Functional coupling and regional activation of human cortical motor areas during simple, internally paced and externally paced finger movements

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Introduction

Internally generated and externally triggered movements are associated with different cortical activation patterns (Karata and Wise, 1988; Mushiake et al., 1991; Halsband et al., 1993, 1994; Jahanshahi et al., 1995; Deiber et al., 1996; Picard and Strick, 1996a, b; Wessel et al., 1997). Internal generation and external triggering can refer to various aspects of movement (e.g. timing, movement selection). In the present study we focused on brain activation during internal and external pacing.
external ‘pacing’, i.e. during the absence and presence of an external pacemaker (e.g. a metronome) serving to guide rhythmic movements.

Data on cortical activation patterns associated with internal and external pacing of rhythmic movement are sparse and contradictory (Rao et al., 1993; Remy et al., 1994; Jahanshahi et al., 1995). Previous studies in non-human primates have suggested that the supplementary motor area (SMA) is particularly involved with internally generated movements (Kurata and Wise, 1988; Mushiake et al., 1991; Halsband et al., 1994). This view gains support from clinical observations in patients with Parkinson’s disease and dysfunction of the mesial premotor system (Marsden, 1989; Hallett, 1990; Jenkins et al., 1992; Playford et al., 1992; Rascol et al., 1993, 1994), and in patients with structural lesions of the SMA (Halsband et al., 1993). Microelectrode recordings in monkeys (Tanji, 1994; Shima et al., 1996; Tanji and Shima, 1996), however, indicate that the SMA is not exclusively concerned with internally generated movements but is also concerned with externally triggered movements (Tanji and Shima, 1996). A possible reason for some inconsistencies among previous results is that the motor system may not implement internally generated and externally triggered movements by the use of one or another cortical region exclusively, but rather by dynamically modulating the activity in a cortical network that integrates multiple regions including the primary sensorimotor area (SM1), lateral premotor cortex and SMA. Previous studies have focused on patterns of regional activation in association with internally generated and externally triggered movements using measurements of regional cerebral blood flow in humans (Jenkins et al., 1992; Playford et al., 1992; Rascol et al., 1992, 1993, 1994; Rao et al., 1993; Remy et al., 1994; Jahanshahi et al., 1995; Deiber et al., 1996; Wessel et al., 1997) or microelectrodes in non-human primates (Kurata and Wise, 1988; Mushiake et al., 1991; Romo and Schultz, 1992; Tanji, 1994; Shima et al., 1996; Tanji and Shima, 1996). If the cortical motor areas operate in a network-like fashion, however, they may modulate not only the regional activity of individual areas but also the degree of inter-regional communication (‘functional coupling’).

Functional coupling of motor areas has not been compared during internally paced and externally paced movements so far. Functional coupling can be assessed by computing correlations between oscillatory activities of different brain regions in the time or frequency domain. In non-human primates, changes in inter-regional cross-correlation measures have been shown to reflect changes in behaviour (Engel et al., 1991a, b; Murthy and Fetz, 1992; Sanes and Donoghue, 1993; Singer, 1993, 1994; Bressler, 1995; deCharms and Merzenich, 1996; Laurent et al., 1996; Roelfsema et al., 1997). In the frequency domain, coherence analysis has proved to be a useful technique when applied to human EEG data (Rappelsberger and Petsche, 1988; Rappelsberger et al., 1994; Thatcher, 1995; Andrew and Pfurtscheller, 1996; Classen et al., 1998). EEG coherence analysis is complemented by the analysis of regional changes in oscillatory brain activity. In the motor system, this was originally described as ‘blocking’ of the central µ rhythm (Gastaut et al., 1952; Chatrian et al., 1959), and was later referred to as event-related desynchronization (Pfurtscheller, 1988; Salmelin and Hari, 1994; Toro et al., 1994a, b; Stancak and Pfurtscheller, 1995, 1996). We now believe it is best to refer to this phenomenon as ‘power change’ since ‘desynchronization’ has been used with different meanings with reference to regional spectral power changes and inter-regional coherence, and has thus become ambiguous (Steriade and Amzica, 1996; Steriade et al., 1996b).

In the present study, we investigated the functional coupling and regional activation of cortical motor areas during internally paced and externally paced finger movements in healthy volunteers. First, we assessed the regional activation patterns by EEG time domain analysis: we computed movement-related cortical potentials using a new approach that enabled us to study fast repetitive movements (rate, 2/s) with and without metronome pacing (Gerloff et al., 1997). Secondly, we used an approach similar to event-related desynchronization to determine the regional patterns of oscillatory activity. Our approach was based on the spectral power analysis of EEG signals during steady-state task performance. Since the resulting activation patterns were related to task performance rather than to a single event, we refer to this data as task-related power. Finally, we used EEG coherence analysis or task-related coherence to study the functional coupling between the lateral premotor and primary sensorimotor and mesial premotor areas (e.g. SMA), which were, based on the studies mentioned earlier, the areas of our a priori interest.

**Methods**

**Subjects**

We studied 10 normal volunteers (six men and four women) whose mean age was 34.3 ± 14.0 (SD) years. Nine subjects were right-handed, according to the Edinburgh inventory (Oldfield, 1971), and one was ambidextrous. The data of two subjects had to be excluded because of artefacts (eye blinks, muscle artefacts) and drowsiness towards the end of the session. All subjects included in the final analysis were right-handed (four men, four women; age 32.0 ± 13.3 years). The protocol was approved by the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke Review Board, and all subjects gave their written informed consent for the study.

**Experimental design**

Subjects were seated comfortably in an armchair with the right arm relaxed and resting on a pillow. The right hand was positioned palm down at the edge of the pillow so that the fingers could be moved freely. The moving hand was concealed under a small adjustable table.
Subjects performed repetitive, brisk simultaneous extensions of fingers II–V of the right hand followed by brief relaxation (rather than voluntary flexion). Two extensions per second were performed to the beat of a metronome (2 Hz). To avoid intra-session learning effects, subjects practised the required movement before the EEG recording, using on-line EMG feedback.

Four task conditions were studied: externally paced finger extensions, internally paced finger extensions, listening to the metronome without moving, and neither metronome sound nor movement. Each experimental block of trials started with a period of neither metronome sound nor movement, followed by listening to the metronome without moving, externally paced finger extensions and internally paced finger extensions, and ended with a second period of neither metronome sound nor movement. The two periods of neither metronome sound nor movement were used to enable us to check for within-block changes in the background EEG. Since there were no systematic or focal differences between the first and second periods of neither metronome sound nor movement, data from both of these periods were pooled for the final analysis. Three to five (median, four) blocks of 180 movements (corresponding to 90 s) and control conditions (also 90 s) were recorded, alternating with breaks of 1–5 min between blocks to avoid muscular fatigue. During any movement other than the required finger movements.

