

1 **Persistent neural activity encoding real-time presence of visual**
2 **stimuli decays along the ventral stream**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Neural populations that encode sensory experience should be persistently active for as long as
15 the experience persists. However, research into visual neural activity has focused almost
16 exclusively on onset-driven responses that cannot account for sustained perception. We used
17 intracranial recordings in humans to determine the degree to which the presence of a visual
18 stimulus is persistently encoded by neural activity. The correspondence between stimulus
19 duration and response duration was strongest in early visual cortex and gradually diminished
20 along the visual hierarchy, such that it was weakest in inferior-temporal category-selective
21 regions. A similar posterior-anterior gradient was found within inferior temporal face-selective
22 regions, with posterior but not anterior sites showing persistent face-selective activity. The
23 results suggest that regions that appear uniform in terms of their category selectivity are
24 dissociated by how they temporally represent a stimulus in support of real-time experience, and
25 delineate a large-scale organizing principle of the ventral visual stream.

26

27 **Keywords:** Electrocorticography, visual Cortex, sustained perception, high-frequency
28 activity, early visual cortex, inferior temporal cortex, fusiform face area.

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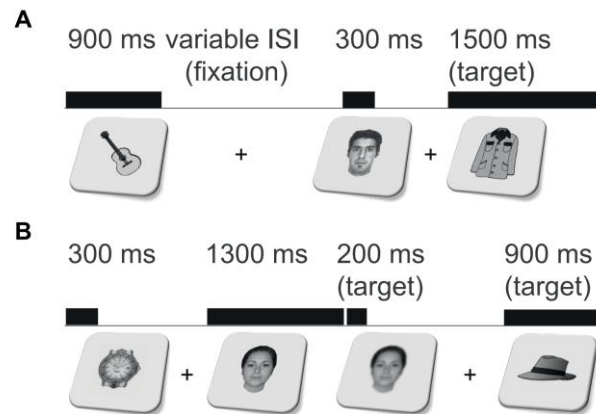
31 **Introduction**

32 Although visual perception of scenes or objects typically occurs over an extended time window,
33 what we know of human high level visual perception is largely based on onset responses, that
34 is, responses to change (e.g. the EEG/intracranial face-selective N170/N200; Bentin et al. 1996;
35 Allison et al. 1999). While onset responses hold a wealth of information on the functional
36 properties of the respective neural population, they cannot disentangle the transient response to
37 change, from neural activity driven by the ongoing presence of a percept. Thus, how real-time
38 experience persists beyond the onset is unknown, leaving the neural basis of the brunt of
39 perceptual time unaccounted for. Put simply, our question is how do we know, in real-time and
40 beyond the initial detection, whether a stimulus we gaze at is still present 500 or 1500 ms later,
41 and how do we know its content, e.g. whether it is (still) a face or an object? This question is
42 distinct from that of explicit duration estimation tasks (e.g. was a probe stimulus shorter or
43 longer than a reference stimulus; Buhusi & Meck 2005; Lewis & Miall 2003) in which
44 judgments are performed post-hoc, that is, after stimulus offset. Here, we are concerned with
45 how the visual system codes the continued presence of an object in real time. Some evidence
46 of sustained responses to visual stimuli can be gleaned from single unit (Kulikowski et al. 1979;
47 Petersen et al. 1988; Ikeda & Wright 1974) or fMRI studies (Gilaie-Dotan et al. 2008) using
48 long duration visual stimuli, and from variable duration EEG\MEG responses in an explicit
49 duration estimation task (N'Diaye et al. 2004; Pouthas et al. 2000), however these studies did
50 not directly examine the neural basis of sustained, real-time perception.

51 We recorded from ten human subjects implanted with subdural electrodes over visual cortices
52 using electrocorticography (ECoG) while subjects were engaged in a novel target detection
53 paradigm, with faces and objects presented for variable durations. Since even a brief stimulus
54 can produce a sustained response (Fisch et al. 2009), using variable stimulus durations was
55 crucial for isolating the part of the response driven specifically by the stimulus ongoing
56 presence. However, no duration estimation was required.

57 We found that early visual cortex (EVC) high frequency broadband response closely tracked
58 the time course of the stimulus, and this precision decreased along the visual hierarchy, i.e.
59 from V1/V2 to V3/V4, from early visual cortex to inferior temporal (IT) cortex, and from
60 posterior to anterior IT. Only the posterior part of IT robustly encoded the presence of the
61 stimulus over time. This posterior-anterior gradient could not be explained by signal-to-noise
62 ratio or by differential influences of attention or saccade-related activity.

63



64

65 **Figure 1: Experimental paradigm.** (A) Images were presented for 300, 900, or 1500 ms (for 3 subjects
66 also 600 or 1200 ms) with variable inter-stimulus interval (ISI) during which a fixation cross was
67 presented. Subjects responded with a button press to presentation of targets (clothing images; 10% of
68 trials). (B) Dual-task control. This task was identical to the first except that subjects also had to respond
69 to rare blurring of the image in the last 200 ms of its presentation.

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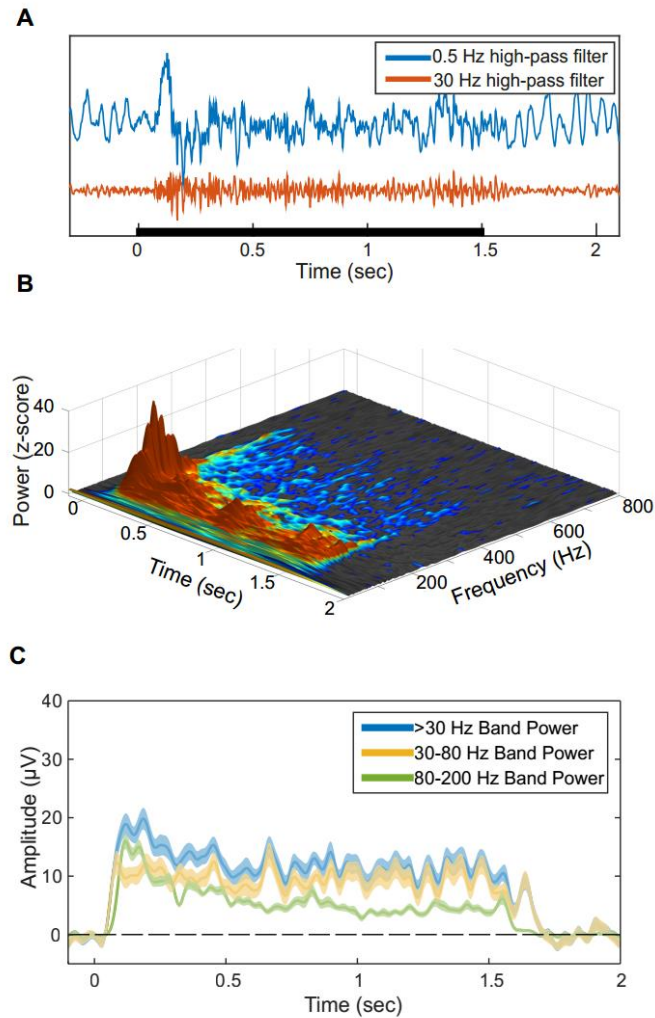
71 Results

72 Subjects viewed grayscale images of faces, objects, or other miscellaneous images presented
73 for a duration of 300, 600, 900, 1200 or 1500 milliseconds. To maintain attention subjects
74 responded via button press to a rare target category (clothes, Fig. 1A). All subjects detected the
75 targets successfully (mean±SD hit rate 90.4%±8.6%, false alarm rate 1.9%±3.2%). Responses
76 to the rare targets were not included in the following analyses. Stimulus-induced modulation of
77 the ECoG signal was measured as an increase in the power of high frequency broadband signal
78 (HFB, >30 Hz), which was shown to correlate with local neural firing rate (Manning et al.
79 2009). Fig. 2 shows characteristic single-trial and average responses. Out of 1067 electrodes,
80 subsequent analysis was performed on 292 electrodes designated as visually-responsive, based
81 on a significant modulation of HFB power to at least one stimulus category.

82

83 *Duration-Tracking Decreases from EVC to Category-Selective IT Cortex*

84 To determine the degree to which the real-time, moment- by-moment presence of the visual
85 percept is analogically reflected in the HFB signal on a single-trial basis, we quantified for each
86 trial and electrode the duration for which the temporally-smoothed HFB signal was
87 continuously sustained above baseline following the response onset. A *duration-tracking*
88 *accuracy* was then computed as the percentage of trials where the duration of the sustained



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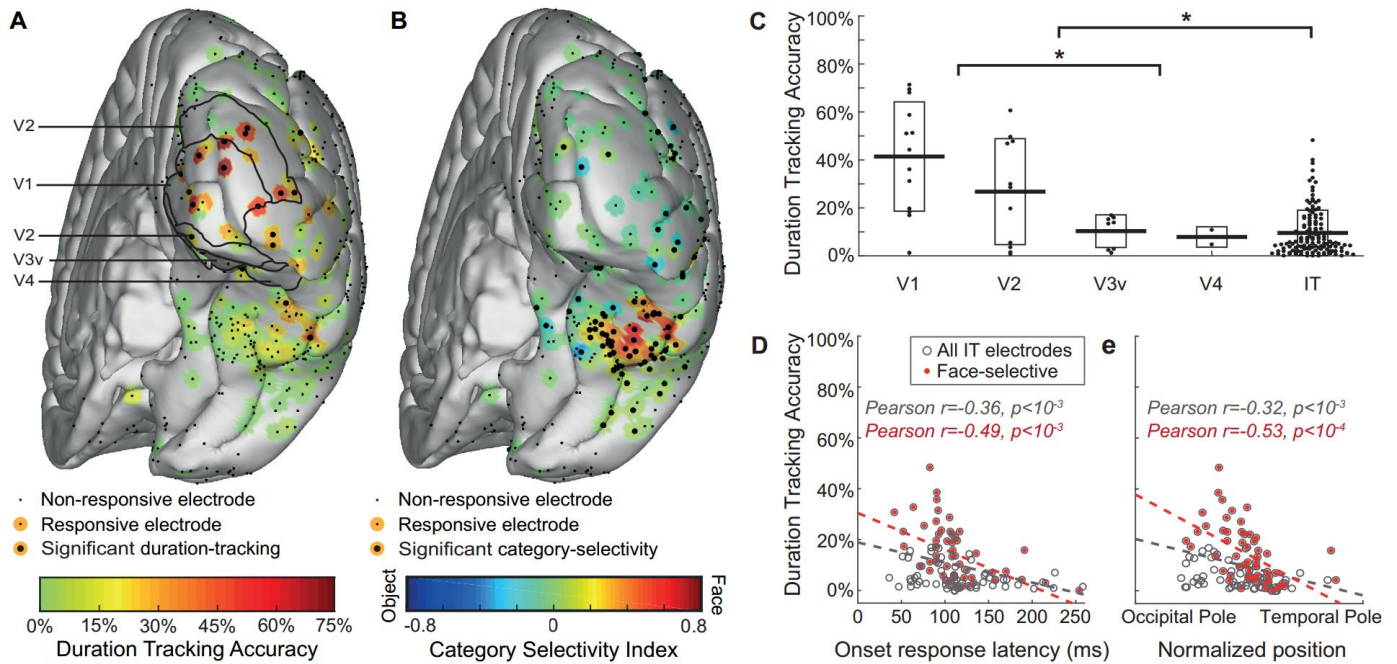
90 **Figure 2: Representative spectral response profile.** (A) The high-frequency response is evident in raw
91 single trials. Blue and Red traces correspond to 0.5 Hz and 30 Hz high-pass filtered traces respectively
92 of a single trial from an early visual cortex (V1/V2) electrode. Black bar indicates the stimulus duration.
93 (B) Time-frequency response to 1500 millisecond visual stimuli averaged across both categories, in the
94 same electrode. Z-axis and color scale represent z-score of the power at each time-frequency data point
95 as normalized by the baseline for the same frequency band. Since both the baseline and response spectra
96 are dominated by a $1/f$ power law in terms of mean power and variance, this normalization makes it
97 possible to observe relative modulations in high frequency bands which are otherwise too small in
98 comparison to lower frequencies. Color and grayscale data points represent significant and non-
99 significant z-score values respectively ($p < 0.05$, uncorrected). Note that while the early response
100 components contain higher power at high frequencies, the upper bound of significantly above-baseline
101 activity is roughly fixed at 400-500Hz throughout the activity time course, implying a general attenuation
102 of the response over time rather than a narrowing of the response bandwidth. (C) Amplitude of band-
103 limited activity in three frequency bands for the same electrode. Shading corresponds to standard error.
104 While including lower frequencies increases the response SNR, all subsets of the high-frequency range
105 produce a qualitatively similar response pattern, suggesting that the underlying activity is indeed
106 broadband.

