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**Behavioral/Systems/Cognitive**

## Synchronization of Neural Activity across Cortical Areas Correlates with Conscious Perception

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### ► Abstract

Subliminal stimuli can be deeply processed and activate similar brain areas as consciously per-

stimuli. This raises the question which signatures of neural activity critically differentiate conscious processing. Transient synchronization of neural activity has been proposed as a neural correlate. Here we test this proposal by comparing the electrophysiological responses related to the processing of invisible words in a delayed matching to sample task. Both perceived and nonperceived words induced local (gamma) oscillations in the EEG, but only perceived words induced a transient long-distance synchronization between widely separated regions of the brain. After this transient period of temporal coordination, the unconscious processes continue to diverge. Only words reported as perceived induced (1) enhanced maintenance interval, (2) an increase of the P300 component of the event-related potential, and gamma oscillations before the anticipated presentation of the test word. We propose that the critical perception is the early transient global increase of phase synchrony of oscillatory activity in the

**Key words:** visual awareness; electroencephalography; event-related potentials; gamma-band oscillatory neural synchrony

## ► Introduction

Stimuli that are masked and presented so briefly that they cannot be reported can still be highly processed and activate motor responses (Marcel, 1983; Dehaene et al., 1998, 2001, 2004; Naccache et al., 2002; Cipolotti, 2006), or prosopagnosia (Renault et al., 1989) supports the notion that unconscious stimuli can activate high-level cortical areas. This implies that complex cognition can proceed in the absence of awareness, raising the question how the neuronal substrates of conscious and nonconscious processes differ. Enhanced neural activity associated with conscious perception associates with enhanced sensory responses (Grill-Spector et al., 2000; Bar et al., 2003) and processing hierarchy (Beck et al., 2001; Dehaene et al., 2001; Kleinschmidt et al., 2002). However, other studies suggest that this may not be a sufficient condition, because invisible stimuli activate the brain (Milner and Zeki, 2002, 2006).

Alternatively, it has been proposed that conscious perception depends on the transient synchronization of neural activity (Engel et al., 1999; Engel and Singer, 2001; Thompson and Varela, 2001; Singer, 2002). Local coordination of neural activity and propagation along sensory processing pathways would be local, whereas global coordination of widely distributed neural activity by long-distance synchronization (Dehaene et al., 2004) and enhanced phase synchrony is enhanced for consciously perceived stimuli (Meador et al., 2002; Grill-Spector et al., 2005) and correlates with conscious perception in binocular rivalry (Fries et al., 1997, 2002). However, these studies have investigated synchronization in spatially restricted neural assemblies and global coordination. The purpose of this study was to disentangle the role of local processing and global coordination in conscious perception and to determine the nature and the time course of electrophysiological events that characterize conscious perception.

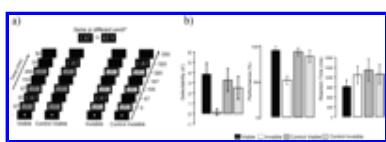
We recorded electroencephalographic (EEG) signals in subjects engaged in a delayed matching to sample task. The word was manipulated such that the word was either consciously perceived or remained invisible but was processed (Varela et al., 2001), we measured over a wide frequency range (1) time-resolved synchronization across recording sites. We found that visible and invisible conditions differed in the time course of local neural processing. In addition, only consciously perceived stimuli gave rise to a cascade of electrophysiological events associated with perception stabilization, maintenance in working memory, and generation of executive processes. Transient synchronization is the critical event that triggers these subsequent processes by enhancing the synchrony of neural activity in widely separated regions of the brain, which permit access to consciousness.

## ► Materials and Methods

### Experiment 1

*Subjects.* Fifteen normal healthy subjects gave written informed consent to participate in the study (mean age, 20.6 years). All were native Spanish speakers, right handed, had normal or corrected-to-normal vision, and were naive to the purpose of the experiment.