**Data acquisition**

Continuous EEG was recorded from 28 (tin) surface electrodes (Fig. 1), mounted in a cap (Electro-Cap International, Inc., Eaton, Ohio, USA). Impedance was kept below 8 kΩ. Data were sampled at 250 Hz, the upper cutoff was 50 Hz and the time constant was set to DC (DC amplifiers and software by NeuroScan Inc., Herndon, Va., USA). Linked earlobe electrodes served as reference. Four bipolar EMG channels were recorded from surface electrodes positioned over the right and left forearm extensors (extensor digitorum communis, extensor carpi radialis), each pair of electrodes being located ~15 cm apart (distal tendon reference). The high-pass filter for EMG was set to 30 Hz. The EMG was also recorded from corresponding positions on the left forearm to control for mirror movements. Each metronome beat (1 kHz, 130 dB at speaker level, 33.33 ms duration) was automatically documented with a marker in the continuous EEG file.

**Data analysis**

In order to determine if the motor output was similar in the two movement conditions (externally paced finger extensions and internally paced finger extensions), we analysed the raw and time-averaged EMG. The raw EMG data were inspected visually, and for each subject and movement condition a sample of 100 EMG burst onsets was marked in artefact-free parts of the data file using a computer cursor. The inter-EMG onset intervals were calculated to determine movement rates. In the time-averaged EMG, peak amplitudes and latencies were measured.

The EEG data were analysed using three approaches: (i) movement-related cortical potentials, (ii) task-related power and (iii) task-related coherence.

**Movement-related cortical potentials**

Artefact rejection and EMG-locked averaging was done offline. For each subject, a minimum of 180 artefact-free trials was required for each condition (median, 292). The single sweeps were averaged according to the following procedure. After rectification of EMG channels, each EMG onset was marked automatically using a threshold detection algorithm. The averaging time window covered 300 ms before and 200 ms after EMG onset. Linear trend was removed from the EEG channels (linear detrend option of NeuroScan software), and a baseline correction over the entire epoch of 500 ms was computed. Subsequent artefact rejection included three steps: (i) an amplitude threshold rejection criterion was applied to the pre-EMG onset period (only EMG channels) to eliminate all sweeps with EMG background activity before the actual EMG burst; (ii) another threshold rejection algorithm was applied to the EEG channels (entire sweep length) to eliminate all trials contaminated by eye or head movements or electrode artefacts; and (iii) the remaining sweeps were inspected visually to control for minor artefacts that might have escaped the thresholds used. This method has been fully described in an earlier article (Gerloff et al., 1997), particularly with respect to the validation of automatic EMG onset detection and the lack of influence of the tone-evoked response on the movement-related cortical potentials (MRCPs). Peaks were selected by visual inspection of the individual average waveforms and marked with a cursor. Latencies were measured relative to EMG onset. MRCP amplitudes were measured relative to the baseline (base-to-peak). The topographic distribution of the MRCPs was evaluated using amplitude maps (linear four-nearest neighbours interpolation; NeuroScan software) computed on minimum–maximum normalized data (McCarthy and Wood, 1985).

**Task-related power**

For analysis of task-related power, EEG signals were digitally filtered off-line (1–50 Hz, slope 24 dB/octave) and, for each experimental condition separately, segmented into non-overlapping epochs (disjoint sections; cf. Amjad et al., 1997) of 2048 ms (allowing a frequency resolution of 0.5 Hz). After removal of slow drifts by linear trend correction (linear detrend module of the NeuroScan software) and baseline correction (using the entire window from 0 to 2048 ms), the
single sweeps were inspected visually, and trials with artefacts were rejected. A minimum of 25 artefact-free trials was required for each condition (median, 54). Each single sweep was Hamming-windowed to control spectral leakage. For spectral power analysis, a discrete Fourier transform was computed for each 2048 ms epoch and all electrodes. Spectral power was calculated for all frequency bins between 1 and 50 Hz (0.5 Hz bin width). In order to reduce the effects of inter-subject and inter-electrode variation in absolute spectral power values, task-related relative power at an electrode $x$ (TRPow$_x$) was obtained by subtracting rest (Pow$_x$rest) from corresponding activation conditions (Pow$_x$activation), according to equation (1).

$$ TRPow_x = Pow_{x\text{ activation}} - Pow_{x\text{ rest}} $$ (1)

Therefore, task-related power decreases (‘activation’) are expressed as negative values while task-related power increases are expressed as positive values. Broad-band power changes were obtained by averaging the power values of the respective frequency bins. This was done for one $\alpha$ (9–11 Hz) and one $\beta$ (20–22 Hz) frequency range (for selection of frequency ranges and pooling of frequency bins see below).

**Task-related coherence**

Coherence is computed in the frequency domain and is a normalized measure of the coupling between two signals at any given frequency (Schoppenhorst et al., 1980; Shaw, 1984; Rappelsberger and Petsche, 1988; Farmer et al., 1993; Conway et al., 1995; Weiss et al., 1996; Salenius et al., 1997; Classen et al., 1998). For task-related coherence analysis, EEG signals were filtered, segmented, corrected for trend and baseline, inspected for artefacts, Hamming-windowed and Fourier-transformed as described for task-related power. A minimum of 25 artefact-free trials was required for each condition (median, 54 disjoint sections). The coherence values were calculated for each frequency bin $\lambda$ according to equation (2) (implemented in commercial software by NeuroScan).

$$ Coh_{xy} (\lambda) = |R_{xy}(\lambda)|^2 = \frac{|f_{xy}(\lambda)|^2}{f_{xx}(\lambda) f_{yy}(\lambda)} $$ (2)

Equation (2) is the extension of the Pearson’s correlation coefficient to complex number pairs. In this equation, $f$ denotes the spectral estimate of two EEG signals $x$ and $y$ for a given frequency bin ($\lambda$). The numerator contains the cross-spectrum for $x$ and $y(f_{xy})$, the denominator the respective autospectra for $x(f_{xx})$ and $y(f_{yy})$. For each frequency $\lambda$, the coherence value (Coh$_{xy}$) is obtained by squaring the magnitude of the complex correlation coefficient $R$, and is a real number between 0 and 1. In association with coherence, phase information is also available, but was not included in the present analysis. In order to reduce the effect of inter-subject and inter-electrode pair variation in absolute coherence values, task-related relative coherence (TRCoh$_{xy}$) was obtained by subtracting rest (Coh$_{xy\text{ rest}}$) from
corresponding activation conditions \((\text{Coh}_{xy}^{\text{activation}})\), according to equation (3).

