

Prefrontal default-mode network interactions with posterior hippocampus during exploration

Andrew E. Papale¹, Vanessa M. Brown², Angela M. Ianni¹, Michael N. Hallquist³, Beatriz Luna¹, Alexandre Y. Dombrovski¹

1. Department of Psychiatry, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

2. Department of Psychology, Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA

3. Department of Psychology and Neuroscience, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, USA

Correspondence: Alexandre Y. Dombrovski, 728 Bellefield Towers, 3811 O'Hara St., Pittsburgh, PA, 15213; ayd1@pitt.edu

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Abstract

Hippocampal maps and ventral prefrontal cortex (vPFC) value and goal representations support foraging in continuous spaces. How might hippocampal-vPFC interactions control the balance between behavioral exploration and exploitation? Using fMRI and reinforcement learning modeling, we investigated vPFC and hippocampal responses as humans explored and exploited a continuous one-dimensional space, with out-of-session and out-of-sample replication. The spatial distribution of rewards, or value landscape, modulated activity in the hippocampus and default network vPFC subregions, but not in ventrolateral prefrontal control subregions or medial orbitofrontal limbic subregions. While prefrontal default network and hippocampus displayed higher activity in less complex, easy-to-exploit value landscapes, vPFC-hippocampal connectivity increased in uncertain landscapes requiring exploration. Further, synchronization between prefrontal default network and posterior hippocampus scaled with behavioral exploration. Considered alongside electrophysiological studies, our findings suggest that locations to be explored are identified through coordinated activity binding prefrontal default network value representations to posterior hippocampal maps.

Word count (147)

Significance Statement

The ventral prefrontal cortex represents goals and values, while the hippocampus contains maps of physical and abstract spaces. In recent years, neuroscientists have

sought to understand how hippocampal-prefrontal interactions help us to solve complex problems such as deciding whether to exploit known rewards or explore in search of better alternatives. Using functional magnetic resonance imaging and reinforcement learning modeling, we examine these interactions as humans explore and exploit an environment with a complex distribution of rewards or value landscape. We describe how this value landscape modulates activity and connectivity between prefrontal cortex and hippocampus, controlling the balance between exploration and exploitation.

Word count (101)

Introduction (649 words)

In uncertain environments, animals face the dilemma of whether to *exploit* known good options or *explore* potentially better alternatives. Behavior shifts from exploration to exploitation as valuable options are discovered. In environments with a few discrete options mammalian striatum and amygdala can resolve this dilemma efficiently (Costa et al., 2019), but more complex spaces require hippocampal cognitive maps (Johnson et al., 2012; Mehlhorn et al., 2015; Dombrovski et al., 2020) and flexible reward representations in ventral prefrontal cortex (vPFC; Domenech et al., 2020; Trudel et al., 2021).

Locations of desirable outcomes can be predicted by a cognitive map integrating available cues with spatial memory. The hippocampus creates value-laden maps based on trajectories through space (Stachenfeld et al., 2017; Dombrovski et al., 2020). These maps contain more fine-grained representations in posterior/dorsal divisions and reward- and context- based representations in anterior/ventral divisions (Royer et al., 2010; Biane et al., 2023). Moreover, the hippocampus replays trajectories (Skaggs and McNaughton, 1996; Liu et al., 2019; Schuck and Niv, 2019) or considers future goals online during deliberation (Johnson and Redish, 2007; Papale et al., 2012; Redish, 2016). vPFC, in turn, estimates option values based on current needs and goals (Padoa-Schioppa, 2007; Bartra et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2021). We have found that human anterior hippocampus represents spatially structured values, and these representations scale with successful exploitation (Dombrovski et al., 2020). However, how interactions between various hippocampal and vPFC subregions may support exploration and exploitation remains unclear.

Hippocampal-vPFC interactions are facilitated by long-range synchronization of local field potentials (Buzsáki, G., 2006). Consistent with behavioral evidence, offline delta synchronization (Schultheiss et al., 2020) – linked to sharp wave ripples in hippocampus – promotes memory consolidation and retrieval of contextually relevant information (Buzsáki, 2015; Joo and Frank, 2018; Tang and Jadhav, 2019), potentially including option values (Weilbacher and Gluth, 2016; Schmidt and Redish, 2021). Additionally, theta synchronization during directed attention conveys hippocampal spatial

representations to the vPFC (Jones and Wilson, 2005; Gluth et al., 2015; Weilbacher and Gluth, 2016).

Value-related information differentially modulates vPFC subregions that fall into three large-scale connectivity networks: the ventral limbic network (LIM), the default mode network (DMN) and the frontoparietal control network (CTR). The value of the chosen or best available option positively modulates medial and central orbitofrontal and subcallosal LIM as well as peri-callosal and fronto-polar DMN (Hare et al., 2008; Bartra et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2014; Lopez-Gamundi et al., 2021; Knudsen and Wallis, 2022). By contrast, lateral OFC regions such as 11/47 belonging to CTR are negatively modulated by expected value (Ursu et al., 2008), suggesting competition among similarly-valued options for action selection. Connectivity between the putative rodent analogue of LIM (infralimbic PFC and ventral orbitofrontal cortex, OFC) and ventral hippocampus appears necessary for exploitation of learned values (Chudasama et al., 2012). In addition, interactions between hippocampus and more dorsal rodent prelimbic PFC (putatively homologous to human DMN; Lu et al., 2012) may govern exploitation (Laureiro-Martínez et al., 2015) and exploration (Morici et al., 2022). Given the diverging value responses of the CTR subregion, we reasoned that it would serve as an informative comparison when examining activity and hippocampal connectivity of DMN and LIM vPFC.

We therefore investigated (1) how spatially structured value functions or value landscapes modulate activity of the human vPFC (DMN, LIM, and CTR), as well as vPFC connectivity with anterior vs. posterior hippocampus, and (2) how such connectivity relates to behavioral exploration. To address these aims, we examined fMRI BOLD activity during exploration and exploitation of a continuous one-dimensional space. We inferred the value distribution over the space using our previously validated information-compressing RL model of adaptive transition from exploration to exploitation (Hallquist and Dombrovski, 2019). Multi-level analyses of event-locked deconvolved BOLD signal (Dombrovski et al., 2020) enabled us to characterize value encoding across within-trial timepoints, during online navigation, outcome receipt and offline processing seconds after an outcome. We replicated key findings out-of-session and out-of-sample.

Materials and Methods

PARTICIPANTS – EXPERIMENT 1

Participants were 71 individuals aged 14-30 (mean +/- SD: 21±5 years; 37 female, 34 male) with no history of neurological disorder, brain injury, or developmental or psychiatric disorder (self or first-degree relatives). Participants or their legal guardians provided informed consent prior to participation. Procedures complied with the Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association (1964 Declaration of Helsinki) and were approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Pittsburgh (protocol PRO10090478). Participants were compensated \$75 for this experiment.

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109 *PARTICIPANTS – EXPERIMENT 2*

110 Participants were psychiatrically and neurologically healthy individuals (N=43) age 49-
 111 80 (mean +/- SD: 63±8 years; 23 female, 20 male. These data were drawn from the
 112 healthy comparison group of a study of suicidal behavior in the second half of life.
 113 Participants were compensated \$150 for completing the experiment and other studies.
 114 Experimental procedures for this study complied with Code of Ethics of the World
 115 Medical Association (1964 Declaration of Helsinki) and the Institutional Review Board at
 116 the University of Pittsburgh (STUDY19030288).

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118 *REGIONS OF INTEREST: PREFRONTAL CORTEX AND HIPPOCAMPUS*

119 We analyzed 17 subdivisions of vPFC, encompassing medial and lateral OFC, frontal
 120 pole, and vmPFC/pericallosal ACC. These were selected from the 7-network 200-region
 121 parcellation of (Schaefer et al., 2018; Fig. 1A). Following this parcellation, we assigned
 122 regions to one of three networks: the Default Mode (DMN, orange), the Frontoparietal
 123 (Cognitive) Control (CTR, yellow), or the Limbic (LIM, blue). Sixteen of these regions
 124 were divided into symmetric left-right pairs and labeled using the Eickhoff-
 125 Zilles Cytoarchitectonic MPM atlas 2.2 in AFNI (Fig. 1C; (Eickhoff et al., 2005, 2007;
 126 Henssen et al., 2016). To preserve the left-right symmetry, the 17th region, right
 127 frontopolar BA 10 (fp10 region 161, MNI x=13, y=64, z=-14) was moved from the limbic
 128 network to the DMN. Our sensitivity analyses showed that this change had no
 129 qualitative impact on the results in Experiment 1 for Fig. 4B, 5B, and Fig. 6C,E,G (Fig.

S4, Fig. S5). The human frontal DMN expands dorsally, thus we included region dorsal BA 10 (d10 region 89 left MNI x=-7, y=52, z=11, d10 region 194 right MNI x=7, y=52, z=10) in our analyses.

The bilateral hippocampal mask was derived from the Harvard-Oxford subcortical atlas in MNI152 space (<https://identifiers.org/neurovault.collection:262>) and resampled to 2.3mm (Experiment 1) voxels or 3.1mm (Experiment 2) voxels to match the native resolution of the BOLD data. To delineate anterior (AH) vs. posterior hippocampus (PH), the postero-anterior long axis was defined as described previously (Dombrovski et al., 2020) with the posterior 1/3 comprising PH and anterior 2/3 comprising AH (Fig. 1B).

BEHAVIORAL TASK – EXPERIMENT 1

On the clock task (Moustafa et al., 2008), participants were shown a clock face and asked to make a single choice per trial, stopping a dot which revolves clockwise around a central stimulus in 4s. The choice led to immediate feedback indicating points earned on that trial, displayed for 0.9s (Fig. 2A). Unknown to participants, earnings were controlled by one of four difficult reinforcement contingencies with probability-magnitude tradeoffs, in 50-trial runs. Thus, one learned that certain locations on the clock yielded higher average rewards. Two reinforcement contingencies were learnable: *increasing expected value* (IEV), where later response times yielded higher average payoffs, vs. *decreasing expected value* (DEV). In IEV and DEV, as well as one unlearnable condition, *constant expected value* (CEV), reward probabilities decreased while

magnitudes decreased throughout the interval. In a final, unlearnable *constant expected value-reversed* (CEVR) condition, the probability-magnitude tradeoff was reversed. If the participant failed to make a response within 4s (360 degrees) they received zero points (Fig. 2B). Subjects consistently chose longer response times in the IEV condition (green), and shorter response times in the DEV condition (orange) in Experiment 1 (Fig. 2C) both in the fMRI (left panel) and out-of-session MEG replication (center panel) sessions.

Participants completed eight 50-trial runs of the clock task during an fMRI scan. The clock task was implemented in PsychToolbox 3.0.10 (Brainard, D.H., 1997; Kleiner, M et al., 2007) and run in MATLAB 2012a (The Mathworks, Inc. Natick, Massachusetts, www.mathworks.com). The inter-trial interval varied in length according to an exponential distribution, with the sequence and length optimized for detection power using a Monte Carlo approach implemented by the *optseq2* command in Freesurfer 5.3. Specifically, 5 million possible inter-trial interval sequences were simulated, with the top 320 sequences retained based on their estimation efficiency. For each subject, 8 of these efficient inter-trial interval sequences were selected, one for each scanner run.