*Stimuli and task.* Participants were engaged in a two-alternative, forced-choice-delayed matching task (12 trials), in which the sample stimuli could be either visible or invisible. The subjects' task was to identify whether a briefly presented 33 ms "sample word" was the same or different from a second "test word" presented 100 ms later. Participants responded by pressing one of two different buttons mounted on a response pad, with the response being at the left button for seven participants, the same response was at the right button, whereas in eight participants, it was at the left button. Each trial was preceded by a 10 ms blank screen, followed by masking stimuli (67 ms each), which changed in luminance between trials (rendering them perceptually similar). To assess the responses to the masking stream itself, sample words were replaced by constant (control conditions). To render control trials perceptually similar to experimental trials, the mask stream was presented 100 ms after the mask stream and before test word presentation (see [Fig. 1a](#)). This design enabled us to subtract the response elicited by the masking stimuli.



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**Figure 1.** Design and behavioral results of experiment. *a*, A briefly presented word (sample word) with a subsequent word was controlled by changing the luminance of the mask stream. The brain response to the mask stream. The left timeline shows the cumulative time. *b*, Behavioral performance (percent correct) and reaction time (ms) for all conditions. The right plot shows the reaction time for all conditions.

The stimulus set consisted of 40 disyllabic Spanish words. Syllables were consonant–vowel. All words were in uppercase (S. Sadowsky and R. Martínez, unpublished observation) and presented in Howard light font. The words were colored (luminance change) on a black background, rendering the sample word visible or invisible. The colors were set in a previous control experiment and were kept constant throughout the subjects. Mask and test words were drawn with identical line thickness as the font used for the sample words. All stimuli were presented in enhanced graphic adapter mode (150 Hz refresh rate), located in the central area of the screen, and each participant ran a training block of 20 trials. Experimental and control trials were pseudo-randomized with a variable rest pause. All conditions were equally presented within a block. The intertrial interval was 1000 ms. The experiment was performed in a silent, dimly lit, and electrically shielded room. Special care was taken to prevent contamination of the EEG signal by the 50 Hz AC component, because the gamma band response to the words was reduced by recording inside a completely hermetic Faraday cage. All of the electric equipment was grounded, with the only exception of the monitor, which was electrically shielded.

### Experiment 2

Twenty subjects took part in an unconscious semantic priming experiment (11 males; mean age 21.4 years) used in the previous experiment. All subjects gave written informed consent, were native Spanish speakers, had normal vision, and were naive of the purpose of the experiment. Participants performed a simple

left or right index finger (response pattern was reversed for half of the subjects) to indicate whether the word was presented to them respectively. Unknown to them, another word, which could be either semantically congruent (e.g., dog) with the target word was presented for 33 ms before the target and surrounded by forward mask. The duration of the prime and mask were the same as in the previous experiment (mask – prime – n word was presented for 300 ms, and the third mask remained on the screen until subjects responded). The total duration of the task was 100 ms (33 ms prime + 67 ms forward mask).

#### *Electrophysiological recording and analysis*

EEG activity was recorded from a 64-electrode geodesic sensor net referenced to the vertex. The sampling rate was 1000 Hz and the initial bandpass recording filter was set at 0.01–100 Hz.

For the event-related potential (ERP) analysis, the continuous EEG signal was bandpass filtered with a bandpass filter (Kaiser type), which has a linear phase response [passband gain, 99% (50–99.9%; –0.1 dB at 100 Hz (0.3–10 Hz)]. Then, the filtered signal was segmented in a series of 1100-ms-long epochs. Each epoch began with the first mask. Trials that contained voltage fluctuations exceeding  $\pm 200 \mu\text{V}$ , transients exceeding  $\pm 70 \mu\text{V}$  were rejected. Artifact free trials were averaged in synchrony with first mask presentation and baseline corrected over a 100 ms window. The EEGLAB Matlab toolbox was used for visualization (Makeig, 2004).

