

1 **Title:** Phase-amplitude coupling profiles differ in frontal and auditory cortices

2 **Running title:** PAC in bat frontal and auditory cortices.

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19 **Keywords**

20 Local-field potentials, delta oscillations, theta oscillations, gamma oscillations, cross-
21 frequency coupling, phase-amplitude coupling, frontal cortex, auditory cortex.

22 **Abstract**

23 Neural oscillations are at the core of important computations in the mammalian brain.
24 Interactions between oscillatory activities in different frequency bands, such as delta (1-4 Hz),
25 theta (4-8 Hz), or gamma (>30 Hz), are a powerful mechanism for binding fundamentally
26 distinct spatiotemporal scales of neural processing. Phase-amplitude coupling (PAC) is one
27 such plausible and well-described interaction, but much is yet to be uncovered regarding how
28 PAC dynamics contribute to sensory representations. In particular, although PAC appears to
29 have a major role in audition, the characteristics of coupling profiles in sensory and
30 integration (i.e. frontal) cortical areas remain obscure. Here, we address this question by
31 studying PAC dynamics in the frontal-auditory field (FAF; an auditory area in the bat frontal
32 cortex) and the auditory cortex (AC) of the bat *Carollia perspicillata*. By means of
33 simultaneous electrophysiological recordings in frontal and auditory cortices examining local-
34 field potentials (LFPs), we show that the amplitude of gamma-band activity couples with the
35 phase of low-frequency LFPs in both structures. Our results demonstrate that the coupling in
36 FAF occurs most prominently in delta/high-gamma frequencies (1-4/75-100 Hz), whereas in
37 the AC the coupling is strongest in the theta/low-gamma (2-8/25-55 Hz) range. We argue that
38 distinct PAC profiles may represent different mechanisms for neuronal processing in frontal
39 and auditory cortices, and might complement oscillatory interactions for sensory processing in
40 the frontal-auditory cortex network.

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42

43 **Introduction**

44 There is increasing evidence supporting the role of oscillatory activity as instrument of neural
45 computations in the mammalian brain. Oscillations in low- and high-frequencies, particularly
46 in the delta-to-alpha (1-12 Hz) and gamma (>30 Hz) ranges, are deemed essential for
47 numerous tasks, including sensory processing and selectivity (Schroeder & Lakatos, 2009;
48 Bosman *et al.*, 2012; Obleser & Kayser, 2019), the implementation of attentional mechanisms
49 (Lakatos *et al.*, 2013; Magazzini & Singh, 2018), cognitive control (Cho *et al.*, 2006; Helfrich
50 & Knight, 2016), learning and memory (Benchenane *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2018), or inter-
51 areal connectivity by means of communication-through-coherence (Fries, 2015). High- and
52 low-frequency oscillations represent the activity of local and global neuronal ensembles,
53 respectively, occurring at different timescales determined by the oscillatory frequencies
54 (Canolty & Knight, 2010). The question of how different spatiotemporal scales are integrated
55 in the brain, and therefore the relationship between co-existing low- and high-frequency
56 activities, has gained attention in recent years.

57 Cross-frequency coupling is a plausible mechanism that could allow for the binding of low-
58 and high-frequency oscillations and their respective spatiotemporal dynamics (Canolty &
59 Knight, 2010; Tort *et al.*, 2010; Hyafil *et al.*, 2015b). A specific form of cross-frequency
60 coupling, namely phase-amplitude coupling (PAC), has been related to numerous brain
61 functions. PAC is the phenomenon whereby the phase of a low-frequency oscillation couples
62 with the amplitude of a high-frequency one. This type of interaction between distinct
63 frequency bands is well established in regions such as the hippocampus (Lisman & Jensen,
64 2013), the frontal cortex (Helfrich & Knight, 2016), and cortical sensory areas (Spaak *et al.*,
65 2012; Esghaei *et al.*, 2015; O'Connell *et al.*, 2015; Sotero *et al.*, 2015; Xiao *et al.*, 2019). PAC
66 in these regions has been associated with working memory (Axmacher *et al.*, 2010; Daume *et al.*,
67 2017), learning (Tort *et al.*, 2009), behavioural coordination (Amemiya & Redish, 2018),
68 and the organization of inter-areal communication and information binding (Colgin *et al.*,
69 2009; Daume *et al.*, 2017). High-order sensory processing may also capitalize on PAC, the
70 latter providing a mechanistic substrate for the parsing of continuous stimuli by
71 accommodating local network activity in the gamma range into slower, behaviourally relevant
72 timescales represented by the low-frequency activity (Giraud & Poeppel, 2012; Hyafil *et al.*,
73 2015b). Indeed, theta-gamma coupling in the auditory cortex (AC) of humans has been
74 suggested as vital component of speech processing (Giraud & Poeppel, 2012; Morillon *et al.*,
75 2012; Gross *et al.*, 2013; Hyafil *et al.*, 2015a), while it has been shown that similar PAC
76 profiles in the primate AC mediate acoustic sequence learning (Kikuchi *et al.*, 2017).

77 At present, little is known about PAC dynamics in auditory regions of animal models beyond
78 primates. However, tackling such question can provide valuable insights into the nature of
79 evolutionarily preserved circuits across species. In both primates and non-primates there exist
80 structures in the frontal cortex that are strongly responsive to acoustic stimuli (Kobler *et al.*,
81 1987; Eiermann & Esser, 2000; Medalla & Barbas, 2014; Plakke & Romanski, 2014). Within
82 these structures, the relationship between the phase of low frequency oscillations and the
83 amplitude of high frequency rhythms remains largely unexplored. The current study aims to
84 bridge this gap by means of electrophysiological recordings of local-field potentials (LFPs)
85 from the AC and a region of the short-tailed bat's (*Carollia perspicillata*) frontal cortex,
86 specialized for audition: the frontal-auditory field (FAF; (Kobler *et al.*, 1987; Eiermann &
87 Esser, 2000)). In previous work we showed robust oscillatory responses to acoustic
88 stimulation in *C. perspicillata*'s FAF and AC (Hechavarria *et al.*, 2016b; García-Rosales *et al.*
89 *et al.*, 2020), and that in the latter structure low-frequency LFPs could be crucial for the
90 neuronal coding of naturalistic sequences (García-Rosales *et al.*, 2018a; García-Rosales *et al.*,
91 2018b). Furthermore, we observed functional coupling in the FAF-AC circuit by means of
92 delta- (without auditory input) and gamma-band LFPs (García-Rosales *et al.*, 2020). The
93 above supports the roles of cortical oscillations for auditory computations in fronto-temporal
94 networks in mammals.

95 In this paper, we characterized PAC profiles in FAF and AC during spontaneous activity and
96 sound processing. We found that high-frequency amplitude was coupled to the phase of low-
97 frequency rhythms in frontal and auditory cortices. However, the specific frequencies at
98 which this occurred differed across structures, both with and without acoustic stimulation.
99 Delta/high-gamma PAC was typical in FAF, whereas theta/low-gamma coupling occurred
100 most prominently in the AC. We argue that distinct PAC profiles in FAF and AC could
101 represent distinct mechanisms of neural processing at the level of sensory and association
102 areas.

