Running Head: AUTOMATICITY OF MAGNITUDE AND PARITY

Title: Spontaneous and automatic processing of magnitude and parity information

of Arabic digits: A frequency-tagging EEG study.

Mathieu Guillaume[1], Alexandre Poncin[2], Christine Schiltz[2], & Amandine Van Rinsveld[1].

The first two authors (MG and AP) share equal first co-authorships, and the two last authors (CS

and AVR) share equal last co-authorships.

[1] Center for Research in Cognitive Neuroscience (CRCN), Université Libre de Bruxelles, Belgium.

[2] Cognitive Science and Assessment Institute (COSA), University of Luxembourg, Luxembourg.

Corresponding author: Mathieu Guillaume

maguilla.ulb@gmail.com   +32 26 50 20 31

Address: Université Libre de Bruxelles,

50, Avenue Franklin Roosevelt, CP 191, 1050 Brussels, Belgium

Manuscript Word Count: 3,669 (excluding abstract, methods, footnotes, and references).

Method Word Count: 1,458.

Number of Figures: 3   Number of Tables: 0

Keywords: Electroencephalography (EEG), Steady State Evoked Potential, Numerical

Cognition, Numerical magnitude, Parity

Abstract

Arabic digits (1-9) are everywhere in our daily lives. These symbols convey various

semantic information, and numerate adults can easily extract from them several

numerical features such as magnitude and parity. Nonetheless, since most studies used

active processing tasks to assess these properties, it remains unclear whether and to

what degree the access to magnitude and especially to parity is automatic. Here we

investigated with EEG whether spontaneous processing of magnitude or parity can be

recorded in a frequency-tagging approach, in which participants are passively

stimulated by fast visual sequences of Arabic digits. We assessed automatic magnitude

processing by presenting a stream of frequent *small* digit numbers mixed with deviant

large digits (and the reverse) with a sinusoidal contrast modulation at the frequency of

10 Hz. We used the same paradigm to investigate numerical parity processing,

contrasting *odd* digits to *even* digits. We found significant brain responses at the

frequency of the fluctuating change and its harmonics, recorded on electrodes

encompassing right occipitoparietal regions, in both conditions. Our findings indicate

that both magnitude and parity are spontaneously and unintentionally extracted from

Arabic digits, which supports that they are salient semantic features deeply associated

to digit symbols in long-term memory.

Abstract word count = 200 words.

Spontaneous and automatic processing of magnitude and parity information of

Arabic digits: A frequency-tagging EEG study.

Number symbols convey a large range of different semantic properties, such as being a

prime number, being a multiple of another number, or belonging to the power of

another number. While these various properties need to be assimilated by long and

laborious cultural learning processes, some of them are critical for understanding

number symbols' essence [1]. Among these properties, cardinality (or numerosity) and

parity are of crucial interest because they are both acquired at an early stage of

numeracy learning and they are known to increasingly become salient properties of

number symbols [2:7]. The question whether and to what extent such semantic number

properties are automatically activated has occupied the numerical cognition literature

since several decades [8:22]. This issue is essential because it directly questions the

nature of semantic representation of numbers, as well as the developmental trajectory

of numerical and mathematical learning [23:29]. For instance, 3rd graders typically

associate digits based on magnitude characteristics when they are asked to categorize

numbers according to similarity, while 6th graders are more influenced by parity; adults,

for their part, equally categorize digits on their parity and magnitude features [30].

Automaticity in magnitude processing

Automaticity is usually defined as an unconscious and unintentional process, that might

occur in parallel with other processes [31], and that happens without monitoring [32,33].

From a general cognitive perspective, automatic (and intuitive) processes are generally

contrasted to slow logical reasoning processes [95:98]. Despite this duality, it has been

argued that a clearer distinction should be made within automatic processes, between

two different types of automatic processes [21,32,34]. The first automatic process type is

intentional, used when it is necessary and beneficial for the ongoing task, for instance

manipulating a number during calculation or reading words in a sentence. The second

type is autonomous, unintentional and used even when its processing is irrelevant to the

ongoing task. It is noteworthy that pointing out unintentional automatic processing

from intentional processes is experimentally complicated. It is actually not possible to

disentangle a useful and intentional process from an autonomous process when this

process is required for the task [21].

Despite of these difficulties, three effects could depict automatic processing with

number magnitude. The first is the *SNARC effect* (Spatial Numerical Association of

Response Codes) which is characterized by an influence of the magnitude while

participants are asked to categorize numbers according to their parity [34]. In particular,

participants are faster to categorize small numbers with their left hand and large

numbers with their right hand independently of the number's parity. Many authors

explain this effect by suggesting the automatic activation of a mental number line [36]

during the task, where the smaller numbers are mapped on the left and the larger

numbers on the right[1]. Nonetheless, because parity is also a numerical dimension,

experimental settings could trigger the automatic processing of magnitude. The

triggering could happen when the relevant dimension (i.e., parity in SNARC effect) and

the irrelevant dimension (i.e., magnitude in SNARC effect) are related. In other words,

parity and magnitude are both numeric, thus it is difficult to know if magnitude

---

[1] For alternative mechanisms underlying the SNARC effect, please also consider the *dual route model* [37,38], the *polarity correspondence account* [39], and the *working memory account* [40:45].

activation observed during the SNARC effect is an autonomous or an intentional

automatic processing[2] [21].

A second domain revealing automatic number magnitude processing refers to the

interference effects observed in tasks similar to the well-known Stroop experiment [51].

One type of such numerical interference effects is for instance the semantic congruity

effect. Adults are indeed faster to judge the physical size of two numbers when the

bigger number was also the larger in terms of numerical magnitude (e.g., comparing **5**

vs. 2 is easier than 5 vs. **2**) [13,22,25,52,53]. Another example is the size Congruency Effect

happening when participants are asked to choose between two displays with digits, the

display with the more numerous array of digits. Participants are faster during this task

when the display comprising more digits also contains numerically larger digits and the

screen with fewer digits also contains numerically smaller digits [18]. However, these

interference effects are only observed in numerical tasks and consequently numerical

magnitude could be triggered by the task itself [21]. According to this line of reasoning,

interference effects are thus not sufficient to argue that number magnitude is accessed

automatically in an autonomous manner.

Third, there is the distance effect, which refers to the fact that comparing close numbers

(e.g., 4 and 6) is harder than comparing more distant numbers (2 and 8). In other

words, the difficulty of comparing two numbers is inversely related to the numerical

distance between these two numbers [54]. Distance effects are found when participants

---

[2] Nevertheless some SNARC studies use tasks not entailing any numerical triggering such as orientation discrimination [46], plural versus singular nouns [47], line bisection [48] or colour discrimination [49,50]. Significant SNARC effects reported in these studies could therefore be taken as convincing marks of automaticity of numerical magnitude processing.

are explicitly instructed to compare numbers [11], but also when participants had simply

to say if two Arabic numbers were the same or not [13]. Nonetheless, such evidence has

also been assumed to be insufficient to accept the distance effect as a proof of

autonomous automatic processing [21]. That is to say, even if the distance effect occurs in

non-numerical tasks, processing the magnitude in this kind of tasks would be beneficial

for the task performance. Distance effects could therefore be a marker of intentional

automatic processing rather than marker of autonomous automatic processing.