Participants also completed 8 runs of the clock task during a separate MEG session (Experiment 1 - non-fMRI Replication Session, or Experiment 1 - Out-of-Session MEG Replication), which was counterbalanced in order with the fMRI session and separated by an average of 3.7 weeks. For the purposes of this paper, this second session

allowed examination of stable tendencies to explore or exploit and replication of effects across time. Due to lower signal-to-noise ratio of MEG relative to fMRI, runs consisted of 63 trials.

During each trial, the central stimulus was an abstract phase-scrambled image, or a happy or fearful face. The phase-scrambled images were intended to provide equal luminance and coloration. Faces were selected from the NimStim database (Tottenham et al., 2009). All 4 contingencies were collected with scrambled images, while only IEV and DEV had emotion manipulations. We do not report on central stimulus effects here, presenting average estimates across stimuli.

BEHAVIORAL TASK – EXPERIMENT 2

Participants completed the clock task described above, but with six modifications. 1) To dissociate value entropy from novelty, the contingency reversed every 40 trials unknown to the participants. 2) Participants completed 240 trials of the clock task in two runs. 3) Only IEV and DEV contingencies were employed. 4) Trials were extended to 5s to accommodate slower psychomotor speed in this older sample. 5) No MEG data were collected in a separate session. 6) The central stimulus was always a generic clock face. Subjects consistently chose longer response times in the IEV condition (green), and shorter response times in the DEV condition (orange) in Experiment 2 (Fig. 2C).

195 COMPUTATIONAL MODELING OF BEHAVIOR

196 To capture learning and value representation on the clock task, we used a previously
 197 validated reinforcement learning (RL) model (Strategic Exploration/Exploitation of
 198 Temporal Instrumental Contingencies, or SCEPTIC; Hallquist and Dombrovski, 2019).
 199 The SCEPTIC model represents the one-dimensional value landscape of the clock task
 200 using a set of unnormalized Gaussian radial basis functions spaced evenly over the
 201 interval. Each function has a temporal receptive field with a mean and variance defining
 202 its point of maximal sensitivity and the range of times to which it is sensitive. The
 203 quantity of interest tracked by the bases is the expected value of a given choice
 204 indicated by the response time. To represent time-varying value, the heights of the
 205 basis functions are scaled according to a set of B weights, $w = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_b]$. The
 206 contribution of each basis function to the integrated value representation depends on its
 207 temporal receptive field:

$$\varphi_b(x) = \exp \left[-\frac{(x - \mu_b)^2}{2s_b^2} \right] \quad (1)$$

208 where x is an arbitrary point within the time interval T , μ_b is the center (mean) of the
 209 RBF and s_b^2 is its variance. And more generally, the temporally varying expected value
 210 function on a trial i is obtained by the multiplication of the weights with the basis:

$$V(i) = \sum_{b=1}^B w_b(i) \varphi_b \quad (2)$$

For the clock task, where the probability and magnitude of rewards varied over the course of four-second trials, we spaced the centers of 24 Gaussian RBFs evenly across the discrete interval and chose a fixed width s_b^2 for the temporal variance (width) of each basis function. More specifically, s_b^2 was chosen such that the distribution of adjacent radial basis functions overlapped by approximately 50%.

The basic model learns the expected values of different response times by updating each basis function b according to the equation:

$$w_b(i+1) = w_b(i) + e_b(i|t)\alpha[\text{reward}(t) - w_b(i)] \quad (3)$$

where i is the current trial in the task, t is the observed response time, and $\text{reward}(t)$ is the reinforcement obtained on trial i given the choice t . Prediction error updates are weighted by the learning rate α and the eligibility e_b . To avoid tracking separate value estimates for each possible moment, feedback obtained at a given response time t is propagated to adjacent times. This is achieved using a Gaussian RBF centered on the response time t , having width s_g^2 . The eligibility e_b of a basis function φ_b to be updated by prediction error is defined as its overlap with the temporal generalization function, g :

$$g(x) = \exp\left[-\frac{(x-t)^2}{2s_g^2}\right] \quad (4)$$

$$e_b(i|t) = \int_0^T \min[g(\tau), \varphi_b(\tau)] d\tau \quad (5)$$

where τ represents an arbitrary timepoint along the interval T . Thus, for each radial

basis function b , a scalar eligibility e_b between zero and one represents the overlap with the temporal generalization function s_b^2 .

The SCEPTIC model selects an action based on a softmax choice rule, analogous to simpler reinforcement learning problems (e.g., two-armed bandit tasks; Sutton and Barto, 2018). For computational speed, we arbitrarily discretized the interval into 100 ms time bins such that the agent selected among 40 potential responses (i.e., a multinomial representation). At trial i the agent chooses a response time in proportion to its expected value:

$$p[t(i+1) = j|V(i)] = \frac{\exp(V(i)_j/\beta)}{\sum_{\tau=0}^T \exp(V(i)_\tau/\beta)} \quad (6)$$

where j is a specific response time and the temperature parameter β controls value sensitivity such that choices become more stochastic and less value-sensitive at higher values.

Importantly, as detailed previously (Hallquist and Dombrovski, 2019), selective maintenance of frequently chosen and preferred actions performs better than other alternative models. Specifically, basis weights corresponding to a non-preferred, spatiotemporally distant action revert toward a prior in inverse proportion to the temporal generalization function:

$$w_b(i+1) = w_b(i) + e_b(i|t)\alpha[\text{reward}(t) - w_b(i)] - \gamma(1 - e_b(t))(w_b(i) - h) \quad (7)$$

where γ is a selective maintenance parameter between zero and one that scales the amount of decay towards a point h , which is taken to be zero here for parsimony, but could be replaced with an alternative prior expectation. Our primary fMRI analyses used signals derived from fitting the information-compressing RL model (eq.7) to participants' behavior.

We defined the information content of the learned value distribution as Shannon's entropy of the normalized basis weights (the trial index i is omitted for simplicity of notation):

$$H(\mathbf{w}) = - \sum_{b=1}^B w_b \log_{10}(w_b) \quad (8)$$

The SCEPTIC model was fit to individual choices using the empirical Variational Bayes Approach (Daunizeau et al., 2014). This method relied on a mixed-effects model where individual-level parameters were assumed to be sampled from a normal distribution. The group's summary statistics were then inferred from individual-level posterior parameter estimates using an iterative variational Bayes algorithm that alternates between estimating population parameters and the individual subject parameters. Over algorithm iterations, individual-level priors are minimized toward the inferred parent population distribution, as in standard multilevel regression. The SCEPTIC model was fit separately for Experiment 1 and Experiment 2.

For analysis of fMRI signals trial-by-trial, we used two variables from the SCEPTIC model, the maximum of $V(i)$, or V_{max} (Eq. 2), and the entropy $H(\mathbf{w})$ (Eq. 8).

FMRI ACQUISITION, PREPROCESSING AND GLM ANALYSIS – EXPERIMENT 1

We used a Siemens Tim Trio 3T scanner with the following T2*-optimized sequence: TR=1.0s, TE=30ms, flip angle = 55°, multiband acceleration factor = 5, voxel size = 2.3mm³. T1 anatomical scans for coregistration were acquired with voxel size = 1.0mm³, TR=2.2s, TE=3.58ms, and GRAPPA 2x acceleration. A gradient echo fieldmap TE=4.93ms and 7.39ms was acquired to correct for magnetic field inhomogeneity.

Anatomical scans were preprocessed as described previously (Dombrovski et al., 2020). Briefly, slice timing and motion coregistration were performed using NiPy in AFNI (v.19.0.26; Roche, 2011) and FMRIB in FSL (v6.0.1). Skull stripping was performed by masking low intensity voxels and via the ROBEX brain extraction algorithm (Iglesias et al., 2011). Functional images were aligned to T1 anatomical images using white matter segmentation and boundary-based registration (Greve and Fischl, 2009). Given that fast-TR sequences have reduced gray-white contrast, we improved the functional-structural coregistration by first aligning functional volumes to a single-band reference image with improved contrast. Functional scans were then transformed into MNI152 template space (FSL FNIRT) and smoothed using a 5mm FWHM kernel in FSL SUSAN either within the hippocampal mask (for hippocampus signals) or across the whole

brain. Head motion artifacts were reduced via an ICA analysis in FSL MELODIC, with the spatiotemporal components then passed to an ICA-AROMA classification algorithm (Pruim et al., 2015). Components that were classified as noise were regressed out of the signal using FSL regfilt (nonaggressive regression approach). Susceptibility artifacts were reduced using fieldmap correction using FSL FUGUE. An 0.008 Hz temporal high-pass filter removed slow-frequency signals (Woolrich et al., 2001). Voxel time series were renormalized to have a mean of 100 to allow similar scaling of voxelwise regression coefficients across run and subject.

Runs where framewise displacement exceeded 10% of total volumes had a framewise displacement of ≥ 0.9 mm, or subjects where peak displacement exceeded 5 mm at any point during the scan were excluded from all analyses. This led to a total of 549 usable runs, with 11 excluded from GLM analysis. There were no subjects for which both runs were excluded due to motion. No runs were excluded for deconvolved signal analyses (described below).

Voxelwise general linear models (GLM) for BOLD data were estimated in FSL (v6.0.1; S. M. Smith et al., 2004) using FSL FEAT (v6.0). All models included regressors for clock and feedback events, calculated by convolving boxcar regressors for clock and feedback events with a double-gamma canonical hemodynamic response function (HRF). In addition, parametric BOLD modulation by either V_{max} or entropy of the value distribution was modeled by convolving corresponding trial onset-aligned SCEPTIC-

derived signals with the HRF. Confound regressors from ventricles and cerebral white matter, as well as derivatives of these signals, were also included. At the second (subject) level, parameter estimates were combined from each run using a weighted fixed effects model in FEAT. Level 3 group analyses were then performed using the FSL FLAME 1+2 approach with automatic outlier deweighting (Woolrich, 2008). All group analyses included age and sex as covariates.

Familywise error correction for voxelwise statistical parametric maps was carried out using Probabilistic Threshold-free Cluster Enhancement method at $p < 0.05$ (Spisák et al., 2019).

FMRI ACQUISITION AND PREPROCESSING – EXPERIMENT 2

The imaging sessions were conducted at the University of Pittsburgh's Magnetic Resonance Research Center (RRID:SCR_025215). We used a Siemens Magnetom Prisma scanner with the following T2*-optimized sequence: TR=600ms, TE=27ms, flip angle = 45°, multiband acceleration factor = 5, voxel size = 3.1mm³. T1 anatomical scans for coregistration were acquired with voxel size = 1.0mm³, TR=2.3s, TE=3.35ms, and GRAPPA 2x acceleration. A gradient echo fieldmap TE=4.47ms and 6.93ms was acquired to correct for magnetic field inhomogeneity.

