



BIROn - Birkbeck Institutional Research Online

Siddiqui, Maheen F. and Pinti, Paola and Brigadoi, S. and Lloyd-Fox, Sarah and Elwell, Clare and Johnson, Mark H. and Tachtsidis, I. and Jones, Emily J.H. (2023) Using multi-modal neuroimaging to characterise social brain specialisation in infants. *eLife* 12 (e84122), ISSN 2050-084X.

Downloaded from: <https://eprints.bbk.ac.uk/id/eprint/52200/>

Usage Guidelines:

Please refer to usage guidelines at <https://eprints.bbk.ac.uk/policies.html>
contact lib-eprints@bbk.ac.uk.

or alternatively

1 **Title: Using multi-modal neuroimaging to characterise social brain specialisation in**
2 **infants**

3
4
5 **Authors: Maheen Siddiqui^{1*}, Paola Pinti¹, Sabrina Brigadoi^{2,3}, Sarah Lloyd-Fox⁴, Clare**
6 **E. Elwell⁵, Mark H. Johnson⁴, Ilias Tachtsidis^{5†}, Emily J.H. Jones^{1*†}**

7
8 **Affiliations:**

9 ¹Centre for Brain and Cognitive Development, Birkbeck College, University of London, UK

10 ²Department of Development and Social Psychology, University of Padova, Italy

11 ³Department of Information Engineering, University of Padova, Italy

12 ⁴Department of Psychology, University of Cambridge, UK

13 ⁵Department of Medical Physics and Biomedical Engineering, University College London,
14 UK

15
16 ***Correspondence:**

17 Joint corresponding authors

18 m.siddiqui@bbk.ac.uk

19 e.jones@bbk.ac.uk

20
21 †Joint last authorship

22
23
24 **Abstract**

25
26 The specialised regional functionality of the mature human cortex partly emerges through
27 experience-dependent specialisation during early development. Our existing understanding of
28 functional specialisation in the infant brain is based on evidence from unitary imaging
29 modalities and has thus focused on isolated estimates of spatial or temporal selectivity of
30 neural or haemodynamic activation, giving an incomplete picture. We speculate that
31 functional specialisation will be underpinned by better coordinated haemodynamic and
32 metabolic changes in a broadly orchestrated physiological response. To enable researchers to
33 track this process through development, we develop new tools that allow the simultaneous
34 measurement of coordinated neural activity (EEG), metabolic rate and oxygenated blood
35 supply (broadband near-infrared spectroscopy) in the awake infant. In 4-to-7-month-old
36 infants, we use these new tools to show that social processing is accompanied by spatially
37 and temporally specific increases in coupled activation in the temporal-parietal junction, a
38 core hub region of the adult social brain. During non-social processing coupled activation
39 decreased in the same region, indicating specificity to social processing. Coupling was
40 strongest with high frequency brain activity (beta and gamma), consistent with the greater
41 energetic requirements and more localised action of high frequency brain activity. The
42 development of simultaneous multi-modal neural measures will enable future researchers to
43 open new vistas in understanding functional specialisation of the brain.

44
45

Introduction

The adult brain is highly specialised, with core networks coordinating to subserve complex behaviours. This specialised functioning emerges across development through a combination of genetically influenced brain architecture and experience-expectant learning processes (generalised neural development that occurs as a result of common experiences) and experience-dependent (variation in the environment contributing to individual differences in neural response) [1]. During early development, infants undergo significant neural, physiological, and socio-cognitive changes that are accompanied by large-scale changes in social communication and interaction. Currently, we have relatively few tools that allow us to comprehensively capture the emergence of functional specialisation in the infant social brain. Developing new approaches is critical for advancing our understanding of early brain physiology and cognitive function.

Identifying appropriate metrics to index functional specialisation in the infant brain should be informed by theoretical perspectives on how functional specialisation develops. Interactive specialisation is a theory of brain development that posits that functional specialisation emerges through competition between brain regions [2]. Thus, functional specialisation can be indexed as a smaller spatial extent of neural responses to a particular stimulus category and concomitant selectivity in responsive regions [3]. Typically, the extent and selectivity of brain activation is measured through indirect indices of oxygenated blood flow (e.g. functional near-infrared spectroscopy or fNIRS [4] or functional magnetic resonance imaging or fMRI [5]) or of coordinated neural activity (e.g. electroencephalography or EEG [6]). However, one mechanism that may contribute to competition between brain regions is the limited energetic resources available to the infant brain. The brain is an energetically costly organ, consuming 20-25% of the body's energy in adulthood while representing only 2% of the body's mass [7], [8]. There are also substantial developmental changes in the brain's energy consumption; in the first year of life, up to 60% of available energy is used by the brain [9]. When brain regions become functionally active (for example during stimulus processing) neurons fire more rapidly, requiring greater supplies of adenosine triphosphate or ATP (energy stores). Producing ATP requires oxygen, and this is supplied through a localised increase in oxygenated haemoglobin in the blood. Increases in oxygenated haemoglobin do not happen concurrently in all brain areas, and there are spatial dependencies between activated and deactivated regions in the adult brain [10]. Energy supplies are important to synaptic plasticity, memory and learning [11], and the mechanism through which energy supplies are coupled to activation (neurovascular coupling) also develops through experience-dependent specialisation in the infant brain [12]. Thus, energy supply constraints may be one factor that contributes to the emergence of brain specialisation. If this is the case, detecting functional specialisation in infancy requires not only examining measures of neural activity and oxygenated haemoglobin, but also identifying whether particular regions show stronger coupling between neuronal demand and energetic supply.

As a first step, testing such frameworks requires the availability of methods that can measure the spatial extent and stimulus selectivity of neuroenergetics coupling in infancy. Previous studies have typically used single modalities sensitive to distinct aspects of brain function. For example, studies with fMRI indicate that core regions of the social brain (particular the fusiform face area) show increases in oxygenated haemoglobin delivery in response to faces by 4-9 months [13]. Further, functional near-infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS) studies show that oxygenated haemoglobin delivery in response to naturalistic social videos in a broad region of temporal cortex emerges over the first hours of life [14]. Work with EEG indicates

96 developmental increases in differentiated theta power responses to social versus non-social
97 stimuli between 6 and 12 months [3]. Thus, work with single modalities indicates
98 development in functional specialisation across the first year of life.
99

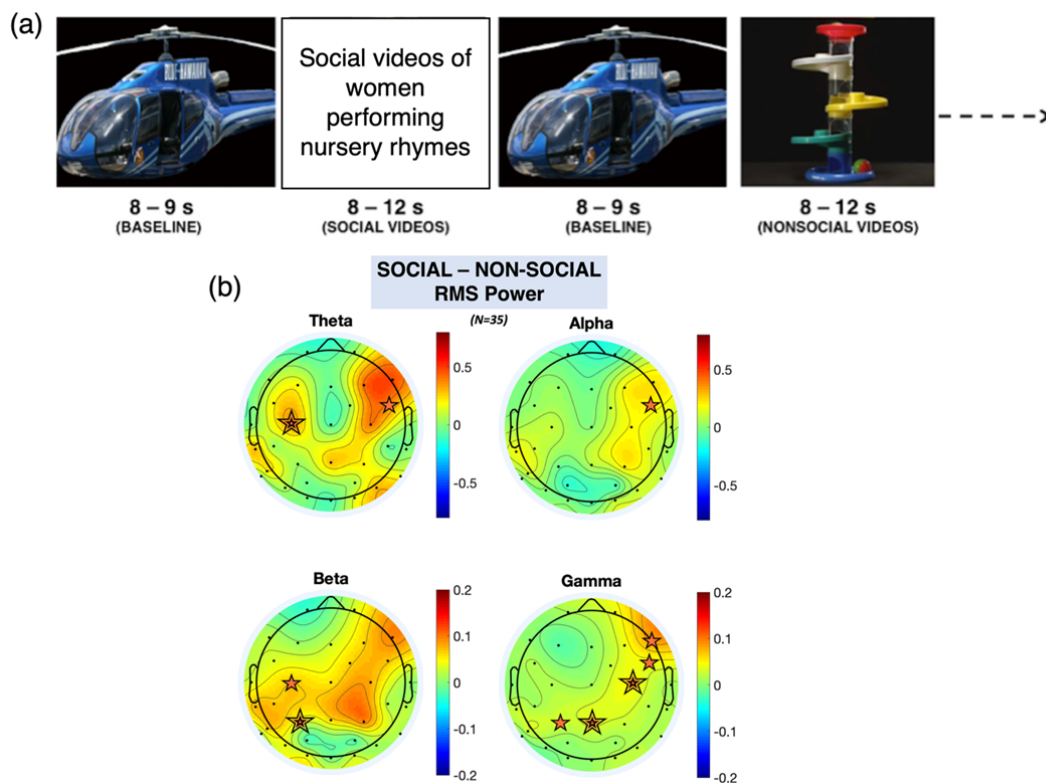
100 Broadband near-infrared spectroscopy (or bNIRS) is a new technique that uses a broad range
101 of optical wavelengths which allows the measurement of the oxidation state of mitochondrial
102 respiratory chain enzyme cytochrome-c-oxidase (CCO), thereby providing a direct measure
103 of cellular energy metabolism [4]. CCO is located in the inner mitochondrial membrane and
104 serves as the terminal electron acceptor in the electron transport chain (ETC). It therefore
105 accounts for 95% of cellular oxygen metabolism. In this way, bNIRS allows non-invasive
106 measurement of cellular energy metabolism alongside haemodynamics/oxygenation in awake
107 infants.
108

109 Work with single modalities has demonstrated that social selectivity in core regions of the
110 adult ‘social brain’ can be robustly detected by 4 – 7 months of age, [15]–[18]. We recently
111 showed the feasibility of using bNIRS in 4-to-7-month-old typically developing infants [19]
112 and demonstrated the presence of unique task-relevant, regionally specific functional
113 networks where high levels of haemodynamic and metabolic coupling were observed. Here,
114 we integrate this methodology with EEG to examine whether specific brain regions show
115 coordinated energetic coupling and neural activity. We develop a novel analysis pipeline to
116 identify localised coupling responses that are modulated by naturalistic social content. We
117 aimed specifically to investigate the relationship between low- and high-frequency neural
118 activity with haemodynamics and metabolism. For EEG, we expected an increase in neural
119 activity in response to the social condition and a decrease in neural activity in response to the
120 non-social condition. Based on previous work, this was expected to be strongest in the theta
121 frequency band [3]. Moreover, for the combined bNIRS-EEG analyses, we hypothesised
122 differentiated haemodynamic/metabolic coupling with neural activity for the social and non-
123 social stimulus conditions. We performed two types of statistical tests: a) individual
124 comparisons of the social and non-social conditions and b) comparison of the social condition
125 versus the non-social condition. The individual condition tests were performed to show the
126 scale and spatial location/sensitivity of the coupling between haemodynamics/metabolism
127 and neural activity for each condition. Meanwhile, the social versus non-social comparison
128 was performed to show where there was a significant difference in the coupling between the
129 two conditions. With comparison (a) we aimed to identify regions involved in the processing
130 of social and non-social stimuli by identifying the regions where the coupling was significant.
131 With comparison (b) we aimed to identify regions where coupling was significantly different
132 between conditions. We predicted that for the individual comparison of the social condition,
133 we would observe positive associations between bNIRS and EEG measures, i.e. a
134 simultaneous increase in haemodynamics/metabolism and neural oscillatory activity in the
135 beta and gamma frequency bands (based on previous combined EEG – fMRI studies [20]–
136 [26]) which would be localised to core social brain regions. We hypothesised that for the non-
137 social condition, over the same brain regions, positive associations would be observed
138 between bNIRS and EEG measures, but they would be a simultaneous decrease in
139 haemodynamics/metabolism and oscillatory activity. We also expected simultaneous
140 increases in haemodynamics/metabolism and oscillatory activity to be localised to the parietal
141 brain region. These predictions are based on our previous work [19] where we demonstrated
142 that stronger coupling between haemodynamics and metabolism was observed in the
143 temporo-parietal regions for the social condition and in parietal region for the non-social
144 condition which is known to play an important role in object processing [27], [28]. For the
145 social versus the non-social contrast, we predicted that haemodynamic activity and

146 metabolism would be coupled with neuronal oscillatory activity more strongly for the social
147 stimuli in comparison to the non-social stimuli, with significant differences being observed in
148 the temporo-parietal regions.
149

150 Results

151
152 **Naturalistic social stimuli elicit expected increases in broadband EEG activity:** 5-month-
153 old infants (n=42) viewed naturalistic social and non-social stimuli (Fig 1a) while we
154 concurrently measured EEG and broadband NIRS. Fourier-transform of continuously
155 recorded EEG data from 32 channels (n=35) in one-second segments across the time course
156 of stimulus presentation confirmed robust broadband increases in neural activity in response
157 to social versus non-social stimuli (Fig 1b, replicating [3]).
158
159
160