Automaticity in parity processing

Regarding parity, a number can only belong to one out of two categories: '*even*' or '*odd*',

indicating that a number is divisible by two or not. Parity judgments are typically

learned relatively early, around the two first years of formal education in western

cultures [50], and even earlier in eastern cultures [55]. While some authors argued that

parity is computed by dividing a number by two [56], others proposed that parity

information is stored as declarative memory content [35,57]. According to the latter,

parity access could not be the result of computations because there is no size effect in

parity tasks. More precisely, if the determination of parity were up to dividing by two,

small numbers should be processed faster than large numbers, which is not the case. In

the same vein, certain digits with specific properties are categorized faster as odd or

even [4]. This is for instance the case for numbers that are a power of two (i.e., 2, 4 and

8) and for prime numbers (i.e., 3, 5 and 7). In particular, the more specificities a given

number has, the faster their parity will be accessed [35]. These findings are in line with a

recent study proposing that the objective, mathematically defined parity differs to a

certain degree from the "perceived" parity, as some numbers seem to be more

prototypical for their categories [58].

To the best of our knowledge, there are only a limited number of investigations

concerning the automaticity of parity processing. A study of parity categorization using

subliminal priming of Arabic numbers (i.e., participants could not consciously see the

primed digits) before the onset of a given target number word showed that participants

were faster to categorize the target when the primed digit and the target number had

the same parity [59]. These results are in favour of an automatic access to the parity

information of digits. This is in line with other studies that assessed arithmetical fact

verifications based on the parity of the multipliers or addends [60]. In particular, those

tasks consisted in judging the correctness of additions or multiplications facts. If the

parity rules (such as: addition or multiplication of two even numbers gives an even

number) were not respected, participants were faster to say that arithmetical facts were

false [57]. Some authors argued that the application of the parity rules is unconscious and

automatic because some of their participants reported that they were unaware of using

the parity rules, while their results indicated its utilisation [60]. Nevertheless, in both

previous paradigms, the experimental task required direct manipulation of the number

symbol and therefore can only point towards intentional automatic processing [21],

leaving open the question whether autonomous unintentional automatic parity

processing might also arise in some circumstances.

Neural correlates of (automatic) number processing

Neuroimaging studies consistently indicated that the parietal cortex and more

specifically the intra-parietal sulcus (IPS) plays a pivotal role in the processing of

numerical information [61:65]. Indeed, this region has been associated to a various range

of tasks involving the manipulation of numerical material [66, 94]. Magnitude comparison

of number symbols activate more predominantly the right IPS, for conjoint symbolic and

non-symbolic comparison [92], but also for exclusively symbolic comparison [64, 91].

Moreover, the same bilateral IPS region was activated during numerical magnitude

comparison as well as parity categorization in a PET study [63], in which the authors

consequently proposed that parity and magnitude are processed in neighbouring areas.

It was also proposed that both the occipitoparietal network used for perceptual and

representational processing of Arabic digits and the frontoparietal network used for

semantic processing are involved in numerical processing such as magnitude

comparisons and arithmetical facts retrieval [64,65].

The parietal cortex is also associated with automatic processing of number symbol

semantics. Tasks requiring the simple detection of visual numerals or number words

activate the IPS significantly more than the same tasks with non-numerical stimuli (*e.g.*,

detection of letters or colours [69]). To the best of our knowledge, only a few studies

further investigated automatic responses to number symbol magnitudes, and none

examined automatic parity processing. When studying the neuronal correlates of non-

predictive number cues with fMRI, we observed significant magnitude effects bilaterally

in the parietal cortex [70]. More precisely, BOLD responses were stronger for large (8 or

9) compared to small (1 or 2) digits in two bilateral parietal regions (i.e. the IPS and the

inferior parietal lobule). Similarly, we observed larger ERP amplitudes over parietal

electrode sites for small compared to large digit magnitude, when numbers were used as

non-informative attentional cues [71,72]. Nonetheless, imaging evidence in favour of

unintentional processing of magnitude or parity is currently lacking.

Current study and experimental design

In the present study, we aim at assessing the autonomous unintentional automaticity of

magnitude and parity processing, carefully avoiding any triggering of numerical

information processing (such that the existence of autonomous unintentional

automaticity can be probed [21]). For that purpose, we used a sensitive frequency-

tagging approach – Fast Periodic Visual Stimulation (FPVS) – to record

electrophysiological responses tagged at the frequency of experimentally manipulated

magnitude and parity changes, in a passive viewing setting. Similar FPVS paradigms

relying on passive viewing have successfully been used to study high-level

discrimination of faces [73], tools [74], as well as reading (word recognition [75], and letter

strings discrimination [65,76]), and non-symbolic quantities[77], without engaging

participants in any kind of explicit processing of the presented stimuli.

We combined the FPVS paradigm with a standard/deviant procedure (*oddball* method

[79]). More precisely, during one-minute sequences, we displayed digits at the very fast

rate of 10 Hz (ten stimuli per second) following a sinusoidal contrast modulation.

Within the stream of standard digits, a periodic deviant was introduced every eight

trials such that digits from the deviant category appeared at 1.25 Hz (see Figure 1). The

digits used as standards or deviants varied according to the condition: In the *magnitude*

condition, digits smaller than five were presented as standard and digits larger than five

as deviants, or the other way around. In the *parity* condition, odd digits were presented

as standards and even digits as deviants, or the other way around. Finally, in a *control*

condition, half of the digits were arbitrary categorized as standards and the other half as

deviants (see Figure 1).

We postulate that we should record an electrophysiological response synchronized at

the deviation frequency (i.e., 1.25 Hz) if the brain is sensitive to the changes from one

category to another. In other words, if magnitude and/or parity are processed in an

autonomous unintentional automatic way, then the category changes should

systematically elicit a specific brain response at the frequency of the changes for the

respective condition(s), while no such response should arise during the control

condition as the latter's digit categories were arbitrary and not related to any semantic

content. Doing so, we can objectively measure whether a given semantic number

information is automatically and unintentionally processed by the brain although no

numerical task was requested from the participant.

Results

Figure 2a illustrates the topographical maps of the averaged oddball amplitudes for

every condition, expressed as the Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR) of the frequency bin of

interest and its harmonics up to the seventh (i.e., 1.25, 2.50, 3.75, 5.00, 6.25, 7.50, and

8.75 Hz). These maps highlight that the strongest recorded responses in each condition

were located over a bilateral region encompassing occipitoparietal areas. It is worth

noticing that there was a substantial overlap of the location of the brain responses

between the experimental conditions, which allows direct comparison of amplitudes

recorded within these regions.

