Temporal dynamics analysis reveals that concurrent working memory load eliminates the Stroop effect through disrupting stimulus-response mapping

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Abstract

Concurrent verbal working memory task can eliminate the color-word Stroop effect. Previous research, based on specific and limited resources, suggested that the disappearance of the conflict effect was due to the memory information preempting the resources for distractors. However, it remains unclear which particular stage of Stroop conflict processing is influenced by working memory loads. In this study, electroencephalography (EEG) recordings with event-related potential (ERP) analyses, time-frequency analyses, multivariate pattern analyses (MVPA), and representational similarity analyses (RSA) were applied to provide an in-depth investigation of the aforementioned issue. Subjects were required to complete the single task (the classical manual color-word Stroop task) and the dual task (the Sternberg working memory task combined with the Stroop task), respectively. Behaviorally, the results indicated that the Stroop effect was eliminated in the dual-task condition. The EEG results showed that the concurrent working memory task did not modulate the P1, N450, and alpha bands. However, it modulated the sustained potential (SP), late theta (740-820 ms), and beta (920-1040 ms) power, showing no difference between congruent and incongruent trials in the dual-task condition but significant difference in the single-task condition. Importantly, the RSA results revealed that the neural activation pattern of the late theta was similar to the response interaction pattern. Together, these findings implied that concurrent working memory task eliminated the Stroop effect through disrupting stimulus-response mapping.

Keywords: Stroop effect; working memory; electroencephalography; multivariate pattern analysis

1. Introduction

It is critical to effectively deal with the conflict between task-relevant and task-irrelevant information to successfully complete goal-directed behaviors. One of the most commonly employed experimental paradigms for evaluating conflict processing is the color-word Stroop task, which is characterized by lower accuracy and/or longer reaction times (RT) in incongruent trials compared to congruent trials (Stroop, 1935). Of note, an interesting phenomenon is that concurrent verbal working memory task can reduce or even eliminate the Stroop conflict (Kim et al., 2005; Luna et al., 2020; Park et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2014). In terms of the load theory based on multiple resources, cognitive resources are limited while specific to different cognitive processes. When substantial resources are allocated to maintaining memory information, the resources required to process same-dimension distractors are occupied, reducing the interference caused by the distractors (Brockhoff et al., 2022; Luna et al., 2020; Park et al., 2007). Although this theory attempts to explain the disappearance of the Stroop conflict, its description remains relatively vague, and it does not further reveal which specific processes are influenced during Stroop processing.

Stroop conflict processing should be understood not as a single process but as multiple successive subprocesses, including stimulus processing, stimulus-response mapping, and response output stage (Banich, 2019; Parris et al., 2022; Viviani et al., 2023). Related research suggests that there might be two possibilities. The first one is that concurrent working memory task primarily decreases the neural encoding of

perceptual visual features, known as the early-stage modulation hypothesis. The

sensory recruitment hypothesis posits that the sensory cortex is crucial for

maintaining visual content by modulating sensory gain, thereby biasing processing

towards relevant stimuli (Hallenbeck et al., 2021; Wolff et al., 2020). Moreover,

several researchers have suggested that the Stroop effect relies more on the input-

driven allocation of attention to perceptual features (Algom et al., 2022; Bugg &

Crump, 2012; Haciahmet et al., 2023; Schmidt, 2019). Accordingly, these views

suggest that working memory maintenance competes for neural resources with the

lower-level visual encoding of distractors, hindering conflict formation at an early

stage. Besides, the second one is that concurrent working memory task primarily

weaken higher-level processing, termed the late-stage modulation hypothesis. The

theoretical underpinning is that the working memory system comprises not only

sensory buffers but also a central system (Baddeley, 2012) that mainly recruits the

prefrontal cortex, partially overlapping with the brain networks involved in Stroop

conflict processing (Friehs et al., 2020; Okayasu et al., 2023). Furthermore, some

research indicated that filtering out highly familiar and easily processed semantic

information during the early sensory processing stage is difficult for individuals

(Augustinova et al., 2019; Cavanagh & Frank, 2014; Itthipuripat et al., 2019).

Consistent with this hypothesis, both relevant and irrelevant sensory inputs receive

comprehensive semantic processing, while working memory load constrains the

process of binding higher-level semantic codes with responses, potentially influencing

the subsequent response output stage. Overall, the two hypotheses, although distinct,

are not mutually exclusive and can be inspected from a time-dynamic perspective.

In the present study, a single task (the classical manual Stroop task) and a dual

task (the Sternberg working memory task combined with the Stroop task) were

employed to explore the aforementioned hypotheses with electroencephalography

recording of high temporal resolution. Several event-related potentials (ERP) highly

relevant to Stroop conflict processing will be focused on in this study. Previous

studies have proposed that within cognitive control mechanisms, occipito-parietal P1

signifies the earliest stage of top-down processes in early sensory processing, gating

the direction of information processing in the brain (Klimesch et al., 2007).

