Title: Intrinsic Architecture of Global Signal Topography and Its Modulation by Tasks

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Abbreviated title: Intrinsic Functional Architecture of Global Signal Topography

Abstract

Recent resting-state fMRI studies reveal that the global signal (GS) exhibits a non-uniform spatial distribution across the gray matter. Moreover, such topography shows spatially preferential alteration across various cognitive and clinical states. One fundamental question about GS topography is whether it is an intrinsic architecture. We here test its existence by using a large sample of fMRI dataset (n=837) from the Human Connectome Project. The GS topography in rest and in seven different tasks are measured by correlating the global signal with the local time series, namely GS correlation (GSCORR). We observe that the topographical pattern of GSCORR in all tasks strongly correlates with the one in rest. The external tasks reduce the mean of GSCORR and slightly modulate the topographical distribution in both task-specific and -unspecific ways. Additionally, this task modulation of GS topography could neither be accounted for by the contribution of subcortical areas linked to arousal level, nor be exclusively explained by physiological noise. Finally, we observe that phase coherence, rather than amplitude variation, serves as the neural basis of GS architecture. Together, we here provide evidence for an intrinsic architecture of GS across rest and various task states.

Keywords: human connectome project, resting state, task modulation

Introduction

A large number of resting state functional connectivity MRI studies have been used in revealing the spatiotemporal organization of the human brain. In the absence of behavioral tasks, fluctuations of spontaneous brain activity exhibit a topography resembling the brain networks known to support overt behavior (1, 2). Recent studies further reveal that the spatial organization of resting state networks remains largely preserved across various tasks, suggesting the existence of an intrinsic architecture of functional networks holding across rest and task states (3, 4).

The global signal (GS) is a major confound in investigating the network organization in resting-state fMRI (5, 6). Global signal in fMRI is defined as the spatial average of time varying BOLD signals across the brain, and regressing the global signal or not often leads to inconsistent conclusions (7-9). To better determine how to process the global signal regression, one needs to understand its potential neuronal relevance. Recent findings demonstrate that the global signal in fMRI exhibits a high correlation to electrophysiological measures on the cortical level (10, 11) while its global fluctuation may partly stem from subcortical regions (e.g., basal forebrain) (12, 13). Finally, abnormalities in the level of the global signal have been observed in psychiatric disorders like schizophrenia (14) and bipolar disorder (Zhang et al. 2018). Together, these findings underscore the neuronal relevance of the global signal. That leaves open though whether the global signal also contributes to shaping the brain's intrinsic architecture.

Although the global signal is generated by the shared activity across the gray matter, the degree of a specific brain region's BOLD signal may, in part, also be related to regional differences in the topographical representation of GS. Recent evidences during resting state in both monkeys (13) and humans (12, 15, 16) demonstrate that the GS exhibits a non-uniform topographical

distribution across regions, characterized by higher levels of GS representation in primary sensory regions like auditory and visual cortex, and lower levels of GS representation in higher-order cortical regions like the prefrontal cortex. Interestingly, psychiatric subjects suffering from schizophrenia (15), autism spectrum disorder (17, 18) or bipolar disorder (19) show abnormal regional distribution of resting state GS, which is also related to the behavioral changes seen in these patients. A fundamental question thus arises whether GS topography reflects an intrinsic architecture holding across rest and task states remains uninvestigated, though.

An intrinsic architecture will suggest the characterized GS is represented in different degrees in different regions thus showing a specific GS topography that, in addition, should hold across different states, e.g., rest and task including different kinds of tasks. In contrast, the absence of intrinsic GS architecture should go along with different GS topographies in rest and task as well as with task-specific GS topographical representation.

