

1 **Abstract**

2 Human prefrontal cortex (PFC) constitutes the structural basis underlying flexible cognitive control,
3 where mixed-selective neural populations encode multiple task-features to guide subsequent
4 behavior. The mechanisms by which the brain simultaneously encodes multiple task-relevant
5 variables while minimizing interference from task-irrelevant features remain unknown. Leveraging
6 intracranial recordings from the human PFC, we first demonstrate that competition between co-
7 existing representations of past and present task variables incurs a behavioral switch cost. Our
8 results reveal that this interference between past and present states in the PFC is resolved through
9 coding partitioning into distinct low-dimensional neural states; thereby strongly attenuating
10 behavioral switch costs. In sum, these findings uncover a fundamental coding mechanism that
11 constitutes a central building block of flexible cognitive control.

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1 Introduction

2 In a complex and ever-changing environment, humans need to dynamically adjust their actions
3 according to immediate contextual demands. For example, switching between braking and
4 accelerating in a traffic jam requires rapid shifts between competing actions. The ability to flexibly
5 adjust in an ever-changing environment hallmarks flexible cognitive control. However, rapid shifts
6 between competing actions often incur a behavioral cost, i.e. slower and more error-prone
7 responses following a shift from one action to another.

8 Multiple lines of research in humans and animal models provide converging evidence that
9 the prefrontal cortex (PFC) constitutes the key structure that enables cognitive flexibility to guide
10 adaptive goal-directed behavior¹⁻³. To support flexible operations, PFC neurons are not feature-
11 specific, but instead exhibit mixed selectivity and context-dependent coding of task features (i.e.
12 sensory stimuli, abstract rules or actions)⁴⁻⁷. Mixed-selective neurons contribute to multiple
13 cognitive operations by participating in different transient coalitions of cell assemblies.
14 Consequently, information encoded by mixed-selective neurons can only be understood at the level
15 of population activity. This notion is now referred to as the population doctrine, which posits that
16 neural populations reflect the fundamental unit of computation in the brain^{8,9}. The population
17 doctrine further postulates that rapid switches between distinct cognitive operations can efficiently
18 be implemented by adjusting the population geometry, i.e. the re-configuration of cell assemblies.
19 A key advantage of this model is that neural representations that evolve in parallel can be integrated
20 into a unified, conjunctive representation¹⁰⁻¹². In support of this hypothesis, recent findings
21 demonstrated that conjunctive coding schemes enable the flexible context-dependent remapping
22 between sensory inputs and behavioral outputs¹²; predicting behavioral performance on a trial-by-
23 trial basis¹⁰.

24 However, parallel encoding of different variables implies that not all encoded features are
25 behaviorally-relevant, hence, raising the question if and how encoding of task-irrelevant (latent)
26 factors impacts subsequent behavior. Previously, it had been observed that past choices reflect
27 typical latent factors, which impact current task-relevant representations¹³⁻¹⁶. At the behavioral level
28 previous choices modulate subsequent behavior (i.e. serial response bias^{13,16-18}). Integration of
29 knowledge about past choices is oftentimes desirable to correct past mistakes¹⁹, but might cause
30 interference when consecutive choices are independent, thus, giving rise to behavioral switch
31 costs²⁰⁻²². In this scenario, a conjunctive neural code that integrates information about the past is
32 detrimental for behavioral performance¹⁵. To date, little is known about how the human brain
33 integrates multiple task-relevant representations, while minimizing interference from task-
34 irrelevant, latent factors, in order to guide subsequent behavior. Theoretical work has proposed
35 that neural populations can reduce interference by orthogonalizing competing representations^{23,24}.
36 This change in population geometry enables downstream regions to flexibly readout information
37 about competing states from the same neural population¹². Evidence in support of this notion stems

1 from a recent study in mouse auditory cortex that demonstrated that past and present sensory
2 representations reside in orthogonal subspaces²⁵. However, it remained unaddressed if the
3 identified neural representations had immediate behavioral relevance. Hence, to date it remains
4 unknown if similar principles also apply to the human brain, especially in higher-order association
5 cortex and whether orthogonalization constitutes a key mechanism to reduce interference between
6 competing neural representations²⁶.

7 Here, we addressed these outstanding questions by directly recording intracranial
8 electroencephalography (iEEG) from the human prefrontal and motor cortex while participants
9 performed a modified stop-signal task that enabled disentangling how competing neural
10 representations between past states and current goals influence human decision-making. We
11 leveraged the power of analyzing high-frequency activity (HFA) as a direct approximation of local
12 neural population activity²⁷⁻²⁹. We specifically tested if neural population activity in PFC and motor
13 cortex simultaneously encode information about the past and present. The key question was
14 whether overlapping neural representations account for behavioral switch costs between
15 movement inhibition and execution. We hypothesized that efficient distributed computing at the
16 level of population activity constituted a core mechanism to avoid interference between distinct
17 latent factors. Collectively, we tested whether efficient cortical partitioning of distinct neural
18 representations enables flexible cognitive control.

