

1 **Title:** Insights into déjà vu: Associations between the frequency of experience and amplitudes  
2 of low-frequency oscillations in resting-state fMRI.

3

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7 with obtaining the scientific data presented in this paper.

8

9

1 **Significance statement**

2 This study examines the neurophysiological underpinnings of déjà vu (DV) experience by  
3 assessing a metric of brain activity from resting-state neuroimaging data. In doing so, we have  
4 revealed differences in brain function between individuals who have experienced DV and those  
5 who have not in brain regions implicated in DV and those comprising the default mode network  
6 (DMN). We interpret our findings to suggest that the DMN and other cortico-subcortical  
7 circuitry are disrupted in individuals who experience DV, which leads ultimately to the  
8 erroneous feeling of familiarity. These findings enrich current understanding of DV and provide  
9 a neuropsychological model that should guide future research.

10

1 **Abstract**

2 The phenomenon of déjà vu (DV) has intrigued scientists for decades, yet its neurophysiological  
3 underpinnings remain elusive. Brain regions have been identified in which morphometry differs  
4 between healthy individuals according to the frequency of their DV experiences. This study  
5 built upon these findings by assessing if and how neural activity in these and other brain regions  
6 also differ with respect to DV experience. Resting-state fMRI was performed on 68 healthy  
7 volunteers, 44 of whom reported DV experiences (DV group) and 24 who did not (NDV group).  
8 Using multivariate analyses, we then assessed the (fractional) amplitude of low-frequency  
9 fluctuations (fALFF/ALFF), a metric that is believed to index brain tissue excitability, for 5  
10 discrete frequency bands within sets of brain regions implicated in DV and those comprising  
11 the default mode network (DMN). Analyses revealed significantly lower values of  
12 fALFF/ALFF for specific frequency bands in the DV relative to the NDV group, particularly  
13 within mesiotemporal structures, bilateral putamina, right caudatum, bilateral superior frontal  
14 cortices, left lateral parietal cortex, dorsal and ventral medial prefrontal cortex, and the posterior  
15 cingulate cortex. The pattern of differences in fALFF/ALFF measures between the brains of  
16 individuals who have experienced DV and those who have not provides new neurophysiological  
17 insights into this phenomenon, including the potential role of the DMN. We suggest that the  
18 erroneous feeling of familiarity arises from a temporary disruption of cortico-subcortical  
19 circuitry together with the upregulation of cortical excitability.

20

21 **Keywords:** Deja vu, ALFF, fALFF, resting-State fMRI, Default Mode Network.

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## 1           **1. Introduction**

2   Déjà vu (DV) is an intriguing phenomenon that has attracted the attention of scientists for  
3   decades. From a psychological perspective, DV is a spontaneous metacognitive state combining  
4   conflicting mental evaluations – specifically, a subjective feeling of familiarity coupled with an  
5   awareness that this feeling is experienced inappropriately (Brown, 2004; Metcalfe and  
6   Schwartz, 2016). This fleeting feeling of erroneous familiarity is reported in up to 76% of the  
7   healthy population (Adachi et al., 2003), and is generally believed to reflect non-pathological  
8   irregularities in brain function among memory-related structures within the mesial temporal  
9   lobes (Illman et al., 2012). The phenomena of DV is also reported frequently as a type of aura  
10   in temporal lobe epilepsy, however, and in psychiatric conditions such as anxiety and  
11   depression (Illman et al., 2012; Richardson and Winokur, 1967). Earlier brain stimulation  
12   studies performed by Bartolomei et al. (2012) revealed that this pathological form of DV can  
13   be elicited through a specific pattern of neural signaling within a medial temporal lobe network,  
14   with indirect involvement of the lateral temporal cortex. Although the experience appears to be  
15   qualitatively similar whether it occurs as a non-pathological phenomenon or a pathological  
16   manifestation in epilepsy (Warren-Gash and Zeman, 2014), these two forms of DV appear to  
17   be associated with distinct neuroanatomical substrates (Brázdil and Zeman, 2013; Labate et al.,  
18   2015). It remains to be seen, then, whether the same neurophysiological mechanism underlies  
19   non-pathological.

20           Unfortunately, the unpredictable and fleeting nature of DV makes it very difficult to  
21   elucidate its neurophysiological substrates while the phenomenon is occurring. In recent years,  
22   several studies have attempted to elicit analogues of DV experimentally (Brown and Marsh,  
23   2009; Cleary et al., 2012; Cleary and Reyes, 2009; O’Connor et al., 2008; Urquhart et al., 2018).  
24   Cleary (2012), for example, engineered partial familiarity for experimental stimuli without  
25   subjects’ conscious recollection. Similarly, Urquhart and colleagues succeeded in generating a  
26   mnemonic conflict whereby participants experienced familiarity with stimuli and a concomitant  
27   awareness of the implausibility of this familiarity feeling using a modified Deese-Roediger-  
28   McDermott false memory procedure (Roediger and McDermott, 1995; Urquhart et al., 2018).  
29   However, it remains to be seen whether these analogues of DV are suitable for neuroimaging  
30   investigations of the phenomenon.

