

1 **Theta activity discriminates high-level, species-specific body processes**

2 Jane Chesley ^a, Lars Riecke ^a, Juanzhi Lu ^a, Rufin Vogels ^{b,c}, Beatrice de Gelder ^{a,d,*}

3 ^a *Department of Cognitive Neuroscience, Faculty of Psychology and Neuroscience, Maastricht University, Maastricht 6200 MD,*
4 *the Netherlands*

5 ^b *Laboratory for Neuro, and Psychophysiology, Department of Neurosciences, KU Leuven Medical School, Leuven 3000,*
6 *Belgium*

7 ^c *Leuven Brain Institute, KU Leuven, Leuven 3000, Belgium*

8 ^d *Department of Computer Science, University College London, London WC1E 6BT, UK*

9 * *Correspondence to: Room 3.009, Oxfordlaan 55, 6229 EV Maastricht, the Netherlands. Tel. +31 433881437.*

10 *E-mail address: b.degelder@maastrichtuniversity.nl (B. de Gelder).*

11

12 **Abstract**

13 Among social stimuli that trigger rapid reactions, body images occupy a prominent place. Given
14 that bodies carry information about other agents' intentions, actions and emotional expressions, a
15 foundational question concerns the neural basis of body processing. Previous fMRI studies have
16 investigated this but were not yet able to clarify the time course and its functional significance.
17 The present EEG study investigated the role of slow oscillatory cortical activity in body
18 processing and species-specificity. Human participants viewed naturalistic images of human and
19 monkey bodies, faces, and objects, along with mosaic-scrambled versions to control for low-
20 level visual features. Analysis of event-related theta power (4 – 7 Hz) combined with data-driven
21 methods revealed a strong, body-evoked neural response that is specific to human bodies and
22 likely originates from a widespread cortical region during a time window of 150 – 550 ms after
23 the onset of the body image. Our results corroborate recent research proposing a widespread,
24 species-specific cortical network of human body processing. We submit that this network may
25 play an essential role in linking body processes to movement intentions.

26 **Keywords:** Body processing; EEG; theta activity; oscillations

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Social species vitally rely on information from their conspecifics to navigate the natural and
30 social world. During social interactions, humans rapidly decode cues from the faces and bodies
31 of others, which hold information relevant to identity, emotions, and actions. While the role of
32 faces in regulating social interactions has been well-established (Freiwald et al., 2016; Powell et
33 al., 2018; Schwiedrzik et al., 2015), evidence for a role of whole-body processing is still
34 accumulating. Body-selective areas were first reported in the lateral occipitotemporal cortex
35 (LOT), termed the extrastriate body area (EBA) and fusiform body area (FBA) (Downing et al.,
36 2001; Peelen & Downing, 2005). Further research has reported body-selective responses
37 widespread throughout the brain in the posterior superior temporal sulcus (pSTS) (Kret et al.,
38 2011; Candidi et al., 2015), temporoparietal junction (TPJ), frontal cortex and parietal motor
39 areas (Pichon et al., 2009), as well as subcortical areas (de Gelder & Poyo Solanas, 2021, Poyo
40 Solanas et al., 2020; Swann et al., 2012). Furthermore, recent research combining advanced data-
41 driven methods with 7-Tesla functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) has revealed two
42 large-scale networks widespread throughout the right STS and lateral occipital cortex (LOC) that
43 are specifically selective for human body stimuli, suggesting that body processing may be
44 species-specific (Li et al., 2023).

45 Additional lines of research using electroencephalography (EEG) have investigated the
46 millisecond-precise timing of neural responses to bodies. With this method, event-related
47 potential (ERP) studies have reported that, like faces, bodies are processed configurally, as
48 shown by enhanced and delayed body-sensitive N170 ERPs to inverted versus normally oriented
49 bodies (Stekelenburg & de Gelder, 2004). In addition, like faces, emotional information from
50 body stimuli is rapidly encoded in early stages of visual processing, as differences between

51 fearful and neutral body responses can emerge as early as 112 ms after stimulus onset (van
52 Heijnsbergen et al., 2007). A body-specific ERP modulation has consistently been observed at
53 190 ms post-stimulus (N190) over occipito-temporal regions in response to silhouettes of normal
54 bodies compared to scrambled silhouettes (Thierry et al., 2006) as well as to headless naturalistic
55 bodies compared to plants (Taylor et al., 2010; Moreau et al., 2018), providing further evidence
56 for body-specific processes. Furthermore, intracranial local field potentials (iLFPs) have shown
57 body-selective responses emerging from EBA at 190 ms post-stimulus, with a peak at 260 ms
58 (Pourtois et al., 2007).

59 While EEG research has consistently shown body-related effects on stimulus-evoked
60 broadband cortical responses, effects on oscillatory cortical responses have been investigated
61 much less. Frequency-specific (narrow-band) oscillatory activity is thought to represent different
62 areal and interareal processing mechanisms (Fries, 2009, 2015; Wang, 2010), and modulations of
63 oscillatory activity have been implicated in various cognitive functions like cognitive control,
64 learning, memory and action regulation (Cavanagh & Frank, 2014; Herweg et al., 2020; Trujillo
65 & Allen, 2007). In particular, neural activity in the theta band (4 – 7 Hz) has been linked to body
66 processes: differential theta activation has been observed over occipito-temporal and pre-frontal
67 regions for body versus face processing within 250 – 500 ms post-stimulus (Bossi et al., 2020).
68 Moreover, these regions have been shown to synchronize their theta activity in the
69 aforementioned time window during the processing of visual body information during social
70 interactions (Moreau et al., 2020). Furthermore, widespread theta activity has been observed
71 throughout the brain within the first 400 ms of stimulus onset for self- and non-self body
72 responses (Çelik et al., 2021). Overall, these findings suggest that oscillatory theta activity within
73 500 ms after body-image onset might play a relevant role in body processing.

74 An important methodological challenge in the study of neural representations of bodies is
75 the control of low-level sensory information. Naturally, visual stimuli convey low- and high-
76 level information. Low-level features include elementary visual information of luminance,
77 contrast, and textures, among others (Koch & Ullman, 1987; Veale et al., 2017). On the other
78 hand, high-level features refer to semantic and categorical information, such as the identification
79 of a stimulus as a “body”, “face”, or “object” (Groen et al., 2017; Kandel et al., 2014). An
80 effective approach to isolating the high-level processes in the brain is to include scrambled
81 stimuli in the experimental design, as scrambled stimuli can preserve several low-level stimulus
82 features while destroying higher-level information. Some ERP studies have used scrambled
83 stimuli (van Heijnsbergen et al., 2007), but currently in the field, no oscillatory body research
84 (see above) has adequately controlled for the contributions of low-level visual features with the
85 use of scrambled body stimuli, leaving unclear whether their findings reflect visual or more
86 abstract body representations. The present study aims to bridge this gap by including mosaic-
87 scrambled stimuli that control for low-level features of luminance, contrast, and texture to better
88 understand the role of oscillatory theta activity in high-level body processes.

89 By using EEG and a data-driven approach, we first identified a strong theta response in a
90 widespread, bi-lateral region within 200 – 550 ms after the onset of visual categorical stimuli.
91 Using an experimental design comprising category conditions (body, face, and object), visual
92 controls (scrambled versions of the categorical stimuli), and species (human and monkey), we
93 then tested whether these responses are human body-specific, while controlling for low-level
94 visual features. Based on previous fMRI research suggesting a large-scale, species-specific
95 cortical network for human body processing (Li et al., 2023), we expected the high-level

96 (scramble-controlled) representations of bodies to be species-specific, with a clear enhancement
97 of human (versus monkey) body processing.

