

1 Functionally distinct high and low theta oscillations in the human  
2 hippocampus

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20 December 14, 2018

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21

## Abstract

22

Based on rodent models, researchers have theorized that the hippocampus supports episodic memory and navigation via the theta oscillation, a ~4–10-Hz rhythm that coordinates brain-wide neural activity. However, recordings from humans indicated that hippocampal theta oscillations are lower in frequency and less prevalent than in rodents, suggesting interspecies differences in theta's function. To characterize human hippocampal theta, we examined the properties of theta oscillations throughout the anterior–posterior length of the hippocampus as neurosurgical patients performed a virtual navigation task. During virtual movement, we observed hippocampal oscillations at multiple frequencies from 2 to 10 Hz. The posterior hippocampus prominently displayed oscillations at ~8-Hz and the precise frequency of these oscillations correlated with the speed of movement, implicating these signals in spatial navigation. We also observed slower ~3-Hz oscillations, but these signals were more prevalent in the anterior hippocampus and their frequency did not vary with movement speed. In conjunction with other recent findings, our results suggest an updated view of human hippocampal electrophysiology: Rather than one hippocampal theta oscillation with a single general role, high and low theta oscillations, respectively, may reflect spatial and non-spatial cognitive processes.

## 37 **Introduction**

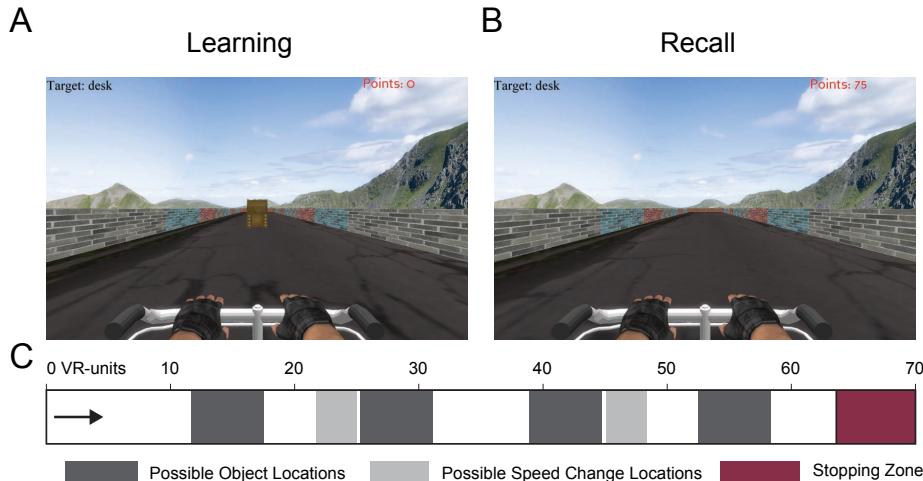
38 The theta oscillation is a large-scale network rhythm that appears at ~4–10 Hz in rodents and is  
39 hypothesized to play a universal role in mammalian spatial navigation and memory (Kahana et al., 2001;  
40 Buzsáki, 2005). However, in humans, there is mixed evidence regarding the relevance and properties of  
41 hippocampal theta. Some studies in humans show hippocampal oscillations at 1–5 Hz that have similar  
42 functional properties as the theta oscillations seen in rodents (e.g., Arnolds et al., 1980; Jacobs et al.,  
43 2007; Vass et al., 2016; Watrous et al., 2011; Watrous, Lee, et al., 2013; J. F. Miller et al., 2018).  
44 There is also evidence that human movement-related hippocampal theta oscillations vary substantially  
45 in frequency according to whether a subject in a physical or virtual environment (Aghajan et al., 2016;  
46 Bohbot et al., 2017; Yassa, 2018). Together, these studies have been interpreted to suggest that the  
47 human hippocampus does show a signal analogous to theta oscillations observed in rodents but that  
48 this oscillation is more variable and slower in frequency (Jacobs, 2014). These apparent discrepancies  
49 in the frequency of theta between species and behaviors shed doubt on the notion that theta represents  
50 a general neurocomputational phenomenon that coordinates brain-wide neural activity consistently  
51 across species and tasks.

52 Our study aimed to resolve these discrepancies by characterizing the properties of human hippocam-  
53 pal oscillations in spatial cognition. We analyzed intracranial electroencephalographic (iEEG) recordings  
54 from the hippocampi of fourteen neurosurgical patients performing a virtual-reality (VR) navigation  
55 task. Our study had two differentiating factors compared to previous work. First, our behavioral task  
56 had a distinctive design that required subjects to closely attend to their current location throughout  
57 movement, which, we hypothesized, would more clearly show the properties of human hippocampal  
58 oscillations specifically related to navigation. Second, we recorded signals at various positions along  
59 the anterior–posterior axis of the hippocampus, which allowed us to probe the anatomical organization  
60 of these oscillations.