Additionally, numerous studies have identified two ERP components exclusively

elicited by the Stroop task (i.e., the N450 and the sustained potential (SP)). N450 is a

central-parietal negative deflection that exhibits greater negativity in incongruent

trials compared to congruent trials within 350-500 ms after stimulus onsets, which is

typically interpreted as conflict monitoring, the process of evaluating conflict levels

and communicating the conflict information to control systems (Coderre et al., 2011;

Heidlmayr et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2024). As for the SP component, it shows a centro-

parietal positive deflection from approximately 600 ms to 1000 ms in incongruent

conditions, which is regarded as an index of conflict resolution (Di Russo & Bianco,

2023; Donohue et al., 2016; Heidlmayr et al., 2020; Vo et al., 2021). In all, these ERP

components, which are distinctly time-sequential, can help explore the dynamic

effects of working memory on Stroop conflict processing.

In addition to the ERP components, conflict processing also involves various

neural oscillatory activities. First, extensive research has found that fronto-central

theta (4-7 Hz) power increases in conflict situations with the time windows of early

and late theta band effects in stimulus-locked analyses corresponding to those of the

N450 and SP effects, which suggests that early and later theta power reflects conflict

detection and resolution processes, respectively (Brilliant et al., 2024; Senoussi et al.,

2022; Xu et al., 2024; Zhao et al., 2015). Second, the occipital-parietal alpha

oscillations (8-13 Hz) can serve as a neural inverse index of mental activity or

alertness, associated with the attentional engagement with visual stimuli during

conflict processing. The decreased alpha activity in the incongruent condition

indicates enhanced attentional suppression (Arakaki et al., 2022; Tafuro et al., 2019;

Zhou et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2023). Third, previous study has shown that the response

incongruent trial evokes a small central beta power than the stimulus incongruent trial

in the Stroop task (Zhao et al., 2015). The suppressed effect of the central beta power

most likely reflects the inhibition of proponent responses, associated with motion

preparation (Böttcher et al., 2023; Chung et al., 2024; Wendiggensen et al., 2022;

Zhao et al., 2015). Accordingly, these frequency bands can provide a comprehensive

characterization of the Stroop conflict processing.

It is worth realizing that neural oscillations are not characterized by a pre-

determined time window like ERPs. However, multivariate pattern analysis (MVPA)

can help to solve the difficulty of hypothesizing which frequency band or the time

window is changed in the Stroop task. As a data-driven technique, MVPA provides

novel insight into the differences between two conditions by identifying the features

that contribute most to classification (Q. Li et al., 2023; Z. Li et al., 2024; Lin et al.,

2023; Meier et al., 2012). Therefore, the present study will combine time-frequency

analysis and MVPA to inspect the dynamic neural characteristics of the modulation of

working memory on Stroop conflict processing at the neural oscillatory level.

Notably, even if differences are found in ERPs or neural oscillations, the extent

to which they are linked to behavior is an interesting question. Representational

similarity analysis (RSA) is applied to build a connection between behavior and

neural activities in the present study (Kriegeskorte & Kievit, 2013). Recent studies

have suggested that RSA is a reliable way to uncover the neural mechanisms behind

conflict processing (Freund et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2023), which helps identify

which neural activities are central to the influence of working memory on Stroop

conflict processing. Overall, the present study employs EEG technology, through

MVPA and RSA, in an attempt to comprehensively uncover the dynamic neural

underlying the elimination of the Stroop effect influenced by working memory when

the dimensions of memory information and distractors overlap.

2. Results

2.1. Behavioral results

For behavioral analysis, a two-way repeated measures ANOVA (task type: single

task vs. dual task × congruency: congruent vs. incongruent) was performed on RTs.

The results showed that the RTs of the single-task condition were faster than dual-task

condition (main effect of task type: $F_{(1, 31)} = 113.28$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.79$) and a

reliable Stroop interference effect (main effect of congruency: $F_{(1, 31)} = 32.53$, $p <$

0.001, $\eta_p^2 = 0.51$). Notably, the interaction between task type and congruency was

significant ($F_{(1, 31)} = 8.62$, $p = 0.006$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.22$). Simple effect analysis revealed that,

in the single-task condition, the RTs of incongruent trials were significantly slower (M

$= 851.15$, $SE = 32.16$) than congruent trials ($M = 736.10$, $SE = 26.29$) ($p < 0.001$).

However, in the dual-task condition, the RTs did not differ between incongruent trials

($M = 1073.04$, $SE = 39.73$) and congruent trials ($M = 1033.68$, $SE = 49.43$) ($p =$

0.089), indicating that the Stroop effect of RTs only occurred in single-task condition

(Fig. 1).

155 2.2. ERP results

156 2.2.1. P1

Two-way repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted on the P1 component,

revealing a significant main effect of task type ($F_{(1, 31)} = 29.92$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.49$).

Specifically, the P1 amplitude of the dual task ($M = 1.63$, $SE = 0.30$) was significantly

greater than the single task ($M = 0.39$, $SE = 0.28$). However, neither the main effect of

congruency ($F_{(1, 31)} = 0.00$, $p = 0.99$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.00$) nor the two-way interaction ($F_{(1, 31)} =$

0.23, $p = 0.63$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.007$) was significant (Fig. 2).