98 **2. Methods**

99 **2.1 Participants**

100 Thirty healthy, right-handed participants with normal or corrected-to-normal vision were
101 recruited for this study. All participants reported no history of psychiatric or neurological
102 disorders. Written consent was obtained from participants prior to the experiment. Participants
103 were compensated in either monetary vouchers or credit points. One participant's data were
104 excluded from the analysis because she/he presumably misunderstood the attention task (as
105 shown by 0% accuracy); the remaining 29 participants had an average accuracy of $96 \pm 4\%$
106 (mean \pm SD) (range = 85 – 100%). Hence, 29 participants' data were included in the analysis (17
107 females; age range = 18-37 years; mean age = 23). Procedures were approved by the Ethical
108 Committee of Maastricht University and were in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

109 **2.2 Stimuli**

110 Grayscale, naturalistic images of bodies, faces and objects were used as stimuli in the experiment
111 (Fig. 1A). Body and face stimuli were from a human or a monkey. Object stimuli were divided
112 into two sets such that the aspect ratio matched human bodies (set 1) or monkey bodies (set 2).
113 Body stimuli had face information removed with Gaussian blurring. Stimuli were embedded in a
114 white noise background and presented centrally on the computer screen. The size of the stimuli
115 was $9 * 9$ degrees of visual angle for human faces, $9 * 20$ degrees for human bodies and objects,
116 and $16 * 16$ degrees for monkey faces, bodies, and objects.

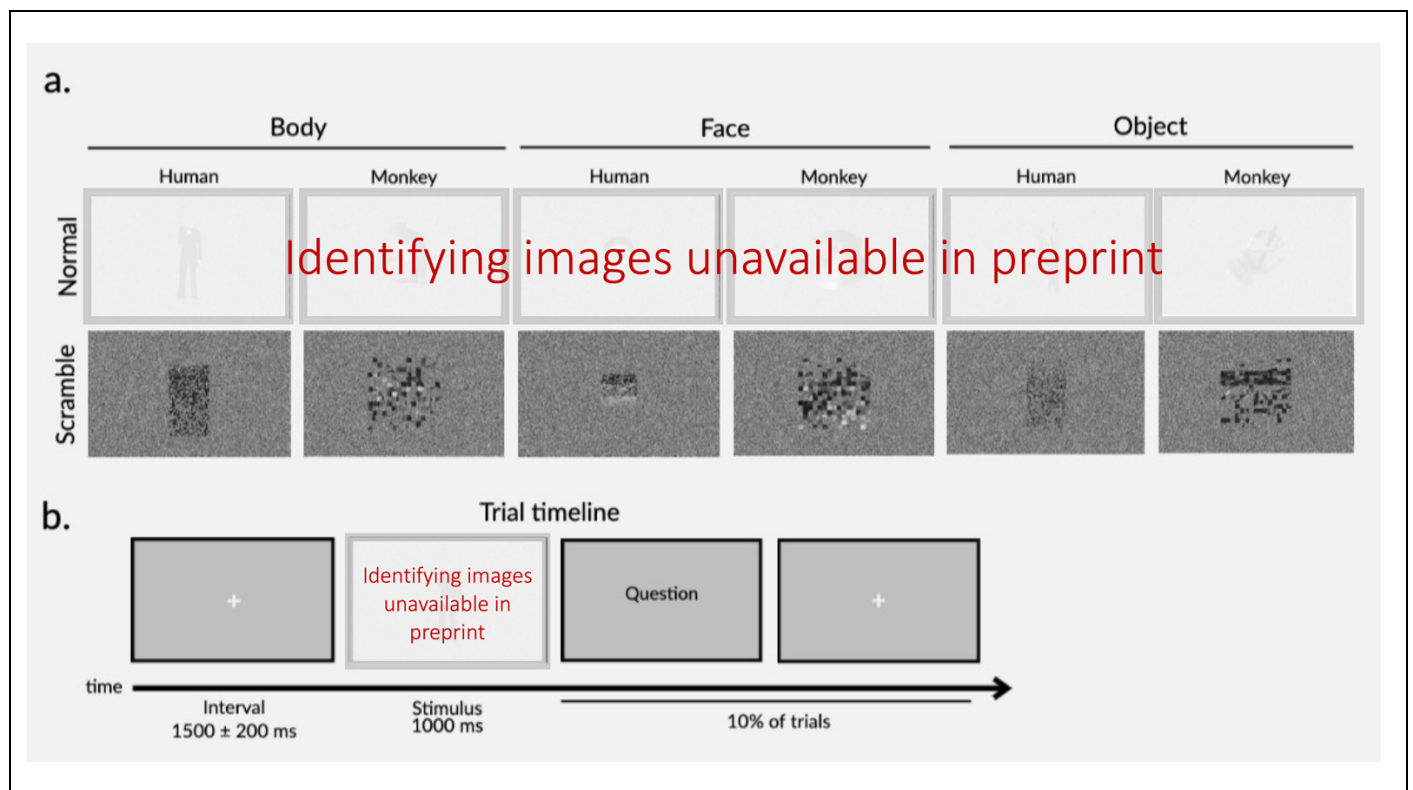
117 To control for the contribution of low-level visual features, mosaic-scrambled images
118 were included. Mosaic-scrambled images destroyed the whole shape of each body/face/object
119 stimulus, but preserved the low-level features of luminance, contrast, texture, and non-
120 background area (Bognár et al., 2023). This resulted in a total of twelve experimental conditions
121 (human/monkey * body/face/object * normal/scrambled). There were ten different stimuli per
122 condition, which resulted in 120 unique images. All images were adapted from video stimuli
123 used in a previous body perception study (Li et al., 2023; see also Bognár et al., 2023; Kret et al.,
124 2011; Zhu et al., 2013). The images for the present study were extracted from the midpoint
125 (frame 30) of each original video (60 fps). Detailed descriptions of the stimuli can be obtained
126 from the aforementioned papers. Image extraction and stimulus presentation were programmed
127 in MATLAB 2021a (The Mathworks, Natick, MA, USA) with the Psychophysics Toolbox
128 extensions (Brainarrd, 1997; Pelli, 1997; Kleiner et al., 2007) as well as custom code.

129 ***2.3 Experimental design, task and procedure***

130 The experiment consisted of two experimental sessions, one of which presented images (see
131 Stimuli) and the second of which presented videos of the same stimuli. The order of the two
132 experimental sessions was randomized across participants. The present paper reports the
133 methods, analysis, and results of the former, image-related experimental session; the latter was
134 used for another project.

135 The main experiment employed a randomized design. There were four runs, all lasting
136 around 6 minutes. During each run, 120 unique images (12 conditions × 10 stimuli; see Stimuli)
137 were presented once in random order. This resulted in a total of four repetitions per stimulus and
138 40 repetitions per condition. Each trial began with a white fixation cross centered on a gray
139 screen (Fig. 1B). To reduce the temporal expectancy of stimulus presentation, the intertrial

140 interval was jittered at 1500 ms (1500 ± 200 ms). Participants viewed the images on a computer
141 screen (1920×1080) at 65 cm from their eyes. A white fixation cross was centered and overlaid
142 on each image. Participants were asked to focus their gaze on the fixation cross and focus their
143 attention on each stimulus. To maintain attention, a question appeared on a random 10% of trials.
144 The question asked about the content of the preceding stimulus (E.g. “What did the previous
145 image show?”), and participants were asked to respond with a button press from a selection of
146 “Body”, “Face”, “Object” or “None of the above.”



147 **Figure 1.** Example stimuli for all conditions (A) and trial timeline (B).

148 **2.4 EEG acquisition**

149 EEG signals were acquired from 33 electrodes embedded in a fabric cap (EASYCAP GmbH)
150 and arranged in accordance with the international 10-20 system. Scalp electrodes included: AFz,

151 Fz, FCz, Cz, CPz, Pz, Oz, Fp1, Fp2, F3, F4, F7, F8, FC3, FC4, FT7, FT8, C3, C4, T7, T8, CP3,
152 CP4, TP7, TP8, TP9, TP10, P3, P4, P7, P8, O1, and O2. EEG signals were recorded with a
153 BrainVision amplifier (Brain Product GmbH, Germany) and sampled at a rate of 1000Hz.
154 Horizontal electrooculogram (HEOG) and vertical electrooculogram (VEOG) were recorded
155 bipolarly from electrodes placed 1cm from the eye. An online reference electrode was placed on
156 the left mastoid and an offline reference electrode was placed on the right mastoid. The ground
157 electrode was placed on the forehead. Impedance was kept below 5 k Ω for all electrodes. EEG
158 recordings took place in an electromagnetically shielded room.

