1 Running title: Precision of visual working memory

2 **Neural mechanisms underlying the precision of visual working**
 3 **memory**

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23 **Abstract**

24 The neural mechanisms associated with the limited capacity of working
 25 memory has long been studied, but it is still unclear how the brain maintains the
 26 fidelity of representations in working memory. Here, an orientation recall task
 27 for estimating the precision of visual working memory was performed both
 28 inside and outside an fMRI scanner. Results showed that the trial-by-trial recall
 29 error (in radians) was correlated with delay period activity in the lateral occipital
 30 complex (LOC) during working memory maintenance, regardless of the
 31 memory load. Moreover, delay activity in LOC also correlated with the individual
 32 participant's precision of working memory from a separate behavioral
 33 experiment held two weeks prior. Furthermore, a region within the prefrontal
 34 cortex, the inferior frontal junction (IFJ), exhibited greater functional
 35 connectivity with LOC when the working memory load increased. Together, our
 36 findings provide unique evidence that the LOC supports visual working memory
 37 precision, while communication between the IFJ and LOC varies with visual
 38 working memory load.

39

40

41 **Introduction**

42 Working memory (WM), a system that maintains and manipulates information
 43 in a short period for goal-directed actions (Baddeley 2012), is a critical cognitive
 44 function supporting everyday behaviors including language comprehension
 45 (Baddeley 2003), learning (Mayer and Moreno 1998) and reasoning (Conway
 46 et al. 2003; Luck and Vogel 2013) and correlated with general intelligence
 47 (Engle et al. 2011). However, the capacity of visual WM (VWM) is severely
 48 limited (Luck and Vogel 2013) and likely related to posterior brain activity (Todd
 49 and Marois 2004, 2005; Vogel and Machizawa 2004). Recent studies have
 50 further shown that the precision of VWM representation is also restricted (Bays
 51 and Husain 2008; Zhang and Luck 2008; Bays et al. 2009), while the neural
 52 mechanisms underlying such limited precision are still in debate.

53 Some studies have suggested elevated activity in the primary sensory
 54 cortex during WM maintenance may reflect WM representations, at least in the
 55 somatosensory domain (Zhou and Fuster 1996, 2000). However, other
 56 research have reported an absence of persistent activity in early sensory
 57 regions during VWM maintenance (Luna et al. 2005; Offen et al. 2009), Despite
 58 a lack of elevated activity during WM maintenance, detailed visual features
 59 such as orientation (Ester et al. 2009; Harrison and Tong 2009), motion
 60 direction (Emrich et al. 2013) and spatial location (Sprague et al. 2014, 2016)
 61 can be decoded in human early visual cortices by multivariate analysis of
 62 neuroimaging data (Riggall and Postle 2012; Albers et al. 2013). These recent

findings imply the precision of VWM is encoded in early visual cortices. Yet, activities in the superior intraparietal sulcus (IPS) and the lateral occipital complex (LOC) depend on object complexity during the delay (Xu and Chun 2006), which suggests additional neural regions may contribute to the precision of VWM. Therefore, additional research is required to understand the roles of these regions in VWM precision.

Persistent neuronal activity in the prefrontal cortex has long been associated with the maintenance of VWM contents when visual stimuli are no longer present (Fuster and Alexander 1971; Goldman-Rakic 1995). Moreover, top-down signals from the prefrontal cortex modulate activity within sensory cortices and influence WM processes (Gazzaley and Nobre 2012). Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) to the prefrontal cortex alters sensory processes in visual cortex during both visual perception (Ruff et al. 2006) and VWM (Zanto et al. 2011) tasks. Importantly, this top-down modulation of visual cortical activity during sensory encoding correlates with alterations in VWM performance (Bollinger et al. 2010; Zanto et al. 2011). However, whether this top-down modulation persists during the delay, and whether such modulation during VWM maintenance relates to VWM precision, still remains unknown. Together, both sensory cortex and prefrontal cortex have been identified as important regions supporting VWM, but their process-specific contributions remain unclear. Indeed, fronto-parietal cortices and sensory cortices have been proposed to represent different aspects of WM, such as the quantity (i.e.,

85 capacity) and the quality (i.e., precision) of WM representations, respectively
86 (Ku et al. 2015), but support for this hypothesis is lacking.