The fMRI data were then preprocessed using FMRIPREP version 20.1.1 (Roche, 2011), a Nipype-based (Gorgolewski et al., 2011) tool. Each T1w (T1-weighted) volume was corrected for INU (intensity non-uniformity) using N4BiasFieldCorrection v2.1.0 (Tustison et al., 2010) and skull-stripped using antsBrainExtraction.sh v2.1.0 (using the OASIS template). Brain surfaces were reconstructed using recon-all from FreeSurfer v6.0.1 (Dale et al., 1999) and the brain mask estimated previously was refined with a custom variation of the method to reconcile ANTs-derived and FreeSurfer-derived segmentations of the cortical gray-matter of Mindboggle (Klein et al., 2017). Spatial normalization to the ICBM 152 Nonlinear Asymmetrical template version 2009c (Fonov et al., 2009) was performed through nonlinear registration with the antsRegistration tool of ANTs v2.1.0 (Avants et al., 2008) using brain-extracted versions of both T1w volume and template. Brain tissue segmentation of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), white-matter (WM) and gray-matter (GM) was performed on the brain-extracted T1w using fast FSL v5.0.9 (Zhang et al., 2001).

Functional data was slice-time corrected using 3dTshift from AFNI v16.2.07 (Cox, 1996) and motion corrected using mcflirt (FSL v5.0.9; Jenkinson et al., 2002). Distortion correction was performed using fieldmaps processed with fugue (Jenkinson, 2003). This was followed by co-registration to the corresponding T1w using boundary-based registration (Greve and Fischl, 2009) with six degrees of freedom, using bbregister (FreeSurfer v6.0.1). Motion correcting transformations, field distortion correcting warp, BOLD-to-T1w transformation and T1w-to-template (MNI) warp were concatenated and

applied in a single step using antsApplyTransforms (ANTs v2.1.0) using Lanczos interpolation.

Frame-wise displacement (Power et al., 2014) was calculated for each functional run using the implementation of Nipype. ICA-based Automatic Removal Of Motion Artifacts (AROMA) was used to generate non-aggressive noise regressors (Pruim et al., 2015). Components identified as noise were regressed out of the data using FSL regfilt (non-aggressive regression approach). ICA-AROMA has performed very well in head-to-head comparisons of alternative strategies for reducing head motion artifacts (Ciric et al., 2017). We then applied a .008 Hz temporal high-pass filter to remove slow frequency signal changes (Woolrich et al., 2001); the same filter was applied to all regressors in MEDuSA analyses (see below). Finally, we renormalized each voxel time series to have a mean of 100 to provide similar scaling of voxelwise regression coefficients across runs and participants.

Many internal operations of FMRIPREP use Nilearn (Abraham et al., 2014) principally within the BOLD-processing workflow.

MULTILEVEL EVENT-RELATED DECONVOLVED SIGNAL ANALYSIS (MEDuSA)

The standard GLM approach using canonical HRFs is useful for testing hypotheses about session-level linear associations between model-based signals and regional

activity. However, GLMs assume 1) that the correct amplitude and duration of task-related neural signals are specified in the model; and 2) that a canonical HRF describes BOLD activity associated with a model-based signal. In addition, GLMs do not allow the experimenter to probe the time courses of signals before or after trial-level events of interest. Therefore, we employed Multilevel Event-related Deconvolved Signal Analysis (MEDuSA), which operates through voxelwise deconvolution of BOLD activity to functionally align the signal to the event of interest (Dombrovski et al., 2020). In addition, MEDuSA operates within a multilevel framework, providing the experimenter with an appropriate statistical analysis of hierarchically structured data. We briefly outline the MEDuSA pipeline below.

After first applying the preprocessing pipelines described above, a leading hemodynamic deconvolution algorithm was applied voxelwise across the entire run to estimate neural population activity (Bush and Cisler, 2013). Then, the deconvolved signal was extracted from -4s to +4s around trial onset. Linear interpolation was performed to align the deconvolved data onto a TR-consistent grid (1.0s and 0.6s, respectively, for studies 1 and 2). This operation merely resampled the data and did not introduce additional information into the signal. Activity estimates that fell into subsequent trials were censored to ensure analyses only included the time within the current trial. As our behavioral data had a nested structure (trials nested within run, nested within subject), we used multilevel regression models to compute effects. Multilevel models were estimated using restricted maximum likelihood in the *lme4* package (Bates et al., 2015) in R 4.2.1 (R Core Team, 2021). Estimated *p* values for

predictors in the models were computed using Wald chi-square tests and degrees of freedom were based on the Kenward-Roger approximation.

To examine entropy and V_{max} modulation of vPFC and hippocampus, deconvolved signal in each structure was regressed on entropy and value using a multilevel regression framework. In addition, these analyses included several control variables: prior ITI, current response time, scaled inverted (negative) trial number, outcome, age and gender. Random intercepts of run nested within subject were used, and separate models were computed at each time point in the within-trial grid (-4s to +4s) and each structure. MEDuSA can also be used to estimate functional connectivity between different regions by including one region as an independent variable in a regression analysis predicting activity in another region. Thus, for functional connectivity MEDuSA analyses, multilevel models included vPFC deconvolved signal as the dependent variable and main effects and interactions of within-run change in aligned hippocampal activity and entropy and V_{max} (as well as several confound regressors) as independent variables. In all analyses, false-discovery rate multiple comparison was applied (Benjamini and Yekutieli, 2001). Additionally, no runs were removed due to framewise displacement, as in the last step of preprocessing for Experiment 1 GLMs.

For the analysis in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 (Hippocampal signal predicting vPFC activity and Effects on explore/exploit), for both Experiment 1 and 2, activity in the hippocampus was z-scored within subject and run (8 runs in Experiment 1, and 2 runs in Experiment

2) to emphasize relative activity change within a run. The average hippocampal activity for each subject and run was regressed out as a nuisance effect in the multi-level analysis, which controls for BOLD quality effects and conflation of high global signal with the desired functional connectivity signal. The goal of this approach was to capture trial-level fluctuations in hippocampal activity.

To examine how neural activity predicted behavior, the relationship between entropy or and network activity for each participant was extracted from random (participant-varying) effects estimates of the vPFC neural activity models. $x_{H(w)}x_{HC}$ case where HC is hippocampal activity and $H(w)$ is entropy from Eq. 8. The outcome term Y_{vPFC} is computed for each subject s and trial t . The random slope of the interaction of hippocampal activity with entropy term for each subject is u_s which gives the subject-level deviation of the regression coefficient from the group regression coefficient γ_0 (Eq. 9). u_s is the key variable we use as a moderator for model-derived effects on behavior. The overall intercept is γ_0 , and the level 2 regression intercepts are u_{0s} . The level 1 residual variance is r_{st} .

$$Y_{vPFC\ st} = \gamma_0 + (\gamma_t + u_s)x_{H(w)_t}x_{HC_t} + u_{0s} + r_{st} \quad (9)$$

435 This subject-level random effect from Eq. 9, u_s , was then averaged across the time
 436 window and used as a fixed effect to predict upcoming participant response times in a
 437 second multilevel model with the lagged response time (exploration term; Eq. 10) or the
 438 lagged response time of the V_{max} ($RT_{V_{max}}$, exploitation term). See Fig. 2D for intuition
 439 on how correlations between lagged RT with current RT and lagged $RT_{V_{max}}$ with current
 440 RT translate into exploration and exploitation. For clarity that it is a fixed effect
 441 predicting $Y_{RT\ t}$ in Eq. 10, we rename $u_s = x_s$. $x_{RT(t-1)_t}$ is the lagged RT and x_R is the
 442 last outcome, which is a binary variable (reward or omission). The coefficients reported
 443 in Fig. 6 represent $Y_{RT\ t}$ from Eq. 10, estimated $x_s = \pm 1$ standard deviations from the
 444 mean using a simple slopes analysis (carried out using the *emtrends* package in R).
 445 The significant p_{FDR} values reported in the text are derived from main effects of the
 446 multilevel model.

$$Y_{RT\ t} = \gamma_0 + u_{0s} + \gamma_t^1 x_s x_{RT(t-1)_t} x_{R_t} + \gamma_t^2 x_s x_{RT_{V_{max}}(t-1)_t} + r_{st} \quad (10)$$

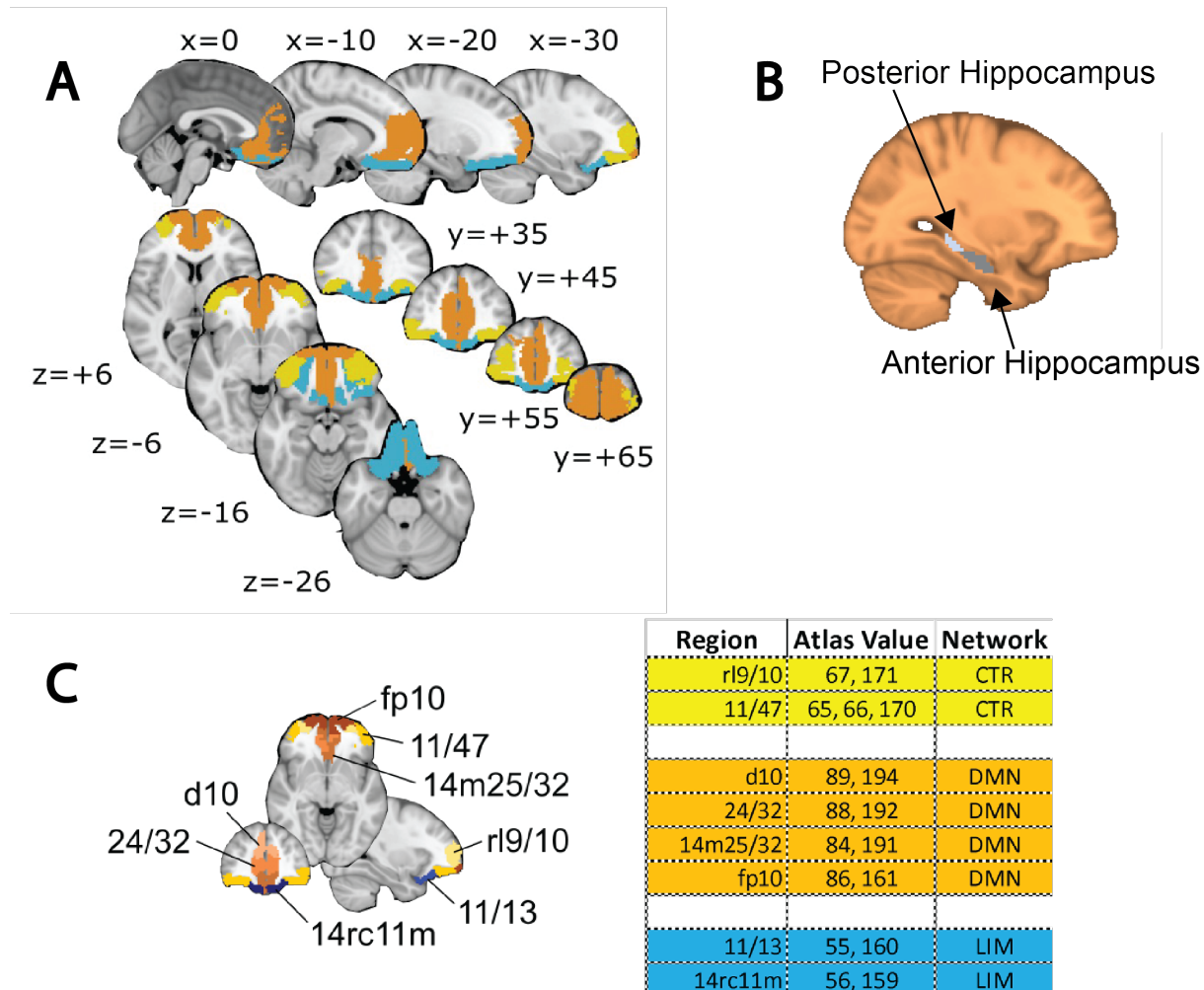


Fig. 1: vPFC mask and hippocampus mask. **A.** The vPFC mask consists of 17 regions grouped into 3 resting-state functional networks as in Yeo et al., 2011, the Default Mode Network (DMN; orange), the Control Network (CTR; yellow), and the Limbic Network (LIM; blue). **B.** The bilateral hippocampal mask is from the Harvard-Oxford subcortical atlas. The posterior 1/3 of the hippocampus was grouped into the Posterior Hippocampus region (PH; light gray) and the anterior 2/3 of the hippocampus was grouped into the Anterior Hippocampus region (AH; dark gray). **C.** The vPFC mask is comprised of 17 parcels of the Schaefer 2018 mask derived from resting state functional connectivity. We labeled these parcels in AFNI (Cox, 1996) based on