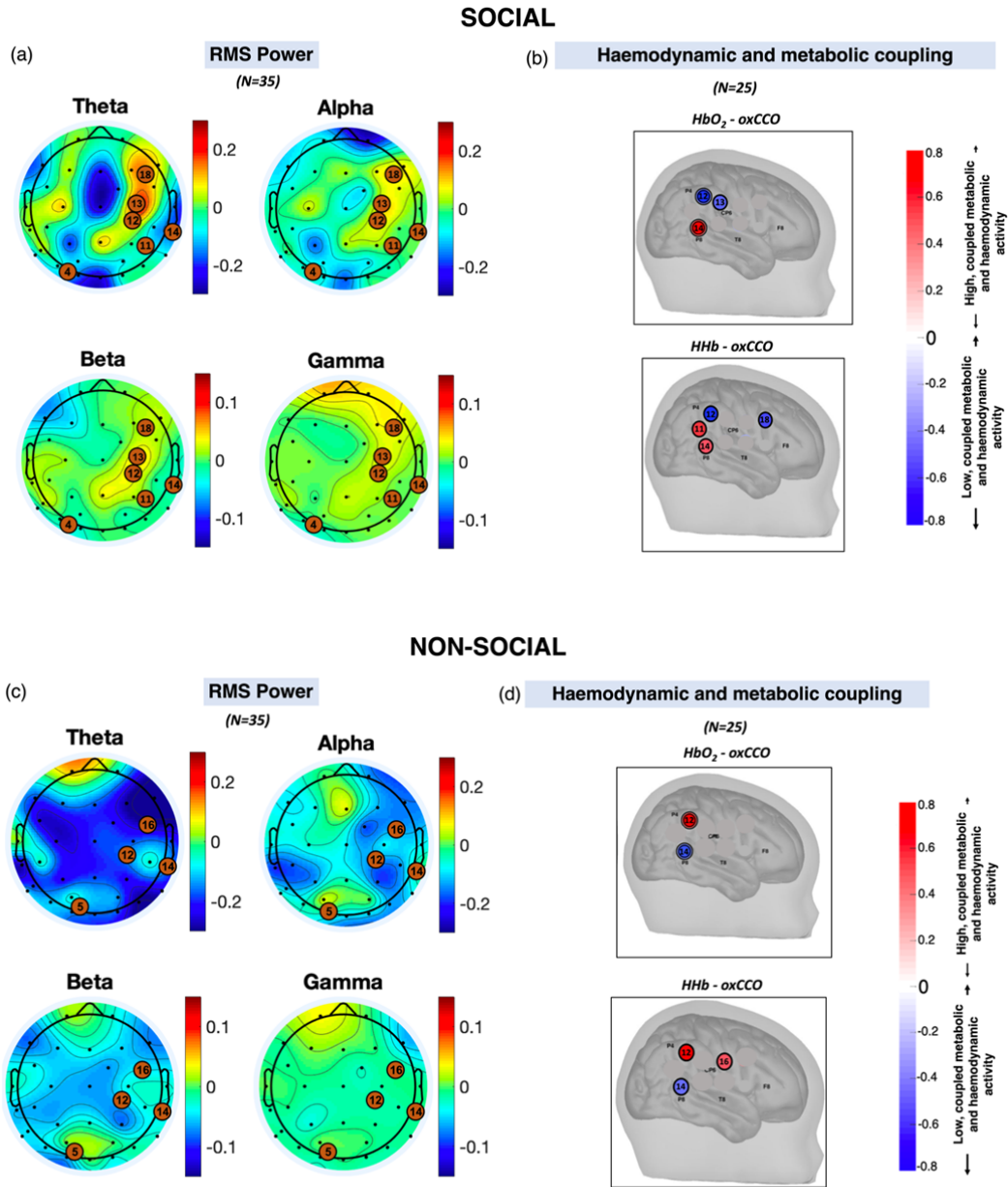
161

162 *Figure 1: a) Illustration of the paradigm; b) Scalp topographies of the grand average RMS power for theta, alpha, beta, and*
163 *gamma frequency bands (averaged across participants, averaged across the stimulus period) for the social minus non-social*
164 *condition. The orange stars indicate statistically significant EEG electrodes where an increase in activity was observed*
165 *(e.g., increase in response to the social condition compared to the non-social condition); a double line indicates significance*
166 *after FDR correction.*

167

168 **Haemodynamic and metabolic coupling and oscillatory activity spatially overlap:** We
169 used a method that we have previously validated to integrate haemodynamic and metabolic
170 signals from the bNIRS data (n=25) to investigate the relationship between the two signals
171 [19], [29]. Using this method, we obtained indices that indicated whether specific brain
172 regions either had a high level of coordinated coupling between haemodynamics and
173 metabolism (i.e. coupled increases in metabolic function and oxygenated blood flow) or a

174 mismatched coupling (i.e. an increase metabolic function and a concurrent decrease in
 175 oxygenated blood flow). This revealed distinct locations sensitive to social (Fig 2b) and non-
 176 social (Fig 2d) processing; the topography of these locations is similar to the topography of
 177 differentiated broadband EEG activity (Fig 2a, c), particularly for haemodynamic and
 178 metabolic coupling at channels 12 and 14 and EEG theta band activity.
 179



180
 181

182
 183
 184
 185
 186
 187

Figure 2: Scalp topographies of the grand average RMS power for theta, alpha, beta, and gamma frequency bands (averaged across participants, averaged across the stimulus period for (a) social and (c) non-social conditions). The black dots show the locations of the EEG electrodes while the orange circles represent the bNIRS channels. Locations of high haemodynamic and metabolic coupling for (b) social and (d) non-social condition. Figure 2b and 2d are reproduced from Figure 7, Siddiqui et al. 2022.

188 **Coupled signals highlight specialised activation in the temporal parietal junction:** We
 189 then convolved the time-course of the block-averaged within-hemisphere EEG time-series
 190 responses with an infant-specific haemodynamic response function (n=14; Fig 3). A general

191 linear model (GLM) approach was then used to identify FDR-corrected associations between
192 all EEG locations and the bNIRS channels that showed significant coupling between the
193 metabolic and haemodynamic response (Fig 2b, d). In line with the results shown in Fig 2b
194 and Fig 2d, we expected the spatial coupling between bNIRS and EEG to differ for the social
195 and non-social conditions. We predicted that for the social condition, we would observe
196 coordinated increases in haemodynamic/metabolic activity (HbO₂ and oxCCO) and neural
197 oscillatory activity (positive associations between bNIRS and EEG) in the beta and gamma
198 frequency bands over the temporo-parietal region. Meanwhile we expected that for the non-
199 social condition, we would observe coordinated decreases in haemodynamic/metabolic
200 (HbO₂ and oxCCO) activity and neural oscillatory activity (also resulting in positive
201 associations between bNIRS and EEG) over the temporo-parietal region and coordinated
202 increases over the parietal region. We expected negative associations between HHb and
203 oxCCO for both conditions. We predicted that the comparison of social versus non-social
204 would show associations between bNIRS and EEG was stronger for the social condition.
205

206 Figure 3 supplement 1 shows the individual statistical comparisons of the social (red colour
207 scale) and non-social (blue colour scale) conditions. For both conditions, bNIRS – EEG
208 coupling was consistently observed between bNIRS channel 14 and various EEG channels,
209 which were positioned over the parietal and superior temporal sulcus – temporal parietal
210 junction regions respectively. For the social condition, a coupled increase in
211 haemodynamic/metabolic activity and neural oscillatory activity was observed in the beta,
212 gamma, and high-gamma frequency bands, which was primarily concentrated in the temporo-
213 parietal region (e.g., bNIRS channel 14 and EEG electrodes Pz, PO4). A consistent pattern of
214 coupling with neuronal activity was observed across chromophores particularly for the beta
215 band. For the non-social condition, no coupling was observed between haemodynamics and
216 neural activity (i.e., HbO₂ and HHb) for the low-frequency theta and alpha frequency bands.
217 Meanwhile, a coupled increase in metabolic activity and neural activity was observed
218 between bNIRS channel 14 and occipital and parietal EEG locations (O2, PO8, P10, P4 for
219 the theta band and P10 for the alpha band). Moreover, in the high-frequency beta, gamma and
220 high-gamma bands, coupling was observed primarily for HHb and oxCCO between bNIRS
221 channel 14 and occipital, and parietal EEG locations (Oz, O2 and PO8). A consistent pattern
222 of coupling was observed between HHb and oxCCO. Several long-range associations were
223 also observed such as those in the beta frequency bands between bNIRS channels 12 and 13
224 and EEG locations TP8 and T8 respectively for the social condition for HbO₂ and between
225 bNIRS channel 14 and EEG locations C2 and Cz for the non-social condition for HHb and
226 oxCCO.
227

228 Figure 3 supplement 2 shows the statistical comparison of the social versus the non-social
229 condition. Not many significant differences were observed between bNIRS and EEG
230 associations for the two conditions. Significant differences were observed between bNIRS
231 channel 14 and Pz (with stronger association for the social condition) in the gamma
232 frequency band for HbO₂. Meanwhile, significant differences were observed between bNIRS
233 channel 14 and O2 (with stronger association for the non-social condition) in the high-gamma
234 band for oxCCO. This suggests differential coupling between haemodynamic/metabolic
235 activity and neural activity for each condition.
236
237
238

Summary of GLM method

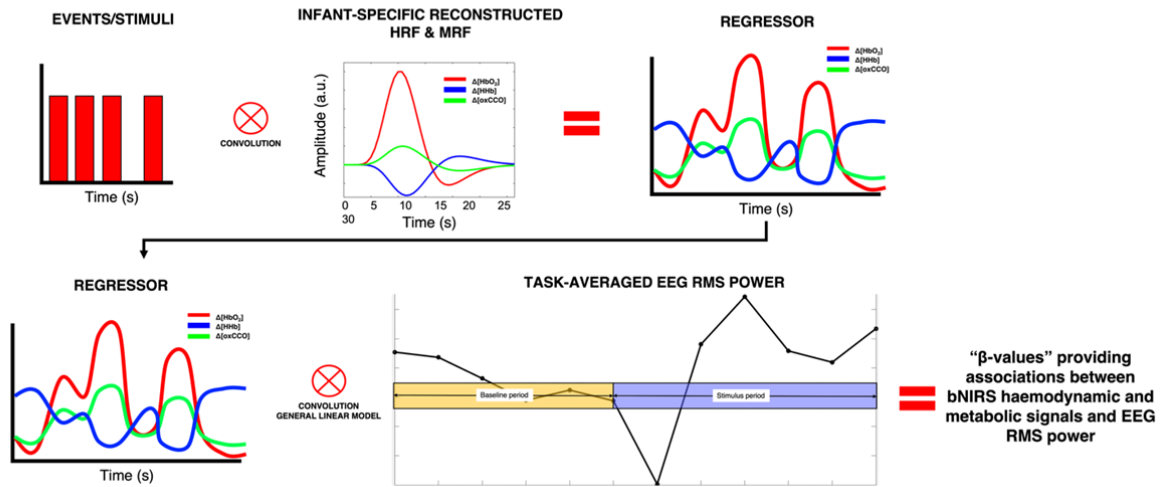
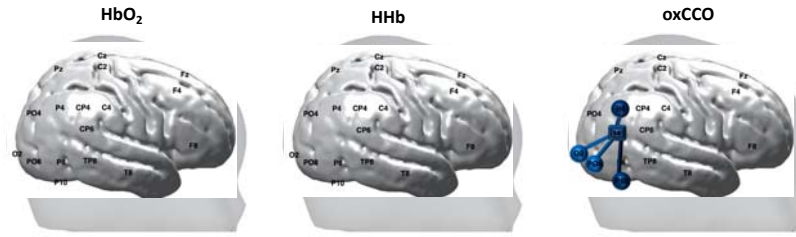


Figure 3: Summary of the procedure for obtaining the associations between bNIRS signals and EEG RMS power at each bNIRS combination, for each frequency band.

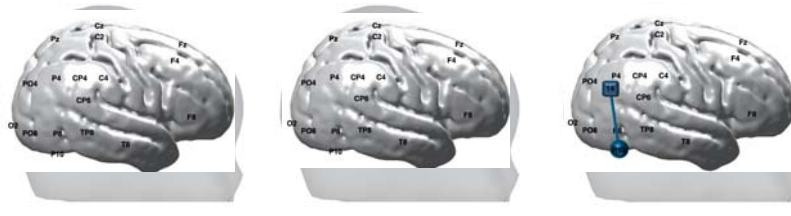
239
240
241

242
243
244

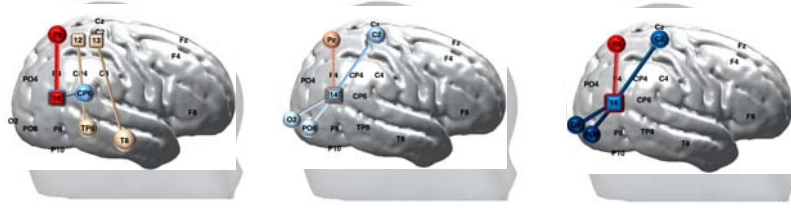
(i) THETA BAND



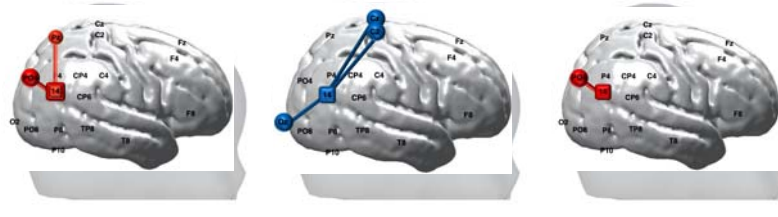
(ii) ALPHA BAND



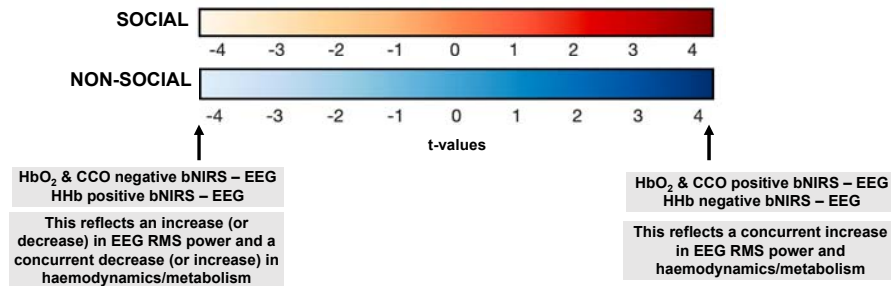
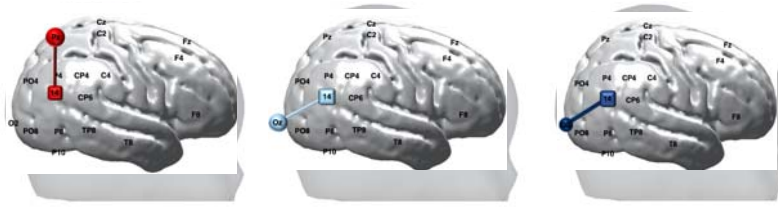
(iii) BETA BAND