61 Given the anatomical differences in the hippocampus between rodents and humans (Strange et  
62 al., 2014), we hypothesized in particular that understanding the spatial organization of human theta  
63 could help explain the apparent interspecies differences that were reported previously. Therefore,  
64 we analyzed the spectral and functional features of human hippocampal oscillations and tested their  
65 consistency along the length of the hippocampus. In contrast to earlier work that generally emphasized  
66 a single theta oscillation for a given behavior, we instead found that the hippocampus showed multiple  
67 oscillations at distinct frequencies (often at ~3 Hz and ~8 Hz), even in a single subject. Further, ~8-Hz  
68 oscillations in the posterior (but not anterior) hippocampus often correlated with spatial processing. By  
69 demonstrating multiple patterns of hippocampal oscillations with different anatomical and functional  
70 properties, our findings suggest that human hippocampal theta-band oscillations at different frequencies  
71 are generated by separate anatomical networks to support distinct functions.

## 72 **Results**

73 Fourteen neurosurgical patients performed our virtual-reality (VR) spatial memory task as we recorded  
74 neural activity from iEEG electrodes implanted in their hippocampi. The task required that subjects  
75 press a button to indicate when they were located at the position of a specified hidden object as they  
76 were moved at a randomly varying speed in one direction along a linear track (Fig. 1). We performed  
77 spectral analyses of the iEEG signals during movement phases of the task for all hippocampal recording  
78 sites and used a peak-picking procedure (Manning et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2018) to identify prominent  
79 narrowband oscillations (see *Methods*). Overall, we observed hippocampal narrowband oscillations at  
80 frequencies in the range of 2 to 10 Hz (Fig. 2A), consistent with earlier findings (Ekstrom et al., 2005;



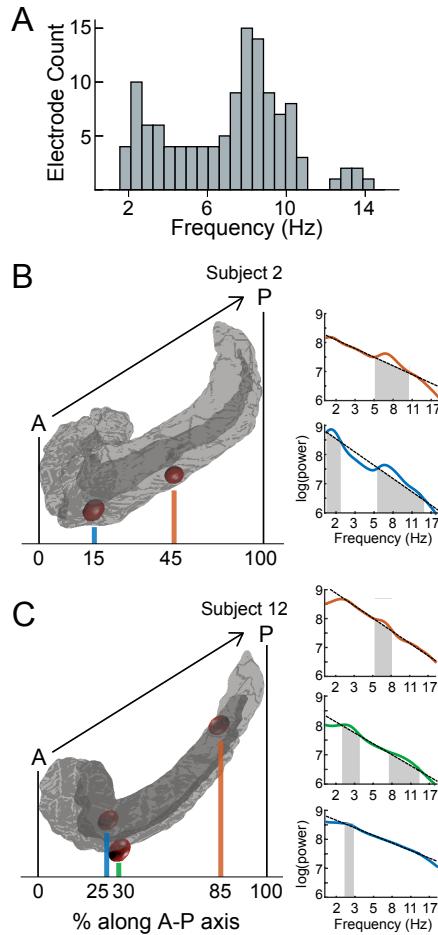
**Figure 1: Spatial memory task.** **A.** Task screen image during a learning trial, where the object is visible as the subject travels down the track. **B.** Task image during a recall trial, in which the object is invisible and the subject must recall the object location. **C.** Task schematic, showing possible object and speed change locations.

81 Jacobs et al., 2007; Watrous et al., 2011; Bush et al., 2017), with oscillations being most prevalent at  
 82  $\sim 3$  Hz and  $\sim 8$  Hz. For convenience, we refer to these hippocampal oscillations as low theta (2–4 Hz)  
 83 and high theta (4–10 Hz) although we acknowledge that some other studies have used the terms  
 84 “delta” and “alpha” to refer to parts of these frequency ranges.

85 **Anatomical organization of hippocampal high- and low-theta oscillations.** We next examined  
 86 the characteristics of the oscillations we identified with regard to the location of each recording site  
 87 along the hippocampus’ anterior–posterior axis. Many previous electrophysiological studies in rodents  
 88 generally focused on hippocampal oscillations in the dorsal area (analogous to the posterior hippocampus  
 89 of humans; Strange et al., 2014) or those that are consistent across the length of the hippocampus  
 90 (Lubenov & Siapas, 2009). However, a different line of work in humans (Maguire et al., 1997; Greicius  
 91 et al., 2002; Kumaran et al., 2009; Poppenk et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2018) and animals (Moser &  
 92 Moser, 1998; Royer et al., 2010; Fanselow & Dong, 2010; Hinman et al., 2011) showed that there are  
 93 functional variations along the length of the hippocampus. This suggested to us that oscillations at  
 94 different anterior–posterior positions could have distinct spectral and functional properties.

95 We measured the anterior–posterior location of each hippocampal electrode in a subject-specific  
 96 manner, defined as the relative distance between the anterior and posterior extent of the hippocampus  
 97 (see *Methods*). In this scheme, positions of 0% and 100% would correspond to electrodes at the  
 98 anterior and posterior tips of the hippocampus, respectively. As seen in Figure 2B&C, within individual  
 99 subjects, we observed narrowband oscillations at various frequencies. Individual electrodes displayed  
 100 oscillations at either one or two distinct frequency ranges during the task—we refer to these electrodes  
 101 as “single oscillators” and “dual oscillators.” Qualitatively, in many individuals we observed that  
 102 the frequency of the oscillations at a given electrode correlated with its anterior–posterior location.  
 103 Electrodes at posterior sites (labeled orange in Fig. 2) generally showed oscillations at  $\sim 8$  Hz. More  
 104 anterior sites (labeled green and blue) had oscillations at lower frequencies and more often showed two  
 105 distinct oscillatory peaks.