\[
\text{TRCoh}_{xy} = \text{Coh}_{xy}^{\text{activation}} - \text{Coh}_{xy}^{\text{rest}} \tag{3}
\]

Therefore, coherence magnitude increments are expressed as positive values and coherence decrements are expressed as negative values. Coherence increments or decrements between baseline and movement conditions for each pair of electrodes were displayed as colour-coded ‘link’ plots, which permitted the inspection of the magnitude and spatial patterns of task-related coherence. This method also eliminates the bias in the absolute coherence introduced by the reference electrodes (Fein et al., 1988; Rappelsberger and Petsche, 1988; Classen et al., 1998). To obtain broad-band coherence values, \(\text{Coh}_{xy}(\lambda)\), \(\text{Coh}_{xy}(\lambda_{0})\) was averaged over frequency bins \(j = \lambda_{\min}\) to \(\lambda_{\max}\) \((\lambda_{\min}\) and \(\lambda_{\max}\) corresponding to the lower and upper frequency bins in the chosen frequency band). To average the frequency bins we used the concept of pooled coherence as described by Amjad et al. (1997). The number of frequency bins pooled was equal for all subjects, electrode pairs and conditions. Broad-band coherence was calculated for two different frequency bands: \(\alpha\) (9–11 Hz) and \(\beta\) (20–22 Hz). These frequencies were selected for several reasons. First, they have previously been shown to be particularly sensitive to movement-related changes in cortical oscillatory activity in humans (Tiihonen et al., 1989; Salmelin and Hari, 1994). Secondly, on visual inspection of the original task-related coherence spectra they represented the frequency ranges within which the two conditions differed most consistently (Fig. 4). Thirdly, they had sufficient spectral power in all individuals studied.

### Statistical analysis

The non-parametric Wilcoxon matched pairs test was employed to compare amplitudes and latencies of the time-averaged rectified EMG and the inter-EMG onset intervals between the externally paced and internally paced finger extensions conditions.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs test was also used to compare the amplitudes of the early premovement component and of the previously described lateralized parietal–negative premovement and frontal–negative post-movement MRCP between externally paced finger extensions and internally paced finger extensions. Differences were considered significant if \(P < 0.05\).

Subtraction of power and coherence values as shown in equations (1) and (3) may be used to demonstrate mean task-related changes of the mean values (Figs 5 and 6). However, power and coherence values have certain properties which make it necessary to transform them prior to further statistical evaluation (Rosenberg et al., 1989; Farmer et al., 1993; Halliday et al., 1995; Amjad et al., 1997). For spectral power values, which are real numbers \(\geq 0\), the variance decreases when the mean approaches zero. For coherence values, which are real numbers between 0 and 1, the variance decreases for values at both ends of the range. The transformations described below were therefore applied in order to stabilize the variances for both task-related power and task-related coherence values.

The variance of spectral power estimates can be stabilized by logarithmic (log) transformation (Halliday et al., 1995). In the present data this procedure was observed to give approximately constant residual variance across all levels of the response. Thus, for the statistical analysis, equation (1) becomes equation (4).

\[
\log\text{TRPow}_x = \log[\text{Pow}_x^{\text{activation}}] - \log[\text{Pow}_x^{\text{rest}}] \tag{4}
\]

For coherence estimates, the hyperbolic inverse tangent (tanh\(^{-1}\)) transformation normalizes the underlying distribution of correlation coefficients and stabilizes the variances of the distributions (Rosenberg et al., 1989; Farmer et al., 1993). The tanh\(^{-1}\) transformation was applied to each individual data set prior to subtraction of the coherence estimates in order to compute the task-related coherence task-related coherence. Thus, for the statistical analysis equation (3) becomes equation (5).

\[
tanh^{-1}\text{TRCoh}_{xy} = \tanh^{-1}[\text{Coh}_{xy}^{\text{activation}}] - \tanh^{-1}[\text{Coh}_{xy}^{\text{rest}}] \tag{5}
\]

The \(\log\text{TRPow}\) and \(\tanh^{-1}\), task-related coherence values were computed for the internally paced and externally paced finger extensions conditions and were entered into separate factorial analyses of variance (ANOVA)s. For \(\log\text{TRPow}\), factors were condition (externally paced finger extensions, internally paced finger extensions) and region. For \(\tanh^{-1}\) task-related coherence, factors were condition (externally paced finger extensions, internally paced finger extensions) and connection. The definition of regions and connections is described below in detail and illustrated in Fig. 1. Differences in the absolute coherence levels between subjects and between electrodes were minimized by the subtractive approach, because only differences between active and rest conditions were considered. The \(\alpha\) (9–11 Hz) and \(\beta\) (20–22 Hz) bands were analysed separately.

We defined electrodes of interest (EOI) and electrode pairs of interest (POI), which is similar to the region-of-interest (ROI) approach that has been used in neuroimaging techniques such as PET, magnetic resonance spectroscopy and single-photon emission tomography (Rascol et al., 1993, 1994; Shibasaki et al., 1993). EOI and POI were chosen on the basis of prior anatomical and physiological knowledge. We included electrodes known to overlie approximately the lateral premotor cortex and SM1 of the left and right hemispheres (left, FC3, C3, CP3; right, FC4, C4, CP4) and the mesial frontocentral cortex including the SMA (Fz, FCz, Cz) (Homan et al., 1987; Steinmetz et al., 1989; Gerloff et al., 1996). To pool the coherence estimates across electrode pairs we used the method described by Amjad et al. (1997). Weighting of the pooled coherences was not necessary because the number of electrode pairs was equal for all connections, conditions and subjects.

For \(\log\text{TRPow}\) analysis, the nine EOI were grouped into
three regions each represented by three electrodes: ‘left central’ (FC3, C3, CP3), ‘right central’ (FC4, C4, CP4) and ‘mesial frontocentral’ (Fz, FCz, Cz) (Fig. 1, left). The factor Region was integrated into the ANOVA to test differences between activation of contralateral and ipsilateral lateral premotor cortex and SM1 and mesial premotor areas.