For the analysis of time-frequency distributions and phase synchrony, a filter was designed that removed the 50 Hz component but kept the biological 50 Hz signal. The amplitude and phase of the AC signal was analyzed. This eliminated selectively the periodic part of the 50 Hz component (line frequency). Then, a bandpass filter (10–100 Hz) was applied, and the filtered signal was analyzed with a sliding-window fast Fourier transform (window overlap, 90%). For every time window and frequency bin, amplitude and phase were computed. The signals were zero-padded to complete 1024 points and fast Fourier transformed to get an interpolated frequency spectrum. Instantaneous amplitude was then computed by taking the real and imaginary Fourier coefficients and taking the square root (sqrt) (i.e., for a given time window  $t$  and frequency bin  $f$ ), as follows:

$$\text{Amp}(f,t) = \sqrt{C(f,t)_r^2 + C(f,t)_i^2}.$$

This amplitude corresponds to the length of the vector specified by the real and imaginary Fourier coefficients, equivalent to the magnitude of the observed oscillation at a given time and frequency point.

During the same time window and frequency bin, phase was computed as the arc tangent (arctg) of the real and imaginary Fourier coefficients, as follows:

$$\text{Phi}(f,t) = \text{arctg}(C(f,t)_i / C(f,t)_r).$$

Phi is thus the angle of the vector specified by the real and imaginary Fourier coefficient. For a given frequency bin, the phase is a position inside the oscillation cycle (peak, valley, rising, or falling slope).

These amplitude and phase values are evaluated in the 10–100 Hz frequency range and in the 10–100 ms time presentation. Phase information was then used to compute a time-varying phase-locking value (PLV) (Lachaux et al., 1999; Rodriguez et al., 1999). In brief, the method involves computing the phase difference between the two signals. The stability of such phase difference through all trials. If  $\varphi_i$  and  $\varphi_j$  are unitary vectors representing the phase of two signals at a given time, the phase difference between such signals is a unitary vector obtained by multiplying the first vector by the second vector.

$$\phi_{ij} = \phi_i \text{conj}(\phi_j).$$

The PLV is thus the length of the vector resulting from the vector sum of difference vectors  $\phi_{ij}$ :

$$PLV_{ij} = \text{abs}(1/N \times \sum \phi_{ij}),$$

with the sum operating throughout all of the trials and where  $N$  is the number of trials. The PLV ranges from -1 to 1, where 1 represents perfect synchronization (phase difference is perfectly constant throughout the trials) and value 0 represents no synchronization. Time-frequency charts of both phase synchrony and spectral power were normalized to a baseline period. This involves subtracting the baseline average and dividing by the baseline SD on a frequency-by-frequency basis. The baseline average is the average of the signal during the baseline period, and  $\sigma$  is the SD of the same baseline period. The normalized value is:

$$S_N = (S - \mu) / \sigma.$$

In another analysis aiming to analyze the theta activity associated with the retention interval (from 1000 to 1400 ms), a time-frequency transform was computed over a 467 ms window, on the raw unfiltered EEG signal. Afterward, the power in the theta band (5–6 Hz) was measured and showed significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher amplitude (5–6 Hz) were added over trials and subjects.

#### *Statistical analysis*

Because we were interested in long-range coordination of neural activity, we included all electrode pairs in the analysis. This allowed us to study synchronization across a large frequency range. Behavioral and EEG data were analyzed with two-way ANOVA for all tests.

The statistical analyses of the time-frequency distributions and phase synchrony were all performed on the electrophysiological responses of all sensors during the entire segment (-500 to 1000 ms after stimulus onset). First, a time-frequency and phase-synchrony chart per experimental condition per subject. Then, those charts were used in a permutation test in search of time-frequency windows showing significant effects (Burgess and Watson, 2003). The time-frequency windows were analyzed with a two-tailed, within-subject ANOVA. The  $\alpha$  level was set at 0.05.

In the permutation test, the time-frequency charts belonging to different conditions are mixed together to assess the statistical significance of the results. The permutation test assumes that the "real" differences between the conditions are due to chance. The permutation test has advantages over the Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, because it does not assume independence, an assumption that is too strong and weakens the power of the statistical test. In contrast, the permutation test does not require any assumption about the data.