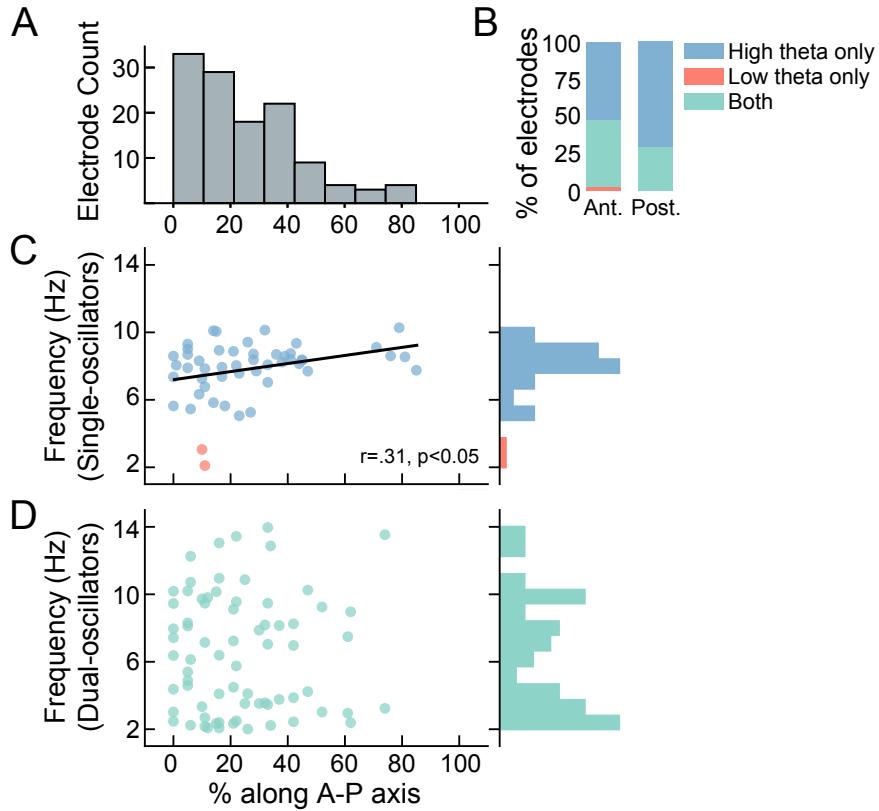
106 We verified these observations quantitatively by analyzing oscillation mean frequencies across our



**Figure 2: Power spectra of electrodes at different positions along the anterior-posterior axis of the hippocampus.** **A.** The distribution of detected oscillations across all hippocampal electrodes in our dataset. **B.** Rendering of Subject 2's left hippocampus (left) and the power spectra (right) for electrodes implanted in this area. Shading in the power spectrum indicates detected narrowband oscillations. **C.** Rendering of Subject 12's left hippocampus and power spectra for the implanted electrodes.

107 complete dataset, combining across subjects. Although individual subjects generally were implanted  
 108 with only a small number of hippocampal contacts, in aggregate our dataset sampled 80% of the  
 109 anterior-posterior length of the hippocampus (Fig. 3A). Every hippocampal electrode showed at least  
 110 one narrowband oscillation within 2–10 Hz (Fig. 3B). 60% (54 of 90) of electrodes showed a single  
 111 oscillatory peak, which was usually (94%) in the high-theta (4–10 Hz) band (Fig. 3C). The remaining  
 112 40% (36 of 90) of electrodes had two oscillatory peaks (Fig. 3D). In the posterior hippocampus, 75%  
 113 of electrodes had only a single oscillatory peak; whereas in the anterior hippocampus approximately  
 114 equal numbers of electrodes showed single and dual peaks (Fig. 3B).

115 We next examined how the properties of these oscillations varied with electrode location. Among  
 116 the single oscillators, there was a correlation between oscillation frequency and anterior-posterior  
 117 position, such that the electrodes that showed oscillations at higher frequencies were more prevalent in  
 118 posterior regions ( $r = 0.31$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ; Fig. 3C). Dual oscillators did not show a significant correlation  
 119 between frequency and location for either their lower or higher oscillatory bands ( $|r| < 0.2$ ,  $p's > 0.25$ ;  
 120 Fig. 3D).

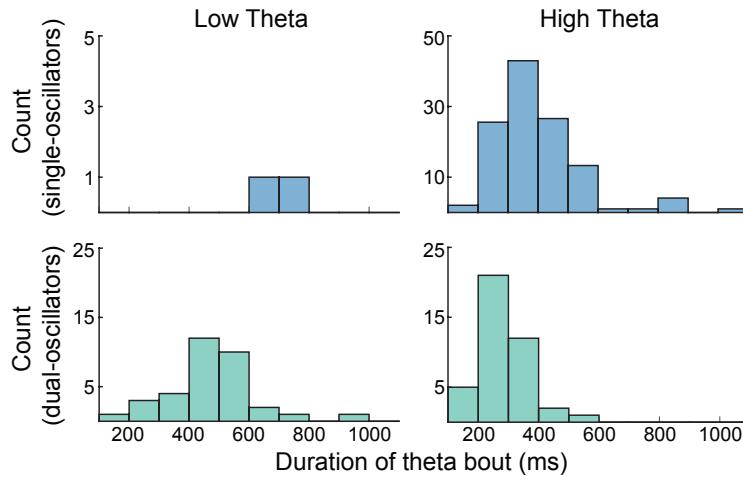


**Figure 3: Oscillation properties across frequency and space.** **A.** Distribution of electrode locations along the hippocampus anterior–posterior axis. **B.** Proportions of dual oscillators and single oscillators for anterior and posterior hippocampus. **C.** Frequencies and hippocampal localizations of single oscillators across subjects. Fitted line indicates the correlation between frequency and anterior–posterior position. **D.** Frequency and localization of dual oscillators.