103 **Results**

104 *Neural responses in the FAF and AC of C. perspicillata*

105 Electrophysiological experiments were performed on 5 adult male *Carollia perspicillata* bats.
106 We recorded a total of 50 penetrations pairs, each pair comprised of simultaneously recorded
107 neural activity in the FAF and AC. In the FAF, a single carbon electrode was inserted, and
108 recordings were made at depths ranging from 300-450 μm . In the AC, a 16-channel probe was
109 used, allowing to record from cortical depths spanning 0-750 μm at once. Both spontaneous

110 (i.e. without acoustic stimulation) and auditory-driven neural activities were analysed.
111 Auditory stimuli consisted of a natural call (henceforth, “nat” stimulus) representative of this
112 species distress repertoire (**Fig. 1A**; see (Hechavarria *et al.*, 2016a)), as well as two artificially
113 constructed syllabic trains (see Methods and (García-Rosales *et al.*, 2020)). The first of these
114 trains had an isochronous structure by which a natural syllable was repeated with a rate of
115 5.28 Hz (**Fig. 1B**). In the second train, the same syllable was repeated in a Poisson-like
116 manner (i.e. non-periodically) with an average rate of 70 Hz (**Fig. 1C**). The natural syllable
117 used to construct these trains was also typical for distress syllables in this bat species
118 (Hechavarria *et al.*, 2016a); its time-frequency representation is shown in **Fig. 1D**.

119 Local-field potentials were analysed for each penetration pair in FAF and AC. We observed
120 robust auditory responses in the LFPs of both structures, as illustrated for a representative
121 penetration pair in **Fig. 2A-C**, where single trial responses to each stimulus (coloured traces)
122 are shown together with the trial-average LFPs for the penetration (black). In the panels of
123 **Figure 2**, data are shown from the FAF and the AC, the latter at a depth of 450 μm (top and
124 bottom subpanels, respectively). Single trials in FAF and AC depicted with the same colour
125 were recorded simultaneously. **Figure 2D** illustrates LFP chunks (see Methods)
126 corresponding to spontaneous activity. Note that no trial-average is shown because there are
127 no temporal references for inter-chunk averaging, such as the onset of a stimulus.

128 *Phase amplitude-coupling in FAF and AC*

129 We evaluated phase-amplitude coupling between low and high frequencies in FAF and AC
130 using a procedure inspired by a previous study (Kikuchi *et al.*, 2017). LFPs for phase were
131 filtered (4th order bandpass Butterworth) in frequency bands with centres at 2, 4, 6, ..., 14 Hz,
132 and 2 Hz bandwidth. LFPs for amplitude were filtered (same filter as before) in frequency
133 bands centred at 30, 35, 40, ..., 125 Hz, with 10 Hz bandwidth. **Figure 3A** illustrates two
134 single-trial recordings from the FAF in response to the Poisson train. Delta- (1-3 Hz) and
135 gamma-band (75-85 Hz; bands chosen for illustrative purposes) LFPs are shown in grey and
136 red, respectively. The instantaneous phase and amplitude of delta and gamma LFP signals are
137 also shown in black and orange, respectively. Instantaneous phase and amplitude were
138 extracted after Hilbert-transforming the filtered LFPs. To correct for possible biases due to
139 phase non-uniformity in the signals (Aru *et al.*, 2015; van Driel *et al.*, 2015), the mean phase
140 vector was linearly subtracted from the instantaneous phase series. PAC in FAF and AC
141 (PAC_{FAF} and PAC_{AC} , respectively) were quantified by z-normalizing a modulation index (MI;
142 z-normalized index: zMI) to a surrogate distribution where effects of evoked-related

143 responses across trials were tackled (**Fig. 3A, B**; see Methods for details). Based on the zMIs
144 we obtained PAC profiles for each channel and penetration.

145 Across penetrations, and as is readily visible in **Fig. 3C**, the PAC in the FAF typically peaked
146 in the delta/high-gamma range of the PAC maps ($\delta/\gamma_{\text{high}}$; i.e. frequency for phase: ~1-4 Hz,
147 frequency for amplitude: ~70-100 Hz). On the other hand, the PAC in the AC was strongest in
148 channels located in input layers (depths of 300-550 μm), and the values of zMI typically
149 peaked in the delta-theta/low-gamma range of the maps ($\theta/\gamma_{\text{low}}$; frequency for phase: ~2-8 Hz,
150 frequency for amplitude: ~25-55 Hz). This trend occurred even without acoustic stimulation,
151 as depicted in **Fig. 4A**, where population-level spontaneous PAC profiles are shown for the
152 FAF and the AC, the latter at representative depths of 50, 300, 450, 600, and 750 μm . We
153 observed that zMIs across the population were significantly higher than 0 in both FAF and
154 AC (regions delimited by grey contour lines; FDR-corrected tailed Wilcoxon signed rank
155 tests, $p_{\text{corr}} < 0.05$), and that significant zMIs within single penetrations (i.e. zMIs > 2.5 ; see
156 Methods) occurred in ~25% of the cases (out of $n = 49$ penetrations; 1 penetration could not
157 be examined during spontaneous activity) in FAF, mostly located in the $\delta/\gamma_{\text{high}}$ range of the
158 PAC space, and in ~40% of the cases in the AC (most strongly for depths of 450 μm), mostly
159 in the $\theta/\gamma_{\text{low}}$ range of the PAC space. The quantification of the percentage of significant PAC
160 across the population is shown in **Supplementary Figure 1**.

161 Regarding the regions in which the coupling peaked, there was a clear distinction between the
162 PAC_{FAF} and the PAC_{AC} . This difference was evaluated by subtracting the PAC profiles from
163 the FAF and those from the AC, as illustrated in **Fig. 3C**. By systematically doing so in our
164 dataset during spontaneous activity, differences between PAC_{FAF} and PAC_{AC} became evident
165 (**Fig. 4B**). The spontaneous PAC_{FAF} was higher than the PAC_{AC} in the $\delta/\gamma_{\text{high}}$ range,
166 particularly for superficial layers (0-300 μm) of the AC. In this case, although significance did
167 not survive multiple comparisons (FDR-corrected Wilcoxon signed rank tests, $p_{\text{corr}} > 0.05$),
168 effect size estimations (r ; see Methods) yielded large effects ($r > 0.5$, after (Fritz *et al.*, 2012))
169 in the $\delta/\gamma_{\text{high}}$ range (red contour lines in **Fig. 4B**). Large differences did not occur in this PAC
170 range when considering middle or deep layers of the AC, which could be attributable to the
171 extent of relatively high PAC values to gamma frequencies up to ~80 Hz (see **Fig. 4A**). In
172 addition, spontaneous PAC_{AC} values were higher than PAC_{FAF} ones in the $\theta/\gamma_{\text{low}}$ range,
173 reaching significance at AC depths of 450 μm (grey contour lines in **Fig. 4B**; FDR-corrected
174 Wilcoxon signed rank tests, $p_{\text{corr}} < 0.05$). Still, even in cases where significance did not
175 survive corrections for multiple comparisons (i.e. superficial and deep laminae), we observed

176 large effect sizes indicating that there was a consistent trend of PAC_{AC} being higher than
177 PAC_{FAF} in θ/γ_{low} frequencies ($r > 0.5$, purple contour lines in **Fig. 4B**).

178 *Population-level PAC in FAF and AC during acoustic processing*

179 The PAC patterns in frontal and auditory cortices remained almost qualitatively unaltered
180 during acoustic stimulation. **Figure 5** depicts PAC maps from AC and FAF, in a similar
181 arrangement to **Fig. 4A**, but using stimulus-driven LFPs recorded in response to the natural
182 call, and to the 5.28 Hz and Poisson syllabic trains (**Fig. 5A-C**, respectively). Again, while
183 population-level PAC_{FAF} was strongest in the δ/γ_{high} range, the PAC_{AC} peaked in the θ/γ_{low}
184 range, more markedly at depths of 450 μm . The former was true independently of the
185 stimulus used. Indeed, we observed that zMIs in FAF and AC were significantly above zero
186 across penetrations (**Fig. 5**, grey contour lines; FDR-corrected tailed Wilcoxon signed rank
187 tests, $p_{corr} < 0.05$), and that the PAC regions where this happened were predominantly those of
188 δ/γ_{high} and θ/γ_{low} in FAF and AC, respectively. Individually within penetrations and across
189 stimuli, we observed significant zMIs (> 2.5 ; see Methods) in the FAF occurring in δ/γ_{high}
190 frequencies for ~40-56% of the penetrations. Significant zMIs were observed in the AC, at
191 450 μm , for ~20-25% of the penetrations (see also **Fig. S1**). The decline in the percentage of
192 significant zMIs during acoustic stimulation in the AC can be explained by the stringency of
193 the surrogate analyses used, and by the efforts made to minimize the effect of stimulus-
194 evoked responses in PAC calculations (see Methods). Note that the surrogate analyses, in
195 conjunction with the subtraction of the mean across trials, may obscure PAC values that are
196 not only explained by broadband evoked response, but that are however temporally locked to
197 the stimuli. These did not seem to strongly affect the data from the FAF. The increase of
198 percentage of significant penetrations within FAF in the δ/γ_{high} range indicates a modulation
199 of PAC strength by acoustic stimulation.