(iv) GAMMA BAND



(v) HIGH GAMMA BAND

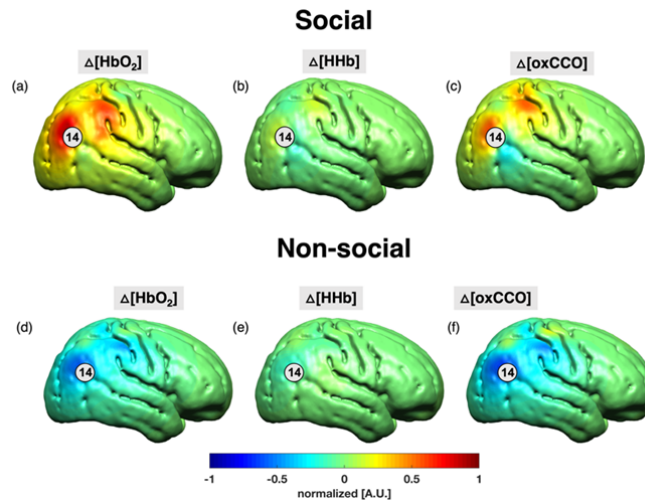


245
246
247
248

Figure 3 supplement 1: FDR-corrected significant connections between bNIRS channels (squares) and EEG electrodes (circles) for the (i) theta, (ii) alpha, (iii) beta, (iv) gamma and (v) high gamma bands for the social condition (red colour bar) and the non-social condition (blue colour bar) for HbO₂, HHb, and oxCCO.

255
256
257
258
259
260
261

Using image reconstruction on the bNIRS data, the spatial sensitivity of the bNIRS location that showed the clearest differences in coupling (channel 14) are shown in Figure 4. The method for image reconstruction has been described in detail in the methods section. The results indicate that the bNIRS – EEG coupling was most consistent with the spatial extent changes in metabolic activity (CCO).



262
263
264
265
266

Figure 4: Grand-average image reconstruction at 18 s post-stimulus onset for the social condition (a – c) and the non-social condition (d – f) at a single time point of 18 s post-stimulus onset. The concentration changes for HbO_2 and HHb were normalised to the maximum concentration change of HbO_2 while ΔoxCCO was normalised to its own maximum change in concentration. Channel 14 has been indicated.

267
268
269

Discussion

We develop a tool that enabled multimodal imaging analysis of coordinated neural activation, metabolic demand, and oxygenated haemoglobin delivery in the infant brain. As a proof of principle, we examined the relationship between these measures to identify regional selectivity to social versus non-social stimuli. To first demonstrate the scale and spatial sensitivity of the coupling between haemodynamic/metabolic activity and neuronal oscillatory activity, comparisons were performed individually for the social and non-social conditions. For this, we predicted a simultaneous increase in haemodynamics/metabolism and neural activity in the beta and gamma frequency band. We predicted that for the social condition this would be localised to the core social brain regions (temporo-parietal region) while for the non-social condition, we expected the coupling to be localised to parietal regions, known to be involved in object processing [27], [28]. We additionally expected a simultaneous decrease in haemodynamic/metabolic activity and neural activity over the temporo-parietal region for the non-social condition, in accordance with our previous work [19]. Next, to demonstrate differential coupling for social and non-social stimuli, we performed a comparison of the social condition versus the non-social condition. For this, we hypothesised that in the beta and gamma frequency bands, there would be stronger coupling between haemodynamics/metabolism and neural activity for the social condition over the temporo-parietal region.

288
289
290
291

Confirming previous work, naturalistic social and non-social stimuli produce broad haemodynamic changes, with smaller spatial extent of locations with coupled haemodynamic and metabolic activity [19]. We also replicated previously observed greater EEG responses to

292 social versus non-social stimuli [3]. However, examining coupling between these two
293 phenomena uncovered a precise pattern in which specific locations in the parietal and
294 temporo-parietal regions showed differential coupling between bNIRS-EEG for social and
295 non-social stimuli, particularly for the beta and gamma band frequency bands, as we
296 predicted. We contend that this approach identifies a more localised regional area with
297 selective coordination of neural, haemodynamic, and metabolic activity. The increased
298 localisation observed in our coupling analysis may indicate our approach provides a more
299 rigorous measure of functional specialisation. Widespread use of this technique will
300 accelerate our understanding of both the typically and atypically developing brain.
301 Unexpectedly, while most associations between haemodynamic/metabolic activity and
302 oscillatory activity were localised, we observed several long-range connections between
303 haemodynamic/metabolic and neural signals. It has been hypothesised that long-range
304 functional connectivity patterns are vital for the organisation of human brain structure and
305 function [30]. The strongest coupling was observed between temporo-parietal bNIRS channel
306 14 with parietal EEG locations Pz and PO4 for the social condition (for beta and gamma
307 frequency bands). Meanwhile, for the non-social condition, coupling was observed between
308 temporo-parietal bNIRS channel 14 with occipital and parietal EEG locations Oz, O2, PO8
309 and P10 (for theta and beta frequency bands). While an overall consistent pattern of
310 associations across chromophores and conditions was observed, some variability was also
311 seen, particularly across frequency bands. This was expected and in line with previous EEG-
312 fMRI studies that have demonstrated task-dependent variation in coupling between neural
313 and haemodynamic activity across frequency bands [20]–[26]. For example, for resting state
314 simultaneous fMRI and EEG, stronger coupling between the BOLD response and neural
315 activity has been observed for the alpha band [31]. Meanwhile, for cognitive tasks, stronger
316 coupling has been observed in the gamma frequency band [32]. Scheeringa et al. [20]
317 investigated trial-by-trial coupling of EEG and BOLD activity and found that low- and high-
318 frequency bands independently contribute to explaining BOLD variance. We therefore
319 expected the frequency band showing the strongest coupling between bNIRS and EEG for
320 each of the stimuli to vary. Further, while we did expect and observe significant overlap in
321 associations between chromophores within each frequency band, some variability was seen.
322 For example, for the social condition, no associations were observed in the low-frequency
323 bands for any of the chromophores. Moreover, in the beta frequency bands, all chromophores
324 displayed significant associations between bNIRS channel 14 and Pz for the social condition
325 and both HHb and oxCCO displayed significant associations between bNIRS channel 14 and
326 O2, PO8 and C2. Similarly, in the gamma frequency bands, both HbO₂ and oxCCO displayed
327 significant associations between bNIRS channel 14 and PO4. The variability that was
328 observed between chromophores was limited mostly to the non-social condition. For
329 example, only oxCCO displayed significant associations between bNIRS and EEG for the
330 low-frequency theta and alpha frequency bands. It is well known that various components
331 involved in neurovascular coupling undergo development postnatally, see the review by [33]
332 for a full discussion. Briefly, there is extensive structural change within cerebral
333 microvasculature including growth, extension and proliferation of new blood vessels [34],
334 [35]. Further, studies have also demonstrated gradual development of vascular reactivity (i.e.,
335 change in vascular tone, vasoconstriction and vasodilation) [20], [21] which is necessary for
336 the propagation of the NVC response [38]. Lastly, pericytes and astrocytes which are key
337 components of NVC are also known to undergo development in size, number, connectivity
338 and branching [12], [39]–[41]. From the metabolic perspective, infant positron emission
339 tomography (PET) studies demonstrate regional-specific, progressive increase in the cerebral
340 metabolic rate of oxygen consumption (CMRO₂) [42] while others evidence a developmental
341 maturational change in oxidative metabolism [43]. In adults, previous research has also

342 suggested that oxygen consumption is more spatially localised in comparison to changes in
343 cerebral blood flow [44] and that oxCCO has distinct spatial distributions in the brain [45],
344 [46], [47], indicating that energy metabolism may be more spatially specific. The spatial
345 distribution of oxCCO in different brain regions currently remains unmapped in the
346 developing infant brain, however. Therefore, taken together, given that during early
347 development there are extensive changes in cerebral vasculature as well as the metabolic
348 environment and potential variability in the spatial distribution of oxCCO, it is expected that
349 there will be some variability observed in the associations between the haemodynamics and
350 metabolism with neural activity. In our study, we observed more consistent oxCCO – EEG
351 associations across frequency bands and stimuli with more localised (fewer long-range)
352 associations. Further studies with a larger sample size and longitudinal follow up can provide
353 a clearer view on how NVC develops in infancy which will help explain some of the
354 observed variability. Moreover, future studies with high density bNIRS arrays will provide
355 clarification on the spatial distribution of oxCCO in the infant brain.
356

357 EEG profiles observed in the present study are consistent with previous studies in identifying
358 increased gamma band activity over temporal and parieto-occipital brain regions during face
359 processing [48]–[61]. High-frequency neural firing is associated with localised processing
360 [62] whilst lower-frequency activity is associated with larger-scale network changes and
361 transfer of information across systems [63]. The increase in lower-frequency activity during
362 social attention also observed here and in other work [3], [64] may support larger-scale
363 connectivity and communication of information through cross-frequency coupling [49]. Our
364 work further indicates that measures of metabolic load may provide important additional
365 information in understanding localisation of brain function. Localised high-frequency activity
366 exerts strong metabolic demand [65], [66] and subsequent increases in oxygenated
367 haemoglobin [25], [67], [68]. These increases in metabolic rate are supported by increased
368 activity in the mitochondrial electron transport chain, resulting in the changes in cytochrome-
369 c-oxidase we detected with broadband NIRS. Nitric oxide (which competes with oxygen to
370 bind to cytochrome-c-oxidase) and carbon dioxide (produced as a by-product in the ETC) are
371 key signalling molecule in controlling neurovascular coupling and thus subsequent oxygen
372 delivery [69], [70]. Finally, reactive oxygen species produced by the ETC are a key signal in
373 inducing synaptic plasticity [71]. Thus, our work is consistent with a model in which social
374 attention induces localised high frequency brain activity in the temporal parietal junction,
375 which increases local metabolic rates, triggering synaptic plasticity and subsequent oxygen
376 delivery to a broader region.
377

378 Our work particularly highlights the temporal-parietal junction is showing strong coupling
379 and social selectivity. Previous studies measuring haemodynamic activity have identified
380 early sensitivity of this region to social stimuli from at least 4 months [72], alongside a
381 broader network of other regions. Here, we pinpoint this specific location as having coupled
382 neuronal, metabolic, and haemodynamic activity that is modulated in opposite directions by
383 complex social and non-social content. In the adult brain, the temporal-parietal junction has
384 received considerable attention and there are several competing models of its function. It has
385 been linked to mentalising [73], [74] and reorienting attention to behaviourally relevant
386 stimuli [75]; it can be viewed as a nexus area where the convergence of attention, language,
387 memory and social processing supports a social context for behaviour ([76] or as a region that
388 is active when awareness of a prediction permits attentional control [77]. Intriguingly, recent
389 formulations within the predictive coding framework link the right temporal-parietal junction
390 to a domain-general role in prediction, perhaps representing the precision of priors [78].
391 Predictability has been linked to energy-efficiency, with some computational models showing

392 that energy limitations are the only requirement for driving the emergence of predictive
393 coding [79]. Increases in beta/gamma have also been linked to unexpected reward processing
394 [80]. Taken together, our results may indicate the early presence of priors for social
395 interaction that are being actively updated (in contrast to the dynamic toys, which may
396 already be more predictable).

397
398 The methods we developed could be broadly applied to study both neurotypical and atypical
399 brain function. Assessing coupling over developmental time may reveal the mechanisms
400 underpinning neural specialisation and constrain theoretical frameworks seeking to explain
401 specialisation in the adult brain. The mechanisms of neurovascular coupling remain unclear
402 in the adult brain [69], and are developing in infancy [12], and novel multimodal and non-
403 invasive approaches to their identification could yield significant progress. Computational
404 models could test the role of constraints in energy supply on developing localisation of
405 function. Further, the region identified here also shows atypical haemodynamic
406 responsiveness in infants with later symptoms of autism [18]; since mitochondrial
407 dysfunction has become an increasing focus in autism [81] the possibility that atypical
408 coupling may impact specialisation in autism is an important hypothesis to test. Further, our
409 methods have applicability in determining the impacts of early brain injury. Recent work [82]
410 measured both cerebral oxygenation and energy metabolism in neonates with brain injury
411 (hypoxic-ischaemic encephalopathy) and demonstrated that the relationship between
412 metabolism and oxygenation was able to predict injury severity. This therefore provided a
413 clinical, non-invasive biomarker of neonatal brain injury. Indicating applicability across the
414 lifespan [83] simultaneous measurements of cerebral oxygenation, metabolism and neural
415 activity in epilepsy revealed unique metabolic profiles for healthy brain regions in
416 comparison to those with the regions of the epileptic focus. The work in epilepsy
417 demonstrates the strength of combining measurements from multiple modalities to investigate
418 brain states, particularly in clinical populations.

419
420 Our work has several limitations. We used naturalistic stimuli to maximise ecological
421 validity; however, this reduces our ability to probe the function of the temporal-parietal
422 junction across specific stimulus dimensions and this is an important target for future work.
423 Limitations of current technology meant we recorded from the right hemisphere only and
424 thus cannot determine the specificity of our findings to left temporal-parietal junction;
425 engineering advances are required to produce whole-head bNIRS devices. Moreover, we only
426 studied one age group of infants between 4 and 7 months therefore, we could not investigate
427 developmental change.