Figure 2b represents the EEG spectra recorded on the electrodes from the left (A9, A10,

A11) and right (B6, B7, B8) occipitoparietal regions of interest corresponding to the

topographical maps. The spectra, expressed as SNRs, are averaged across participants

for every condition. In each condition, there were clear peaks at 10 Hz, with Z-scores

systematically reaching values larger than five. These findings support that both

occipitoparietal regions specifically synchronised to the 10 Hz base rate during the

recording sessions. Note, however, that neural synchronisation to the base rate merely

reflects brain response to the periodic stimulus onsets at 10 Hz.

More critically for the purpose of the current study, we also observed in Figure 2b large

peaks in the frequency bins that are harmonics of the periodic category fluctuation (up

to the seventh harmonic). In the Magnitude condition, there were fewer clear peaks

across these frequency bins within the left electrodes, but peaks were clearly depicted in

the right hemisphere. For the Parity condition, we observed some clear peaks within the

left region of interest, and many definite peaks within the right region of interest.

Finally, more unexpectedly, we also found some responding peaks in the control

condition, mostly located within the right occipitoparietal regions.

In order to assess whether these peaks were statistically significant, we computed the

average signal amplitude of the frequency of interest and its harmonics up to the

seventh, expressed as a Z-score, as a function of the condition (see Figure 3). Within the

three left electrodes of interest, mean oddball amplitude during the Magnitude condition

was 0.51, *Standard Deviation (SD)* = 1.52, mean amplitude in the Parity condition was

1.59, *SD* = 1.26, and mean amplitude for the Control condition was 0.69, *SD* = 1.17.

Within the right electrodes, mean amplitude during the Magnitude condition was 2.01,

SD = 2.40, during the Parity condition it reached 2.50, *SD* = 1.85, and it was 1.23, *SD* =

1.90, for the Control condition. Visual inspection of Figure 3 reveals that the right

occipitoparietal regions of interest were significantly sensitive to the periodic category

changes during both experimental conditions, with z-scored amplitudes exceeding the

unilateral 95% threshold of 1.64.

We additionally performed a repeated-measures ANOVA with the region of interest (two

levels, either left or right) and the condition (three levels) as fixed factors. There was a

significant main effect of the condition, $F(2, 88) = 14.409$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .179$, and

a significant main effect of the region factor, $F(1, 44) = 5.468$, $p = .024$, partial $\eta^2 = .111$.

Although the interaction did not reach the significance level, $F(2, 88) = 1.761$, $p = .178$,

partial $\eta^2 = .038$, we conducted pairwise two-sided Wilcoxon tests (since assumption of

normality was rejected) to directly compare the amplitudes within each hemisphere.

These *post-hoc* tests revealed that, for the left electrodes of interest, Parity yielded

significantly greater responses than both Control, $Z = 56$, $p = .011$, and Magnitude

conditions, $Z = 43$, $p = .003$. On the other hand, Parity and Control did not differ from

each other, $Z = 168$, $p = .377$. For the right electrodes of interest, Parity and Magnitude

were significantly greater than the control condition, respectively $Z = 35$, $p < .001$, and Z

$= 65$, $p = .025$, but the experimental conditions did not differ from each other, $Z = 91$, $p =$

.160.

Discussion

Magnitude and parity are very salient features of number symbols [5,30]. While there are

several studies demonstrating the existence of automatic number symbols processing in

educated adults, only a few studies could unequivocally demonstrate the existence of

autonomous and unintentional number magnitude processing. Therefore, it is still

necessary to provide further evidence by triggering magnitude as little as possible in

order to disentangle autonomous from intentional automatic processing [21]. Moreover,

data concerning an automatic processing of parity are currently lacking.

The current FPVS paradigm allows investigating the spontaneous and autonomous

nature of specific cognitive processes during passive viewing of rapid sequence [87]. This

technique is innovative because to date this approach as not yet been used to investigate

number symbol processing, and it is very relevant for our objective since FPVS is an

objective measure of the brain response at a frequency defined a priori by the

experimenter, which allows direct and straightforward analysis of the neural

synchronisation. Periodical FPVS responses are also an implicit measure since they can

be quantified without an active task and thus, without the implication of decisional

processes [78]. Taken together, these experimental features provide a strong

experimental context to avoid any conscious triggering of magnitude or parity during

the recording session and thus probe the autonomous nature of these numerical

processes.

We observed a significant neural synchronisation to changes in numerical magnitude

and parity within right occipitoparietal areas, whereas no such synchronisation was

found during the control condition. It is noteworthy that visual inspection of SNRs

suggests that some brain responses peaked at some harmonics of interest in the control

condition, where category was based on temporarily constructed rules, but these peaks

did not reach the statistical significance. In contrast, the strong responses within the

right occipitoparietal electrodes indicate that participants implicitly processed the

category to which numerical stimuli belong and reacted to changes with respect to the

category. Additionally, parity yielded significantly larger brain responses than the other

conditions in the left hemisphere.

We thus measured substantial implicit responses to the two manipulated semantic

features, but not to short-term arbitrary associations. This means that we can exclude

that the brain synchronisations recorded in both experimental tasks were only due to

the rare nature of the deviant stimulus. These evidences support the view that both

numerical magnitude and parity were automatically accessed and processed during

passive viewing sessions. In other words, both semantic features are spontaneously and

unintentionally extracted from Arabic digits, which corroborates previous observations

that several deliberate tasks on Arabic digits (such as naming) are necessarily

semantically mediated [14]. It is noteworthy that the automaticity of parity that we

observed here does not support the hypothesis arguing that parity is computed by

dividing the number by two [56], but our findings are rather in line with the idea of a

direct retrieval from semantic memory [35,57].

The topography of the frequency-tagged responses corresponds with seminal models of

numerical cognition, such as the triple-code model [66, 80], since we found significant

responses over right occipitoparietal electrodes specifically related to both magnitude

and parity changes. This is in line with the hypothesis that the semantic of number

representations are housed in parietal regions [98]. The occipitoparietal responses that

we obtained during Magnitude and Parity conditions are typical in ERP studies

investigating the neural distance effect with Arabic numbers [64,67,68]. These studies

highlighted a neural distance effect illustrated by a modulation of the positivity of P2p

recorded over occipitoparietal electrodes as a function of the numerical distance during

numerical comparison. These studies, except [68], also found a dominance of the right

hemisphere for numerical magnitude comparison. In the absence of an active task, we

similarly found significant right-sided dominance. We did not, however, observe any

significant differences between right hemisphere electrodes responding to parity and

magnitude, which is partly in line with a PET study indicating that parity and magnitude

information are processed in neighbouring area inside the IPS [81].