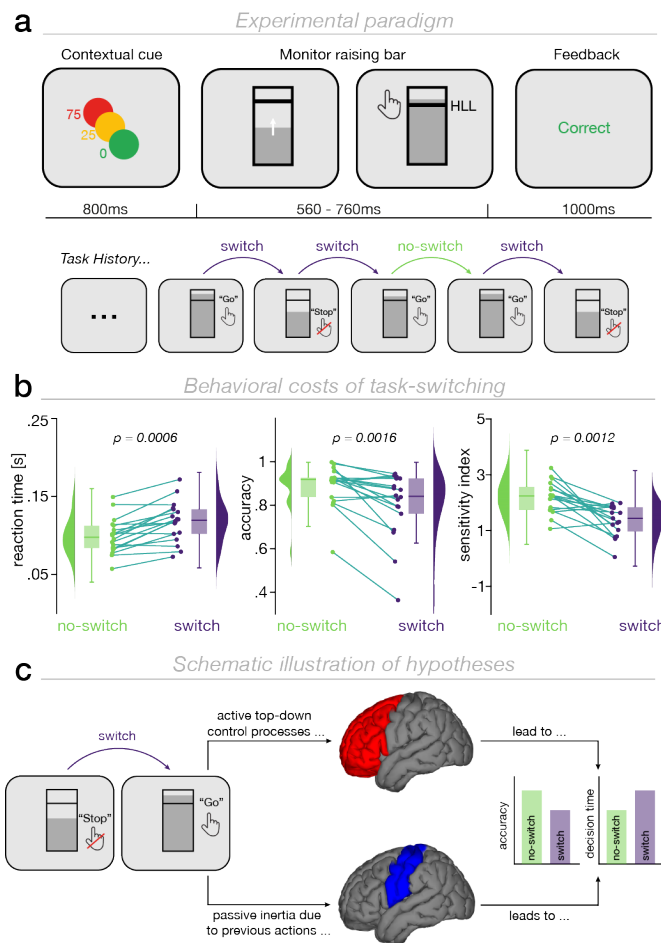
19 20 **Results**

21 We recorded intracranial EEG (iEEG) from 19 pharmaco-resistant patients with epilepsy (33.73
22 years \pm 12.52, mean \pm SD; 7 females) who performed a predictive motor task (**Fig. 1a**). Participants
23 were instructed to closely track a vertically moving target and respond as soon as the moving target
24 reached a predefined spatial location (*go-trials*). In a subset of trials, the moving target stopped
25 prematurely and participants were instructed to withhold their response (*stop-trials*). A contextual
26 cue indicated the likelihood of a premature stop (referred to as *predictive context*; *Methods*).
27 Previously, we demonstrated that the human PFC integrates current contextual information to guide
28 goal-directed behavior³⁰. Additionally, human behavior is also strongly modulated by a variety of
29 latent factors, such as the tendency to systematically repeat choices, known as history-dependent
30 serial biases^{13,17,31}. We here investigated the neural mechanisms underlying such history-
31 dependent serial biases, quantified as the behavioral switch costs between distinct action demands
32 – initiation or inhibition of a goal-directed movement. Thus, task-switching was defined based on
33 the congruency between the trial type (*stop/go-trial*) at trial n and $n-1$ (*congruent* = *go-trial* followed
34 by *go-trial*; *incongruent* = *stop-trial* followed by *go-trial*).

35 36 **Shifting between competing task demands has a behavioral switch cost**

37 To assess whether task-switching modulated behavioral performance, we contrasted reaction time,

1 accuracy and d-prime (d') between *switch-* and *no-switch-trials*. Participants were significantly
 2 slower ($P = 0.0006$; Cohen's $d = 1.29$; $+19.02 \pm 14.73$ ms; mean \pm SD; Wilcoxon rank sum test; **Fig.**
 3 **1b**) and made significantly more mistakes after *switch-* as compared to *no-switch-trials* ($P = 0.0016$;
 4 Cohen's $d = -0.9$; $+8.99 \pm 9.94\%$; mean \pm SD; **Fig. 1b**). Furthermore, task-switching across
 5 successive trials reduced participants' sensitivity to correctly decide between two action
 6 alternatives (d' ; $P = 0.0012$; Cohen's $d = -1.04$; **Fig. 1b**). We further confirmed that our behavioral
 7 analyses were not confounded by regressor collinearity (*Methods*; **Supplementary Fig. 1**). We
 8 observed a main effect of *predictive context* and *task-history* on reaction time (*task-history*: 95% CI
 9 = [0.016 0.026], $P < 0.0001$; *predictive context*: 95% CI = [0.0005 0.0006], $P < 0.0001$) and accuracy
 10 (*task-history*: 95% CI = [-0.99 -0.37], $P < 0.0001$; *predictive context*: 95% CI = [-0.03 -0.02], $P <$
 11 0.0001). Thus, *predictive context* and *task-history* independently modulated behavior.
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14 **Experimental design, behavioral performance and schematic hypotheses.** *a, Top*: participants performed
 15 a predictive motor task where they had to track a vertically moving target and respond as soon as the target
 16 reached a pre-defined lower limit (*go-trials*; hit-lower limit, HLL; black horizontal line). At the start of every trial,
 17 participants received a contextual cue indicating the likelihood (0, 25 and 75% likelihood; green, orange, red
 18 circle, respectively) that the moving target would stop prematurely requiring participants to withhold their
 19 response (*stop-trials*). Feedback was provided at the end of each trial. *Bottom*: task-switching was defined as
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1 the trial-type (*stop/go-trial*) congruency between two successive trials (*Methods*). **b**, Behavioral performance
2 as a function of task-switching. *Left*: reaction time was significantly increased after switch trials (*go-trial*
3 *preceded by a stop-trial*) as compared to no-switch trials (*go-trial preceded by a go-trial*). Accuracy (*middle*)
4 and *d-prime* (*right*) significantly decreased after switch as compared to no-switch trials. Grey lines display
5 individual participants, density-plots display the data distribution and boxplots show the median (horizontal
6 line), the first/third quartile (upper/lower edge of box) and the minima/maxima (vertical lines). **c**, Schematic
7 illustration of hypothetical outcomes. In the first scenario, switch costs may reflect the time needed to engage
8 active top-down control processes in the prefrontal cortex to reconfigure the cognitive system. In the second
9 scenario, switch costs could reflect persistent inhibition (passive inertia) of motor areas after withholding a
10 response.
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12 **Overlapping neural populations encode past and present states in human PFC**

13 To dissect the neural mechanisms underlying behavioral switch costs, we simultaneously recorded
14 neural activity from electrodes located in the human PFC (26 ± 18.74 electrodes per participant;
15 mean \pm SD) and motor cortex (14.83 ± 15.23 electrodes). Based on theoretical models³²⁻³⁴, two
16 possible scenarios were considered: (1) Switch costs could reflect the time needed to engage
17 active top-down control processes in PFC (**Fig. 1c**) or alternatively, (2) switch costs might result
18 from prolonged inhibition of motor cortex between switching from movement-inhibition to
19 movement-execution (**Fig. 1c**). In order to differentiate these models, we quantified the univariate
20 neural information (unsigned, bias-corrected percent explained variance; *Methods*) about *task-*
21 *history* and *predictive context* in PFC and motor cortex. We orthogonalized the different factors to
22 disentangle their unique behavioral relevance. We observed significant context- and history-
23 dependent neural information in PFC (**Fig. 2a-d**; *task-history*: $P_{cluster} < 0.0001$, Cohen's $d = 1.81$;
24 *predictive context*: $P_{cluster} < 0.0001$, Cohen's $d = 2.07$; cluster permutation test) and motor cortex
25 (*task-history*: $P_{cluster} < 0.0001$, Cohen's $d = 1.46$; *predictive context*: $P_{cluster} = 0.005$, Cohen's $d =$
26 2.41).