428
429 **Conclusion:** Energy metabolism and neural activity are known to be tightly coupled in order
430 to meet the high energetic demands of the brain, both during a task [84], [85] and at rest [86].
431 It has been hypothesised that the level of correspondence between energy metabolism and
432 neuronal activity may be an indicator for brain specialisation [84], [87], [88]. Here, we
433 developed a system to simultaneously measure multichannel broadband NIRS with EEG in 4-
434 to-7-month-old infants to investigate the neurovascular and neurometabolic coupling. We
435 presented a novel study combining bNIRS and EEG and show stimulus-dependent coupling
436 between haemodynamic, metabolic, and neural activity in the temporal-parietal junction. The
437 results highlight the importance of investigating the energetic basis of brain functional
438 specialisation and opens a new avenue of research which may show high utility for studying
439 neurodevelopmental disorders and in clinical populations where these basic mechanisms are
440 altered.

441

442 **Acknowledgements**

443 M.F.S was funded by the BBSRC [BB/J014567/1], the Birkbeck Institutional Strategic
444 Support Fund (ISSF) and the ESRC (ES/V012436/1). E.J.H.J was supported by the ESRC
445 (ES/R009368/1). E.J.H.J, M.H.J. and M.F.S. were also supported by the AIMS-2-TRIALS
446 programmes funded by the Innovative Medicines Initiative (IMI) Joint Undertaking Grant
447 No. 777394. This Joint Undertaking receives support from the European Union's Horizon
448 2020 research and innovation programme, with in-kind contributions from the European
449 Federation of Pharmaceutical Industries and Associations (EFPIA) companies and funding
450 from Autism Speaks, Autistica and SFARI. I.T. was supported by the Wellcome Trust
451 (104580/Z/14/Z). S.L.F was supported by a UKRI Future Leaders Fellowship
452 (MR/S018425/1) and S.L.F and C.E.E received support from the Bill and Melinda Gates
453 Foundation (OPP1127625). M.H.J and EJHJ received support from the UK Medical Research
454 Council (MR/K021389/1 & MR/T003057/1) received support from the UK Medical Research
455 Council (MR/K021389/1 & MR/T003057/1). S.B. was supported by the Progetto STARS
456 Grants 2017 (C96C18001930005) from the University of Padova.

457 The work presented herein was conducted at the Centre for Brain and Cognitive
458 Development, Birkbeck College, University of London. We are grateful to all the families
459 who participated in this research and all the undergraduate students who assisted with data
460 collection.

461

462 **Declaration of Interests**

463

464 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
465 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

466

467 **Data availability statement**

468

469 The data contains human subject data from minors and guardians provided informed consent
470 to having data shared only with researchers involved in the project, in anonymised form. A
471 Patient and Public Involvement (PPI) initiative at the Centre for Brain and Cognitive
472 Development aimed to actively work in partnership with parents and guardians participating
473 in research studies to help design and manage future research. A comprehensive public
474 survey was conducted as part of this initiative which aimed to evaluate parent attitudes to
475 data sharing in developmental science. This survey revealed that majority of parents do not
476 want their data to be shared openly but are open to the data being shared with other
477 researchers related to the project. Therefore, in order to adhere to participant
478 preference/choice, a curated data sharing approach must be followed wherein the data can
479 only be made available upon reasonable request through a formal data sharing and project
480 affiliation agreement. The researcher will have to contact MFS and complete a project
481 affiliation form providing their study aims, a detailed study proposal, plan for the analysis
482 protocol, ethics, and plans for data storage and protection. Successful proposals will have
483 aims aligned with the aims of the original study. Raw NIRS data, EEG data and integrated
484 NIRS-EEG data can be made available in anonymised form. ID numbers linking the NIRS
485 and EEG data, however, cannot be provided as parents/guardians have consented only to data
486 being shared in anonymised form. All code used to analyse the NIRS data and the integration
487 of the NIRS and EEG data is available on GitHub
488 (<https://github.com/maheensiddiqui91/NIRS-EEG>). EEG data was processed using EEGLab
489 which is a publicly available toolbox.

490

491 **Methods**

492

493 *Participants:* The study protocol was approved by the Birkbeck Ethics Committee, ethics
494 approval number 161747. Participants were forty-two 4-to-7-month-old infants (mean age:
495 179 ± 16 days; 22 males and 20 females); parents provided written informed consent to
496 participate in the study, for the publication of the research and additionally for the publication
497 and use of any photographs taken during the study of the infant wearing the NIRS-EEG
498 headgear. Inclusion criteria included term birth (37 – 40 weeks); exclusion criteria included
499 known presence or family history of developmental disorders. The sample size was
500 determined by performing a power analysis of existing data using G*Power.
501

502 *Experimental Procedure:* The experimental stimuli were designed using Psychtoolbox in
503 Matlab (Mathworks, USA) and consisted of social and non-social videos. The social videos
504 consisted of a variety of full-colour video clips of actors performing nursery rhymes such as
505 “pat-a-cake” and “wheels on the bus”. The non-social videos consisted of dynamic video
506 clips of moving mechanical toys. The visual and auditory components of both social and non-
507 social videos was matched. These videos have been used extensively in prior infant studies in
508 both EEG studies [3] and NIRS studies [89], [90]. Both social and non-social experimental
509 conditions were presented alternatingly for a varying duration between 8-12 s. The baseline
510 condition consisted of static transport images, for example cars and helicopters, which were
511 presented for a pseudorandom duration of 1 – 3 s each for a total of 8 s. Following the
512 presentation of the baseline condition, a fixation cross in the shape of a ball or a flower
513 appeared in the centre of the screen to draw the infant’s attention back to the screen in case
514 the infant had become bored during the baseline period. The following experimental
515 condition was then presented once the infant’s attention was on the fixation cross. **Error!**
516 **Reference source not found.**a depicts the order of stimulus presentation. All infants sat in
517 their parent’s lap at an approximate distance of 65 cm from a 35-in screen which was used to
518 display the experimental stimuli. The study began with a minimum 10 s rest period to draw
519 the infant’s attention towards the screen during which the infant was presented with various
520 shapes in the four corners of the screen. Following this, the baseline and experimental stimuli
521 were presented alternatingly until the infant became bored or fussy.
522

523 *Data acquisition and array placement:* bNIRS and EEG data was acquired simultaneously
524 and the bNIRS optodes and EEG electrodes were positioned on the head using custom-built,
525 3-D printed arrays which were embedded within a soft neoprene cap (Neuroelectronics, Spain).
526 Figures 5a and 5b show the locations of bNIRS optodes and EEG electrodes on the head.
527 Figure 1b shows the combined bNIRS-EEG headgear positioned on an infant. The array was
528 designed to allow measurement from several cortical regions which included occipital,
529 parietal, temporal, and central regions to allow investigation of neurovascular coupling in
530 different cortical regions that are expected to be activated by dynamic stimuli.
531

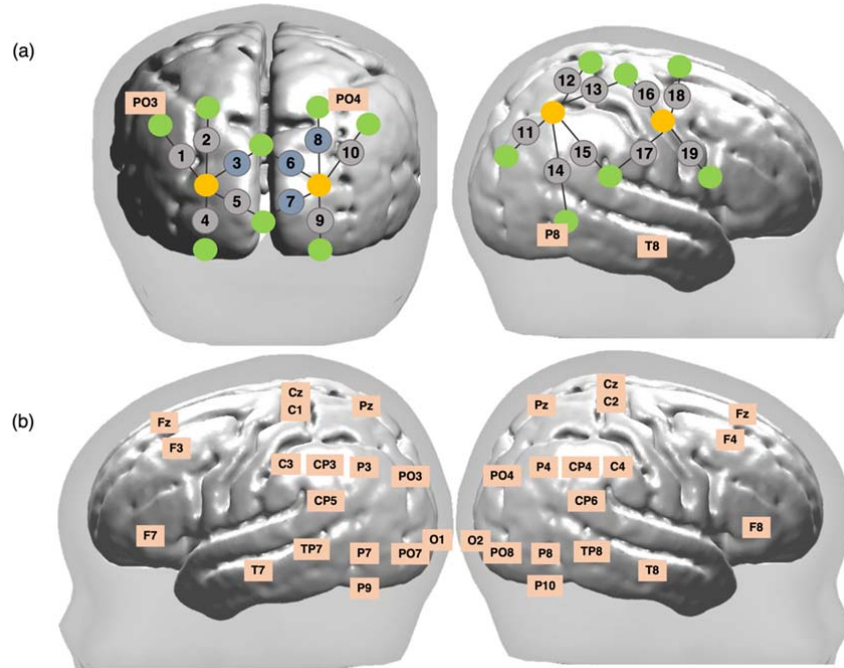


Figure 5: Schematic representation of bNIRS and EEG channel locations. (a) Locations of bNIRS channels (grey circles) over the occipital cortex and the right hemisphere and locations of the bNIRS sources (orange circles) and detectors (green circles) relative to EEG 10/20 locations. Channels shown in blue (3, 6, 8 and 10) were excluded from the analysis (b) Locations of the 32 EEG electrodes.

532
533
534
535
536

537

Broadband NIRS: Brain haemodynamic ($\Delta[\text{HbO}_2]$, $\Delta[\text{HHb}]$) and metabolic changes ($\Delta[\text{oxCCO}]$) were measured using an in-house broadband NIRS system developed at University College London [91]. The bNIRS system consisted of two light sources that consisting of halogen light bulbs (Phillips) that emitted light in the near-infrared range (504 – 1068 nm). The light was directed to the infant’s head through customised bifurcated optical fibres (Loptek, Germany), allowing each light source to split into two pairs of light sources. This formed a total of four light sources at the participant-end and each pair of light sources were controlled by a time multiplexing mechanism whereby one pair of light sources was on every 1.4 s. The system also consisted of fourteen detector fibres at the participant-end which were connected to two spectrometers, seven for each spectrometer (in-house developed lens spectrographs and PIXIS512f CCD cameras (Princeton Instruments)). The configuration of four light sources and fourteen detectors formed a total of nineteen measurement channels. These were positioned over the occipital cortex and the right hemisphere as shown in Figure 5a. The source-detector separation was 2.5 cm.

552

Data were analysed in Matlab (Mathworks, USA) using in-house scripts. First, for each participant, across all wavelengths, wavelet-based motion correction [92] was applied to the attenuation change signal to correct for motion artifacts. The tuning parameter $\alpha = 0.8$ was used. Following this, the UCLn algorithm [4] was used with a wavelength-dependent, age-appropriate fixed differential path-length factor (DPF) value of 5.13 [93]. While the light sources emitted light between 504 – 1068 nm, the changes in concentration of HbO_2 , HHb and oxCCO were calculated using 120 wavelengths between 780 – 900 nm. A 4th-order bandpass Butterworth filter from 0.01 – 0.4 Hz was used to filter the data. For each infant, channels were assessed for signal quality and any channels with poor signal quality were

561

562 rejected. Following this, the HbO₂, HHb and oxCCO time-series were entered into a General
563 Linear Model (GLM) to correlate bNIRS and EEG data.

564

565 For each infant, intensity counts (or photon counts) from each of the fourteen detectors were
566 used to assess the signal-to-noise (SNR) ratio at each channel and the channels with intensity
567 counts lower than 2000 or higher than 40,000 were excluded [91]. If an infant had more than
568 60% of channels excluded, they were excluded from the study. At the group level, five
569 channels over the occipital cortex were excluded due to poor SNR in majority of infants
570 (Channel 3 excluded in 64% of infants, Channel 6 excluded in 83% of infants, Channel 7
571 excluded in 64% of infants, Channel 8 excluded in 79% of infants) and one channel over the
572 right hemisphere was excluded in 100% of infants due to a damaged optical fibre. The
573 average number of blocks included at each channel was 6.

574

575 *EEG*: EEG was used to measure neural activity simultaneously to haemodynamic and
576 metabolic activity using the Enobio EEG system (Neuroelectronics, Spain) which is a wireless
577 gel-based system. The system consisted of 32 electrodes, the locations of which are shown in
578 Figure 5b. The sampling rate of the system was 500 Hz. The experimental protocol in
579 Psychtoolbox sent event markers to both bNIRS and EEG systems using serial port
580 communication which was then used to synchronise the bNIRS and EEG.

581

582 All data were analysed using the EEGLab Toolbox (Schwartz Centre for Computation
583 Neuroscience, UC San Diego, USA) and in-house scripts in Matlab (Mathworks, USA). The
584 raw EEG signal was band-pass filtered between 0.1 – 100 Hz and a notch filter (48 – 52 Hz)
585 was applied to remove artifacts due to line noise. Following this, blocks of the data were
586 created such that they consisted of the baseline period prior to the stimulus presentation and
587 the entire following stimulus period. These blocks were then segmented into 1 s segments
588 such that for both the baseline and the stimulus, each 8 – 12 s presentation of the baseline
589 condition or the stimulus condition yielded 8 – 12 x 1 s segments. These 1 s segments
590 consisted of 200 ms of the previous 1 s segment and 800 ms of the current segment and the
591 200 ms was used for baseline correction of each 1 s segment. This will be referred to as
592 “within-segment baseline correction” from here. Segments where the infants were not
593 visually attending to the stimulus were removed. An average of 30 x 1 s segments were
594 included per infant. Artifacts were detected using automatic artifact-detection in EEGLab and
595 through manual identification. EEG segments were rejected if the signal amplitude exceeded
596 200 μ V, or if electro-ocular, movement, or muscular artifacts occurred. Channels with noisy
597 data were interpolated by an algorithm incorporated within EEGLab. Data were then re-
598 referenced to the average reference.