The overarching aim of this study is to investigate whether GS topography exhibits an intrinsic architecture. For that purpose, we utilize a large sample fMRI data set from the Human Connectome Project (HCP) that included two days' resting states and seven different tasks. We first test the robustness of GS topography during different days and states (rest and task). Analogous to the justification of intrinsic architecture of functional networks (3), we assume that an intrinsic architecture of GS topography can be indexed by (i) stability over time, (ii) similarity between rest and task states, and (iii) similarity across various task states entailing mainly task-unspecific changes, e.g. different tasks sharing a similar GS topographical pattern. Secondly, we investigate the modulation of GS topography during different tasks. This served the purpose to demonstrate whether and how external tasks modulate GS topography in either a task-specific or task-unspecific manner. Thirdly, because a task may modulate both the phase and amplitude of

84   ongoing activity (20, 21), we probe the mechanism underlying rest-task modulation of GS

85   architecture, i.e., amplitude variation or phase coherence. Fourthly, we test whether rest-task

86   modulation of GS on the cortical level stems from contributions of subcortical regions (12) , or

87   consists only of non-neuronal physiological noise (8, 22) to GS architecture.

Results

Existence of an intrinsic GS architecture

To investigate whether the GS topography exhibits an intrinsic GS architecture, we calculated the Pearson correlation (i.e., global signal correlation (GSCORR)) with fisher's z transformation between GS and time course in each grayordinate (i.e., gray matter in cortical and subcortical regions). We quantified the GSCORR topography at a group level by averaging the maps of GSCORR across 837 subjects for rest at two days and seven tasks, respectively. Consistent with previous findings (12, 15), a typical GS topography during rest was observed, with higher GSCORR in sensory regions (visual, auditory and somatosensory regions) and lower in association regions (prefrontal and parietal cortices) (Fig. 1).

We then tested the spatial similarity between rest and tasks to check whether GS has a stable architecture. Firstly, we observed an almost identical GS topography during resting state on two days ($r = 0.99$), suggesting the reliability of GS topography across time. We next averaged the two resting state GS topographies and tested the similarity in topography between rest and the seven tasks. High correlations were observed between rest and tasks (on average: $r = 0.91$). Even for the relational task, which was least similar task, the correlation was 0.86. Finally, we checked the correlation between the different tasks, which as expected, was also highly correlated ($r = 0.95$ on average). Together, the high degrees of spatial similarity between the various states (rest-rest, rest-task, task-task) suggested the existence of an intrinsic GS architecture, as its topographical organisation remained largely unchanged across time, and states.

The stability of GS topography was further observed at an individual level by spatial similarity across subjects. The GSCORR topographies of two days' resting state, and seven tasks were first

111   averaged within each subject. Similar to the group level result (but at a lower value), the spatial

112   correlation of GSCORR in resting state across subjects was 0.60 on average; the spatial correlation

113   of GSCORR in tasks across subjects was 0.63; and the spatial correlation of GSCORR between

114   rest and tasks across subjects was slightly lower ($r = 0.58$ on average). The high spatial correlation

115   across subject strongly supports the existence of GS intrinsic architecture.

Spatial Similarity of GSCORR

Fig. 1. **Intrinsic architecture of global signal**. The GSCORR is measured as the Pearson's

correlation between global signal and time course in each grayordinate with fisher's z

transformation. The spatial similarity is measured by Pearson's correlation across grayordinates.

Very high similarities are observed between rest in day1 (REST1) and day2 (REST2) (r = 0.99),

between rest and tasks (r = 0.91 in average), and between different tasks (r = 0.95 in average),

supporting the existence of an intrinsic GS topography.

Task modulation of intrinsic GS architecture

The intrinsic GS architecture may capture brain's global functional organization, or the spatial

pattern of functional irrelevant physiological noise. To clarify the functional relevance of GS

architecture, we investigated how the tasks modulate GS topography.

We first investigated the whole-brain averaged GSCORR across time (REST1 and REST2), and

state (rest and seven tasks). The comparison of GSCORR within the two rests showed no

significant difference despite the large sample size (n=837), while the comparisons of GSCORR

between rest and tasks showed a consistent reduction of GSCORR in all tasks (in all contrasts

between rest and tasks, $t > 12$, Cohen's $d>0.4$, $p<3.8*10^{-32}$, Bonferroni corrected for eight

comparisons (i.e., REST1 vs. REST2, and seven pairs of comparisons between rest and tasks))

(Fig. 2A).