107 response was within ± 150 ms of the true stimulus duration (see Materials and Methods). The
108 rationale of this approach is to emulate a real-time process where the persistence of the stimulus
109 percept can be decoded from the region's HFB signal, by testing, at each consecutive time
110 window, whether the signal is still above the decision threshold ("activation") or not
111 ("baseline"). Of the 292 visually-responsive electrodes, 21 electrodes in eight subjects showed
112 significant duration-tracking accuracy based on a permutation test, 17 of which were located in
113 the posterior occipital lobe (50% of responsive early visual cortex electrodes) and 4 located on
114 IT cortex (1.5% of responsive IT electrodes; Fig. 3A, 5).

115 To identify category-selective electrodes, a selectivity index (SI) metric was computed
116 corresponding to the response amplitude difference between faces and objects in the 300 ms
117 post-onset window, normalized by their sum (positive SI corresponds to face-preference; see
118 Materials and Methods). One hundred and twenty seven electrodes across all subjects showed
119 category-selectivity, 96 of which were on IT (64% of IT electrodes), and the rest on the
120 occipital, parietal, or inferior frontal lobes.(Fig. 3B). In six category-selective electrodes that
121 were also duration-tracking, we additionally tested whether category selectivity was sustained
122 beyond the onset response, by calculating the SI in the 1200-1500 ms post-stimulus window
123 for 1500-ms-duration stimuli. Significant selectivity in sustained activity was found in two
124 duration-tracking electrodes in posterior IT.

125 As expected, category selectivity was low over EVC and maximal over the fusiform gyrus. In
126 contrast, duration-tracking accuracy was maximal over EVC and followed a diminishing
127 gradient along the ventral stream toward anterior IT – such that the majority of responses in
128 regions highly informative about the category of a stimulus showed low sensitivity to stimulus
129 duration, and thus to its presence beyond its onset (Fig. 3).

130 EVC electrodes showed significantly higher duration-tracking accuracy than IT electrodes (Fig.
131 3C, $t(166)=7.01$, $p<10^{-5}$). Within EVC, V1-V2 electrodes showed higher accuracy than
132 downstream V3v-V4 ($t(32)=3.31$, $p<10^{-3}$). There was a trend for higher accuracy in V1 than
133 in V2 ($t(22)=1.59$, $p=0.06$). Within IT, we tested for a posterior-anterior gradient using onset
134 response latency and anatomical location as two converging indexes for position along the
135 ventral stream. Anatomical position was quantified by projecting the coordinates of each
136 electrode to a line extending from the occipital pole to the temporal pole of each individual
137 subject's right hemisphere, and normalizing the result to the range 0-1 (1 is closer to the
138 temporal pole; electrodes over the left hemisphere were omitted from this analysis due to their
139 paucity). Duration-tracking accuracy was negatively correlated with response latency (Fig. 3D,
140 $r=-0.36$, $p<10^{-3}$) as well as position (Fig. 3E, $r=-0.32$, $p<10^{-3}$). The same correlations were found
141 when limiting the analysis to face-selective electrodes ($r=0-.49$, $p<10^{-3}$ for onset latency and



143

144 **Figure 3: Duration-tracking accuracy decreases gradually along the ventral visual stream. (A)**

145 Duration-tracking accuracy for all subjects' electrodes projected onto a common brain template. Visually

146 responsive electrodes are surrounded by a color patch representing duration-tracking accuracy.

147 Significant duration-tracking (FDR corrected, $q = 0.05$) is denoted by a thicker black dot. Anatomical

148 regions marked with black contour lines within EVC are based on surface registration to a probabilistic

149 atlas (Wang et al. 2014). **(B)** Same as (A), but for category selectivity index. Negative values (blue)

150 correspond to object-preference. **(C)** Relation between duration-tracking and hierarchical position along

151 the ventral stream (EVC areas defined based on the probabilistic atlas). Each dot corresponds to a single

152 electrode, with horizontal dispersion based on data point density. Boxes correspond to standard deviation.

153 Asterisks mark significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between EVC areas and IT and between V1/V2 and

154 V3v/V4. Note that V3v/V4 sites are not necessarily earlier than all IT sites in terms of response latency.

155 **(D)** duration-tracking within IT plotted against onset response latency, as a proxy for hierarchical position

156 along the ventral stream. Face selective electrodes are marked red. **(E)** Same as (D), with hierarchical

157 position measured as the electrode's coordinate along the occipital-temporal axis.

158

159 $r = -0.53, p < 10^{-4}$ for position). Object-selective electrodes showed a similar negative correlation

160 but were too few for robust statistical results. The reported results were unchanged when

161 controlling for signal-to-noise ratio across electrodes as expressed by onset response peak

162 magnitude and baseline noise level (Fig. S1), or when using a mixed-model regression approach

163 to account for differences between subjects (Fig. S2). Similar results were obtained when the

164 mean error of the response estimation (i.e. difference from true stimulus durations) was used as

165 dependent variable instead of the duration-tracking accuracy metric (Fig. S3), or with a more
166 liberal index of *duration-dependence*, based on the correlation between the stimulus duration
167 and the number of above-threshold post-stimulus time points across trials (Fig. S4). Sites with
168 low duration-tracking accuracy did not always show only transient onset responses. Rather,
169 many non-duration-tracking electrodes were characterized by prolonged HFB activity that was
170 uninformative about single-trial stimulus duration. Fig. 4 shows representative examples of an
171 EVC electrode with high duration-tracking accuracy (left), a face-selective IT electrode with a
172 prolonged response that is not informative regarding the duration of the stimulus (right), and a
173 rare posterior IT electrode with a category-selective, duration-tracking response (middle). We
174 next describe this rare response profile, encoding both the content and the ongoing presence of
175 a stimulus over time.

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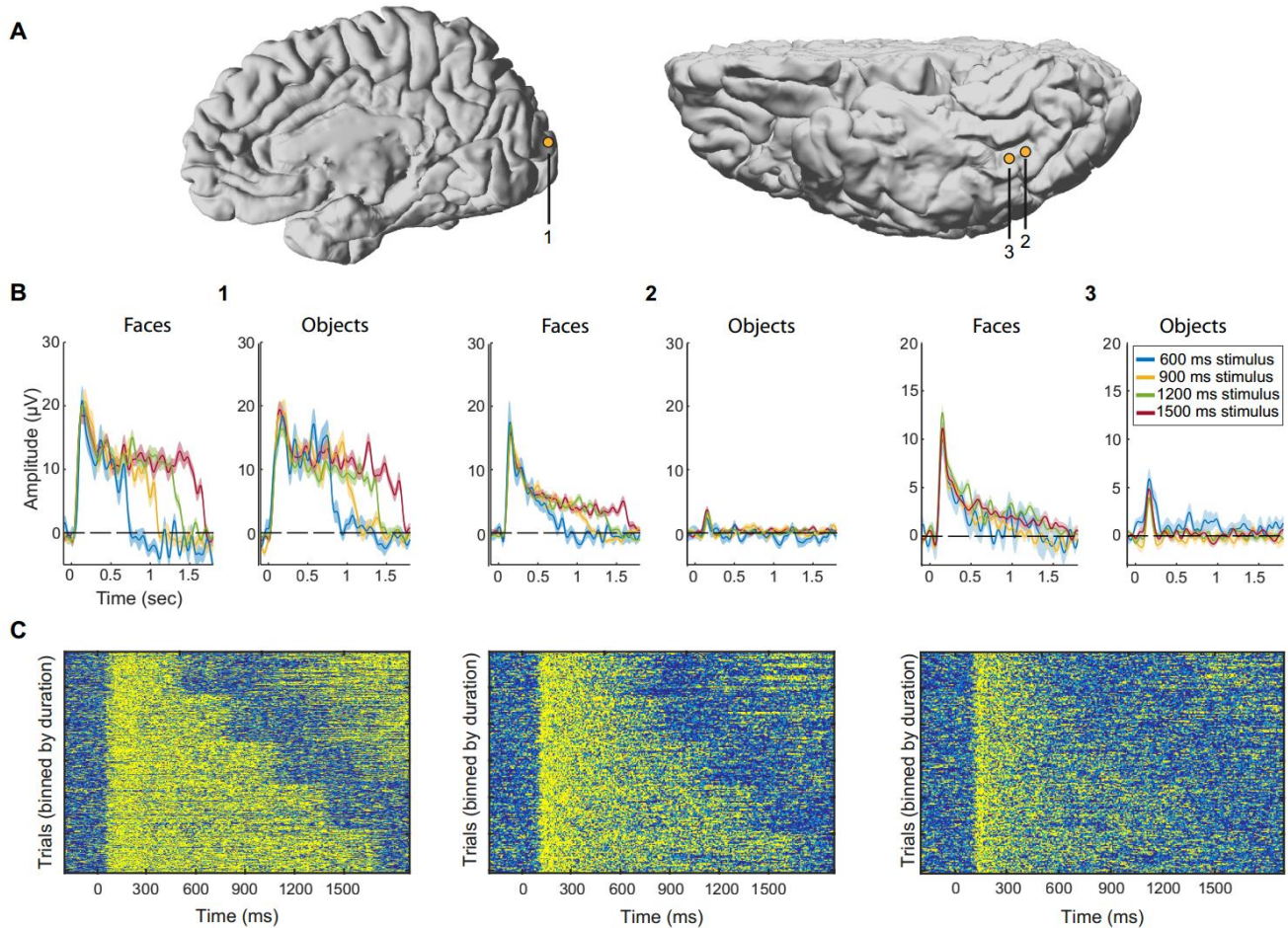
177 *Stimulus Presence and Category are Jointly Encoded in Posterior IT Cortex*

178 Two face-selective electrodes from two subjects showed both duration-tracking and sustained
179 category selectivity (Fig. 5). Both were similarly located laterally from the posterior part of the
180 mid-fusiform sulcus (Weiner et al. 2014). Two additional posterior fusiform electrodes, located
181 medial to the mid-fusiform sulcus, were also object-selective and duration-tracking, however
182 their selectivity was limited to the onset response, that is, the response to faces and objects did
183 not differ in the late (1200-1500 ms) time window. The locations of the two face-selective
184 electrodes correspond to the posterior fusiform face-selective region pFus-faces (or FFA-1,
185 Grill-Spector & Weiner 2014), and to cytoarchitectonic region FG2 (Caspers et al. 2013),
186 suggesting a functional distinction between this region and the more anterior mFus-faces region
187 (FFA-2, related to cytoarchitectonic area FG4, Lorenz et al. 2015), which showed high category
188 selectivity but little duration-tracking.