27 Having established a robust coding of *predictive context* and *task-history* in the prefrontal-motor
28 network, we then investigated when neural information coding predicted individual switch costs in
29 behavior using a sliding window correlation analysis (*Methods*). We hypothesized anti-correlated
30 effects of context- and history-dependent neural information on behavior, since an optimal agent
31 should only rely on the currently relevant task context and disregard uninformative features such
32 as *task-history* to efficiently guide decisions.

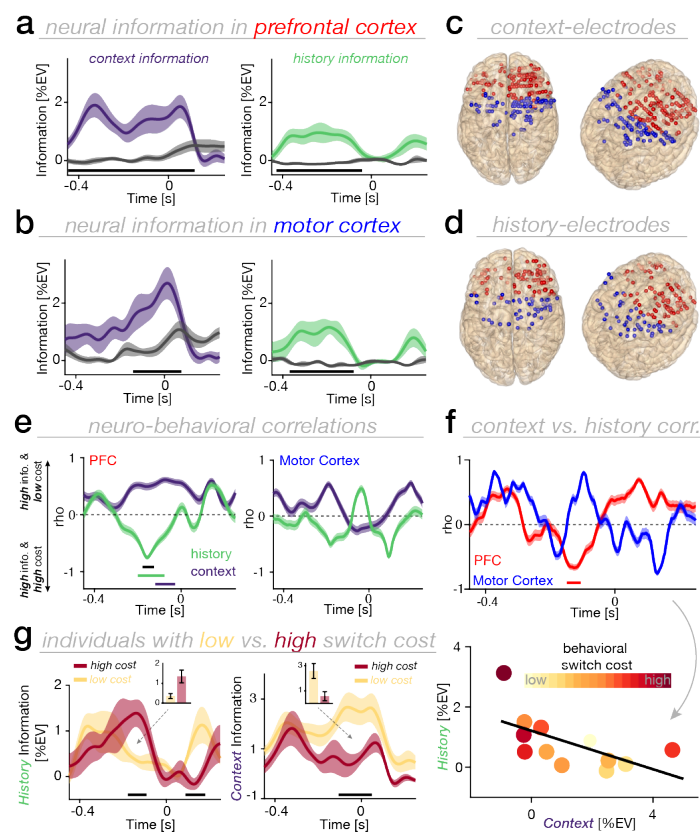
33 In line with our hypothesis, strong neural coding of context predicted lower switch costs, whereas
34 strong neural coding of *task-history* indexed increased behavioral costs (**Fig. 2e**; **Supplementary**
35 **Fig. S2**). Importantly, a significant neuro-behavioral correlation was only observed in PFC
36 (*predictive context*: $P = 0.039$, $r = 0.59$; *task-history*: $P = 0.013$, $r = -0.57$; cluster permutation test),
37 but not in motor cortex (*predictive context*: no cluster; *task-history*: $P = 0.434$). Furthermore, this
38 association differed significantly between *predictive context* and *task-history* for PFC ($P = 0.028$;
39 *motor cortex*: $P = 0.854$; FDR-corrected³⁵; black horizontal line in **Fig. 2e**; *Methods*).

40 Next, we quantified the link between information coding of *predictive context* and *task-history* (**Fig.**
41 **2f**; *Methods*), which revealed a robust negative correlation between context- and history-dependent

1 neural information in PFC ($P = 0.004$, $r = -0.64$; cluster permutation test), but not in motor cortex (P
 2 $= 0.227$). Note, however, that the correlation between PFC and motor cortex did not significantly
 3 differ ($P = 0.183$; *Methods*).

4 To further illustrate the group-level correlation between information coding and behavioral switch
 5 costs, we performed a median split analysis (**Fig. 2g**). Participants with low switch costs revealed
 6 stronger neural coding for *predictive context*, but weaker neural coding for *task-history*. The
 7 opposite relationship was observed for participants with high switch costs (*predictive context*: $P_{cluster}$
 8 $= 0.026$, Cohen's $d = -1.6$; *task-history*: $P_{cluster} = 0.084$, Cohen's $d = 1.49$; cluster permutation).
 9 Collectively, these findings indicate that limited neural resources impose a competition between
 10 feature-coding of past and present states and that over-representation of past states comes at
 11 substantial behavioral costs.

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 15 **Fig. 2. Behavioral dissociation of neural dynamics encoding the past and present.** **a**, *Left*: Time course
 16 of context-dependent information averaged across all context-encoding electrodes in PFC. *Right*: Time course
 17 of history-dependent neural information averaged across all history-encoding electrodes in PFC. Lines and
 18 shaded regions show the mean and SEM. Grey traces indicate the time course of neural information across
 19 non-encoding electrodes. The lower horizontal black line shows the temporal extent of significant neural
 20 information. **b**, Same as (**a**), but for motor cortex. **c**, Context-encoding electrodes overlaid on a standardized
 21 brain in MNI coordinates for PFC (red) and motor cortex (blue). Overall, 165 electrodes in PFC and 89
 22 electrodes in motor cortex carried significant context-dependent information. **d**, History-encoding electrodes,
 23 same conventions as in (**c**). *Task-history* was significantly encoded in 96 electrodes in PFC and 48 electrodes
 24 in motor cortex. **e**, *Left*: Temporally resolved correlation between neural information and individual switch costs