The reduction of whole-brain GSCORR can occur uniformly across all regions in the brain, or,

alternatively, can be manifested in a non-uniform way across different regions. By performing

grayordinate-based comparison between rest and tasks, we observed non-uniform regional

distribution of task modulation of GSCORR. As the sample size was large and therefore easily

reached significance, we used the threshold at |Cohen's d| > 0.2 for further analyses (the threshold

for reaching small effect size, corresponding to |t-values| > 5.78). A large number of regions

showed GSCORR reduction when switching to task state, while only some regions exhibited task-

related increase or remained unchanged (Fig. 2B).

We further tested whether the task modulation of GSCORR (i.e., reduced, increased, or

unchanged), was task-unspecific or task-specific. For this purpose, we generated the overlapped

maps, and calculated the number of task modulations (i.e., reduced, unchanged, or increase) across

the seven tasks for each grayordinate (Fig. 2C top panel), and the percentages of grayordinates for

the number of each modulation (Fig. 2C bottom panel). For the regions showing GSCORR

reduction, 54.2% regions showed reduction in at least 4 tasks (4-7 tasks), while only 18.6% regions

showed GSCORR reduction in 1-3 tasks. For those regions that remained unchanged, 41.3%

exhibited similar GSCORR values across at least 4 tasks (4-7 tasks), while 33% of these regions

remained unchanged in 1-3 tasks. Finally, we refrained from making this calculation in the regions

that showed GSCORR increase as their number was rather small and inconsistent across the

various tasks (Fig. 2C bottom panel). Together these findings suggest that GSCORR modulation

in both type of regions, i.e., reduced and unchanged, was rather task-unspecific as it mostly occurs

across the different tasks.

We lastly examined the regional specificity of GSCORR in task modulation. GSCORR reductions

were observed mainly in auditory and somatosensory regions as well as in the regions belonging

to the DMN. In contrast, the unchanged (plus a small set of increased) regions included the primary

visual cortex (six of the seven tasks included visual components/stimuli), and the regions

belonging to frontoparietal executive control network and ventral attention network (most of the

tasks involved some executive and/or attentional function) (Fig. 2C top panel).

Taken together, we suggested that, while essentially being preserved during task, the intrinsic GS

architecture was nevertheless modulated during tasks in mostly task-unspecific ways. Such

modulation was mainly manifested in GSCORR reduction in a large set of regions while only some

regions exhibited task-related GSCORR increase (and others remained unchanged).

Fig. 2. **Task modulation of global signal architecture.** *A*. whole brain GSCORR in day1

(REST1) and day2 (REST2) rest and seven tasks. *B*. grayordinate-based group comparison for

global signal topography. The maps are thresholded by Cohen's d > |±0.2|. *C.* top panel: the

overlapped map across 7 tasks illustrate the counted number of each grayordinate showing

decrease (left), unchanged (middle), and increase (right) in task when comparing to rest at the

level of Cohen's d > |±0.2|. Bottom panel illustrates the percentage of grayordinates for each

counted number in overlapped maps.

Phase coherence vs. amplitude variability for rest-task modulation of GSCORR

Previous studies demonstrated that the task-related activity is modulated by both amplitude (20,

23) and phase (21) of the ongoing activity. We therefore tested whether rest-task modulation of

GS topography was related to amplitude variation (neural variability) or phase coherence. First,

we calculated phase coherence using the Kuramoto index (24, 25) between global signal and each

grayordinate (Global signal Kuramoto/GSK). The task modulations between task and rest were

calculated by Cohen's d, similar to GSCORR grayordinate-based analysis (see above). Since

GSCORR may also be mediated by other mechanisms like amplitude variation (19), we also

calculated neural variability, measured by standard deviation (SD) (23, 26-28). All the maps were

thresholded at |Cohen's d|>0.2.

To check for similarity or difference in regional distribution, we correlated the spatial topographic

maps of GSCORR with those of phase coherence (GSK) and neural variability (SD), respectively.