163 2.2.2. N450

Analysis of the N450 component showed the main effect of task type ($F_{(1, 31)} =$

14.71, $p = 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.32$) and the main effect of congruency ($F_{(1, 31)} = 4.36$, $p <$

0.05, $\eta_p^2 = 0.12$) were both significant. However, the two-way interaction ($F_{(1, 31)} =$

0.63, $p = 0.43$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.02$) were not significant (Fig. 3).

2.2.3. SP

For the SP component, two-way repeated-measures ANOVA showed the main

effect of task type was significant ($F_{(1, 31)} = 14.54$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.32$) but the main

effect of congruency was not ($F_{(1, 31)} = 2.89$, $p = 0.10$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.09$). Importantly, the

interaction between congruency and task type was significant ($F_{(1, 31)} = 5.68$, $p < 0.05$,

$\eta_p^2 = 0.16$). Simple effect analysis showed that, in the single task, the SP amplitude in

incongruent trials ($M = 1.29$, $SE = 0.39$) was significantly greater than in congruent

trials ($M = 0.70$, $SE = 0.30$) ($p = 0.009$). On the contrary, in the dual task, the SP

amplitude did not differ between congruent trials ($M = 0.27$, $SE = 0.34$) and

incongruent trials ($M = 0.22$, $SE = 0.37$) ($p = 0.98$) (Fig. 4).

2.3. MVPA results

Cluster-level permutation tests of the theta band indicated that only one cluster in

740-820 ms could significantly classify the Stroop effect of the single-task and dual-

task (Fig. 5A). Regarding the beta band, tests showed a significant above-chance

difference between the two task types from 920 ms to 1040 ms (Fig. 5C). However,

no reliable decoding was observed between the two task types in the alpha band (Fig.

5B).

2.4. Time-Frequency results

2.4.1. Theta band

The two-way repeated-measures ANOVA on theta power revealed that the main

effect of congruency was significant ($F_{(1, 31)}$ = 14.68, p = 0.001, η_p^2 = 0.32), but the

main effect of task type was not ($F_{(1, 31)}$ = 0.30, p = 0.59, η_p^2 = 0.01). Notably, the

interaction was significant ($F_{(1, 31)}$ = 7.71, p = 0.009, η_p^2 = 0.20). Simple effect

analysis showed that, in the dual task, the theta power did not differ between

congruent trials (M = 3.12, SE = 0.24) and incongruent trials (M = 3.27, SE = 0.24) (p

= 0.63). However, in the single task, the theta power was significantly higher in

incongruent trials (M = 4.00, SE = 0.32) than in congruent trials (M = 2.68, SE = 0.20)

($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 6).

2.4.2. Beta band

Analysis of the beta power showed the main effect of task type ($F_{(1, 31)}$ = 34.55,

$p < 0.001$, η_p^2 = 0.53) and the main effect of congruency ($F_{(1, 31)}$ = 11.61, p = 0.002, η_p^2

= 0.27) were both significant. Importantly, the interaction between task type and

congruency reached a significant level ($F_{(1, 31)}$ = 15.64, $p < 0.001$, η_p^2 = 0.34). Simple

effect analysis revealed that, in the single-task condition, the beta power was

significantly lower in the incongruent trials (M = 0.53, SE = 0.06) than in the

congruent trials (M = 0.80, SE = 0.08) ($p < 0.001$). While no significant difference

was found between them in the dual-task condition (p = 0.40) (Fig. 7).

2.5. RSA results

The RSA results showed that the interaction pattern in theta band significantly

contributes to variation in the interaction pattern of response time (estimate = 0.17, SE

$= 0.05$, $t = 3.22$, $p_{\text{corrected}} = 0.004$). However, the correlation between the dissimilarity

matrix of the SP (estimate $= 0.02$, $SE = 0.05$, $t = 0.48$, $p_{\text{corrected}} = 0.63$) and beta

(estimate $= 0.10$, $SE = 0.05$, $t = 2.03$, $p_{\text{corrected}} = 0.06$) representation and the

interaction pattern of response time was not significant (Fig. 8).

3. Discussion

The present study systematically investigated the dynamic neural mechanisms

underlying the modulation of concurrent working memory task on Stroop conflict

processing when the dimensions of memory information and distractors overlap. At

first, we verified behaviorally that working memory processing eliminated the conflict

effect. Specifically, in the single task, the response times of incongruent trials were

significantly slower than congruent trials, but there was no significant difference

between the two in the dual task. For the ERP results, no significant interaction was

found in P1 or N450, but in SP. Namely, it showed that the incongruent trials evoked

more positive SP than the congruent trials in the single task. While there was no

difference between the two in the dual task. Moreover, MVPA results showed that

only the theta power (740-820 ms) and the beta power (920-1040 ms) of conflict

effect could successfully classify different task types. Further, in the corresponding

time windows, we found that only in the single task, the incongruent trial induced

greater theta power and smaller beta power than the congruent trial. Finally, RSA

showed that only the interaction pattern in theta power correlated with response time.