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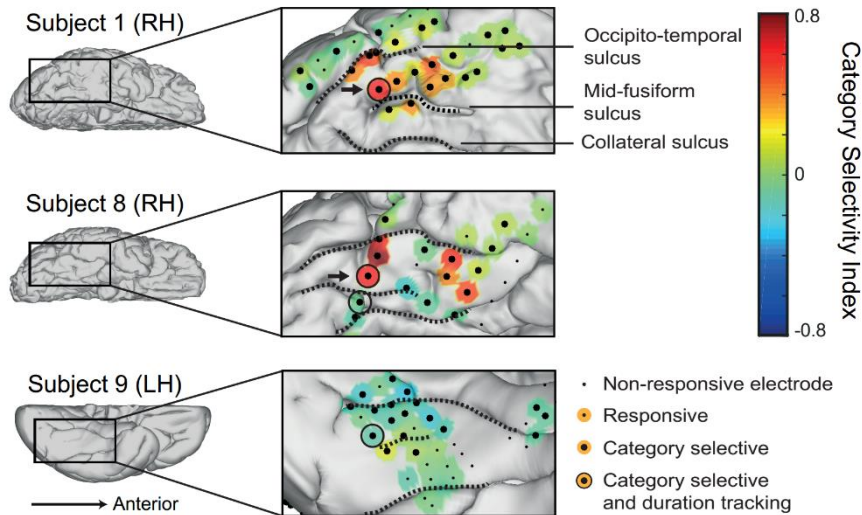
190 *Differences In Duration-Tracking Are Not Explained By Task Attentional Demands*

191 The diminished sustained activity in IT could be explained by the possibility that subjects
192 stopped attending to the stimulus or averted their gaze after its appearance (eye tracking was
193 not feasible at the ICU bedside). If IT is more sensitive than EVC to the level of attention, this
194 could drive the dissociation between these regions in sustained responses (Levy et al. 2001;
195 Hasson et al. 2002). To test this, a second version of the experiment was performed by 7 of the
196 10 subjects in addition to the original version. In this difficult dual-task control, they had to
197 detect a rare brief blurring of any image just before its disappearance, in addition to the



199 **Figure 4: Three representative electrodes.** Electrode 1 - Early visual cortex electrode (dorsal V2/V3
200 according to fMRI retinotopy performed on this subject for another study, see Parvizi et al. 2012),
201 duration-tracking but not category-selective (trials pooled from both categories). Electrode 2 - Lateral
202 fusiform gyrus electrode with sustained activity that is both duration-tracking and category-selective
203 (face trials only). Electrode 3 - Slightly anterior to electrode 2 on the lateral fusiform gyrus, category-
204 selective but not duration-tracking. MNI coordinates for the three electrode are (9.4, -94.8, 12.7), (37.6,
205 -29.5, -11.1), (39.1, -25, -11.2). (A) Electrode locations on native brains (electrodes 2, 3 are from the
206 same subject). (B) Mean response for each stimulus duration and category. For clarity only trials lasting
207 at least 1800 ms (onset to onset) are shown, thereby eliminating 300 ms stimulus duration trials. Shading
208 corresponds to standard error across trials. Note different y-axis scales. (C) Single-trial images (stacks)
209 binned by stimulus duration (300, 600, 900, 1200, 1500 ms from top to bottom). Each row in the images
210 represents a single trial. Increased activation at the end of short-duration trials corresponds to the
211 subsequent trial when the ISI is short.

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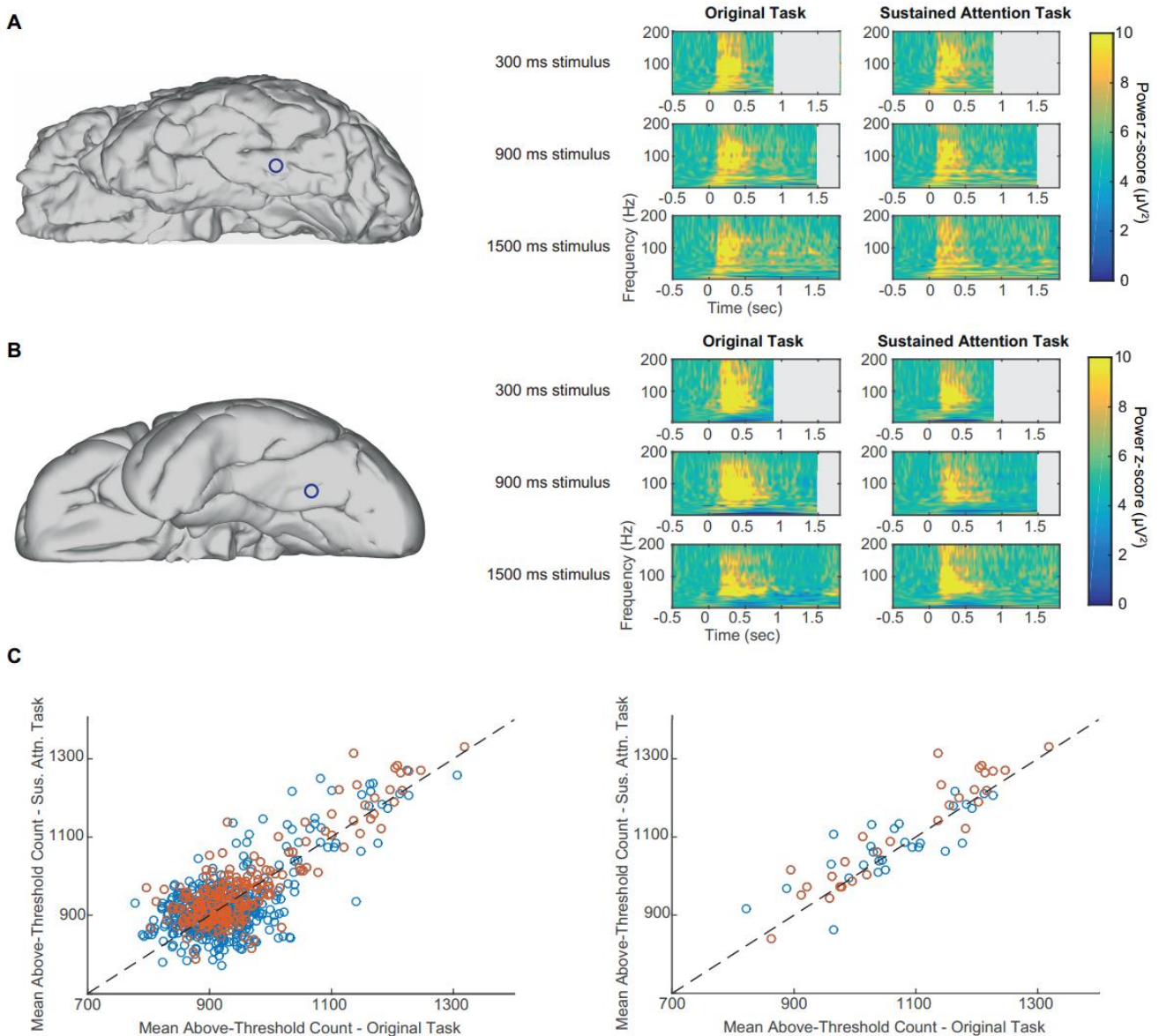


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214 **Figure 5: Electrodes on the posterior fusiform gyrus encode stimulus persistent presence and its**
215 **category.** Four significantly duration-tracking electrodes in three subjects were found within category-
216 selective IT cortex, all located adjacently to the mid-fusiform sulcus on the posterior fusiform gyrus, as
217 opposed to more anterior category-selective sites which do not track ongoing stimulus presence. Of these,
218 the two face-selective electrodes (from two subjects) marked by arrows also maintained category-
219 selectivity persistently throughout the duration of the response (marked with arrows) whereas the two
220 others did not. The electrodes are presented on the subjects' native brains.

221

222 detection of clothing items (Fig. 1B). The dual detection task required gaze and attention to be
223 sustained throughout image presentation as the timing of stimulus offset was unpredictable.
224 Detecting clothing items in the dual-task control experiment provided similar results to the main
225 single-task experiment for all subjects. Two subjects with relevant category selective IT
226 electrodes (8 and 21 electrodes over the left IT cortex) adequately performed the second,
227 blurring detection task in the dual-task control experiment (hit rates 75% and 94%; hit rates for
228 detection of clothing items in these subjects: 88% and 94%; overall false alarm rates 4% and
229 1% respectively). The same relation between HFB and non-target stimulus duration was found
230 with the dual-task control as with the single-task original experiment in the IT electrodes from
231 these two subjects, and well as in all other electrodes for all seven subjects (Fig. 6; the other
232 subjects either missed the majority of the blurring targets while continuing to respond to the
233 clothing items, or did not have suitable electrode coverage for this analysis). This argues against
234 the possibility that the absence of sustained activity in IT electrodes was due to lack of sustained
235 spatial attention, or shifts of gaze away from the stimulus. Indeed, while it could be expected
236 that the introduction of the secondary control task will increase activity along the visual
237 pathway because of the higher attentional demands (Brefczynski & DeYoe 1999), subjects
238 likely paid sufficient attention to the stimuli already in the main experiment (creating a ceiling



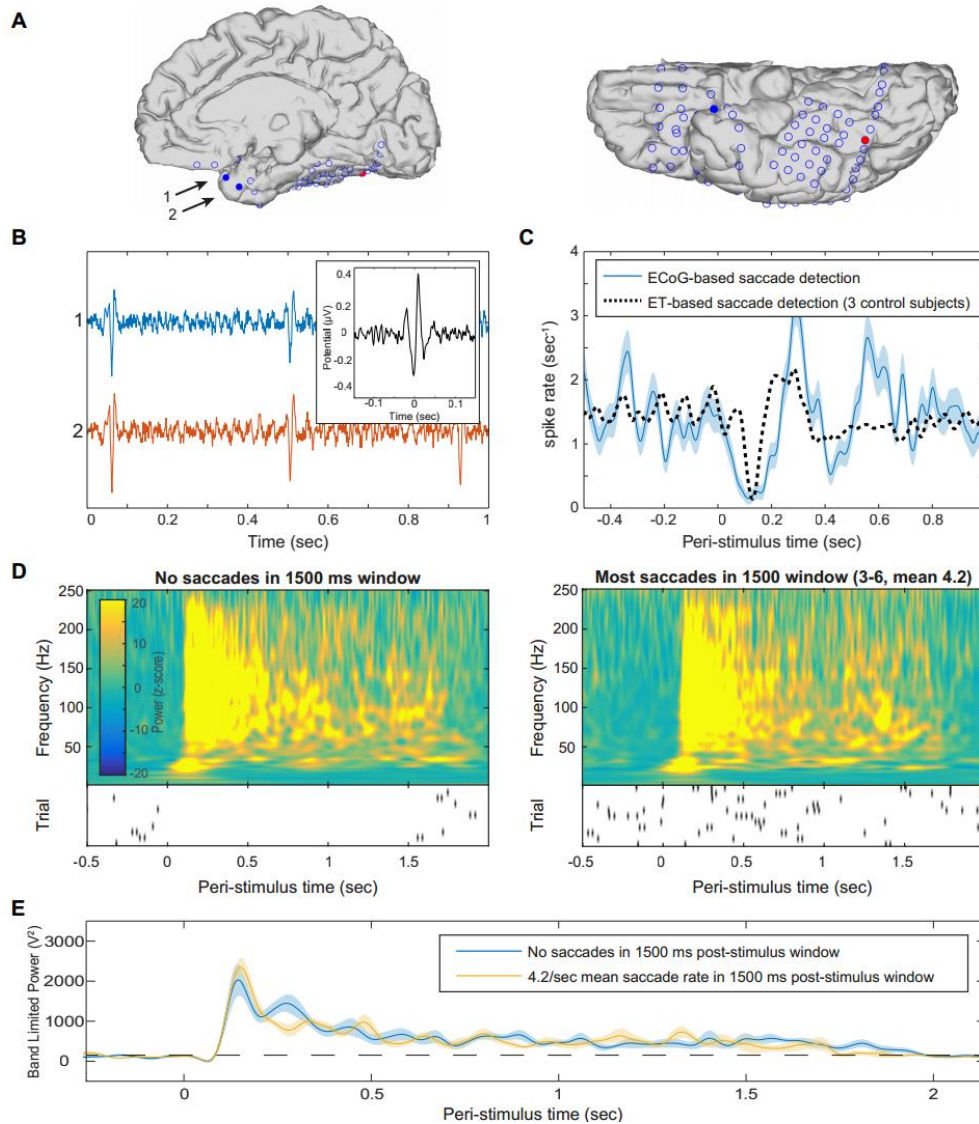
240 **Figure 6: No differences between single task and dual-task attention control**. Panels A,B show time-
 241 frequency plots from two representative electrodes in two subjects who performed well for both the
 242 clothing items and the blurring events detection task (attention-control). Left column: electrode location
 243 on individual subject's brain. Right column: time-frequency plots for a single electrode corresponding to
 244 three stimulus durations (top to bottom) and the two experimental conditions. Power is shown as z-score
 245 compared to baseline. **(A)** Face-selective, non-duration-tracking IT electrode. **(B)** Object-selective, non-
 246 duration-tracking IT electrode. **(C)** Left: each electrode is plotted as one data point comparing the mean
 247 number of above-threshold data points (across trials) between the two tasks ($r=0.74$). The results are
 248 clustered around the diagonal demonstrating similar mean response durations across conditions. Orange
 249 points are from the three subjects who could perform the control task well. Right: the same relation is
 250 shown specifically for category-selective inferior temporal electrodes. There was no significant
 251 difference between the two experiments either on the single electrode basis (across trials) or in the mean
 252 across electrodes.