The spatial topographical maps for phase coherence (GSK) showed very high spatial similarity

with GSCORR (r-value ranging from 0.79 to 0.96) (Fig. 3) (but differing in their threshold of

significance). In contrast, the spatial maps for SD were clearly different from those of GSCORR

with r-values ranging from 0.22 to 0.49 (Fig. 3). Moreover, comparison of the two maps with each

other, i.e., phase coherence and neural variability, revealed significant difference (for each pair, p

< 0.001, Bonferroni corrected). Finally, even the lowest r value in correlation between GSCORR

and GSK (0.79) was still significantly higher than the highest one between GSCORR and SD (0.49)

(see Figure 3). Together, our findings suggested that task modulation of GSCORR topography are

mediated by phase coherence rather than neural variability.

Fig. 3. **Phase vs. amplitude driven task modulation of global signal topography.** Spatial

similarity of the task modulated topography (task minus rest) between phase coherence index

(measured here as global signal kuramoto index (GSK) between GS and time course in each

grayordinate), GSCORR, and standard deviation (SD). The maps are thresholded by Cohen's d >

|±0.2|, but the spatial similarity is measured based on all grayordinates.

Non-cortical GS components to rest-task modulation – Contributions from basal forebrain

A recent study reported that the neural origin of the global signal lies in the basal forebrain which

suggests that, at least in part, the global signal may reflect the level of arousal (12, 13). We

therefore investigated whether the task modulation of global signal topography is driven by this

subcortical region.

We replicated the previous findings in both rests and all tasks, thresholded at |Cohen's d| > 0.2

(Fig. 4, top panel), by showing a negative correlation between basal forebrain and global signal

(12, 13). Extending these results, we demonstrated that GS in basal forebrain was not modulated

during different tasks when compared to rest as manifested in the absence of any significant rest-

task difference (see Fig. 4 bottom panel). This suggested that the task modulation of GS on the

cortical level, as described above, was not driven by the basal forebrain's contribution to the global

signal.

Fig. 4. GSCORR at Basal Forebrain in rest and tasks. The maps are thresholded by Cohen's d >

|±0.2|. Top panel, group GSCORR comparison with baseline (H0: r = 0). Bottom panel, group

comparison which shows no significant difference between rest and task as reflected in the absence

of any voxel in the basal forebrain.

Non-cortical GS components to rest-task modulation – Contributions from physiological noise

Finally, as the global signal is affected by noise (8), we checked whether the task modulation of

global signal topography was driven by the difference in noise (i.e., head motion, respiration,

cardiac, and signal from the ventricle and white matter). We calculated the GSCORR without any

noise regression (see methods for details). If task modulation of GSCORR was driven by irrelevant

noise, its spatial pattern, as calculated without noise, should show low degrees of spatial similarity

to the one of global signal topography with noise regression. Our results showed high correlation,

and thus very similar GSCORR spatial pattern before and after nuisance noise regression (r > 0.95

in all cases) (Fig. 5). More importantly, we observed that inclusion of noise regression increased

the effect size of GSCORR task modulation in all seven tasks (increased percentage in Cohen's d

ranging from 31% to 69%).

Together, these results suggested that global signal topography during rest-task modulation cannot

be explained by non-neuronal components in global signal. Instead, regressing out non-neuronal

components increased the signal-to-noise ratio, and strengthened the presumed neuronal

component of GSCORR in the measured signal.

Fig. 5. Physiological noise influence on task modulated GSCORR topography. The maps are

thresholded at Cohen's | d | > 0.2. The spatial similarity of task modulation is measured based on

the Cohen's d GSCORR topography. The percentage of enhanced effect size after noise regression

are calculated as the difference of whole brain Cohen's d with normalization (by dividing Cohen's

d before noise regression).

Discussion

 Main findings

This study investigated the existence of intrinsic functional architecture in the brain's global

activity. We demonstrated the GS topography exhibited a stable spatial pattern across rest and task,

supporting the term as intrinsic architecture. Moreover, such GS architecture is modulated during

different tasks by showing task-unspecific decreases in GS levels in most regions while GS

increases could only be observed in a few task-specific regions, suggesting this topography is

functional relevant. The underlying mechanism of rest-task modulation in GS architecture is phase

coherence rather than amplitude variation. Moreover, we rule out other potential sources of GS

architecture on the cortical level including contributions from subcortical regions and non-

neuronal physiological noise. Together, we here demonstrate the existence of an intrinsic

functional architecture of the brain's global activity.