For the topographical analysis of phase synchrony, we controlled for the statistical effects of multiple comparisons by using a permutation test. A threshold ( $p < 0.00005$ ). This threshold was set as a function of the distribution of synchrony values. The probability of obtaining a value smaller than 0.00005 by chance is approximately 1 in 2000. This threshold was computed by counting the number of cases where the  $p$  value was smaller than 0.00005. This fraction should give a value smaller than 0.00005. By choosing this significance level, one controls the family-wise error rate. Given the fact that there were 64 electrodes with 2016 possible combinations ( $64 \times 63/2 = 2016$ ).

## ► Results

### **Behavioral measures of visibility**

Behavioral results showed that, in the experimental condition in which sample words could be identified (mean  $d'$  being 0.904.5;  $p < 0.001$ ), the mean  $d'$  being 3.85, which implies a highly significant difference from chance (mean  $d'$  being 0.5;  $p < 0.001$ ).

experimental condition that rendered sample words invisible, performance dropped to chance level ( $F_{(1,14)} = 2.097; p = 0.170$ ), and the mean  $d'$  value did not differ from zero ( $d' = 0.16; F_{(1,14)} = 2.012; p = 0.129$ ) (Fig. 1b). In control conditions, the success rates were 92.50 and 86.17%, and the respective  $d'$  values were 3.27 and 2.50, indicating that participants were able to detect the control words.

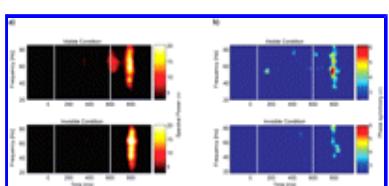
Reaction times were significantly shorter in the visible compared with the invisible condition (1269 ms and 1314 ms, respectively;  $F_{(1,14)} = 76.139; p = 0.000018$ ), despite the fact that speed of response was not different between the two control conditions did not differ (1269 and 1296 ms;  $F_{(1,14)} = 0.361; p = 0.557$ ).

To determine to which extent the invisible words in the experimental condition were still processed, the authors examined the processing of the invisible words in an unconscious priming task (Marcel, 1983), using the same word–mask-target word, and determined priming effects with a reaction time task. This controlled for the effects of the invisible word. That is, subjects responded significantly faster in the congruent condition (prime and target word belonged to the same semantic category) compared with the incongruent condition (prime and target word belonged to different semantic categories) (effect size was 15 ms difference between congruent and incongruent trials;  $n = 20$ ;  $F_{(1,19)} = 10.24; p = 0.003$ ). Therefore, masked words, although invisible, were still processed.

### Activity patterns related to perceptual awareness

The analyses described below have all been performed after eliminating effects caused by differences in the traces obtained after presentation of the high and low luminance mask alone (control condition) and the corresponding experimental condition for an analysis window extending from 500 ms before to 1300 ms after mask. The subtracted conditions are referred here as "visible" and "invisible," respectively.

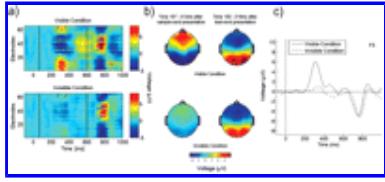
The first significant difference between visible and invisible words was observed from 80 to 130 ms. During this period, the mean phase synchrony at 50–57 Hz over all electrode pairs was significantly higher in the invisible condition ( $F_{(1,14)} = 5.041; p = 0.044$ ) (Fig. 2b). During the same interval, neither the mean power in the alpha oscillations (50–57 Hz;  $F_{(1,14)} = 0.616; p = 0.448$ ) nor the mean ERPs calculated over all as well as the differences between conditions (ERP effect over all electrodes:  $F_{(1,14)} = 0.005, p = 0.774$ , 0.0245  $\mu$ V difference between electrodes:  $F_{(1,14)} = 1.036, p = 0.329$ , 0.3350  $\mu$ V difference) (Figs. 2a, 3).