31           As an alternative, several neuroscientific investigations have identified morphological  
32   differences between the brains of healthy individuals who report having the experience of DV  
33   and those who do not, particularly within mesiotemporal structures, insular cortices, superior  
34   temporal sulci, basal ganglia and thalami (Brázdil et al., 2012; Labate et al., 2015; Peslova et

1 al., 2018). One study built upon the knowledge that grey-matter volume covaries among brain  
2 structures that co-activate consistently as nodes of functional networks (Evans, 2013); Shaw et  
3 al. (2015) observed patterns of increasing and decreasing grey-matter volume covariance  
4 among many of the aforementioned brain structures with higher frequencies of self-reported  
5 DV experience, interpreting this to reveal two neural “networks” associated with the  
6 phenomenon. Metrics of brain structure can only ever provide a crude proxy of brain function,  
7 however, and offer limited insight into the patterns of neural signaling that underpin DV.

8 A more accurate measurement of brain function can be achieved with resting-state  
9 functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). Covariance in the spontaneous low-frequency  
10 fluctuations (0.01-1.0Hz) of blood oxygenation level-dependent signal captured by fMRI is  
11 believed to reflect functional networks of intrinsic brain activity (Biswal et al., 1995; Zou et al.,  
12 2008). Indeed, it has been shown repeatedly that low-frequency fluctuations of the resting-state  
13 fMRI signal are physiologically meaningful and reflect spontaneous neuronal activity  
14 (Anderson, 2008; Biswal et al., 1995; Hu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2014; Lowe et al., 1998; Yang  
15 et al., 2019). Further, studies have shown a positive relationship between low-frequency  
16 fluctuations and resting-state fluorodeoxyglucose metabolism (Aiello et al., 2015), functional  
17 activation and neuroanatomical connectivity (Di et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). Metrics of the  
18 resting-state fMRI signal have been developed to estimate spontaneous brain excitability within  
19 nodes of functional networks. One such index is the amplitude of low-frequency fluctuations  
20 (ALFF; Zang et al., 2007), which is defined as the square root of the power spectrum within a  
21 low-frequency range. Another index that appears less susceptible to physiological noise is the  
22 fractional ALFF (fALFF) – the ratio of power spectrum of low-frequency fluctuations to that  
23 of the entire frequency range (Zou et al., 2008). The latter has gained in popularity, and has  
24 been used to demonstrate altered functional connectivity in patients with neurodegenerative  
25 diseases (e.g., Hu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2019) and temporal lobe epilepsy  
26 (Zhang et al., 2010).

27 Using both ALFF and fALFF metrics of resting-state fMRI, the present study explored  
28 differences in brain excitability between healthy individuals who report DV experiences and  
29 those who do not. We hypothesized that the former group would show greater spontaneous  
30 neural activity in brain structures implicated previously in DV compared to individuals who  
31 report no experience of the phenomenon. Additionally, we decided to study DV-related changes  
32 in ALFF/fALFF throughout a set of brain regions comprising the so-called default mode  
33 network (DMN) – an interconnected group of brain structures that demonstrate intrinsically  
34 elevated and covarying ALFF values (Fransson, 2006; Yang et al., 2007; Zou et al., 2008), and

1 exhibit covarying decreases in activity during attention-demanding, goal-directed tasks.  
2 Recently, disrupted excitability and reduced functional connectivity within the DMN has been  
3 demonstrated in idiopathic generalised epilepsy (Parsons et al., 2020). Since DV is experienced  
4 frequently as an epilepsy aura (Illman et al., 2012), this condition can provide a useful model  
5 for pathological DV. We hypothesised, therefore, that ALFF/fALFF measures throughout the  
6 DMN will be reduced in those experiencing DV compared with those who do not.