87 In order to elucidate neural networks associated with VWM quantity and
88 quality, we asked subjects to perform an orientation recall task inside a
89 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scanner. A whole brain univariate analysis
90 was applied to explore the neural candidates associated with the precision of
91 VWM, as univariate methods have less bias towards sensory regions than
92 multivariate methods when decoding visual features (Jimura and Poldrack
93 2012; Davis et al. 2014). We further assessed the connectivity between the
94 precision-sensitive areas and other regions that may support VWM precision
95 processes.

96

97 **Materials and methods**

98 **Experiment 1: Behavioral experiments**

99 **Participants**

100 Twenty-six healthy right-handed volunteers (10 males, age range 21.31 ± 1.94)
101 from the East China Normal University participated in the behavioral
102 experiment. The experimental protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee
103 of the School of Psychology and Cognitive Science, East China Normal
104 University. Informed written consents were obtained from all subjects.

105

106 **Stimuli and Procedure**

107 Stimuli were presented on a 60 Hz LCD monitor through MATLAB-based
108 Psychophysics Toolbox (Version 3).

109 Each trial began with a fixation cross presented in the center of the screen
110 throughout the whole trial. Subjects were asked to fixate on the cross (Fig. 1)
111 during the experiment. A 200-ms sample array consisting of one, two, three,
112 four or six bars were then presented on the screen. All items were located on
113 invisible circle with a radius of 4° . Each item in the sample array was $1.5^\circ \times$
114 of visual angle. The orientations of the bars were chosen from 1° to 180° . In
115 order to prevent between-item distraction, orientations of every two bars were
116 differentiated at least 15° . After the sample array, one 900-ms retention
117 interval with a blank screen was presented. In the probe array, one of the bars
118 was presented in the same spatial location, but with a random orientation,
119 which required the subjects to recall the orientation of the corresponding item
120 from the sample array by rotating the bar with the computer mouse. Subjects
121 were required to perform it as precisely as they can without a time limitation.
122 Inter-trial-interval (ITI) was jittered between 200 to 500 ms with a 50 ms step.
123 Every subject completed five blocks, each consisted of 100 trials (20 trials for
124 each WM load) and the sequence of WM load was randomly ordered in each
125 block.

126

127 **Behavioral Data Analyses**

128 The data from each subject contained a set of the distance between the

129 reported orientation and the origin one, which reflected the response error
 130 ranging $-\pi$ to π . The standard mixture model (Zhang and Luck 2008; Bays et al.
 131 2009) was used to fit the performance of each subject in each memory load
 132 condition according to a Maximum likelihood estimation. There were three
 133 possible sources in the model: a uniform distribution for the trials, which was
 134 not encoded into memory, a Von Mises distribution for the trials that the target
 135 orientations were encoded into memory and another Von Mises distribution
 136 with the same concentration as the first one but centered at nontarget
 137 responses. Correspondently, four parameters were returned from the model
 138 while the summary of the first three parameters equaled one: P_t , the
 139 probability that the target item was remembered; P_n , the probability that
 140 nontarget items were remembered by mistake; P_u , the guess rate and SD , the
 141 standard deviation of the Von Mises distribution, which reflected the precision
 142 of the memory representation. This model can be described as the following
 143 equation:

$$p(\hat{\theta}) = (1 - \gamma - \beta)\phi_{\sigma}(\hat{\theta} - \theta) + \gamma\frac{1}{2\pi} + \beta\frac{1}{m}\sum_i^m \phi_{\sigma}(\hat{\theta} - \theta_i^*)$$

144 where θ is the origin orientation (in radians), $\hat{\theta}$ is the reported orientation,
 145 γ refers to the proportion of trials that subjects reported randomly, α is the
 146 probability of successfully reporting the target orientation, β is the probability
 147 of reporting a nontarget orientation and ϕ_{σ} is the Von Mises Distribution with
 148 mean zero and standard deviation σ .