200 Differences between PAC_{FAF} and PAC_{AC} during acoustic processing occurred predominantly
201 in the δ/γ_{high} and θ/γ_{low} ranges (**Fig. 6**). The PAC_{FAF} was significantly stronger than the
202 PAC_{AC} in δ/γ_{high} frequencies at all recording depths of the AC (FDR-corrected Wilcoxon
203 signed rank tests, $p_{corr} < 0.05$), with large effect sizes ($r > 0.5$; red contour lines in **Fig. 6**) for
204 all stimuli. Conversely, the PAC_{AC} appeared stronger than the PAC_{FAF} in θ/γ_{low} frequencies,
205 although without clear significance for every stimulus tested (statistics as above). In response
206 to the natural call, there were no strong differences between PAC_{FAF} and PAC_{AC} in the θ/γ_{low}
207 range, and effect sizes were also not large (**Fig. 6A**). In the case of the 5.28 Hz (**Fig. 6B**) and

208 the Poisson (**Fig. 6C**) syllabic trains, differences in the PAC across structures were stronger,
209 reaching significance ($p_{\text{corr}} < 0.05$; gray contour lines) mostly at a depth of 450 μm for $\theta/\gamma_{\text{low}}$
210 frequencies. Although for this frequency range significant differences between FAF and AC
211 did not occur with PAC values calculated in response to the Poisson train (compare **Fig. 6B**
212 and **Fig. 6C**, depicting PAC differences for the 5.28 Hz and the Poisson stimuli), large effect
213 sizes were still observed for $\theta/\gamma_{\text{low}}$ frequencies (purple contour lines in **Fig. 6** marking areas
214 where $\text{PAC}_{\text{AC}} > \text{PAC}_{\text{FAF}}$). Overall, these results indicate that the FAF and the AC engage in
215 distinct phase-amplitude coupling dynamics comprising delta, theta, low- and high- gamma
216 bands of the LFP.

217 **Discussion**

218 This study addressed the phase-amplitude coupling of oscillatory activities in the AC and FAF
219 of the bat *C. perspicillata*. We report significant PAC in both structures during spontaneous
220 activity and acoustic processing. However, the coupling between low- and high-frequency
221 LFPs differed in auditory and frontal regions of the brain: in the AC, the PAC was strongest
222 in the theta/low-gamma range, while in the FAF the PAC peak occurred predominantly in
223 delta/high-gamma frequencies. Thus, we show that *C. perspicillata*'s AC and FAF exhibit
224 distinct phase-amplitude coupling profiles.

225 *Phase-amplitude coupling in auditory and frontal areas*

226 Phase-amplitude coupling could be important for the integration of distinct spatiotemporal
227 dynamics represented via low- and high-frequency oscillations (Canolty & Knight, 2010;
228 Hyafil *et al.*, 2015b). Thus, the modulation of high-frequency amplitude by low-frequency
229 phase constitutes a plausible and powerful mechanism of sensory processing. A large body of
230 evidence indicates that slow oscillatory activity in sensory cortices entrains (i.e. synchronizes)
231 to the temporal structure of external stimuli (Sieben *et al.*, 2013; Brookshire *et al.*, 2017;
232 García-Rosales *et al.*, 2018a; Molinaro & Lizarazu, 2018; Doelling *et al.*, 2019).
233 Synchronized oscillatory activity can act as a sensory filtering mechanism (otherwise called
234 “sensory selectivity”) that is in turn susceptible to top-down modulation by processes such as
235 attention (Lakatos *et al.*, 2008; Schroeder & Lakatos, 2009; Calderone *et al.*, 2014; Obleser &
236 Kayser, 2019). Low frequency activity, coupled with gamma-band oscillations, could
237 therefore align enhanced processing periods (marked by the gamma rhythms) to the structure
238 of external inputs or internal states, thereby boosting their representation in the brain.
239 Research in the human auditory cortex, for example, suggests that theta-gamma PAC plays a
240 major role for the efficient processing of speech signals (Gross *et al.*, 2013; Zion Golumbic *et*

241 *al.*, 2013; Lizarazu *et al.*, 2019). Indeed, computational modelling demonstrates that the low-
242 frequency stimulus-related neural oscillations might provide a temporal reference frame in
243 which syllables can be processed by high-frequency activity coupled to the underlying slow
244 rhythm (Hyafil *et al.*, 2015a).

245 It is worth noticing that the effects of PAC in the auditory cortex generalize beyond speech
246 processing. The coupling of low- and high-frequency oscillations could underpin the
247 segmentation of continuous stimuli into behaviourally relevant “perceptual” units.

248 Remarkably, the formation of perceptual auditory units could be particularly important for
249 echolocating bats such as *C. perspicillata*. A bat exploring its surroundings using sonar
250 receives a stream of incoming echoes corresponding to self-emitted echolocation pulses that
251 reflect from external objects. The integration of those echoes at the level of the auditory or
252 frontal cortices may allow the bat to form an acoustic picture of the environment. Such
253 integration may find its mechanistic substrate in PAC interactions between oscillations
254 working at slow, integrative timescales (e.g. delta, theta, or alpha) and faster ones (e.g.
255 gamma) that would encode the fine structure of the echo streams. Considering that *C.*
256 *perspicillata* produces echolocation calls with a rate of 40-50 Hz (Beetz *et al.*, 2019), and that
257 LFPs in this bat’s AC strongly synchronize to fast acoustic inputs also in the gamma range
258 (Hechavarría *et al.*, 2016b; García-Rosales *et al.*, 2019), the above-discussed possibility
259 constitutes an interesting view that still requires empirical validation.

260 In general, it is plausible that PAC dynamics in sensory systems could complement the well-
261 described roles of low-frequency activity for high-order sensory processing (Arnal *et al.*,
262 2015). Hence, comparable PAC-related phenomena may occur not only across primate
263 species, but also in other mammals. Considering that in the AC of *C. perspicillata* the
264 neuronal representation of acoustic stimuli shares coding mechanisms similar to those
265 described in the primate auditory and visual domains (Belitski *et al.*, 2008; Kayser *et al.*,
266 2009; Belitski *et al.*, 2010; García-Rosales *et al.*, 2018a; García-Rosales *et al.*, 2018b), the
267 theta-gamma PAC reported in this study could also reflect a general mechanism shared across
268 species. The spontaneous θ/γ_{low} coupling in *C. perspicillata*’s AC and FAF further suggests
269 that the relationship between slow and fast oscillations echoes the properties of cortical
270 networks that do not directly depend on sensory inputs, but that can nevertheless be affected
271 or modulated by them. We therefore propose that auditory cortical theta/low-gamma coupling
272 might provide in bats the same functional advantages proposed for other animals. These
273 circuit dynamics might be evolutionarily preserved, being similar in phylogenetically distant
274 species such as bats and primates.