7

## 8 **2. Material and methods**

### 9 **2.1. Subjects**

10 Eighty-eight healthy individuals volunteered for the study, all aged between 18 and 33 years  
11 and reporting no neurological or psychiatric condition. All volunteers completed the Inventory  
12 for Déjà vu Experiences Assessment (IDEA) – a questionnaire used commonly in DV research  
13 (Sno et al., 1994). Question A1 of this instrument asks, “Have you ever had the feeling of having  
14 experienced a sensation or situation before in exactly the same way when in fact you are  
15 experiencing it for the first time?” Individuals answering ‘yes’ to this question were asked to  
16 describe their typical DV experience in their own words, and their definitions of the  
17 phenomenon were verified by two trained independent psychologists (K.M. and L.S.) before  
18 including them in the final sample. Each participant was then asked to complete a battery of  
19 psychological questionnaires to screen for any unrecognized psychiatric conditions: The nine-  
20 item Patient Health Questionnaire (Kroenke et al., 2001), the seven-item Generalized Anxiety  
21 Disorder Questionnaire (Spitzer et al., 2006), and the ten-item Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen  
22 et al., 1983). Eleven volunteers were excluded on the basis of these pre-screening measures; 10  
23 were identified as suffering potentially from a neurological or psychiatric condition, and one  
24 provided an unclear description of their DV experience. Of the volunteers who were included  
25 in the study, a further 9 were omitted from any analyses due to poor data quality.

26 The final sample therefore included 68 participants (38 males; mean age = 25.95 years  
27 [SD = 3.66]), comprising 44 individuals who reported experiences of DV (DV group) and 24  
28 participants who did not (NDV group). The latter consisted of individuals who reported to have  
29 never experienced this phenomenon (n=17) and those unable to answer question A1 because  
30 they could not imagine the experience (n=7). With regards to the frequency of self-reported DV  
31 experience, six participants reported having infrequent experience of the phenomenon (less than  
32 once a year), 31 experienced DV several times a year, and seven claimed to experience it  
33 frequently (several times a month).

1 The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of Masaryk University, and  
2 all participants provided written informed consent.

### 3 4 **2.2. MRI acquisition**

5 Both structural and functional imaging protocols were performed in a single session, with a 3T  
6 Siemens Magnetom Prisma scanner and 64-channel head-neck coil. Structural data were  
7 acquired with a T1-weighted high-resolution protocol using an MPRAGE sequence with the  
8 following parameters: TR = 2300 ms, TE = 2.33 ms, TI = 900 ms, FA = 8°; 240 sagittal slices  
9 with 1 mm isotropic voxels and an in-plane FOV of 224x224 mm; and GRAPPA with a PAT  
10 factor = 2. Functional data were acquired with echo-planar imaging and simultaneous multi-  
11 slice option (CMRR MB-EPI) during a period of 8 minutes and 33 seconds, in which  
12 participants rested with their eyes-closed. The parameters of BOLD signal measurement were  
13 guided by recommendations from the Human Connectome Project (Glasser et al. 2013, Smith  
14 et al. 2013), but with minor changes; for instance, the usage of standard anterior-posterior (AP)  
15 phase encoding direction rather than the combination of a balanced number of volumes with  
16 left-right and right-left. Time-series consisted of 700 volumes, with TR = 720 ms, TE = 33 ms,  
17 72 axial slices with in-plane FOV = 180x208 mm, an acquisition matrix of 90x104, 2mm  
18 isotropic voxels, pixel bandwidth = 2290 Hz, FA = 26°, MB factor = 8, and AP phase encoding  
19 direction.

### 20 21 **2.3. MRI data processing**

22 All MRI data were processed in SPM12, build 6225 (Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging  
23 at University College London, UK; <http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/>), running under Matlab  
24 8.4. R2014b. Functional images were processed as follows: the time-series were realigned to  
25 the first volume to correct for head motion, transformed into standard stereotactic space (MNI),  
26 and spatially smoothed with a Gaussian filter (FWHM = 5 mm). The voxel size was 2x2x2 mm  
27 isotropic. The T1-weighted anatomical high-resolution data were registered to the mean  
28 functional image of each subject and spatially normalized into MNI space.

### 29 30 **2.4. ALFF and fALFF calculation**

31 The low frequency range was subdivided to 4 bands as defined previously (Zuo et al., 2010):  
32 slow-5 (0.01 - 0.027 Hz), slow-4 (0.027 - 0.073 Hz), slow-3 (0.073 - 0.198 Hz) and slow-2  
33 (0.198 - 0.25 Hz). Due to the relatively high sampling rate we were able to achieve (TR = 0.72  
34 s), we also added a slow-1 band (0.3 Hz – 0.5 Hz) in an attempt to evaluate BOLD fluctuations

1 in higher frequencies (see Penttonen and Buzsáki, 2003). Maps of ALFF and fALFF values  
2 were then computed from the preprocessed BOLD time-series as follows: Only grey matter  
3 voxels were selected using *a priori* tissue probability maps from SPM12, using a benevolent  
4 threshold of 0.2 combined with individual subject assessment of in-brain voxels (thereby  
5 avoiding noise or out-of-brain data, but also leaving as many grey matter voxels as possible for  
6 the subsequent analyses). Time-series in each valid voxel were detrended (removal of the mean  
7 and linear drift) and high-pass filtered with a cut-off of 200 s, implemented in SPM12; and  
8 signals relating to white matter or cerebrospinal fluid, calculated as the first principle  
9 component extracted from representative brain regions, were used as nuisance signals and  
10 removed by GLM-based filtering. Fast Fourier transform was then applied to the clean time-  
11 series. Finally, ALFF values were calculated in each individual frequency band as the square  
12 root of power integrated over a specific frequency band, and fALFF values were calculated as  
13 a ratio of power spectrum within a specific frequency band to that of entire frequency range.  
14 To control for the possible effect of local grey matter volume, the resulting values were  
15 corrected as established in previous studies (Han et al., 2011).