1 (accuracy; see **Supplementary Fig. 2** for reaction time) for PFC (*left*) and motor cortex (*right*). Lines and
2 shaded regions show the mean and 95% CIs of bootstrapped correlation coefficients (*Methods*). The lower
3 colored horizontal lines show the temporal extent of significant correlation for context- (purple) and history-
4 dependent (green) neural information. The black line shows the temporal extent of significant differences in
5 neuro-behavioral correlation between *predictive context* and -history. **f**, *Top*: Temporally resolved correlation
6 between context- and history-dependent neural information for PFC (red) and motor cortex (blue). The red
7 horizontal line shows the temporal extent of significant correlation between context- and history-dependent
8 information in PFC. *Bottom*: correlation between context- and history-dependent information based on the
9 significant temporal cluster shown in the top panel of (**f**). Filled dots represent individual participants; color-
10 coded by their individual switch costs. **g**, Median split analysis based on individual switch costs (shown for
11 accuracy) for history- (*left*) and context-dependent information (*right*) in PFC. The lower horizontal black line
12 highlights the temporal extent of significant differences between individuals with a low (yellow) versus high
13 (red) switch cost. Lines and shaded regions show the mean and SEM. The small insets depict the averaged
14 neural information across significant clusters for individuals with high versus low switch costs.
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16 **Competitive coding of past and present states in human PFC predicts behavior**

17 Having established that neural information coding about past and present states is anti-correlated
18 and exerts dissociable effects on behavior, we tested whether a competitive coding scheme
19 between past and present states in the human PFC could account for individual switch costs. Based
20 on the highly distributed nature of feature-coding in human PFC (cf. **Fig. 2c/d**), a multivariate data
21 analysis approach was used to test this prediction (**Fig. 3a**; *Methods*). We employed a variant of
22 targeted-dimensionality reduction (TDR³⁶). In brief, linear regression was used to determine how
23 *predictive context* and *task-history* modulate neural activity at every electrode. Subsequently, low-
24 dimensional subspaces that capture *context*- and *history*-dependent variance in neural activity,
25 were identified using principal component analysis (PCA). Consistent with previous findings
26 demonstrating low-dimensional neural representations of task features³⁶⁻³⁸, we observed that
27 neural coding of *predictive context* and *task-history* was restricted to a low-dimensional subspace
28 (**Fig. 3b**). The activity subspaces in PFC spanned by the first five PCs captured $97.35 \pm 0.76\%$
29 (mean \pm SD) of the variance for *predictive context* and $97.33 \pm 0.83\%$ of the variance for *task*-
30 *history* without significant differences in dimensionality between the subspaces (**Fig. 3b**; Wilcoxon
31 rank sum test, $P = 0.952$; comparable for different numbers of components).

32 Activity within these subspaces reflects time-varying neural population dynamics predictive of past
33 and present states. Based on the principle of communication subspaces³⁹, we tested whether the
34 magnitude of partitioned information between the feature-subspaces predicts individual switch
35 costs. Therefore, we computed the time-resolved multidimensional distance between the two
36 coding trajectories (projected into a common subspace; *Methods*) and extracted the magnitude of
37 maximal divergence between the population coding trajectories (**Fig. 3b** right; *Methods*). In line
38 with our hypothesis, a stronger coding subspace partition (less overlap between coding subspaces)
39 predicted reduced switch costs (**Fig. 3c**; $P = 0.015$, Spearman $r = -0.64$, $N = 14$; **Supplementary**
40 **Fig. 3**).

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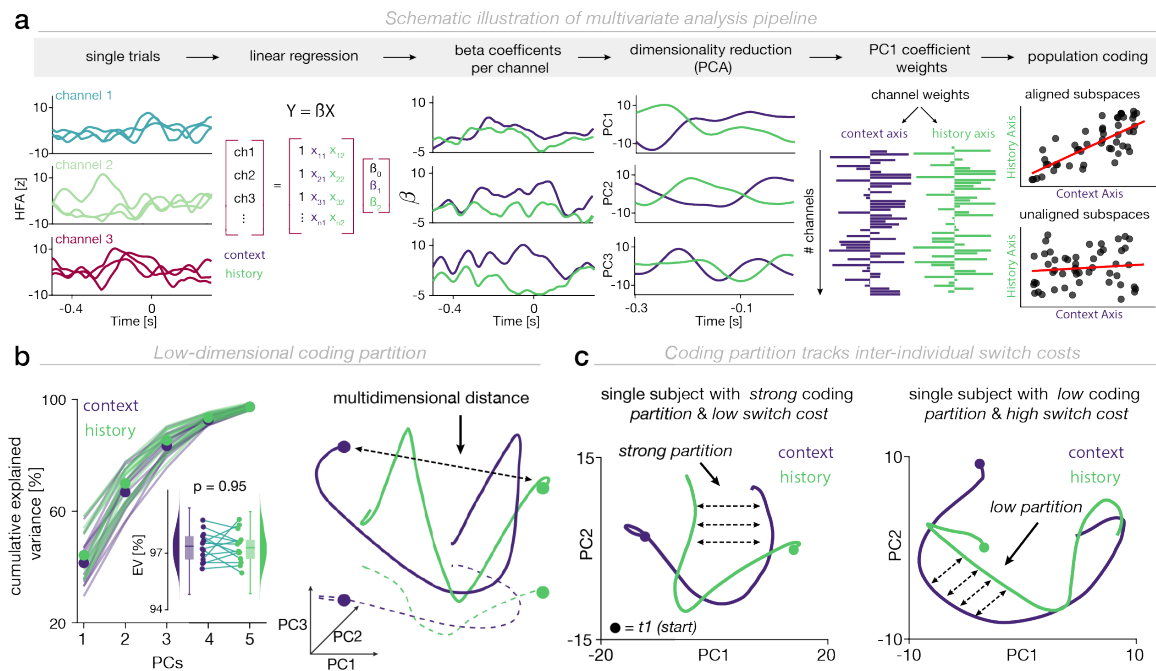