121 **Additional analyses of theta properties.** We considered the possibility that there was a relationship  
 122 between the particular frequencies of the oscillations that appeared at individual dual oscillator electrodes.  
 123 This could be the case, for example, if one electrode with two apparent oscillations was actually  
 124 demonstrating an oscillation and its faster harmonic. However, we did not find a significant correlation  
 125 between the frequencies of the high and low oscillations at individual dual oscillator electrodes ( $p = 0.85$ ,  
 126 permutation procedure), indicating that our dual oscillator results are not driven by harmonics.

127 We also compared the properties of these oscillations between hemispheres, given that our dataset  
 128 included both left and right coverage (52 and 38 electrodes, respectively). Overall trends were  
 129 consistent across both hemispheres, with both left and right hemispheres displaying low-and high-theta  
 130 oscillations. Among the high-theta single oscillators, mean frequencies were significantly higher on the  
 131 right hemisphere than the left ( $t_{50} = 2.65$ ,  $p = 0.01$ , unpaired  $t$ -test). The electrodes that were dual  
 132 oscillators did not show significant differences in frequency between the two hemispheres ( $t_{34} = 0.91$ ,  
 133  $p = 0.65$ , unpaired  $t$ -test).

134 Earlier studies showed that theta oscillations in both humans and monkeys appeared in transient  
 135 bouts (Ekstrom et al., 2005; Watrous, Lee, et al., 2013; Jutras et al., 2013), which were shorter in  
 136 duration compared to rodent theta oscillations that often persisted for many seconds (Buzsáki, 2005).  
 137 To compare our results with signals in rodents, we measured the durations of oscillatory bouts from  
 138 individual electrodes in the low- and high-theta bands and for single- and dual-oscillator electrodes (Fig.



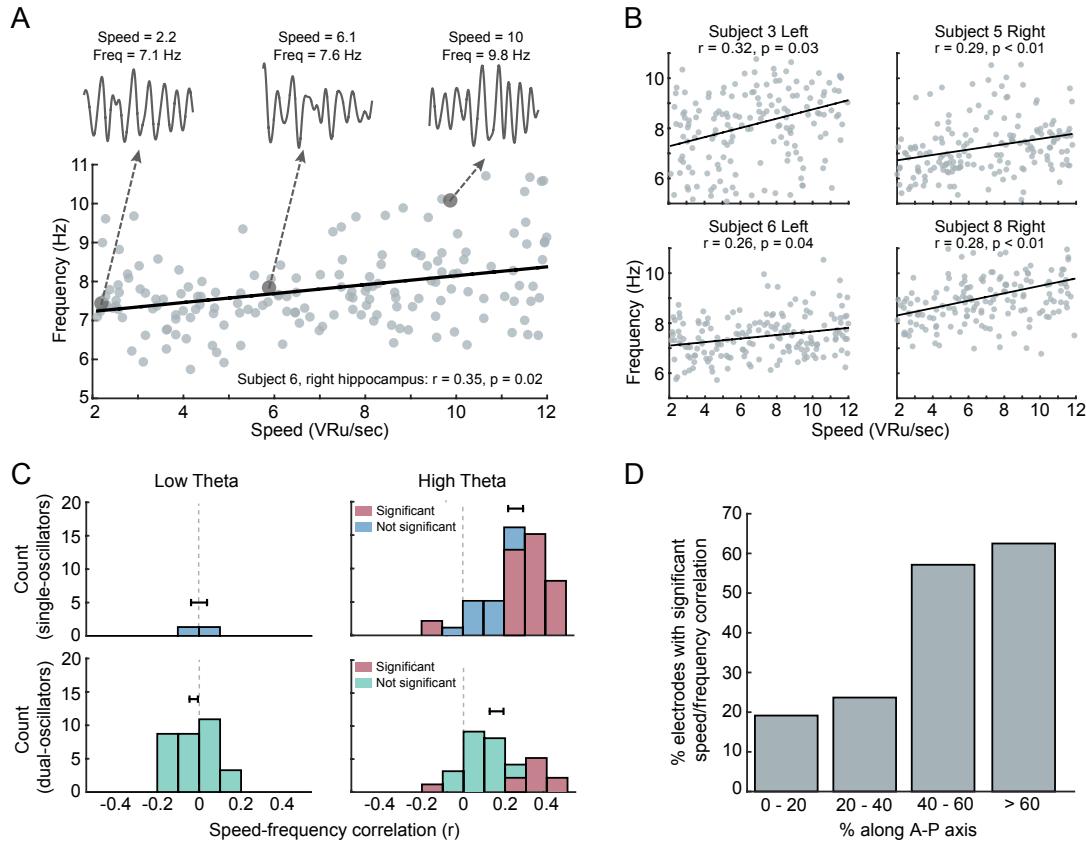
**Figure 4: Analysis of the duration of individual theta oscillation bouts.** Histograms showing the distributions of mean durations of the bouts of theta oscillations from individual electrodes. Individual plots show these distributions separately for low- and high-theta rhythms from single and dual oscillator electrodes.