All these results collectively suggested that, when the memorized information

overlaps with the dimension of distractors, working memory processing modulates the

late stage rather than early stage of Stroop conflict processing.

Behaviorally, we found that the Stroop interference effect was reduced under the

dual-task condition, replicating previous findings (Kim et al., 2005; Luna et al., 2020;

Park et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2014). Consistent with the latest load theory (Murphy et

al., 2016; Park et al., 2007), there are multiple resources, each with its own

processing-specific, limited-capacity pool. Working memory load will tie up the

limited resources necessary for distractor processing, diminishing the intensity of

distractor processing, and thereby reducing their interference with the task. In our

study, concurrent visual short-term working memory maintenance occupied the

semantic resources required for distractor processing, resulting in the elimination of

the Stroop effect. Interestingly, a previous study (Zhao et al., 2014) that reported a

diminished Stroop interference effect employed the classic Chinese character Stroop

task as well, but the working memory task involved memorizing meaningless visual

shapes made from hand-drawn lines. This seems inconsistent with the load theory

hypothesis, as the images appear to occupy spatial-related resources rather than

overlapping with the distractor stimulus processing dimension. However, in contrast

to English words, the processing of Chinese characters relies more on graphemic

encoding and memory (Chen, 1993). Therefore, the processing of line patterns

occupies some of the resources needed for character processing, which aligns with our

study's hypothesis based on dimensional overlap. Additionally, this study suggested

that the modulation effect of the working memory task on the typical Chinese

character Stroop task was relatively minor. We speculate that this is because graphic

processing occupies lower-level resources related to the overall shape and spatial

structure of Chinese characters (Zhang et al., 2020). In contrast, our study, which

employed Chinese characters as the working memory load, could directly influence

higher-level resources involved in semantic processing. Therefore, we believe that

verbal working memory load can significantly modulate the Stroop effect. Overall,

the elimination of Stroop effect observed in our study is consistent with the core

hypotheses of load theory based on multiple resources, paving the way for further

exploration into the neural mechanisms behind this elimination.

The ERP findings indicated that the working memory task influenced only the SP

component, which reflects the process of conflict resolution. Consistent with most

research, our study showed that the SP amplitude is more positive in conflict

situations (Heidlmayr et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2015). Crucially, our study found that

verbal working memory load eliminated the difference in SP between congruent and

incongruent trials, indicating that conflict resolution did not occur in the dual-task

condition. Additionally, our results revealed a congruency effect at N450, indicating

that participants indeed detected the occurrence of conflict (Heidlmayr et al., 2020).

Furthermore, our study did not find any differences in P1 between the different

congruency conditions which aligns with the findings of most studies that indicate the

early sensory input processing stage is insensitive to congruency effects (David et al.,

2011; Di Russo & Bianco, 2023). In other words, participants cannot suppress the

processing of distractors at the perceptual level. Generally, the overall ERP results

suggest that working memory influences the later stage of conflict resolution, while

not influencing the early stage of perceptual processing and conflict detection.

In addition to the ERP results, the MVPA results from time-frequency also

provide supportive evidence that working memory modulates Stroop conflict

processing in the later stage. First, in line with the previous study (Zhao et al., 2014),

there are no continuous time periods in which alpha activities (incongruency minus

congruency) can successfully discriminate the single-task and dual-task. Alpha is

regarded as an indicator of top-down attentional modulation, with an increase in alpha

reflecting the inhibition of distractor input (Van Diepen et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2023),

implying that the patterns of attentional adjustment are similar across different task

types in our study (Fig. S1). This finding may be related to the attentional rejection

template (Wen et al., 2022). In the Sternberg task, participants are required to

remember only seven Chinese characters and reject the others, which is similar to the

attention template used for rejecting characters in the Stroop task. Second, the

different task types can be successfully discriminated by late theta activity after the

stimulus presentation (740-820 ms). Similarly, previous research has found that

current working memory leads to smaller differences in theta activity (400-1000 ms)

between incongruent and neutral trials (Zhao et al., 2014). According to the

framework of event coding theory (TEC), late theta may represent the process of

stimulus-response binding or mapping (Beste et al., 2023; Wendiggensen et al., 2023).

And this has been demonstrated in several empirical experiments. For example, theta

is thought to be involved in adjusting the processing of stimulus information to

correspond with appropriate responses (Cavanagh et al., 2009). In line with this

296 opinion, about -200 to 0 ms before a response, higher theta activity is observed in

297 high-conflict conditions compared to low-conflict conditions (Cohen & Donner,

298 2013). Accordingly, working memory may eliminate the Stroop effect by influencing

299 the stimulus-response mapping process. Lastly, the present study also shows that beta

300 activity between 920-1040 ms after stimulus presentation can successfully

301 discriminate between the two task types. Beta activity is often thought to be

302 associated with motor priming. Specifically, it decreases at the onset of movement

303 (Jenkinson & Brown, 2011), but increases during holding a static status (Baker et al.,

304 2001). Since response button selection definitely occurs after conflict resolution and is

305 a late motor adjustment according to the stimulus, this result suggests that working

306 memory may also influence the response output stage of Stroop conflict processing.