149 For more details of this model, see Bays et al. (2009) (Bays et al. 2009).

Parameters were estimated using MATLAB toolbox available at <http://www.bayslab.com> and separate estimations were obtained for each subject and condition.

Experiment 2: fMRI experiment

Participants

Fifteen subjects from experiment 1 volunteered to take part in the fMRI experiment. Two subjects were excluded because of excessive head-movement (> 3 mm), leaving thirteen subjects (8 males, age range 21.54 ± 1.99) for data analysis. The two experiments were separated over at least two weeks to avoid practice effects. Subjects all completed Informed Written Consent and the experimental protocol was also approved by the Ethics Committee of the School of Psychology and Cognitive Science, East China Normal University.

Stimuli and Procedure

The stimuli and procedure in the fMRI experiment (Fig. 1) were the same as the behavioral experiment except for: a. the sample array was presented for 500 ms; b. the duration of the delay period was 8 sec; c. there was a 4-s time limitation to respond to the probe (no subjects failed to respond within this time period in any trials); d. the ITI was extended to 3.5 s, 5.5 s or 7.5 s pseudorandomly; e. the memory load was 1, 2, 4 or 6 in this experiment.

Subjects performed 160 trials over eight runs in the scanner. Each run contained sixteen WM trials with four trials in each WM load and four 16-s blank trials with only the fixation cross presented on the screen. The probability of memory load switch was balanced. Stimuli were presented by a 60 Hz projector and viewed through a coil-mounted mirror.

177

178 **fMRI Data Acquisition**

All MRI images were collected at the Shanghai Key Laboratory of Magnetic Resonance of the East China Normal University using a 3T Siemens Trio and a 12-channel RF coil. T1-weighted anatomical images were acquired using MPAGE sequence (TR = 2530 ms, TE = 2.45 ms, flip angle: 7°, FOV: 256 mm, voxel size: 1 mm × 1 mm × 1 mm). For functional data, 33 slices covering the whole brain were defined: slice thickness 4 mm, slice gap 0 mm, FOV: 210 mm, phase-encode direction anterior-posterior. A T2*-weighted, gradient-echo EPI sequence was used: matrix size: 64 × 64, TR = 2 s, TE = 30 ms, flip angle: 90°, voxel size: 3.3 mm × 3.3 mm × 4 mm.

188

189 **fMRI Data Analyses**

Functional data were pre-processed using the SPM8 (Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging, London, UK; www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk) toolbox in MATLAB. All volumes performed slice time correction, motion correction using the rigid-body to align all volumes to the first volume in the first run, co-registration

194 with the subject-native anatomical volume, normalization to the Montreal
195 Neurological Institute (MNI) space, spatial smoothing using an 8-mm FWHM
196 Gaussian filter and 1/128 Hz cutoff high-pass temporal filter.

197 In our first general linear model (GLM), we seek to identify brain areas
198 which show a main effect of WM load. According to previous theories, there
199 exists a limitation of WM capacity which is the “magical number 4” (Cowan
200 2010). So we separated all trials into two categories: low WM load
201 (combination of loads 1 and 2) and high WM load (combination of loads 4 and
202 6). Then, we modeled the sample array, delay and probe array including two
203 levels of memory loads as separated regressors, producing a total of 6
204 regressors in the GLM. Regressors were modeled as stick function convolved
205 with a standard hemodynamic response function (HRF). Six rigid body
206 parameters were also included to correct for the head motion artifact. For the
207 group level analysis, the “high WM” and “low WM” contrasts corresponding to
208 the delay stage were subjected to second-level random effects analysis using
209 a paired t-test (“high WM > low WM”) in SPM8.

210 In order to identify brain areas associated with VWM precision, we did
211 another GLM analysis in which the absolute value of response errors (in radian)
212 of every trial inside the scanner were put into the GLM as a parametric
213 regressor. In this case, we pooled all response errors together regardless of
214 the load condition. At the group level, we used a one-sample t-test to assess
215 the brain areas that showed a negative association between the behavioral

216 performance (i.e., less error means higher precision) and BOLD signal. Brain
217 areas identified in this analysis were used as the Regions of Interest for WM
218 precision (“precision ROIs”).