139 4). Individual electrodes showed a range of mean theta-bout durations. The mean bout duration was  
 140 longer for low- than for high-theta oscillations ( $t_{191} = 4.96$ ,  $p < 10^{-5}$ , unpaired  $t$ -test). Within the  
 141 high- theta band, we observed longer theta bouts at single-oscillator than dual-oscillator electrodes (399  
 142 vs 285 ms, respectively;  $t_{154} = 4.79$ ,  $p < 10^{-5}$ , unpaired  $t$ -test). The longer durations of high-theta  
 143 bouts at single oscillators suggests that these signals may reflect a different kind of oscillatory pattern  
 144 that is relatively more similar to rodent oscillations compared to the dual oscillator network.

145 **The frequency of high-theta oscillations correlates with movement speed.** In rodents, the instant-  
 146 taneous frequency of the hippocampal theta oscillation correlates with the speed of running (McFarland  
 147 et al., 1975; Geisler et al., 2007; Bender et al., 2015) and in both humans and rodents theta power  
 148 correlates with speed (McFarland et al., 1975; Watrous et al., 2011). These results were taken to  
 149 indicate that theta oscillations are important for path integration (Burgess et al., 2007; Jeewajee et  
 150 al., 2008; Korotkova et al., 2017). We tested for correlations between movement speed and theta  
 151 frequency to identify an additional potential functional role for hippocampal oscillations in spatial  
 152 processing. To do this, at each electrode we measured the precise frequency of the oscillations in each  
 153 movement epoch, when the subject was moved at a particular fixed speed along the virtual track (see  
 154 *Methods*). Then, for each electrode, we computed the correlation across epochs between the speed of  
 155 movement and the oscillation frequency.

156 Many electrodes with high-theta oscillations showed positive correlations between frequency and  
 157 movement speed. Figure 5A–B illustrates this pattern of results for five example electrodes. We found  
 158 that the mean correlation between movement speed and oscillatory frequency was reliably positive for  
 159 high-theta oscillations (Fig. 5C, right), both for single and dual oscillators (both  $p$ 's  $< 10^{-5}$ ). The  
 160 mean speed–frequency correlation was significantly larger for single- than dual-oscillators ( $t_{86} = 6.3$ ,  
 161  $p < 10^{-7}$ ). Also, many electrodes showed significant speed–frequency correlations individually. Of 52  
 162 high-theta single oscillators, 35 (67%) showed a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) speed–frequency correlation,  
 163 which was more than expected by chance ( $p < 0.001$ , binomial test). Similarly, of 36 dual oscillators,  
 164 10 (28%) showed a significant high-theta speed–frequency correlation ( $p < 0.05$ , binomial test).

165 The speed–frequency correlation was specific to the high-theta band. Of 31 electrodes with  
 166 narrowband low-theta oscillatory peaks, including both single and dual oscillators, none individually



**Figure 5: Analyses of the relation between theta frequency and movement speed. A.** An example electrode with a positive high theta frequency–speed correlation. 2-s trace of filtered hippocampal oscillations during slow, medium, and fast speeds. **B.** Example electrodes from both left and right hippocampus that display significantly positive high theta speed–frequency correlations. **C.** Histogram of correlation coefficients for single and dual oscillators, separately aggregated for low- and high-theta bands. Significant correlations indicated in red. Error bars are SEM. **D.** Percentage of electrodes with high theta oscillations in each hippocampal region with a significant positive correlation between movement speed and frequency.

167 showed a significant speed–frequency correlation, consistent with earlier work on low theta in the  
 168 human hippocampus (Arnold et al., 1980). Further, the distribution of low-theta speed–frequency  
 169 correlation coefficients was not significantly different positive ( $p > 0.05$ ; Fig. 5C, left).

170 We next examined how the strength of high-theta speed–frequency correlations varied along  
 171 the length of the hippocampus. We performed a two-way ANOVA comparing the speed–frequency  
 172 correlation coefficients of electrodes with high-theta peaks according to whether they were in the  
 173 anterior or posterior hippocampus and whether they were single or dual oscillators. This analysis  
 174 showed that the mean correlation between speed and oscillation frequency was significantly greater  
 175 in the posterior hippocampus ( $F_{1,106} = 11.75, p = 0.0009$ ; Fig. 5D) with no effect of single vs. dual  
 176 oscillators. This result supports the idea that high-theta oscillations in the posterior hippocampus are  
 177 preferentially involved in spatial processing (Kumaran et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2018).