275 The frontal cortex is considered an association area where sensory stimuli are integrated, and
276 behavioural/cognitive functions controlled (Miller, 2000; Sugihara *et al.*, 2006; Hage &
277 Nieder, 2015; Carlen, 2017; Hardung *et al.*, 2017). These processes may be supported by
278 oscillatory activity in frontal regions, which further allows coordination with distant areas in
279 the brain including sensory systems and the hippocampus (Park *et al.*, 2015; Helfrich &
280 Knight, 2016; Daume *et al.*, 2017). The frontal-auditory field, located in the bat frontal cortex
281 (Kobler *et al.*, 1987; Eiermann & Esser, 2000), receives auditory inputs from the AC and via a
282 non-lemniscal pathway directly from the supragenulate nucleus of the thalamus, bypassing
283 major centres such as the inferior colliculus and the AC itself (Kobler *et al.*, 1987; Casseday *et al.*,
284 1989). The FAF is thus in a privileged position to integrate relatively “raw” auditory
285 information arriving from the thalamus and arguably more processed inputs from the AC. It is
286 likely that the response properties of the FAF, potentially explained by slow afferent synaptic
287 dynamics (Lopez-Jury *et al.*, 2019), constitute evidence for auditory integration in the frontal
288 cortex. This integration can capitalize on PAC, combining low frequency oscillations, which
289 could relate to integratory timescales, with high frequency activity, in turn marking local
290 computations. Although the roles of the FAF for auditory-guided behaviour are not wholly
291 clear, there is evidence indicating that oscillations in this region could coordinate interareal
292 communication with the AC (García-Rosales *et al.*, 2020), behavioural control either by
293 motor commands or volitional vocalization production (Kobler *et al.*, 1987; Eiermann &
294 Esser, 2000; Weineck *et al.*, 2020), and brain-to-brain synchronization during social
295 interactions (Zhang & Yartsev, 2019).

296 Phase-amplitude coupling in FAF and AC occurs mostly at two conspicuously distinct
297 frequency regimes during spontaneous activity and sound processing (**Figs. 4-6**). We
298 speculate that the different $\delta/\gamma_{\text{high}}$ and $\theta/\gamma_{\text{low}}$ coupling in frontal and auditory cortices,
299 respectively, indicate that the properties and interactions between the neural substrates at the
300 core of low- and high-frequency oscillations differ across structures. We recently showed that
301 FAF and AC synchronize in low frequencies with and without acoustic stimulation (spanning
302 delta-theta rhythms; (García-Rosales *et al.*, 2020)). In light of the former, one could speculate
303 that PAC further supports the functional relationship between auditory and frontal cortex,
304 bringing together local computations occurring at non-overlapping temporal scales in
305 different gamma sub-bands, according to the synaptic properties of each region. In this case,
306 low-frequency dynamics could provide the temporal basis for fronto-temporal auditory
307 integration. The former would be in accordance with proposed roles of PAC for the
308 facilitation of interareal communication (Colgin *et al.*, 2009; Hyafil *et al.*, 2015b; Helfrich &

309 Knight, 2016). Note, however, that such views remain to be thoroughly addressed in the FAF-
310 AC network. Further research should be aimed at elucidating the synaptic properties of the
311 neuronal networks responsible for delta-theta and gamma oscillations in FAF and AC, and at
312 understanding the function of PAC across regions for higher cognitive demands well beyond
313 passive listening.

314 *Methodological considerations*

315 The measurements of phase-amplitude coupling from neuronal oscillations can be affected by
316 methodological caveats and several physiological variables (Aru *et al.*, 2015). For example,
317 Tort and colleagues argue that respiratory rhythms, coupled with gamma-band activity, might
318 influence PAC measurements in many cortical areas (Tort *et al.*, 2018). It is nevertheless
319 contended that respiration-related PAC and oscillatory activity are not necessarily artifactual,
320 but that they may reflect cognitive processes and mechanisms for active sensing (Corcoran *et*
321 *al.*, 2018; Tort *et al.*, 2018). In the particular case of the frontal cortex (where the FAF is
322 located), respiration-related low-frequency oscillations (in the delta-theta bands) modulate a
323 sub-band of gamma with frequencies ranging from 70-120 Hz (Zhong *et al.*, 2017).

324 Interestingly, this falls within the $\delta/\gamma_{\text{high}}$ range of this study (note **Figs. 4** and **5**), which makes
325 it possible that the PAC here reported carries signatures of respiration-gamma coupling. As
326 we do not have data from respiratory rhythms recorded simultaneously with the neural
327 activity, the extent of the possible modulation of PAC values by respiration in the FAF cannot
328 be quantified.

329 We note, however, that if respiration-coupled gamma activity in frontal areas subserve high-
330 order perception (Tort *et al.*, 2010; Corcoran *et al.*, 2018), the PAC associated to respiration
331 may also be important for sensory integration, particularly in the auditory and olfactory
332 modalities. *C. perspicillata* bats rely on multimodal clues for navigation in naturalistic
333 environments, for which olfaction and audition appear crucial (Thies *et al.*, 1998). The
334 interesting possibility of multimodal integration in FAF supported by oscillatory dynamics
335 like PAC, and the extent to which it is modulated by endogenous oscillations that may or may
336 not be related to respiratory rhythms, needs to be thoroughly addressed in future experimental
337 work.

338 **Materials and Methods**

339 *Animal preparation and surgical procedures*

340 The study was conducted using five awake *Carollia perspicillata* bats (all males). All
341 experimental procedures were in compliance with European regulations on animal
342 experimentation, and approved by the Regierungspräsidium Darmstad (experimental permit
343 #FU-1126). Animals were obtained from a colony at the Goethe-University in Frankfurt. Bats
344 used for experiments were isolated from the main colony.

345 Surgical and experimental procedures are described in detail in a previous study (García-
346 Rosales *et al.*, 2020), which addressed the functional connectivity between the frontal-
347 auditory field and the auditory cortex this bat species. In brief, for surgery, animals were
348 anesthetized with a mixture of ketamine-xylazine (ketamine: 10 mg*kg⁻¹, Ketavet, Pfizer;
349 xylazine: 38 mg*kg⁻¹, Rompun, Bayer), and their auditory and frontal cortices exposed by
350 means of a small craniotomy (ca. 1 mm²) performed with a scalpel blade. The anatomical
351 location of the two regions of interest was assessed by means of well-described landmarks in
352 both frontal and auditory areas (Esser & Eiermann, 1999; Eiermann & Esser, 2000). After
353 surgery, animals were allowed to recover for at least two days before undergoing experiments.
354 Recordings lasted no more than 4 h per session, and each bat was allowed to recover between
355 sessions for at least a full day. Water was given to the bat at periods of ~1-1.5 h, and
356 experiments for the day were halted if the animal showed any sign of discomfort.

357 *Electrophysiological recordings*

358 Electrophysiological data was acquired inside a sound-proof and electrically isolated
359 chamber, where bats were placed on a custom-made holder which was kept at a constant
360 temperature of 30°C with a heating blanket (Harvard, Homeothermic blanket control unit). A
361 speaker (NeoCD 1.0 Ribbon Tweeter; Fountek Electronics, China), used for free-field
362 stimulation, was positioned 12 cm away from the bat's right ear, contralateral to the
363 hemisphere on which recordings were made. Speaker calibration was done with a ¼-inch
364 microphone (Brüel & Kjær, model 4135, Denmark), connected to a custom-made amplifier.
365 Recordings were made from the FAF and AC of the left hemisphere. As described in previous
366 studies (Garcia-Rosales *et al.*, 2019; García-Rosales *et al.*, 2020), a NeuroNexus laminar
367 probe (Model A1x16, impedance: 0.5–3 MΩ; 50 µm channel spacing) was carefully inserted
368 perpendicularly into the AC until the uppermost channel was barely visible at the cortical
369 surface. Therefore, the probe's channels spanned depths from 0-750 µm, covering the extent

370 of an auditory cortical column in *C. perspicillata*'s brain (see (Garcia-Rosales *et al.*, 2019)).
371 Recordings in the FAF were performed, simultaneously to those in the AC, with a single
372 carbon electrode (Carbostar-1, Kation scientific; Impedance at 1 kHz: 0.4–1.2 M Ω), at
373 cortical depths of ~300-450 μ m (313 +- 56 μ m; mean +- std).