599

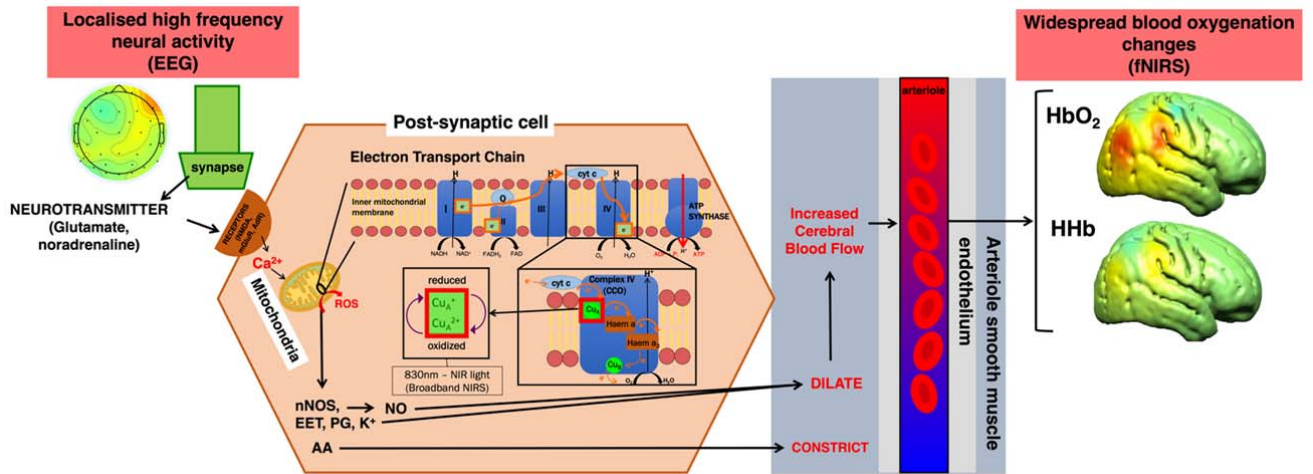
600 Within each block (consisting of the baseline period and the stimulus period), each artifact-
601 free 1 s segment was subjected to a power analysis to calculate the average root mean square
602 (RMS) power for both low and high frequency bands – theta (3 – 6 Hz), alpha (8 – 12 Hz),
603 beta (13 – 30 Hz), gamma (20 – 60 Hz) and high gamma (60 – 80 Hz), within each 1 s
604 segment. This then yielded the average RMS power across the block (baseline period +
605 following stimulus period). Baseline correction was performed by subtracting the average of
606 the 2 s of the baseline period from the entire block. This will be referred to as the “block
607 baseline correction” from here on. RMS power was chosen as the metric to correlate bNIRS
608 and EEG data as previous studies have demonstrated that task-related BOLD changes are best
609 explained by RMS [94], [95]. The blocks were then averaged across trials to obtain an
610 averaged RMS response per participant. A portion of the averaged RMS power was then
611 entered into a GLM analysis described below – this consisted of 8 seconds of the stimulus

612 period. Figure 6 supplement 1 provides a visual depiction of how the RMS power was
 613 derived from the pre-processed EEG data. For each participant, the RMS power was also
 614 averaged across the stimulus period for statistical analysis of the EEG data. For each
 615 frequency band, statistical t-tests were performed on this averaged RMS power comparing
 616 the social condition versus the baseline (RMS power was averaged during the baseline
 617 period), the non-social condition versus the baseline and social versus non-social. The false
 618 discovery rate (FDR) procedure using the Benjamin Hochberg method [96] as performed to
 619 correct for multiple comparisons, across the 32 EEG channels.

620

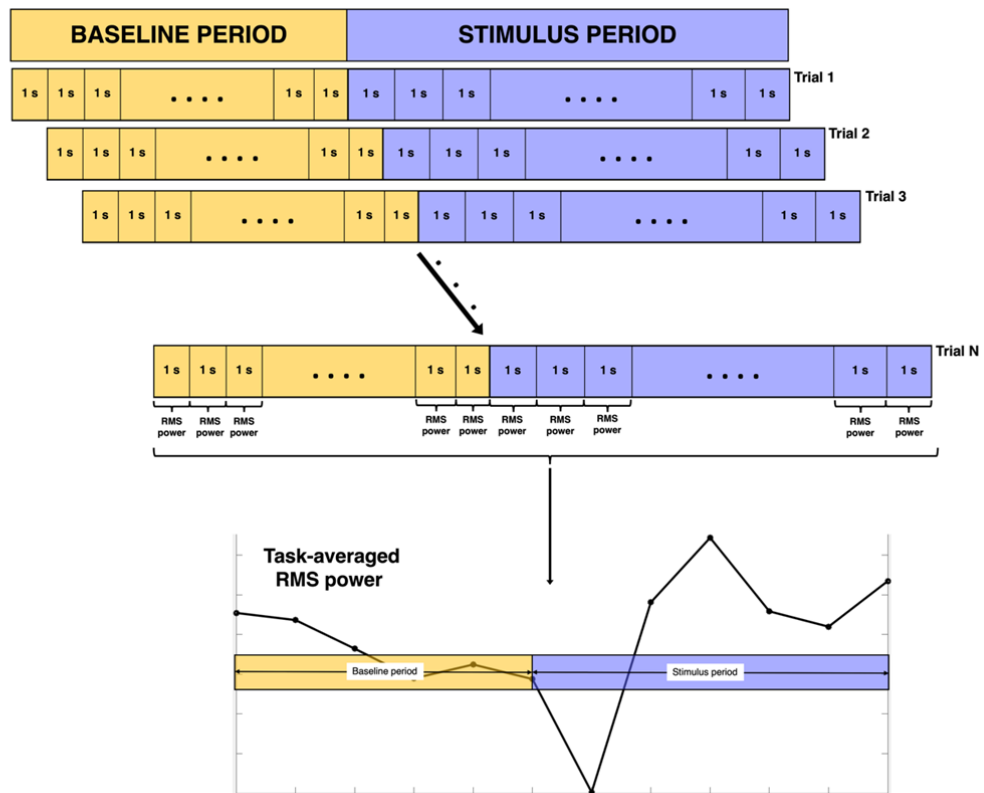
621 *Data Analysis:* Figure 6 supplement 2 outlines the data analysis pipelines for both bNIRS and
 622 EEG data, as well as the procedure for the combined bNIRS-EEG analysis.

623



624

625 *Figure 6: Simplified summary of the signalling pathways that mediate neurovascular coupling. High-frequency neural*
 626 *activity causes the release of neurotransmitters such as glutamate and noradrenaline which bind to either N-methyl-D-*
 627 *aspartate (NMDA) receptors in interneurons or metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluR) or adrenaline receptors in*
 628 *astrocytes. In both cases, this causes an influx of calcium (Ca²⁺) which in turn leads to an increase in ATP production*
 629 *through the mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC). As a by-product, in interneurons, nitric oxide (NO) is produced in*
 630 *the interneurons which dilates arterioles to increase blood flow leading to increased oxygen delivery in surrounding brain*
 631 *regions. Alternatively, in astrocytes derivatives of arachidonic acid (AA) which include prostaglandins (PG) and*
 632 *epoxyeicosatrienoic acids (EET) which cause vasodilation*



634
635
636
637

Figure 6 supplement 1: Procedure for deriving the EEG RMS power from the pre-processed EEG data. Each 1 s segment is made up of 200 ms of the previous segment and 800 ms of the current segment. The task-averaged RMS power shown here is average theta power across all infants from a single channel for the purposes of outlining the procedure.

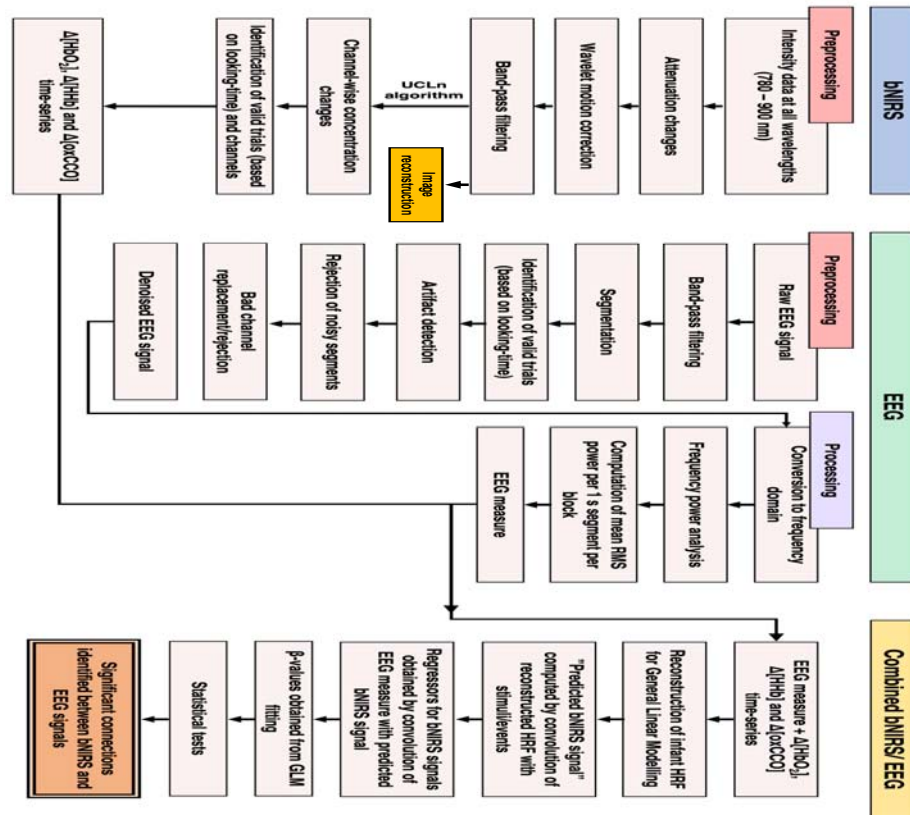


Figure 6 supplement 2: Flow chart for the data analysis pipelines for bNIRS (left), EEG (middle) and combined bNIRS-EEG (right).

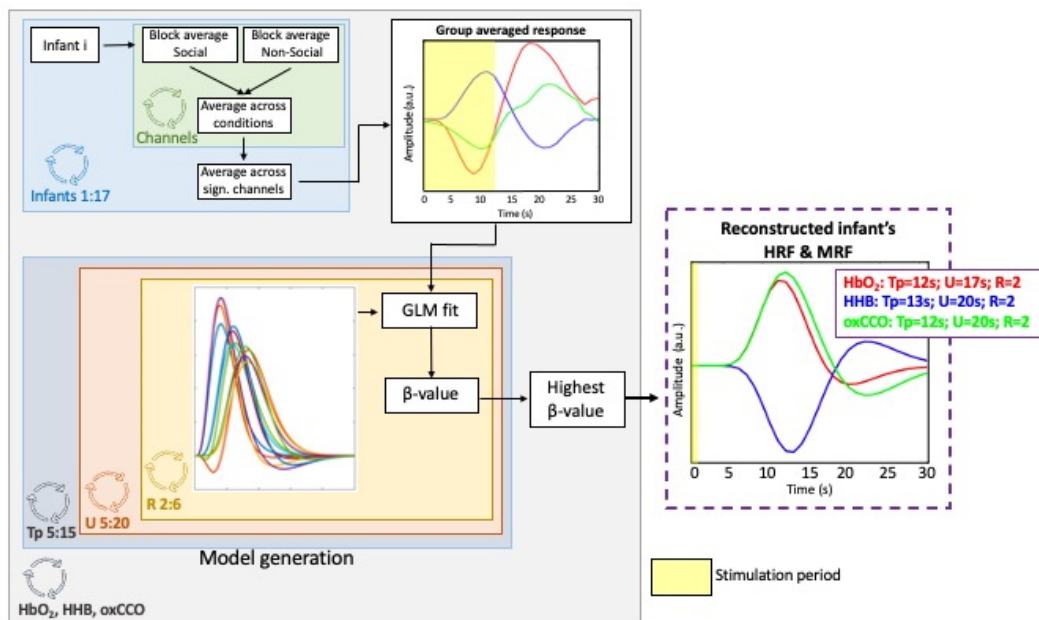
638
639
640
641
642
643
644
645
646
647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655
656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664

Combined NIRS-EEG analysis: A GLM [97] approach was employed to investigate the relationship between the bNIRS hemodynamic and metabolic data with the EEG neural data. The canonical GLM typically uses a model of the expected haemodynamic response, i.e. the hemodynamic response function (HRF), to predict the hemodynamic signal. However, given the differences in the haemodynamic response in adults and infants, the standard adult HRF model cannot be assumed for infant data. For example, infants display a delay in their haemodynamic responses [98]–[100]. In addition, the analogous of the HRF is not established for the metabolic response (i.e. the metabolic response function or MRF). Therefore, the first step of this analysis involved reconstructing the HRF for HbO₂ and HHb and the MRF for oxCCO before combining bNIRS and EEG data.

The reconstruction of the infant HRF and MRF started with block-averaging the HbO₂, HHb, and oxCCO signals for social and non-social conditions within each infant. Based on our previous study [19], we selected only the channels that displayed statistically significant responses to the contrast task versus baseline. The single subjects block-averaged responses were averaged across the social and non-social conditions and then across the significant channels. The resulting block-averaged responses were then averaged across the group to obtain a “grand average” HbO₂, HHb and oxCCO response.