253 effect for attention). Given this insensitivity to experimental condition, data from both
254 experiments was pooled in all other analyses.

255

256 *Duration-Tracking Activity Is Not Driven By Eye-Movements*

257 The finding of duration-tracking responses could be potentially explained as the summed
258 activity of transient (onset) responses to retinal shifts driven by saccadic eye movements (EM)
259 while the stimulus is presented (Nagasawa et al. 2011). However, there are good reasons to
260 suggest that duration-tracking responses are not merely driven by EM. First, eye movements
261 occur about 1-2 (max. 4) per second, and thus EM-driven activity would have taken the form
262 of random sparse bursts in single trials, but these were not consistently observed. Second,
263 although eye movements could not be tracked with fidelity in the clinical setting at the time the
264 data were collected, saccadic spike potentials elicited by the contraction of the ocular muscles
265 at the onset of saccades (Yuval-Greenberg et al. 2008), can be detected intracranially in
266 electrodes proximal to the eyes (Kovach et al. 2011; Jerbi et al. 2009). We were able to identify
267 reliable saccadic events in one of our patients through the detection of intracranial saccadic
268 spike potentials in two temporal pole electrodes, just posterior to the eye (Fig. 7A). We detected
269 saccadic potentials using a custom filter, based on a canonical spike potential template derived
270 from independent recordings of saccadic spike potentials from three EEG control subjects who
271 performed the same experiment with concurrent eye-tracking (see Materials and Methods). The
272 claim that the intracranial spikes indeed corresponded to saccadic potentials was supported by
273 producing a peri-stimulus saccade rate modulation curve, which matched the pattern observed
274 in the eye-tracked control subjects and was consistent with expected peri-stimulus pattern for
275 saccades (i.e. initial suppression followed by increased saccade rate, Fig. 7C), as well as by the
276 theoretically expected mean saccade rate of about 1.5 saccades/sec (Engbert 2006). Finally, to
277 test for the effect of saccades on sustained high-frequency visual responses, we examined data
278 from a posterior face-selective duration-tracking inferior-temporal electrode, in the same
279 subject in which the intracranial spike potentials were recorded. The data was divided into two
280 trial groups: one group of 11 trials having zero detected saccades within the 1500 ms post-
281 stimulus window, and a second group of the same number of trials having the most detected
282 saccades (3-6 per second, mean 4.2). The HFB response to 1500-ms-duration face stimuli was
283 then averaged for each group and compared. The results show no difference between the trial
284 groups (Fig. 7D,E). Similar results were obtained by comparing the trials with more saccades
285 to those with less saccades by a median split based on the number of saccades per trial. Thus,
286 face-selective duration-tracking in a posterior IT electrode was not contingent on the presence
287 of saccades during stimulus presentation. Finally, to further test whether the sustained activity



288

289 **Figure 7: No effect of saccades on sustained visual activity.** Saccadic events were identified in a single
 290 subject based on detection of saccadic spike potentials in two electrodes near the temporal pole. **(A)**
 291 Anatomical location of electrodes used to detect saccadic spikes (blue filled circles), and an electrode in
 292 the same subject exhibiting face-selective duration-tracking (red). **(B)** Representative un-averaged traces
 293 (>30 Hz high-pass-filtered) of spike events in the two temporal-pole electrodes. Inset: the averaged
 294 saccadic spike model from the 3 EEG control subjects which served as a model and in which saccade
 295 onsets were detected by eye tracking. **(C)** Peri-stimulus saccade rate. The ECoG-based saccades follow
 296 a typical post-stimulus suppression and rebound (blue), comparable to saccades detected using eye-
 297 tracking for the same task in control subjects (black dotted). **(D)** Average time-frequency plots of the
 298 responses to 1500 ms face stimuli in the posterior IT electrode showing face-selective duration-tracking,
 299 for trials with no saccades during stimulus presentation (left), vs. trials with many saccades (right).
 300 Shown below each time frequency plot is a raster plot of saccade events during each trial included in the
 301 group. Each row represents a single trial and each tick mark represents a detected saccade. **(E)** Direct
 302 comparison of high-frequency band-limited power for the two groups of trials. Cluster-based permutation
 303 testing did not detect differences in power at any time point. Dotted line marks mean baseline power.

304 in early visual areas could be explained by saccade-locked activity, we simulated a best-case
305 scenario for this hypothesis and tested it against the empirical results (Fig. S5). The simulation
306 results show that saccade-driven responses could not account for the robust duration-tracking
307 activity observed in early visual cortex.

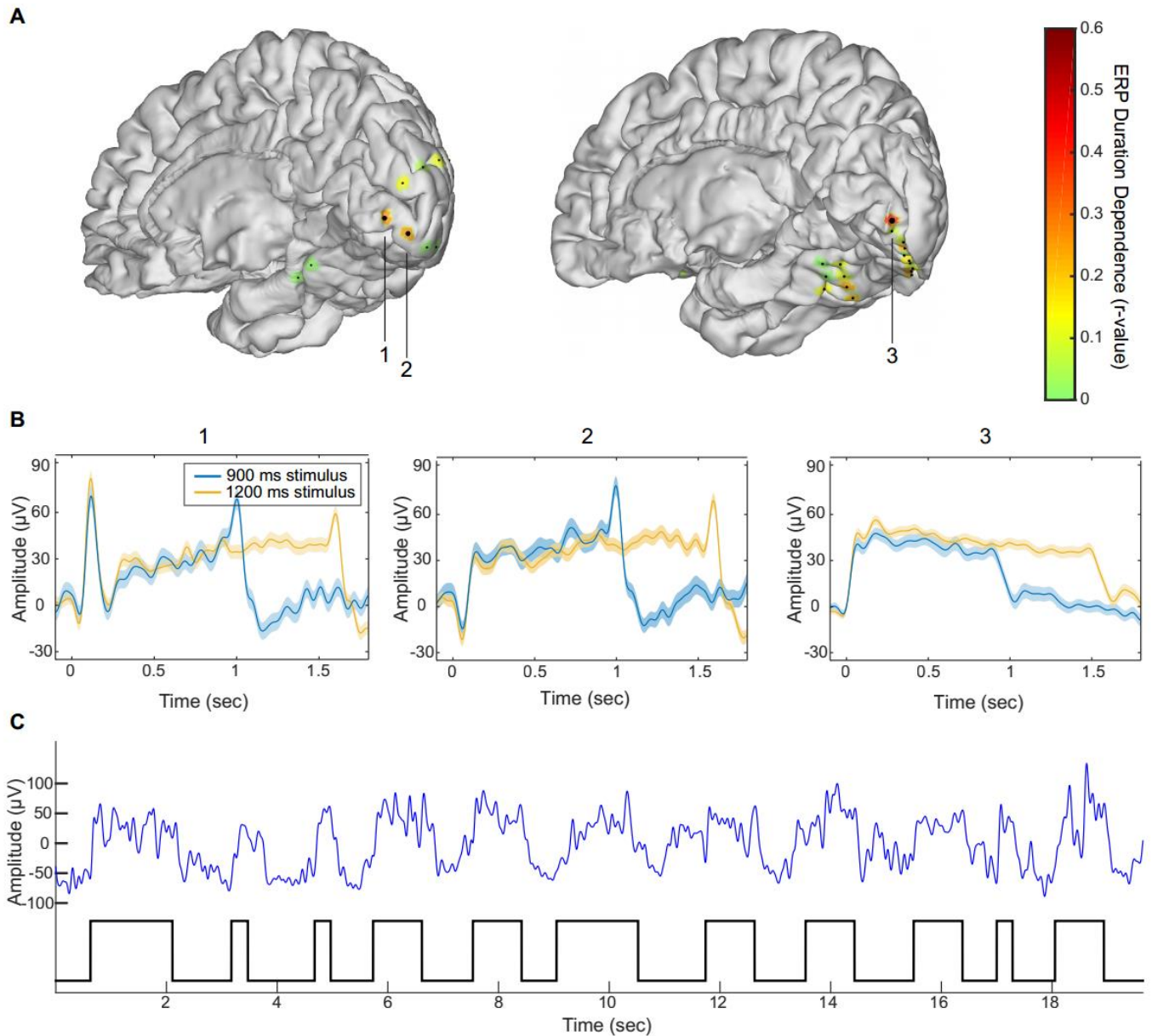
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309 *Additional Manifestations of Duration Dependence*

310 In addition to the analysis of the HFB signal, duration-dependence was also assessed in the time
311 domain (i.e., event related potential) using the same method as for HFB, except that original
312 rather than bootstrapped trials were used and the signal was inverted in polarity if the mean of
313 the 1000-1500 ms window of the response to 1500 ms duration stimuli was negative, to allow
314 for negative sustained potentials. We found positive and negative *duration dependent sustained*
315 *potentials* (DDSPs), that is, deflections which remained distinct from baseline for the duration
316 of the stimulus (cf. N'Diaye et al. 2004 in a duration-estimation task). These were found in four
317 non-category-selective electrodes on the inferior bank of the calcarine sulcus in three subjects
318 (Fig. 8), all mapped to ventral V1 based on a probabilistic atlas (Wang et al. 2014). Of the four
319 electrodes with significant DDSPs, three showed also significant HFB duration-tracking and
320 one only a non-significant but visually discernible sustained HFB response. In contrast, other
321 sites with strong HFB duration-tracking in the same subjects did not show any type of DDSP.
322 We note that in some of the subjects the 0.5Hz high pass filter applied during the recording
323 might have reduced the sensitivity to DDSPs.

324 Additional analyses of cross-frequency coupling and inter-electrode phase-coherence did not
325 uncover any duration-dependent behavior (see Materials and Methods). Duration-dependence
326 could also characterize the power modulation of low-frequency bands (e.g. in the alpha/beta
327 range). However, because of the strong low-frequency power of the onset and offset responses,
328 and the lower temporal resolution of time-frequency analysis in these bands (temporal
329 smearing), resolving low frequency duration-tracking necessitates longer stimulation durations
330 than were used in our study.