Intrinsic architecture of global signal – Preserved topography during rest and task

Our first main finding shows that the global signal distribution as measured by GSCORR exhibits

an extremely high degree of spatial similarity across different states. The spatial pattern of

GSCORR levels in different regions highly correlated not only among the two resting states (as

expected) but also between rest and task as well as between the different tasks. The topography of

GSCORR is thus preserved throughout the different states; this strongly supports the assumption

of the brain's global activity (as measured by GSCORR) exhibiting an intrinsic architecture.

The existence of an intrinsic architecture in the brain's activity present during both rest and task

states is in-line with findings of functional connectivity in functional networks. In a series of papers,

Cole and colleagues (3, 4, 29, 30) demonstrated a network-based intrinsic architecture, based on

inter-regional functional connectivity, that is preserved during both rest and task states. The

observation of such intrinsic architecture on the network level complements analogous

architectures on both anatomical-structural (31) and biochemical (32) levels. We extend the

assumption of the brain's intrinsic architecture by demonstrating it on the level of the brain's global

activity as distinct from network, anatomical, and biochemical levels. Our results show a

consistency of GS topographical pattern across time, subjects, and states, e.g., rest and task.

Moreover, the observed global intrinsic architecture shapes and structures different task states in

more or less similar ways. Together, these findings support the view of the existence of an intrinsic

architecture of GS. Future studies are warranted to investigate how the global level of the brain's

intrinsic architecture stands in relation to the topographical pattern on anatomical, biochemical,

and network levels.

Functional relevance of global signal intrinsic architecture – spatial distribution and task

modulation

We demonstrate that the GS exhibits a non-uniform topographical distribution across regions,

characterized by higher levels of GSCORR in primary sensory regions like auditory and visual

cortex, and lower levels of GSCORR in higher-order cortical regions like the prefrontal cortex.

This replicates recent findings during resting state in both monkeys (13) and humans (12, 15, 16).

Importantly, GS topography is altered in psychiatric disorders, with abnormal GS levels in

symptom related regions (15, 19). Together, these findings in abnormal conditions suggest that GS

topography is functionally relevant as for cognition and behavior.

The present findings demonstrate that GS topography is modulated during different tasks in largely

task-unspecific ways, e.g., task-unspecific decreases, as well as, in a small number of regions by

task-specific GS increases. These findings suggest that GS topography is not only present during

rest but also shapes task-related activity in different regions in both task-unspecific and task-

specific ways. Hence, task-related activity may be conceived a hybrid of both the impact of the

task itself and its modulation by GS topography including task-specific and task-unspecific

shaping in different regions.

We observed that the level of GSCORR decreased in various regions across the different tasks,

reflecting task-unspecific responses. In contrast, GSCORR increased in only a few regions which

were also limited to specific tasks thus being more task-specific. Finally, a third set of regions do

not show any GSCORR change at all during task states. Overall our data suggest that GS

topography is modulated during tasks predominantly in a task-unspecific (rather than task-specific)

way.

Mechanism of global brain activity – phase coherence

The underlying mechanisms mediating the global activity during rest-task modulation remains

unclear so far. Previous authors suggest either neuronal variability (14) or phase coherence (21,

33-36) to underlie the global signal. We therefore tested whether GS topography during rest-task

modulation is more similar to phase- or, alternatively, amplitude-based signal distributions of

global neural activity. Our data show high correlation of GS rest-task modulation maps with the

topographical maps of phase-based analysis of the same data. In contrast, no such high correlation

is observed with amplitude-based topography. These data let us suggest that GS topography

including its rest-task modulation is strongly driven by phase coherence rather than neural

variability (as measured by SD).

Recent studies in both fMRI (21, 34, 35) and ECoG (36) strongly suggest that functional

connectivity is phase-based and thus reflects the fluctuations in the coherence between different

voxels/regions. Combined with our findings, we extend these results to the global signal. We

assume that GS reflects the phase-based coherence between all voxels/regions on a global level.

