognitive ability, we employed a global dot motion  
119 discrimination task comprising a forced-choice motion judgement with retrospective  
120 confidence ratings on every trial. As part of another investigation, in which we were  
121 investigating noise-induced confidence bias (Spence et al., 2015), we used a dual-staircase  
122 approach with two conditions in which either mean direction or standard deviation across dot  
123 directions was continuously adapted to stabilize discrimination performance. Thus, to control  
124 sensory noise independently of task difficulty, in two randomly interleaved conditions we  
125 presented either a stimulus with a fixed 15-degree mean angle of motion from vertical and a  
126 variable (adaptive) standard deviation (SD), or a variable (adaptive) mean angle from vertical  
127 at a fixed 30 degree SD. In either case, the mean ( $\mu$ -staircase condition,  $\mu S$ ) or standard  
128 deviation ( $\sigma$ -staircase condition,  $\sigma S$ ) of motion was continuously adjusted according to a 2-up-  
129 1 down staircase, which converges on 71% performance. On each trial the motion signal was  
130 thus constructed using the formula:

131

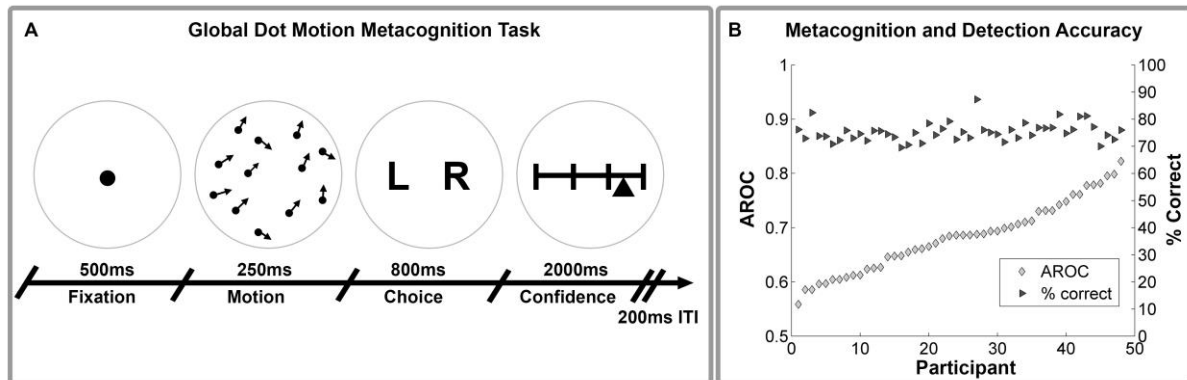
$$132 \quad \text{DotDirections} = \text{Direction (Left vs Right)} * \text{MeanOrientation} + \text{GaussianNoise} * \text{SD}$$

133

134 In which the condition-specific staircase determined either mean orientation or SD. Each trial  
135 consisted of a 500ms fixation, followed by a 250ms central presentation of the motion stimulus,  
136 which was then replaced by a central letter display "L R". Participants then had 800ms to make  
137 their response to indicate whether the mean motion direction was to the left or right of vertical.  
138 After this, a confidence rating scale marked by 4 equal vertical lines appeared. Each line was  
139 labelled, from left to right "no confidence, low, moderate, high confidence. Participants' heads  
140 were fixed with a chin and forehead rest 72 cm from the screen. Motion stimuli consisted of a  
141 central array of 1,100 dots presented over a central fixation dot, within a circular aperture of

142 radius 9.5 degrees visual angle (DVA), with dots advancing 0.02 DVA per frame. To ensure  
143 participants attended the global rather than the local motion direction, dot lifetimes were  
144 randomized and limited to a maximum of 93% stimulus duration.

145  
146



148 **Figure 1, Behavioral Paradigm and Metacognitive Accuracy.** Schematic of global dot-  
149 motion metacognition task (A) and plot of metacognitive vs motion detection accuracy (B).  
150 Participants were required to judge the global or average motion of a brief dot display, and then  
151 rate their confidence in this judgement from 0 (guessing) to 100 (certain). Performance was  
152 held constant using an adaptive threshold adjusting either signal mean or variance on each trial  
153 (see *Methods* for more details). Right hand plot demonstrates substantial individual differences  
154 in metacognitive accuracy, estimated as the type-II area under the curve (AROC),  
155 independently of motion discrimination performance. Inter-individual differences in AROC  
156 were then used in a multiple regression analysis to explain variation in microstructural brain  
157 features (see *VBQ Analysis*).

158

159 Participants were instructed that the goal of the task was to measure their perceptual and  
160 metacognitive ability. Metacognitive ability was defined as a participant's insight into the  
161 correctness of their motion judgements, i.e. how well their confidence reports reflected their  
162 discrimination accuracy. Participants completed a short practice block of 56 trials, in which  
163 they performed the motion discrimination without confidence ratings, with choice accuracy  
164 feedback provided by changing the colour of the fixation to green or red. All participants  
165 achieved better than 70% accuracy and indicated full understanding of the task before  
166 continuing. Participants completed 320 trials divided evenly between the two staircase

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167 conditions. Trials were divided into 10 blocks each with 40 trials, randomly interleaved across  
168 conditions within each block. 14 participants did not complete the last two blocks of the task  
169 due to a technical error, however all participants had at least 100 trials per condition (Fleming  
170 and Lau, 2014).