307  The RSA results further reveal that the neural activity pattern of theta is most

308 similar to the behavioral Stroop effect modulation pattern. This result can be

309 interpreted from the standpoint of neural efficiency, suggesting that a reduction in

310 activation patterns reflects greater neural efficiency (Rypma et al., 2006). Therefore,

311 we speculate that the core reason for the disappearance of the behavioral Stroop effect

312 under the dual-task condition is that, compared to congruent trials, neural activation in

313 theta decreases and response speed increases in incongruent trials (Fig. 1 and Fig. 6C).

314 Moreover, this result aligns with many studies that have found theta can predict

315 reaction times (Kaiser & Schütz-Bosbach, 2021; Senoussi et al., 2022). However,

316 although SP and beta exhibited interaction effects in the data patterns, they may not be

317 the core indicators directly determining the behavioral modulation effect. SP, as an

ERP component, contains multiple oscillatory bands, indicating several parallel brain

processes (Brilliant et al., 2024). Moreover, Theta oscillations are biological

candidates for neuronal computation and communication (Cavanagh & Frank, 2014),

capable of integrating selection-related information during cognitive control to inform

response execution (Duprez et al., 2020). Combined with the MVPA decoding results

indicating that the beta band (920-1040 ms) follows the theta band (740-820 ms), we

speculate that changes in beta bands may be influenced by theta bands. Overall, when

the dimensions of working memory load overlap with those of distractor stimuli,

individuals do not need to engage in conflict resolution. Specifically, the pre-

memorized Chinese characters occupied the resources for the late-stage stimulus-

response mapping represented semantically by the distractors, weakening the mapping

of distractors to incorrect responses, and subsequently inhibiting the response output

of the distractors, resulting in the disappearance of response conflict.

Theoretically, this study expands the existing hypotheses of load theory from a

temporal dynamics perspective. Furthermore, the results present a new viewpoint for

understanding conflict processing, indicating that individuals cannot suppress the

processing of irrelevant stimuli at the perceptual level in the early stage but may

regulate this processing later on. Importantly, this study indicates that the regulatory

platform for this modulation is working memory, highlighting its crucial role in

conflict processing. Beyond its role in representing the target, working memory could

also be crucial in the suppression of distractors, suggesting a strong interrelationship

between the two core components of cognitive control (Diamond, 2013). Practically,

the effective application of working memory tasks in learning or work environments,

by increasing the working memory load overlapping with distracting stimuli, can

assist individuals in managing cognitive conflicts more efficiently. Additionally, the

findings may serve as a theoretical basis for developing inhibitory control intervention

strategies aimed at enhancing working memory to improve inhibitory control.

In summary, this study demonstrated that the concurrent working memory task

can eliminate Stroop conflict through disrupting stimulus-response mapping. The

results indicated that concurrent working memory load influenced the late stage

related to stimulus-response mapping and response selection processes, indexed by SP,

late theta band, and beta band; while it did not influence the early stage associated

with perceptual processing, conflict detection, and attention adjustment, indexed by

P1, N450, and alpha band. RSA further identified theta as the neural indicator directly

associated with the behavioral modulation pattern. These findings suggested that

when the working memory load overlaps with the dimension of distractor stimuli, it

occupies the resources for the stimulus-response mapping of the distractor, weakening

the stronger response tendency of the distractor, and ultimately leading to the

disappearance of response conflict. Accordingly, the present study comprehensively

characterized the dynamic neural mechanisms by which working memory modulates

Stroop conflict processing, further deepening our understanding of the mechanisms

underlying conflict generation.

4. Materials and methods

361 4.1. Participants

Using G*Power software (Faul et al., 2007), we calculated the sample size for

the experiment. The power analysis (power ≥ 0.9) on within-factors designs, assuming

a moderate effect size of 0.25, indicated a sample size of 30. We recruited 34 healthy

subjects (17 females; age: 21.38 ± 1.92 years) through advertisements. Two subjects

were excluded from further analyses due to excessive EEG artifacts. Finally, a total of

32 subjects (16 females; age: 21.44 ± 1.97 years) remained for behavioral and EEG

analyses. All participants were right-handed, had normal or corrected-to-normal

vision and normal color perception assessed by the Ishihara Color Test, and reported

no history of neurologic or psychiatric disease. They all signed written informed

consent before the experiment. All procedures were conducted in accordance with the

principles of the Declaration of Helsinki and its later amendments and were approved

by the Human Research Human Ethics Committee of the Shanghai University of

Sport.

375 4.2. Apparatus and Stimuli

Participants were instructed to perform experiments in a soundproof room. The

experimental stimuli were presented on a 19-inch color monitor (resolution 1920 ×

1080, refresh rate 60 Hz) with a viewing distance of approximately 65 cm. Stimulus

presentation and response recording were controlled by a Microsoft PC running

Matlab (Mathworks, Inc.) with Psychophysics Toolbox extensions (Brainard, 1997;

Pelli, 1997).