Finally, it is noteworthy that each digit presentation only lasted 100ms in the current

experimental design (since our base rate was 10Hz, see Figure 1). Previous ERP studies

showed that number processing actually follows a time course that involves distinct

stages of neural processes [99]. Critically, numerical magnitude was already reported to

be early extracted (within 200ms) from digit symbols [99]. Due to the fast display period

in the current FPVS paradigm, fewer than 100ms, we can assume that our method

mostly captured early cognitive processes. Because we observed significant brain

synchronization to magnitude and to parity, our results consequently support that not

only magnitude, but also parity information, can be extracted and processed very early

in the brain. The time course of the autonomous processing of numerical features could

be investigated in future studies by, for instance, varying the base rate of similar FPVS

paradigms.

In summary, we observed a significant brain synchronisation at the frequency of 1.25Hz

over occipitoparietal electrodes during passive viewing of a rapid stream of Arabic digits

periodically changing magnitude or parity at 1.25 Hz. We demonstrate that numerical

326 magnitude is automatically processed, and we provide evidence that parity is also a

327 semantic feature that is unintentionally activated by Arabic digits in numerate adults.

328 Since the FPVS technique allows high frequency stimulation, with minimal numerical

329 triggering and implicit testing of magnitude and parity, it can therefore be suitably used

330 as a strong marker of unintentional, autonomous automatic processing of Arabic digits

331 in future studies involving typically and atypically developing children and adults.

Method

Participants

Twenty-nine undergraduate students from the University of Luxembourg participated.

Volunteers suffering from any neurological or neuropsychological disease or from any

uncorrected visual impairment were not allowed to participate. In order to verify that

no participant had dyscalculia, we evaluated their arithmetic ability with the help of the

Tempo-Test Rekenen [82], which is a timed pen-and-paper test (five minutes) consisting

in arithmetic problems of increasing difficulty. All participants reached the inclusion

criterion, which was 100 correct items out of 200, and were included into the present

study. We had to exclude six participants due to the presence of substantial noise in

their EEG signal (mostly due to transpiration). The final sample thus consisted in 23

adults, with a mean age of 24 years (*SD* = 3.5). Participants received 30 euros for their

participation.

Experimental setup

We used MATLAB (The MathWorks) with the Psychophysics Toolbox extensions [83:85] to

display the stimuli and record behavioural data. The EEG recording took place in a

shielded Faraday cage (288 cm × 229 cm × 222 cm). Participants were seated at 1 meter

from the screen, with their eyes perpendicular to the centre of the screen (24'' LED

monitor, 100 Hz refresh rate, 1 ms response time). Screen resolution was 1024 × 768

px, with a light grey background colour. The order of the conditions during the EEG

recording session was counterbalanced across participants.

Material and Procedure

Although FPVS paradigm theoretically only involves passive viewing of the stimuli, we

introduced a basic orthogonal active task during the recording sessions in order to

ascertain that participants were looking at the computer screen. Participants were thus

instructed to fixate the centre of the screen where a small blue diamond (12px size) was

displayed, and they were asked to press a button with their right forefinger when they

detected that the diamond changed its colour from blue to red. This colour change was

not periodic and could randomly occur six to eight times in a given sequence.

Participants were also informed that black digits ranging from 1 to 9 – excluding 5 –

would quickly appear on the screen. They were explicitly instructed not to actively look

at the digits but to keep their gaze on the central diamond. On average, participants

took 640 ms (SD = 121 ms) to respond to the colour change that affected the fixation

diamond. Misses were very rare, occurring only in 1.5% of the trials. Such high

detection rate indicates that participants followed the instruction and kept their gaze on

the centre of the screen during EEG acquisition.

Digits were sequentially presented at the fast base frequency of 10 Hz (*i.e.*, ten stimuli

per second) following a sinusoidal contrast modulation from 0 to 100 % [73, 77, 86] (see

Figure 1). There was thus for each stimulus a 50ms period of gradual fade-in and 50ms

of gradual fade-out. The successive presentation of digits consisted in sequences that

lasted 64 seconds, including 60 seconds of stimulation and 2 seconds of fade-in and

fade-out, which we did not analyse.

We used the FPVS variation of the oddball design [79] in which we introduced a periodic

fluctuation within the standard sequence: the stimulus category changed every eight

items (*i.e.*, at 1.25 Hz). Our design included three different experimental conditions,

each consisting in a different category change. In the *magnitude condition*, periodical

variations were based on the magnitude of the Arabic digit (*i.e.*, smaller than 5 or larger

than 5). For half of the sequences, the standard stimuli displayed at the base rate were

randomly drawn among the smallest numbers (1, 2, 3, 4) whereas the deviant item was

randomly drawn among the largest numbers (6, 7, 8, 9). For the other half, it was the

opposite, the greatest numbers were standards and the smallest ones were deviant. In

the *parity condition*, periodical variation was based on the parity of the Arabic digit (*i.e.*,

odd vs. even). For half of the sequences, the odd category (1, 3, 7, 9) was standard and

the even category (2, 4, 6, 8) was deviant, and vice-versa for the other half. Finally, we

introduced a *control condition* that was based on two arbitrary categories with equal

amounts of odd, even, small and large numbers (1, 4, 6, 9 vs. 2, 3, 7, 8). As the control

categories were arbitrary, and in order to reduce the recording time, we only presented

the first set as the standard category and the second set as the deviant category.

Sequences for every condition were repeated four times. The magnitude and parity

conditions each yielded eight sequences, for a total of twenty sequences.

Following previous recommendations [87], and to decrease habituation to the visual

properties of the stimuli [9], we deliberatively introduced stochastic physical variations

within the stimuli stream. The stimulus font randomly varied among four possibilities

(Arial, Times New Roman, Cambria, and Calibri), the position of the stimulus randomly

varied on both the vertical and horizontal axes (with a variation of maximum 10% from

the centre of the screen), and the font size varied (from 122 to 148, with an average

value of 135). These random visual variations occurred at each onset and were thus not

congruent with our frequencies of interest (*i.e.*, 1.25 Hz and its harmonics).

EEG acquisition

EEG data was acquired at 1024 Hz using a 128-channel BioSemi ActiveTwo system

(BioSemi B. V., Amsterdam, The Netherlands). The electrodes were positioned on the

cap according to the standard 10-20 system locations (for exact position coordinates,

see http://www.biosemi.com). Two additional electrodes, the Common Mode Sense

(CMS) active electrode and the Driven Right Leg (DRL) passive electrode, were

respectively used as reference and ground electrodes. Offsets of the electrodes,

referenced to the CMS, were held below 40 mV. Eye movements were monitored with

four flat-type electrodes; two were placed above and below participant's right eye, the

other two were positioned lateral to the external canthi; we nevertheless did not further

analyse these electrodes.

EEG analysis

Analyses were conducted with the help of *Letswave 6*

(http://nocions.webnode.com/letswave). Before starting the analyses, we down-

sampled our data file resolution from 1024 Hz to 512 Hz for faster computer processing.