171

172 *Non-Verbal Auditory Measure*

173 As previous studies have found both commonalities and differences between metacognition for  
174 perception and memory (Baird et al., 2013; McCurdy et al., 2013), we collected a brief measure  
175 of participant's non-verbal auditory memory using a common same-different comparison  
176 paradigm (Müllensiefen et al., 2014). This involved a short AB task in which participants  
177 listened to a sequence of 10-17 notes, and then decided if a subsequent sequence at a different  
178 absolute pitch level had the same or a different structure. The second note sequence was always  
179 transposed either by a fifth or by a semitone. Participants were required to indicate whether the  
180 two note sequences had an identical pitch interval structure or not. The test score was then  
181 calculated as the accuracy of the same-different judgement for each participant across all 13  
182 trials.

183

184 *Quantitative Multi-Parameter Mapping (MPM)*

185 Recent technical developments have enabled *in vivo* mapping of neuroimaging markers of  
186 biologically relevant quantities to be performed with high resolution and whole brain coverage  
187 (Deoni et al., 2005; Helms et al., 2008a, 2008b, 2009). We used the Multi-Parameter Mapping  
188 (MPM) protocol (Weiskopf et al., 2013) to obtain maps of the percent saturation due to  
189 magnetization transfer (MT), longitudinal relaxation rate ( $R_1$ ), and effective transverse  
190 relaxation rate ( $R_2^*$ ).

191

192 *Data Acquisition*

193 All imaging data were collected on a 3T whole body MR system (Magnetom TIM Trio,  
194 Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany) using the body coil for radio-frequency (RF)  
195 transmission and a standard 32-channel RF head coil for reception. A whole-brain quantitative  
196 MPM protocol consisting of 3 spoiled multi-echo 3D fast low angle shot (FLASH) acquisitions  
197 with 800  $\mu\text{m}$  isotropic resolution and 2 additional calibration sequences to correct for  
198 inhomogeneities in the RF transmit field (Lutti et al., 2010, 2012; Callaghan et al., 2015b).

199 The FLASH acquisitions had predominantly proton density (PD), T1 or MT weighting.  
200 The flip angle was  $6^\circ$  for the PD- and MT-weighted volumes and  $21^\circ$  for the T1 weighted  
201 acquisition. MT-weighting was achieved through the application of a Gaussian RF pulse 2 kHz  
202 off resonance with 4ms duration and a nominal flip angle of  $220^\circ$ . The field of view was 256mm  
203 head-foot, 224mm anterior-posterior (AP), and 179mm right-left (RL). Gradient echoes were  
204 acquired with alternating readout gradient polarity at eight equidistant echo times ranging from  
205 2.34 to 18.44ms in steps of 2.30ms using a readout bandwidth of 488Hz/pixel. Only six echoes  
206 were acquired for the MT-weighted acquisition in order to maintain a repetition time (TR) of  
207 25ms for all FLASH volumes. To accelerate the data acquisition, partially parallel imaging  
208 using the GRAPPA algorithm was employed with a speed-up factor of 2 in each phase-encoded  
209 direction (AP and RL) with forty integrated reference lines.

210 To maximise the accuracy of the measurements, inhomogeneity in the transmit field  
211 was mapped using the 2D STEAM approach described in Lutti *et al.* 2010, including correcting  
212 for geometric distortions of the EPI data due to B0 field inhomogeneity. Total acquisition time  
213 for all MRI scans was less than 30 mins.

214

215 *Parameter Map Estimation and Voxel-Based Quantification (VBQ)*



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216 All images were processed using SPM12 (version 12.2, Wellcome Trust Centre for  
217 Neuroimaging, <http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/>) and bespoke tools implemented in the voxel-  
218 based quantification (VBQ) toolbox version 2e (Draganski et al., 2011; Weiskopf et al., 2015),  
219 implemented in MATLAB (Mathworks Inc, version R2014a).

220 To create the quantitative maps, all weighted volumes were co-registered to address  
221 inter-scan motion. Maps of  $R_2^*$  were estimated from the gradient echoes of all contrasts using  
222 the ordinary least squares ESTATICS approach (Weiskopf et al., 2014). The image data for  
223 each acquired weighting (PDw, T1w, MTw) were then averaged over the first six echoes to  
224 increase the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) (Helms et al., 2009). The three resulting volumes were  
225 used to calculate MT and  $R_1$  as described in (Helms et al., 2008a, 2008b) including corrections  
226 for transmit field inhomogeneity and imperfect spoiling (Preibisch and Deichmann, 2009a,  
227 2009b; Callaghan et al., 2015c). The MT map depicts the percentage loss of signal (MT  
228 saturation) that results from the application of the off-resonance MT pre-pulse and the  
229 dynamics of the magnetization transfer (Helms et al., 2008b).

230 A Gaussian mixture model implemented within the unified segmentation approach was  
231 used to classify MT maps into grey matter (GM), white matter (WM) and cerebrospinal fluid  
232 (CSF) (Ashburner and Friston, 2005). Diffeomorphic image registration (DARTEL) was used  
233 to spatially normalise individual grey and white matter tissue classes generated from the  
234 structural MT maps to a group mean template image (Ashburner, 2007). The resulting  
235 DARTEL template and participant-specific deformation fields were used to normalise the MT,  
236  $R_1$  and  $R_2^*$  maps of each participant to standard MNI space. We based our normalization of  
237 the quantitative map on the MT maps because of their greatly improved contrast in subcortical  
238 structures, e.g. basal ganglia, and similar WM/GM contrast in the cortex to T1-weighted images  
239 (Helms et al., 2008a). A 4 mm full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) Gaussian smoothing  
240 kernel was applied to the  $R_1$ , MT, and  $R_2^*$  during normalisation using the VBQ approach,

241 which aims to minimise partial volume effects and optimally preserve the quantitative values  
242 (Draganski et al., 2011). This tissue-specific approach to smoothing generates grey and white  
243 matter segments for each map. The grey matter segments were used in all subsequent analyses.  
244 For results visualization, an average MT map in standard MNI space was created from all  
245 participants.