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**Figure 2.** Spectral power and phase synchrony to visible and invisible words. **a**, Time–frequency plot shows the grand average of all electrodes. The top row shows synchrony power (%) and the bottom row shows synchrony (%). The x-axis represents time in ms from -500 to 1300, and the y-axis represents frequency in Hz from 1 to 40. A vertical line at 0 ms indicates the onset of the mask. The color scale indicates synchrony power or synchrony percentage. The bottom row shows that phase synchrony is only present in the visible condition, and the second is power synchrony. There are three statistically significant bursts of power synchrony. No significant differences between conditions are observed.

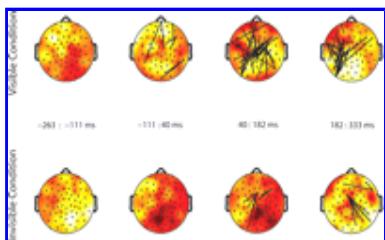
**Figure 3.** ERPs elicited by visible and invisible words. **a**, Grand average ERPs for visible and invisible words. The x-axis represents time in ms from -500 to 1300, and the y-axis represents electrode position. The visible condition shows a larger negative deflection (N170 component) compared to the invisible condition.



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invisible words at different electrodes. The  $x$ -axis shows time in seconds. The color scale is expressed in microvolts. Zero represents the sample-word and test-word presentation. Small lines at the windows corresponding to the voltage scalp maps in **b**. **b**, ' indicates for visible and invisible conditions. The first difference is a P300-like component. Then, a P1-like component follows word presentation, for both conditions. **c**, Time course of the P300 component at electrode F3.

To obtain more detailed information about activation patterns related to the visible and invisible conditions, the patterns of gamma activity and phase synchrony were computed for the interval from 260 ms before to 330 ms after word presentation (frequency, 50–57 Hz; 150 ms sliding window). Although the patterns of gamma activity were similar for the two conditions, the patterns of phase synchrony were markedly different (Fig. 4). In the invisible condition, significant phase synchronization was observed in the two hemispheres, between occipital, parietal, and frontal sites in the 40–180 ms time window. In the window between 180 and 330 ms, the pattern of phase synchrony became restricted to occipito-parietal electrodes, which agrees with the fact that the task involves language processing.



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**Figure 4.** Scalp topography of induced gamma power and phase synchrony for visible and invisible conditions. Top row, Visible condition. Bottom row, Invisible condition. Indicated are induced gamma power averaged in a 50–57 Hz frequency band, the average of a 150 ms time window. Time 0 indicates the onset of word presentation. The number of electrodes displaying significant synchronization ( $p < 0.05$ ) that statistically differ between visible and invisible conditions is shown. In the visible condition during the 40–180 ms time window, significant phase synchronization is observed in both hemispheres, with intrahemispheric and interhemispheric coherence. In the window between 180 and 330 ms, the pattern of phase synchrony lateralizes over the occipito-parietal electrodes.

The finding that phase-locking in the visible condition increases without a concomitant increase in gamma power, when the comparison was restricted to individual electrodes, suggests that the main difference between visible and invisible conditions, is the coherence of activity among cortical regions rather than the amount of local neuronal activity.

### Electrophysiological signatures of further processing of visible stimuli

A second significant difference between perceptual conditions was apparent in the ERP from 100 to 500 ms after word presentation. In this interval, the mean amplitude of a fronto-central positivity, peaking at 240 ms after sample word presentation, was significantly higher in the visible than in the invisible condition ( $F_{(1,14)} = 37.766$ ;  $p = 0.00002$ ;  $2.3394 \mu\text{V}$  difference). The P3-like component starts to diverge at a point in time when the differences in phase synchrony have been related to the updating of contents kept in working memory (Donchin, 1981). In addition, theta power (4–8 Hz) increased significantly over frontal electrodes in the visible condition during the interval in working memory (time interval, 67–520 ms) (see supplemental Fig. 1, available at [www.jneurosci.org](http://www.jneurosci.org)). Theta oscillations have been assigned a role in the maintenance of short-term memories (Jensen and Ranganath, 2003). Although it would have been interesting to see whether the theta enhancement started only after

necessity to use long windows for the assessment of the low-frequency oscillations precluded d enhanced theta.