For tanh–1 task-related coherence analysis, the total number of links between the EOI was 27 (27 POI), and these were grouped into three major connections: ‘left central to right central’ (FC3–FC4, FC3–C4, FC3–CP4, C3–FC4, C3–C4, C3–CP4, CP3–FC4, CP3–C4, CP3–CP4), ‘left central to mesial frontocentral’ (FC3–Fz, FC3–FCz, FC3–Cz, C3–Fz, C3–FCz, C3–Cz, CP3–Fz, CP3–FCz, CP3–Cz) and ‘right central to mesial frontocentral’ (FC4–Fz, FC4–FCz, FC4–Cz, C4–Fz, C4–FCz, C4–Cz, CP4–Fz, CP4–FCz, CP4–Cz) (Fig. 1, right). The factor Connection was integrated into the ANOVA to test differences between the different functional links of contralateral and ipsilateral lateral premotor cortex and SM1 and mesial premotor areas. In addition, to test whether the tanh–1 task-related coherence effects observed in the preselected POI were topographically restricted (as opposed to global in all electrode pairs), we applied the same statistical procedure to 27 randomly chosen pairs of electrodes (excluding the POI): FC3–OZ, CP3–FP2, F3–OZ, TP7–PZ, F7–CPZ, T5–OZ, FP1–F7, FT7–TP7, F3–FT7, FZ–F8, P4–FT8, TP8–FP2, T6–CP2, FP2–PZ, OZ–TP8, FCZ–TP8, F8–T6, F8–FZ, P3–F4, TP7–FT8, TP7–T6, F3–FT8, P3–FT8, FP1–T6, T5–FT8, T5–F8 and F7–T4.

Further, to determine how the 27 POI were exceptional among all possible random combinations of 27 electrode pairs (i.e. topographical specificity), we examined the sampling distribution of the mean of 27 randomly chosen pairs of electrodes from the total population of 378 pairs. The central limit theorem states that the sampling distribution reasonably approximates a Gaussian distribution. Hence, we calculated the Z scores of the mean of 27 POI in each condition according to equation (6).

\[
Z = \frac{\text{tanh}^{-1}\text{TRCoh}_{\text{POI}} - \text{tanh}^{-1}\text{TRCoh}_{\text{TOTAL}}}{\text{SEM}_{27}}
\]

where \(\text{tanh}^{-1}\text{TRCoh}_{\text{POI}}\) is the mean task-related coherence for the 27 POI, \(\text{tanh}^{-1}\text{TRCoh}_{\text{TOTAL}}\) is the mean task-related coherence of all 378 electrode pairs and \(\text{SEM}_{27}\) is the standard error of the mean for samples of size 27. In this situation, \(Z = 1.65\) corresponds to \(P = 0.05\), \(P\) denoting the probability of finding one or more combinations of 27 electrode pairs with a mean task-related coherence higher than \(\text{tanh}^{-1}\text{TRCoh}_{\text{POI}}\). We calculated the Z scores for the 27 randomly chosen pairs of electrodes accordingly, in order to characterize their position in the population distribution (i.e. to decide whether they constituted a representative control sample).

Significance levels obtained from multiple tests on the same data pool were Bonferroni-corrected.

**Results**

The movements were similar in the two conditions (Fig. 2). Peak latencies were not significantly different (externally paced finger extensions, \(37 \pm 12\) ms; internally paced finger extensions, \(38 \pm 10\) ms) and amplitudes (externally paced finger extensions, \(45 \pm 28\) \(\mu\)V; internally paced finger extensions, \(44 \pm 23\) \(\mu\)V) of the time-averaged EMG bursts and mean movement rates (externally paced finger extensions, \(1.9 \pm 0.0\) Hz; internally paced finger extensions, \(1.9 \pm 0.1\) Hz) were not significantly different.

**Movement-related cortical potentials**

Figure 3 shows an overlay of the grand average MRCP waveform associated with internally and externally paced finger extensions at electrode FCz, and a topographic map of the difference waveforms (externally paced finger extensions minus externally paced finger extensions). Main MRCP components were a premovement peak and a post-movement peak, as previously described with this paradigm (Gerloff et al., 1997). In addition, an early negativity was observed that occurred only with internally paced movements. This early negativity, associated with internally paced finger extensions, was prominent in frontocentral midline electrodes (particularly in electrode FCz), and extended into electrodes F3, FC3 and C3. The amplitude difference between externally paced finger extensions (0.3 \(\pm 0.6\) \(\mu\)V) and internally paced finger extensions (–0.9 \(\pm 0.8\) \(\mu\)V), measured in electrode FCz at a latency of 168 \(\pm 49\) ms before EMG onset, was significant (\(P < 0.05\), Wilcoxon matched pairs test).

Latencies and amplitudes of the premovement peak, measured in electrode F3, were –57 \(\pm 49\) ms and –1.4 \(\pm 0.8\) \(\mu\)V for externally paced finger extensions, and –49 \(\pm 65\) ms and –1.2 \(\pm 0.7\) \(\mu\)V for internally paced finger extensions. Latencies and amplitudes of the post-movement peak, measured in electrode F3, were 104 \(\pm 24\) ms and –1.4 \(\pm 0.2\)
cortex, including the region of the SMA. Additional premovement activation of the mesial frontocentral cortex, in association with internally paced movements. The related cortical potentials associated with externally paced (grey) and internally paced (black) finger extension movements. The area of increased negativity during internally paced finger extensions included the frontocentral midline electrodes (e.g. FCz) and extended towards electrodes F3, FC3 and C3 over the left hemisphere. Bottom: grand average (n = 8) waveforms at electrode FCz. Overlay of movement-related cortical potentials associated with externally paced (grey) and internally paced (black) finger extension movements. The vertical line indicates EMG onset (0 ms). Note the amplitude difference between conditions occurring ~170 ms before EMG onset (*). At this latency in electrode FCz, only internally paced movements were associated with a negative deflection (P < 0.05, Wilcoxon matched pairs test), which could be consistent with additional premovement activation of the mesial frontocentral cortex, including the region of the SMA.

µV for externally paced finger extensions, and 96 ± 22 ms and –1.2 ± 0.5 µV for internally paced finger extensions. No significant differences between conditions were observed for these peaks (Wilcoxon matched pairs test). For both the externally and the internally paced finger extension condition, the topographical distribution of the premovement peak and post-movement peak corresponded well with the topography originally described with this paradigm, with a parietal-negative electrical field immediately before EMG onset (premovement peak) and a frontal-negative, parietal-positive field after EMG onset (post-movement peak) (Gerloff et al., 1997).