246

## 247 **Analysis**

### 248 *Behavioural Analysis – Detection Performance and Metacognitive Ability*

249 All behavioural data were pre-processed using MATLAB (The Mathworks Inc, Natick, MA,  
250 USA). Following previous investigations, we discarded the first block of trials to allow for  
251 staircase stabilization. Any trial with reaction times (RT) below 100ms or more extreme than  
252 3 SD of mean RT was rejected from analysis. To quantify metacognitive ability, we estimated  
253 the type-II area under the receiver-operating curve (AROC) (Fleming et al., 2010, 2012;  
254 Fleming and Lau, 2014) separately for each staircase condition. This method has been  
255 described extensively elsewhere (Fleming et al., 2010; Fleming and Lau, 2014), but briefly it  
256 involves constructing a receiver-operating curve describing the p(high confidence | correct  
257 response) vs the p(low confidence | incorrect response). Under equal performance the AROC  
258 thus describes the sensitivity of a participant's confidence ratings relative to their actual  
259 performance. For AROC estimation, confidence ratings were binned into 4 equally sized  
260 quartiles (a necessary step for fitting the signal-theoretic model) using bespoke MATLAB  
261 code. As a general index of metacognitive ability, we then calculated average AROC, as well  
262 as average confidence, mean accuracy (% correct responses), detection sensitivity ( $d'$ ), choice  
263 bias ( $c$ ), and reaction time ( $RT$ ). We also calculated median signal mean, median signal  
264 variance, and accuracy within each condition to characterize our thresholding procedure.

265

266 *VBQ Analysis – Metacognitive Ability*

267 We initially focused on replicating and extending previous volumetric findings relating  
268 metacognitive ability to neuroanatomy (Fleming et al., 2010, 2014; McCurdy et al., 2013, 2013;  
269 Sinanaj et al., 2015). To do so we conducted volume of interest (VOI) multiple regression  
270 analyses using 5mm-radius spherical VOIs centred on the peak coordinates reported by  
271 Fleming (2010) and McCurdy (2013). This involved the creation of VOIs in the left (-20, 53,  
272 12), (-12, 54, 16) and right (24, 65, 18), (33, 50, 9), (32, 50, 7) APFC, right dorsolateral PFC  
273 (36, 39, 21), and precuneus (6, -57, 18), (8, -64, 24). All VOIs were generated using the WFU  
274 Pickatlas Version 3.0.5 (Maldjian et al., 2003), and combined into a single mask. The resulting  
275 mask is available for download at Neurovault.org (<http://neurovault.org/collections/1260/>). We  
276 then modelled inter-subject variation in the MT,  $R_2^*$ , and R1 grey matter maps in separate  
277 random-effects multiple regression analyses, modelling average AROC as our key dependent  
278 variable. Importantly, we followed previous investigations and controlled all analyses for  
279 average discrimination sensitivity (d-prime), confidence, response bias, the variance-induced  
280 confidence bias, and the difference in mean signal between the two staircases. To estimate  
281 variance-induced confidence bias, we fit multiple regression models within each subject,  
282 modelling trial-wise mean, variance, accuracy, and RT as predictors of confidence. This  
283 provided beta-weights for each participant indicating the degree to which their confidence  
284 report reflected variance-specific bias independently of the other modelled factors, which were  
285 then included in our VBQ multiple regression.

286

287 Following standard VBM procedure, we also included age, gender, and total intracranial  
288 volume as nuisance covariates. We then conducted small-volume corrected analyses of the  
289 positive and negative main effect of metacognitive ability (AROC) within our *a priori* mask,  
290 correcting for multiple comparisons using Gaussian Random Field Theory, FWE-peak

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291 corrected alpha = 0.05. Further, we analysed the whole-brain maps of the same contrasts, using  
292 a non-stationarity corrected FWE-cluster p-value with a  $p < 0.001$  inclusion threshold  
293 (Ridgway et al., 2008; Hupé, 2015). All anatomical labels and % activations were determined  
294 using the SPM Anatomy Toolbox (Eickhoff et al., 2005).

295

296 *Mediation Analysis of Auditory Memory and Metacognition*

297 To explore the relationship of metacognition, memory, and brain microstructure we conducted  
298 a single-level mediation analysis with the auditory memory score ( $X$ ) predicting brain  
299 microstructure ( $Y$ ), mediated by metacognitive ability ( $M$ ) (Wager et al., 2009; Woo et al.,  
300 2015). This enabled us to infer whether the relationship of, e.g., hippocampal microstructure  
301 and memory depended upon metacognition. For this analysis,  $R_2^*$  and MT values were  
302 extracted from each subject within the peak coordinate identified by our multiple-regression  
303 analysis, for the APFC (MT only), precuneus, and left hippocampus (see *VBQ Results*, below).  
304 As we observed a similar pattern of correlation for AROC in both hippocampus and precuneus,  
305 we first assessed the degree of correlation between each region for  $R_2^*$  and MT, respectively.  
306 Indeed,  $R_2^*$  and MT were significantly correlated between both regions ( $R_2^*$  between region  
307  $R = 0.37$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ; MT between region  $R = 0.46$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ). We thus averaged the values of  
308 each parameter across regions to create a general hippocampal-precuneus (HP) index for both  
309 measures. We then fit single-level mediation analyses using the Multilevel Mediation and  
310 Moderation Toolbox for MATLAB (<https://github.com/canlab/MediationToolbox>) to HP  $R_2^*$ ,  
311 HP MT, and APFC MT while controlling for the same covariates as in our VBQ analysis.  
312 Group-level significance for all direct ( $a, b, c, c'$ ) and mediation parameters ( $ab$ ) was assessed  
313 using a bootstrapping procedure with 10,000 bootstrap samples, alpha = 0.05.