approximate overlap with the Eickhoff-Zilles Cytoarchitectonic MPM atlas 2.2. Because adjacent regions of the DMN in vPFC included what is clearly dorsal PFC, we included parcels d10 (peach shading), although it is not strictly vPFC. The vPFC mask was grouped by rough left-right symmetry into 8 distinct groups. Models were run separately with each region as a dependent variable to complement the main analyses separating vPFC into three resting state networks (Frontoparietal Control Network - CTR; yellow, Default Mode Network - DMN; orange, and Limbic Network - LIM, blue) in the 7-network solution. Since the parcellation is not strictly symmetric, one of the groups is not a pair (11/47).

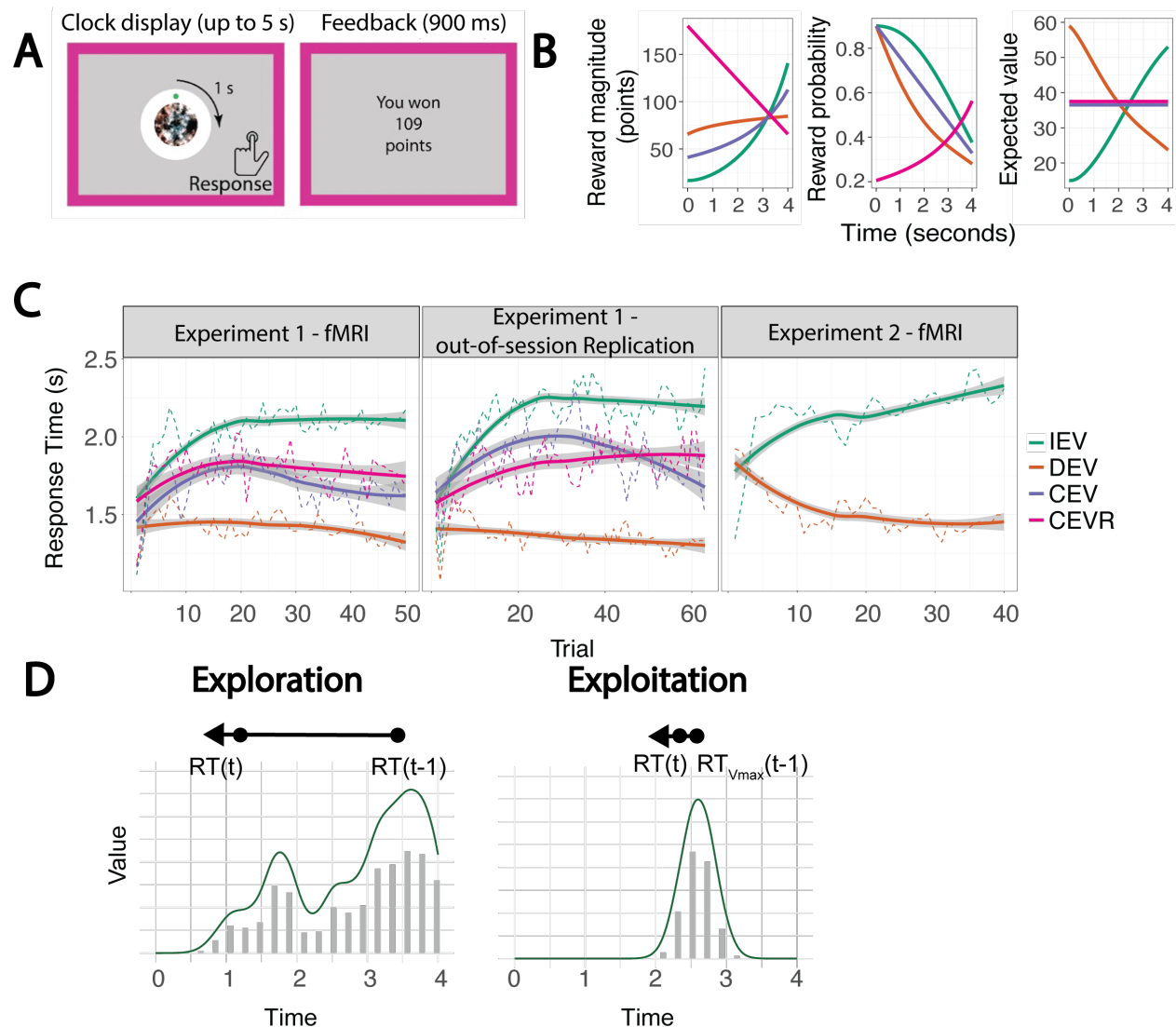


Fig. 2 Clock task and operationalizing exploration vs. exploitation. **A.** Each trial on the clock task begins with a green dot that rotates clockwise from the 12 o'clock position around a pseudo-clock face with a central image (here a phase-scrambled image) in 4s (Experiment 1) or 5s (Experiment 2). On each trial, participants press a button to stop the green dot to earn points in each time-varying contingency. Pressing the button immediately triggers 900ms of feedback where the reward associated with that choice is displayed. **B.** Over the course of a session, the participant learns about the underlying reward contingencies and adjusts their responses accordingly. There are 4

contingencies on the clock task: increasing expected value (IEV, green), decreasing expected value (DEV, orange), constant expected value (CEV, blue) and constant expected value reversed (CEVR, pink). During IEV trials (green) subjects learn that responding later in the interval results in a higher overall payoff (greater magnitude but lower probability). In CEV (blue) and CEVR (magenta) trials, the expected value (reward probability times reward magnitude) is constant across the interval. In DEV (orange) trials, subjects learn that responding earlier in the interval results in a higher overall payoff (higher probability and marginally lower magnitude). **C)** Average behavior on the clock task in Experiment 1 (left panel), the out-of-session Replication session of Experiment 1 (middle panel) and Experiment 2 (right panel). The average response time of subjects in IEV (green) increases, indicating that subjects learn to respond later. During DEV trials (orange) subjects learn to respond earlier in the interval with shorter RTs. Responses in the Average responses in the CEV and CEVR conditions lie in between the IEV and DEV conditions. In Experiment 2, the CEV and CEVR conditions were omitted and there were unsigned reversals between IEV and DEV every 40 trials. **D)** On this task, shifts toward the best-known option (RT_{Vmax}) are interpreted as exploitative (right panel) whereas other shifts in RT (left panel) are interpreted as exploration. Note that the left panel has a more complex value distribution (“landscape”) which would result in a higher entropy, whereas the right panel has a single prominent value peak which would result in a lower entropy.

Results

VPFC RESPONSE TO ENTROPY OF THE VALUE FUNCTION

Entropy is an emergent property that captures the complexity of the spatially structured value function on a given trial: higher entropy indicates many smaller local value maxima (complex value landscape) and lower entropy typically indicates one prominent global value maximum (simple value landscape; Eq. 8). The higher the value entropy, the more global uncertainty there is about the location of the best option. In exploratory whole-brain voxelwise GLM analyses of Experiment 1 we mapped responses to the entropy of the value function. A cluster responsive to low value entropy in right vPFC (Fig. 3A, black arrow; $p_{\text{FDR}} < 0.05$) was centered on the DMN region 24/32, extending into fp10.

To investigate regional responses offline (during the inter-trial interval) vs. online (during navigation and choice) we aligned deconvolved BOLD responses to trial onset and examined the within-trial temporal dynamics (Dombrovski et al., 2020). Extending the GLM results, this analysis revealed divergent representations in DMN vs. CTR and no detectable response in LIM (Fig. 3B). DMN subregions responded positively to lower value entropy (orange, Fig. 3B, $p_{\text{FDR}} < 0.001$) while CTR subregions responded positively to higher value entropy (yellow, Fig. 3B; $p_{\text{FDR}} < 0.05$). In Experiment 2, we replicated the findings of low value entropy responses in DMN (orange, Fig. 3C, 5 points $p_{\text{FDR}} < 0.001$) and additionally detected similar responses in LIM (blue, Fig. 3C, $p_{\text{FDR}} < 0.01$). High entropy responses in CTR did not replicate in Experiment 2.

521

522 We then examined the specific contributions of each of the 17 subregions across the
 523 three networks (Fig. 1C) derived from the 200 subregion parcellation of Yeo and
 524 Schaefer (Schaefer et al., 2018; see Methods). This analysis of Experiment 1 revealed
 525 similar responses to low value entropy across DMN subregions 14m25/32 (orange, Fig.
 526 3D; $p_{FDR} < 0.05$), fp10 ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$), 24/32 ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$) and d10 ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$ between -
 527 1 and 2s). Responses in CTR were more heterogeneous, with dorsal frontopolar region
 528 rl9/10 but not orbitofrontal 11/47 responding to higher entropy (yellow, Fig. 3D; 3
 529 timepoints at $p_{FDR} < 0.05$). In LIM, a response to low value entropy was observed only
 530 at a single timepoint in region 11/13.