219 To investigate the functional connectivity between sensory areas and
220 other parts of the brain during the delay period of VWM, a psychophysiological
221 interaction (PPI) (Friston et al. 1997) analysis was performed. Volumes of
222 interest (VOIs) were defined as 5 mm-radius sphere centered around areas
223 showing the WM precision effect. The eigenvariate of the time series from
224 these VOIs (or seeds) were extracted based on the first GLM. A PPI contrast of
225 “high load > low load” was defined. At the group level, a one-sample t-test was
226 applied to search for brain areas that show higher functional connectivity with
227 these seeds in high load than in low load conditions.

228 All analyses were set to a threshold of $p < 0.001$ at the voxel level with a
229 70-voxel cluster extent to achieve a family-wise error corrected $p < 0.05$ using
230 alpha probability simulations in the REST toolbox (<http://www.restfmri.net>
231 (Song et al. 2011)).

232

233 **Within-subject Correlation Between Experiments**

234 The activity in LOC during the delay period was related to the behavioral
235 performance trial-by-trial inside the scanner. Furthermore, we tested whether
236 the averaged activity in LOC inside the scanner predicted the precision of
237 VWM performance outside the scanner. Here we applied a within-subject

correlation approach (Bland and Altman 1995; Emrich et al. 2013) to examine the relationship between *changes* in the LOC response and *changes* in VWM precision across load. Specifically, we made the BOLD signal in LOC as the outcome variable and the behavioral performance of VWM precision as predictor variables, and we treated the subject variable as the covariate. In other words, an ANCOVA was used to eliminate between-subject differences of BOLD signal in LOC and then we can get the variation of LOC activity across WM loads due to changes of VWM precision estimated from the behavioral experiment outside the MRI scanner using the mixture model.

Results

Experiment 1: Behavioral experiment

In order to evaluate visual working memory precision for line orientation, subjects were asked to finish a 45-minute behavioral experiment (Fig.1). As showed in Figure 2, the height of the response error distribution curves declined and the width of the curves increased with an increasing WM load. Repeated measures ANOVA results revealed significant load effects on the probability of correct target response (P_t , $F_{(4, 100)} = 42.562$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.63$), memory precision ($F_{(4, 100)} = 79.811$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.761$), as well as on the probability of mistakenly reporting a nontarget item (P_n , $F_{(4, 100)} = 13.304$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.347$) and the guessing rate (P_u , $F_{(4, 100)} = 10.373$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.293$).

260

261 **Experiment 2: fMRI experiment**

262 **Behavioral results**

263 The behavioral results replicated the load effects from the behavioral
264 experiment, such that a repeated measures ANOVA yielded the same main
265 effects for load: Pt ($F_{(3, 36)} = 30.695$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.719$), precision, ($F_{(3, 36)} =$
266 104.593 , $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.897$), Pn ($F_{(3, 36)} = 6.015$, $p = 0.002$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.334$),
267 and Pu ($F_{(3, 36)} = 7.244$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.376$).

268

269 **fMRI results**

270 We built our first general linear model (GLM) to identify brain areas showing a
271 WM load effect. Consistent with previous studies (Todd and Marois 2004;
272 Barch et al. 2013), group level contrasts between “high WM load” and “low WM
273 load” (i.e., the load effect) evoked widely spread activities in a frontal-parietal
274 network (Fig. 3) during the delay period of the WM task. Specifically, seven
275 cortical regions showed significant activations after multiple-comparison
276 correction: bilateral frontal eye fields (FEF), bilateral inferior frontal junction
277 (IFJ), dorsal anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), and bilateral inferior parietal lobe
278 (IPL) (see Table 1).