314

315 **Results**

316

317 ***Behavioural Results***

318 To check staircase stability, we first performed two-way repeated measures ANOVA (factor  
319 A: block, levels 1-7; Factor B: staircase condition,  $\mu S$  vs  $\sigma S$ ) on accuracy scores after removing  
320 the first block. As several subjects did not complete the last two blocks, we first re-binned trials  
321 into 8 equal size bins of 20% total trial length, before analysing block stability. This analysis  
322 revealed a significant main effect of variance on accuracy ( $F(1, 47) = 15.15, p < 0.001$ ), but no  
323 main effect of block ( $ps > .33$ ) or block by condition interaction ( $p > 0.11$ ), indicating that  
324 although average performance was slightly higher in the  $\sigma S$  condition (Mean Accuracy  $\mu S =$   
325 73.4%, Mean Accuracy  $\sigma S = 76.6\%$ ), this difference did not change over time, indicating stable  
326 performance within each staircase. As a further check we repeated this analysis separately  
327 within each condition; in both cases the block main effect was not significant (all  $ps > 0.13$ ).  
328 All participants thus achieved stable performance, with an average accuracy of 75.3% (SD =  
329 3%) across two conditions. Metacognitive ability was comparable to previous studies using the  
330 AROC (mean AROC = 0.68, SD = 0.06) and did not differ between conditions,  $t(47) = -0.67,$   
331  $p = 0.51$ . Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for discrimination and metacognition  
332 performance.

333

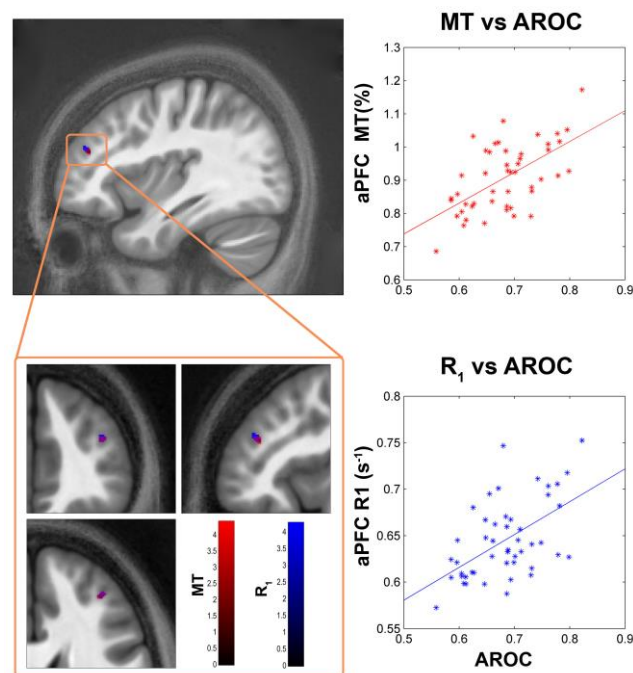
334 ***Neuroimaging Results***

335

336 *VOI analysis – extension of previous APFC and precuneus Findings*

337 Our VOI analysis revealed significant correlations within the right precuneus and aPFC. aPFC  
338 showed overlapping, significant positive correlations of AROC with both  $R_1$  (peak voxel  
339  $MNI_{xyz} = [37\ 41\ 22]$ ) and MT (peak voxel  $MNI_{xyz} = [37\ 42\ 22]$ ) maps. As both maps are  
340 sensitive to myelination to a varying degree, this suggests previous volumetric findings in the

341 aPFC are related to the myelo-architecture of the cortical grey matter. In contrast, in the  
342 precuneus we found that AROC was negatively related to MT (peak voxel  $MNI_{xyz} = [10 -58$   
343  $8]$ ) and positively related to  $R_2^*$  (peak voxel  $MNI_{xyz} = [9 -64 24]$ ). This result likely indicates  
344 a complex interaction between iron-regulating macromolecules such as ferritin, microglia, or  
345 amybetaloids and local iron concentration (Galazka-Friedman et al., 2009). Interestingly, it  
346 may explain why some previous studies failed to find correlates of perceptual metacognition  
347 in the precuneus (Fleming et al., 2010; Sinanaj et al., 2015), as this pattern of microstructural  
348 changes may counteract resulting in minimal contrast on T1-weighted images (Callaghan et  
349 al., 2015a) and therefore no net difference in a VBM analysis using such images. See table 2  
350 and Figure 3 for summary of these results.