The experiment employed the single task (the classical manual Stroop task) and

the dual task (the Sternberg working memory task combined with the Stroop task).

The Stroop task stimuli consisted of four Chinese words: "红" (red, RGB: 255, 0, 0),

"绿" (green, RGB: 0, 255, 0), "蓝" (blue, RGB: 0, 0, 255), and "黄" (yellow, RGB:

255, 255, 0). They were presented in the semantically corresponding font color

(congruent trials) or a different font color (incongruent trials) in the center of a black

background (visual angle, ~1.15×1.15°). The Sternberg working memory task

involved seven Chinese characters chosen randomly among 14 familiar Chinese

characters: "人" (human), "刀" (knife), "大" (big), "水" (water), "天" (heaven), "口"

(mouth), "月" (moon), "立" (stand), "山" (mountain), "上" (up), "手" (hand), "石"

(stone), "女" (woman), and "火" (fire) (Zhao et al., 2010). They were equally spaced

on a horizontal row at the center of the display (visual angle for each character,

~1.15×1.15°).

395   4.3. Procedure

For the dual task (Fig. 9A), the subjects were required to memorize seven

Chinese characters in anticipation of a recognition test at the end of the trial. Each

trial began with a white fixation point for a random duration from 400 to 600 ms,

followed by seven white Chinese characters that required memorization for 2000 ms.

After a jittered 800-1200 ms fixation point, participants performed a Stroop task in

which the color of the words were identified as quickly as possible by pressing the

corresponding button ("F" with the left index finger, "D" with the left middle finger,

"J" with the right index finger, and "K" with the right middle finger), while

attempting to ignore the task-irrelevant semantic meaning. The display for the words

remained on the screen until a response was made. After the Stroop task, a fixation

point was randomly presented for 400-600 ms, and terminated by the appearance of a

probe character, to which the subject had to determine if the character was part of

their memorized list of items. During 50% of the trials, the probe letter was included

as part of the memorized set. Participants were asked to answer by pressing one of

two response buttons ("S" with the left ring finger and "L" with the right ring finger).

All response buttons in this experiment were counterbalanced across subjects. After a

response was given, the intertrial interval was randomized between 600 and 1000 ms

until the onset of the next trial. For the single task (Fig. 9B), subjects were only

required to complete the individual Stroop task. Each block alternated between single

and dual tasks in an ABAB fashion, and the task type in the first block was

counterbalanced across participants. The subjects first performed practice blocks of

144 trials. Participants were permitted to participate in the formal experiment when

their average error rate was below 15%. The formal experiment included six blocks,

totaling 144 trials, with an equal distribution of 50% congruent and 50% incongruent

trials presented randomly in each block. The entire experiment lasted for around 30

minutes.

4.4. EEG recording and preprocessing

EEG data were recorded using standard 64 in-cap Ag/AgCl electrodes, following

the extended international 10-20 system (Brain Products GmbH, Germany; pass band,

0.01-100 Hz; sampling rate, 1000 Hz). Vertical and horizontal electrooculograms

(EOGs) were recorded from below the left eye and outer canthus of the right eye,

respectively. The FCz served as an online reference. The impedance of all electrodes

was maintained below 5 kΩ during the entire recording process.

The offline EEG data were preprocessed by EEGLAB V2023.0 (Delorme &

Makeig, 2004) and custom scripts in MATLAB 2021a. First, the continuous data was

down-sampled from the original sampling rate of 1000 Hz to 500 Hz. Then, the data

were filtered with a 30 Hz low-pass filter and a 0.1 Hz high-pass filter. After that, we

re-referenced the data to the average activity of all scalp channels and manually

inspected the data to remove obvious artifacts. Subsequently, we carried out an

independent component analysis (ICA, infomax algorithm) and thereby identified and

manually removed artifacts such as eyeblinks, horizontal eye movements, heart,

muscle, and line noise. As a next step, the data was segmented based on the trial type

(single-task congruent vs. single-task incongruent vs. dual-task congruent vs. dual-

task incongruent) and was time-locked to the Stroop stimulus onset. Continuous EEG

data were epoched from −200 to 1000 ms relative to word onset, with a baseline

correction applied using the 200 ms pre-stimulus interval. Finally, trials with

amplitude values exceeding ±100 µV at any electrode were rejected. Overall, a mean

of 12.59% (SD, 4.82%) of all trials were excluded.

4.5. Data analysis

4.5.1. Behavioral analysis

Only trials that were correct in both the memory task and the Stroop task were

included in all subsequent analyses. In addition, trials in which response times (RTs)

deviated by more than three standard deviations from the condition mean were

excluded from behavioral analyses. Overall, a mean of 4.8% (SD, 3.31%) of all trials

were excluded. We performed repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) with

Greenhouse-Geisser correction if needed, in which the within-subject factors were

congruency (congruent, incongruent) and task type (single task, dual task).