The grand average was then used in an iterative approach to estimate the HRF and MRF that best fit the HbO₂, HHb and oxCCO responses. This involved fitting the grand averaged signals with different HRF/MRF models starting from the canonical HRF made of two gamma functions and varying the following parameters: 1) delay of response, 2) delay of the

665 undershoot and 3) ratio of response to undershoot to identify the combination of parameters
 666 that best reconstructed the infant HRF/MRF for the social/non-social stimuli. The parameters
 667 were varied in increments of 1 s such that the delay of the response was varied from 5 s to 15
 668 s from the stimulus onset, the delay of the undershoot was varied from 5 to 20 s and the ratio
 669 of the response to the undershoot was varied from 2 to 6 s. All possible combinations of
 670 parameters were tested. The grand average responses were fitted with each HRF/MRF in
 671 GLM approach, and β -values were obtained for each combination of the HRF/MRF
 672 parameters. The β -values were entered into a statistical test and the parameter combinations
 673 that yielded the highest, statistically significant β -values (i.e. the model best fitting the data)
 674 were selected to reconstruct the infant HRF/MRF. This approach is similar to those used
 675 previously to reconstruct the infant HRF [100] and identified the best fit to be with a 2-s
 676 delay of response for HbO₂ and HHb and a 3-s delay of response for oxCCO in comparison
 677 to the adult HRF (i.e. 6 s). Moreover, the delay of the undershoot was 9-s earlier for all
 678 chromophores and the ratio of the response to the undershoot was 2 for HbO₂ and HHb and 3
 679 for oxCCO, in comparison to 6 for the adult HRF. These correspond to the basis function
 680 representing the hemodynamic/metabolic response to an event of zero duration/impulse
 681 function. The new reconstructed HRF and MRF were then used for the GLM approach to
 682 correlate bNIRS and EEG data. The process for estimating the HRF and MRF has been
 683 depicted in Figure 7.
 684



685
 686
 687
 688
 689
 Figure 7: Procedure for obtaining the reconstructed haemodynamic response function (HRF) and the metabolic response function (MRF). The panel on the right shows the estimated HRF and MRF with the corresponding basis function parameters giving the best fit with the group averaged HbO₂, HHb, oxCCO responses. The yellow shaded areas represent the stimulation periods.

690 To constrain the analysis, we chose to investigate coupling of haemodynamic and metabolic
 691 with neural activity at specific channels. For this, we used the results from an analysis we
 692 described previously that combined bNIRS haemodynamic and metabolic signals [19], [101].
 693 The results from this identified task-relevant cortical regions that displayed high levels of
 694 haemodynamic and metabolic coupling. The bNIRS channels that displayed significant
 695 haemodynamic and metabolic coupling for social and non-social conditions were used here.
 696 All EEG channels were used as EEG is not as spatially specific as bNIRS. For each infant,
 697 for each chromophore, for each channel and each EEG frequency band, the new infant

698 HRF/MRF that was reconstructed in the previous step was convolved with the events to
699 obtain the “predicted” bNIRS signal. The “predicted” bNIRS signal was then convolved with
700 the EEG RMS power block (consisting only of the data from the stimulus period) at each
701 frequency band to obtain the neural regressor for the bNIRS data, considering both social and
702 non-social conditions together. The design matrix thus included the neural regressor
703 reflecting the increased in EEG activity to the social and non-social stimuli and used to fit the
704 bNIRS data. This was performed for HbO₂, HHb, and oxCCO individually for all the
705 channels. β -values were estimated for each channel and t-tests against 0 were conducted to
706 test whether there was a statistically significant association between bNIRS signals and EEG
707 frequency bands. The false discovery rate (FDR) procedure using the Benjamin Hochberg
708 method [96] was performed to correct for multiple comparisons across EEG and bNIRS
709 channels. The FDR-corrected significant t-values were plotted. This method has been used in
710 numerous studies previously in correlating fMRI BOLD – EEG [21]. Only bNIRS channels
711 that displayed significant (prior to FDR correction) haemodynamic and metabolic coupling
712 were used for this analysis (as indicated in Figure and **Error! Reference source not
713 found.**). For the social condition, channels 12, 13 and 14 for HbO₂, channels 11, 12, 14 and
714 18 for HHb and channels 11, 12, 13, 14 and 18 for oxCCO displayed significant
715 haemodynamic and metabolic coupling. Moreover, for the non-social condition, channels 12
716 and 14 for HbO₂, channels 12, 14 and 16 for HHb and channels 12, 14 and 16 for oxCCO
717 displayed significant coupling. For consistency, the channels selected for the bNIRS-EEG
718 analysis were the same across chromophores and conditions. The final channels included in
719 the analysis therefore were channels 11, 12, 13, 14, 16 and 18. For the integrated bNIRS-EEG
720 analysis, 6 channel-wise t-tests were carried (one per included bNIRS channel, e.g. 6) for
721 each EEG frequency band. Therefore, the FDR correction was applied across the 6 bNIRS
722 channels for each of the hypotheses tested.

723

724 For the bNIRS analysis, data from 25 infants was included while for the EEG analysis, data
725 from 35 infants were included. For the joint bNIRS-EEG analysis, only infants that had both
726 valid bNIRS and EEG data for both social and non-social conditions were included and
727 therefore 14 infants were included in this analysis.

728

729 *Image reconstruction:* Image reconstruction was performed on the bNIRS data, at the
730 individual subject level and then averaged across infants to produce a grand average that is
731 shown in Figure 4. This was done to visually assess the similarities in the spatial distributions
732 of the changes in HbO₂, HHb, oxCCO. For this analysis, three additional long-distance
733 channels were created over the right hemisphere (in addition to the 19 bNIRS channels) that
734 had a source/detector separation of 4.3cm to generate multiple and overlapping channels.

735

736 More precisely, the block averaged attenuation changes at 13 discrete wavelengths (from 780
737 – 900 nm at 10 nm intervals) for each infant were selected from the bNIRS data. This was
738 done to reduce the computational burden of the reconstruction [102]. A four-layer infant
739 head-model (consisting of the grey matter (GM), white matter (WM), cerebrospinal fluid
740 (CSF) and extra cerebral tissue) was built using averaged MRI data from a cohort of 12-
741 month-old infants presented in Shi et al. [103]. The Betsurf segmentation procedure [104]
742 was then used to define an outer scalp boundary from the average head MRI template. The
743 voxelised four-layer model was converted to a high-resolution tetrahedral mesh ($\sim 7.8 \times$
744 10^5 nodes and $\sim 4.7 \times 10^6$ elements) using the iso2mesh software (Fang & Boas, 2009). The
745 same software was used to create the GM surface mesh ($\sim 5.8 \times 10^4$ nodes and $\sim 1.2 \times 10^5$
746 faces), used to visualise the reconstructed images.

747

748 The reconstruction of images of HbO₂, HHb and ΔoxCCO are described elsewhere [105],
749 using a multispectral approach [106]. Wavelength-specific Jacobians were computed with
750 the Toast++ software [107] on the tetrahedral head mesh and projected onto a 50 × 60 × 50
751 voxel regular grid for reconstruction, using an intermediate finer grid of 100 × 120 × 100
752 voxels to optimize the mapping between mesh and voxel space. Optical properties were
753 assigned to each tissue type and for each wavelength by fitting all published values for these
754 tissue types [108]–[110]. Diffuse boundary sources and detectors were simulated as a
755 Gaussian profile with a 2-mm standard deviation, and Neumann boundary conditions were
756 applied. The inverse problem was solved employing the LSQR method to solve the matrix
757 equations resulting from the minimization and using first-order Tikhonov regularization, with
758 the parameter covariance matrix containing the diagonal square matrices with the background
759 concentration values of the three chromophores (23.7 for HbO₂, 16 for HHb and 6 for
760 ΔoxCCO) [111], [112] and the noise covariance matrix set as the identity matrix. The
761 maximum number of iterations allowed to the LSQR method was set to 50, and with a
762 tolerance of 10⁻⁵. The regularization hyperparameter λ was set to 10⁻².

763
764 The reconstructed images, defined on the same regular grid of the Jacobian, were remapped
765 to the tetrahedral head mesh and then projected to the GM surface mesh, by assigning a value
766 to each node on the GM boundary surface that was equal to the mean value of all the
767 tetrahedral mesh node values within a 3-mm radius. The concentration changes for HbO₂ and
768 HHb were normalised to the maximum concentration change of HbO₂ while ΔoxCCO was
769 normalised to its own maximum change in concentration.

770

771 References

772

- 773 [1] M. H. Johnson, “Functional brain development in humans,” *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*, vol.
774 2, no. 7, pp. 475–483, Jul. 2001, doi: 10.1038/35081509.
- 775 [2] M. H. Johnson, “Interactive Specialization: A domain-general framework for human
776 functional brain development?,” *Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience*, vol. 1, no. 1.
777 pp. 7–21, 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2010.07.003.
- 778 [3] E. J. H. Jones, K. Venema, R. Lowy, R. K. Earl, and S. J. Webb, “Developmental
779 changes in infant brain activity during naturalistic social experiences,” *Dev.*
780 *Psychobiol.*, vol. 57, no. 7, pp. 842–853, Nov. 2015, doi: 10.1002/dev.21336.
- 781 [4] G. Bale, C. E. Elwell, and I. Tachtsidis, “From Jöbsis to the present day: a review of
782 clinical near-infrared spectroscopy measurements of cerebral cytochrome-c-oxidase,”
783 *J. Biomed. Opt.*, vol. 21, no. 9, p. 91307, 2016, [Online]. Available:
784 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1117/1.JBO.21.9.091307>.
- 785 [5] D. Attwell and C. Iadecola, “The neural basis of functional brain imaging signals,”
786 *Trends Neurosci.*, vol. 25, no. 12, pp. 621–625, 2002, doi: 10.1016/S0166-
787 2236(02)02264-6.
- 788 [6] G. Buzsáki, *Rhythms of the Brain*. Oxford University Press, 2006.
- 789 [7] M. E. Raichle and M. A. Mintun, “Brain work and brain imaging,” *Annu. Rev.*
790 *Neurosci.*, vol. 29, pp. 449–476, 2006, doi: 10.1146/annurev.neuro.29.051605.112819.
- 791 [8] L. Sokoloff, “Energetics of functional activation in neural tissues,” *Neurochem. Res.*,
792 vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 321–329, Feb. 1999, doi: 10.1023/a:1022534709672.
- 793 [9] P. Steiner, “Brain Fuel Utilization in the Developing Brain,” *Ann. Nutr. Metab.*, vol.
794 75 Suppl 1, pp. 8–18, 2019, doi: 10.1159/000508054.
- 795 [10] R. Leech, G. Scott, R. Carhart-Harris, F. Turkheimer, S. D. Taylor-Robinson, and D. J.
796 Sharp, “Spatial Dependencies between Large-Scale Brain Networks,” *PLoS One*, vol.
797 9, no. 6, pp. 1–10, 2014, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0098500.

- 798 [11] S. Vaynman, Z. Ying, A. Wu, and F. Gomez-Pinilla, "Coupling energy metabolism
799 with a mechanism to support brain-derived neurotrophic factor-mediated synaptic
800 plasticity.," *Neuroscience*, vol. 139, no. 4, pp. 1221–1234, 2006, doi:
801 10.1016/j.neuroscience.2006.01.062.
- 802 [12] M. Kozberg and E. Hillman, "Neurovascular coupling and energy metabolism in the
803 developing brain," in *Progress in Brain Research*, vol. 225, 2016, pp. 213–242.
- 804 [13] H. L. Kosakowski, M. A. Cohen, A. Takahashi, B. Keil, N. Kanwisher, and R. Saxe,
805 "Selective responses to faces, scenes, and bodies in the ventral visual pathway of
806 infants.," *Curr. Biol.*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 265–274.e5, Jan. 2022, doi:
807 10.1016/j.cub.2021.10.064.
- 808 [14] T. Farroni *et al.*, "Infant cortex responds to other humans from shortly after birth," *Sci.*
809 *Rep.*, 2013, doi: 10.1038/srep02851.
- 810 [15] T. Grossmann, R. Oberecker, S. P. Koch, and A. D. Friederici, "The Developmental
811 Origins of Voice Processing in the Human Brain," *Neuron*, vol. 65, no. 6, pp. 852–858,
812 2010, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2010.03.001>.
- 813 [16] S. Lloyd-Fox, A. Blasi, E. Mercure, C. E. Elwell, and M. H. Johnson, "The emergence
814 of cerebral specialization for the human voice over the first months of life," *Soc.*
815 *Neurosci.*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 317–330, May 2012, doi: 10.1080/17470919.2011.614696.
- 816 [17] S. Lloyd-Fox, A. Blasi, C. E. Elwell, T. Charman, D. Murphy, and M. H. Johnson,
817 "Reduced neural sensitivity to social stimuli in infants at risk for autism," *Proc. R. Soc.*
818 *B Biol. Sci.*, vol. 280, no. 1758, p. 20123026, May 2013, doi: 10.1098/rspb.2012.3026.
- 819 [18] S. Lloyd-Fox *et al.*, "Cortical responses before 6 months of life associate with later
820 autism," *Eur. J. Neurosci.*, Nov. 2017, doi: 10.1111/ejn.13757.
- 821 [19] M. F. Siddiqui *et al.*, "Regional Haemodynamic and Metabolic Coupling in Infants,"
822 *Front. Hum. Neurosci.*, vol. 15, 2022, doi: 10.3389/fnhum.2021.780076.
- 823 [20] R. Scheeringa *et al.*, "Neuronal Dynamics Underlying High- and Low-Frequency EEG
824 Oscillations Contribute Independently to the Human BOLD Signal," *Neuron*, vol. 69,
825 no. 3, pp. 572–583, Feb. 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2010.11.044.
- 826 [21] R. Scheeringa, K. M. Petersson, R. Oostenveld, D. G. Norris, P. Hagoort, and M. C.
827 M. Bastiaansen, "Trial-by-trial coupling between EEG and BOLD identifies networks
828 related to alpha and theta EEG power increases during working memory maintenance,"
829 *Neuroimage*, vol. 44, no. 3, pp. 1224–1238, Feb. 2009, doi:
830 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2008.08.041.
- 831 [22] R. I. Goldman, J. M. Stern, J. Engel, and M. S. Cohen, "Simultaneous EEG and fMRI
832 of the alpha rhythm," *Neuroreport*, 2002, doi: 10.1097/00001756-200212200-00022.
- 833 [23] H. Yuan, T. Liu, R. Szarkowski, C. Rios, J. Ashe, and B. He, "Negative covariation
834 between task-related responses in alpha/beta-band activity and BOLD in human
835 sensorimotor cortex: An EEG and fMRI study of motor imagery and movements,"
836 *Neuroimage*, vol. 49, no. 3, pp. 2596–2606, Feb. 2010, doi:
837 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2009.10.028.
- 838 [24] J. Niessing, "Hemodynamic Signals Correlate Tightly with Synchronized Gamma
839 Oscillations," *Science (80-.)*, vol. 309, no. 5736, pp. 948–951, Aug. 2005, doi:
840 10.1126/science.1110948.
- 841 [25] N. K. Logothetis, J. Pauls, M. Augath, T. Trinath, and A. Oeltermann,
842 "Neurophysiological investigation of the basis of the fMRI signal," *Nature*, vol. 412,
843 no. 6843, pp. 150–157, Jul. 2001, doi: 10.1038/35084005.
- 844 [26] S. P. Koch, P. Werner, J. Steinbrink, P. Fries, and H. Obrig, "Stimulus-Induced and
845 State-Dependent Sustained Gamma Activity Is Tightly Coupled to the Hemodynamic
846 Response in Humans," *J. Neurosci.*, vol. 29, no. 44, pp. 13962 LP – 13970, Nov. 2009,
847 doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1402-09.2009.