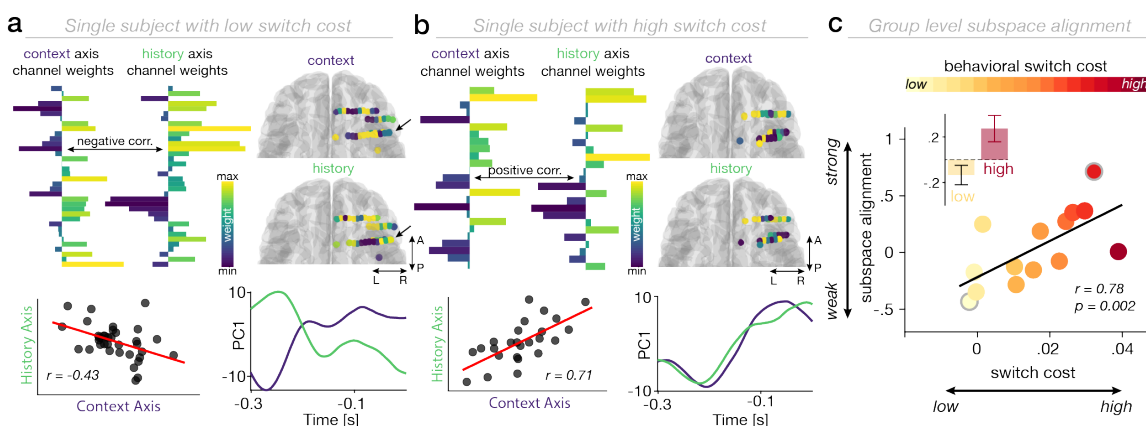
Fig. 3. Multivariate data analysis approach to identify low dimensional coding subspaces. **a**, Schematic illustration of the multivariate analysis applied to estimate population coding subspaces (see Methods). **b**, *Left*: Cumulative explained variance estimated using the first five PCs for history- and context-coding subspaces. Small inset illustrates that the dimensionality of context- and history-coding subspaces does not differ. *Right*: Schematic of two coding trajectories through a three-dimensional state space. The black dotted line reflects the multidimensional distance between the two trajectories at time $t = 1$. The colored dotted lines denote the projection line onto PC1 and PC2. **c**, *Left*: Single subject example with a low switch cost and antagonistically evolving context- and history-dependent coding trajectories projected onto the first two PCs. *Right*: Single subject example with a high switch cost and strongly resembling coding trajectories projected onto the first two PCs (see Supplementary Fig. 3 for group-level correlation)

16 Flexible change in population geometry reduces switch costs

17 What might be a computational mechanism that enables neural ensembles to partition distinct
 18 coding features and thereby allows downstream readers to robustly decode feature-specific
 19 information? A viable mechanism would be a flexible, feature-dependent set of weights between
 20 upstream and downstream neural populations supporting robust read-out of feature-specific
 21 information. To test this prediction, we quantified the *subspace alignment* (Fig. 3a; Methods)
 22 between the coding subspaces accounting for variance of *past* and *present task-features*. A
 23 positively aligned subspace indicates that neural ensembles share the same low-dimensional
 24 population code for *past* and *present* states (e.g. similar local populations contributing to the
 25 respective coding). Consequently, downstream populations would not be able to untangle
 26 information about past and present states, ultimately leading to information interference between
 27 them. In line with this proposed mechanism, we observed that a stronger alignment between
 28 subspaces representing past and present states comes with a stronger individual switch cost ($P =$
 29 0.002, Spearman $r = 0.78$, $N = 14$; Fig. 4a-c). Taken together, this set of observations suggests

1 that conjunctive coding of the past and present leads to mutual interference between the past and
 2 present in the human PFC, ultimately deteriorating behavioral performance; whereas, efficient
 3 coding in distinct population subspaces benefits behavior and enables rapid switching and might
 4 therefore, constitute a central mechanism underlying cognitive flexibility.

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Fig. 4. Low-dimensional coding partition predicts individual switch costs. **a**, Example of subspace alignment in PFC for a participant with a low behavioral switch cost. *Top Left*: Channel weights obtained for the dominant mode (PC1) across context (*left*) and history axes (*right*). *Top Right*: Channel weights obtained for the dominant mode across context (*top*) and history axes (*bottom*) overlaid on an individual brain. *Bottom Left*: Strong negative correlation between channel weights projecting onto the dominant mode across context and history axes. *Bottom Right*: Temporal evolution of low-dimensional context- and history-coding subspaces, shown for the dominant mode. Note the anticorrelated traces. **b**, Example of subspace alignment in PFC for a participant with low behavioral switch costs. Same conventions as in **(a)**. **c**, Group-level correlation reveals a positive relationship between subspace alignment strength and individual switch cost. Strong subspace alignment is associated with a high switch cost whereas weak subspace alignment is associated with a low switch cost. Outlined circles in grey indicate the example subjects in **(a)** and **(b)**. The inset highlights the strength of subspace alignment based on a median split for participants with a low (yellow) and high (red) switch cost.

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23 Discussion

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Humans rapidly switch between actions to meet shifting task demands or internal goals⁴⁰. Flexibly shifting between competing task demands incurs a *switch cost* reflected in slower and more error-prone behavioral responses^{21,41}. Despite robust behavioral evidence of switch costs^{22,41-43}, their underlying neural mechanisms and neurocomputational principles to overcome interference and diminish switch costs remain elusive. Prior studies have implicated various regions in switching, including prefrontal^{1,32,42,44,45} and sensorimotor regions⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹. Yet, the majority of evidence was obtained from single unit recordings or local field potentials in rodents⁴⁵ or non-human primates^{1,32,50-52}. Thus, it remains unclear if similar principles apply to the human brain. Here, we bridged this gap using intracranial recordings from the human prefrontal and motor cortex. Our findings demonstrate that (I) neural coding of past and present states coexists in the human prefrontal and motor cortex (**Fig. 2a-d**), and that (II) coding competition between past and present

1 states manifests in switch costs (**Fig. 2e-g**). Crucially, (III) the human PFC solves the interference
2 problem by efficiently partitioning information about the past and present into distinct low-
3 dimensional neural states (**Fig. 3c; Fig. 4a-b**). Finally, (IV) inter-individual variability of low-
4 dimensional coding partition predicts inter-individual variability in switch costs (**Fig. 4c**). In sum,
5 these findings reveal a fundamental coding principle that might constitute a central building block
6 of human cognitive flexibility.