Adjustments for multiple comparisons were realized using Bonferroni correction.

4.5.2. ERP analysis

Considering previous studies (Coderre et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2024; Zivony &

Lamy, 2022), P1 was calculated using a time window of 40 ms (110-150 ms) at

bilateral occipito-parietal electrodes (PO3, PO4, PO7, PO8, P7, P8). N450 was

computed using a time window of 150 ms (350-500 ms) at centro-parietal electrodes

(CP3, CP4, P5, P6). SP was scored as the mean amplitude at centro-parietal electrodes

(Cz, CPz, Pz) during a time window of 300 ms (650-950 ms).

4.5.3. Multivariate pattern analysis

Our multivariate pattern analysis was based on support vector machine (SVM), a

supervised machine learning method that operated on labeled samples. A binary label

with 1 for the single task and -1 for the dual task was used in this study. The

classification process at a given time point included a training phase and a testing

phase. During the training step, the SVM would find a decision boundary that

separated the samples in the input features using class labels. Next, the trained

classifier is used to predict the class labels of new examples. For the spectral MVPA,

we defined three frequency regions of interest (F-ROIs): theta (4-7 Hz), alpha (8-13

Hz), and beta (14-25 Hz). Then, three spatial regions of interest (S-ROIs) were chosen:

fronto-central (Fz, FCz, Cz), occipital-parietal (POz, Oz, PO3, PO4, PO7, PO8, O1,

O2) and central (C3, CP3, Cz, CP4, C4) to measure theta, alpha and beta power,

respectively (Zhao et al., 2015; Li et al., 2021). For each frequency band, the selected

features were the power difference between congruent and incongruent trials in the

single task and dual task in every 20 ms of each ROI (See "Time-frequency analysis"

section for the power transformation method). All data were normalized and mapped

to the range [-1, 1] within each class to mitigate scale effects.

A linear kernel SVM was chosen and trained through the LIBSVM toolbox

(Chang & Lin, 2011). The linear SVM has only one parameter C that determines the

trade-off between allowing misclassifications and training error minimization. The

functions were as follows:

$$K\left(X_i, X_j\right) = X_i^T X_j$$

$$\min \frac{1}{2}\|\omega\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^{m} \xi(i)$$

A classifier was trained and tested at each time point by using a 5-fold cross-

validation procedure. Trials were randomly divided into 5 equal-sized folds. Then, a

leave-one-out procedure was run in which the classifier was trained on 4-folds and

tested on the remaining fold. In this case, different C values were tried within a

certain range to find the best cross-validation accuracy (or the smallest value if there

were more than one). We set the range of C values to base 2, and the exponent range

to [-10, 10] with a step size of 0.2. Here, accuracy was used to quantify the

performance of the classifier based on the results of cross-validation.

For statistical analyses, a nonparametric statistical test based on the cluster-level

permutation was implemented to deal with multiple comparisons while maintaining

strict control of the false-alarm rate (Maris & Oostenveld, 2007). In detail, t-tests

against chance level (acc = 0.5) were carried out at each data point to obtain the

statistic values. Statistical values with p-values < 0.01 were clustered together by

summing their statistic values. The cluster alpha was set to 0.01 to reduce the

likelihood of large clusters spanning the entire dataset (Mensen & Khatami, 2013).

Additionally, to avoid using extremely transient intervals that may not capture

meaningful psychological phenomena, we specified that at least two significant time

points formed a cluster. Then, we permuted the data for 1000 times by randomly

swapping condition labels to obtain a permutation distribution of the maximum

cluster-level statistic under the null hypothesis of no condition difference. If there was

any cluster with its real statistic larger than the threshold, we rejected the null

hypothesis and concluded that there was a significant difference.

4.5.4. Time-frequency analysis

To avoid edge artifacts, EEG data were re-epoched from -1000 ms to 2000 ms

relative to stimulus onset. EEG data were converted into time-frequency domain data

using continuous wavelet transform in Letswave Software (https://www.letswave .org/;

Mouraux & Iannetti, 2008). The cmor1-1.5 was chosen as the mother wavelet

function for the time-frequency representations ranging from 1 to 30 Hz with a step

size of 0.29 Hz. The single-trial time-frequency representation was obtained after

wavelet transform, and they were then averaged throughout all trials per condition.

The baseline normalizations were performed at each time point for each frequency

using an event-related spectral perturbation (ERSP) transformation [$ER_{t,f}\% = [A_{t,f}$ -

$R_f]/R_f$] (Pfurtscheller & Lopes da Silva, 1999). Considering edge effects, duration

requirements, and the need to exclude other influences (Cohen, 2014), a 400-200 ms

pre-stimulus time window was selected as the baseline time window. For the

statistical test, we only analyzed the frequency bands and corresponding time

windows that could successfully classify different tasks in MVPA, namely theta (740-

820 ms) and beta (920-1040 ms).