In summary, MRCP analysis suggested an early (~170 ms before EMG onset), relatively low-voltage but yet significant additional negative deflection, particularly over the mesial and left frontocentral cortex, in association with internally paced movements.

**Task-related power**

As noted earlier, the frequency bands of interest were determined on the basis of visual inspection of the coherence spectra (averaged across subjects), because task-related coherence was the primary target of the study. Figure 4 shows the spectra in 1 Hz steps for the externally paced and internally paced finger extension conditions.

Figure 5 shows the topographic task-related power maps. The largest task-related power decreases (‘activation’) for both movement conditions occurred in the α band over the left central region (electrodes FC3, C3 and CP3). In the β band, the maximal task-related power decrease was even more confined to electrode C3. The main difference between the externally paced and internally paced finger extension conditions was spatial extension of the task-related power decrease towards Fz, FCz and, to a smaller extent, Cz in the α band (Fig. 5). Increases in spectral power occurred in the α band over the occipital and parieto-occipital cortex, which probably reflects the fact that our subjects were not allowed to use visual feedback for controlling the movements, putting the occipital cortex in an idling state (Pfurtscheller, 1992).

The statistical results for task-related power are summarized in Table 1. As for the task-related power in the nine EOI (FC3, C3, CP3, Fz, FCz, Cz, FC4, C4 and CP4), the major difference in spectral power between conditions occurred in the α band (9–11 Hz) (P = 0.0047; ANOVA, main effect for Condition; internally paced, –0.129 ± 0.018 µV² externally paced, –0.065 ± 0.017 µV², log-transformed mean ± 1 SE). No differences were observed in the β band. This is reflected in the topographic maps (Fig. 5). In both movement conditions, the maximum of the α task-related power decrease occurred in the electrode group overlaying the left central region (FC3, C3 and CP3) (P = 0.0001; ANOVA, main effect for Region), with larger task-related power decreases during the internally paced than during the externally paced finger extension condition. The α task-related power decrease over the midline (Fz, FCz and Cz) and right central (FC4, C4 and CP4) electrodes was also larger during internally paced than during externally paced finger extensions. There was no significant interaction of Condition with Region in the α band, indicating that the task-related power amplitude differences between the three regions were not significantly different for internally paced and externally paced movements.

In the β band, the ANOVA main effect for Region was also significant (P = 0.0027), indicating topographic differentiation in this band as well. This was mostly related to larger task-related power decreases over the left central and mesial frontocentral region (Fig. 5) compared with the right central electrode group, particularly in the externally paced finger extension condition. The log-transformed task-related power mean values are displayed in Fig. 7.

In summary, the task-related power results suggest that in the α frequency range (9–11 Hz), internally paced movements are associated with higher regional activation of the bilateral
premotor and sensorimotor cortex and of the mesial frontocentral premotor cortex than are externally paced movements. According to the topographic maps (Fig. 5), the most prominent feature of the α task-related power decrease is the extension of the activated area over the mesial frontocentral cortex, including the region of the SMA during internally paced movements.

**Task-related coherence**

Figure 4 shows the task-related coherence spectra in 1 Hz steps for the relevant frequency range, plotted as overlays for the externally paced and internally paced finger extension conditions, and separately for the 27 POI and the 27 randomly chosen pairs of electrodes. In the POI plot, two frequency bands of prominent differences between internally paced and externally paced finger extensions were detected visually: 9–11 Hz in the α band and 20–22 Hz in the β band. The analysis of the task-related coherence data was then continued for these two broad bands (task-related power analysis was done in the identical frequency bands). The corresponding plot of the coherence spectrum for the randomly chosen pairs of electrodes showed no systematic differences between the internally paced and externally paced finger extension conditions, indicating that the changes observed in the POI were not globally present in any given electrode pair. The conclusion that the task-related coherence changes were not global but, instead, spatially restricted was further supported by the Z-score analysis. The Z scores for the POI during performance of externally and internally paced movements were greater than 1.65 (corresponding to \( P < 0.05 \)) for both the α and β frequency bands. None of the Z scores that were computed accordingly for the randomly chosen pairs of electrodes exceeded ±1.65. This supported our *a priori* hypothesis that the POI selected were relevant for the tasks chosen. The Z-score results also suggested that the randomly chosen pairs of electrodes which we selected for further statistical analysis were representative of the distribution.

Figure 6 shows the topographic task-related coherence maps for both movement conditions and the two frequency bands. The statistical results are summarized in Table 2. In general, increases in task-related coherence were the most prominent task-related change, and these were typically

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**Fig. 4** Group data for coherence and power spectra during internally (black) and externally (grey) paced movements (*n* = 8). Error bars indicate 2 SEM. Each data point represents an average of two 0.5 Hz bins of the fast Fourier spectrum, and of 27 electrode pairs (A and B) or nine electrodes (C), respectively, in eight subjects. Windows indicate the frequency ranges in which the differences between the two movement conditions were most prominent (9–11 Hz, 20–22 Hz), and that were therefore used for task-related coherence (TRCoh) and task-related power (TRPow) computations. (A) Task-related coherence, 27 electrode pairs of interest; (B) task-related coherence, 27 randomly chosen electrode pairs. Note the lack of significant task-related coherence values in either movement condition, indicating that the task-related coherence changes seen in the top panel (pairs of interest) were not global. (C) Task-related power, nine electrodes of interest. Note the clear difference between the movement conditions in the α range, but the lack of similar differences in higher frequency ranges.
Internally and externally paced movements restricted to the central region, the highest number of functional links converging on electrodes C3, CP3 and CP4 in all frequency bands. Task-related coherence decreases occurred in the frontal and temporal regions, particularly in the β band. On visual inspection, the major difference between externally paced and internally paced finger extensions was an increased density of functional links between lateral and mesial central regions bilaterally with internally paced.

**Table 1 Statistical analysis (ANOVA): task-related power, log-transformed data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
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</tr>
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<td><strong>α band</strong></td>
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<tr>
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*Significant after Bonferroni correction.