A third and more delayed difference between the visible and invisible conditions was observed presentation. Here, both phase synchrony and gamma power were significantly higher during tl The increase in synchrony, averaged over all electrodes, occurred in the high gamma range (67 ms after test-word presentation (visible vs invisible:  $F_{(1,14)} = 11.803; p = 0.005$ ). Interestingly, was also enhanced and in exactly the same frequency range (visible vs invisible:  $F_{(1,14)} = 8.00$  latency, these effects might reflect anticipatory processes that occur only when the subjects hav and Lamarre, 2005). This anticipation was possible because the interval between sample- and significantly shorter reaction times observed in the visible condition support this interpretation.

Finally, there were two significant effects related to test-word presentation that did not differen conditions. First, there was a significant increase in phase synchrony in the frequency band fro ms after test-word presentation (visible vs baseline:  $F_{(1,14)} = 22.869, p < 0.001$ ; invisible vs ba visible vs invisible conditions:  $F_{(1,14)} = 0.199, p = 0.663$ )

Second, there was a significant increase in power of gamma oscillations in a broad frequency r 155–230 ms after test-word presentation (visible vs baseline:  $F_{(1,14)} = 63.524, p < 0.001$ ; invis 0.001; visible vs invisible condition:  $F_{(1,14)} = 2.030, p = 0.180$ ).

In the ERP, test-word presentation evoked P1–N1 components, the latency, amplitude, and spa the visible and invisible conditions ( $F_{(1,14)} = 2.896; p = 0.115$ ; 1.205  $\mu$ V difference).

Because word visibility was manipulated by changing mask luminance, it could be argued that invisible conditions are attributable to luminance variations. To control for this possibility, we j which visible trials were subtracted from invisible trials (visible plus light effect) and contrasted visible and control invisible trials (referred to as light effect). This contrast should remove any persisting effects should only reflect processes related to conscious perception of the sample w described above. There were two episodes of enhanced phase synchrony. One was associated w 80 ms after sample-word presentation; frequency range, 50–57 Hz;  $F_{(1,14)} = 5.806; p = 0.033$  (starting 10 ms after test-word presentation, frequency range 75–80 Hz ( $F_{(1,14)} = 8.811, p = 0.0$  oscillations was enhanced in association with the presentation of the test word (starting 20 ms a range, 60–75 Hz;  $F_{(1,14)} = 6.875; p = 0.022$ ) (see supplemental Fig. 2, available at [www.jneurosci.org](http://www.jneurosci.org))

Enhanced synchronization can be mimicked by volume conduction if it occurs with zero phase be considered that a single generator oscillating in the respective frequency increases its power the signals measured on the scalp. Conversely, reduction in the activity of other oscillators can source, producing again stronger synchronization on the scalp. We consider it unlikely that this for the following reasons. First, if the observed synchronization were attributable to activation of generators, it should show up as a difference in the induced gamma activity or in the ERPs betw not the case in our experiment. During the interval of enhanced phase-locking, neither the ERPs differed between conditions, suggesting that the activity of the contributing generators was unc

Second, synchronization caused by volume conduction must occur with zero phase difference because the angles at which synchronization occurred were not centered on zero and exhibited considerable scatter (see [www.jneurosci.org](http://www.jneurosci.org) as [supplemental material](#)). This means that the most prominent synchrony was not caused by volume conduction. Furthermore, the scatter in phase lag implies that the observed synchrony was not strictly trial-to-trial, which is incompatible with instantaneous volume conduction. Third, phase synchronization should decay with distance, as expected for a distance-dependent gradient in PLVs. In fact, the scalp topography shows that synchrony decreased with distance between electrodes.