520　4.5.5. Representational similarity analysis

Our RSA analysis aimed to explore the correlation between neural interaction

patterns and behavioral interaction patterns. First, we extracted data that could reflect

interaction patterns, namely Stroop effect differences between single-task and dual-

task conditions based on the subject-level in RT, SP, theta, and beta. Prior to analysis,

data were normalized by z-scoring the values across all subjects. We then constructed

Representational Dissimilarity Matrices (RDMs) measuring the geometrical distances

between all subjects, yielding 32×32 symmetrical matrices. Here, Euclidean distance

was employed to measure the distance between subjects (Edelman, 1998). Finally, we

fitted a linear regression with the neural RDMs as regressors and the behavioral RDM

as the dependent variable to test which neural RDMs could predict behavioral RDMs.

P values were corrected by the false discovery rate.

Data availability

533 Data and codes presented in this work are available at: https://osf.io/89bpz/.

Author Contributions

535 Yafen Li: Conceptualization, Data curation, Methodology, Investigation,

536 Visualization, Writing - original draft. Yixuan Lin: Methodology, Visualization,

537 Writing - review & editing. Qing Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation.

538 Yongqiang Chen: Methodology, Validation. Zhifang Li: Methodology, Validation.

539 Antao Chen: Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

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Competing interests

544 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Fig. 1. Raincloud plots (Allen et al., 2021) of behavioral Data. The plot consists of a probability density plot, a line graph, and raw data points. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Fig. 2. The P1 results in the single task and the dual task. (A) The event-related potential (ERP) waveforms for P1 component. The shaded rectangle represents the defined time windows and the shading above and below the ERP waveform represents the 95% confidence intervals. (B) Topographic distributions of average amplitude for each condition within the time window (110-150 ms) and the amplitude differences between congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (C) Raincloud plots of amplitude for P1 across conditions. n.s., not significant.

Fig. 3. The N450 results in the single task and the dual task. (A) The event-related potential (ERP) waveforms for N450 components. The shaded rectangle represents the defined time windows and the shading above and below the ERP waveform represents the 95% confidence intervals. (B) Topographic distributions of average amplitude for each condition within the time window (350-500 ms) and the amplitude differences between congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (C) Raincloud plots of amplitude for N450 across conditions. n.s., not significant.

Fig. 4. The SP results in the single task and the dual task. (A) The event-related potential (ERP) waveforms for SP components. The shaded rectangle represents the defined time windows and the shading above and below the ERP waveform represents the 95% confidence intervals. (B) Topographic distributions of average amplitude for each condition within the time window (650-950 ms) and the amplitude differences between congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (C) Raincloud plots of amplitude for SP across conditions. n.s., not significant, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

Fig. 5. MVPA results for (A) the theta band, (B) the alpha band, and (C) the beta band. Dots
denote significant differences from chance (P < 0.01). Shading represents clusters of significant
time points (cluster-corrected).

Fig. 6. Time-frequency results for the theta band. (A) Grand-average time-frequency representations for the theta band over fronto-central area (Fz, FCz, Cz) for each condition, and the difference activity between congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (B) Topographic distributions of average amplitude for each condition within the defined time-frequency region of interest (4-7 Hz, 740-820 ms) and the magnitude differences between congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (C) Raincloud plots of ERSP magnitudes for theta band across conditions. n.s., not significant. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Fig. 7. Time-frequency results for the beta band. (A) Grand-average time-frequency
representations for the beta band over the central area (C3, CP3, Cz, CP4, C4) for each condition,
and the difference activity between congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (B)
Topographic distributions of average amplitude for each condition within the defined time-
frequency region of interest (14-25 Hz, 920-1040 ms) and the magnitude differences between
congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (C) Raincloud plots of ERSP magnitudes
for the beta band across conditions. n.s., not significant. *** $p < 0.001$.

855   **Fig. 8.** Representational dissimilarity matrices for the interaction pattern in RT, SP, theta and beta.
856   Each RDM is calculated as the Euclidean distances of data reflecting interaction pattern from 32
857   subjects.

Fig. 9. Schematic illustration of experimental trial structures and stimuli types. (A) Dual-task structure, (B) Single-task structure, (C) Representative stimuli for congruent and incongruent conditions.

Supplementary Materials

Fig. S1. Time-frequency results for the alpha band. (A) Grand-average time-frequency representations for the alpha band over the occipital-parietal area (POz, Oz, PO3, PO4, PO7, PO8, O1, O2) for each condition, and the difference activity between congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (B) Topographic distributions of average amplitude for each condition within the defined time-frequency region of interest (8-13 Hz, 0-1000 ms) and the magnitude differences between congruent and incongruent trials in single and dual tasks. (C) Raincloud plots of ERSP magnitudes for the alpha band across conditions. n.s., not significant.

Supplementary Results

Analysis of the alpha power showed the main effect of task type ($F_{(1, 31)} = 57.90$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.65$) and the main effect of congruency ($F_{(1, 31)} = 7.38$, $p = 0.01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.19$) were both significant. However, the two-way interaction ($F_{(1, 31)} = 0.53$, $p = 0.47$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.02$) were not significant (Fig. S1).