## 178 Discussion

179 Our most novel finding is showing the existence of high (~8 Hz) theta oscillations in the human  
180 posterior hippocampus that relate to movement during virtual spatial navigation. Similar to theta  
181 oscillations measured in rodents (Royer et al., 2010; Korotkova et al., 2017), the frequency of these  
182 human high-theta oscillations correlated with both movement speed and with distance of the recording  
183 electrode from the anterior extent of the hippocampus. Further, we found that human high-theta  
184 oscillations have distinct functional and anatomical properties compared to the slower theta oscillations  
185 that were measured in the same task. In conjunction with earlier work showing human low theta  
186 related to memory (Lega et al., 2012; J. F. Miller et al., 2018), this suggests that high and low  
187 theta oscillations represent distinct functional network states. Our findings therefore support the view  
188 that the human medial temporal lobe and hippocampus have distinct oscillatory states to support  
189 different behaviors (Watrous, Tandon, et al., 2013), rather than having a single stationary oscillation  
190 to support all behaviors. Because the prevalence of high and low theta oscillations differed along the  
191 anterior–posterior length of the hippocampus, it suggests that human high-theta oscillations index  
192 functional processes involved in spatial processing that are primarily supported by posterior areas.  
193 Further, by humans showing theta frequency variations along the hippocampus, it demonstrates  
194 a potential difference compared to rodents, which usually are described as showing a constant theta  
195 frequency along the hippocampus (Lubenov & Siapas, 2009; Long, Bunce, & Chrobak, 2015; but see  
196 Schmidt et al., 2013).

197 Previous work on human hippocampal oscillations emphasized the potential functional role of  
198 rhythms at ~1–5-Hz in memory and navigation because lower frequencies often appeared more  
199 prevalent overall in many datasets (for review, see Jacobs, 2014). Our study has several distinctive  
200 methodological features that could explain why we observed a greater prevalence of hippocampal  
201 oscillations at faster oscillations compared to these earlier studies. Although not all studies precisely  
202 report the locations of their recording electrodes, it seems that most previous datasets more extensively  
203 sampled electrodes in relatively anterior areas of the hippocampus (e.g. Watrous et al., 2011; Watrous,  
204 Lee, et al., 2013). By contrast, our study measured each electrode's anterior–posterior location and  
205 included greater electrode coverage in middle and posterior sections of the hippocampus, which were  
206 the regions that more specifically showed high theta. This increased posterior sampling is the result of  
207 evolution in clinical procedures. In recent years, stereotactic electroencephalographic (sEEG) methods  
208 have become more common, which has led to increased posterior hippocampal coverage in standard  
209 clinical epilepsy mapping (e.g., Lin et al., 2018).

210 An additional differentiating factor of our study was the design of our spatial VR task. Rather  
211 than allowing the subject to control their own movement with a fixed top speed as in earlier studies,  
212 here subjects' speeds changed randomly. Given these random speed changes, to perform the task well  
213 subjects could not predict their location based on timing and instead had to carefully attend to their  
214 view of the spatial environment throughout each trial. We hypothesized that this increased spatial  
215 attention would increase the prevalence in our data of neural patterns related to spatial processing.  
216 Accordingly, the relatively high prevalence of high-theta oscillations is consistent with the idea that this  
217 signal is particularly important for spatial processing, similar to theta observed in rodents (Burgess,  
218 2008; Korotkova et al., 2017). Thus, our data indicate that human high theta is functionally analogous  
219 to the “Type 1” theta rhythm commonly measured in navigating rodents (Bland, 1986).

220 A conclusion from much earlier work was that the human hippocampus primarily showed a single  
221 theta oscillation, but that this signal had a lower frequency than in rodents (Jacobs, 2014). Instead,  
222 our findings indicate that the human hippocampus exhibits multiple theta oscillations and that the  
223 properties of these signals vary according to task demands (Montgomery et al., 2009; Watrous et

224 al., 2011). This now raises the question of the functional role of the human low theta rhythm. One  
225 possible explanation is that the low theta oscillation, which we often found in the anterior hippocampus,  
226 is related to the “Type 2” theta oscillations that had been characterized previously in rodents. In  
227 rodents, Type 2 theta oscillations appear most strongly when animals are stationary and are often linked  
228 to anxiety (Bland, 1986). In contrast, current data from humans link oscillations in this low-theta band  
229 to memory processing (Lega et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2018; J. F. Miller et al., 2018). Therefore, one  
230 possibility is that the low-theta oscillations we observed are an analog of the Type 2 theta oscillations  
231 found in rodents, with these signals in humans having a broader functional role beyond anxiety, perhaps  
232 including episodic memory and other types of cognitive processes that involve the anterior hippocampus  
233 (Bannerman et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2008). This interpretation is bolstered by the finding that Type  
234 2 theta oscillations in rodents are generated by a distinct network of cells in the ventral hippocampus  
235 (Mikulovic et al., 2018), which is homologous to the human anterior hippocampus (Strange et al.,  
236 2014).