## ► Discussion

The first electrographic difference between conscious and nonconscious stimulus processing was the locking of induced gamma oscillations across widely distributed cortical regions. This suggests that phase synchronization could be the event that triggers ignition of the global workspace of consciousness (Dehaene and Naccache (2001) and Dehaene et al. (2006)).

**Local and long-range neural synchrony and their putative role in conscious and unconscious processing**

Our results show similar activation patterns at individual electrodes in the visible and invisible conditions. In contrast, phase synchronization across electrodes clearly indicated enhanced long-range coordination of oscillatory activity only in the visible condition. Several mechanisms could be related to coordinated dynamical states of the cortical network, rather than to the activation of specific generators. For example, the results of a recent study (Engel and Singer, 2002; Engel et al., 1999; Engel and Singer, 2001; Thompson and Varela, 2001; Singer, 2003) support for this notion. In addition, our results and the results from a previous study investigating the processing of somatosensory stimuli (Palva et al., 2005) are in line with a recent proposal (Dehaene et al., 2006). The results indicate that the global long-distance synchronization reflects the integration of information with local coordination of neural activity in resonant loops of medium range and represents the coupling of distant neural activity by long-range synchronization. Interestingly, the global long-distance synchronization was very transient and the earliest event differentiating conscious from nonconscious processing. A similar transient increase in P3a and theta oscillations, continue to differentiate between consciously and nonconsciously perceived stimuli. The role of long-distance synchronization in triggering the cognitive processes associated with conscious awareness remains to be clarified through which mechanism long-distance synchronization exerts an impact on subsequent cognitive processes.

The transient character of the long-distance synchronization is not entirely compatible with most of the models of consciousness (Dehaene and Changeux, 2005; Dehaene et al., 2006) and reentrant activity (Lamme, 2006) because these models assume that consciousness is sustained by the processing of perceived stimuli. Our results show increased neural synchrony for the visible condition, which was transient and occurred within a short time window (~50 ms), suggesting that neural synchronization could last longer but is not sustained.

The discrepancy between sustained and transient activity found in different studies could also be explained by the different experimental paradigms. Most of the experiments that have reported sustained activity used either the attentional blink paradigm (Dehaene et al., 2005) or inattentional blindness (Dehaene and Changeux, 2005). It is still controversial whether sustained activity reflects conscious perception or memory processes. It has been argued that subjects could have conscious perception of an unattended stimulus, yet simply forget it when they are asked to report it (Wolfe, 1999). In fact, experiments on inattentional blindness show that unattended objects could be fleetingly represented and reported but that the subjects are not aware of it if the stimulus is presented or if the eyes move to a new location (Landmann et al., 2003). Thus, the sustained activity found in different studies using different experimental paradigms could reflect the transfer or maintenance of a stable representation in working memory or the maintenance of consciousness itself.