351

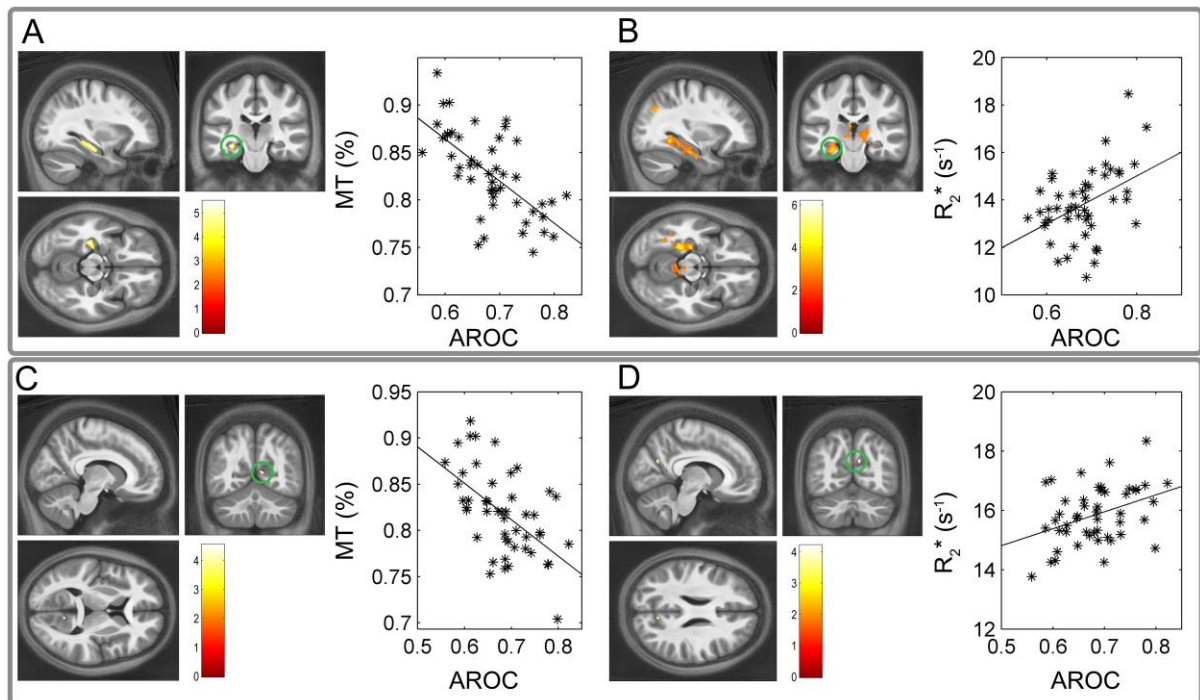
352 **Figure 2 aPFC VBQ findings.** Figure shows correlation of metacognitive ability (AROC) and  
353 anterior prefrontal (aPFC) microstructural measures of white-matter concentration ( $R_1$  and  
354 MT) across 48 participants. Right side, scatter plots showing peak voxel vs AROC, with least-  
355 squares line for illustration purposes. Bottom left, zoomed in view shows overlap of AROC  
356 correlation in both MT and  $R_1$  maps. Colour bars indicate t-values, blobs displayed on average  
357 MT map from our 48 participants. Volume of interest analysis, FWE-peak corrected  $p < 0.05$   
358 within mask generated from previously reported coordinates (Fleming et al., 2010; McCurdy  
359 et al., 2013). See *VBQ Analysis* for more details.

360

361 *Whole-brain AROC Analysis*

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362 Our whole brain analysis revealed a striking relationship between AROC and left hippocampal  
363 MT. Here, higher AROC related to reduced MT in the left posterior-hippocampus (peak voxel  
364  $MNI_{xyz} = [-31 -25 -14]$ ). Inspection of this result in the SPM anatomy toolbox revealed that the  
365 majority (51.6%) was in the dentate gyrus (33.4% ‘activated’), with another 29.3% in CA1  
366 (14.2% activated), and to a lesser extent in the subiculum (6.6%, 1.8% activated) and CA3  
367 (5.6%, 14.9% activated). Additionally, we found that iron levels as indexed by  $R_2^*$  negatively  
368 predicted AROC in the visual cortex, primarily in V1 (peak voxel  $MNI_{xyz} = [1 -69 11]$ ), and  
369 positively predicted AROC in the left middle-temporal gyrus (peak voxel  $MNI_{xyz} = [-51 -48$   
370  $2]$ ). A positive iron effect which was just above our cluster-level threshold (pFWE cluster =  
371 0.052), but which was FWE-peak significant (pFWE peak = 0.044) was also found in the right  
372 subiculum (peak voxel  $MNI_{xyz} = [14 -38 -5]$ ). Finally, as our VOI analysis indicated an inverse  
373 relationship between precuneus MT and  $R_2^*$ , we were interested to see if a similar pattern could  
374 be found in the left hippocampus at a reduced (i.e., more exploratory) threshold. We thus  
375 lowered our uncorrected inclusion threshold to  $p < 0.01$ , FWE-cluster corrected to  $p < 0.05$ ,  
376 and found that left hippocampal  $R_2^*$  also positively predicted AROC (peak voxel  $MNI_{xyz} = [-$   
377  $26 -36 -13]$ , pFWE  $< 0.001$ ). These results are particularly interesting in light of the fact that  
378 they have not been previously reported in the context of perceptual metacognition, which may  
379 be due to the fact that decreased macromolecular content coupled with increased iron content  
380 may result in no net volume change being identified, highlighting the increased sensitivity and  
381 specificity of our method. All raw t-maps and FWE-thresholded maps have been made  
382 available to view and freely downloaded at Neurovault  
383 (<http://neurovault.org/collections/1260/>).



384

### 385 **Figure 3, Hippocampus and Precuneus VBQ findings.**

386 Voxel-based quantification results in the left hippocampus and right precuneus. Hippocampus  
387 MT negatively relates to metacognitive ability (AROC) (top left, A), whereas iron levels in the  
388 same region positively predict metacognition (top right, B). Interestingly, the same pattern is  
389 seen for right hippocampus. Blobs depict results of multiple regression analyses vs each map  
390 type, while controlling for age, gender, ICV, and a variety of performance-related variables  
391 (see *Methods* for more information). Results shown on average MT map in MNI space.  
392 Scatterplots are for illustration purposes only and depict the peak voxel from each SPM versus  
393 raw AROC. Top panel results are from FWE-cluster corrected whole brain analysis,  $p_{FWE} <$   
394 0.05; bottom panel results are from VOI analysis across multiple regions drawn from previous  
395 volumetric metacognition studies.