374 Both the probe in the AC and the carbon electrode in the FAF were connected each to their
375 own micropreamplifier (MPA 16, Multichannel Systems MCS GmbH, Reutlingen, Germany),
376 which were in turn connected to an integrated amplifier and analog-to-digital converter with
377 32-channel capacity (Multi Channel Systems MCS GmbH, model ME32 System, Germany).
378 The sampling frequency of the recordings was 20 kHz, and the precision of 16 bits. Data were
379 visualized online and stored in a computer, using the MC_Rack_Software (Multi Channel
380 Systems MCS GmbH, Reutlingen, Germany; version 4.6.2).

381 *Acoustic stimulation*

382 Acoustic stimulation was controlled with a custom-written Matlab (version 7.9.0.529
383 (R2009b), MathWorks, Natick, MA) software. Sounds consisted of a natural distress
384 sequence, which is representative of this bat species' distress repertoire (for recording details
385 and sequence characteristics, see (Hechavarría *et al.*, 2016a; García-Rosales *et al.*, 2018a)), as
386 well as two artificially constructed syllabic trains. One of this trains consisted of a single
387 distress syllable (also representative of *C. perspicillata*'s distress repertoire) repeated
388 isochronously at a rate of 5.28 Hz for a period of 2 s. The second syllabic train consisted of
389 the same syllable repeated with an average rate of 70 Hz, in a Poisson-like manner, with a
390 duration of 4 s. The spectrogram and oscillogram of the sequences, as well as the spectrogram
391 of the syllable used to construct the artificial trains, are depicted in **Fig. 1**.

392 Auditory stimuli were digital-to-analog converted using a sound card (M2Tech Hi-face DAC,
393 384 kHz, 32 bit; sampling frequency used: 192 kHz due to technical reasons), amplified
394 (Rotel power amplifier, model RB-1050), and fed to the speaker inside the chamber
395 (description above). Before presentation, sounds were low-pass filtered (80 kHz) and down-
396 sampled to 192 kHz to avoid aliasing artefacts. Stimuli were presented 50 times each, in a
397 pseudorandom order, with an inter-stimulus interval of 1 s. A period of 300 ms and another of
398 500 ms of silence was padded at the beginning and the end of each sequence, respectively.
399 Before presenting the stimulus battery, 180 s of spontaneous activity were recorded per
400 penetration.

401 *Separation of local-field potentials*

402 Data analyses were performed offline using custom-written Matlab scripts (version
403 8.6.0.267246 (R2015b)). The raw signal from each channel (either FAF or the 16 channels in
404 the AC) was band-pass filtered between 0.1 and 300 Hz (4th order Butterworth filter) in order
405 to obtain local-field potentials. For computational reasons, LFPs were down-sampled to 1 kHz
406 and stored in order to be used in subsequent analyses.

407 *Phase-amplitude coupling*

408 Phase-amplitude coupling was calculated for each stimulus and spontaneous activity per
409 penetration, based on previously published methodology (Kikuchi *et al.*, 2017). For low
410 frequencies, which provided the phase reference, LFPs were filtered (4th order bandpass
411 Butterworth filter) in the following bands: 1-3, 3-5, 5-7, ..., and 13-15 Hz, thus having centre
412 frequencies of 2, 4, 6, ... 14 Hz, with 2 Hz bandwidth. For higher frequencies, providing the
413 amplitude, LFPs were filtered in bands of 25-35, 30-40, 35-45, ..., and 120-130 Hz, therefore
414 having centre frequencies of 30, 35, 40, 45, ..., 125 Hz, with 10 Hz bandwidth. After filtering
415 and applying the Hilbert transform on the signals (see below), only the time window between
416 stimulus onset and offset was considered for analysis in a trial.

417 For analysing sound-related LFP responses, the instantaneous phase [$\phi(t)$] and amplitude
418 [$A(t)$] of the signal were extracted from low and high frequency filtered LFPs, respectively, by
419 means of a Hilbert transform. To reduce the effect of the stimulus-evoked responses, which
420 could affect PAC values and bias true interactions (Aru *et al.*, 2015), before filtering and
421 determining $\phi(t)$ and $A(t)$ per trial, the average of across trials for the current stimulus and
422 penetration ($n = 50$ trials) was subtracted from the individual response of each trial. The
423 former has the consequence of reducing the effect of time-locked responses in the LFPs for
424 PAC calculations (Kikuchi *et al.*, 2017). Additionally, to minimize the effect of phase non-
425 uniformities (clustering) in the LFPs caused by non-oscillatory periodicities in the field
426 potentials, which could also bias PAC estimates (van Driel *et al.*, 2015), the mean vector of
427 the phase angles was linearly subtracted from the instantaneous phase time series as follows:

428
$$\phi'(t) = e^{i\phi(t)} - \frac{1}{n} \sum e^{i\phi(t)} \quad [1]$$

429 where $\phi'(t)$ denotes the corrected phase (i.e. after phase-cluster de-biasing) at time t , and n
430 represents the number of time points in the series. With $\phi'(t)$ and $A(t)$, a composite time
431 series $z(t) = A(t) * \phi'(t)$ was constructed. From $z(t)$ the modulation index (MI) was
432 quantified as:

433
$$MI = \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum z(t) \right| \quad [2]$$

434 PAC suffers from a number of caveats that depend on the way it is calculated, and on the
435 temporal structure and statistical properties of the LFPs (Aru *et al.*, 2015). As mentioned
436 above, we took measures to minimize possible confounding effects by subtracting the trial-
437 average from each individual trial in response to a stimulus, and by addressing the bias
438 introduced by phase-clustering. In addition to those steps, we calculated a surrogate MI
439 (MI_{surr}) by matching the phase series $\phi'(t)$ of a given trial k with the amplitude $A(t)$ of
440 another trial m (see **Fig. 3A** and (Aru *et al.*, 2015; Kikuchi *et al.*, 2017)). The trial-shuffling
441 approach further allows to control more stringently for the effect of evoked responses in the
442 LFPs, given that the average evoked-related amplitude and phase responses are unaltered and
443 therefore contribute to the PAC in a similar way as the non-shuffled response. On the other
444 hand, any contribution to the PAC that was trial-by-trial variable would be abolished with the
445 trial-shuffling procedure. Amplitude and phase were paired at random across trials a large
446 number of times (250 permutations), and a modulation index calculated for each iteration.
447 This surrogate method yields a null distribution that accounts for PAC attributable to evoked
448 responses, while allowing to examine trial-specific coupling (Kikuchi *et al.*, 2017).
449 Modulation indexes obtained with the non-surrogate data (“direct analysis” in **Fig. 3**) were z -
450 normalized to the null distribution obtained by the surrogate approach (zMI). If no effect of
451 PAC exists in the data, zMI values would hover around 0, whereas coupling effects would
452 yield zMI s significantly higher than 0. To assess the former, we used a z -score of 2.5 (i.e. 2.5
453 standard deviations from the null) as threshold per penetration (see **Supplementary Figure**
454 **S1**).

455 The quantification of spontaneous PAC was similar to that of the stimulus-related PAC. LFP
456 chunks ($n = 50$; same as the number of trials used during stimulation) were selected randomly
457 from the 180 s window of a given penetration, with a length of 1.964 s (the same length as the
458 natural call used for stimulation), and without any overlap. Before chunking, the 180 s
459 window was filtered and Hilbert-transformed for obtaining phase and amplitude series, in
460 order to avoid edge artefacts in the filtered and transformed LFP segments. Because there was
461 no temporal frame of reference, chunk averaging was not performed for subtraction. Chunks
462 were treated as stimulation trials (see above), and PAC analyses together with surrogate
463 calculations were applied in likeness to those performed with stimulus-driven responses.