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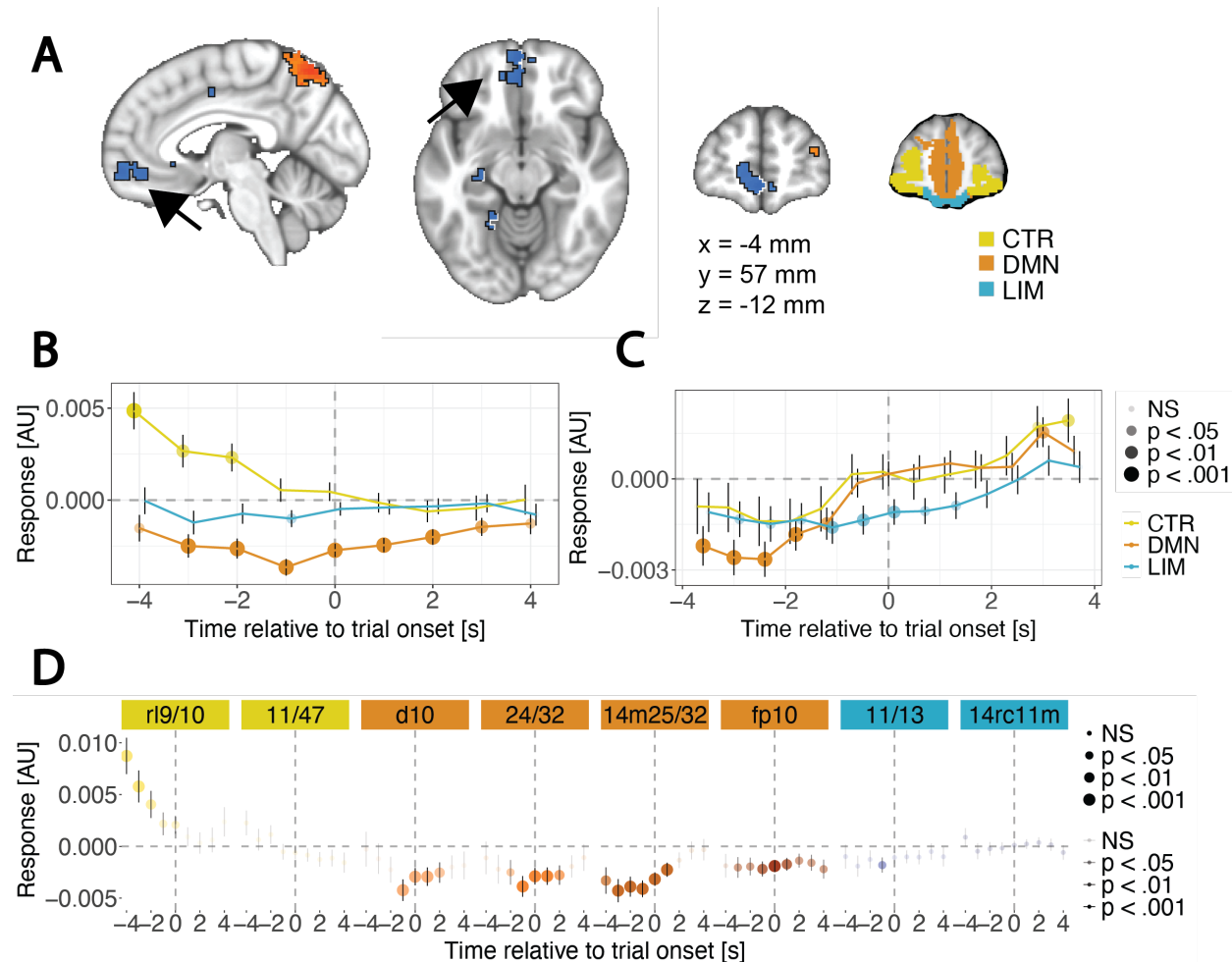


Fig. 3: Responses of the vPFC to value function entropy signals. **A.** A whole-brain GLM with a parametric entropy regressor centered on trial onset revealed activation in vPFC (black arrow; DMN region 24/32 extending into fp10). **B.** Entropy was used as a predictor of deconvolved vPFC activity grouped by resting-state network using the MEDuSA method. The DMN (orange) increased activity on lower-value entropy trials, while the CTR (yellow) network increased its activity (FDR-adjusted p-values indicated via opacity and marker size). Timepoints < 0 s represent the inter-trial interval beginning at the offset of previous trial (variable), excluding any volumes from the previous trial. **C.** DMN decreases in response to high entropy (orange) was replicated in Experiment

2. The increased activity of CTR to entropy was observed at a different segment of the window, and an additional strong response to low entropy in LIM was observed. **D.** All regions in the DMN showed response to low value entropy. Only the rI9/10 sub-region of the CTR network increased its activity to higher value entropy.

VPFC RESPONSE TO HIGHEST EXPECTED VALUE (V_{max})

While the preceding analysis focused on the global landscape of the value function, scalar expected value signals are commonly reported in vPFC (Hare et al., 2008; Bartra et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2014; Lopez-Gamundi et al., 2021; Knudsen and Wallis, 2022). Thus, to relate our observations to more traditional scalar value analyses of discrete choice tasks, we examined responses to the model-derived expected value of the best option (V_{max} , Eq. 2, scaled within run to minimize global signal and other run- and subject-level confounds). Our whole-brain voxelwise GLM analysis of Experiment 1 revealed V_{max} responses in prefrontal DMN (axial slice, region 24/32; Fig. 4A). Significant clusters also included left ventromedial PFC and hippocampus (Table 1).

As above, we followed up by examining within-trial time courses across regions using MEDuSA analyses aligned to trial onset. DMN and LIM vPFC networks responded positively to V_{max} (Fig. 4B; DMN: orange line, $p_{FDR} < 0.001$; LIM: blue line, $p_{FDR} < 0.05$) and this pattern replicated in Experiment 2 (Fig. 4C). Responses in CTR were absent in Experiment 1 (Fig. 4B, yellow line) and positive in Experiment 2 (Fig. 4C, yellow line).

Among vPFC subregions in Experiment 1 (Fig. 5D), DMN 14m25/32 responded most robustly to V_{max} ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$). Both LIM subregions 11/3 ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$) and 14rc11m ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$) displayed positive responses. CTR regions displayed divergent responses to V_{max} with region 11/47 responding to positive signals ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$) and region r19/10 responding to negative value signals ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$).

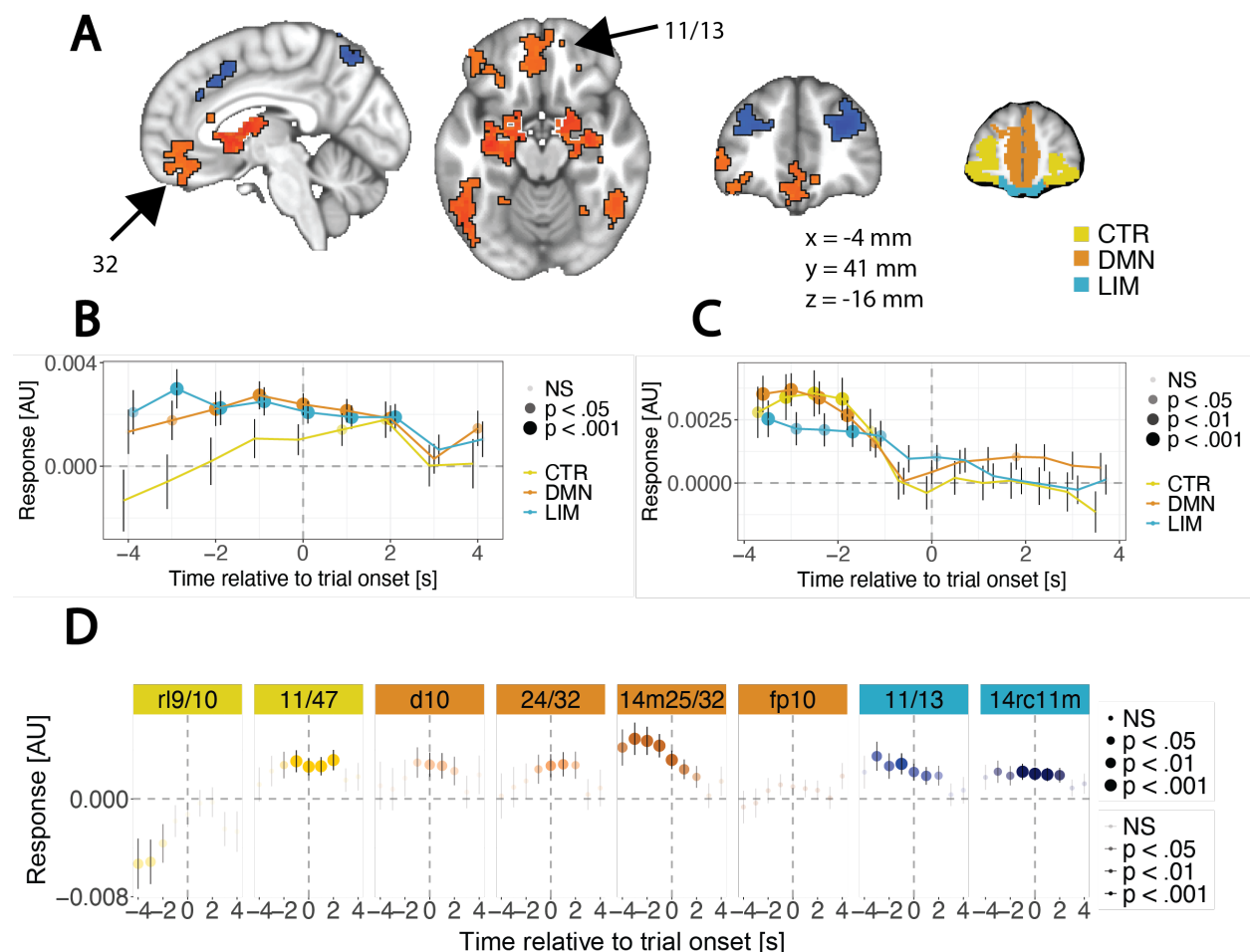


Fig. 4: Responses of the vPFC to model-predicted value maximum (V_{max}) signals.

A. A whole-brain GLM with a parametric value maximum regressor centered on trial

onset revealed significant activation at $p_{FDR} < 0.05$ in both LIM (axial slice arrow, region 11/13) and DMN network (sagittal slice arrow, multiple regions centered on region 32) visible in the axial slice. **B.** Model-derived V_{max} was used as a predictor of deconvolved vPFC activity grouped by network using the MEDuSA method. DMN and LIM showed strong responses to scalar value maximum signals. **C.** We replicated our main result in a separate Experiment. DMN ($p_{FDR} < 0.01$) and LIM ($p_{FDR} < 0.05$) increased activity to higher value maxima, but these values occurred earlier in the window than in Experiment 1. **D.** V_{max} predicted vPFC activity grouped by region in Experiment 1. In the DMN, region 14m25/32 responded strongly with regions 24/32 and d10 responding less prominently. Both LIM regions responded strongly to value signals. In the CTR network, only region 11/47 increased activity to higher V_{max} , while region rl9/10 increased in response to lower model-derived V_{max} .

		MNI Coordinates of Peak Activity		
	N voxels	X	Y	Z
Areas Sensitive to High Global Value Maxima (V_{max})				
bilateral hippocampus, left insula, thalamus	1445	32.8	12.4	-18.2
Left inferior temporal gyrus (Area PH and fusiform face complex)	507	48.9	60.7	-11.3
Left ventromedial prefrontal cortex (areas 10, 24, 32)	190	9.8	-38.2	-15.9
Right inferior temporal gyrus (Areas PH, TE2)	167	-47.7	56.1	-15.9
Left inferior frontal gyrus (IFS and area 45)	130	46.6	-35.9	2.5
Areas Sensitive to Low Global Value Maxima (V_{max})				
Bilateral superior frontal gyrus (Area 6)	2031	-24.7	7.8	50.8
Bilateral medial intraparietal area (IPA) and Lateal Area 7P	1397	-20.1	67.6	55.4
Right middle frontal gyrus (area 46)	552	-29.3	-40.5	25.5

Table 1: Whole-brain GLM clusters significantly activated by the global value maximum in Experiment 1. Clusters of voxels (voxel size = 2.3mm³) significantly

modulated by model-derived value maxima (V_{max}) in whole-brain analyses of Experiment 1. Note: Clusters of significant voxels were identified based on a voxelwise threshold of $p < 0.001$, with familywise error correction of $p < 0.05$. Clusters relevant to the present study are in bold.