**Fig. 5** Grand average of topographic task-related power maps (n = 8). The dots indicate electrode positions. Task-related power decreases (areas of ‘activation’, negative task-related power values) are coded in blue and power increases (positive task-related power values) are coded in red/pink. The maximum of task-related power decreases for both movement conditions was located over left central electrodes, particularly over C3, with higher amplitudes in the 9–11 Hz band than in the 20–22 Hz band. During internally paced finger movements (A), in the 9–11 Hz band the area of task-related power decrease extended from left central electrodes FC3, C3 and CP3 towards the frontocentral midline including electrodes FCz and Fz, as well as F3, suggesting additional activation of the mesial frontocentral cortex, including the region of the SMA. In the 9–11 Hz band, pronounced task-related power increases occurred over the occipital and parieto-occipital regions, possibly reflecting an ‘idling state’ of these regions, since visual feedback was prevented. In the 20–22 Hz band, with internally paced finger extensions there was a slightly greater task-related power decrease in electrode C3 compared with externally paced finger extensions (B), but the difference was not significant. The scales were adjusted to the overall amplitudes of task-related power in each frequency band to facilitate comparison between the two movement conditions.
Fig. 6 Grand average of topographic task-related coherence maps \( (n = 8) \). The dots indicate electrode positions. Task-related coherence changes are shown in colour-coded lines. Red lines indicate maximal task-related coherence increases ('functional coupling') and light green indicates maximal task-related coherence decreases ('decoupling'). In order to allow the identification of the most prominent links, only task-related coherence values exceeding a threshold of ±0.10 (9–11 Hz) or ±0.06 (20–22 Hz) are displayed. The scales are adjusted to the overall amplitudes of task-related coherence in each frequency band to facilitate comparison between the two movement conditions. In all frequency bands and both types of movements [internally paced finger extensions (A); externally paced finger extensions (B)], task-related coherence increases were focused over the central region with a maximum of links converging on electrode C3, and to a smaller extent CP3 and CP4. With both internally paced and externally paced finger extensions, links were present between left and right lateral central electrodes and between left central and mesial frontocentral electrodes. The main difference between conditions was the increased amplitude and number of links between bilateral and mesial premotor and sensorimotor areas during internally paced finger extensions. This was most prominent in the 20–22 Hz band \( (P = 0.0001, \text{ANOVA}) \). In the 9–11 Hz frequency range, this difference between conditions was smaller but not significant \( (P = 0.0841, \text{ANOVA}) \). Note also the additional links that occurred during internally paced finger extensions between left central, mesial frontocentral and right parietal (P4) regions, particularly in the 20–22 Hz frequency band.

Table 2 Statistical results (ANOVA): task-related coherence, \( \tanh^{-1} \)-transformed data

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<td>( \beta ) band</td>
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*Significant after Bonferroni correction.
extensions. In addition, more prominent links occurred between left central, mesial frontocentral and right parietal regions during internally paced than during externally paced finger extensions (electrode P4, particularly in the $\beta$ band). While the absolute task-related coherence values (all POI pooled) were higher in the $\alpha$ than in the $\beta$ band, the differences between externally paced and internally paced finger extension conditions were generally more prominent in the $\beta$ band.

Accordingly, the ANOVA main effect for Condition only approached significance for the $\alpha$ band ($P = 0.0549$), and was highly significant for the $\beta$ band ($P = 0.0001$). The most significant increases in task-related coherence between externally paced and internally paced finger extensions occurred in the $\beta$ band between the left and right central regions ($P = 0.0001$) and between the left central and mesial frontocentral regions ($P = 0.0005$). The difference between externally paced and internally paced finger extensions tended to be less pronounced between right central and mesial frontocentral regions ($P = 0.0234$). In the $\alpha$ band, contrast analysis revealed no significant differences between movement conditions for any of the inter-regional links. The task-related coherence mean values are illustrated in Fig. 7.

The main effect Connection was not significant for either of the frequency bands, reflecting the fact that the task-related coherences for the three different inter-regional links (right to left central, left central to mesial frontocentral and right central to mesial frontocentral) were not significantly different from each other. Similarly, the interaction Condition $\times$ Connection was not significant, indicating that the task-related coherence differences between internally paced and externally paced finger extensions were not significantly different for the three inter-regional main links.

Following exactly the same statistical procedures for the 27 randomly chosen electrode pairs, no significant ANOVA main effects were observed. In particular, the main effect for Condition was not significant in any of the frequency bands. This indicates that the significant differences in functional coupling between externally paced and internally paced movements, as observed in the POI, were topographically restricted and not a global phenomenon.

Figure 8 illustrates the tanh$^{-1}$-transformed task-related coherence data for an individual subject. Displayed is one representative electrode pair (CP3–Cz), which is part of the pooled coherence for the connection left central to mesial frontocentral, and another (CP3–CP4) which is part of the connection left to right central. This plot of individual (unpooled) task-related coherence provides an example of a clear difference between internally paced and externally paced finger extensions in the $\beta$ band (particularly 21 and 22 Hz in this subject) and the absence of a consistent difference between internally paced finger extensions and externally paced finger extensions in the $\alpha$ band. The standard errors displayed in Fig. 8 were computed from the number of disjoint sections for each condition (Rosenberg et al., 1989; Farmer et al., 1993).

In summary, the task-related coherence findings suggest that internal pacing of movement is associated with greater functional coupling of cortical premotor and sensorimotor areas than external pacing, particularly with increased movement-related interhemispheric coupling of the lateral premotor cortex/SM1 regions bilaterally, and with increased coupling of the left lateral premotor cortex/SM1 region (contralateral to the moving hand) and the region of the SMA. These changes were most prominent in the $\beta$ frequency band (20–22 Hz).

**Discussion**

Our results show that simple internally paced and externally paced finger movements are associated with different patterns of functional coupling and regional activation of human cortical motor areas. Time domain analysis (MRCPs) pointed to additional involvement of the mesial frontocentral cortex in the premovement period, ~170 ms before EMG onset, with internally paced movements. In agreement with this observation, the analysis of regional oscillatory activity (task-related power) demonstrated that the activated area, which was relatively focused over the contralateral central region during externally paced movements, extended over the mesial frontocentral cortex and towards the premotor and sensorimotor cortex ipsilateral to the moving hand with internally paced movements. In addition, coherence analysis suggested that the functional coupling of premotor and sensorimotor areas was different depending on the mode of pacing, with larger inter-regional coupling during internally paced movements. To some extent these differences between movement conditions were frequency band-specific, with the greatest differences of regional oscillatory activation in the $\alpha$ band (9–11 Hz, task-related power) and the most prominent differences in functional coupling in the $\beta$ band (20–22 Hz, task-related coherence). This indicates that modulation of oscillatory activity in different frequency ranges may reflect distinct aspects of information processing in a cortical motor network. In general, the particular sensitivity of these two frequency ranges to motor task-related changes corresponds well with previous EEG (Pfurtscheller, 1981; Stancak and Pfurtscheller, 1995) and MEG (magnetoencephalogram) (Tiitinen et al., 1989; Salmelin and Hari, 1994) findings.