464 To test for a population trend of positive PAC, we evaluated, per phase-amplitude frequency
465 pair, whether zMI s for the population were significantly higher than 0 (FDR-corrected, tailed

466 Wilcoxon signed rank test, significance after $p_{\text{corr}} < 0.05$). This is indicated as grey lines in
467 **Figs. 4A and 5.**

468 Differences between the PAC in FAF (PAC_{FAF}) and AC (PAC_{AC}) were calculated by
469 subtracting the PAC maps obtained for the frontal and the auditory cortices, the latter
470 considering 5 representative depths of 50, 300, 450, 600, 750 μm . Significant differences
471 between channels in FAF and AC were determined by means of FDR-corrected Wilcoxon
472 signed rank tests, and significance was considered when $p_{\text{corr}} < 0.05$. Beyond significance
473 testing, we evaluated the effect size of the difference between PAC_{FAF} and PAC_{AC} as follows
474 (Fritz *et al.*, 2012):

$$475 \quad r = \frac{W}{\sqrt{N}} \quad [4]$$

476 where r is the effect size, W is the test statistic of the Wilcoxon signed rank test, and N is the
477 sample size ($N = 50$ penetrations during acoustic processing, and $N = 49$ during spontaneous
478 activity). Note that the spontaneous activity of one of the penetrations could not be evaluated
479 due to technical reasons. According to (Fritz *et al.*, 2012) values of $r < 0.3$ were considered
480 negligible effects, whereas values of $0.3 \leq r \leq 0.5$ were considered medium, and values of $r >$
481 0.5 were considered large effects. Only large effects are depicted in the figures as contour
482 lines. Positive large effects (red contour lines) indicate $\text{PAC}_{\text{FAF}} > \text{PAC}_{\text{AC}}$, whereas negative
483 large effects (purple contour lines) indicate the opposite.

484 **Data availability**

485 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors
486 upon reasonable request.

487 **Author contribution**

488 FGR and JCH designed the study. FGR collected the data, analyzed the data, and wrote the
489 manuscript. FGR, LLJ, EGP, YCC, MK, and JCH discussed the results and reviewed the
490 manuscript.

491 **Conflict of interests**

492 The authors declare no financial or non-financial conflict of interests.

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495

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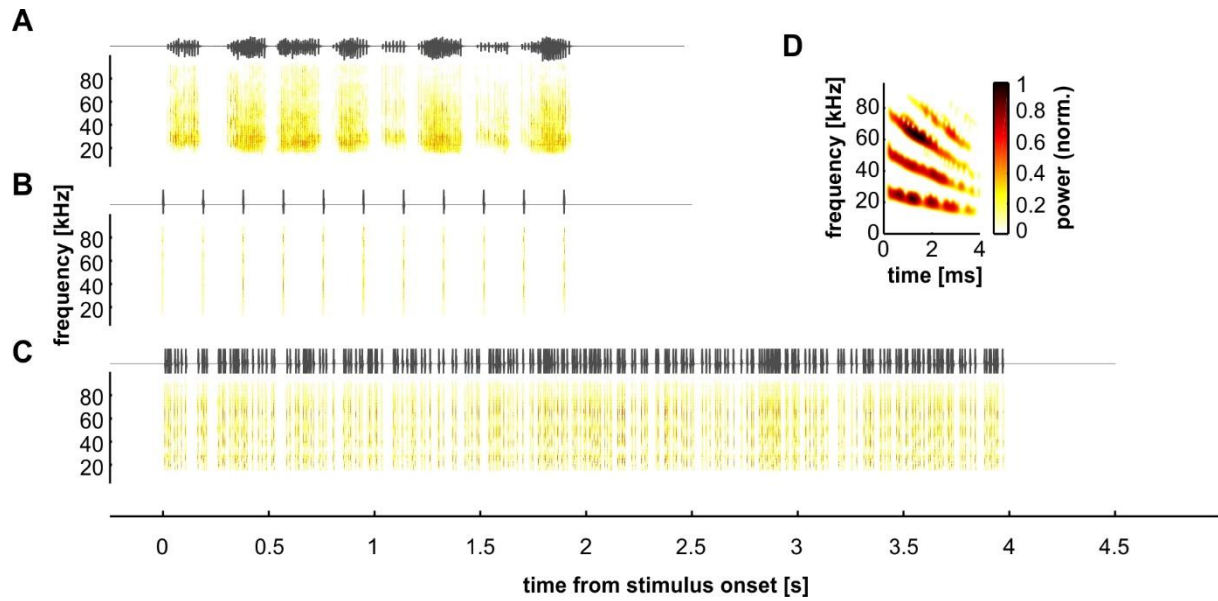
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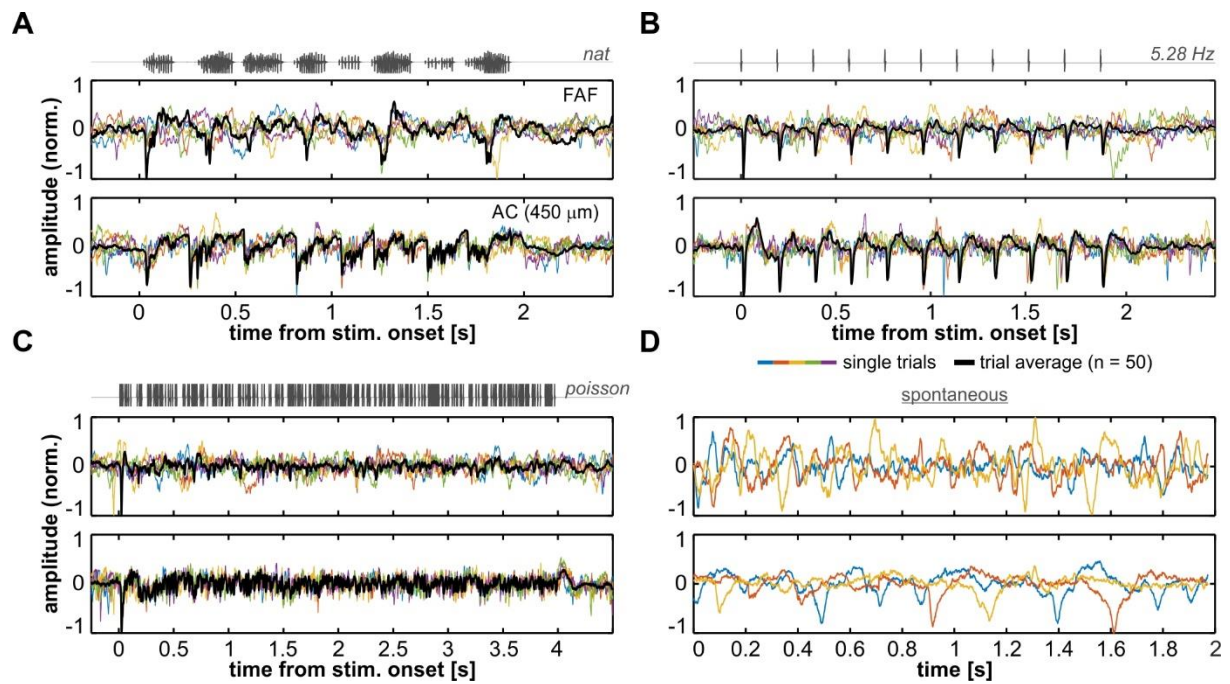
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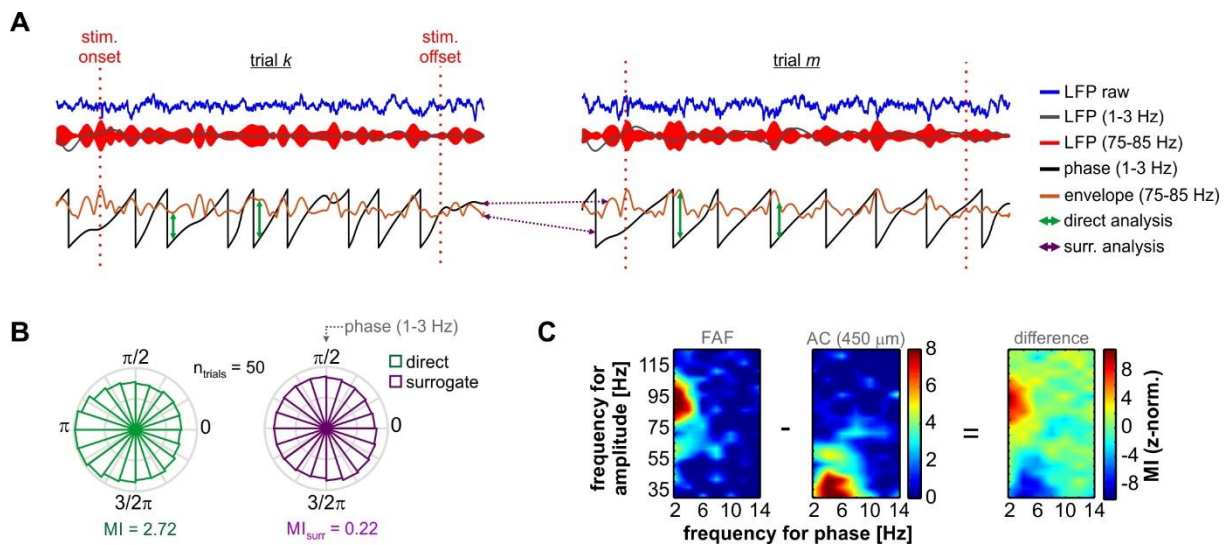
737 **Figure 1. Auditory stimuli.** Oscillograms (top) and spectrograms (bottom; normalized
738 amplitude and power) of the sounds used for auditory stimulation. These comprised a
739 natural call (**A**), a syllable train with a repetition rate of 5.28 Hz (**B**), and a syllable train
740 with a Poisson temporal structure (**C**). Panel **D** shows the spectrotemporal design of the
741 natural distress syllable used to construct the trains in **B** and **C**.