HIPPOCAMPAL VALUE RESPONSE AND HIPPOCAMPAL-vPFC CONNECTIVITY

We previously reported that the hippocampus, particularly its anterior divisions, responded to low-entropy, easy-to-exploit value landscapes, and this response scaled with behavioral exploitation (Dombrovski et al., 2020). Here, we further consider spatiotemporal patterns of hippocampal activity and connectivity with vPFC, including how connectivity is modulated by entropy and V_{max} , processes that control the explore-exploit balance.

In whole-brain GLM (Table 1) and deconvolved signal analyses aligned to trial onset (Fig. 5A) both the anterior and posterior hippocampus responded to V_{max} (all $p_{FDR} < 0.001$). This pattern was strongly replicated in Experiment 2 (Fig. 5B).

To assess functional connectivity, we regressed vPFC activity on contemporaneous hippocampal activity (i.e., at the same moment within the trial). In Experiment 1, AH (dark gray panel) was more strongly functionally coupled to DMN compared to PH (light gray panel), and a clear gradient of hippocampal coupling was observed with DMN >

CTR > LIM (Fig. 4C). In Experiment 2, results were qualitatively similar, though functional coupling between hippocampus and vPFC-CTR increased following trial onset (Fig. 6D).

Activity patterns (Fig. 4B-C) led us to expect stronger AH-DMN connectivity during periods of low entropy. Contrary to this expectation, hippocampal-DMN functional coupling was increased during periods of higher entropy in both AH (dark gray) and PH in both experiments (light gray; Fig. 5E-F). Further, in Experiment 2 only, connectivity modulation was seen only during the online portion of the task, post trial onset and both CTR- and LIM-hippocampal connectivity also scaled up with entropy (Fig. 5F). V_{max} modulated hippocampal connectivity in a similar pattern across both experiments (Fig. 5G-H).

In summary, the highest levels of connectivity with hippocampus were seen in prefrontal DMN regions, in anterior hippocampus, and when decisions were difficult, as indicated by higher entropy or lower V_{max} .

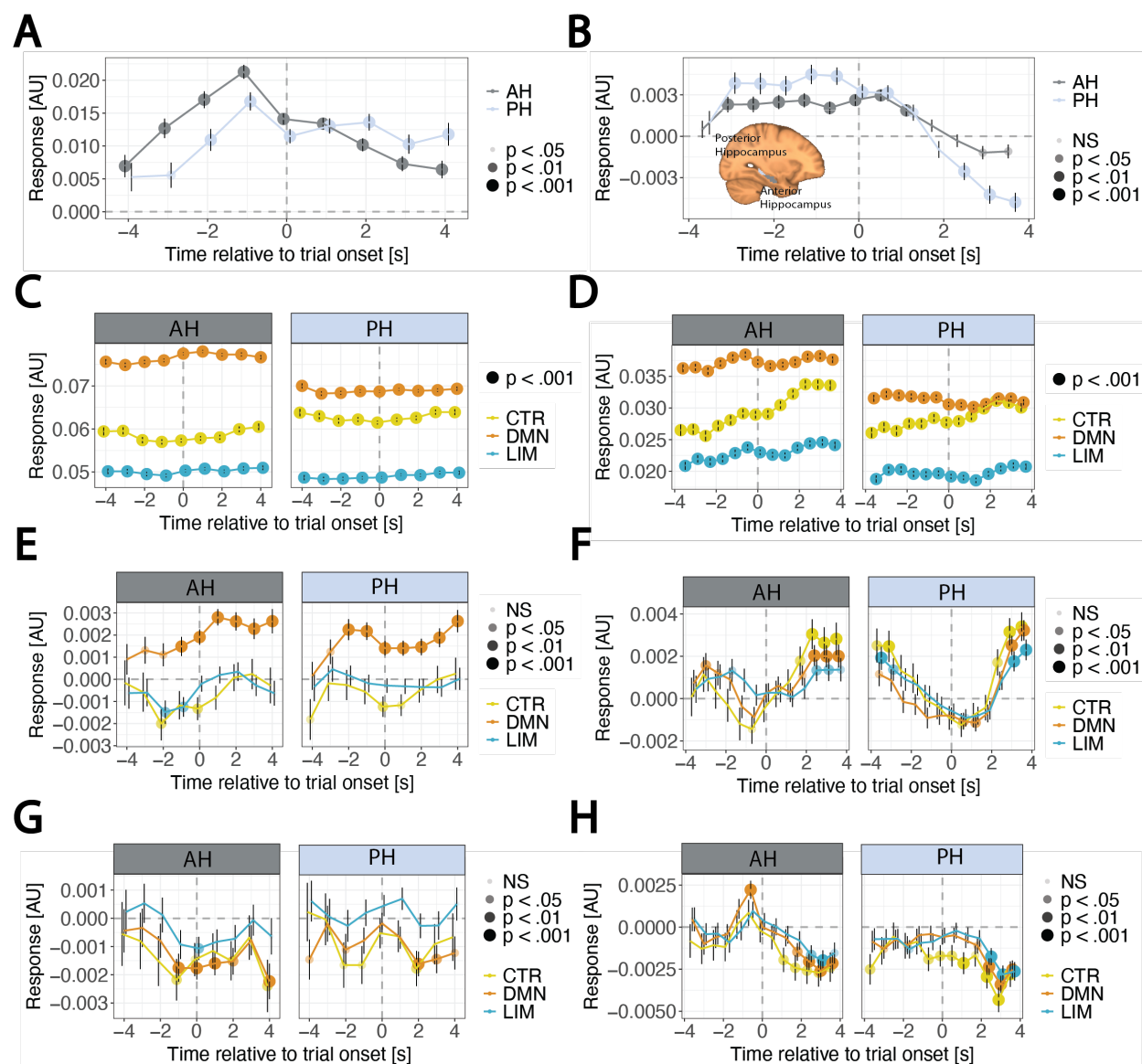


Fig. 5: Hippocampus responds to V_{max} and is selectively synchronized with DMN-vPFC, particularly during periods of higher entropy. **A.** Model-derived V_{max} was used as a predictor of deconvolved hippocampal activity in anterior (dark grey) and posterior (light grey) hippocampus using the MEDuSA method. Both hippocampal subregions responded to V_{max} . **B.** V_{max} responses in hippocampus replicated out-of-sample in Experiment 2. **C.** Hippocampal activity was averaged within region (AH or PH), scaled within subject and run, and then used as a regressor to predict vPFC activity in

Experiment 1. AH had higher connectivity with DMN compared to PH. Connectivity generally followed a gradient of DMN > CTR > LIM. **D.** Hippocampal activity was used as a regressor to predict vPFC activity in Experiment 2 following the same procedure. Overall, hippocampal-vPFC connectivity was diminished, but the same gradient of DMN > CTR > LIM remained and AH connectivity was greater than PH connectivity. **E.** Interacting hippocampal signals with entropy for Experiment 1 suggests that DMN is most strongly influenced by hippocampus at times when entropy is higher. **F.** Anterior Hippocampal (AH) activity affects DMN activity more strongly when entropy is higher in Experiment 2 following trial onset, replicating the results out-of-sample. In addition, in this population, hippocampal activity affects CTR more strongly when entropy is higher. **G.** Interacting hippocampal signals with V_{max} in Experiment 1 suggests that DMN is most strongly influenced by anterior hippocampus at times when V_{max} is lower. **H.** In Experiment 2, anterior hippocampus influences DMN more strongly during trials when V_{max} is lower, replicating this finding out-of-sample. In addition, in Experiment 2, the entire vPFC is synched with hippocampus activity at lower V_{max} , notably during a later time in the window.

HIPPOCAMPAL-vPFC INTERACTIONS AND BEHAVIORAL EXPLORATION

Normatively, high entropy of the value function favors exploration. Surges in hippocampal-prefrontal DMN connectivity during difficult high-entropy and low-value epochs could thus support behavioral exploration, which we previously found to be related to posterior hippocampal learning signals (Dombrovski et al., 2020). Hence, we examined whether value-related increases in PH-prefrontal DMN connectivity were

selectively related to exploration. The temporal resolution of fMRI is insufficient for testing momentary connectivity-behavior relationships, so we used session-level estimates of connectivity modulation to predict behavioral exploration both within-session and out-of-session. We derived session-level estimates of connectivity modulation from the models described above (Eq. 9, Fig. 3, Fig. 5) by extracting individual random slopes for the hippocampal response-by-entropy interaction effect on prefrontal activity and averaged them across timepoints within trial to reduce multiple comparisons. These predictors, one for each subject and each region, were then entered into the behavioral model predicting exploration (Eq. 10). As in previous studies, exploration of the continuous space was measured by large departures from a previous response (“RT swings”, Fig. 2D, left panel (Badre et al., 2012; Hallquist and Dombrovski, 2019; Hallquist et al., 2023). While this analysis controlled for long-term value (exploitation) effects, one must also account for the strong win-stay/lose-shift response tendency prominent in humans and other species (Zhang et al., 2023; Randall and Zentall, 1997). Thus, post-reward RT swings provide a purer measure of exploration as defined in RL.

Indeed, stronger modulation of PH-DMN and PH-LIM connectivity by value entropy scaled with exploratory post-reward RT swings (Fig. 6A) in-session (Experiment 1, $p_{FDR} < 10^{-5}$), out-of-session (MEG replication, $p_{FDR} = 0.03$) and out-of-sample (Experiment 2, $p_{FDR} < 10^{-5}$). Main effects were significant for LIM-PH in Experiment 1 ($p_{FDR} = 2.3e-19$), Experiment 1 out-of-session MEG replication ($p_{FDR} = 1.2e-15$), and Experiment 2 ($p_{FDR} = 6.7e-4$). Recall that, as Fig. 5E-F illustrates, only PH-DMN, but not PH-LIM

connectivity was consistently modulated by entropy across entire samples, qualifying the interpretation of PH-LIM interaction behavioral correlates. Significant post-hoc contrasts are indicated by non-overlapping confidence intervals and consistent effects across all three experimental datasets are indicated by higher opacity. Here, p-values with false discovery rate correction are reported from the entropy connectivity random slope by lagged RT by last outcome term ($\gamma_t^1 x_s x_{RT(t-1)_t} x_{R_t}$ in Eq. 10).

To ascertain the anatomical specificity of the relationship between PH-DMN connectivity and exploration, we repeated the above analysis for AH-vPFC connectivity (Fig. 6B). While modulation of AH-DMN by value entropy was not related to win-shift exploration, it predicted smaller lose-shifts. Further, stronger modulation of AH-LIM connectivity by value entropy predicted win-shift and, to a lesser degree, lose-shift responses.

Modulation of hippocampal-vPFC connectivity by scalar V_{max} showed largely non-significant exploitation effects (not reported) suggesting altogether that the critical hippocampal-vPFC interactions signal a spatially structured value map and not merely a scalar V_{max} .