We used a 4-order band-pass Butterworth filter (0.1 to 100 Hz) and we then re-

referenced the data to the common average. We did not interpolate any electrode nor

correct the EEG signal for the presence of ocular artefacts. The fade-in and the fade-out

periods were excluded from the analyses leading to the segmentation of an EEG signal of

60 seconds (corresponding to the display of 600 stimuli). We averaged the signal from

all repetitions[3] of each condition for each participant. We then performed a Fast Fourier

---

[3] We did not expect that brain responses to deviant odd digits within a sequence of standard
even digits would be different than brain responses to deviant even digits within a sequence of

Transformation (FFT), and we extracted amplitude spectra for the 128 channels with a

frequency resolution (the size of the frequency bins) of 0.016 Hz. Given the topography

of our results (see Figure 2a), we merged some electrodes into two regions of interest:

we subsequently computed left (A9, A10, A11) and right (B6, B7, B8) occipito-parietal

areas of interest.

Based on the frequency spectra, we computed two measures to determine whether and

how the brain specifically responded to the deviant frequency during the three

manipulated conditions: we first computed the Signal-to-Noise Ratios (SNRs) by

dividing each frequency bin by the mean amplitude of their respective twenty

surrounding bins (excluding the immediately adjacent bins, and the two most extreme

values [73, 77, 88:90]). We used SNRs to depict the frequency spectra and illustrate the

topographies of our results (see Figure 2).

We also computed a Z-score to assess the statistical significance of the brain responses

to the category change. To do so, for each condition and for each participant, we

cropped the FFT spectra around the response of interest (1.25 Hz) and its subsequent

harmonics up to the seventh harmonics (*i.e.*, 1.25, 2.5, 3.75, 5, 6.25, 7.5, and 8.75 Hz)

surrounded by their twenty respective neighbouring bins (ten on each side [77]). We

summed all cropped spectra and then applied a Z-transformation to the amplitudes. We

finally extracted from this Z-transformation the value across the frequency bins of

interest. This value represents the brain response specific to the experimental

manipulation at 1.25Hz, which can be interpreted as the neural detection of the change

of the stimulus category. As a Z-score, a value larger than the threshold of 1.64 ($p < .05$,

---

standard odd digits in the Parity condition (and similarly for small and large numbers in the Magnitude condition). We thus aggregated all repetitions for these conditions.

443   one-tailed, testing signal level > noise level) indicates a significant response to our

444   experimental manipulation.

Ethical considerations

All procedures performed in this study were in accordance with the ethical standards of the APA, and with the 1964 Helsinki Declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. The Ethic Review Panel from the University of Luxembourg approved the methodology and the implementation of the experiment before the start of data collection. Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Authors' contribution

All authors contributed to designing the study; CS and AVR directed the project; MG created the acquisition software; MG and AP collected the data; AP analyzed the data; AP wrote the first draft with input from MG and CS; all authors contributed to the revision of the submitted manuscript.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Aliette Lochy for her advises in data analysis.

Conflicts of interest

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The current research was funded by the "Luxembourg National Research Fund" (Grant AFR PHD-2015-1/ 9161107).

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Illustration of the Fast Periodic Visual Stimulation paradigm. (a) During four

60s sessions, Arabic digits between 1 and 9 (except 5) were periodically displayed at the

base frequency of 10 Hz. In all conditions, digits from a determined standard category

were periodically displayed at the base frequency, while digits from another deviant

category were displayed at the oddball frequency of 1.25 Hz. In the Magnitude

condition, categories were based on the magnitude of the digits (smaller or larger than

five). In the Parity condition, categories were constructed as a function of the parity of

the Arabic digit (odd or even). In the Control condition, categories were arbitrary.

Fonts, font sizes, and positions are here constant for better readability. (b) Illustration

of the onset and the offset of each stimulus following the sinusoidal contrast modulation

from a 0 to 100% contrast.

Figure 2. (a) Topographical maps of the periodic brain responses expressed as the

Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR) of the average of the amplitude corresponding to the

oddball frequency (1.25 Hz) and the amplitudes of its 7 first harmonics. (b) Amplitudes

spectra expressed as SNR for the three conditions (magnitude, parity, and control)

within the left electrodes of interest (A9, A10, A11) and within the right electrodes of

interest (B6, B7, B8).

Figure 3. Mean amplitude, in Z-score, across the oddball frequency and its harmonics

up to the seventh, as a function of the condition and as a function of the electrode

lateralisation (left hemisphere: A9, A10, A11; right hemisphere: B6, B7, B8). Vertical bar

depicts standard deviations. The horizontal dashed line represents the one-sided 95%

threshold of significance ($Z > 1.64$, $p < .05$, one-tailed).

a

Magnitude condition - 1, 2, 3, 4 vs. 6, 7, 8, 9

| 3 | 8 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 7 | 4 | 2 | 3 |

Parity condition - 1, 3, 7, 9 vs. 2, 4, 6, 8

| 3 | 6 | 7 | 9 | 1 | 7 | 9 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 9 |

Control condition - 1, 4, 6, 9 vs. 2, 3, 7, 8

| 1 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 9 | 4 | 6 | 1 | 9 | 8 | 1 | 6 | 4 |

b

Contrast

100 %
50 %
0 %

10 Hz
1.25 Hz

100 200 300 400 500 600 700 800 900 1000   Time (milliseconds)

References

[01] Gilmore, C., Göbel, S. M., & Inglis, M. (2018). *An Introduction to Mathematical*

Cognition. Matthew Inglis. Description: Abingdon, Oxon ; New York, NY : Routledge,

2018. |: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315684758

[02] Benoit, L., Lehalle, H., & Jouen, F. (2004). Do young children acquire number words

through subitizing or counting? *Cognitive Development*, *19*, 291–307.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogdev.2004.03.005

[03] Benoit, L., Lehalle, H., Molina, M., Tijus, C., & Jouen, F. (2013). Young children's

mapping between arrays, number words, and digits. *Cognition, 129(1)*, 95-101.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2013.06.005

[04] Berch, D. B., Foley, E. J., Hill, R. J., Ryan, P. M., & McDonough Ryan, P. (1999).

Extracting Parity and Magnitude from Arabic Numerals: Developmental Changes in

Number Processing and Mental Representation. *Journal of Experimental Child*

Psychology, *74*(4), 286–308. https://doi.org/10.1006/jecp.1999.2518

[05] Miller, K. F. (1992). What A Number is: Mathematical Foundations and Developing

Number Concepts. In *In Advances in psychology* (Vol. 91, pp. 3–38).

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4115(08)60883-3

[06] Miura, I. T., Okamoto, Y., Kim, C. C., Steere, M., & et al. (1993). First graders'

cognitive representation of number and understanding of place value: Cross-

national comparisons: France, Japan, Korea, Sweden, and the United States. *Journal*

of Educational Psychology, *85*(1), 24–30. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-

0663.85.1.24

[07] Moeller, K., Pixner, S., Zuber, J., Kaufmann, L., & Nuerk, H.-C. (2011). Early place-

value understanding as a precursor for later arithmetic performance--a longitudinal

study on numerical development. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, *32*(5),

1837–1851. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ridd.2011.03.012

[08] Cipora, K., Soltanlou, M., Smaczny, S., Melanie Goebel, S., & Nuerk, H.-C. (2018).