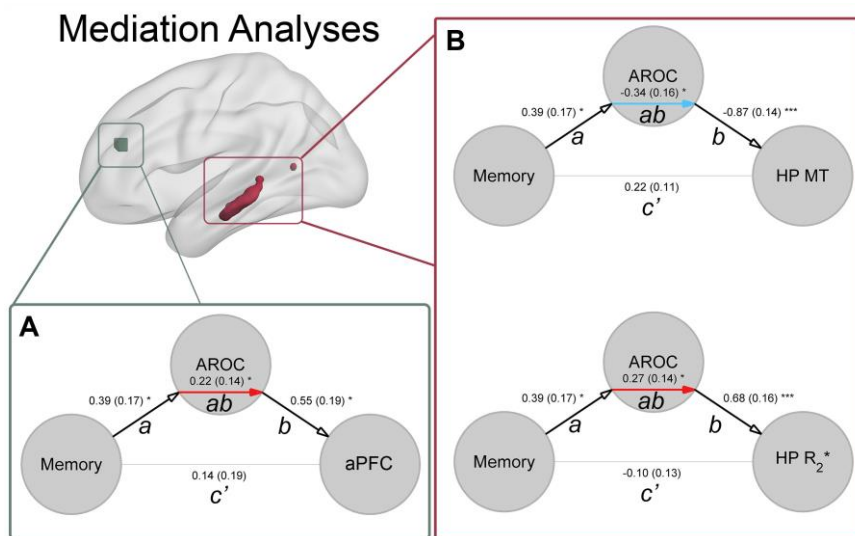
396

### 397 *Mediation Results - Auditory Memory and Metacognition*

398 This analysis revealed a significant relationship between memory scores and AROC  
399 (mean path = 0.39, SD = 0.17,  $p < 0.05$ ). Across all three brain measures, AROC significantly  
400 mediated the relationship of brain microstructure and memory ability – interestingly for MT  
401 this relationship was positive for the aPFC, with higher metacognition mediating the  
402 relationship of memory and aPFC (mean path = 0.24, SD = 0.15,  $p < 0.05$ ); instead suppression  
403 (negative mediation) was observed for hippocampal-precuneus (mean path = -0.34, SD = 0.16,  
404  $p < 0.05$ ). Finally, for HP  $R_2^*$  AROC also showed a positive mediation effect (mean path =



405 0.27, SD = 0.16,  $p < 0.05$ ). These results suggest that metacognition differentially changes the  
406 interrelation of prefrontal and hippocampal microstructure to memory ability, perhaps  
407 indicating that individuals who are better at metacognition have a more ‘metacognitive’  
408 memory network and conversely, a more memory-related metacognition system. See figure 4  
409 for an overview of these results.  
410



411

412 **Figure 4, Memory and Metacognition Mediation Analysis Results.** A) Metacognitive  
413 ability (AROC) significantly mediates (red arrow) the relationship of non-verbal auditory  
414 memory and APFC myelo-architecture (as measured by Magnetization Transfer Ratio, MT).  
415 In contrast, B) the relationship of memory and hippocampal-precuneus (HP) myelo-  
416 architecture is suppressed by metacognitive ability (blue arrow), but enhanced for HP iron (as  
417 measured by R<sub>2</sub>\*). These results suggest individual differences in memory and metacognition  
418 are related by a dynamic interaction between the two networks, with the memory-related  
419 network increasingly related to metacognitive circuits and vice versa for the prefrontal cortex.  
420 Statistical significance for each parameter of the path model ( $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $ab$ , and  $c'$ ; \*  $< 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $<$   
421  $0.001$ ) determined via bootstrapping procedure, see *Methods* for more details.

422

## 423 Discussion

424 Our findings demonstrate that individual differences in metacognitive ability are related to  
425 underlying microstructural features of prefrontal and hippocampal neuroanatomy. Previous  
426 studies investigating individual metacognitive ability indicated that the function, connectivity,  
427 and volume of anterior prefrontal cortex (aPFC) underlie introspective insight. Here we build

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428 on these findings using a novel quantitative magnetic resonance technique to show that  
429 prefrontal correlates of metacognition are related to markers of grey-matter myelo-architecture,  
430 as indexed by the overlapping effect in both MT and  $R_1$  maps. In contrast, we found that  
431 differences consistent with decreased hippocampus and precuneus macromolecular content,  
432 coupled with increased iron content predicted metacognitive ability. Interestingly, we also  
433 found that metacognition mediated the relationship of memory ability and microstructure in  
434 the hippocampus and prefrontal cortex, suggesting a domain-general mechanism linking  
435 memory and metacognition. These results suggest that unique neurobiological mechanisms  
436 underlie the development and aetiology of metacognition for memory (i.e., meta-memory) and  
437 perception (meta-perception).

438 Previous investigations of metacognitive ability and individual differences in brain  
439 anatomy suggest that introspection for memory and perception depend upon both common and  
440 unique neural substrates. As strong evidence for their dissociation, Fleming et al (2014)  
441 recently demonstrated that medial-prefrontal (MPFC) or aPFC lesions selectively disrupt meta-  
442 memory or perception, respectively. In another study by McCurdy et al (2013), although  
443 metacognition for perception and memory were found to correlate, the two processes  
444 independently related to the volume of aPFC and precuneus. Interestingly, in an interaction  
445 analysis these authors found that while precuneus volume also predicted meta-perceptual  
446 ability, aPFC did not predict meta-memory. In contrast, Baird and colleagues (2013) found no  
447 behavioural correlation of meta-memory and perception, but instead found that the former  
448 predicted functional connectivity from the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) to the precuneus  
449 and inferior parietal cortex, while the latter was predicted by functional connectivity seeded  
450 from the aPFC to the cingulate, putamen, and thalamus. However, Baird et al. also examined  
451 the differential connectivity strength of aPFC vs mPFC and found that better meta-memory  
452 was associated with stronger connectivity between the aPFC and the hippocampus, precuneus,

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453 and other memory-related areas, a finding which may possibly explain our mediation results.  
454 Thus while these studies suggest a degree of independence between meta-memory and meta-  
455 perceptual systems, they also suggest that interactions between memory (precuneus,  
456 hippocampus) and metacognition-related (aPFC) brain areas underlie general metacognitive  
457 ability.