331



333 **Figure 8: Duration dependent sustained potentials.** (A) Duration-dependence of evoked responses in
334 two individual subject brains (subjects 5 and 10, middle and right). Colored patches indicate degree of
335 duration-dependence according to the color scale on the right. Large dots indicate statistically significant
336 duration-dependence. (B) Mean evoked responses for the three electrodes identified in panel (A). (C)
337 High-SNR segment of the raw data trace (blue line, low-pass filtered at 10Hz) taken from electrode 3
338 and on-off visual stimulation epochs (black trace on bottom). The robust DDSP evidenced without
339 averaging, indicates that DDSP corresponds to sustained single trials deflections rather than to a
340 summation of stimulus-contingent transient deflections in single trials.

341 **Discussion**

342 *Duration-Tracking as an Organizing Principle in the Ventral Stream*

343 We found that while activity in early visual cortex remained above threshold for as long as the
344 stimulus was presented, this correspondence diminished along the visual hierarchy and was
345 minimal in category-selective sites in anterior IT cortex. This anterior-posterior gradient was
346 evident through a direct comparison of duration-tracking accuracy between anatomically-
347 defined visual regions, as well as its correlation with onset response latency and with electrode
348 coordinates on a posterior-anterior vector.

349 The functional organization of visual IT cortex obeys a number of well-characterized
350 functional-anatomical regularities. These include an increasingly abstract, high-level
351 representation (Lerner et al. 2001; Kanwisher 2010), increasing spatial receptive field (Wilson
352 & Wilkinson 2015) and temporal (Honey et al. 2012) receptive window size along the posterior-
353 anterior axis, as well as variable preference for stimulus eccentricity (Hasson et al. 2002),
354 animacy, and stimulus size (Weiner et al. 2014) along the medial-lateral axis. Our results add
355 temporal dynamics as another organizing principle, manifested as diminishing real-time
356 perceptual duration tracking along the visual hierarchy. This gradient is comparable in nature
357 to the other posterior-anterior gradients in that it entails a growing invariance to low-level
358 properties of the visual signal.

359 From a theoretical perspective, this gradual attenuation of information about stimulus presence
360 may reflect a basic property of information transfer along a serial processing stream. As
361 formally stated by the data processing inequality theorem (Cover & Thomas 1991), in any
362 system the amount of information about the initial input cannot be increased as a result of
363 additional processing. Thus, any information about the real-time presence of a visual percept in
364 a cortical site must be present also in the input to that site. Given imperfect synaptic
365 transmission, this information can be expected to become less reliable along the processing
366 stream – and likely more so for sustained than onset-driven activity, as the former is typically
367 of lesser magnitude making it more likely to fall below neural detection thresholds*. Persistent
368 stimulus-driven neural activity corresponding to the presence of a visual feature at any
369 processing stage can thus be expected to be only as reliable as the persistence of its input from

* The fact that category selectivity seems to emerge rather than decrease in downstream sites does not contradict this principle, as category information is fully present in the retina, and therefore it is not gained, but rather made explicit by the integration of low-level visual features as well as stored templates into representations which are increasingly divergent (e.g. faces vs. non-faces) and invariant to low-level detail (e.g. to stimulus contrast, Avidan et al. 2002).

370 the previous stage, and as such is bound to show some degree of decay with subsequent
371 processing steps. Functional differentiation in visual processing along the ventral stream could
372 in part arise from this type of fundamental property of the cortical system.

373

374 *Differentiation Within Category-Selective Cortex*

375 We found that within face-selective regions of the fusiform gyrus, significant duration-tracking
376 activity was found only at some posterior recording sites, corresponding to the FFA-1 region,
377 while more anterior (FFA-2) sites showed non-reliable duration-tracking activity. These results
378 provide evidence that regions which appear homogenous in terms of their category-selectivity
379 (Tsao et al. 2006), but are anatomically and cytoarchitecturally distinct (Caspers et al. 2013;
380 Lorenz et al. 2015; Grill-Spector & Weiner 2014), differ in how they respond to a stimulus over
381 time and in their potential contribution to ongoing visual perception. This differentiation is of
382 particular interest since the temporal response profile of a cortical site presents a constraint on
383 its functional role. For example, cortical activity showing reliable (single-trial) duration-
384 tracking may maintain an ongoing visual percept, while transient responses can be a signature
385 of stimulus-onset-related processes such as categorization or identification.

386 The temporal response profile difference found between EVC and IT regions and between
387 posterior and anterior category selective regions could be related to previous fMRI results
388 (Weiner et al. 2010), although the paradigm and especially the time scales are quite different.
389 In Weiner et al.'s study, IT regions showed larger fMRI adaptation effects (reduced BOLD
390 response to repeated vs. non-repeated stimuli) than EVC regions, and anterior face- and limb-
391 selective regions showed stronger adaptation than their more posterior counterparts. The latter
392 difference was pronounced in a condition with long lags between repetitions (many seconds
393 and intervening stimuli) and not as much with short lags (half a second). The present study,
394 using direct neural measures and high temporal resolution, may have been more sensitive to
395 differences between regions at the sub-second time scale. Moreover, it suggests that a gradient
396 of temporal response profiles is present even within the response to a single stimulus, and not
397 only in the adaptation across stimuli.

398

399 *Measuring Neural Activity Under Sustained Cognitive Conditions*

400 The challenge of measuring neural activity contingent on a sustained cognitive process, while
401 dissociating it from other temporal activity profiles such as transient onset- or offset-driven
402 activity, has not been widely addressed in the literature. A common approach in functional

403 imaging studies of sustained cognitive processes (e.g. working memory, sustained attention or
404 imagery) is to use separate GLM predictors for onset-, sustained- and offset-/response-related
405 activity (Eriksson et al. 2004; Portas et al. 2000; Curtis & D’Esposito 2003; Offen et al. 2009).
406 However, this does not produce reliable evidence for sustained activity that is independent from
407 onset and offset responses, because any neural activity extending beyond the duration of the
408 modeled onset response will be interpreted as sustained activity, regardless of whether its
409 duration is in fact related to the duration of the process. The current study suggests two general
410 guidelines for measuring duration dependent sustained activity: first, the experimental
411 paradigm should allow for variable response durations; and second, the analysis should directly
412 assess the dependence of the response duration on the experimental duration (see Vilberg &
413 Rugg 2012 for an example of such analysis in the context of memory retention). Direct
414 examination of duration-tracking in neural activity associated with sustained cognitive
415 processes may benefit a wide range of studies.

416

417 **Summary**

418

419 Onset responses reflect major changes in the environment, yet much of perception occurs
420 between changes. We addressed the neural basis of sustained visual perception and report
421 dissociations between semantic category ("What") and ongoing presence ("Whether") of a
422 visual event evident along the ventral visual pathway. Understanding the neural correlates of
423 perception beyond its onset has major implications for deciphering the biological underpinning
424 of experience.

425

426 **Materials and Methods**

427 *Subjects*

428 Ten patients (3 female, 7 male, mean age 41.5 years, range 19-65, two left-handed) undergoing
429 surgical treatment for intractable epilepsy and implanted with chronic subdural electrodes
430 participated in the experiment. Seven patients were recorded in Stanford School of Medicine,
431 2 in the California Pacific Medical Center (CPMC), and 1 in the UCSF Medical Center.
432 Electrode arrays were implanted on the right hemisphere for 8 of the patients, and on the left
433 hemisphere for 2, with electrode location determined solely by clinical needs. All subjects gave
434 informed consent approved by the UC Berkeley Committee on Human Research and
435 corresponding IRBs at the clinical recording sites.

436 *Stimuli and Tasks*

437 Recording was conducted in the epilepsy ICU. Stimuli were presented on a laptop screen and
438 responses captured on the laptop keyboard. Stimuli were grayscale images of either frontal
439 human faces, round watch-faces, other man-made objects (tools, vehicles, furniture, musical
440 instruments and household objects), or animals, presented on a square uniform gray background
441 in the center of the screen and extending across approximately 5° of the visual field in each
442 direction. For the analyses reported here, watch-faces and other man-made objects were
443 grouped together as “objects”, and only the face and object categories were used in the main
444 analyses. Analysis for the animal category is reported in Fig. S6. Additional categories
445 including body parts and houses were excluded from analysis due to consisting of too few
446 exemplars. Face and object images did not significantly differ in terms of luminance (206.2 and
447 207 mean pixel intensity for faces and objects, respectively) or contrast defined as the standard
448 deviation of pixel intensity (41.8 and 41.1 respectively). Each stimulus was presented for either
449 300, 600, 900, 1200 or 1500 milliseconds for the first 3 subjects, or 300, 900 or 1500
450 milliseconds for the last 7 subjects (the number of durations was reduced to allow the additional
451 control task described below without excessively prolonging the experiment). All categories
452 had the same probability of appearing with each duration. Inter-stimulus interval varied from
453 600 to 1200 ms with 150 ms steps, during which a fixation cross was presented. In the main
454 experimental condition, subjects were instructed to fixate on the center of the screen, and
455 respond with a button press whenever a clothing item was presented (10% of trials). The last 7
456 subjects performed an additional experimental task (dual attention-control task) where in
457 addition to responding to images of clothing items, they were also required to respond to rare
458 instances when an image of any category became blurry for the last 200 ms of its presentation
459 (clothing targets and blurred image targets each accounted for 5% of the trials). The onset time
460 for each image was registered alongside the ECOG data from a photodiode placed on the laptop
461 screen, recording a white rectangle displayed at the same time as the image at the corner of the
462 screen.

463

464 *ECoG Acquisition and Data Processing*

465 Each subject was implanted with subdural arrays containing 53-128 contact electrodes (AdTech
466 Inc.). In total, 1067 electrodes were examined. Each electrode was 2.3 mm in diameter, with 5
467 or 10 mm spacing between electrodes within an array, arranged in 1-dimensional strips or 2-
468 dimensional grids. Recordings were sampled at 1000 Hz (CPMC), 3051.76 Hz (Stanford,
469 UCSF) or 1535.88 Hz (Stanford) and resampled to 1000 Hz offline (with the exception that the
470 original 3051.76 Hz sampling rate was used for the results reported in Fig. 2). A high-pass filter

471 was applied online to the signal at either 0.1Hz or 0.5Hz in different subjects. 159 electrodes
472 manifesting ictal spikes or persistent noise were visually identified and removed from analysis,
473 as were time intervals with excessive noise or ictal activity as determined by one of the authors
474 (RTK). All remaining electrodes were re-referenced offline to the average potential of all non-
475 rejected electrodes, separately for each subject. Unless otherwise indicated, all data processing
476 and analysis were done using custom Matlab code (Mathworks, Natick, MA).

477

478 *Electrode Localization*

479 Electrode locations were identified manually using BioImageSuite (www.bioimagesuite.org)
480 on a post-operative Computed Tomography (CT) scan co-registered to a pre-operative MR scan
481 using the FSL software package (Jenkinson & Smith 2001; Jenkinson et al. 2002). Individual
482 subjects' brain images were skull-stripped and segmented using FreeSurfer
483 (<http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu>). Localization errors driven by both co-registration error
484 and anatomical mismatch between pre- and post-operative images were reduced using a custom
485 procedure which uses a gradient descent algorithm to jointly minimize the squared distance
486 between all electrodes within a single electrode array/strip and the cortical pial surface (see
487 Dykstra et al. 2012 for a similar procedure). In contrast to methods which only attempt to correct
488 individual electrodes' position in relation to the pial surface, this method preserves the original
489 array topography, thus providing a more reliable estimate of actual electrode positions.