### Early wave of activation that distinguishes conscious from unconscious processing

In contrast to previous experiments, the results of which suggest a late wave of activation as co al., 2004<sup>12</sup>; Sergent et al., 2005<sup>13</sup>), our results indicate that access to consciousness is triggered by (synchronization) of widely distributed neuronal assemblies starting as early as 80 ms after stimulus (2005)<sup>14</sup> and Fries et al. (2001)<sup>15</sup> for a similar finding]. This difference might be explained by the stimuli used in our experiment might have imposed pressure on the perceptual processes, leading to a greater degree of attentional focus devoted to each stimulus. Second, in contrast to previous experiments, in our study the neural processes were segregated in time from those related to decision making and execution of motor responses. The results described previously might thus reflect a mixture of cognitive processes (e.g., perception and decision making) occurring during the brief and early episode of phase-locking. The responses observed after test-word presentation, however, were not triggered by the presentation of the test word itself, but rather by the presentation of the distracter word. The responses observed after test-word presentation of the test word also triggered a sequence of cognitive processes, but these could be divided into three distinct phases: perception, decision making, and acting. In this case, the induced synchronization occurred within 100 ms after stimulus presentation, which was in the range described in previous experiments. The present finding that the first electrographic response to a stimulus has a short latency is in agreement with the evidence that areas at the highest level of the processing hierarchy become active as early as 100 ms after stimulation (Nowak and Bullier, 1997<sup>16</sup>) and that high cognitive processes, such as categorization, can be accomplished within 120 ms (Thorpe et al., 1996<sup>17</sup>; Kirchner and Thorpe, 2004<sup>18</sup>), with a series of studies showing that conscious and unconscious perception can be rapidly distinguished (Dehaene et al., 2001<sup>19</sup>; Pins and Ffytche, 2003<sup>20</sup>; Palva et al. 2005<sup>21</sup>). Additionally, in the same study, it was found that applying a TMS pulse to the right lateral occipital and parahippocampal regions can impair visual perception of a briefly presented stimulus, suggesting that conscious perception is not a necessary condition for unconscious perception. In accordance with the present data, these results suggest that the brain can process information without conscious awareness and that the divergence of conscious and unconscious processing occurs within 100 ms after stimulus presentation. The early wave of activation might be an essential correlate of conscious perception (Pins and Ffytche, 2003<sup>20</sup>).

### Late correlates of conscious processing

Previous studies investigating electrographic correlates of conscious and unconscious processing have used ERPs (Sergent et al., 2005<sup>13</sup>) or dynamic measures such as spectral power or phase synchrony (Fries et al., 2001<sup>15</sup>; Doesburg et al., 2005<sup>22</sup>; Palva et al., 2005<sup>21</sup>). The combination of the different methods allows for a more detailed temporal characterization of the putative EEG events differentiating between conscious and unconscious perception. The results suggest that only consciously perceived stimuli give rise to a cascade of processes that have distinct temporal characteristics. In summary, these consisted of (1) an early and global phase-locking of gamma oscillations, (2) an enhancement of power and phase-locking of theta oscillations over frontal areas, and (3) an enhancement of power and phase-locking of gamma oscillations over posterior areas. These results are in line with the findings of the present study, which suggest that conscious perception is associated with an early and global phase-locking of gamma oscillations over posterior areas. The results on ERPs agree with the data of Sergent et al. (2005)<sup>13</sup>, which suggests that ERPs evoked by conscious and unconscious stimuli start to diverge around 270 ms. Interestingly, these ERP differences occur only after the end of the early wave of activation. Thus, it seems as if the fast and transient large-scale synchronization enhances the stimulus representation sufficiently to permit access to consciousness and thereby triggers a sequence of processes such as maintenance in working memory, and generation of expectancies that are associated with conscious perception. It is not clear whether the early large-scale synchronization is already the neuronal correlate of phenomenal consciousness, or whether it emerges only from the entirety of the processes following this coordinated state.

### Long-range synchronization, conscious perception, and the depth of processing

It can be argued that the electrophysiological signatures associated with conscious perception are not specific to conscious perception, but rather reflect mechanisms specifically associated with awareness. We consider this possibility in the following section. The finding that visible and invisible words induced gamma oscillations of similar power and depth of processing suggests that the electrophysiological signatures associated with conscious perception are not specific to conscious perception, but rather reflect mechanisms specifically associated with awareness. We consider this possibility in the following section.

were thoroughly processed. In addition, in the control experiment with the subliminal priming of an unperceived word using the same protocol as in the main experiment. Prime words, although not consciously perceived, are processed. Therefore, we consider it likely that the lack of early long-distance synchronization of neural assemblies, rather than the mere depth of processing, reflects word processing.

## ► Footnotes

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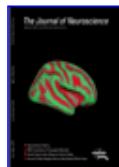
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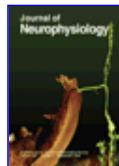
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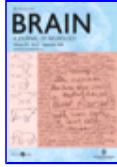
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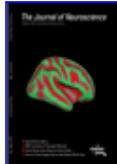
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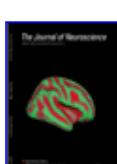
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