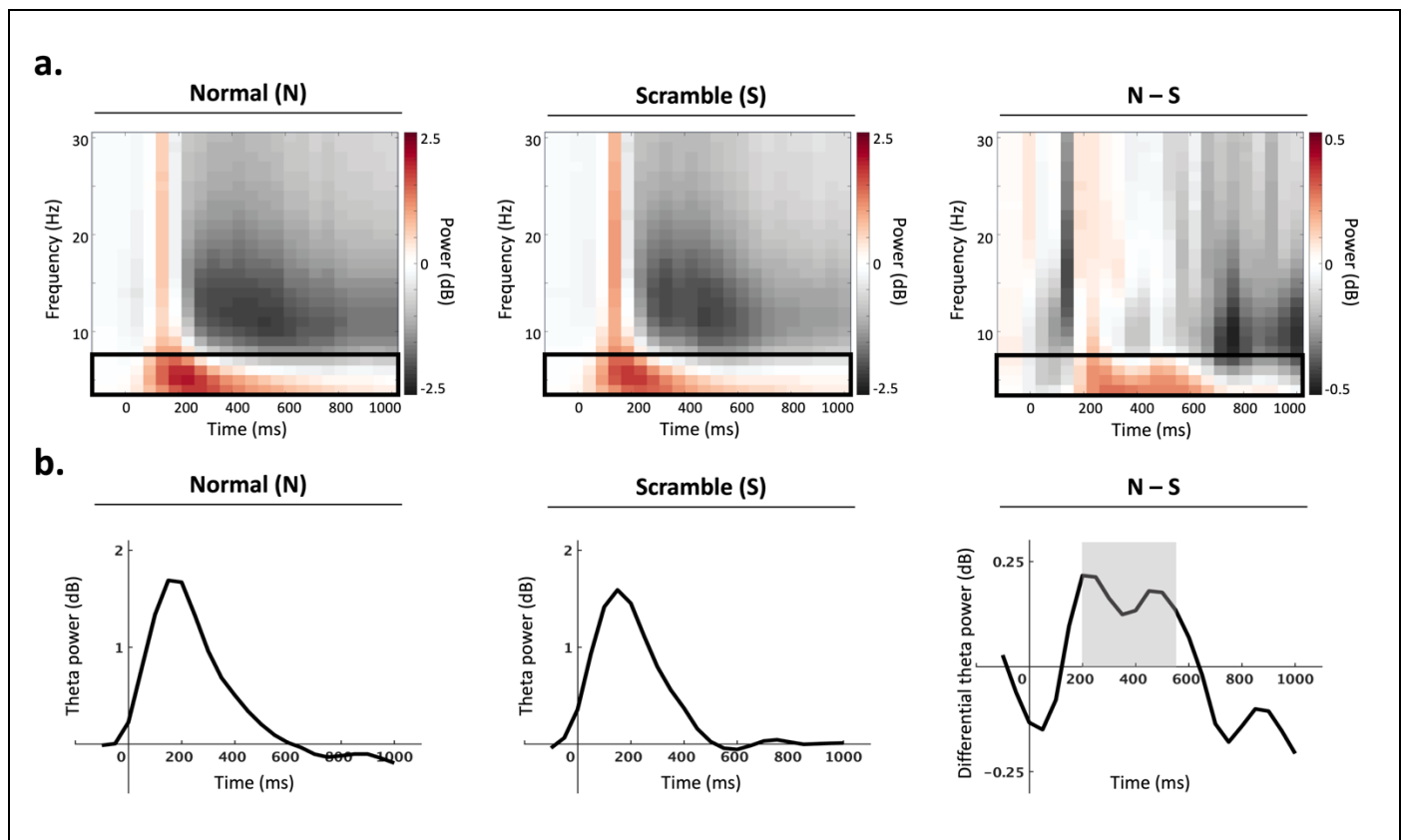
159 ***2.5 EEG data preprocessing***

160 EEG data were preprocessed and analyzed offline in MATLAB 2021a (The Mathworks, Natick,
161 MA, USA) using the Fieldtrip Toolbox extensions (Oostenveld et al., 2011) as well as custom
162 code. The signal was first segmented into trials from 500 ms pre-stimulus onset (image
163 presentation) to 1500 ms post-stimulus. EEG data were re-referenced to the average of the signal
164 at the left and right mastoids and downsampled to 250 Hz. Ocular movements were removed
165 with Independent Component Analysis (ICA, logistic infomax ICA algorithm; Bell & Sejnowski,
166 1995); on average, 1.4 ± 0.5 (mean \pm SD) eye movement-related components were visually
167 identified and removed per participant. Single trials in which the peak amplitude exceeded 3 SD
168 above/below the mean amplitude were rejected; on average, $91.2 \pm 3.4\%$ (mean \pm SD) of trials
169 were preserved per participant.

170 ***2.6 Time-frequency analyses***

171 The preprocessed signal was filtered with a 1-30 Hz bandpass filter. Time-frequency power was
172 computed for each trial by decomposing the signal with a complex Morlet wavelet

173 transformation (frequency-bin size: 1Hz, three cycles per time window; time-bin size: 50 ms).
174 Baseline normalization was performed by log-transforming the power in the epoch of interest (0
175 –1000 ms post-stimulus) relative to the power in the pre-stimulus interval (500 ~ 100 ms). The
176 present analysis focuses on power in the theta (4 – 7 Hz) band, based on literature suggesting
177 theta activity plays a role in body processing (see Introduction).
178 The time window of interest was selected based on previous literature suggesting body-
179 selectivity occurs in the theta band within 250 – 500 ms post-stimulus (Bossi et al., 2020), as
180 well as inspection of the present data, which revealed a peak between 200 – 550 ms post-
181 stimulus for normal compared to scramble conditions (Fig. 2). Based on this observation, the
182 mean theta power during the time window (200 – 550 ms) was extracted at each electrode for all
183 conditions.



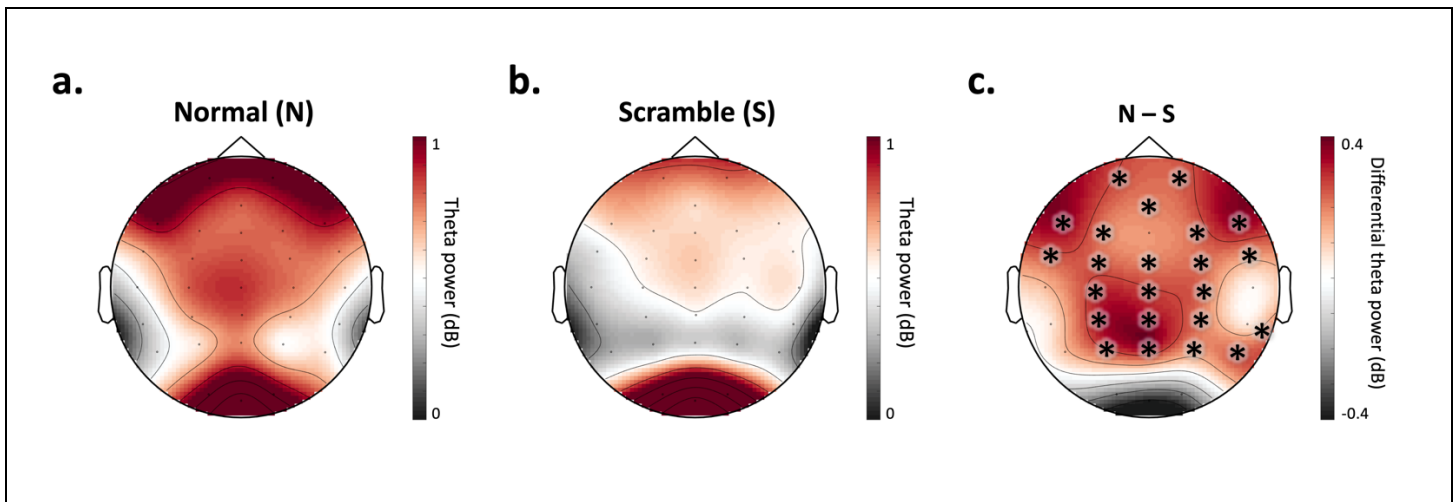
184 **Figure 2.** Time window selection. (A) Group-level power spectra computed across all electrodes
185 for all normal (left) and all scramble (middle) conditions. Differential power (normal – scramble)
186 is represented on the right panel. Theta activity (4 – 7 Hz) is indicated with a black box. Power
187 relative to the pre-stimulus baseline is shown in decibels (dB) across time (ms) and frequency
188 (Hz). (B) Time-series of theta power (dB) across conditions. The average theta power computed
189 across all electrodes is shown for all normal (left) and all scramble (middle) conditions.
190 Differential theta power (normal – scramble) is shown on the right panel, and the time window
191 of interest (200 – 550 ms) is indicated with a grey box.