490 Individual patients' brains and electrode coordinates were next co-registered to a common brain
491 template (FreeSurfer's *fsaverage* template) using surface-based registration (Fischl et al. 1999).
492 This registration optimally preserves the mapping of electrode locations to anatomical features
493 between the native and common brain space despite individual variability in cortical folding
494 patterns, in contrast to volume-based registration which preserves the 3D spatial configuration
495 of electrode arrays but does not account for differences in cortical folding patterns. To identify
496 visual areas, each cortical surface was resampled to a standard mesh with a fixed number of co-
497 registered nodes using SUMA (Argall et al. 2006), and visual area labels were imported from a
498 probabilistic map of visual areas topography (Wang et al. 2014). Visualization of electrode data
499 in Fig. 3 was based on surface registration to an MNI152 standard-space T1-weighted average
500 structural template image.

501

502

503 *High Frequency Broadband Power Signal*

504 To extract the high-frequency broadband (HFB) signal, the recorded signal was high-pass
505 filtered using a 3rd order Butterworth filter with a 30Hz cutoff, and the power along time in each
506 electrode was computed using the square of the Hilbert transform of the filtered signal. The
507 >30Hz frequency band was initially selected for further analysis based on visual inspection of
508 the spectral responses for all stimuli at each electrode, averaged across all categories and
509 durations. Morlet wavelet analysis was used solely for visualization purposes (Fig. 2, 6, 7), with
510 a wavelet constant of 12 and center frequency bins ranging from 2 to 800Hz.

511

512 *Identification of Visually-Responsive Electrodes*

513 Visually-responsive electrodes were defined as those exhibiting a significant ($p < 0.01$) HFB
514 power increase in response to either the face or object stimulus categories across trials, as
515 assessed by a cluster-based permutation test compared to a 500 ms pre-stimulus baseline (Maris
516 & Oostenveld 2007). Subsequent analyses were performed on the set of electrodes showing a
517 significant response to at least one category. In addition, the response onset latency of each
518 visually responsive electrode was derived as the onset latency of its earliest significant activity
519 cluster.

520

521 *Category-Selectivity*

522 Category selectivity was defined as a significant difference between the HFB onset response to
523 face vs. object stimuli (note that this type of selectivity does not necessarily imply specificity
524 to the preferred category, and could arise out of a less specific selectivity, e.g. animate vs. non-
525 animate stimuli (Grill-Spector & Weiner 2014) – for an analysis aimed at achieving greater
526 category specificity based on comparison to a third category see Fig. S6). The onset response
527 magnitude for each category was computed by taking the root mean square (RMS) of all data
528 points from the first 300 milliseconds of the trial-average HFB response to the category. A
529 selectivity index (SI) was computed as:

530
$$SI = \frac{R_f - R_o}{R_f + R_o}$$

531 Where R_f and R_o are the RMS of the mean response to faces and objects, respectively. Positive
532 values correspond therefore to face-preference, and negative values to object-preference.
533 Statistical significance was derived with a randomization test whereby in each of 10,000

534 iterations the category labels were shuffled and the SI recomputed, producing a null-hypothesis
535 distribution. P-values were derived from the rank of the original SI within this distribution (in
536 absolute value), corrected for multiple comparisons across all electrodes using the False
537 Detection Rate (FDR) method (Benjamini & Yosef 1995). In this analysis and whenever FDR
538 was used in this study, the FDR q value was 0.05.

539

540 *Single-Trial Duration Tracking*

541 The purpose of the single-trial duration tracking analysis was to identify electrodes with single-
542 trial HFB responses which are reliably (across trials) sustained above baseline for a duration
543 corresponding to the stimulus duration (i.e. duration-tracking responses). The rationale of this
544 approach is to emulate an online process where the persistence of the stimulus percept can be
545 decoded from the region's current HFB signal, by testing at each consecutive time point
546 whether the signal is still above the decision threshold ("activation") or not ("baseline").

547 The HFB signal was first smoothed using a 300 ms window moving average. To derive the
548 activation threshold, an "activation" sample was generated by taking the means of the 1200-
549 1500 ms post-stimulus window across 1500-ms-duration trials, and a "baseline" sample was
550 generated by taking the means of the 300 ms pre-stimulus window from the same trials. The
551 late 1200-1500 ms window was selected to allow the test to be sensitive to the relatively low-
552 magnitude activation of the late sustained response as opposed to the high-magnitude early
553 response component. The threshold was then set as the median value of the two equally-sized
554 samples taken together. For each trial, the threshold was generated based on all trials excluding
555 the current one. In summary, the threshold indicates whether a power value averaged across
556 300 ms is more likely to reflect a baseline or active epoch. The decoded duration of the active
557 percept was then defined as the latency (relative to the electrode's onset response latency) of
558 the first time point where the smoothed HFB signal drops below the threshold, within a 1800
559 ms post-stimulus period. Only trials which included a minimal 1800 ms window from stimulus
560 onset to the next trial stimulus onset were included in this analysis, thus excluding all 300 ms
561 duration trials, and some of the 600 and 900 ms duration trials. Using a shorter analysis window
562 of 1200 ms and thus including all 300, 600 and 900 ms trials, while excluding 1200 and 1500
563 ms trials, led to very similar results. Finally, the duration-tracking accuracy was computed as
564 the percentage of "correct" estimated durations which were within a ± 150 ms error margin
565 around the true stimulus duration. The results of this analysis were not qualitatively changed
566 when selecting a different error margin (i.e. ± 100 or ± 200 ms), or smoothing window size (i.e.
567 200 or 400 ms). Statistical significance was determined using a randomization test such that at
568 each of 10,000 iterations, the duration-tracking accuracy was re-computed based on shuffled

569 stimulus duration labels to produce a null-hypothesis distribution. P-values were derived from
570 the rank of the original accuracy within this distribution, corrected for multiple comparisons
571 using the FDR method. Duration-tracking was assessed across both face and object stimulus
572 trials for non-category-selective electrodes, and for the preferred category for category-
573 selective electrodes.

574

575 *Duration-Dependence*

576 Duration-tracking accuracy is a strict index of sustained activity as it requires that HFB does
577 not drop below baseline throughout the stimulus duration in single trials. We also derived a
578 more sensitive index corresponding to a weaker notion of *duration dependence* by correlating
579 trials' duration with the number of above-threshold HFB data points in a post-stimulus window.
580 This resulted in a correlation coefficient for each electrode, where 0 indicates no statistical
581 relation between stimulus duration and the number of above-threshold HFB time points and 1
582 indicates a perfect linear relation. To determine the number of above-threshold points, first the
583 HFB signal was smoothed using a 3rd order Butterworth 10 Hz low-pass filter, and trials were
584 baseline-corrected by subtracting the average of the 500 ms pre-stimulus period. To maximize
585 the sensitivity of this metric, a bootstrapping method was applied whereby for each duration,
586 1000 surrogate trials were generated by each time averaging 10 randomly-drawn trials of the
587 same duration. This averaging ensured that any real difference in the response to different
588 durations would not be concealed by single-trial noise. Next, an "activation threshold" for each
589 electrode was set as the median of all data points taken from the 1000-1500 ms post-stimulus
590 window of the 900 or 1500 ms duration surrogate trials (the window was selected to allow a
591 sensitive threshold which is not biased upward by the high power values of the onset response).
592 Note that for the 900 ms trials the window falls in a presumably 'off period' whereas for the
593 1500 ms trials it represents an 'on period', so that the median value represents a reasonable
594 cutoff between "active" and "baseline" power values. As in the duration-tracking analysis, trials
595 which were too short to include a 1800 ms post-stimulus onset to onset window were excluded.
596 The number of above-threshold data points was counted for each trial within a window of 600-
597 1800 ms post-stimulus (minimizing the influence of the onset responses). The use of a count
598 metric was selected from among several possible approaches to quantifying duration-
599 dependence due to its relative insensitivity to amplitude differences, emphasizing instead
600 differences in duration. To rule out the possibility that duration-dependent *offset* responses drive
601 the correlation (e.g., longer offset response following longer stimulus duration), the number of
602 above-threshold points in the 600 ms post-offset window for each trial was measured as well,
603 and if it was positively correlated with stimulus duration its explained variance was regressed

604 out prior to the main correlation analysis. Statistical significance of the correlations was derived
605 parametrically from the correlation analysis, and corrected for multiple comparisons using
606 FDR. Duration-dependence was assessed across both face and object stimulus trials for non-
607 category-selective electrodes, and for the preferred category for category-selective electrodes.

608

609 *Comparison of Responses Across Single and Dual-Tasks*

610 As a sensitive test for differences in the duration of the responses between the two tasks, we
611 looked at 1500 ms stimulus duration trials and compared the number of above-threshold time
612 points in each trial between the two tasks. The threshold for each electrode was set as the median
613 of all data points taken from the 1000-1500 ms post-stimulus window of the 900 (where this
614 window is post-offset) or 1500 ms duration trials (where the same window is pre-offset). As in
615 the duration-dependence analysis the window was selected to allow a sensitive threshold which
616 is not biased upward by the high power values of the onset response. The total number of above-
617 threshold time points was counted for each trial and compared between tasks using a two-
618 sample t-test. Results were corrected for multiple comparisons using FDR.

619

620 *Saccade Detection*

621 Saccadic spike potentials detected from two temporal-pole electrodes were used to indicate the
622 timing of eye movements in a single subject where spike potentials could be detected from
623 electrodes just behind the eyes. Detection of the spike potentials was performed by high-pass
624 filtering the signal from one of the two electrodes at 30 Hz, convolving it with a “canonical”
625 saccadic spike model, and marking supra-threshold time points as saccadic spikes (Keren et al.
626 2010). To create the model, three healthy scalp EEG control subjects (female, age 26-31)
627 participated in a scalp-EEG version of the same experiment with simultaneous eye-tracking
628 (Eyelink 1000/2K, SR Research, Canada; binocular tracking at 500 Hz). Saccade rates were
629 approximately 1.5/sec as predicted by the literature (Engbert 2006). Our spike potential model
630 (Fig. 7B) was generated by high-pass filtering the radial electro-ocular channel of each EEG
631 subject at 30Hz, and averaging it across saccade events and across subjects. After the
632 convolution of the intracranial signal with the model, a 3 std. deviation threshold was set and
633 any above-threshold activity was interpreted as a saccadic spike (Keren et al. 2010).

634

635 *Simulation of Saccade-Driven Sustained Activity*

636 In addition to the analysis based on the saccadic spike potential, we used a simulation to
637 investigate the hypothesis that sustained activity in the early visual cortex could be driven by
638 successive transient visual-fixation-locked activity (that is, fixed-duration neural responses to
639 the retinal update following a saccade, while the image is presented). We simulated a “best-
640 case” scenario for such a hypothesis, consisting of a fixed-duration high-SNR response
641 contingent on a saccade occurring while the stimulus is presented. We used saccade and micro-
642 saccade detection data from three healthy subjects (female, age 26-31) who participated in a
643 scalp-EEG version of the same experiment with simultaneous eye-tracking. A high-SNR
644 saccade-driven activity time course was simulated for each of the three subjects by convolving
645 each occurrence of a saccade coinciding with stimulus presentation with a fixed-duration square
646 response window. To avoid making any assumptions about the duration of the saccade-locked
647 response, it was varied in separate simulations between 50 and 1000 ms in 50 ms steps. The
648 first 500 ms of each trial were set as active by default to simulate a fixed stimulus-onset
649 response. For each subject and simulated saccade-locked response duration, the overall
650 simulated response durations were estimated across trials in the same way as in the duration-
651 tracking analysis of the empirical data, and the mean absolute estimation error was recorded.