7 **Neural coding of past and present behavioral states in human PFC and motor cortex**

8 Prior studies have demonstrated that task-relevant features are encoded in a distributed network
9 of brain regions, including frontoparietal^{36,53-55} and sensorimotor regions⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸. Recently, it had been
10 shown that the conjunctive neural representation of goal-relevant features is critical for action
11 selection in humans¹⁰. However, despite mounting evidence emphasizing the strong influence that
12 past states can exert over goal-relevant present states (*serial biases*), little is known about the
13 intricate interplay between past and present state representations in the human brain. Using direct
14 brain recordings in humans, we demonstrate that neural information about the past and present
15 co-exist in space and time in the human prefrontal and motor cortex. Moreover, univariate
16 information coding revealed similar temporal profiles distributed across both regions. These results
17 go substantially beyond recent evidence obtained in animal models²⁶ and show that neural
18 information about the past and present is not unique to the PFC, but is equally represented in the
19 human motor cortex. In sum, these results demonstrate a widely distributed coding of past and
20 present states across the prefrontal-motor hierarchy.

21 **Competition among past and present states in the human PFC manifest in switch costs**

22 When the past does not predict the future, an optimal agent should in principle discard irrelevant
23 information about the past in order to efficiently guide currently relevant decisions. Prior studies
24 across different species have identified several neural signatures that correlated with past events
25 and choice history during perceptual decision-making, highlighting the key roles of prefrontal^{59,60},
26 parietal^{18,61,62} or motor^{18,63} cortex in shaping subsequent behavior. Most previous studies focused
27 on neural signatures of past states without accounting for co-emerging neural signatures of present
28 states. This precluded strong inference about how co-existing neural dynamics of past and present
29 states jointly shape behavior. Here, we overcome this limitation by combining human iEEG
30 recordings with information theoretical approaches to quantify the neural information about past
31 and present states directly from HFA as a proxy of multi-unit activity^{27,28,64}. We demonstrate a
32 behaviorally relevant dissociation between neural coding of past and present states. Specifically,
33 the strength of neural coding of past and present information predicts individual switch costs. Strong
34 neural coding of the present and weak neural coding of the past predicts low switch costs whereas
35 the opposite pattern increases switch costs. These results suggest that limited neural resources
36 give rise to a biased competition between co-existing representations of past and present states:

1 An over-representation of the past interferes with goal-directed behavior in the present and is
2 detrimental for behavior.

3 **Efficient low-dimensional coding partition of past and present mitigates switch costs**

4 Is there a neural mechanism that reduces mutual interference between competing representations?
5 Theoretical work has proposed that neural populations might resolve interference by
6 orthogonalizing competing representations^{23,24}. In this way, the same neural population encodes a
7 competing set of stimuli, but keeps their representations separable in neural state space. This
8 enables downstream populations to optimally decode information about a particular state. Evidence
9 supporting this notion has been obtained in two recent animal model studies^{25,26}. These studies
10 demonstrated that both sensory (auditory cortex²⁵) and association regions (medial PFC²⁶) can
11 maintain competing internal or external inputs by generating orthogonal representations. Yet,
12 whether these representations have immediate behavioral relevance remained unaddressed. Here,
13 our results reveal that the human PFC efficiently resolves mutual interference by partitioning
14 information about past and present states into distinct low-dimensional subspaces. Importantly, the
15 magnitude of overlap between past and present states predicts inter-individual switch costs. These
16 results provide evidence that the segregation of competing representations into distinct population
17 subspaces delineates an efficient coding mechanism that has immediate behavioral relevance
18 constituting an integral component of flexible cognitive control.

19 **Conclusion.** Collectively, these findings uncover a fundamental computational principle how the
20 human PFC resolves interference between competing past and present information. The results
21 establish that competition between overlapping representations of past and present states can be
22 reduced by partitioning state-specific information into non-overlapping, low-dimensional coding
23 subspaces.

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1 **Materials and Methods**

2 **Participants.** We obtained intracranial recordings from a total of 19 pharmaco-resistant epilepsy
3 patients (33.73 years \pm 12.52, mean \pm SD; 7 females) who underwent presurgical monitoring and
4 were implanted with intracranial depth electrodes (DIXI Medical, France). Data from one patient
5 were excluded from neural analyses because a low-pass filter was applied at 50 Hz during data
6 export from the clinical system, thus, precluding analyses focusing on high-frequency activity. All
7 patients were recruited from the Department of Neurosurgery, Oslo University Hospital. Electrode
8 implantation site was solely determined by clinical considerations and all patients provided written
9 informed consent to participate in the study. All procedures were approved by the Regional
10 Committees for Medical and Health Research Ethics, Region North Norway (#2015/175) and the
11 Data Protection Officer at Oslo University Hospital as well as the University Medical Center
12 Tuebingen (049/2020BO2) and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

13 **iEEG Data Acquisition.** Intracranial EEG data were acquired at Oslo University Hospital at a
14 sampling frequency of 512 Hz using the NicoletOne (Nicolet, Natus Neurology Inc., USA) or at a
15 sampling frequency of 16 KHz using the ATLAS (Neuralynx) recording system.

16 **CT and MRI Data Acquisition.** We obtained anonymized postoperative CT scans and pre-surgical
17 MRI scans, which were routinely acquired during clinical care.

18 **Electrode Localization.** Two independent neurologists visually determined all electrode positions
19 based on individual scans in native space. For further visualization, we reconstructed the electrode
20 positions as outlined recently⁶⁵. In brief, the pre-implant MRI and the post-implant CT were
21 transformed into Talairach space. Then we segmented the MRI using Freesurfer 5.3.0⁶⁶ and co-
22 registered the T1 to the CT. 3D electrode coordinates were determined using the Fieldtrip toolbox⁶⁷
23 on the CT scan. Then we warped the aligned electrodes onto a template brain in MNI space for
24 group-level analyses.