279 To investigate the neural representation of VWM precision, a parametric
280 analysis was applied by putting the response errors (in radians) of each trial as
281 a parametric regressor into our second GLM in which we pooled all response

errors together regardless of the load condition. Results revealed that only three clusters of voxels in the lateral occipital complex (LOC) were negatively related with the increase of response errors in each trial during the delay period (Fig. 4A): two in the left LOC (peak MNI coordinate: [-26 -88 6], maximum $t_{(12)} = 4.915$, $p_{\text{FWE}} < 0.05$, 88 voxels; peak MNI coordinate: [-36 -80 -2], maximum $t_{(12)} = 5.388$, $p_{\text{FWE}} < 0.05$, 120 voxels), and one in the right LOC (peak MNI coordinate: [32 -80 2], maximum $t_{(12)} = 6.058$, $p_{\text{FWE}} < 0.05$, 73 voxels). Given the interpretation that the BOLD signal was larger in these three areas when behavioral error was smaller, the results indicated that these regions of interest (ROIs) may play an important role in holding the precise orientations in VWM, and serve as an candidate for “precision regions-of-interest (ROIs)”. Nevertheless, according to the results of experiment 1 and previous findings (Zhang and Luck 2008; Bays et al. 2009; van den Berg et al. 2012), VWM precision decreases with increasing memory load. So, it is possible that the regions tracing the precision might just reflect a load effect. Although we didn’t find any activation in the visual cortex when we directly measured the load effect using paired t-tests, it was still worth testing this possibility by adding WM load (low vs. high) as a regressor into the second GLM. No regions showed differential activation between the two levels of WM load, which confirmed the results that the three lateral occipital areas were only sensitive for memory precision rather than the memory load.

303 However, even though the “precision ROIs” exhibited response profiles
 304 that tracked the maintenance of VWM precision, it is unlikely that this kind of
 305 process is completely independent of the WM load effect. Here, we performed
 306 a PPI analysis to see if the ROIs are functionally connected with other regions
 307 in the brain that are sensitive to VWM load. Note that since the two clusters in
 308 the left hemisphere are so close to each other, we combined them into one
 309 ROI and set the PPI seed at the center of the peak voxel in this combined ROI.
 310 Results in Figure 4B shows that both ROIs exhibited significantly higher
 311 connectivity with the right inferior frontal junction when the load increased (IFJ,
 312 high load > low load, l_LOC: $t_{(12)} = 8.528$, 309 voxels; r_LOC: $t_{(12)} = 5.982$, 198
 313 voxels). In addition, the right LOC also showed differential functional
 314 connectivity with the left insula between the high and low WM load ($t_{(12)} =$
 315 4.906, $p_{\text{FWE}} < 0.05$, 72 voxels).

316

317 **Relating brain activity and response precision**

318 To test whether the areas activated during the WM task really trace the WM
 319 precision at the individual level, we applied a correlation method (Bland and
 320 Altman 1995) which focused on the within-subject changes across load by
 321 using an ANCOVA to eliminate the between-subject differences in BOLD signal.
 322 The results showed that the average beta values in all “precision ROIs” during
 323 the delay period across the four memory loads were correlated to the WM

precision estimated from the mixture model using the data from experiment 1
($r = 0.732$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 5).

Discussion

In order to characterize the neural mechanisms associated with the precision of VWM, in the current study, an orientation recall task was performed inside and outside an fMRI scanner under different VWM loads. Consistent with previous findings, behavioral results revealed that the precision decreased and the guessing rate increased when WM load was increased (Zhang and Luck 2008; Bays et al. 2009; van den Berg et al. 2012). Interestingly, BOLD signal in LOC could trace the precision of VWM trial-by-trial inside the MRI scanner, and were further correlated with the precision of VWM calculated from the behavioral performance outside the scanner at the individual level by a mixture model (Bays et al. 2009). Therefore, LOC is likely an important candidate for neural mechanisms underlying the precision of VWM. These results coincide with Xu and Chun's previous findings, which indicate the delay activity in LOC co-vary with object complexity (Xu and Chun 2006). Meanwhile, our results did not contradict directly with previous findings where primary visual cortices (Harrison and Tong 2009; Sprague et al. 2014), parietal cortices (Bettencourt and Xu 2015; Ester et al. 2015) or frontal cortices (Ester et al. 2015) encode stimulus-specific mnemonic representations during VWM, as those studies all used multivariate methods to decode mnemonic objects using activity in those