Automatic place-value activation in magnitude-irrelevant parity judgement.

Psychological Research, 2019. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00426-019-01268-1

[09] Cohen, D. J. (2009). Integers do not automatically activate their quantity

representation. *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review*, *16*(2), 332–336.

https://doi.org/10.3758/PBR.16.2.332

[10] Cohen Kadosh, R., Bien, N., & Sack, A. T. (2012). Automatic and intentional number

processing both rely on intact right parietal cortex: a combined FMRI and

neuronavigated TMS study. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, *6*, 2.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2012.00002

[11] Dehaene, S., & Akhavein, R. (1995). Attention, Automaticity, and Levels of

Representation in Number Processing. *Journal of Experimental Psychology:*

Learning, Memory, and Cognition, *21*(2), 314–326. https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-

7393.21.2.314

[12] Dormal, V., & Pesenti, M. (2012). Processing numerosity, length and duration in a

three-dimensional Stroop-like task: towards a gradient of processing automaticity?

Psychological Research. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00426-012-0414-3

[13] Duncan, E. M., & McFarland, C. E. (1980). Isolating the effects of symbolic distance,

and semantic congruity in comparative judgments: An additive-factors analysis.

Memory & Cognition, *8*(6), 612–622. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03213781

[14] Fias, W., Reynvoet, B., & Brysbaert, M. (2001). Are Arabic numerals processed as

pictures in a Stroop interference task? *Psychological Research*, *65*(4), 242-249.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s004260100064

[15] Girelli, L., Lucangeli, D., & Butterworth, B. (2000). The Development of Automaticity

in Accessing Number Magnitude. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *76*(2),

104–122. https://doi.org/10.1006/jecp.2000.2564

[16] Henik, A., & Tzelgov, J. (1982). Is three greater than five: The relation between

physical and semantic size in comparison tasks. *Memory & Cognition*, *10*(4), 389–

395. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03202431

[17] Kallai, A. Y., & Tzelgov, J. (2012). The place-value of a digit in multi-digit numbers is

processed automatically. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning Memory and*

Cognition, *38*(5), 1221–1233. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027635

[18] Pansky, A., & Algom, D. (2002). Comparative Judgment of Numerosity and

Numerical Magnitude: Attention Preempts Automaticity. *Journal of Experimental*

Psychology: Learning Memory and Cognition, *28*(2), 259–274.

https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.28.2.259

[19] Rubinsten, O., & Henik, A. (2005). Automatic Activation of Internal Magnitudes: A

Study of Developmental Dyscalculia. *Neuropsychology*, *19*(5), 641–648.

https://doi.org/10.1037/0894-4105.19.5.641

[20] Suzcs, D., Soltész, F., Jármi, É., & Csépe, V. (2007). The speed of magnitude

processing and executive functions in controlled and automatic number

comparison in children: An electro-encephalography study. *Behavioral and Brain*

Functions, *3*(1), 23. https://doi.org/10.1186/1744-9081-3-23

[21] Tzelgov, J., & Ganor-Stern, D. (2005). Automaticity in processing ordinal

information. *Handbook of Mathematical Cognition*, (March), 55–66.

[22] Tzelgov, J., Meyer, J., & Henik, A. (1992). Automatic and Intentional Processing of

Numerical Information. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and*

Cognition, *18*(1), 166–179. https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.18.1.166

[23] Booth, J. L., & Siegler, R. S. (2008). Numerical Magnitude Representations Influence

Arithmetic Learning, *79*(4), 1016–1031.

[24] Bugden, S., Price, G. R., McLean, D. A., & Ansari, D. (2012). The role of the left

intraparietal sulcus in the relationship between symbolic number processing and

children's arithmetic competence. *Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience*, *2*(4), 448–

457. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcn.2012.04.001

[25] Butterworth, B., Zorzi, M., Girelli, L., & Jonckheere, A. R. (2001). Storage and

retrieval of addition facts: The role of number comparison. *Quarterly Journal of*

Experimental Psychology Section A: Human Experimental Psychology, *54*(4), 1005–

1029. https://doi.org/10.1080/713756007

[26] Cohen Kadosh, R., *et al.* (2007). Virtual Dyscalculia Induced by Parietal-Lobe TMS

Impairs Automatic Magnitude Processing. *Current Biology*, *17*(8), 689–693.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2007.02.056

[27] De Smedt, B., Noël, M. P., Gilmore, C., & Ansari, D. (2013). How do symbolic and non-

symbolic numerical magnitude processing skills relate to individual differences in

children's mathematical skills? A review of evidence from brain and behavior.

Trends in Neuroscience and Education. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tine.2013.06.001

[28] Fazio, L. K., Bailey, D. H., Thompson, C. A., & Siegler, R. S. (2014). Relations of

different types of numerical magnitude representations to each other and to

mathematics achievement. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *123*(1).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2014.01.013

[29] Leibovich, T., Katzin, N., Harel, M., & Henik, A. (2016). From 'sense of number' to

'sense of magnitude' – The role of continuous magnitudes in numerical cognition.

Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 1–62.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X16000960

[30] Miller, K., & Gelman, R. (1983). The Child's Representation of Number: A

Multidimensional Scaling Analysis. *Child Development*, *54*(6), 1470–1479.

https://doi.org/10.2307/1129809

[31] Posner, M. I. (1978). Chronometric Explorations of Mind. *Oxford, Oxford University*

Pres, 286. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncb3241

[32] Tzelgov, J. (1997). Automatic but conscious: That is how we act most of the time.

The Automaticity of Everyday Life: Advances in Social Cognition, Vol. 10.

[33] Tzelgov, J., Yehene, V., & Naveh Benjamin, M. (1997). From Memory to Automaticity

and "Vice Versa": On the Relations between Memory and Automaticity. In

Idealization VIII: Modelling in Psychology (p. 239).

[34] Tzelgov, J., Yehene, V., Kotler, L., & Alon, A. (2000). Automatic Comparisons of

Artificial Digits Never Compared: Learning Linear Ordering Relations. *Journal of*

Experimental Psychology: Learning Memory and Cognition.

https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.26.1.103

[35] Dehaene, S., Bossini, S., & Giraux, P. (1993). The Mental Representation of Parity

and Number Magnitude. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *122*(3), 371–

396. https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-3445.122.3.371

[36] Restle, F. (1970). Speed of adding and comparing numbers. *Journal of Experimental*

Psychology, *83*(2 PART 1), 274–278. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0028573

[37] Gevers, W., Verguts, T., Reynvoet, B., Caessens, B., & Fias, W. (2006). Numbers and

space: a computational model of the SNARC effect. *Journal of Experimental*

Psychology. Human Perception and Performance, *32*(1), 32–44.

https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-1523.32.1.32

[38] Santens, S., & Gevers, W. (2008). The SNARC effect does not imply a mental number

line. *Cognition*, *108*(1), 263–270. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2008.01.002