25 **Experimental Procedure.** Participants performed a predictive motor task where they had to
26 continuously track a vertically moving target and respond as soon as the target hits or withhold their
27 response if the target stops prior a predefined spatial position using their dominant hand³⁰. Each
28 trial started with a baseline period of 500ms followed by a cue (presented for 800ms centered) that
29 informed participants about the likelihood that the moving target would stop prior to the lower limit
30 (hit lower limit; HLL; **Fig. 1a**). Thus, the predictive cue could be directly translated into the probability
31 that participants had to release the space button (BR) or withhold their response. Participants were
32 instructed to either release the button as soon as the target hits (*go-trials*) or withhold their response
33 if the target stops prior to the HLL (*stop-trials*). We parametrically modulated the likelihood of
34 stopping. A green circle indicated a 0% likelihood, an orange circle indicated a 25% likelihood and
35 a red circle indicated a 75% likelihood that the moving target would stop prior to the HLL. Upon

1 receiving the predictive cue, participants were able to start the trial in a self-paced manner by
2 pressing the space bar on the keyboard. By pressing the space bar, the target would start moving
3 upwards with constant velocity and reach the HLL after 560 – 580ms. The upper boundary was
4 reached after 740 – 760ms, thus, leaving a response window of 160ms between the HLL and the
5 upper boundary. If participants released the button within this 160ms interval, the trial was
6 considered as correct. Trials in which the button was released either before or after this interval
7 were considered as incorrect. Feedback was provided after every trial for 1000ms.

8 **Behavioral Analysis.** The effect of *predictive context* on behavioral performance has been
9 extensively reported in a previous study³⁰. Here, we defined task-switching based on the
10 congruency between the trial type (*stop/go-trial*) at trial *N* and at trial *N-1* (*congruent* = *go-trial*
11 *followed by go-trial*; *incongruent* = *stop-trial followed by go-trial*). Note that, given the experimental
12 setup, the reverse step (*go-trial followed by stop-trial*) was not feasible since our analyses required
13 time-locking relative to the motor response, which was withheld in case of stop-trials. To account
14 for collinearity between various factors (**Supplementary Fig. 1**) on behavioral performance, we
15 employed a generalized linear mixed effect model including *current predictive context* (*likelihood of*
16 *stop*), *past predictive context* (*likelihood of stop in past trial*), *task-history* (*stop/go-trial*), *past choice*
17 (*button release/withhold response*) and *past feedback* (*correct/incorrect*) as fixed-effect predictors,
18 *participants* as random-effects and *response time/accuracy* as response variables.

19 **iEEG Preprocessing.** Intracranial EEG data were demeaned, linearly de-trended, locally re-
20 referenced (bipolar derivations to the next adjacent lateral contact) and if necessary down-sampled
21 to 512 Hz. To remove line noise, data were notch-filtered at 50 Hz and all harmonics. Subsequently,
22 a neurologist visually inspected the raw data for epileptic activity. Channels or epochs with interictal
23 epileptic discharges (IEDs) and other artifacts were removed. We segmented the cleaned data into
24 10 seconds long, partially overlapping trials to prevent edge artifacts due to subsequent filtering.
25 Unless stated otherwise, trials were event locked to the participants' response.

26 **Extraction of High-Frequency Activity (HFA).** The extraction of the high-frequency activity time
27 series was conducted in a three-step process. First, we bandpass-filtered the raw data epochs (10
28 seconds) between 70-150 Hz into eight, non-overlapping 10 Hz wide bins. We then applied the
29 Hilbert transform to obtain the instantaneous amplitude of the filtered time series. In a last step, we
30 normalized the high-frequency traces using a bootstrapped baseline distribution^{68,69}. This involved
31 randomly resampling baseline values (from -0.2 to -0.01s relative to cue onset) 1000 times with
32 replacement and normalizing single high-frequency traces by subtracting the mean and dividing by
33 the standard deviation of the bootstrap distribution. The eight individual high-frequency traces were
34 then averaged to yield a single time series of high-frequency band activity.

1 **Regions of Interest.** We classified electrodes into discrete prefrontal or (pre-)motor electrodes
2 based on anatomical and functional characteristics using the human Brainnetome Atlas⁷⁰ (see
3 **Supplementary Table 1** for details about electrode classification).

4 **Univariate Information Dynamics.** We quantified the information encoded in a neural population
5 about two main factors of interest, *predictive context* and *task-history*, using a well-established
6 information theoretical approach^{55,71-73}. We employed a six-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to
7 quantify the percentage of HFA variance explained by the following task factors: *predictive context*
8 (*likelihood of stop*), *choice*, *past predictive context (likelihood of stop in last trial)*, *task-history (stop*
9 *or go trial)*, *past choice*, *past feedback*. Importantly, due to collinearity between the task factors, an
10 unbalanced ANOVA⁵⁵, that implicitly orthogonalized the different factors, was employed. Thus,
11 variance explained by *task-history* or *predictive context* could not be explained by any other residual
12 regressor. The amount of percent explained variance was quantified using the debiased effect size
13 ω^2 , which is defined as

$$14 \quad \omega^2 = \frac{SS_{between-groups} - (df \times MSE)}{SS_{total} + MSE}$$

15 where SS_{total} reflects the total sum of squares across n trials,

$$16 \quad SS_{total} = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

17 $SS_{between-groups}$ the sum of squares between G groups (e.g. factor levels),

$$18 \quad SS_{between-groups} = \sum_{group}^G n_{group} (\bar{x}_{group} - \bar{x})^2$$

19 MSE the mean square error,

$$20 \quad MSE = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x}_{group})^2$$

21 and df the degrees of freedom specified as $df = G - 1$. We estimated ω^2 using a sliding window
22 of 50ms that was shifted in steps of 2ms to obtain a time course of neural information. This
23 approach is insensitive with respect to the time of task-related activation and to the direction of
24 encoding (i.e., HFA increases or decreases). Electrodes that revealed a significant main effect of
25 *task-history* and/or *predictive context* for at least 10% of the trial length were considered as
26 information-encoding electrodes^{68,71,74,75}. Finally, to minimize inter-individual variance and
27 maximize the sensitivity to identify a temporally consistent pattern that accounts for most of the
28 variance across participants, we used principal component analysis (PCA)^{72,75}. PCA was applied

1 to the F value time series concatenated across participants (channel x time matrix^{30,72,76}). In order
2 to define PCs that explain a significant proportion of variance in the data, we employed non-
3 parametric permutation testing (1000 iterations) to determine the proportion of variance explained
4 by chance. Electrodes that exhibited a strong weight (75th percentile) on any of the high variance-
5 explaining PCs were used for further analyses as outlined recently⁷².