192 *2.7 Cluster-based permutation analyses*

193 To extract regions involved in visual object processing, non-parametric cluster-based
194 permutation analysis was used to select groups of neighboring channels with a significant
195 difference between normal and scramble conditions. With this data-driven method, the mean
196 theta power during the time window of interest (200 – 550 ms) was pooled for all normal
197 (human/monkey * body/face/object) and all scramble (human/monkey * body/face/object)
198 conditions. For each electrode, normal and scramble conditions were compared by means of a t-
199 test (one-sided; normal > scramble). Neighboring electrodes (minimum group size = 2) with t-
200 values exceeding a threshold of $p < 0.05$ were defined as clusters. Cluster-level test statistics
201 were calculated by summing the t-values within each cluster. To test the statistical significance
202 of the clusters, Monte Carlo permutation tests were run ($N = 2,000$ permutations) to obtain a null
203 distribution of cluster-level test statistics. Cluster-level test statistics computed from observed
204 data were statistically compared to the reference distribution. Clusters with a probability below a
205 critical alpha level of 0.05 were deemed significant.

206 Cluster-based permutation analysis of theta power during the time window of interest
207 (200 – 550 ms) revealed a significant difference between normal and scramble conditions in a
208 widespread, bi-lateral cluster, which included 23 electrodes: AFz, FCz, Cz, CPz, Pz, Fp1, Fp2,
209 F3, F4, F7, F8, FC3, FC4, FT7, FT8, C3, C4, CP3, CP4, TP10, P3, P4, and P8 ($p = 0.001$) (Fig.

210 3). From this point forward, this group of electrodes is referred to as the scalp region of interest
211 (ROI) and is utilized for further analyses.



212 **Figure 3.** Channel selection. Theta power (4 – 7 Hz) during the time window of interest (200 –
213 550 ms post-stimulus) for all normal (A) and all scramble (B) conditions. The difference in
214 power (normal – scramble) is represented in (C). Power is shown in decibels (dB). Cluster-based
215 permutation analysis revealed significant differences ($p = 0.001$) between all normal (A) and all
216 scramble (B) conditions within a cluster of 23 electrodes: AFz, FCz, Cz, CPz, Pz, Fp1, Fp2, F3,
217 F4, F7, F8, FC3, FC4, FT7, FT8, C3, C4, CP3, CP4, TP10, P3, P4, and P8, indicated with
218 asterisks in (C).

219 **2.8 Theta power difference**

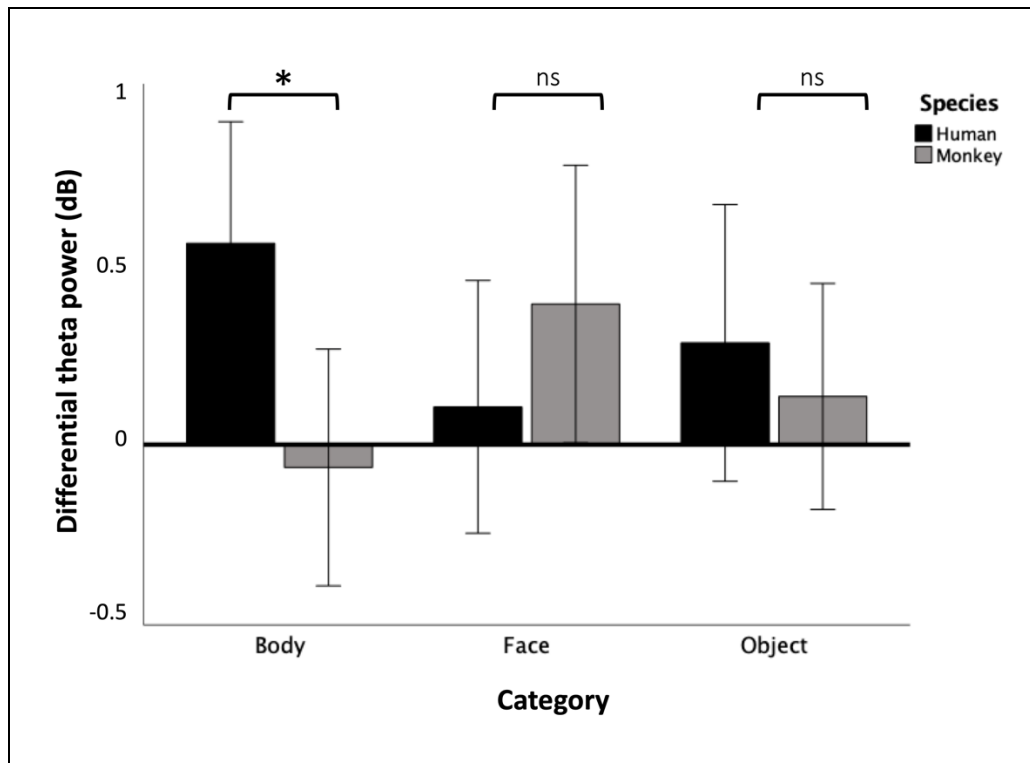
220 To control for the neural processing of low-level visual features, the difference between normal
221 and scramble conditions was computed for each category. Specifically, the subject-level mean
222 theta activity (200 – 550 ms; ROI) for each scramble condition was subtracted from the
223 respective activity for each normal condition: human body (normal – scramble); monkey body
224 (normal – scramble); human face (normal – scramble); monkey face (normal – scramble); human
225 object (normal – scramble); monkey object (normal – scramble). The resulting differential
226 activity was deemed to represent theta activity related to high-level neural processes and was
227 further analyzed.

228 **2.9 Statistical analyses**

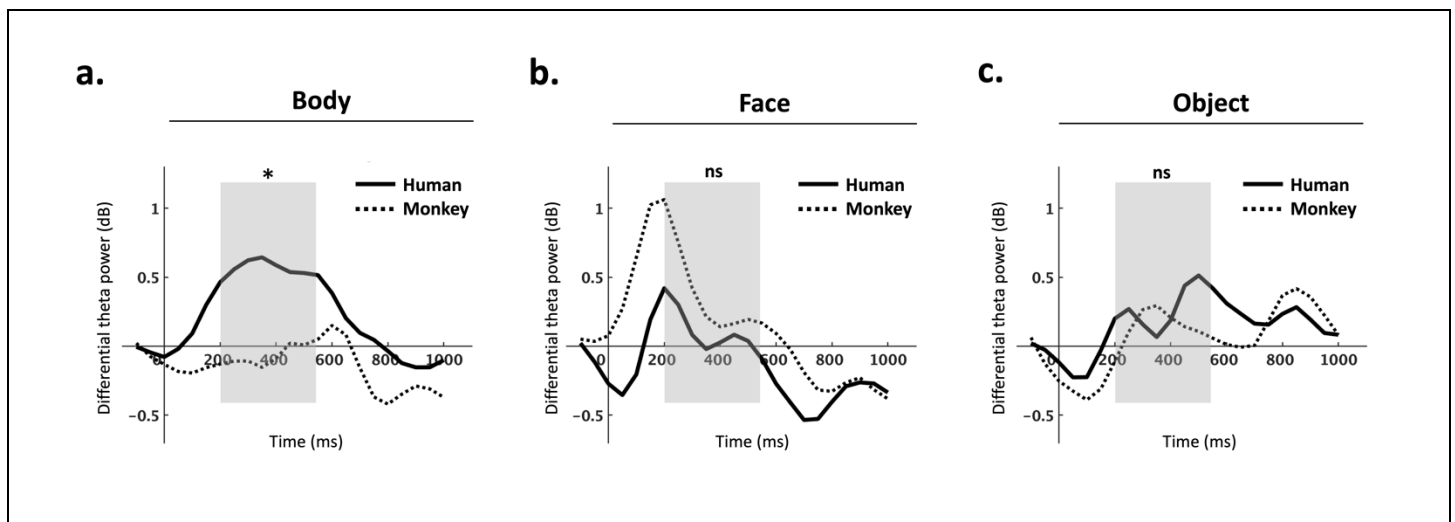
229 Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 28 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY,
230 USA). A repeated-measures 2×3 ANOVA (Species: human/monkey * Category:
231 body/face/object) was applied to the mean theta power difference (normal – scramble). Statistical
232 differences below $p < 0.05$ were considered significant. To control for type I errors, a FDR
233 correction was applied to correct for multiple comparisons; only corrected p-values are reported.