In summary, as suggested by connectivity analyses (Fig. 5E, F), value-related PH-DMN scaled with behavioral exploration. Unexpectedly, the same was true for PH-LIM and AH-LIM interactions.

703

704 *HIPPOCAMPAL-vPFC INTERACTIONS AND BEHAVIORAL EXPLOITATION*

705 Our prior findings (Dombrovski et al., 2020) led us to predict that value-related DMN and
 706 LIM activity and connectivity with AH would scale with behavioral exploitation. However,
 707 we failed to find a replicable general pattern, observing instead only one or the other
 708 study correlated with activation. Stronger negative entropy modulation of DMN activity
 709 scaled with behavioral exploitation in Experiment 1 ($p_{\text{FDR}} = 0.01$, Figure 6C), replicating
 710 out-of-session replication ($p_{\text{FDR}} = 0.01$), but not out-of-sample ($p_{\text{FDR}} = 0.64$). We found
 711 no evidence specifically implicating AH vs. PH prefrontal connectivity in exploitation
 712 using these analyses. P-values with false discovery rate correction are reported from
 713 the entropy connectivity random slope by lagged $\text{RT}_{V_{\text{max}}}$ term ($\gamma_t^2 x_s x_{\text{RT}_{V_{\text{max}}}(t-1)_t}$ in Eq.
 714 10).

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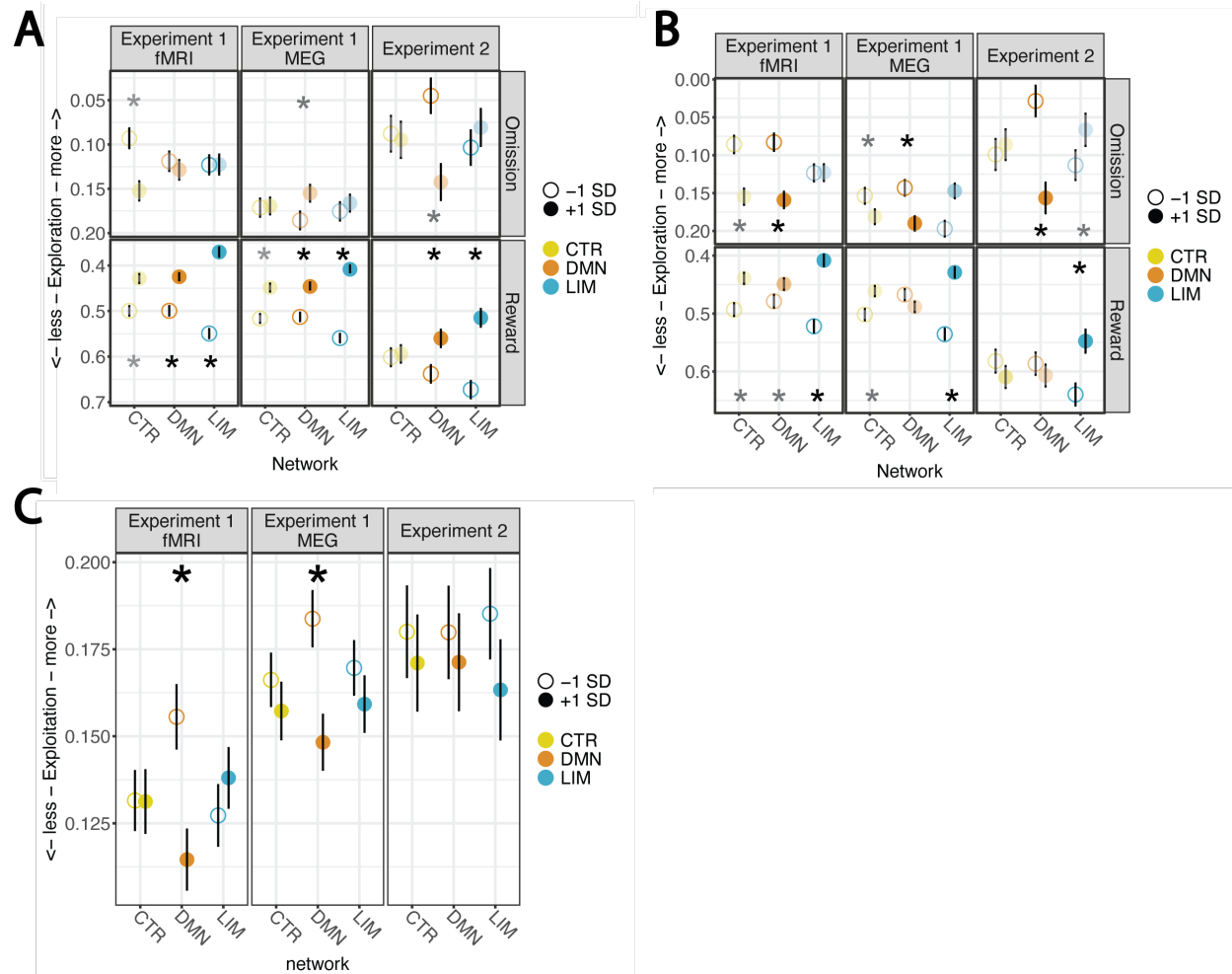


Fig. 6: Entropy modulation of vPFC-HC connectivity predicts exploration. The subject-level effects of entropy modulation of vPFC-hippocampus connectivity that predict exploratory behavior of subjects is shown for three datasets. Consistent effect directions across all three datasets are indicated by colored boxes, while significant main effects are indicated by asterisks (p_{FDR} reported in text). Higher entropy (one standard deviation above the mean) is indicated by filled colored circles, while lower entropy (one standard deviation below the mean) is indicated by open circles. Note that the y-axes are reversed such that lower autocorrelation between lagged RT and upcoming RT are higher (more Exploration is indicated by lower autocorrelation). For

panels A and B, effects that are consistent across all three Experiments are indicated with full opacity, while those that do not replicate are indicated with partial opacity. **A.** When entropy modulation of DMN- and LIM- posterior hippocampal connectivity was higher following reward on the prior trial, subjects engaged in more exploratory behaviors. This win-shift behavior had a significant main effect across all three datasets; thus, we focus on this in the text and discussion. **B.** When entropy modulation of DMN-anterior hippocampus activity was higher following omissions on the prior trial, subjects tended to explore less. This lose-stay behavior was significant across all three datasets. Additionally, when entropy modulation of LIM-anterior hippocampus activity was higher following rewards, subjects engaged in more exploration. This win-shift behavior was significant in Experiment 1 and out-of-session MEG replication session of Experiment 1, but showed a non-significant trend in Experiment 2. **C.** The subject-level effects of entropy modulation of vPFC that predict exploitative behavior of subjects is shown for three datasets. Higher entropy (one standard deviation above the mean) is indicated by filled colored circles, while lower entropy (one standard deviation below the mean) is indicated by open circles. In Experiment 1 and the out-of-session MEG replication session of Experiment 1, lower entropy modulation of DMN predicts exploitation towards the RT_{Vmax} .

SENSITIVITY ANALYSES

Since we assigned the right fp10 region to DMN instead of LIM, we verified that this departure from the previously published parcellation (Thomas Yeo et al., 2011) did not change our results. Reassigning right fp10 back to LIM, findings of DMN activity

modulation by low value entropy (Fig. 4B) were qualitatively unchanged (Fig. 7A), as were those for higher V_{\max} (Fig. 3B, Fig. 7B). Similarly, connectivity patterns reported in Fig. 5C remained qualitatively unchanged (Fig. 7C) and modulation of connectivity by entropy (Fig. 5E) remained qualitatively unchanged (Fig. 7D).

Finally, the literature is divided on whether the temporal resolution of fMRI is sufficient for judging the direction of effective connectivity (Barnett and Seth, 2017; Stokes and Purdon, 2017). Still, to ensure that our connectivity results were not explained by temporally slower influences of one region on the other, we repeated our analyses of vPFC-hippocampal connectivity, including both concurrent and *lagged* (by one TR) hippocampal activity. The specific pattern of connectivity reported in Fig. 5C was disrupted (Fig. 7E), but the general significance of connectivity across the time window held. When interacting this divergent pattern of lagged connectivity modulation by value entropy (Fig. 5E vs. Fig. 7F), the general pattern of higher connectivity with DMN during higher value entropy held.

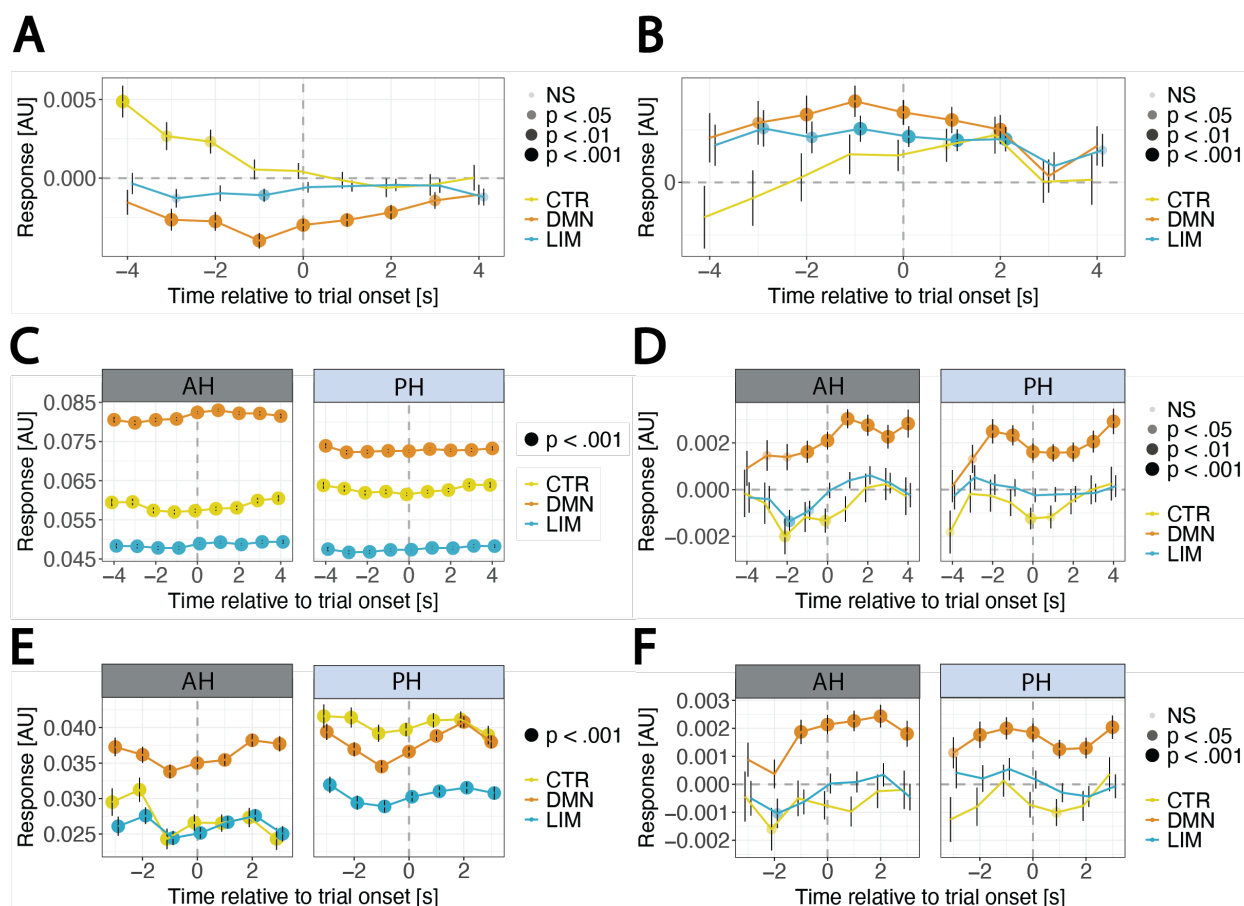


Fig. 7 Sensitivity Analyses. In the original 300 parcel, 7 network classification (Schaefer et al., 2018), the region we labeled ‘right fp10’ was assigned to the LIM network instead of the DMN. Here, we check whether re-assigning this parcel to LIM does not alter our major conclusions. **A.** Fig. 3B remains qualitatively unchanged (note a single LIM timepoint at -1s now survives correction at $p_{FDR} < 0.05$) when reassigning right fp10 from DMN to LIM. **B.** Fig. 4B remains qualitatively unchanged (note a slightly smaller effect of V_{max} on LIM) when reassigning right fp10 from DMN to LIM. **C.** In our functional connectivity model, LIM network correlations with AH were slightly increased and DMN network connectivity with AH was slightly decreased when fp10 was assigned to LIM (compare to Fig. 5C). **D.** Fig. 5E remains qualitatively unchanged after the fp10