Task-unspecific decreases in GS may then be related to phase-based decoupling or

desynchronization of local or regional activity from the overall global activity. Thus, the global

activity may ultimately operate through the degree of phase coherence between global and local

(or regional) activity. On a more processing and informational level, such phase-based

mechanisms underlying global activity may account for the balance between (global) integration

and (local) differentiation (37, 38).

Subcortical and physiological substrate underlying intrinsic global signal architecture

Global signal is subject to controversy as its exact neuronal basis is not fully clear yet (8, 22).

Recent studies demonstrate that the basal forebrain plays a special role in determining global

resting-state fluctuations in both human (12) and macaque (13). This region is functionally

involved with arousal or vigilance regulation (39-42). We here replicate the contribution of basal

forebrain to global signal in both rest and all tasks (Fig. 4 top panel). However, the rest-task

interaction is not explained by the contribution of basal forebrain to global signal (Fig. 4 bottom

panel). This suggests that the global signal may stem or originate in a variety of different neural

substrates, including both subcortical projection and cortical synchronization. While the spatial

organization of global signal, i.e., its intrinsic architecture, may relate mainly to its cortical

component, e.g., cortical synchronization. However, further investigations by isolating the

different components in global signal are warranted to illustrate the topography of each component.

Global signal also partly includes the widespread non-neuronal noise. For this reason, global signal

is usually regressed and thus eliminated from the data (8, 22). However, recent evidence relating

electrophysiological and fMRI measures suggest that the GS is not merely physiological noise but

also contains important neuronal activity (12, 13, 43). Our data provide further support to this view

by showing the functional relevance of GS topography, which may root to the neuronal activity

containing in GS. We showed highly correlating and thus similar topographical distribution of

rest-task GS modulation both with and without physiological noise regression (Fig 5). If the GS

topography only reflected spatial pattern of non-neuronal noise, one would have expected the

opposite - namely, low or no correlation in GS topography between analyses with and without

physiological noise regression. However, further investigations of GS topography using

electrophysiology is necessary to corroborate its assumed neuronal basis.

Conclusion

We here demonstrate an intrinsic functional architecture of the brain's global activity as measured

by the global signal in fMRI. This is well reflected in the preserved topography of GS during both

rest and tasks. Moreover, we show predominant task-unspecific GS decreases or no change in

various regions, while only a few regions exhibiting task-specific increases in GS. Our findings

provide a novel framework for future studies to characterize global signal and its topography

during task states in both healthy and psychiatric subjects.

Materials and Methods

Data Collection

We utilized data from the Human Connectome Project (HCP) (44, 45). All subjects from the

HCP 1200-subject data release (Mar 01, 2017) having completed fMRI sessions with completed

physiological recordings (cardiac and respiratory signals) were included (837 subjects in total).

The age of the participants in the project ranges from 22 to 35, and 54% were female. Whole-

brain echo-planar imaging acquisitions were acquired with a 32-channel head coil on a modified

3T Siemens Skyra with TR = 720 ms, TE = 33.1 ms, flip angle = 52°, BW = 2,290 Hz/Px, in-

plane FOV = 208 × 180 mm, 72 slices, 2.0 mm isotropic voxels, with a multiband acceleration

factor of 8 (46).

Task paradigms

Data were collected over 2 days. On each day the data collection included 28 min of rest (eyes

open with fixation) fMRI data across two runs, and 30 min of task fMRI. Each of the seven tasks

was completed over two consecutive fMRI runs (47). These tasks included seven distinct domains:

emotion, reward learning, language, motor, relational reasoning, social cognition and working

memory. Briefly, the emotion task involved matching fearful or angry faces to a target face. The

reward learning task involved a gambling task with monetary rewards and losses. The language

task involved auditory stimuli consisting of narrative stories and math problems, along with

questions to be answered regarding the prior auditory stimuli. The motor task involved movement

of the hands, tongue and feet. The relational reasoning task involved higher-order cognitive

reasoning regarding relations among features of presented shape stimuli. The social cognition task

used short video clips of moving shapes that interacted in some way or moved randomly, with

subjects making decisions about whether the shapes had social interactions. The working memory

(WM) task consisted of a visual N-back task, in which subjects indicate a match of the current

image to either a constant target image or two images previous. The details of tasks can be found

elsewhere (47).

fMRI data preprocessing

Preprocessing was carried out using Workbranch (48) and custom code in MATLAB 2017b

(MathWorks). Spatial image preprocessing (distortion correction and image alignment) was

carried out using the HCP's grayordinate-based spatial minimal preprocessing pipelines (49).