346 brain regions. However, none of those decoded patterns linked to the
 347 trial-by-trial performance, which was established in the present study. We used
 348 the behavioral response error as a parametric regressor to model a univariate
 349 GLM and only LOC exhibited a significant negative correlation with the error,
 350 which implicates the sensitivity of LOC activity to the precision of VWM. It is
 351 urged for future studies to link the decoding accuracy from the neural activity
 352 during the periods of sensory encoding and memory maintenance with the
 353 trial-wise precision from the behavioral data.

354 LOC, which is located in the middle level of visual hierarchies, is
 355 appropriate for connecting sensory-specific representations and
 356 memory-specific representations. Importantly, the connectivity between the
 357 bilateral LOCs and the right IFJ is stronger when the task load increases,
 358 which provides further evidence for a distributed network to represent different
 359 aspects of targets in VWM (Ku et al. 2015) and to fulfill goal-directed actions.
 360 This functional connectivity could be either a bottom-up information transfer or
 361 a top-down modulation of sensory cortical activity. Here, we speculate it is
 362 more likely a top-down control from the prefrontal cortex since previous
 363 research has provided causal evidence that top-down signals originating from
 364 the prefrontal cortex modulate sensory cortical activities (Ruff et al. 2006;
 365 Feredoes et al. 2011). Furthermore, applying inhibitory repetitive TMS to the
 366 right IFJ decreases neural suppression (i.e., increases activity) in sensory
 367 cortices to irrelevant stimuli and results in an increased reliance on LOC to

368 uphold VWM performance (Zanto et al. 2013). Therefore, the current finding
369 provides further evidence for the interaction between the prefrontal cortex and
370 sensory cortices (Ku et al. 2015) and supports the distributed nature of VWM
371 (Christophel et al. 2017).

372 It is notable that seeds within the bilateral LOC both increased the
373 connectivity to the right IFJ with increasing VWM load. This hemispheric
374 asymmetry within the prefrontal cortex is consistent with previous findings that
375 revealed the involvement of the right prefrontal cortex more frequently than the
376 left prefrontal cortex during visuospatial WM tasks (Postle and D'Esposito
377 2000; Gazzaley et al. 2004; Zanto et al. 2011). Additionally, when the right LOC
378 is set as a seed, connectivity to the left insula is observed as well. The left
379 insula and the right IFJ in our PPI results echoed a meta-analysis study
380 showing these two regions' critical function in intrusion resistance (Nee and
381 Brown 2013), which may help explain why functional connectivity is stronger in
382 the high-load condition – possibly to protect the VWM contents from internal
383 interference. Moreover, insula has also been suggested to be involved in
384 sustained attention during the maintenance of WM (Dosenbach et al. 2008)
385 and recruited to support performance in high-demanding tasks (Derrfuss et al.
386 2005; Minzenberg et al. 2009). Previous research also showed evidence that
387 the insula is involved in multimodal WM tasks including visual (Pouthas et al.
388 2005), auditory (Bamiou et al. 2003; Arnott 2005) and tactile (Sörös et al. 2007)

stimuli, which further indicates its role in encoding multiple sources of sensory information (Silverstein et al. 2010) and goal-directed actions.

Parietal cortices, especially the superior IPS, is critical in maintaining robust WM representation against distractors (Behrmann et al. 2004; Bettencourt and Xu 2015), and possibly in controlling the trial-by-trial variability of WM precision (Galeano Weber et al. 2016). While the current study did not observe a direct correlation between parietal activity and the trial-by-trial response error, IPS is more critical when more mnemonic information is needed to be maintained in WM (i.e., to represent multiple memorandums) (Xu 2017). Indeed, in the present study, the superior and inferior IPS is activated when the load of WM increases, which coincide with previous findings (Todd and Marois 2004; Barch et al. 2013).