652

653 *Connectivity by Phase Coherence*

654 In addition to local activity indexed by high-frequency broadband power, sustained perception
655 could also be supported by duration-dependent long-range synchronization between cortical
656 sites. We attempted to explore this hypothesis by looking at pairs of early visual and high-order
657 cortical sites and test for stimulus-driven inter-electrode phase-locking, which is also sustained
658 for the duration of the stimulus. We limited our analysis to three subjects who had both
659 duration-tracking EVC electrodes and category-discriminating IT electrodes, resulting in a total
660 of 10 EVC electrodes, 15 IT electrodes, and 52 same-brain electrode pairs. The small number
661 of relevant trials made a full statistical analysis of duration-dependent phase-locking unfeasible,
662 and thus we opted for a purely exploratory approach, simply testing for sustained phase
663 coherence across trials for face stimuli with a 1500 ms duration, using the Inter-Trial Coherence
664 (ITC) method (Makeig et al. 2004). The phase signal for each electrode was derived by using
665 the Hilbert transform for the high-frequency band (30-200Hz). Statistical significance was
666 determined with a 10,000-iteration randomization test whereby trials from one electrode were
667 randomized. For all electrode pairs, the number of significant time points were approximately
668 5% for a $p < 0.05$ threshold, indicating no ITC effect. Likewise, repeating the same analysis for
669 all narrow frequency bands between 1 and 200 HZ (1 Hz steps) using wavelet analysis revealed
670 no discernible effect apart from an initial low-frequency synchronization attributable to the
671 evoked potential.

672

673 *Cross-Frequency Coupling*

674 We also tested whether duration-dependent activity is manifested as stimulus-evoked cross-
675 frequency coupling (CFC) within individual sites. We hypothesized that such coupling would
676 occur between the phase of the dominant low-frequency oscillation and the amplitude of the
677 broadband high frequency signal. As a first step, the dominant low-frequency peak at each
678 visually-responsive electrode was determined by averaging the amplitude spectrum of all 1000
679 ms pre-stimulus segments to derive the smoothed baseline spectrum, fitting and subtracting the
680 1/f trend, and subsequently finding the maximal peak between 1 and 30 Hz. Phase amplitude
681 coupling between the phase of the slow frequency and the amplitude of the high-frequency
682 broadband (>30 Hz) signal was then computed across trials, to generate a time course of
683 coupling magnitude as a function of time (Penny et al. 2008). This was done separately for 900
684 and 1500 ms duration trials. Since the effect of interest was not mere CFC but rather duration-
685 dependent coupling, we compared the average coupling magnitude within the 1000-1500 ms
686 window, between 900 ms and 1500 ms duration trials; if coupling is sustained for the duration
687 of the stimulus, its mean magnitude in this window should be larger for the 1500 ms duration
688 trials than for the 900 ones. Statistical significance was determined using a 10,000-iteration
689 randomization test whereby for each iteration, the stimulus duration labels were shuffled and
690 the resulting mean magnitude differences were used to generate a null-hypothesis distribution.
691 Finally, the False Detection Rate method (Benjamini & Yosef 1995) was used to correct for
692 multiple testing across electrodes. The analysis revealed no significant duration-dependent
693 CFC.

694

695 **Author Contributions**

696 Conceptualization, L.Y.D. and E.M.G.; Methodology, E.M.G. and L.Y.D.; Software, E.M.G.
697 and T.G.; Formal Analysis, E.M.G.; Resources, R.T.K.; Writing – Original Draft, E.M.G.,
698 Writing – Review and Editing, L.Y.D., R.T.K. and T.G.; Visualization, E.M.G.; Supervision,
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700

701

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709

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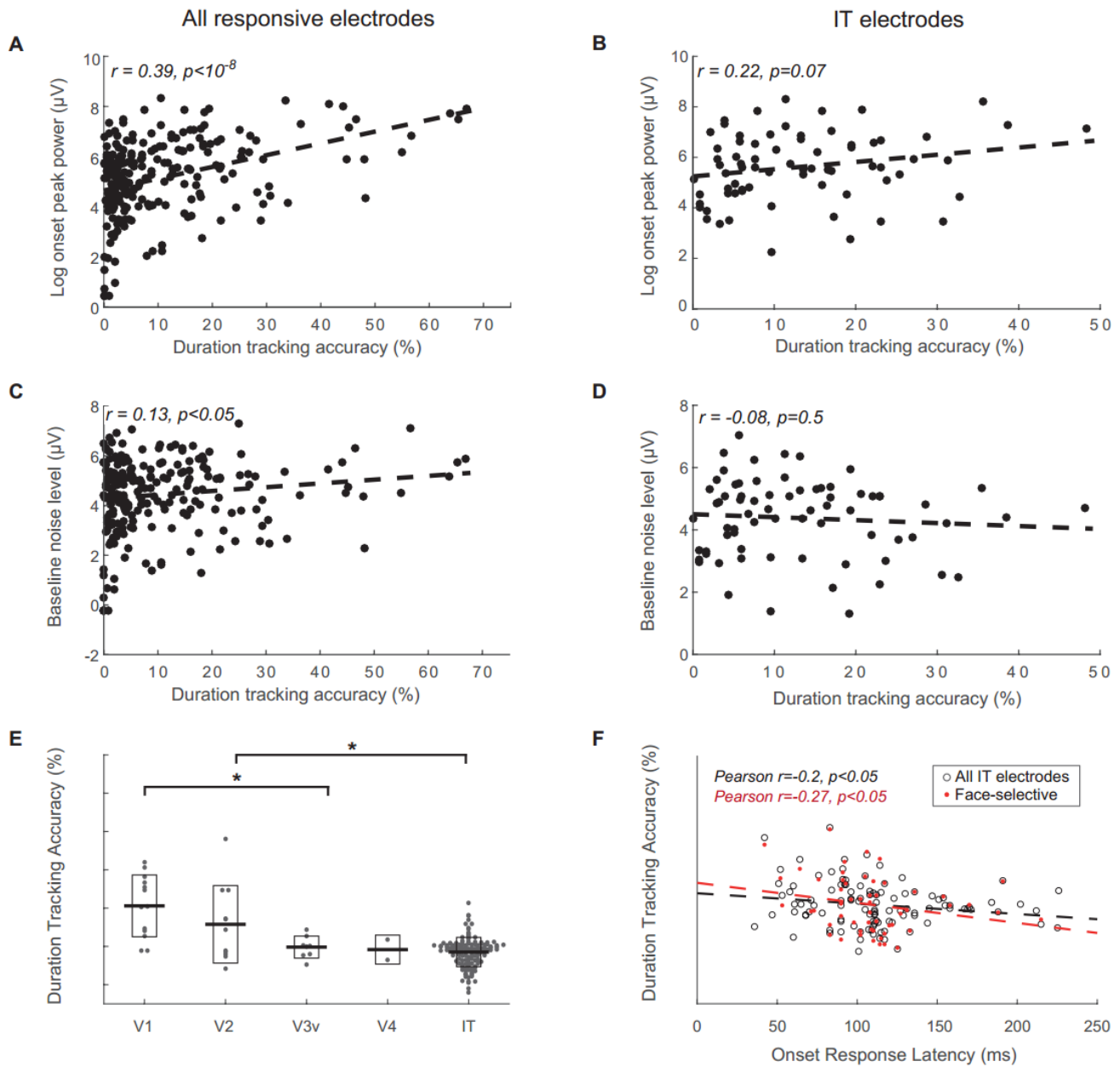
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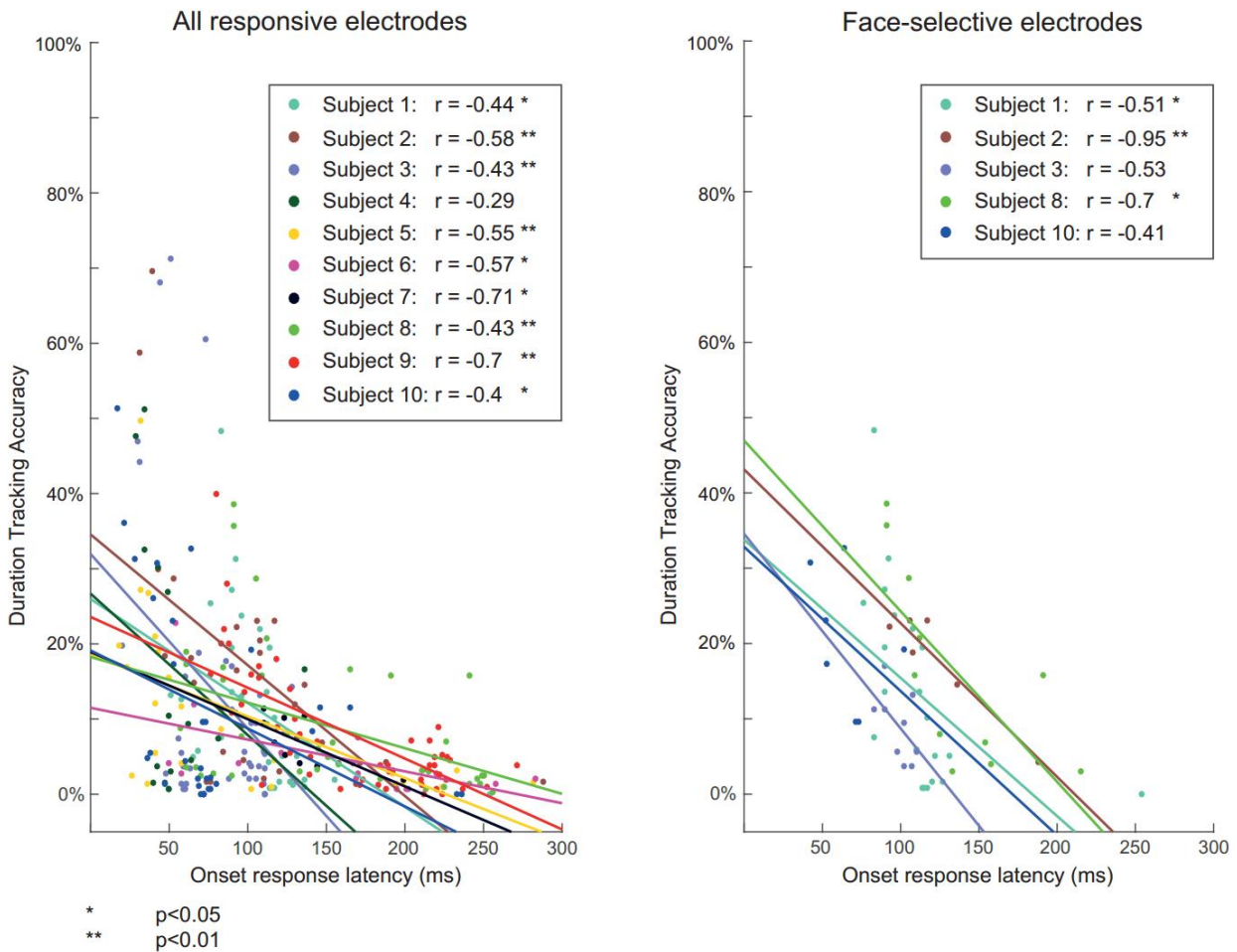
822 **Supplemental Figures**