These pipelines maximize alignment across image modalities, minimize distortions relative to the

subject's anatomical space, and minimize spatial smoothing (blurring) of the data. The data were

projected into the 2mm standard CIFTI grayordinates space, which includes cortical gray matter

surface vertices and subcortical gray matter voxels. This offers substantial improvements in spatial

localization over traditional volume-based analyses, enabling more accurate cross-subject and

cross-study registrations and avoiding smoothing that mixes signals across differing tissue types

or between nearby cortical folds (45, 49).

The within-run intensity was normalized to a whole-brain mode value of 10000. The linear trend

for each run were removed, and the nuisance time series (ventricle, white matter, cardiac,

respiratory signals, motions along with their derivatives) were regressed by using linear regression

(4, 8). The nuisance time series (ventricle, and white matter signals) were extracted from volume-

based minimally processed version. No low-pass temporal filter was applied given the possibility

that frequency specificity might differ between rest and task state (4).

Global signal topography

403 The global signal was calculated for each subject by averaging the fMRI signals across

404 grayordinate. The GS topography was calculated by Pearson correlation (i.e., Global signal

405 correlation/GSCORR) between the global signal and the time series in each grayordinate (5, 8).

406 The correlation r values were then transformed through fisher's z transformation for statistical

407 analyses (3, 4).

Control analysis

To examine whether the global signal topography differed across states due to the difference of

nuisance signal contribution (8), we additionally calculated the GS topography without nuisance

signal regression in preprocessing (ventricle, white matter, cardiac, respiratory signals, motions

alone with their derivatives). The grayordinate-based correlation for the task-rest difference with

and without nuisance signal regression was calculated to check the influence of nuisance signal on

rest-task difference (28).

Spatial similarity of global signal topography

We first tested the spatial similarity between the different states on the group-level map. For that

purpose, we conducted grayordinate-based Pearson correlation between states (i.e., REST (day1)

– REST (day2), REST-TASK, TASK-TASK).

Second, we tested the spatial similarity on the individual-level map. The GSCORR topographies

of two days' resting state, and seven tasks were first averaged within each subject, respectively.

The spatial similarity was then calculated across individuals to check the spatial stability.

Standard Deviation (SD) and phase coherence with global signal in each grayordinate

The contribution to global signal from each grayordinate can depend on either the level of

amplitude or the level of phase coherence. To level of amplitude was measured by the standard

deviation (SD) of blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) signal, which describes the

temporal variability of brain activity across time within voxel (23, 26, 28).

The level of phase coherence was calculated by global signal Kuramoto index (GSK)(24, 25),

which measures the averaged phase synchrony across time between global signal and each

grayordinate and has been applied in fMRI recently (21, 50). The phase was calculated through

Hilbert transform and the phase synchrony as a function of time was quantified by the Kuramoto

index, K(t), defined by:

435
$$K(t) = \frac{1}{n} \left| \sum_{n}^{1} e^{i\theta_j(t)} \right|$$

where n = 2, as the calculation was performed between global signal and each grayordinate. The

overall phase coherence was then defined as the average of Kuramoto index across time (21).

Statistics

Given that in large samples, the *p*-values tend to be significant for small effects, we mainly report

results with a pre-specified effect size using Cohen's d (51). The threshold for the difference in

brain maps was set as | Cohen's d | > 0.2 which corresponds to | t-values | > 5.78 (p < 0.00001) in

the current sample size. All statistical inferences for global signal topography and spatial similarity

were based on two-tailed paired t-tests on the Fisher's z-transformed r-value. Person correlation

(r) was used to measure the spatial similarity and the effect size of correlation (spatial similarity)

was indicated by the r-value.

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