458 Complementing these results, we found that perceptual metacognitive ability was  
459 positively related to the myelo-architectural integrity of the aPFC, as evidenced by coincident  
460 AROC-related differences in  $R_1$  and MT maps in this region. In contrast, in the precuneus and  
461 left hippocampus we found that decreased MT and increased  $R_2^*$  were predictive of inter-  
462 individual differences in perceptual metacognition. Furthermore, the relationship of  
463 microstructure in each of these areas to memory was mediated by metacognitive ability,  
464 supporting the hypothesis of an interaction between memory and perceptual awareness. Our  
465 results are thus consistent with a general linkage between memory, metacognition, and related  
466 neural networks.

467 Although each of the multi-parameter maps have enhanced specificity over  
468 conventional weighted imaging and each exhibit sensitivity to particular microstructural tissue  
469 properties, this relationship is not unique. Histologically, differences in MT measures strongly  
470 correlate with myelin content (e.g., Mottershead et al., 2003; Schmierer et al., 2007; Turati et  
471 al., 2015). While myelin is also a significant determinant of  $R_1$  (Koenig, 1991; Mottershead et  
472 al., 2003; Gouw et al., 2008), other features of the myelo-architecture such as the axonal  
473 diameter, perhaps coupled to the exposed myelin surface, may be a greater determinant, at least  
474 in white matter (Harkins et al., 2016). Nonetheless, other factors such as iron content (Gelman  
475 et al., 2001; Rooney et al., 2007; Callaghan et al., 2015a) and cellular architecture (Mottershead  
476 et al., 2003; Gouw et al., 2008) also play a role.  $R_2^*$  is highly correlated with iron content  
477 (Langkammer et al., 2010) but can also be influenced by fibre orientation and architecture

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478 (Wharton and Bowtell, 2012). Considering this array of factors, we benefit from having a multi-  
479 modal view to aid in interpreting our findings. Thus, where we identified a decreased MT  
480 coupled with an increased  $R_2^*$  in the absence of an  $R_1$  effect suggests a coincident decrease in  
481 myelin and increase in iron content, potentially driven by changes in underlying microglial and  
482 astroglial support structures. In contrast, the co-localisation of increases in both MT and  $R_1$   
483 suggests an increase in myelination independent of changes in iron or other paramagnetic  
484 content that would also be expected to impact  $R_2^*$ .

485 This pattern of results may suggest a unique neurobiological mechanism for the  
486 interaction of stress, memory, and metacognition. One recent study by Reyes et al (2015) tested  
487 individual response to stress induction, and then at a later date participant's perceptual  
488 metacognitive ability. These authors found that high-stress responders showed an altered  
489 overall level of confidence and reduced metacognitive ability. This is particularly interesting  
490 in light of our findings in the left hippocampus. The hippocampus is highly sensitive to  
491 degradation by prolonged neurotoxic oxidative stress and related inflammation of glial cells (a  
492 potential driver of MT), which are responsible for the processing and regulation of cortical  
493 iron. Increased iron and decreased MT may thus indicate an adaptive stress response, leading  
494 to myelin breakdown (Bartzokis, 2011), such that environmental stress has resulted in elevated  
495 neuromelanin levels (Nakane et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2014) to reduce oxidative damage to the  
496 hippocampus.

497 Alternatively, this pattern may be explained by nutritional differences. Glial  
498 inflammation is closely linked to iron homeostasis by a complex feedback mechanism, with  
499 nutritional iron deficits during foetal, infant, or adolescent development linked to impaired  
500 memory and learning (Georgieff, 2008; Carlson et al., 2009, 2010), glial inflammation (Bilbo  
501 et al., 2011), and increased risk of neurodegenerative diseases later in life (Gerlach et al., 1994).  
502 Iron deficiency exerts numerous effects in the hippocampus and, elevating various metabolites,

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503 GABA, and altering overall tissue architecture and myelination (Jorgenson et al., 2005;  
504 Georgieff, 2008). Our results might thus indicate an overall neuro-protective effect, in which  
505 reduced hippocampal MT (and increased iron) reflect reduced inflammation of neurobiological  
506 support structures, caused by either lower trait-stress response or as the result of increased  
507 nutritional iron.

508         Of course, the causal direction and precise mechanisms underlying these effects remain  
509 unclear; it could be for example that individuals with a less stressful environment have a better  
510 overall memory (and therefore more evidence of neuroprotective element) (Rodrigue et al.,  
511 2013), or the iron profiles indicated here may represent a direct response to stress and/or reflect  
512 a neuro-genetic ability to adaptively respond to stress or nutritional challenges. We might  
513 speculate that metacognition-related hippocampal histology could potentially be an early  
514 biomarker for Alzheimer's and other neurodegenerative diseases; if such a pattern does reflect  
515 an early-life response to stress, it may come at the cost of an increased risk to developing these  
516 diseases later in life. Regardless, our study provides an interesting starting point for future  
517 work, so that we can better understand how the histological factors discovered here relate to  
518 metacognitive ability.

519         *Limitations and Future Directions*

520 Methodological limitations common to all studies requiring spatial normalisation are the  
521 potential for residual registration errors, as well as partial volume effects. To minimise these  
522 sources of bias we used the DARTEL algorithm for inter-subject registration, which results in  
523 maximally accurate registration (Klein et al., 2009), and used the voxel based quantification  
524 normalisation procedure to minimise partial volume effects introduced by smoothing  
525 (Draganski et al., 2011).