234 **3. Results**

235 The interaction effect of species*category on differential theta power (normal – scramble) was
236 significant ($F(2,28) = 4.72, p = 0.038, \eta_p^2 = 0.14$). The main effect of species ($F(1,28) = 1.29, p =$
237 $0.4, \eta_p^2 = 0.04$) and the main effect of category ($F(2,28) = 0.03, p = 0.971, \eta_p^2 < 0.001$) were not
238 significant. To investigate this interaction effect, three repeated-measures 1×2 ANOVAs
239 (Category: bodies \times Species: human/monkey; Category: faces \times Species: human/monkey;
240 Category: objects \times Species: human/monkey) were performed to compare the effect of species
241 on differential theta power (normal – scramble) corresponding to body stimuli, face stimuli and
242 object stimuli, respectively. There was a statistically significant difference in differential theta
243 power between human bodies and monkey bodies ($F(1,28) = 7.73, p = 0.038, \eta_p^2 = 0.22$) (Fig. 4-
244 5). Importantly, this species effect was limited to body processing, as no corresponding
245 difference in differential theta power could be found between human faces and monkey faces
246 ($F(1,28) = 1.74, p = 0.395, \eta_p^2 = 0.06$), nor between human objects and monkey objects ($F(1,28)$
247 $= 0.43, p = 0.621, \eta_p^2 = 0.02$).



248 **Figure 4.** Means of differential theta power (normal – scramble) during the time window of
249 interest (200 – 550 ms post-stimulus), calculated over the ROI for each condition. *: $p < 0.05$.
250 n.s.: non-significant.



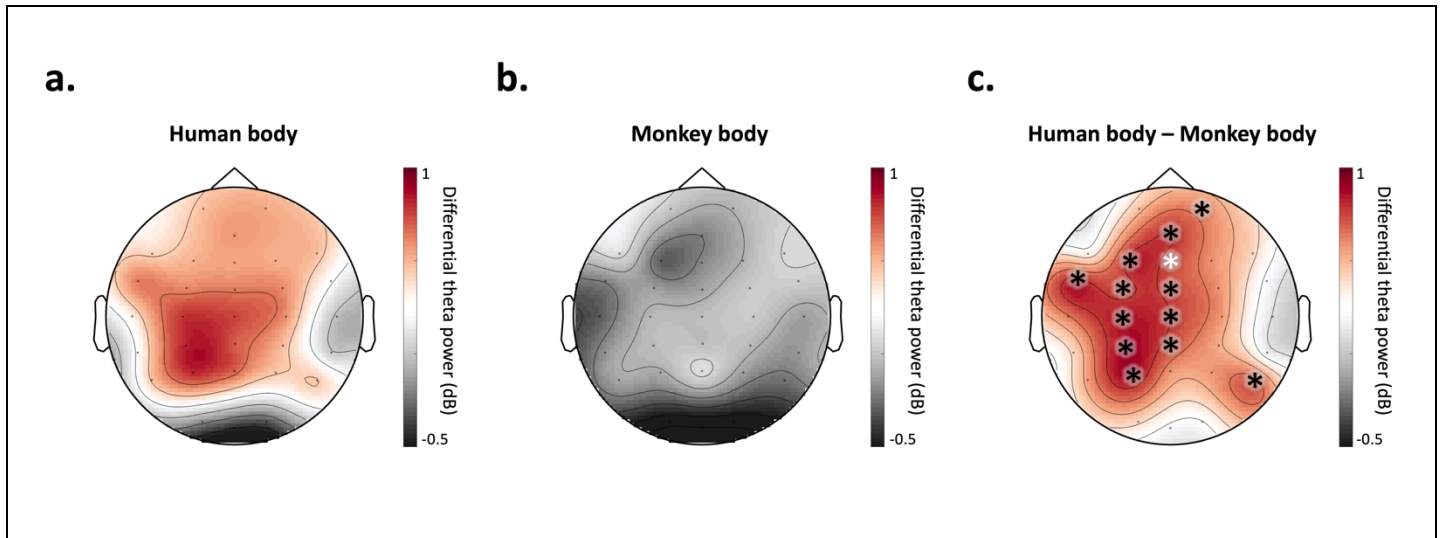
251 **Figure 5.** Time-series of differential theta power (normal – scramble) calculated over the ROI,
252 shown separately for body stimuli (A), face stimuli (B), and object stimuli (C). Solid lines
253 represent human stimuli and dashed lines represent monkey stimuli. The time window of interest
254 (200 – 550 ms) is indicated with a grey box. Differential theta power is shown in decibels (dB)
255 and time is shown in milliseconds (ms). Repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant

256 difference between human body (N-S) and monkey body (N-S) conditions in the time window of
257 interest ($p < 0.05$) (A), as indicated with an asterisk. This species effect was not significant (ns)
258 among face (B) or object (C) stimuli.

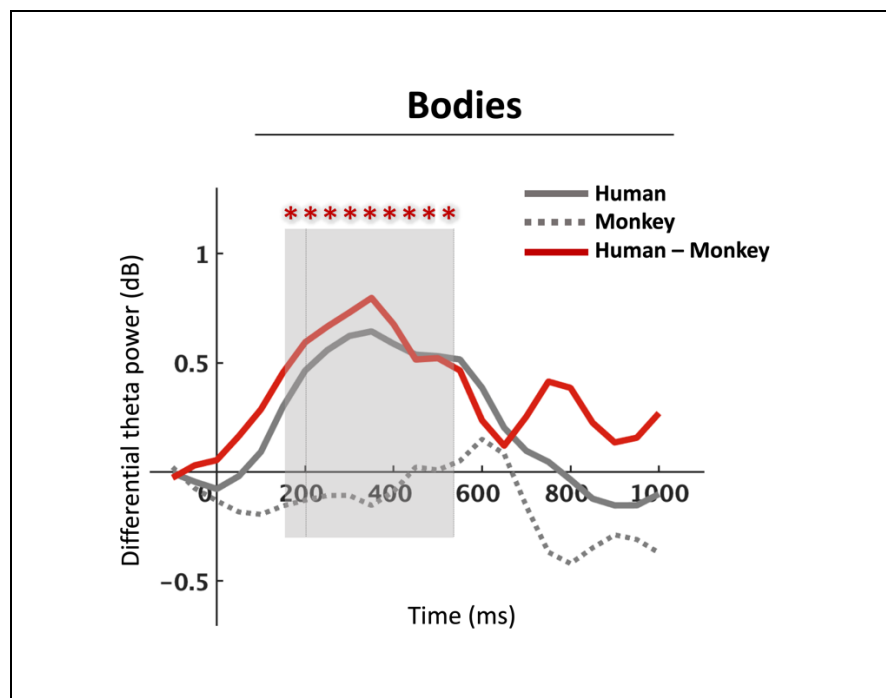
259 *3.1 Posthoc analyses and results*

260 Posthoc analyses were run to further characterize the observed effect of species on body
261 processing. First, to explore the spatial distribution of the effect, paired samples t-tests were
262 performed to compare differential theta power between human and monkey body stimuli at each
263 individual channel ($N = 33$; see Methods). FDR correction was applied to correct for multiple
264 comparisons; only corrected p-values are reported. A significant difference between human body
265 and monkey body in differential theta power was observed at 12 channels within the ROI (AFz,
266 FCz, Cz, CPz, Fp2, F3, FC3, FT7, C3, CP3, P3, and P8) and one channel outside of the ROI (Fz)
267 ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 6), suggesting that the species effect primarily affected brain regions strongly
268 involved in high-level visual processing. See supplementary materials (Table S3) for results of
269 the individual channel-level paired t-tests.