In conclusion, the current study provides evidence that the LOC plays an important role in maintaining detailed visual representations in VWM, and increased functional connectivity between LOC and prefrontal areas such as the right IFJ and the left insula help fulfill goal-directed VWM processes under increased task demands (i.e., when the VWM load is higher).

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553

Table 1. Results of whole-brain univariate analysis of the load effect

Regions	MNI Coordinates			Max T-value	Cluster size
	x	y	z		
L parietal lobe	-24	-56	34	9.266	1993
R parietal lobe	34	-58	48	9.123	2405
L inferior frontal junction	-44	6	22	5.187	412
R inferior frontal junction	54	14	30	5.944	406
L frontal eye fields	-26	-2	52	4.698	78
R frontal eye fields	28	-2	54	5.279	330
Anterior cingulate cortex	-8	18	44	7.073	788

555

556

Figure Legends:

Figure 1. Orientation recall task with an example of WM load 4. On each trial, subjects were shown an arrangement of several bars presented at 4° eccentricity. After a delay period, one of the bars was presented again and subjects were asked to adjust the bar using a computer mouse to match the orientation of it in their memory. In the behavioral experiment, the sample array and delay array lasted 0.2 s and 0.9 s, respectively, and the probe array lasted until the subject response. In the fMRI experiment, the sample, delay, and probe array lasted 0.5 s, 8 s, and 4 s, respectively. Inter-trial intervals were

566 chosen randomly from 0.2 to 0.5 s (with 50 ms steps) in the behavioral
567 experiment and 3.5 s, 5.5 s or 7.5 s in the fMRI experiment.

568

569 Figure 2. Behavioral experiment results. A. The probability distribution of the
570 difference between reported orientation and original orientation (response
571 error) across all subjects, along with the fit of a mixture model (solid line, see
572 Methods) (Bays et al. 2009). The height of the distribution represents the
573 probability of remembering the probed item while the width of the distribution
574 quantifies the precision of working memory. B. Parameters of the mixture
575 model as a function of load size. Error bars represent standard error (s.e.m.)
576 across subjects. Results showed a decrease in memory capacity (Pt) and
577 precision as a function of memory load, as well as an increase in non-target
578 responses (Pn) and guessing rate (Pu) at higher memory loads.

579

580 Figure 3. Activation related to working memory load (i.e., high WM load > low
581 WM load) during the delay period. All data were analyzed on the MNI template.
582 Results showed that voxels in bilateral parietal lobes, inferior frontal gyrus,
583 medial frontal gyrus and anterior cingulate cortex (see Table 1) had significant
584 activation differences between high / low WM load.

585

586 Figure 4. Parametric analysis and PPI results. A. Localization of brain regions
587 reflecting precision. We included the absolute value of the response error

588 observed on each trial in a GLM analysis (see Methods). Three clusters in
589 lateral occipital cortex (two in left hemisphere and one in right hemisphere)
590 exhibit significant negative beta weights on the response error regressors,
591 indicating that activity levels in these regions are positively correlated with
592 memory precision. B. Functional connectivity of precision-related regions and
593 other parts of the brain. Two 5-mm-radian sphere ROIs centered at peak
594 coordinates of clusters in A in each hemisphere respectively were set as seeds
595 in PPI analysis. Both seeds exhibited stronger functional connectivity to right
596 inferior frontal junction (IFJ) in high working memory load trials (load 4 & 6)
597 compared with low working memory load trials (load 1 & 2). Right lateral
598 occipital cortex seed was also connected with left insula at higher working
599 memory load.

600

601 Figure 5. The relationship between brain activities in precision-related brain
602 regions and behavioral performance. There are four dots for each subject,
603 where each dot indicates for one WM load level. Results showed that changes
604 in BOLD signal across WM loads were significantly correlated with changes in
605 working memory precision returned from the mixture model (Bays et al. 2009)
606 in the behavioral experiment outside MRI scanner at individual level. Data
607 were modeled for each subject and fit with parallel lines with ANCOVA
608 according to the methods of Bland and Altman (1995) (Bland and Altman
609 1995).

A.

Brain regions related to WM precision

B.

Functional connectivity