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744 **Figure 2. Representative LFP recordings during auditory processing and spontaneous**
745 **activity.** (A) LFP traces from the FAF (top) and the AC at a depth of 450 μm (bottom), in
746 response to the natural call (stimulus' oscillogram shown on top of the subpanels).
747 Coloured lines correspond to five single-trial recordings (out of a total of 50 trials) from a
748 representative penetration. The thick black line depicts the trial average. (B) Same as in
749 A, but LFPs were recorded in response to the 5.28 Hz syllabic train. (C) Same as in A
750 and B, but responses correspond to the Poisson train. (D) Three representative chunks of
751 spontaneously recorded LFP signals of the same penetration shown in A-C. Note that a
752 trial average is lacking as chunks do not share a reference time point (e.g. stimulus onset).
753 In all panels, single-trial LFP traces from FAF and AC with the same colour were
754 recorded simultaneously.



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756 **Figure 3. Phase-amplitude coupling analyses in representative recordings.** (A) Single trial

757 LFPs (2 exemplary trials *k* and *m*, blue traces), recorded from the FAF, in response to the
758 Poisson syllabic train. Stimulus onset and offset are marked with red vertical dashed

759 lines; the window between onset and offset was used for PAC analyses across stimuli

760 (here, 4 s length). Delta- (1-3 Hz) and gamma-band (75-85 Hz) filtered LFPs are depicted

761 in gray and red, respectively. Below, the phase of the delta LFPs (black) and the

762 amplitude envelope of gamma (orange) are shown. In a direct PAC analysis, phase and
763 amplitude were matched within trials (represented with green arrows in the figure).

764 However, during surrogate analyses, amplitude and phase were matched between trials at
765 random (trial shuffling; see Methods). The latter is depicted as purple arrows across trials

766 *k* and *m*. (B) Circular distribution depicting the relationship between gamma-band

767 amplitude and delta-band phase. With the direct analysis, the phase-amplitude

768 relationship was visibly non-circularly uniform (green), yielding a modulation index (MI)

769 of 2.72. In an instance of the surrogate analysis (purple), shown for illustrative purposes,

770 the phase-amplitude relationship was distributed rather uniformly, yielding a MI of 0.22.

771 (C) Phase-amplitude coupling (PAC) maps calculated from LFPs corresponding to the

772 same penetration shown in A and B, also in response to the Poisson train. The PAC is

773 shown for the FAF and the AC at a depth of 450 μm . To evaluate differences in the PAC

774 across structures, maps from FAF and AC were subtracted in further analyses (here

775 shown as “difference”).

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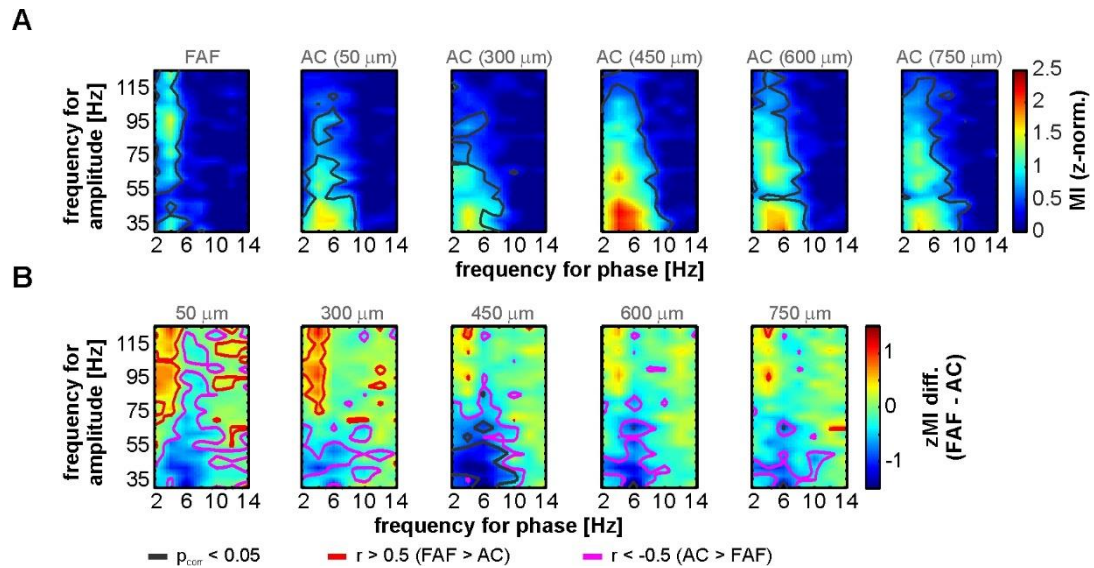
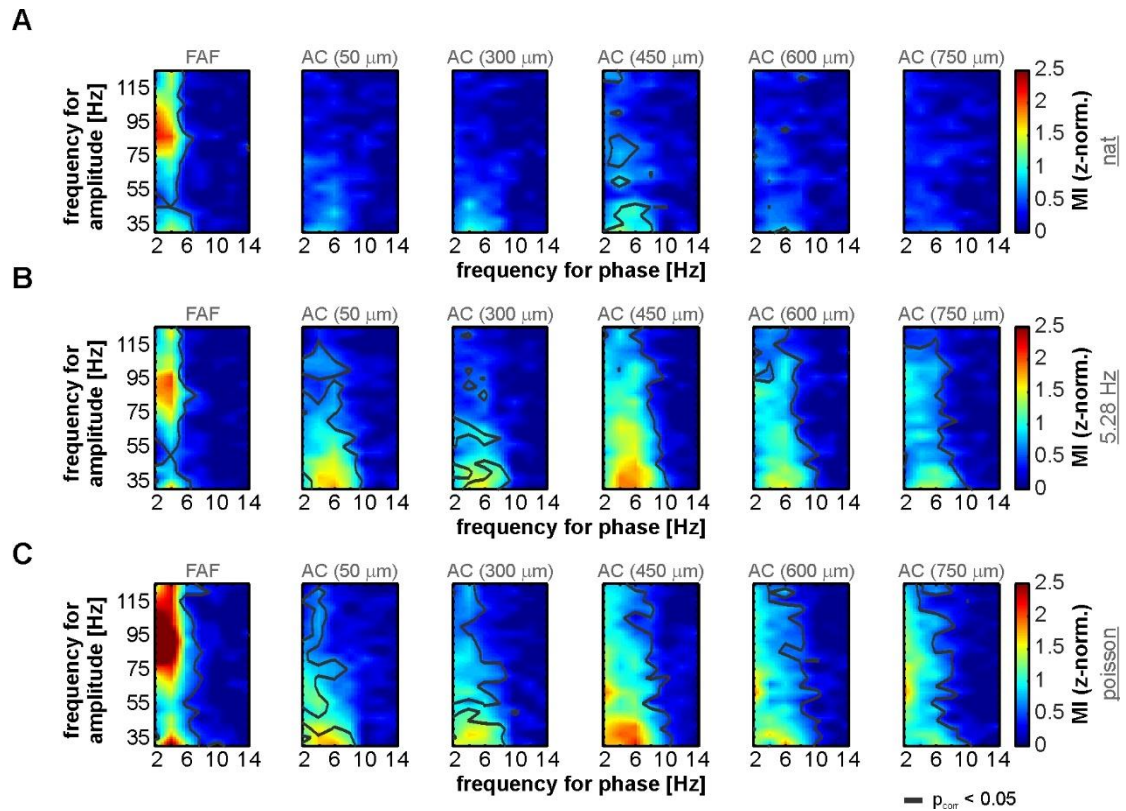