**Cortical areas involved in generation of internally and externally paced movements**

The topographic distributions of MRCP waveforms and task-related power ($\alpha$ and $\beta$ bands) point to activation of (i) the contralateral sensorimotor (primary motor and primary sensory) cortex, and probably also the lateral premotor cortex (area 6) for both internally paced and externally paced movements, (ii) the mesial frontocentral cortex, including the region of the SMA during internally paced movements,
Fig. 7 Means and variances of task-related power (A) and task-related coherence (B) group values in the regions and connections of interest. Task-related power regions: left central region (overlying the left lateral premotor and primary sensorimotor cortex), frontocentral midline (mesial frontocentral cortex including the region of the SMA), right central region (homologous to left central).

Task-related coherence connections: left frontocentral region to frontocentral midline, interhemispheric coupling between left and right lateral premotor and primary sensorimotor region, right frontocentral region to frontocentral midline (analogous to left frontocentral region to frontocentral midline). Open columns = externally paced finger extensions; grey columns = internally paced finger extensions. Error bars: ±1 SE. *Significant differences as revealed by contrast analysis (P < 0.05 after Bonferroni correction).

and (iii) the ipsilateral sensorimotor and probably premotor cortex during internally paced movements.

The possible electrical sources of the so-called ‘steady-state’ MRCPs associated with externally paced movements (i.e. the primary motor and primary sensory cortex) have been discussed in detail elsewhere (Gerloff et al., 1997). The additional negative deflection occurring 170 ms before EMG onset with internally paced movements had its topographic maximum over FCz, extending to F3, FC3 and C3, and would therefore be consistent with additional activation of the mesial frontocentral cortex, probably including the SMA. It is not entirely clear how reliably SMA activity is reflected in scalp-recorded, time-averaged potentials such as MRCPs or the Bereitschaftspotential (Deecke and Kornhuber, 1978; Barrett et al., 1986; Deecke, 1987; Deecke et al., 1987; Lang et al., 1990, 1991; Boetzl et al., 1993; Toro et al., 1993; Gerloff et al., 1996; Hallett and Toro, 1996; Mackinnon et al., 1996; Marsden et al., 1996). However, there is evidence from EEG source modelling experiments (Toro et al., 1993; Knosche et al., 1996), in patients with SMA lesions (Deecke et al., 1987; Lang et al., 1991), patients with Parkinson’s disease (Dick et al., 1987, 1989; Cunnington et al., 1995; Praamstra et al., 1996), from subdural recordings (Ikeda et al., 1992, 1993, 1996) and from correlative EEG and PET studies (Jahanshahi et al., 1995; Mackinnon et al., 1996) that SMA activation relates to some extent to MRCP amplitude changes with topographic maximum in the frontocentral midline electrodes (FcZ and Cz) (Marsden et al., 1996).

In the present study, the concept of additional activation of the mesial frontocentral cortex during internally paced movements was further supported by the results of EEG frequency domain analysis. Regional power decreases are thought to reflect increased activity of extended neuronal assemblies in the underlying cortex (Jasper and Penfield, 1949; Lopes da Silva et al., 1980; Papakostopoulos et al., 1980; Pfurtscheller, 1988; Toro et al., 1994a, b; Stancak and
Fig. 8 Tanh⁻¹-transformed task-related coherence data for an individual subject. The task-related coherence is plotted as a function of frequency (in 1 Hz steps). (A) Electrode pair representing the connection between left central and mesial frontocentral cortex (including the SMA). (B) Electrode pair representing the connection between left and right central region (left and right premotor and primary sensorimotor cortex). Note the pronounced difference between internally paced (thick lines) and externally paced (thin lines) finger extensions in the β but not the α band (arrows). Error bars: ±3 SE.
Pfurtscheller, 1995, 1996). The precise relationship between task-related regional power decreases in the human EEG and in MEG and focal oscillatory short power increases (‘bursts’) in similar frequency ranges, as observed in local field potential recordings in non-human primates, has not yet been determined. One concept could be that, at rest, relatively widespread synchronized α and β oscillations reflect an idling state of the brain (Pfurtscheller et al., 1996). Idling rhythms might be established in cortical networks or driven by a common thalamic pacemaker (Steriade and Amzica, 1996). From the aspect of information theory (e.g. Shannon and Weaver, 1949), in such an idling state the signal is highly predictable and the entropy is low, and the information content is therefore low. A task-related oscillatory burst in a circumscribed subset of neurons inside a cortical region could then occur out of synchrony with the idling rhythm but in the same frequency band. This burst would cause a local decrease of the spectral power in this frequency band (task-related power decrease). Disruption of the orderly idling rhythm would increase the entropy of the system and, thus, the information content. If, in this model, the burst were then synchronized with concomitant bursts in other activated areas, one would observe increased inter-regional coherence together with decreased power, as in the present study.

The maximal task-related power decreases in electrodes C3, CP3 and FC3 in the present study probably reflect the activation of the primary motor, primary sensory and probably lateral premotor cortex during internally paced and externally paced movements. Accordingly, the extension of the activated task-related power area towards electrodes FCz and Fz during internally paced movements would be most readily explained by additional activation of the mesial frontocentral cortex, particularly the SMA. This additional midline activation cannot be explained by a volume conduction artefact secondary to more pronounced bilateral task-related power decreases in both the lateral premotor and the sensorimotor area (Boetzel et al., 1993), because the enhanced task-related power decrease over the ipsilateral central cortex was, although clearly present, too low in amplitude to extend to the midline via volume conduction (Fig. 5). Moreover, if volume conduction were the reason for additional task-related power decreases over the midline, then we would expect the mesial maximum to be in electrode Cz, not in FCz and Fz, where it occurred. The involvement of the contralateral sensorimotor and premotor cortex, of the SMA and, to a variable extent, of the ipsilateral lateral premotor cortex/SM1 in the generation of repetitive finger movements is in line with previous PET results (Orgogozo and Larsen, 1979; Roland et al., 1980; Roland, 1984; Colebatch et al., 1991; Deiber et al., 1991; Shibasaki et al., 1993; Kawashima et al., 1994; Sadato et al., 1996a, b) and fMRI (Kim et al., 1993; Rao et al., 1993; Boecker et al., 1994; Karni et al., 1995; Gerloff et al., 1996).