526         Here we speculatively interpret our results as suggesting a link between the histology  
527 of the hippocampus and APFC, and the relationship of memory and metacognition. Indeed, the

528 hippocampus and precuneus are a core part of a memory-related network (Squire, 1992; Brown  
529 and Aggleton, 2001). We also found that metacognitive ability both negatively mediated  
530 (supressed) the relationship of auditory memory ability and hippocampal/precuneal  
531 microstructure, and positively mediated the link between memory and APFC myelination. This  
532 suggests that a dynamic interaction between memory and meta-cognition related brain areas  
533 mediates the influence of metacognition on memory (or vice versa); however future work with  
534 a more general battery of memory and meta-memory tasks is needed to better understand this  
535 relationship. Additionally, without stress or nutrition-related measures we can only speculate  
536 as to their link with the effects observed here. Indeed, individual differences in brain structure  
537 and function are influenced by a variety of developmental, neurogenetic, and environmental  
538 factors (Kanai and Rees, 2011).

539 Thus, an important step for future studies will be to study the microstructural correlates  
540 of metacognitive ability with a more comprehensive battery of perceptual, memory, and stress-  
541 related measures. Nevertheless, our study is the first to establish that quantitative neuroimaging  
542 reveals potential biomarkers sensitive to metacognitive ability, which has allowed us to greatly  
543 extend previous functional and volumetric studies. We therefore anticipate that future research  
544 will expand upon these findings to better understand their developmental, genetic, and  
545 environmental causes.

546

## 547 **Conclusion**

548 By using a quantitative multi-parameter mapping approach, we were able to reveal the  
549 contribution of the hippocampus and precuneus to perceptual metacognition. Furthermore, as  
550 our method yields standardised quantitative metrics sensitive to the underlying tissue  
551 microstructure, these results can be used to inform future clinical research as they can be  
552 compared directly across research sites. Our results suggest that the concentration of iron in

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553 the hippocampus is an important predictor for metacognitive ability, pointing towards a  
554 potential neuroprotective mechanism defending introspection from stress. More generally,  
555 these results suggest that memory-related systems may be more important than previously  
556 realized for the computation of perceptual confidence. Future research into the genetic,  
557 environmental, and other dynamic factors underlying these findings are likely to yield strong  
558 dividends in the study of metacognitive ability.

559

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563

564 **Tables**

565 **Table 1 – Behavioural Summary**

Table 1  
*Behavioural Summary*

Variable	$\mu S$ (SD)	$\sigma S$ (SD)	$\mu$ ( $\mu S, \sigma S$ ) (SD)
$d'$	1.40 (0.32)	1.60 (0.41)	-0.20 (0.43)
RT (ms)	404.3 (66)	414.0 (69)	409.1 (66)
Accuracy %	73.4 (3.6)	76.8 (4.9)	75.3% (3)
Confidence (1-4)	2.75 (0.26)	2.39 (0.27)	2.56 (0.14)
Confidence (1-100)	73.4 (13.8)	62.6 (15.2)	62.64 (15.23)
AROC	0.68 (0.07)	0.69 (0.08)	0.68 (0.06)
Median $\mu$ or $\sigma$	6.46 (2.96)	53.34 (13.27)	<i>na</i>

566 *Note:*  $\mu S$  = mean staircase,  $\sigma S$  = variance staircase, SD = standard deviation.  
567

568

569 **Table 2, Summary of Brain Results**

570

Table 2  
*Summary of Brain Results*  
VOI Results

Map	Region	$k$	$p_{FWE}$ peak	$p_U$ peak	$T$	$Z$	$x$	$y$	$z$
MT +	R APFC	38	0.035	< 0.001	4.38	3.92	37	41	22
MT -	R Precuneus	25	0.024	< 0.001	4.54	4.03	10	-58	8
R <sub>2</sub> * +	R Precuneus	51	0.040	< 0.001	4.20	3.78	9	-64	24
R <sub>1</sub> +	R APFC	51	0.043	< 0.001	4.25	3.82	37	42	22

Whole Brain Results

Map	Region	$k$	$p_{FWE}$ cluster	$p_U$ cluster	$T$	$Z$	$x$	$y$	$z$
MT -	L Hippo.	850	0.030	< 0.001	5.48	4.68	-31	-25	-14
R <sub>2</sub> * -	L & R V1	598	0.016	< 0.001	4.89	4.28	1	-69	11
R <sub>2</sub> * +	L MTG	568	0.011	< 0.001	5.72	4.83	-51	-48	2
R <sub>2</sub> * +	R Subiculum <sup>†</sup>	417	0.044	< 0.001	6.17	5.10	14	-38	-5
R <sub>2</sub> * +	L Hippo. <sup>‡</sup>	5518	< 0.001	< 0.001	4.94	4.31	-26	-36	-13

571 *Note:* Hippo = hippocampus, MTG = middle temporal gyrus, APFC = rostralateral prefrontal cortex. <sup>†</sup> indicates  
572 peak-corrected result and p-values. <sup>‡</sup> indicates result from exploratory  $p < 0.01$  inclusion threshold.  $k$  = cluster  
573 extent in voxels,  $T$  = t-value,  $Z$  = z-value,  $x, y, z$  = MNI peak coordinates.  $p_{FWE}$  cluster = family-wise corrected  
574 cluster p-value,  $p_U$  cluster = uncorrected cluster p-value,  $p_{FWE}$  peak = family-wise corrected peak p-value,  $p_U$   
575 cluster = uncorrected peak p-value. + - indicates positive or negative t-contrast. See *VBQ analysis* and *VBQ*  
576 *Results* for more details.



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