237 One contribution of our work is showing definitively that high-theta oscillations appear in the human  
238 hippocampus during movement in virtual reality. Two recent studies measured human hippocampal  
239 oscillations from people walking in the physical world and reported high theta oscillations (Bohbot et  
240 al., 2017; Aghajan et al., 2016; but see Meisenhelter et al., 2018). These results were interpreted  
241 to suggest that virtual navigation relies on a fundamentally different, higher-frequency oscillatory  
242 network state compared to real-world navigation (Yassa, 2018). By showing high-theta hippocampal  
243 oscillations during VR, our results suggest a different view. We propose that theta oscillations at  
244 various frequencies can be prevalent in both virtual and real spatial environments, with the particular  
245 dominant oscillatory frequency that appears at a given moment reflecting a trade-off between spatial  
246 and non-spatial attention as well as other cognitive and task demands. The fixed-speed motion of  
247 previous VR paradigms (e.g., Ekstrom et al., 2003; Jacobs et al., 2007, 2013; J. F. Miller et al.,  
248 2018) may have required less spatial attention compared to real-world navigation and compared to our  
249 paradigm with its randomized movement speed. It is possible that some earlier VR studies showed  
250 relatively less high theta because they required less spatial attention. Finally, it should be noted that at  
251 least one of the studies that previously showed high-theta oscillations in real-world navigation showed  
252 examples of these patterns at relatively posterior locations (Bohbot et al., 2017). With our findings, it  
253 suggests that the human anterior and posterior hippocampus, respectively, are implicated in low and  
254 high theta oscillations with different behavioral properties (Fanselow & Dong, 2010; Strange et al.,  
255 2014).

256 Our finding of relatively higher theta frequencies towards the posterior part of the human hip-  
257 pocampus is also consistent with our understanding of the spatial propagation of these oscillations.  
258 Hippocampal theta oscillations in both humans and rodents are often traveling waves (Lubenov & Siapas,  
259 2009; Zhang & Jacobs, 2015) that propagate in a posterior-to-anterior (in humans) or dorsal-to-ventral  
260 (rodent) direction. One potential mechanism for neural traveling waves is a network of weakly coupled  
261 oscillators (Ermentrout & Kleinfeld, 2001). If a hippocampal network of weakly coupled oscillators  
262 had higher mean oscillation frequencies at posterior locations, as we found here, it would produce  
263 posterior-to-anterior traveling waves (Zhang et al., 2018). Thus, our finding of higher frequencies in  
264 posterior sites provides general support for the coupled oscillator model of hippocampal traveling waves  
265 (Zhang & Jacobs, 2015; Lubenov & Siapas, 2009).

266 One reason why theta oscillations are thought to be important functionally is by coordinating  
267 brain-wide networks to synchronize cortical–hippocampal interactions in learning and memory (Sirota et  
268 al., 2008). Therefore, given that we showed that the human hippocampus exhibits two separate theta  
269 oscillations in a single task, an important area of future work will be to understand the potential relation  
270 of each of these signals to brain-wide neocortical dynamics (von Stein et al., 1999). In particular, it is

271 notable that the properties of the anterior and posterior hippocampal oscillations resemble the theta  
272 and alpha rhythms that are prominent in the overlying frontal and occipital lobes (Voytek et al., 2010;  
273 Zhang et al., 2018), especially including the “midfrontal” theta often found in scalp recordings (Mitchell  
274 et al., 2008). Given the predominant involvement of the frontal and occipital lobes in high-level and  
275 sensory processing, respectively, this suggests that low and high theta oscillations may reflect different  
276 types of hippocampal–neocortical interactions that underlie distinct functional processes (R. Miller,  
277 1991; Watrous, Tandon, et al., 2013). This multiplicity of human theta patterns could allow the  
278 human hippocampus to coordinate a diverse set of brain-wide neural assemblies to support various  
279 types of behaviors including both spatial navigation as well as memory and other cognitive processes  
280 (Buzsaki & Moser, 2013; Eichenbaum & Cohen, 2014).

## 281 Methods

282 **Participants.** Fourteen participants undergoing treatment for medication-resistant epilepsy partici-  
283 pated in our study. Neurosurgeons implanted these patients with clinical depth electrodes for functional  
284 mapping and the localization of seizure foci. Implantation sites were determined solely by clinical teams,  
285 though electrodes were often placed in medial temporal lobe regions that are of interest experimentally.  
286 Research protocols were approved by the institutional review boards at each participating hospital, and  
287 informed consent was obtained from all patients.

288 **Task.** The participants in our study performed a new spatial task, which we specifically designed to  
289 encourage patients to pay attention to their location in the virtual environment. We hypothesized that  
290 this task design had potential for eliciting more reliable hippocampal activity related to spatial processing  
291 than previous studies of human navigation (Qasim et al., 2018). Because the subjects in our study  
292 were undergoing continuous monitoring for epileptiform activity, we were limited to studying virtual  
293 navigation as subjects remained in their hospital bed throughout testing. Therefore, to encourage  
294 subjects to pay attention to their virtual spatial location, we asked patients to press a button on their  
295 game controller when they were at the location of a hidden object, while simultaneously manipulating  
296 speed of movement.

297 In the 3D virtual spatial memory game (Qasim et al., 2018), patients were moved along the length  
298 of a virtual reality (VR) track, which we defined as having a length of 70 virtual reality units. The  
299 ground was textured to mimic asphalt, and the track was surrounded by stone walls (See Fig. 1). On  
300 each trial, patients were placed at the beginning of the track and they began each trial by pressing a  
301 button on a game controller. Next, a four second long countdown was displayed. After the countdown,  
302 patients were moved forward along the track. Within each third of the track, patients were moved at  
303 a constant speed, chosen randomly from a uniform distribution between 2 and 12 VR-units/second.  
304 Locations where speed changes began are indicated by the light gray shading in the schematic shown  
305 in Figure 1C. When speed changes occurred, acceleration occurred gradually over the course of one  
306 second to avoid jarring transitions.