The increased activation of the mesial frontocentral cortex corresponds well with the recent data of Deiber et al. (1996), who found that the anterior part of the SMA (pre-SMA) was more active during internally selected than during externally cued movements, and with observations in an earlier functional MRI study by Rao et al. (1993) showing more extended activation of cortical motor areas, including the SMA, when movements were internally rather than externally paced. An even more striking correspondence exists between the present data and invasive recordings in primates (Mushiake et al., 1991; Halsband et al., 1994), demonstrating that pre-SMA and SMA neurons exhibited a preferential relationship with internally generated movements. It has to be emphasized, however, that pre-SMA neurons also fired in association with the preparation of externally paced movements (Halsband et al., 1994). It is therefore likely that the SMA is generally more involved in the generation of internally paced movements, but that its contribution is not restricted to this type of movement (Tanji and Shima, 1994, 1996; Shima et al., 1996). This would be consistent with the model of a cortical motor network that modulates the balance of regional activation (in its network ‘nodes’) rather than actually ‘switching’ individual areas on or off. This concept is further supported by our coherence results.

**Functional coupling versus regional activation in the cortical motor network: inter-regional coherence and regional oscillatory activity**

The present coherence data suggest that the human cortical motor areas function in a network-like fashion and may use synchronization and desynchronization of oscillatory activity between distant regions in addition to increases and decreases in the magnitude of regional oscillatory activity.

Animal experiments have shown that inter-regional functional coupling, as determined by cross-correlation analysis of oscillatory activity in the time domain, is a potential mechanism for encoding behavioural parameters in the visual system over short and long distances (Engel et al., 1991a, b; Singer, 1993, 1994; Fries et al., 1996), in the auditory (deCharms and Merzenich, 1996) and olfactory (Laurent et al., 1996) systems, in relation to motor behaviour (Murthy and Fetz, 1992; Sanes and Donoghue, 1993) and visuomotor integration (Bressler, 1995). Correlated activity in distant brain areas has also been observed in relation to visuomotor performance in humans, based on covariance analysis of time-averaged, bandpass-filtered (e.g. δ and θ bands: 0.1–3 Hz and 4–7 Hz) EEG potentials (Gevins et al., 1987, 1989a, b, 1990), and based on coherence (task-related coherence) analysis of raw EEG signals in the frequency domain (Classen et al., 1998). In the present study, task-related coherence was focused over the central premotor and sensorimotor regions during both internally paced and externally paced movements, indicating that the coherence changes were topographically restricted. These regions (left and right central, mesial frontocentral) were covered by the POI that we used for statistical analysis. In addition to the POI (and without a clear correlate in the task-related power...
topographic maps), there was a considerable number of links between left central, mesial frontocentral and right parietal regions during internally paced movements (β band). This suggests that coupling of the premotor and sensorimotor areas with the right parietal cortex is also relevant for this type of finger movement (particularly if internally paced). Similar involvement of the right parietal cortex (particularly Brodmann area 7) in unimanual, right-handed motor performance has been shown previously with PET (Deiber et al., 1996).

The majority of previous results in animals suggest that enhanced functional coupling of cortical regions, as signified by increases in inter-regional cross-correlation, reflects excitatory interaction (Engel et al., 1991a, b; Chiang et al., 1996; Fries et al., 1996; Roelfsema et al., 1997). This is also a very plausible interpretation of the functional links between mesial premotor and lateral premotor and sensorimotor regions in our study. Yet task-related coherence increases cannot necessarily always be interpreted as excitatory. It is conceivable that inhibitory interneurons also contribute to systems that generate long-range synchronous oscillations (Jefferys et al., 1996; Traub et al., 1996). With respect to the present data, we favour the interpretation that the functional links between bilateral sensorimotor regions are inhibitory, at least in part. The structural basis for such inhibitory interhemispheric interactions could be transcallosal projections of GABAergic neurons to homologous areas (Jones, 1993). Their function may be to inhibit mirror movements. Based on EMG recordings from finger extensors of both forearms, we can exclude mirror movements of the left hand in the present study, thus indicating efficient interhemispheric inhibition on a behavioural level.

Interhemispheric, transcallosally mediated coherence would probably be an example of oscillatory activity that is synchronized via reciprocal corticocortical connections (Munk et al., 1995; Lopes da Silva, 1996), as has also been suggested for the visual system (Engel et al., 1991a; Singer, 1993, 1995) and the motor and sensory cortex (Murthy and Fetz, 1992). However, it is unclear whether this is always the mechanism that generates inter-regional coherence. An alternative explanation would be based on a common pacemaker (thalamus, reticular formation) (Lopes da Silva, 1996; Munk et al., 1996). For example, thalamocortical interactions with relevance for the modulation of cortical oscillations have been described in detail for the occipital α rhythm (Contreras and Steriade, 1995, 1996; Steriade and Amzica, 1996; Steriade et al., 1996a, b) and in the rat somatosensory cortex and VPL thalamus at 7–12 Hz and 19–21 Hz (Nicolelis et al., 1995). The present investigation does not allow the differentiation of these candidate mechanisms. However, it seems likely that, depending on the regions involved, a combination of both mechanisms generates the large-scale coherence changes that can be measured in the human scalp-recorded EEG.

The observation that the maximal task-dependent coherence differences occurred in a frequency range (20–22 Hz) that did not show significant differences in regional activation (task-related power, maximum at 9–11 Hz) suggests that different frequencies may represent different functional aspects of information processing in this network of cortical motor regions. Different behaviour of oscillatory activity of task-related spectral power changes in the α and β bands has been reported in EEG and MEG studies (Tihonen et al., 1989; Nashmi et al., 1994; Pfurtscheller et al., 1994; Toro et al., 1994b). Interestingly, coherent rhythmicity in the β range has also been demonstrated between motor cortical activity and EMG (Conway et al., 1995; Baker et al., 1997; Salenius et al., 1997). It is therefore tempting to speculate that synchronous oscillations in the 20 Hz range may bind together the final common pathway of motoneuron activity with primary and premotor activity. The divergence between task-related coherence (20–22 Hz) and task-related power (9–11 Hz) (i.e. the fact that human cortical networks may accomplish different motor task demands by modulating inter-regional coupling even without obvious changes in regional activation) seems to be an additional novel and important finding of the present study that needs to be addressed systematically in future experiments.

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Internally and externally paced movements


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