270 Second, to further characterize the temporal profile of the effect of species among body
271 stimuli, temporal cluster-based analysis was performed. Subject-level mean differential theta
272 power in the ROI was computed for human body and monkey body conditions, separately for
273 each time point during the interval 0 to 1000 ms post-stimulus in 50 ms increments ($N = 21$ time
274 points). These subject-level averages were analyzed with temporal cluster-based analysis, which
275 followed the methodology of the cluster-based analysis used for channel-selection (see
276 Methods), but channels were replaced by time points. Results of the temporal cluster-based
277 analysis of differential theta power in the ROI revealed a significant difference between human
278 body and monkey body at nine consecutive time points between 150 – 550 ms (150, 200, 250,
279 300, 350, 400, 450, 500 and 550 ms; $p = 0.01$) (Fig. 7).



280 **Figure 6.** Group-level topography of differential theta power (normal – scramble) during the
281 time window of interest for human body stimuli (A) and monkey body stimuli (B), as well as
282 their difference (C). Asterisks indicate channel locations with a significant difference ($p < 0.05$)
283 between scramble-controlled human and monkey body conditions, calculated from posthoc
284 paired samples t-tests. Black asterisks represent significant channels that also belong to the ROI
285 (AFz, FCz, Cz, CPz, Fp2, F3, FC3, FT7, C3, CP3, P3, and P8). White asterisks represent
286 channels outside of the ROI (Fz).



287 **Figure 7.** Time-series of differential theta power (normal – scramble) calculated over the ROI,
288 shown separately for human body stimuli (solid gray line), monkey body stimuli (dashed gray

289 line), and their difference (red line). The waveforms corresponding to human body and monkey
290 body stimuli are the same as in Figure 5A. Asterisks represent nine consecutive time points
291 between (150 – 550 ms) with a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between scramble-controlled
292 human and monkey body conditions, calculated from posthoc temporal cluster-based analysis.
293 This temporal cluster is highlighted with a grey box. The original time window of interest (200 –
294 550 ms) is marked with vertical lines.

295 ERP analyses were performed to further investigate whether the identified oscillatory
296 effect might reflect evoked or induced activity. The same analysis pipeline was applied as for the
297 time-frequency analysis (see Supplementary Analyses). We found no significant difference in
298 ERP amplitude between human bodies and monkey bodies (see Supplementary Results; Fig. S1),
299 mismatching the results based on differential theta power. This indicates that the species effect
300 on body processing was reflected in theta oscillations rather than phase-locked activity.

301 Finally, to investigate whether the effect was specific to the theta-band, we applied the
302 analysis pipeline to alpha- (8 – 12 Hz) and beta-band (13 – 30 Hz) power (see Supplementary
303 Analyses). There was no significant difference between normal and scramble conditions at any
304 clusters of electrodes during the time window of interest in the alpha- or beta-bands (see
305 Supplementary Results; Fig. S2); no region of interest representing visual object-level processing
306 could be identified.

307 **4. Discussion**

308 Our goal was to investigate the time course and functional significance of body
309 processing with a focus on species specificity. We focused on the precise timing and topography
310 of species-specific body processing in the theta-band. Furthermore, given recent fMRI research
311 proposing a large-scale, species-specific cortical network for human body processing (Li et al.,
312 2023), we expected to find a clear enhancement of human (versus monkey) processing. We
313 found a clear effect of species on visual object-level processing that was specific to bodies. More

314 specifically, we found a significant enhancement of the neural representations of human (versus
315 monkey) bodies, and most notably, this species effect was not present among face or object
316 stimuli. This body-specific process affected low-frequency (theta; 4-7Hz) activity likely
317 originating from widespread regions in the cortex during a time window of 150 – 550 ms post-
318 stimulus. Finally, we found this process may reflect induced activity in the theta band, and it did
319 not extend to alpha (8-12 Hz) or beta (13-30 Hz) frequencies. Our findings corroborate previous
320 findings linking oscillatory theta activity to body processing (Bossi et al., 2020; Çelik et al.,
321 2021; Moreau et al., 2020). More importantly, our findings show a specificity of body processing
322 for species, which is consistent with recent fMRI research suggesting body processing is species-
323 specific and topographically widespread beyond EBA (Li et al., 2023; Çelik et al., 2021).

324 Numerous EEG studies on body processing have focused on the analysis of ERPs, and
325 there is substantial evidence for a body-evoked cortical response at 190 ms (N190) post-stimulus
326 (Peelen & Downing, 2007; Taylor et al., 2010; Thierry et al., 2006; Moreau et al., 2018). On the
327 other hand, oscillatory cortical responses in the context of body processing have been
328 investigated much less, yet the method is powerful in aiding our understanding of cognitive
329 processes reflecting endogenous, non-phase-locked activity, which is attenuated in ERP analyses
330 (Cohen, 2014 & Luck, 2014). Furthermore, modulations of frequency-specific activity have been
331 consistently implicated in cognitive functions (Cavanagh & Frank, 2014; Herweg et al., 2020;
332 Trujillo & Allen, 2006), but only recently have oscillations been investigated in the context of
333 body processing. Recent research has compared theta activation for body versus face processing
334 (Bossi et al., 2020) and self- versus non-self-bodies (Çelik et al., 2021), as well as for body
335 processing amid social interactions (Moreau et al., 2020). Yet, none of these oscillatory studies
336 have investigated species-specific effects, which marks the novelty of the present study.

337 Our channel-wise exploration of species-specific body processing revealed a bi-lateral
338 cluster, albeit largely on the left-side of the cortex (Fig. 6C). This finding is in line with previous
339 research showing a left-sided effect in the theta band for upright versus inverted bodies (Bossi et
340 al., 2020); this potential left-sided bias is unclear and requires further investigation. In addition,
341 our time point-wise exploration of the precise timing of the species-specific theta effect revealed
342 that the effect emerged from 150 ms and sustained until 550 ms post-stimulus. As our measure of
343 theta activity blended ongoing and phase-locked oscillatory activity, we attempted to separate
344 these two; to this end we analyzed ERPs, a measure of purely phase-locked activity. However,
345 unlike the theta activity-based results, the species-specific effect for bodies in the defined region
346 and time window was not significant in the ERP (see Supplementary Materials; Fig. S1), which
347 may suggest the effect operates on higher-order, top-down processes that are not strictly phase-
348 locked to the visual stimulus (David et al., 2006; Herrmann et al., 2014). Finally, we investigated
349 whether species-specific body processing was reflected in other oscillatory frequency bands, and
350 we did not find any corresponding effect in these oscillatory bands. This further corroborates
351 previous research suggesting oscillatory theta activity plays a relevant role in body processing
352 (Bossi et al., 2020; Çelik et al., 2021; Moreau et al., 2020). Nevertheless, it's possible oscillatory
353 activity in other frequency bands may also play a role in body processing, and an interesting
354 future direction can investigate those effects in other time-windows.

355 So far, species-specificity is not fully understood in the nonhuman primate brain. There
356 is consistent evidence for body-selective patches in the macaque temporal cortex (for a review,
357 see Vogels, 2022). In addition, single-unit recordings directly from body-selective patches in the
358 macaque STS revealed differences between bodies and non-bodies, as well as between humans
359 and monkeys, indicating effects at multiple processing levels (Kumar & Vogels, 2019). A

360 follow-up to the present study can address the generalizability of our findings to nonhuman
361 primate observers of primate bodies. More specifically, we would expect to find that in the
362 nonhuman primate cortex, theta activity is enhanced in response to images of monkey versus
363 human bodies. An additional future direction can integrate the findings of human and monkey
364 studies to create a comprehensive model of body processing in the brain. Recently, neural
365 network models (Kumar et al., 2023) and theoretical frameworks (de Gelder & Poyo Solanas,
366 2021) for body processing have been proposed, but we do not have a complete understanding of
367 the neural representations of bodies (Vogels, 2022).