307 While moving, the patients’ goal was to learn the location of a hidden object. The first two times  
308 that the patient traveled down the track, the object’s location was visible (Fig. 1A). On subsequent  
309 trials, the object was invisible, and patients were instructed to press the button on the controller when  
310 they believed they were at the correct location (Fig. 1B). The closer the patient pressed the button  
311 to the correct location, the more points they received (as indicated in the top right of the display),  
312 thus encouraging careful attention to current location in the environment. Patients were also required  
313 to press the button when they approached the end of the track where the ground was colored red.  
314 Possible object locations are indicated by the dark gray shading in Figure 1C.

315 Each trial consisted of the subject traveling a single time down the track, either encoding or  
316 retrieving object location. Within each trial, the task would automatically change the subject's speed  
317 twice at certain possible speed change locations (Fig. 1C), such that the subject's path down the track  
318 consisted of three constant speed regions.

319 **Electrophysiological Recordings** We recorded patients' intracranial electroencephalographic (iEEG)  
320 data from implanted depth electrodes via the clinical or research recording systems present at the  
321 participating hospitals (Nihon Kohden; XLTEK; Neuralynx; Blackrock). Data were recorded at a  
322 sampling rate of either 1000 or 2000 Hz. iEEG signals were initially referenced to common intracranial  
323 or scalp contact, and were subsequently re-referenced using an anatomically weighted referencing  
324 scheme prior to analysis. Data were notch filtered at 60 Hz using a zero-phase-distortion Butterworth  
325 filter to remove line noise prior to subsequent analyses. iEEG recordings were aligned to the behavioral  
326 task laptop via synchronization pulses sent to the recording system.

327 **Electrode Localization** We localized depth electrodes for each subjects using an established semi-  
328 automated image processing pipeline (Jacobs et al., 2016). To delineate the hippocampus, we applied  
329 the Automatic Segmentation of Hippocampal Subfields multi atlas segmentation method to pre-  
330 implantation high-resolution hippocampal coronal T2-weighted and whole brain 3D T1-weighted scans.  
331 Electrode contact coordinates derived form post-implantation CT scans were then co-registered to  
332 the segmented MRI scans using Advanced Normalization Tools (Avants et al., 2008) and anatomic  
333 locations were automatically generated. A neuroradiologist reviewed and confirmed contact locations  
334 based on the co-registered source images and the processed data. Contacts were given normalized  
335 locations along the hippocampal axis by determining the coronal slice containing the center of the  
336 contact as well as the first and last slice containing the hippocampus. For specific subjects, a  
337 neuroradiologist generated transparent 3D surface renderings of the subjects hippocampal segmentation  
338 and corresponding co-registered electrode contacts.

339 To determine each contact's anterior–posterior (A–P) localization within the hippocampus, we  
340 obtained virtual slices along the hippocampal long axis, and determined the slice on which the contact  
341 was located. The A–P localization was determined as the slice number along the axis divided by the  
342 total slice number. When we wished to make a designation between anterior and posterior hippocampus  
343 in our analyses, we used 40% along the anterior–posterior axis as the midpoint, as our electrodes were  
344 located between 0% and 80% along the anterior–posterior axis. If two neighboring electrodes in one  
345 subject were located on the same slice and exhibited the same oscillation frequencies during movement,  
346 to avoid double counting, one of the electrodes was randomly dropped for data analysis.

347 **Spectral Analysis** In order to identify oscillatory frequencies with a high frequency resolution, we  
348 followed the MODAL algorithm for adaptive characterization of neural oscillations (Watrous et al.,  
349 2018). In short, this algorithm operates by first excluding epochs of the data that could potentially  
350 result from epileptic activity (Gelinas et al., 2016). Then, the algorithm defines relevant frequency  
351 bands as those frequencies exceeding one standard deviation above the background  $1/f$  spectrum.  
352 MODAL then computes the instantaneous frequency and phase for each frequency band, but only  
353 when the local power spectrum (computed in 10 second, non-overlapping windows) indicated a local  
354 increase in power for that band.

355 We called electrodes that only exhibited a single oscillation throughout the task “single oscillators”  
356 while we called those that exhibited two oscillations “dual oscillators.” For an electrode to be designated  
357 as a dual oscillator, the two frequency bands detected by MODAL had to be at least 0.5 Hz apart.  
358 Each trial consisted of three intervals that each had a constant speed of movement.

359 We computed the particular oscillation frequency corresponding to each movement interval and  
360 band by following the following procedure. First, throughout each interval we used MODAL to measure  
361 the instantaneous frequency of the iEEG signal at each timepoint. Then, we computed a histogram of  
362 the distribution of frequencies (0.1-Hz bins), identified the single most-often occurring frequency (i.e.,  
363 the mode), and used this value to summarize the oscillatory activity in that interval.

364 **Competing Financial Interests.** The authors declare no competing financial interests.

365 **Acknowledgements.** This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (R01-MH104606,  
366 S10-OD018211), and the National Science Foundation (Graduate Research Fellowship DGE 16-44869).  
367 We thank Shachar Maidenbaum for providing thoughtful comments on the manuscript.

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