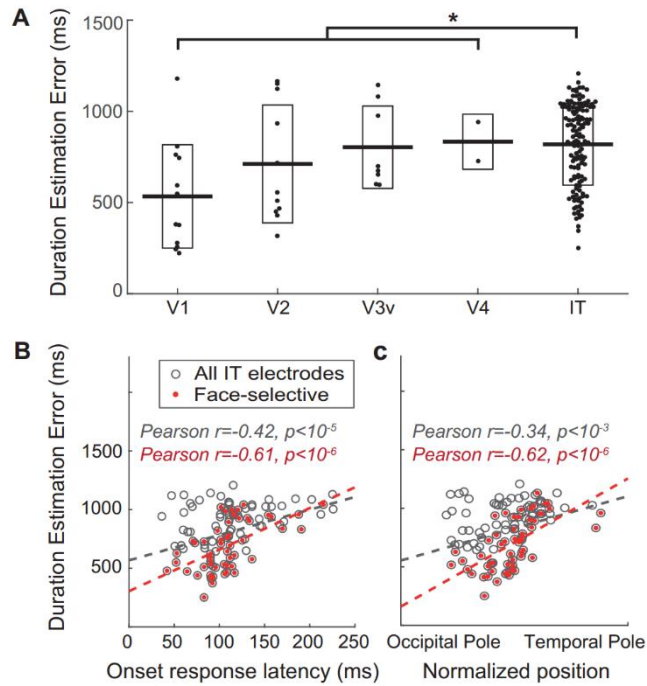
824 **Figure S1, supplemental to Figure 3: Controlling for baseline noise level and onset peak power.**

825 (A,B) the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of each electrodes' HFB onset response, measured as the log of the
 826 ratio between the peak power of the 0-300 ms epoch in the average response for the preferred stimulus
 827 category (or for all categories for non-selective electrodes) and the standard deviation of the baseline, is
 828 correlated with duration-tracking accuracy across all right-hemisphere visually-responsive electrodes and
 829 across IT electrodes. (C,D) the baseline noise level for each electrode, measured as the log of the standard
 830 deviation of the baseline HFB power, is also mildly correlated with accuracy. Despite their correlation
 831 with duration-tracking accuracy, onset SNR and baseline noise level factors do not explain the negative
 832 correlation between duration-tracking accuracy and hierarchical position along the ventral stream. This
 833 was verified by regressing out the variance in the accuracy variable explained by these two factors using

834 multiple regression, and analyzing the residual variance. As in the original analysis, accuracy was higher
835 in EVC areas than in IT ($t(166)=7.2$, $p<10^{-5}$), and in V1/V2 than V3v/V4 ($t(32)=2.9$, $p<0.01$; panel **(E)**,
836 compare to figure 3C), and within inferior temporal electrodes duration accuracy inversely correlated
837 with response latency (panel F, compare to figure 3D). Correlating accuracy with position along the
838 posterior-anterior axis produced comparable results ($r=-0.31$, $p<0.01$ for all IT electrodes, $r=-0.36$,
839 $p<0.01$ for face-selective electrodes).

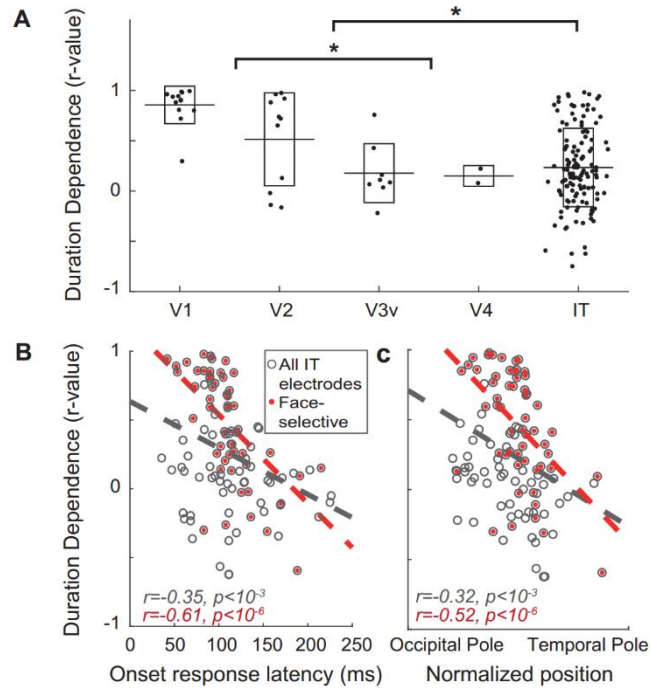


841 **Figure S2, supplemental to Figure 3: Single subject correlations.** To verify that the negative gradient
842 of duration-tracking accuracy is not driven by differences between subjects (i.e. to verify that tracking
843 accuracy and position along the ventral stream are correlated within subjects, rather than that subjects
844 with more posterior coverage have generally higher duration-tracking), we fitted a mixed-effect linear
845 regression model to the single-trial duration-tracking data. The binomial result of each trial in each
846 electrode (accurate/inaccurate response duration) was used as the dependent variable, and either the
847 electrodes' onset response latency, or its posterior-anterior position was used as an independent variable,
848 with random intercepts and slopes for each subject and random intercepts for individual trials. The
849 continuous measures of latency and anatomical position were used as the independent variables for the
850 analysis of electrodes across all visual areas rather than region labels, because there were not sufficient
851 data for the model to converge with an ordinal independent variable. The results indicated a significant
852 fixed effect for both latency and position for all responsive electrodes, all right-hemisphere IT electrodes,
853 all right-hemisphere face-selective electrodes, and all right-hemisphere object selective electrodes. Left
854 panel: data points for all responsive electrodes divided by subject, and subject-specific regression lines.
855 Right panel: same for right-hemisphere IT face-selective electrodes. Mixed-effects analysis was
856 performed using R (www.r-project.org) with the lme4 software package.



857

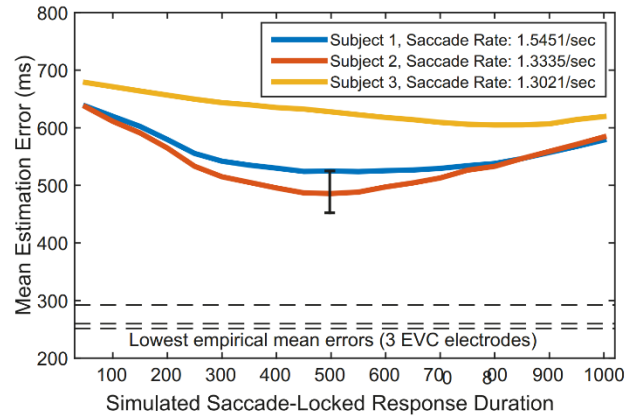
858 **Figure S3, supplemental to Figure 3: Duration tracking estimation error.** To verify that the effects
859 reported for duration-tracking accuracy were not dependent on the particular accuracy metric used, the
860 same results reported in Fig. 3 were replicated using the mean duration estimation error as the dependent
861 variable. (A) Relation between duration estimation error and hierarchical position along the ventral
862 stream, based on a probabilistic atlas (EVC areas) and visual inspection (IT). Boxes correspond to
863 standard deviation. Error in EVC areas is lower than in IT ($t(166)=-3.2$, $p<0.01$), and in V1/V2 compared
864 to V3v/V4 ($t(32)=-1.82$, $p<0.05$). (B) duration-tracking within IT as a function of onset response latency
865 as a proxy for hierarchical position along the ventral stream. (C) Same as (B), with hierarchical position
866 measured as the electrode's coordinate along the occipital-temporal axis.



867

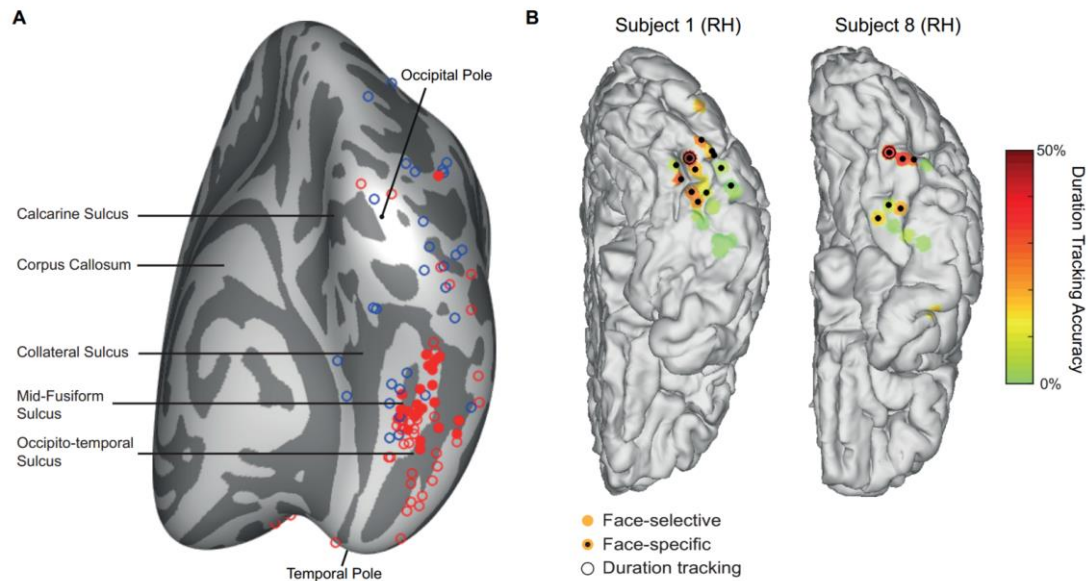
868 **Figure S4, supplemental to Figure 3: Decreasing duration dependence along the ventral stream.**

869 (A) The duration-dependence index (i.e., the correlation across trials between number of post-stimulus
870 above-threshold time points and stimulus duration) as a function of region, plotted for all visually-
871 responsive electrodes. Boxes indicate standard deviation. Duration dependence is higher in EVC areas
872 than in IT ($t(166)=4.08, p < 10^{-3}$) and in V1/V2 than in V3v/V4 ($t(32)=4.03, p < 10^{-3}$). (B) Duration
873 dependence within IT as a function of onset response latency. (C) Duration dependence within IT as a
874 function of anatomical position along the posterior-anterior axis.



875

876 **Figure S5, supplemental to Figure 7: Simulations of duration dependent sustained activity driven**
877 **by neural activity related to retinal shift following saccades.** Mean error for stimulus duration
878 estimation from simulated HFB power constructed based on individual saccades, as function of the
879 simulated duration of the saccade evoked activity. Each line represents simulation based on saccades
880 from one of three healthy subjects (see also figure 7). The lowest mean error achieved in the simulation
881 was 485 ms, which is larger than that of 15 of the most strongly duration-dependent intracranial
882 electrodes in the early visual cortex. The black error bar indicates 95% confidence interval across trials
883 for the best-performing (lowest error) simulation, the three lowest errors from intracranial electrodes are
884 shown as horizontal broken lines). We conclude that it is unlikely that the robust duration-tracking
885 responses in early visual cortex were the result of summed transient responses driven by eye movements,
886 regardless of the duration of these saccade-related bursts.



887

888 **Figure S6, supplemental to Figure 3: Category specificity.** (A) Category-specificity to faces, objects
889 and animals was assessed by a conjunction of statistically significant selectivity of an electrode to one
890 category relative to each of the two other categories (e.g. face-specificity entails {face>object &
891 face>animal}). Empty red and blue circles correspond to face-selective and object-selective electrodes,
892 respectively. Filled red circles correspond to face-specific electrodes. There were no object-specific or
893 animal-specific electrodes. The electrodes are shown on template brain (FreeSurfer average brain), from
894 a medial-posterior-inferior aspect. Dark regions indicate sulci. (B) Face-selective vs. face-specific
895 electrodes in two individual brains from the subjects shown in Fig. 5 who had face-selective category-
896 tracking electrodes. Colored patches indicate face selective electrodes; a black dot indicates that the
897 response is also face-specific. The black circles indicate significant duration-tracking. The distinction
898 between strongly duration-tracking posterior sites and weakly duration-tracking anterior sites can be seen
899 for this subset of face-specific electrodes.