- 848 [27] T. Wilcox, J. A. Haslup, and D. A. Boas, “Dissociation of processing of featural and
849 spatiotemporal information in the infant cortex,” *Neuroimage*, 2010, doi:
850 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2010.06.064.
- 851 [28] T. Dekker, D. Mareschal, M. I. Sereno, and M. H. Johnson, “Dorsal and ventral stream
852 activation and object recognition performance in school-age children,” *Neuroimage*,
853 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2010.11.005.
- 854 [29] P. Pinti, M. F. Siddiqui, A. D. Levy, E. J. H. Jones, and I. Tachtsidis, “An analysis
855 framework for the integration of broadband NIRS and EEG to assess neurovascular
856 and neurometabolic coupling,” *Sci. Rep.*, 2021, doi: 10.1038/s41598-021-83420-9.
- 857 [30] Y. Wang *et al.*, “Long-range connections mirror and link microarchitectural and
858 cognitive hierarchies in the human brain,” *bioRxiv*, 2021, doi:
859 10.1101/2021.10.25.465692.
- 860 [31] R. Scheeringa, K. M. Petersson, A. Kleinschmidt, O. Jensen, and M. C. M.
861 Bastiaansen, “EEG Alpha Power Modulation of fMRI Resting-State Connectivity,”
862 *Brain Connect.*, 2012, doi: 10.1089/brain.2012.0088.
- 863 [32] M. T. Kucewicz *et al.*, “High frequency oscillations are associated with cognitive
864 processing in human recognition memory,” *Brain*, vol. 137, no. 8, pp. 2231–2244,
865 Aug. 2014, doi: 10.1093/brain/awu149.
- 866 [33] J. J. Harris, C. Reynell, and D. Attwell, “The physiology of developmental changes in
867 BOLD functional imaging signals,” *Dev. Cogn. Neurosci.*, vol. 1, no. 3, pp. 199–216,
868 Jul. 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2011.04.001.
- 869 [34] R. A. Rowan and D. S. Maxwell, “Patterns of vascular sprouting in the postnatal
870 development of the cerebral cortex of the rat,” *Am. J. Anat.*, vol. 160, no. 3, pp. 247–
871 255, Mar. 1981, doi: 10.1002/aja.1001600303.
- 872 [35] M. G. Norman and J. R. O’Kusky, “The growth and development of microvasculature
873 in human cerebral cortex,” *J. Neuropathol. Exp. Neurol.*, vol. 45, no. 3, pp. 222–232,
874 May 1986, doi: 10.1097/00005072-198605000-00004.
- 875 [36] C. M. Zehendner, S. Tsohataridis, H. J. Luhmann, and J. W. Yang, “Developmental
876 switch in neurovascular coupling in the immature rodent barrel cortex,” *PLoS One*,
877 vol. 8, no. 11, p. e80749, Nov. 2013, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0080749.
- 878 [37] M. G. Kozberg, B. R. Chen, S. E. DeLeo, M. B. Bouchard, and E. M. C. Hillman,
879 “Resolving the transition from negative to positive blood oxygen level-dependent
880 responses in the developing brain,” *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, vol. 110, no. 11, pp. 4380–
881 4385, Mar. 2013, doi: 10.1073/pnas.1212785110.
- 882 [38] B. R. Chen, M. G. Kozberg, M. B. Bouchard, M. A. Shaik, and E. M. C. Hillman, “A
883 Critical Role for the Vascular Endothelium in Functional Neurovascular Coupling in
884 the Brain,” *J. Am. Heart Assoc.*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. e000787–e000787, Jun. 2014, doi:
885 10.1161/JAHA.114.000787.
- 886 [39] K. Fujimoto, “Pericyte-endothelial gap junctions in developing rat cerebral capillaries:
887 A fine structural study,” *Anat. Rec.*, vol. 242, no. 4, pp. 562–565, Aug. 1995, doi:
888 10.1002/ar.1092420412.
- 889 [40] A. Seregi, M. Keller, and G. Hertting, “Are cerebral prostanoids of astroglial origin?
890 Studies on the prostanoid forming system in developing rat brain and primary cultures
891 of rat astrocytes,” *Brain Res.*, vol. 404, no. 1–2, pp. 113–120, 1987, doi:
892 10.1016/0006-8993(87)91361-8.
- 893 [41] C. C. Stichel, C. M. Müller, and K. Zilles, “Distribution of glial fibrillary acidic
894 protein and vimentin immunoreactivity during rat visual cortex development,” *J.*
895 *Neurocytol.*, vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 97–108, Feb. 1991, doi: 10.1007/BF01279614.
- 896 [42] H. T. Chugani, M. E. Phelps, and J. C. Mazziotta, “Positron emission tomography
897 study of human brain functional development,” *Ann. Neurol.*, vol. 22, no. 4, pp. 487–

- 898 497, Oct. 1987, doi: 10.1002/ana.410220408.
- 899 [43] M. Kozberg and E. Hillman, "Chapter 10 – Neurovascular coupling and energy
900 metabolism in the developing brain," in *Progress in Brain Research*, vol. 225,
901 Elsevier, 2016, pp. 213–242.
- 902 [44] D. Malonek and A. Grinvald, "Interactions between electrical activity and cortical
903 microcirculation revealed by imaging spectroscopy: Implications for functional brain
904 mapping," *Science (80-.)*, 1996, doi: 10.1126/science.272.5261.551.
- 905 [45] P. Phan, D. Highton, J. Lai, M. Smith, C. Elwell, and I. Tachtsidis, "Multi-channel
906 multi-distance broadband near- infrared spectroscopy system to measure the spatial
907 response of cellular oxygen metabolism and tissue oxygenation," *Biomed. Opt.
908 Express*, vol. 7, no. 4424, 2016, doi: 10.1364/BOE.7.004424.
- 909 [46] M. T. T. Wong-Riley *et al.*, "Cytochrome oxidase in the human visual cortex:
910 Distribution in the developing and the adult brain," *Vis. Neurosci.*, vol. 10, no. 01, p.
911 41, Jan. 1993, doi: 10.1017/S0952523800003217.
- 912 [47] R. F. Hevner, S. Liu, and M. T. T. Wong-Riley, "A metabolic map of cytochrome
913 oxidase in the rat brain: Histochemical, densitometric and biochemical studies,"
914 *Neuroscience*, 1995, doi: 10.1016/0306-4522(94)00514-6.
- 915 [48] S. Uono *et al.*, "Time course of gamma-band oscillation associated with face
916 processing in the inferior occipital gyrus and fusiform gyrus: A combined fMRI and
917 MEG study," *Hum. Brain Mapp.*, vol. 38, no. 4, pp. 2067–2079, Apr. 2017, doi:
918 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.23505>.
- 919 [49] A. S. Ghuman *et al.*, "Dynamic encoding of face information in the human fusiform
920 gyrus," *Nat. Commun.*, vol. 5, no. 1, p. 5672, 2014, doi: 10.1038/ncomms6672.
- 921 [50] M. Bayer, M. T. Rubens, and T. Johnstone, "Simultaneous EEG-fMRI reveals
922 attention-dependent coupling of early face processing with a distributed cortical
923 network," *Biol. Psychol.*, vol. 132, pp. 133–142, 2018, doi:
924 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsycho.2017.12.002>.
- 925 [51] M. Müller-Bardorff *et al.*, "Early brain responses to affective faces: A simultaneous
926 EEG-fMRI study," *Neuroimage*, vol. 178, pp. 660–667, 2018, doi:
927 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.05.081>.
- 928 [52] V. T. Nguyen and R. Cunnington, "The superior temporal sulcus and the N170 during
929 face processing: Single trial analysis of concurrent EEG–fMRI," *Neuroimage*, vol. 86,
930 pp. 492–502, 2014, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.10.047>.
- 931 [53] V. T. Nguyen, M. Breakspear, and R. Cunnington, "Fusing concurrent EEG–fMRI
932 with dynamic causal modeling: Application to effective connectivity during face
933 perception," *Neuroimage*, vol. 102, pp. 60–70, 2014, doi:
934 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.06.083>.
- 935 [54] A. D. Engell and G. McCarthy, "The Relationship of Gamma Oscillations and Face-
936 Specific ERPs Recorded Subdurally from Occipitotemporal Cortex," *Cereb. Cortex*,
937 vol. 21, no. 5, pp. 1213–1221, May 2011, doi: 10.1093/cercor/bhq206.
- 938 [55] F. Bossi, I. Premoli, S. Pizzamiglio, S. Balaban, P. Ricciardelli, and D. Rivolta,
939 "Theta- and Gamma-Band Activity Discriminates Face, Body and Object Perception,"
940 *Front. Hum. Neurosci.*, vol. 14, p. 74, Mar. 2020, doi: 10.3389/fnhum.2020.00074.
- 941 [56] D. Anaki, E. Zion-Golombic, and S. Bentin, "Electrophysiological neural mechanisms
942 for detection, configural analysis and recognition of faces," *Neuroimage*, vol. 37, no.
943 4, pp. 1407–1416, 2007, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2007.05.054>.
- 944 [57] A. Ishai, L. Ungerleider, A. Martin, and J. Haxby, "The Representation of Objects in
945 the Human Occipital and Temporal Cortex," *J. Cogn. Neurosci.*, vol. 12 Suppl 2, pp.
946 35–51, Nov. 2000, doi: 10.1162/089892900564055.
- 947 [58] K. A. Pelphey, J. P. Morris, and G. McCarthy, "Neural basis of eye gaze processing

- 948 deficits in autism,” *Brain*, vol. 128, no. 5, pp. 1038–1048, May 2005, doi:
949 10.1093/brain/awh404.
- 950 [59] W. Sato *et al.*, “Rapid, high-frequency, and theta-coupled gamma oscillations in the
951 inferior occipital gyrus during face processing,” *Cortex*, vol. 60, pp. 52–68, 2014, doi:
952 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2014.02.024>.
- 953 [60] E. Zion-Golumbic, T. Golan, D. Anaki, and S. Bentin, “Human face preference in
954 gamma-frequency EEG activity,” *Neuroimage*, vol. 39, no. 4, pp. 1980–1987, 2008,
955 doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2007.10.025>.
- 956 [61] Z. Gao, A. Goldstein, Y. Harpaz, M. Hansel, E. Zion-Golumbic, and S. Bentin, “A
957 magnetoencephalographic study of face processing: M170, gamma-band oscillations
958 and source localization,” *Hum. Brain Mapp.*, vol. 34, no. 8, pp. 1783–1795, Aug.
959 2013, doi: 10.1002/hbm.22028.
- 960 [62] A. von Stein and J. Sarnthein, “Different frequencies for different scales of cortical
961 integration: from local gamma to long range alpha/theta synchronization,” *Int. J.*
962 *Psychophysiol.*, vol. 38, no. 3, pp. 301–313, 2000, doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8760(00)00172-0)
963 [8760\(00\)00172-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8760(00)00172-0).
- 964 [63] R. T. Canolty and R. T. Knight, “The functional role of cross-frequency coupling.,”
965 *Trends Cogn. Sci.*, vol. 14, no. 11, pp. 506–515, Nov. 2010, doi:
966 10.1016/j.tics.2010.09.001.
- 967 [64] B. van der Velde, T. White, and C. Kemner, “The emergence of a theta social brain
968 network during infancy,” *Neuroimage*, vol. 240, p. 118298, 2021, doi:
969 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2021.118298>.
- 970 [65] A. J. Smith, H. Blumenfeld, K. L. Behar, D. L. Rothman, R. G. Shulman, and F.
971 Hyder, “Cerebral energetics and spiking frequency: The neurophysiological basis of
972 fMRI,” *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, vol. 99, no. 16, pp. 10765–10770, Aug. 2002, doi:
973 10.1073/pnas.132272199.
- 974 [66] O. Kann, “The Energy Demand of Fast Neuronal Network Oscillations: Insights from
975 Brain Slice Preparations ,” *Frontiers in Pharmacology* , vol. 2. 2012, [Online].
976 Available: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fphar.2011.00090>.
- 977 [67] J. Niessing, B. Ebisch, K. E. Schmidt, M. Niessing, W. Singer, and R. A. W. Galuske,
978 “Hemodynamic Signals Correlate Tightly with Synchronized Gamma Oscillations,”
979 *Science (80-.)*, vol. 309, no. 5736, pp. 948–951, Aug. 2005, doi:
980 10.1126/science.1110948.
- 981 [68] J. B. M. Goense and N. K. Logothetis, “Neurophysiology of the BOLD fMRI Signal in
982 Awake Monkeys,” *Curr. Biol.*, 2008, doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2008.03.054.
- 983 [69] P. S. Hosford and A. V Gourine, “What is the key mediator of the neurovascular
984 coupling response?,” *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.*, vol. 96, pp. 174–181, Jan. 2019, doi:
985 10.1016/j.neubiorev.2018.11.011.
- 986 [70] P. S. Hosford *et al.*, “CO(2) signaling mediates neurovascular coupling in the cerebral
987 cortex.,” *Nat. Commun.*, vol. 13, no. 1, p. 2125, Apr. 2022, doi: 10.1038/s41467-022-
988 29622-9.
- 989 [71] M. C. W. Oswald *et al.*, “Reactive oxygen species regulate activity-dependent
990 neuronal plasticity in *Drosophila*,” *Elife*, vol. 7, p. e39393, Dec. 2018, doi:
991 10.7554/eLife.39393.
- 992 [72] S. Lloyd-Fox *et al.*, “Cortical specialisation to social stimuli from the first days to the
993 second year of life: A rural Gambian cohort,” *Dev. Cogn. Neurosci.*, vol. 25, pp. 92–
994 104, Jun. 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2016.11.005.
- 995 [73] M. Schurz, J. Radua, M. Aichhorn, F. Richlan, and J. Perner, “Fractionating theory of
996 mind: a meta-analysis of functional brain imaging studies.,” *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.*,
997 vol. 42, pp. 9–34, May 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.neubiorev.2014.01.009.