368 A central question concerns the functional significance of theta oscillations associated
369 with species-specific body processing. Recent reports of theta oscillations offer some interesting
370 and suggestive indications. Studies involving simple conflict paradigms have long suggested
371 theta activity is a mechanism for cognitive control (for a review, see Cavanagh & Frank, 2014).
372 More recently, theta activity was measured in response to approach-avoidance conflicts for the
373 first time, and findings showed a direct relationship between midfrontal theta activation and
374 approach-avoidance conflicts (Lange et al., 2022). A different but potentially highly relevant role
375 of theta oscillations concerns perception-movement initiation at early stages. For example,
376 oscillations in the theta-band may play an important role in combining in a common temporal
377 reference frame visual perception and motor intention (Tomassini et al., 2017). Furthermore,
378 studies on body perception have systematically shown that observing whole body actions is
379 associated with activity in premotor and motor areas (de Gelder et al., 2010; Grèzes et al., 2007;
380 Goldberg et al., 2014; Pichon et al., 2009). The theta effects observed in the present study may
381 be linked to visual body perception in combination with processes related to movement intention.
382 This pattern may have been driven by the inclusion of threatening stimuli, reflecting well-

383 established processes seen in the theta band and related to cognitive control (for a review, see
384 Cavanagh & Frank, 2014). The images used in the present design were selected to have a wide
385 range of body expressions, including neutral expressions as well as emotional expressions
386 depicting defensive actions (fear) and aggressive actions (fear), among others. This does not
387 reduce the importance of the species-specific effect, as the monkey stimulus set equally included
388 neutral and emotionally expressive actions but did not show a similar theta response. Taken
389 together, the observed theta band activity provides clear suggestions for the underlying
390 functional significance of species-specificity.

391 Another key feature of bodies is dynamics. In daily life, people who interact are not
392 stationary but rather they are, to some degree, always moving. Emerging research using dynamic
393 body stimuli has shown body- and motion-selective processes may be integrated (Raman et al.,
394 2023; Kumar et al., 2023). While the present study used static images, future research should
395 implement dynamic videos to understand the full extent of oscillatory representations of social
396 interactions beyond static object recognition.

397 **5. Data availability**

398 The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding
399 author (B.d.G), pending approval from the researcher's local ethics committee and a formal data
400 sharing agreement.

401 **6. Author contributions**

402 Jane Chesley (Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology,
403 Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Project administration), Lars
404 Riecke (Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review & editing, Supervision), Juanzhi Lu

405 (Formal analysis, resources), Rufin Vogels (Writing – review & editing), Beatrice de Gelder
406 (Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding
407 acquisition).

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413 **8. Declaration of competing interests**

414 The authors declare no competing interests.

415 9. Supplementary Materials for:
416 **Theta activity discriminates high-level, species-specific body**
417 **processes**

418 Jane Chesley ^a, Lars Riecke ^a, Juanzhi Lu ^a, Rufin Vogels ^{b,c}, Beatrice de Gelder ^{a,d,*}

419 ^a Department of Cognitive Neuroscience, Faculty of Psychology and Neuroscience, Maastricht
420 University, Maastricht 6200 MD, the Netherlands

421 ^b Laboratory for Neuro, and Psychophysiology, Department of Neurosciences, KU Leuven
422 Medical School, Leuven 3000, Belgium

423 ^c Leuven Brain Institute, KU Leuven, Leuven 3000, Belgium

424 ^d Department of Computer Science, University College London, London WC1E 6BT, UK

425 * Correspondence to: Room 3.009, Oxfordlaan 55, 6229 EV Maastricht, the Netherlands. Tel.
426 +31 433881437.

427 E-mail address: b.degelder@maastrichtuniversity.nl (B. de Gelder).

428 **9.1 Supplementary Analyses**

429 **9.1.1 Event-related potential analyses**

430 ERP analyses were performed to further investigate whether the oscillatory effect might reflect
431 evoked or induced activity. Here, the preprocessed EEG signal was baseline-corrected by
432 subtracting the average amplitude during the interval ($-200 \sim 0$ ms) pre-stimulus, and a 50 Hz
433 notch filter was applied. For each condition, the grand-averaged ERP was calculated over the
434 cluster ($n = 13$; AFz, Fz, FCz, Cz, CPz, Fp2, F3, FC3, FT7, C3, CP3, P3, and P8) identified in
435 the posthoc time-frequency analyses as having a significant species-effect among body stimuli
436 (Fig. 6C). To control for the neural processing of low-level visual features, the amplitude
437 difference (normal – scramble) was calculated for each condition. The mean amplitude
438 difference within the cluster and during the time window (150 – 550 ms) identified in the
439 posthoc time-frequency analyses (Fig. 7) was statistically analyzed with the same repeated
440 measures ANOVAs as for the time-frequency analysis; see Statistical Analyses.

441 **9.1.2 Time-frequency analyses: Alpha- and beta- band activity**

442 Finally, to investigate whether the effect was specific to the theta-band, we applied the analysis
443 pipeline to alpha- (8-12 Hz) and beta-band (13-30 Hz) power. Alpha- and beta- band power
444 during the time window of interest was extracted from the preprocessed, time-frequency
445 transformed signal (see above). Then, to localize object-level processing channels, cluster-based
446 permutation analysis was applied to compare all normal and all scramble conditions.

447 **9.2 Supplementary Results**

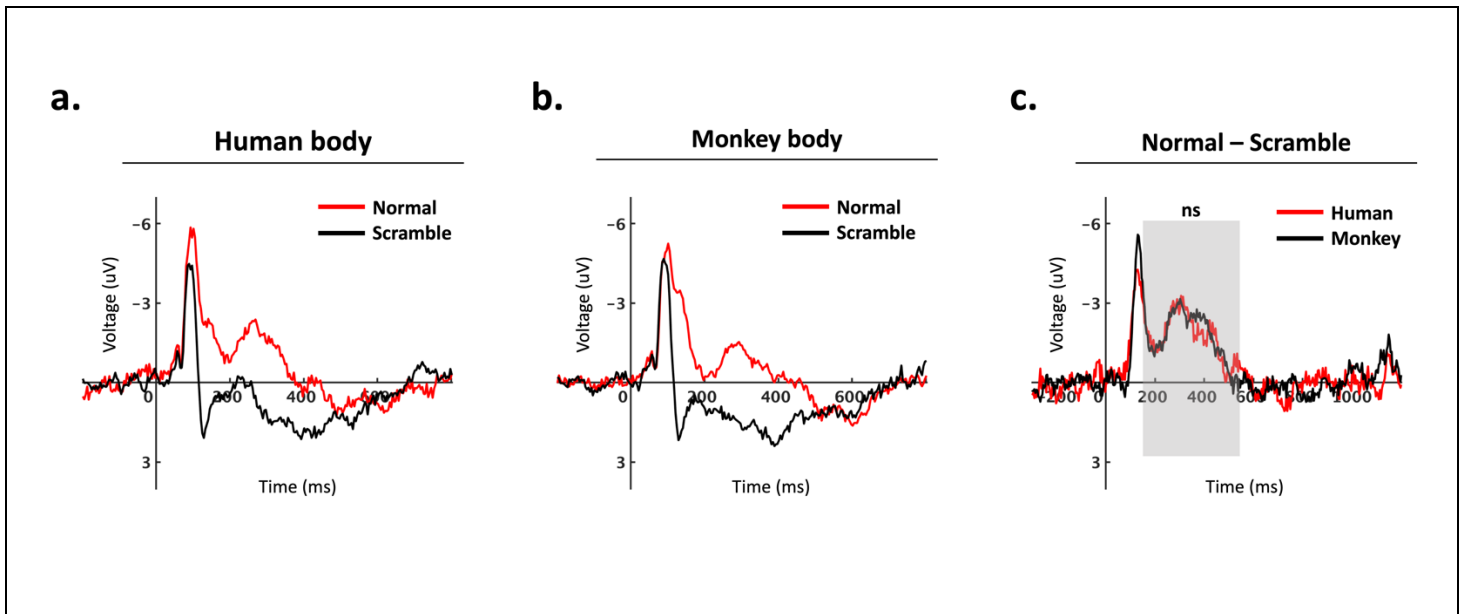
448 **9.2.1 Event-related potential results**

449 In line with the results based on differential theta power, the interaction effect of
450 species*category was significant ($F(2,28) = 16.28, p = 0.003, \eta_p^2 = 0.37$). The main effect of
451 species ($F(1,28) = 8.57, p = 0.014, \eta_p^2 = 0.23$) was significant and the main effect of category
452 ($F(2,28) = 0.61, p = 0.659, \eta_p^2 = 0.02$) was not significant. While there was a statistically
453 significant difference in amplitude between human faces and monkey faces ($F(1,28) = 27.37, p =$
454 $0.003, \eta_p^2 = 0.49$), there was no significant difference in amplitude between human bodies and
455 monkey bodies ($F(1,28) = 0.004, p = 0.948, \eta_p^2 = 0$), nor between human objects and monkey
456 objects ($F(1,28) = 1.96, p = 0.26, \eta_p^2 = 0.07$), mismatching the results based on differential theta
457 power (Fig. S1). This indicates that the species effect on body processing was reflected in theta
458 oscillations rather than stimulus phase-locked activity.