[39] Proctor, R. W., & Cho, Y. S. (2006). Polarity correspondence: A general principle for

performance of speeded binary classification tasks. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-

2909.132.3.416

[40] Abrahamse, E., van Dijck, J.-P., & Fias, W. (2016). How Does Working Memory

Enable Number-Induced Spatial Biases? *Frontiers in Psychology*, *7*(JUN), 977.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00977

[41] Fias, W., & van Dijck, J.-P. (2016). The temporary nature of number—space

interactions. *Canadian Journal of Experimental Psychology/Revue Canadienne de*

Psychologie Expérimentale, *70*(1), 33–40. https://doi.org/10.1037/cep0000071

[42] van Dijck, J.-P., & Fias, W. (2011). A working memory account for spatial-numerical

associations. *Cognition*, *119*(1), 114–119.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2010.12.013

[43] van Dijck, J.-P., Gevers, W., Lafosse, C., & Fias, W. (2012). The Heterogeneous Nature

of Number–Space Interactions. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, *5*, 182.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2011.00182

[44] van Dijck, J. P., Abrahamse, E. L., Acar, F., Ketels, B., & Fias, W. (2014). A working

memory account of the interaction between numbers and spatial attention.

Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, *67*(8), 1500–1513.

https://doi.org/10.1080/17470218.2014.903984

[45] van Dijck, J. P., Gevers, W., & Fias, W. (2009). Numbers are associated with different

types of spatial information depending on the task. *Cognition*, *113*(2), 248–253.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2009.08.005

[46] Lammertyn, J., Wim, F., & Lauwereyns, J. (2002). Semantic influences on feature-

based attention due to overlap of neural circuits. *Cortex*, *38*(5), 878–882.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-9452(08)70061-3

[47] Roettger, T. B., & Domahs, F. (2015). Grammatical number elicits SNARC and MARC

effects as a function of task demands. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*,

68(6), 1231–1248. https://doi.org/10.1080/17470218.2014.979843

[48] Fischer, M. H. (2001). Number processing induces spatial performance biases.

Neurology, *57*(5), 822–826. https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.57.5.822

[49] Keus, I. M., & Schwarz, W. (2005). Searching for the functional locus of the SNARC

effect: Evidence for a response-related origin. *Memory and Cognition*, *33*(4), 681–

695. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03195335

[50] Hoffmann, D., Hornung, C., Martin, R., & Schiltz, C. (2013). Developing number-space

associations: SNARC effects using a color discrimination task in 5-year-olds. *Journal*

of Experimental Child Psychology, *116*(4), 775–791.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2013.07.013

[51] Stroop, J. R. (1935). Studies of interference in serial verbal reactions. *Journal of*

Experimental Psychology, *18*(6), 643–662. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054651

[52] Besner, D., & Coltheart, M. (1979). Ideographic and alphabetic processing in skilled

reading of English. *Neuropsychologia*, *17*(5), 467–472.

https://doi.org/10.1016/0028-3932(79)90053-8

[53] Vaid, J., & Corina, D. (1989). Visual field asymmetries in numerical size comparisons

of digits, words, and signs. *Brain and Language*, *36*(1), 117–126.

https://doi.org/10.1016/0093-934X(89)90055-2

[54] Moyer, R. S., & Landauer, T. K. (1967). Time required for Judgements of Numerical

Inequality. *Nature*, *215*(5109), 1519–1520. https://doi.org/10.1038/2151519a0

[55] Yang, T., Chen, C., Zhou, X., Xu, J., Dong, Q., & Chen, C. (2014). Development of spatial

representation of numbers: a study of the SNARC effect in Chinese children. Journal

of Experimental Child Psychology, 117, 1–11.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2013.08.011

[56] Campbell, J. I. D., & Clark, J. M. (1992). Cognitive number processing: An encoding-

complex perspective. Advances in Psychology, 91(C), 457–491.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4115(08)60894-8

[57] Lemaire, P., & Fayol, M. (1995). When plausibility judgments supersede fact

retrieval: The example of the odd-even effect on product verification. Memory &

Cognition, 23(1), 34–48. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03210555

[58] Heubner, L., *et al.* (2018). A Mental Odd-Even Continuum Account: Some Numbers

May Be "More Odd" Than Others and Some Numbers May Be "More Even" Than

Others. Frontiers in Psychology, 9(June).

https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01081

[59] Fabre, L., & Lemaire, P. (2005). Age-related differences in automatic stimulus-

response associations: insights from young and older adults' parity judgments.

Psychonomic Bulletin & Review, 12(6), 1100–1105.

https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03206450

[60] Krueger, L., Hallford, E. W., & Krueger, L. E. (1984). Why 2 + 2 = 5 looks so wrong:

On the odd-even rule in sum verification. Memory & Cognition (Vol. 12).

[61] Chochon, F., Cohen, L., van de Moortele, P. F., & Dehaene, S. (1999). Differential

contributions of the left and right inferior parietal lobules to number processing.

Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 11(6), 617–630.

[62] Dehaene, S., et al. (1998). Imaging unconscious semantic priming. Nature,

395(6702), 597–600. https://doi.org/10.1038/26967

[63] Pesenti, M., Thioux, M., Seron, X., & De Volder, A. (2000). Neuroanatomical

Substrates of Arabic Number Processing, Numerical Comparison, and Simple

Addition: A PET Study. Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 12(3), 461–479.

https://doi.org/10.1162/089892900562273

[64] Arsalidou, M., & Taylor, M. J. (2011). Is 2+2=4? Meta-analyses of brain areas needed

for numbers and calculations. *NeuroImage*, *54*(3), 2382–2393.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2010.10.009

[65] Lochy, A., & Schiltz, C. (2019). Lateralized neural responses to letters and digits in

first graders. Child Dev. Nov;90(6):1866-1874. doi: 10.1111/cdev.13337

[66] Dehaene, S., & Cohen, L. (1997). Cerebral pathways for calculation: double

dissociation between rote verbal and quantitative knowledge of arithmetic. Cortex;

a Journal Devoted to the Study of the Nervous System and Behavior, 33(2), 219–

250. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-9452(08)70002-9

[67] Libertus, M. E., Woldorff, M. G., & Brannon, E. M. (2007). Electrophysiological

evidence for notation independence in numerical processing. Behavioral and Brain

Functions : BBF, 3(1), 1. https://doi.org/10.1186/1744-9081-3-1

[68] Temple, E., & Posner, M. I. (1998). Brain mechanisms of quantity are similar in 5-

year-old children and adults. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of

the United States of America. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.95.13.7836

[69] Eger, E., Sterzer, P., Russ, M. O., Giraud, A.-L., & Kleinschmidt, A. (2003). A

Supramodal Number Representation in Human Intraparietal Cortex. Neuron, 37(4),

719–726. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(03)00036-9

[70] Goffaux, V., Martin, R., Dormal, G., Goebel, R., & Schiltz, C. (2012). Attentional shifts

induced by uninformative number symbols modulate neural activity in human

occipital cortex. Neuropsychologia, 50(14), 3419–3428.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2012.09.046