- 998 [74] M. Schurz, M. G. Tholen, J. Perner, R. B. Mars, and J. Sallet, “Specifying the brain
999 anatomy underlying temporo-parietal junction activations for theory of mind: A
1000 review using probabilistic atlases from different imaging modalities,” *Hum. Brain*
1001 *Mapp.*, vol. 38, no. 9, pp. 4788–4805, Sep. 2017, doi: 10.1002/hbm.23675.
- 1002 [75] M. Corbetta and G. L. Shulman, “Control of goal-directed and stimulus-driven
1003 attention in the brain,” *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 201–215, 2002, doi:
1004 10.1038/nrn755.
- 1005 [76] R. M. Carter and S. A. Huettel, “A nexus model of the temporal-parietal junction,”
1006 *Trends Cogn. Sci.*, vol. 17, no. 7, pp. 328–336, Jul. 2013, doi:
1007 10.1016/j.tics.2013.05.007.
- 1008 [77] A. I. Wilterson, S. A. Nastase, B. J. Bio, A. Guterstam, and M. S. A. Graziano,
1009 “Attention, awareness, and the right temporoparietal junction,” *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*,
1010 vol. 118, no. 25, p. e2026099118, 2021, doi: 10.1073/pnas.2026099118.
- 1011 [78] F. Masina, R. Pezzetta, S. Lago, D. Mantini, C. Scarpazza, and G. Arcara,
1012 “Disconnection from prediction: A systematic review on the role of right
1013 temporoparietal junction in aberrant predictive processing,” *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.*,
1014 vol. 138, p. 104713, Jul. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.neubiorev.2022.104713.
- 1015 [79] A. Ali, N. Ahmad, E. de Groot, M. A. J. van Gerven, and T. C. Kietzmann, “Predictive
1016 coding is a consequence of energy efficiency in recurrent neural networks,” *bioRxiv*,
1017 2021, doi: 10.1101/2021.02.16.430904.
- 1018 [80] A. HajiHosseini, A. Rodríguez-Fornells, and J. Marco-Pallarés, “The role of beta-
1019 gamma oscillations in unexpected rewards processing,” *Neuroimage*, vol. 60, no. 3,
1020 pp. 1678–1685, Apr. 2012, doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2012.01.125.
- 1021 [81] M. F. Siddiqui, C. E. Elwell, and M. H. Johnson, “Mitochondrial Dysfunction in
1022 Autism Spectrum Disorders,” *Autism Open-Access*.
- 1023 [82] G. Bale *et al.*, “Oxygen dependency of mitochondrial metabolism indicates outcome of
1024 newborn brain injury,” *Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow and Metabolism*, SAGE
1025 PublicationsSage UK: London, England, p. 0271678X1877792, May 18, 2018.
- 1026 [83] A. Vezyroglou *et al.*, “Broadband-NIRS System Identifies Epileptic Focus in a Child
1027 with Focal Cortical Dysplasia—A Case Study,” *Metabolites*, vol. 12, no. 3.
1028 2022, doi: 10.3390/metabo12030260.
- 1029 [84] M. Jeong *et al.*, “Functional brain mapping of actual car-driving using [18F]FDG-
1030 PET,” *Ann. Nucl. Med.*, vol. 20, no. 9, pp. 623–628, 2006, doi: 10.1007/BF02984660.
- 1031 [85] I. Lundgaard *et al.*, “Direct neuronal glucose uptake heralds activity-dependent
1032 increases in cerebral metabolism,” *Nat. Commun.*, vol. 6, no. 1, p. 6807, 2015, doi:
1033 10.1038/ncomms7807.
- 1034 [86] A. B. Rocher, F. Chapon, X. Blaizot, J.-C. Baron, and C. Chavoix, “Resting-state brain
1035 glucose utilization as measured by PET is directly related to regional synaptophysin
1036 levels: a study in baboons,” *Neuroimage*, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 1894–1898, 2003, doi:
1037 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2003.07.002>.
- 1038 [87] E. Shokri-Kojori, D. Tomasi, B. Alipanahi, C. E. Wiers, G. J. Wang, and N. D.
1039 Volkow, “Correspondence between cerebral glucose metabolism and BOLD reveals
1040 relative power and cost in human brain,” *Nat. Commun.*, 2019, doi: 10.1038/s41467-
1041 019-08546-x.
- 1042 [88] S. N. Vaishnavi, A. G. Vlassenko, M. M. Rundle, A. Z. Snyder, M. A. Mintun, and M.
1043 E. Raichle, “Regional aerobic glycolysis in the human brain,” *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.*
1044 *S. A.*, 2010, doi: 10.1073/pnas.1010459107.
- 1045 [89] S. Lloyd-Fox, A. Blasi, A. Volein, N. Everdell, C. E. Elwell, and M. H. Johnson,
1046 “Social perception in infancy: A near infrared spectroscopy study,” *Child Dev.*, vol.
1047 80, no. 4, pp. 986–999, 2009, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2009.01312.x.

- 1048 [90] S. Lloyd-Fox *et al.*, “Functional near infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS) to assess cognitive
1049 function in infants in rural Africa,” *Sci. Rep.*, vol. 4, p. 4740, 2014, doi:
1050 10.1038/srep04740.
- 1051 [91] P. Phan, D. Highton, J. Lai, M. Smith, C. Elwell, and I. Tachtsidis, “Multi-channel
1052 multi-distance broadband near- infrared spectroscopy system to measure the spatial
1053 response of cellular oxygen metabolism and tissue oxygenation,” *Biomed. Opt.
1054 Express*, vol. 7, no. 4424, 2016, doi: 10.1364/BOE.7.004424.
- 1055 [92] B. Molavi and G. A. Dumont, “Wavelet-based motion artifact removal for functional
1056 near-infrared spectroscopy,” *Physiol. Meas. Physiol. Meas*, vol. 33, no. 33, pp. 259–
1057 270, 2012, doi: 10.1088/0967-3334/33/2/259.
- 1058 [93] A. Duncan *et al.*, “Optical pathlength measurements on adult head, calf and forearm
1059 and the head of the newborn infant using phase resolved optical spectroscopy,” *Phys.
1060 Med. Biol.*, vol. 40, no. 2, p. 295, 1995, [Online]. Available: [http://stacks.iop.org/0031-
1061 9155/40/i=2/a=007](http://stacks.iop.org/0031-9155/40/i=2/a=007).
- 1062 [94] J. M. Kilner, J. Mattout, R. Henson, and K. J. Friston, “Hemodynamic correlates of
1063 EEG: A heuristic,” *Neuroimage*, 2005, doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2005.06.008.
- 1064 [95] M. J. Rosa, J. Kilner, F. Blankenburg, O. Josephs, and W. Penny, “Estimating the
1065 transfer function from neuronal activity to BOLD using simultaneous EEG-fMRI,”
1066 *Neuroimage*, 2010, doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.09.011.
- 1067 [96] Y. Benjamini and Y. Hochberg, “Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and
1068 powerful approach to multiple testing,” *J. R. Stat. Soc. B*, vol. 57, pp. 289–300, 1995,
1069 doi: 10.2307/2346101.
- 1070 [97] K. J. Friston, A. P. Holmes, K. J. Worsley, J.-P. Poline, C. D. Frith, and R. S. J.
1071 Frackowiak, “Statistical parametric maps in functional imaging: A general linear
1072 approach,” *Hum. Brain Mapp.*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 189–210, 1994, doi:
1073 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.460020402>.
- 1074 [98] M. L. Schroeter *et al.*, “Towards a standard analysis for functional near-infrared
1075 imaging,” *Neuroimage*, vol. 21, no. 1, pp. 283–290, Jan. 2004, doi:
1076 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2003.09.054.
- 1077 [99] S. Shimada and K. Hiraki, “Infant’s brain responses to live and televised action,”
1078 *Neuroimage*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 930–939, Aug. 2006, doi:
1079 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2006.03.044.
- 1080 [100] Y. Minagawa-Kawai, H. van der Lely, F. Ramus, Y. Sato, R. Mazuka, and E. Dupoux,
1081 “Optical Brain Imaging Reveals General Auditory and Language-Specific Processing
1082 in Early Infant Development,” *Cereb. Cortex*, vol. 21, no. 2, pp. 254–261, Feb. 2011,
1083 doi: 10.1093/cercor/bhq082.
- 1084 [101] P. Pinti, M. F. Siddiqui, A. D. Levy, E. J. H. Jones, and I. Tachtsidis, “An analysis
1085 framework for the integration of broadband NIRS and EEG to assess neurovascular
1086 and neurometabolic coupling,” *Sci. Rep.*, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 3977, 2021, doi:
1087 10.1038/s41598-021-83420-9.
- 1088 [102] D. Arifler, T. Zhu, S. Madaan, and I. Tachtsidis, “Optimal wavelength combinations
1089 for near-infrared spectroscopic monitoring of changes in brain tissue hemoglobin and
1090 cytochrome c oxidase concentrations,” *Biomed. Opt. Express*, 2015, doi:
1091 10.1364/boe.6.000933.
- 1092 [103] F. Shi *et al.*, “Infant brain atlases from neonates to 1- and 2-year-olds,” *PLoS One*,
1093 2011, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0018746.
- 1094 [104] M. Jenkinson, M. Pechaud, and S. Smith, “BET2: MR-based estimation of brain, skull
1095 and scalp surfaces,” 2005.
- 1096 [105] S. Brigadoi *et al.*, “Image reconstruction of oxidized cerebral cytochrome C oxidase
1097 changes from broadband near-infrared spectroscopy data,” *Neurophotonics*, 2017, doi:

1098 10.1117/1.NPh.4.2.021105.
1099 [106] A. Corlu *et al.*, “Diffuse optical tomography with spectral constraints and wavelength
1100 optimization,” *Appl. Opt.*, 2005, doi: 10.1364/AO.44.002082.
1101 [107] M. Schweiger and S. Arridge, “The Toast++ software suite for forward and inverse
1102 modeling in optical tomography,” *J. Biomed. Opt.*, 2014, doi:
1103 10.1117/1.jbo.19.4.040801.
1104 [108] F. Bevilacqua, D. Piguet, P. Marquet, J. D. Gross, B. J. Tromberg, and C. Depeursinge,
1105 “In vivo local determination of tissue optical properties: applications to human brain,”
1106 *Appl. Opt.*, 1999, doi: 10.1364/ao.38.004939.
1107 [109] G. Strangman, J. P. Culver, J. H. Thompson, and D. A. Boas, “A quantitative
1108 comparison of simultaneous BOLD fMRI and NIRS recordings during functional brain
1109 activation,” *Neuroimage*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 719–731, 2002, doi: 10.1016/S1053-
1110 8119(02)91227-9.
1111 [110] A. Custo, W. M. Wells, A. H. Barnett, E. M. C. Hillman, and D. A. Boas, “Effective
1112 scattering coefficient of the cerebral spinal fluid in adult head models for diffuse
1113 optical imaging,” *Appl. Opt.*, 2006, doi: 10.1364/AO.45.004747.
1114 [111] J. Zhao, H. S. Ding, X. L. Hou, C. Le Zhou, and B. Chance, “In vivo determination of
1115 the optical properties of infant brain using frequency-domain near-infrared
1116 spectroscopy,” *J. Biomed. Opt.*, 2005, doi: 10.1117/1.1891345.
1117 [112] H. Bortfeld, E. Wruck, and D. A. Boas, “Assessing infants’ cortical response to speech
1118 using near-infrared spectroscopy,” *Neuroimage*, vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 407–415, Jan. 2007,
1119 doi: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2006.08.010.
1120
1121
1122
1123