6 The orthogonalized computation of neural information allowed us to further quantify the similarities
7 of information dynamics linked to *predictive context* and *task-history* in a time-resolved manner
8 using spearman correlation. To further link the strength of regressor information to the individual
9 switch costs, we first computed the individual switch cost by subtracting reaction time/accuracy on
10 *no-switch-trials* from reaction time/accuracy on *switch-trials*. In a second step, we then correlated
11 the individual switch cost with the strength of neural information related to *predictive context* or
12 *task-history* in a time-resolved manner. Significance of correlation across time was assessed using
13 cluster-based permutation testing to correct for multiple comparisons (1000 iterations; randomly
14 shuffling participant indices without replacement). To compare two distributions of correlation
15 coefficients, we used Fisher's z-transformation to convert Pearson's r to the normally distributed
16 variable z , based on which the p -value was derived.

17

18 **Multivariate Population Dynamics.** We characterized low-dimensional coding dynamics with
19 respect to *predictive context* and *task-history* using a variant of targeted-dimensionality reduction
20 (TDR³⁶). A multi-variable linear regression was employed to determine how *predictive context* and
21 *task-history* contribute to the response of every electrode in a temporally resolved manner. Here,
22 we included all electrodes with no prior constraint on information strength to estimate latent coding
23 dynamics across the entire sampled population. Subsequently, principal component analysis (PCA)
24 was employed to identify low-dimensional subspaces capturing variance due to *predictive context*
25 and *task-history*. The subsequent population analysis focused on the time window prior to the
26 participants' response (300ms to 0ms; cf. **Fig 2e/f**) to maximize the temporal sensitivity of
27 population coding analysis.

28 Neural coding trajectories. To verify that coding trajectories are low-dimensional, we computed the
29 cumulative explained variance of the first 5 principal components (PCs). We then quantified the
30 Euclidean distance D between coding trajectories for *predictive context* and *task-history* in a
31 temporally resolved manner (window size = 50ms; shift size = 10ms) as

32

$$D(P_{context_t^n}, P_{history_t^n})$$

33 where P represents a point in the context- or history-trajectory embedded a n -dimensional space
34 where n reflects the number of PCs required to cumulatively explain at least 95% of the total
35 variance. Importantly, we first projected the *history-subspace* into the *context-subspace*^{77,78}. We
36 then determined the magnitude of maximal divergence between the two coding trajectories across

1 time to further infer the behavioral relevance of coding separation between *predictive context* and
2 *task-history* on a group level. We excluded participants with less than 10 electrodes per ROI from
3 this analysis to ensure robust PCA estimates.

4 Subspace alignment analysis. In a final step, we computed the alignment of low-dimensional coding
5 subspaces. We used the coefficient matrix based on the PCA approach outlined above which
6 contains the individual channel weights per principal component. We quantified alignment A
7 between low-dimensional context- and history-coding subspaces as the correlation coefficient
8 (Spearman's Rho) between vector C containing the weights of all electrodes n contributing to the
9 subspace defined by *predictive context* and vector H containing the weights of all electrodes n
10 contributing to the subspace defined by *task-history* $A = corr(C_n, H_n)$. We excluded participants
11 with less than 10 electrodes per ROI from this analysis.

12

13 **Statistics.** Unless stated otherwise, we used non-parametric cluster-based permutation testing⁷⁹
14 to analyze data in the time domain (**Fig. 2a/b/e/f**).

15 Neural information. Clusters for neural information time series (**Fig. 2a/b/g**) were formed by
16 thresholding a dependent (**Fig. 2a/b**) or independent (**Fig. 2g**) t-test at a critical alpha of 0.05. We
17 generated a permutation distribution by randomly shuffling encoding vs. non-encoding electrode
18 labels (**Fig. 2a/b**) or condition labels (**Fig. 2g**) and recomputing the cluster statistic. The
19 permutation p-value was obtained by comparing the cluster statistic to the random permutation
20 distribution. Clusters were considered to be significant at $P < 0.05$.

21 Correlation analyses. Clusters for correlation time series (**Fig. 2e/f**) were formed by thresholding
22 the resulting correlation p-values at 0.05. We generated a permutation distribution by randomly
23 shuffling participant labels and recomputing the cluster statistic. The permutation p-value was
24 obtained by comparing the cluster statistic to the random permutation distribution. Clusters were
25 considered to be significant at $P < 0.05$.

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11

12 **Author contributions**

13 Conceptualization: JW, GI, RFH
14 Methodology: JW, GI
15 Investigation: AKS, TE, PL, JI, AOB
16 Visualization: JW, GI
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18 Project administration: TE, AKS, RFH
19 Supervision: RFH
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21 Writing – review & editing: GI, AKS, RTK, TE, AOB, JI, PL

22

23 **Competing interests**

24 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

25

26 **Data availability**

27 Source data is included as Supporting Information. Raw data are available upon request from
28 Anne-Kristin Solbakk (a.k.solbakk@psykologi.uio.no) or Tor Endestad (tendesta@uio.no).

29

30 **Code availability**

31 Freely available software and algorithms used for analysis are listed where applicable. All code will
32 be made publicly available upon publication on GitHub.

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