Figure 4. Spontaneous PAC in FAF and AC. (A) Population-averaged PAC maps

calculated from spontaneously recorded LFPs in the FAF and AC (here shown at depths of 50, 300, 450, 600 and 750 μm). Regions within gray contour lines correspond to those for which z-normalized MIs were significantly above 0 across penetrations ($n = 49$; FDR-corrected Wilcoxon signed rank test, $p_{\text{corr}} < 0.05$). **(B)** PAC-difference maps between FAF and AC at the same depths from **A**. Red contour lines delimit regions where PAC in FAF (PAC_{FAF}) was higher than the PAC in AC (PAC_{AC}), with a large effect size ($r > 0.5$). Purple contour lines delimit regions where the opposite occurred (i.e. $\text{PAC}_{\text{AC}} > \text{PAC}_{\text{FAF}}$). Gray contour lines mark PAC regions where the differences were significant, after an FDR-corrected Wilcoxon signed rank test (comparing PAC_{FAF} vs PAC_{AC}), at an alpha of 0.05.



792

793 **Figure 5. PAC in FAF and AC during acoustic stimulation. (A)** Population-averaged PAC

794 maps calculated from LFPs recorded in the FAF and the AC at various depths (50, 300,

795 450, 600, 750 μm), in response to the natural call used as stimulus in this study. Gray

796 contour lines delimit regions where the z-normalized MI was significantly higher than 0

797 across penetrations ($n = 50$; FDR-corrected Wilcoxon signed rank test, $p_{\text{corr}} < 0.05$). (**B-**

798 **C**) Same as in A, but LFPs were recorded in response to the 5.28 Hz (**B**) and the Poisson

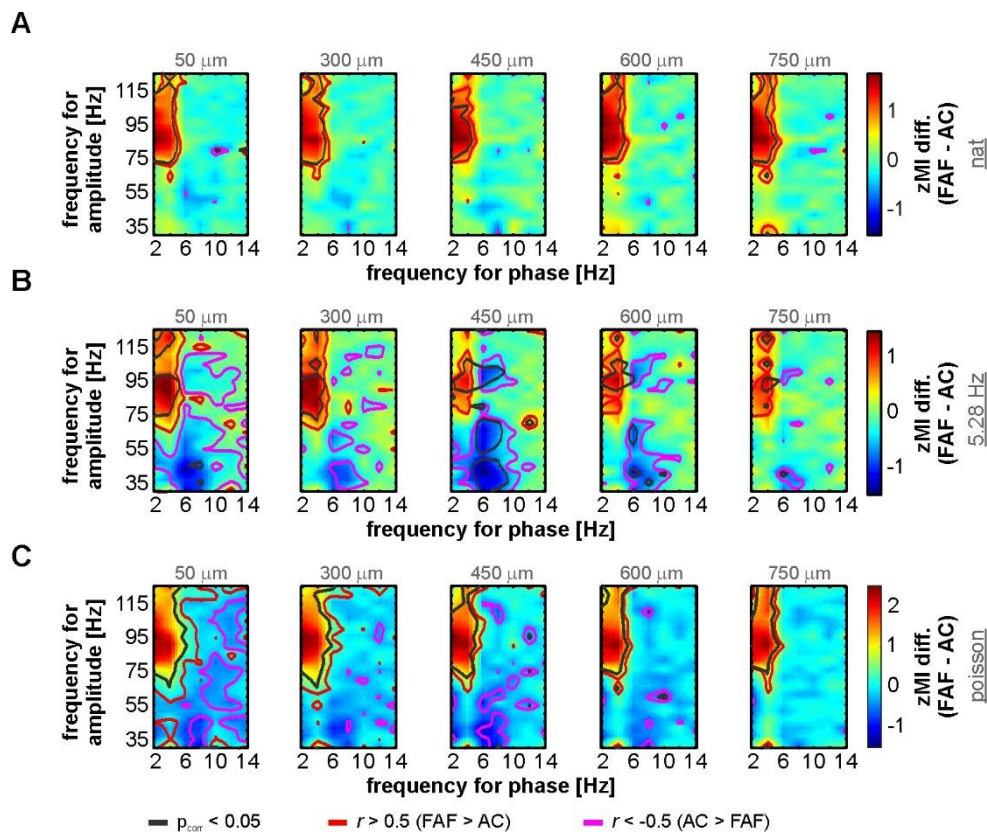
799 (**C**) syllabic trains. Note that, independently of the stimulus considered, the PAC in FAF

800 and AC are clearly strongest at distinct phase-amplitude regimes.

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805 **Figure 6. Differences in PAC from FAF and AC during acoustic stimulation. (A)**

806 Population-averaged difference maps ($PAC_{FAF} - PAC_{AC}$, at various depths in the AC: 50,
 807 300, 450, 600, 750 μm ; $n = 50$) obtained from LFP responses to the natural called used in
 808 this study. Red contour lines delimit regions where $PAC_{FAF} > PAC_{AC}$, with large effect
 809 sizes ($r > 0.5$), whereas purple contour lines demarcate regions where the opposite
 810 occurred (i.e. $PAC_{AC} > PAC_{FAF}$), also with large effect sizes. Gray contour lines mark
 811 regions wherein the z-normalized MIs in FAF and AC were significantly different,
 812 according to a FDR-corrected Wilcoxon signed rank test, with an alpha of 0.05. (B-C)
 813 Same as in A, but corresponding to LFPs recorded in response to the 5.28 Hz (B) and the
 814 Poisson (C) syllabic trains.

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