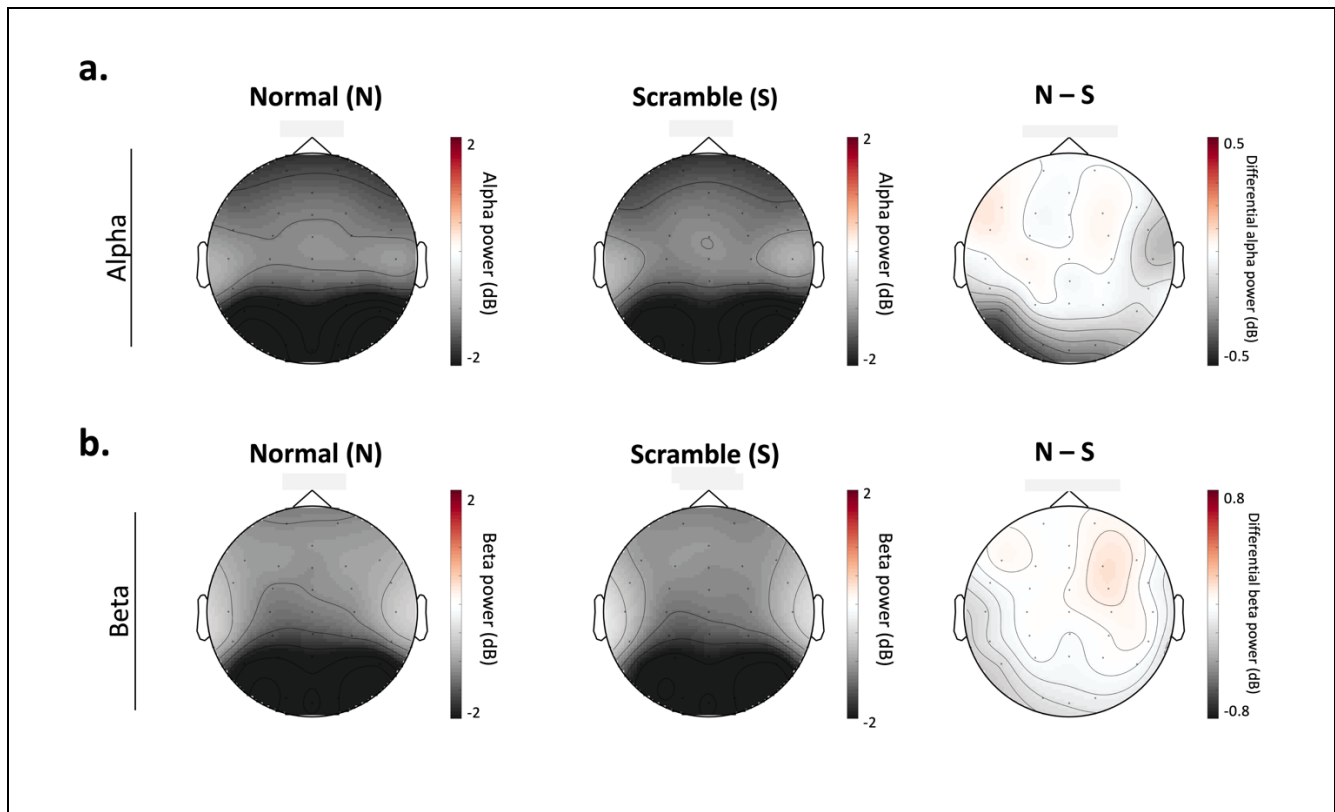
459 **9.2.2 Time-frequency results: Alpha- and beta- band activity**

460 There was no significant difference between normal and scramble conditions at any clusters of
461 electrodes during the time window of interest in the alpha- or beta-bands (Fig. S2).

462 9.3 Supplementary Figures and Tables



463 **Figure S1.** Grand-averaged ERP waveforms per condition (A – B), calculated by averaging the
464 data at electrodes AFz, Fz, FCz, Cz, CPz, Fp2, F3, FC3, FT7, C3, CP3, P3, and P8. (C)
465 Difference waveforms (normal – scramble) shown separately for human and monkey body
466 stimuli. The grey box highlights the time window (150 – 550 ms) used for statistical analyses.
467 There was no significant difference between scramble-controlled human and monkey body
468 stimuli.



469

470 **Figure S2.** (A) Alpha power (8 – 12 Hz) and (B) beta power (13 – 30 Hz) during the time
471 window of interest (200 – 550 ms post-stimulus) for all normal (left) and all scramble (middle)
472 conditions. The difference in power (normal – scramble) is represented on the right. Cluster-
473 based permutation analysis revealed no significant difference between all normal and all
474 scramble conditions within any clusters of electrodes in alpha- or beta- band frequencies.

475 **Table S3.** Individual channel-level results of paired t-tests comparing differential theta power
476 (normal – scramble) between human body and monkey body stimuli within the time window of
477 interest (200 – 550 ms). Only significant effects ($p < 0.05$) with FDR correction are reported.

Channel	Human body (Normal – Scramble)	Monkey body (Normal – Scramble)	T-test
AFz	human (M = 0.58, SD = 1.35)	monkey (M = -0.21, SD = 1.17)	t(28) = 2.609, p = 0.040
Fz	human (M = 0.54, SD = 1.29)	monkey (M = -0.19, SD = 1.11)	t(28) = 2.293, p = 0.041
FCz	human (M = 0.63, SD = 1.25)	monkey (M = -0.11, SD = 1.09)	t(28) = 2.267, p = 0.041
Cz	human (M = 0.75, SD = 1.20)	monkey (M = -0.03, SD = 1.14)	t(28) = 2.256, p = 0.041
CPz	human (M = 0.70, SD = 1.18)	monkey (M = -0.03, SD = 1.03)	t(28) = 2.299, p = 0.041
Fp2	human (M = 0.53, SD = 1.40)	monkey (M = -0.06, SD = 1.35)	t(28) = 2.276, p = 0.041
F3	human (M = 0.52, SD = 1.29)	monkey (M = -0.29, SD = 1.14)	t(28) = 2.761, p = 0.040
FC3	human (M = 0.61, SD = 1.20)	monkey (M = -0.13, SD = 1.13)	t(28) = 2.429, p = 0.041
FT7	human (M = 0.63, SD = 1.19)	monkey (M = -0.20, SD = 1.24)	t(28) = 3.072, p = 0.040
C3	human (M = 0.79, SD = 1.09)	monkey (M = -0.05, SD = 1.21)	t(28) = 2.718, p = 0.040
CP3	human (M = 0.82, SD = 1.17)	monkey (M = -0.03, SD = 1.20)	t(28) = 2.687, p = 0.040
P3	human (M = 0.81, SD = 1.23)	monkey (M = -0.09, SD = 1.21)	t(28) = 2.865, p = 0.040
P8	human (M = 0.44, SD = 1.03)	monkey (M = -0.25, SD = 1.07)	t(28) = 2.469, p = 0.041

478

479 10. References

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