[71] Schuller, A.-M., Hoffmann, D., Goffaux, V., & Schiltz, C. (2015). Shifts of spatial

attention cued by irrelevant numbers: Electrophysiological evidence from a target

discrimination task. Journal of Cognitive Psychology, 27(4), 442–458.

https://doi.org/10.1080/20445911.2014.946419

[72] Ranzini, M., Dehaene, S., Piazza, M., & Hubbard, E. M. (2009). Neural mechanisms of

attentional shifts due to irrelevant spatial and numerical cues. Neuropsychologia.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2009.05.011

[73] Liu-Shuang, J., Norcia, A. M., & Rossion, B. (2014). An objective index of individual

face discrimination in the right occipito-temporal cortex by means of fast periodic

oddball stimulation. Neuropsychologia, 52(1), 57–72.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2013.10.022

[74] De Keyser, R., Mouraux, A., Quek, G. L., Torta, D. M., & Legrain, V. (2018). Fast

periodic visual stimulation to study tool-selective processing in the human brain.

Experimental Brain Research, 236(10), 2751–2763.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s00221-018-5331-2

[75] Lochy, A., Van Belle, G., & Rossion, B. (2015). A robust index of lexical

representation in the left occipito-temporal cortex as evidenced by EEG responses

to fast periodic visual stimulation. Neuropsychologia, 66, 18–31.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2014.11.007

[76] Lochy, A., Van Reybroeck, M., & Rossion, B. (2016). Left cortical specialization for

visual letter strings predicts rudimentary knowledge of letter-sound association in

preschoolers. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 113(30), 8544–

8549. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1520366113

[77] Guillaume, M., Mejias, S., Rossion, B., Dzhelyova, M., & Schiltz, C. (2018). A rapid,

objective and implicit measure of visual quantity discrimination. Neuropsychologia,

111(February), 180–189. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2018.01.044

[78] Rossion, B. (2014). Understanding individual face discrimination by means of fast

periodic visual stimulation. *Experimental Brain Research*, *232*(6), 1599-1621.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s00221-014-3934-9

[79] Squires, N. K., Squires, K. C., & Hillyard, S. A. (1975). Two varieties of long-latency

positive waves evoked by unpredictable auditory stimuli in man.

Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology, 38(4), 387–401.

https://doi.org/10.1016/0013-4694(75)90263-1

[80] Dehaene. (1992). Varieties of numerical abilities. Cognition, 44, 1–42.

[81] Thioux, M., Pesenti, M., Costes, N., De Volder, A., & Seron, X. (2005). Task-

independent semantic activation for numbers and animals. Cognitive Brain

Research, 24(2), 284–290. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogbrainres.2005.02.009

[82] De Vos, T. (1992). *Test voor het vaststellen van het rekenvaardigheidsniveau der*

elementaire bewerkingen (automatisering) voor het basis en voortgezet onderwijs :

Handleiding [Test to determine the mathematics ability level for elementary

operations (automatization) in primary and secondary education : Manual].

Nijmegen, the Netherlands: Berkhout.

[83] Brainard, D. H. (1997). The Psychophysics Toolbox. Spatial Vision, 10(4), 433–436.

https://doi.org/10.1163/156856897X00357

[84] Kleiner, M., Brainard, D. H., Pelli, D. G., Broussard, C., Wolf, T., & Niehorster, D.

(2007). What's new in Psychtoolbox-3? Perception, 36, S14.

https://doi.org/10.1068/v070821

[85] Pelli, D. G. (1997). The VideoToolbox software for visual psychophysics:

transforming numbers into movies. Spatial Vision, 10(4), 437–442.

https://doi.org/10.1163/156856897X00366

[86] Lochy, A., de Heering, A., & Rossion, B. (2017). The non-linear development of the

right hemispheric specialization for human face perception. Neuropsychologia.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2017.06.029

[87] Norcia, A. M., Appelbaum, L. G., Ales, J. M., Cottereau, B. R., & Rossion, B. (2015). The

steady-state visual evoked potential in vision research: A review. Journal of Vision,

15(6), 4. https://doi.org/10.1167/15.6.4

[88] Dzhelyova, M., & Rossion, B. (2014). Supra-additive contribution of shape and

surface information to individual face discrimination as revealed by fast periodic

visual stimulation. Journal of Vision, 14(14), 15. https://doi.org/10.1167/14.14.15

[89] Dzhelyova, M., & Rossion, B. (2014b). The effect of parametric stimulus size

variation on individual face discrimination indexed by fast periodic visual

stimulation. BMC Neuroscience, 15. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2202-15-87

[90] Retter, T. L., & Rossion, B. (2016). Uncovering the neural magnitude and spatio-

temporal dynamics of natural image categorization in a fast visual stream.

Neuropsychologia, 91, 9–28.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2016.07.028

[91] Ansari, D., Garcia, N., Lucas, E., Hamon, K., & Dhital, B. (2005). Neural correlates of

symbolic number processing in children and adults. Neuroreport, 16(16), 1769–

1773. Retrieved from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16237324

[92] Holloway, I. D., Price, G. R., & Ansari, D. (2010). Common and segregated neural

pathways for the processing of symbolic and nonsymbolic numerical magnitude: An

fMRI study. NeuroImage, 49(1), 1006–1017.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.07.071

[93] Cipolotti, L., Butterworth, B., & Denes, G. (1991). A specific deficit for numbers in a

case of dense acalculia. Brain, 114(6), 2619–2637.

https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/114.6.2619

[94] Takayama, Y., Sugishita, M., Akiguchi, I., & Kimura, J. (1994). Isolated Acalculia due

to Left Parietal Lesion. Archives of Neurology, 51(3), 286–291.

https://doi.org/10.1001/archneur.1994.00540150084021

[95] Evans, J. S. B. (2007). On the resolution of conflict in dual process theories of

reasoning. *Thinking and Reasoning.* 13, 321–339. doi: 10.1080/13546780601

008825

[96] Evans, J. S. B. (2008). Dual-processing accounts of reasoning, judgment, and social

cognition. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* 59, 255–278. doi:

10.1146/annurev.psych.59.103006.093629

[97] Evans, J. S. B., and Stanovich, K. E. (2013). Dual-process theories of higher cognition:

advancing the debate. *Perspect. Psychol. Sci.* 8, 223–241. doi:

10.1177/1745691612460685

[98] Dehaene, S., Piazza, M., Pinel, P., & Cohen, L. (2003). Three parietal circuits for

number processing. *Cognitive Neuropsychology*, *20*(3-6), 487-506.

https://doi.org/10.1080/02643290244000239

[99] Hsu, Y.-F., & Szücs, D. (2012). The time course of symbolic number adaptation :

Oscillatory EEG activity and event-related potential analysis. *NeuroImage*, *59*(4),

3103-3109. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2011.11.017