parcel is moved to LIM. **E.** Autocorrelation of regressors in time series analysis can lead to spurious significance being detected. To control for this possibility in our vPFC-hippocampal connectivity and psychophysiological interaction analysis, we included the lagged hippocampal signal in our models, controlling for contemporaneous activity of hippocampus. The conclusions of Fig. 5C regarding the gradient of vPFC-hippocampal connectivity are not preserved, but, critically, all points in the connectivity analysis remain significant. **F.** Our finding that hippocampal modulation of DMN is stronger when entropy is higher still holds when accounting for an autocorrelated hippocampal signal, interacting the lagged hippocampal signal with entropy.

Discussion (1419 words)

Our study examined the evolving distribution of value across a space modulating vPFC responses and interactions with hippocampus as humans explored and exploited a continuous space. We combined an information-compressing reinforcement learning (RL) model with fMRI to examine how responses to value information (entropy) dynamics in the vPFC and hippocampus shaped the transition from exploration to exploitation. Higher entropy indicates many smaller local value maxima; while lower entropy typically indicates one prominent global value maximum. Entropy representations were more richly captured in pericallosal DMN vPFC subregions than LIM or CTR subregions. Unexpectedly, DMN vPFC-hippocampus functional connectivity increased when people faced uncertain (high entropy, low V_{max}) value landscapes, and this increase, primarily involving DMN-PH connectivity, scaled with behavioral exploration. These two patterns were observed across sessions, samples and experimental designs. In conclusion, vPFC and hippocampal BOLD activity

increases when values are higher and entropy is lower, favoring exploitation. In contrast, hippocampal-vPFC DMN connectivity increases under conditions favoring exploration, when many similarly-valued options compete.

VALUE REPRESENTATIONS IN NON-HUMAN PRIMATE AND HUMAN VPFC

Why might vPFC subregions of the DMN show greater sensitivity to complex landscapes of learned value? The most straightforward conclusion of our study is that human prefrontal DMN – rather than limbic OFC – contains richer spatial value representations. Monkey lesion and electrophysiological studies of value representations and prefrontal-hippocampal interactions during decision-making mostly converge on the limbic cOFC/mOFC, particularly areas 11, 13 and 14 (Padoa-Schioppa and Assad, 2008; Rolls, 2008; Rudebeck and Murray, 2011; Rich and Wallis, 2014; Pastor-Bernier et al., 2019). By contrast, human imaging studies find value signals in the pericallosal vPFC falling generally into DMN (Kable and Glimcher, 2007; Hare et al., 2008; Bartra et al., 2013; Lim et al., 2013; Vassena et al., 2014; Lopez-Gamundi et al., 2021), which has also become the focus of studies of prefrontal-hippocampal connectivity during decision-making (Gerraty et al., 2014; Gluth et al., 2015; Schuck and Niv, 2019).

Our computational model highlights a related factor potentially responsible for this divergence: whether values are represented at option vs. entire environment level.

While responses to the highest-value option occurred throughout limbic OFC and pericallosal DMN, responses to the entire value landscape were restricted to DMN, particularly area 14m/24/25 and frontopolar dorsal area 10. Both areas, particularly the DMN, synchronized with the hippocampus when value landscapes were complex. Although human vPFC DMN lacks a direct non-hominoid homologue (Mantini et al., 2011, 2012; Neubert et al., 2015; Garin et al., 2022), our results agree with studies finding preferential medial frontal (Giarrocco and Averbeck, 2021) and DMN (Kaplan et al., 2016) functional connectivity with the hippocampus. Strong scalar value responses in the limbic OFC also dismiss a trivial explanation for the divergence between monkey and human studies—that limbic OFC BOLD is obscured by signal dropout. Indeed, mOFC DMN area 14m/25-32 is equally, if not more, affected by dropout compared e.g. to limbic mOFC area 11/13. Overall, our results suggest that value representations in vPFC DMN, as opposed to limbic OFC, are integrated across the entire environment and more enriched with spatial information from the hippocampus.

REWARD REPRESENTATIONS WITHIN HIPPOCAMPAL MAPS

Whereas vPFC value representations have been studied in detail, less is known about hippocampal value encoding. Adding to prior evidence of value responses in the human hippocampus (Zeithamova et al., 2018; Bakkour et al., 2019) and our earlier observation that the spatially structured value function selectively modulates AH vs. PH (Dombrovski et al., 2020), here we describe scalar maximum value representations throughout the hippocampal long axis (Fig. 5A-B). In line with our observations, Yun and colleagues (2023) found that rodent dorsal (human posterior) hippocampus responses scaled with

discrete-option scalar value and ventral (human anterior) hippocampus represented the maximum value option in a set during a cued licking task. Altogether, hippocampal value representations appear to follow the same fine-coarse postero-anterior (dorso-ventral) gradient as purely spatial representations. If so, one unanswered question is whether this architecture extends to abstract, non-spatial problems. In a recent study, navigation through an abstract space induced value representations in monkey hippocampus (Knudsen and Wallis, 2021), providing evidence of a value-laden cognitive map in a non-spatial context. While the rodent hippocampus is modulated by value-related factors (Wikenheiser and Redish, 2015; Sun et al., 2020), rodent studies have yet to provide evidence that hippocampal maps incorporate value signals in abstract, non-spatial paradigms.

INTERACTIONS BETWEEN HIPPOCAMPUS AND vPFC

Whereas we anticipated that vPFC and hippocampus would synchronize when people faced easy-to-exploit value landscapes, they instead synchronized when people faced lower values and multiple competing options demanding exploration. Further, while baseline functional connectivity with DMN was stronger in AH than in PH, consistent with resting-state observations (Barnett et al., 2021), it was the synchronization of vPFC-DMN with PH, rather than AH, that scaled with exploratory behavior. This aligns with observations that PH (rodent dorsal hippocampus) represents stimuli during early learning (Biane et al., 2023) and PH/DH learning signals scale with behavioral exploration (Kheirbek et al., 2013; Dombrovski et al., 2020). Further, reward-selective cells in deep DH layers project to the PFC (Harvey et al., 2023), and PH-prefrontal

interactions support human memory encoding (Spellman et al., 2015) and retrieval (Rajasethupathy et al., 2015; Ezama et al., 2021).

Although our fMRI analyses do not speak to the electrophysiological mechanisms of PH-prefrontal DMN interactions during exploration, rodent electrophysiological studies offer a basis for speculation. Prefrontal-PH CA1 synchronization involves theta sequences predicting upcoming locations during navigation (“look-ahead”) and sharp wave ripples (SWR) subserving trajectory replay offline, during the inter-trial period (Tang et al., 2021; Wikenheiser and Redish, 2015; Buzsáki, 2015; Norman et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2022). While care should be taken when relating BOLD to electrophysiological responses (Ekstrom et al., 2009; Ekstrom, 2010; Hill et al., 2021), in our analyses of deconvolved BOLD signal value-related PH-DMN interactions extend into the intertrial period. This observation aligns with findings of replay-related interactions between human hippocampus and vPFC interactions (Schuck and Niv, 2019) and broader evidence that key DMN computations and interactions with hippocampus occur offline and during recall (Kaplan et al., 2016; Norman et al., 2021). Thus, when we face multiple competing options, our PH and prefrontal DMN may be jointly simulating exploration trajectories, experienced or contemplated. It is more difficult to interpret the general lack of relationships of value-driven activity and synchronization with exploitation (although in Experiment 1, DMN entropy modulation did predict exploitation; Fig. 6C). It is possible that contributions of hippocampal representations to behavioral exploitation do not depend on coupling with vPFC, but rather on coupling with the dorsal

stream network, which we have found to facilitate exploitation on the clock task
(Hallquist et al., 2024).

Under the SCEPTIC model, infrequently sampled locations are compressed out of the
option set, decreasing value function entropy as one transitions from exploration to
exploitation (Hallquist and Dombrovski, 2019). Empirically, vPFC-HC connectivity
peaked when entropy was high (Fig. 5E-F), and this modulation scaled with exploratory
behavior (Fig. 6A-B). Thus, vPFC-HC coupling may support the compression of an
overwhelmingly complex value-laden map to a more manageable and exploitable one.
Such plasticity is consistent the broader contributions of the vPFC and hippocampus to
behavioral flexibility (Winocur and Olds, 1978; Hornak et al., 2004; Vilà-Balló et al.,
2017; McLaughlin and Redish, 2023).

CONCLUSIONS

Replication across sessions and studies—spanning samples of younger, middle-aged,
and older adults, tasks with and without reversals, and scanning sequences—
strengthens confidence in our main findings. At the same time, we cannot say which of
the differences between studies explain the divergences in the LIM response to entropy
(compare Fig. 3B, 3C), timing of V_{max} signals (compare Fig. 4B, 4C), and timing of
entropy modulation of hippocampal-DMN connectivity (compare Fig. 5E, 5F). Without
direct manipulation of hippocampal and prefrontal activity, we cannot be confident that
hippocampal-vPFC interactions are necessary for behavioral exploration, despite

controlling for behavioral confounds, inter-trial interval, age, and sex. The observational study design and low temporal resolution of fMRI make it hard to determine the direction of information transfer during hippocampal-vPFC interactions.

In summary, vPFC and hippocampal BOLD activity increases when the values of dominant options are high, favoring exploitation. Conversely, hippocampal-vPFC DMN connectivity rises under precisely the opposite conditions, when people explore multiple competing options of relatively low value. Coordinated activity of the posterior hippocampal-prefrontal DMN system updates detailed value-laden maps that guide exploration. Given the connection between exploration in the laboratory and human psychopathology, including suicidal behavior (Tsypes et al., 2024), our findings may also inform our understanding of the role of PH-DMN and AH-LIM interactions in real-life decisions at longer timescales and with higher stakes.

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