16

## 17 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

### 18 *2.5.1. Déjà vu regions of interest (DV-ROIs)*

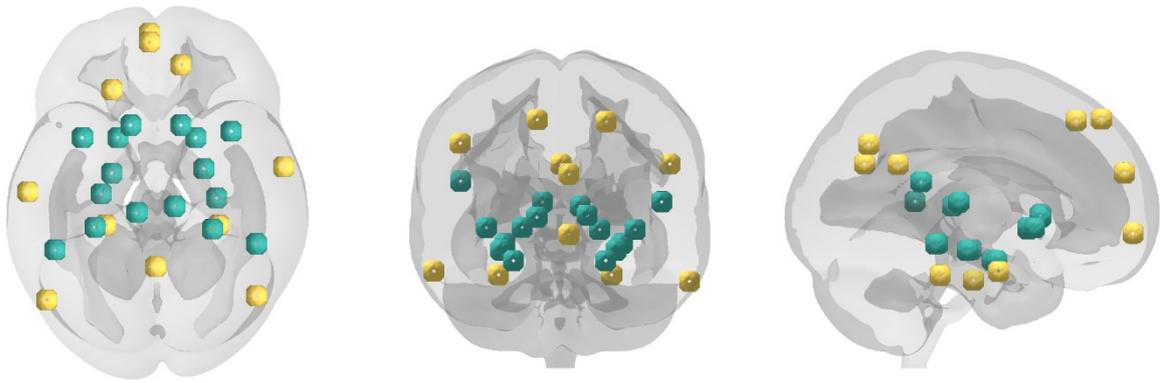
19 To examine relationships between resting-state fMRI data and self-reported DV experience, we  
20 interrogated the brain regions defined by Shaw et al. (2015); that is, regions emerging from a  
21 delineation of the findings of (Brázdil et al., 2012) in which grey-matter volume differed  
22 between healthy individuals according to their experience of DV frequency. Regions of interest  
23 (ROIs) were generated as spheres with a radius of 5 mm centered on these brain regions. An  
24 illustration of these ROIs is given in Figure 1, and more detailed information is provided in  
25 Supplementary Table S1.

26

### 27 *2.5.2. Default mode network regions of interest (DMN-ROIs)*

28 A clear consensus on the delineation of the DMN is not yet available. Therefore, in this study  
29 we decided to implement the resting state DMN localization provided by Lin et al.'s (2017)  
30 extensive brain mapping study. Again, ROIs were generated as spheres with a radius of 5 mm  
31 centered on these localisations. These ROIs are illustrated in Figure 1, and their MNI  
32 coordinates are presented in Supplementary Table S2.

33



1  
2 Figure 1. An illustration of DV-ROIs (*green*) and DMN-ROIs (*yellow*).

3  
4 *Partial Least Squares (PLS)*

5 Mean values of ALFF and fALFF were extracted from both DV-ROIs and DMN-ROIs.  
6 Subsequently, mean-centered Partial Least Squares (PLS; Krishnan et al., 2011; McIntosh and  
7 Lobaugh, 2004; <http://pls.rotman-baycrest.on.ca/source>) analyses were implemented to  
8 evaluate differences between DV and NDV subjects in ALFF or fALFF values across all ROIs  
9 in each set. This multivariate technique allowed us to identify latent variables that captured  
10 reliable patterns of difference in ALFF or fALFF values between the DV and NDV groups  
11 across all 16 brain regions comprising the DV-ROIs, or all 11 DMN-ROIs, simultaneously,  
12 negating the need for multiple-comparison correction when assessing group differences among  
13 each set of ROIs. This PLS analysis was performed separately for each ALFF and fALFF  
14 values, and for each frequency band. The reliability of group differences identified in each PLS  
15 analysis was determined with 5000 permutations and 1000 bootstraps.

16 To assess the specific influence of déjà vu frequency, we calculated post-hoc Kruskal-  
17 Wallis ANOVA tests on the three subgroups reporting some experience of the phenomenon  
18 where PLS identified significant differences in ALFF or fALFF values between the DV and  
19 NDV subjects.

20

21 **3. Results**

22 **3.1. DV-ROIs**

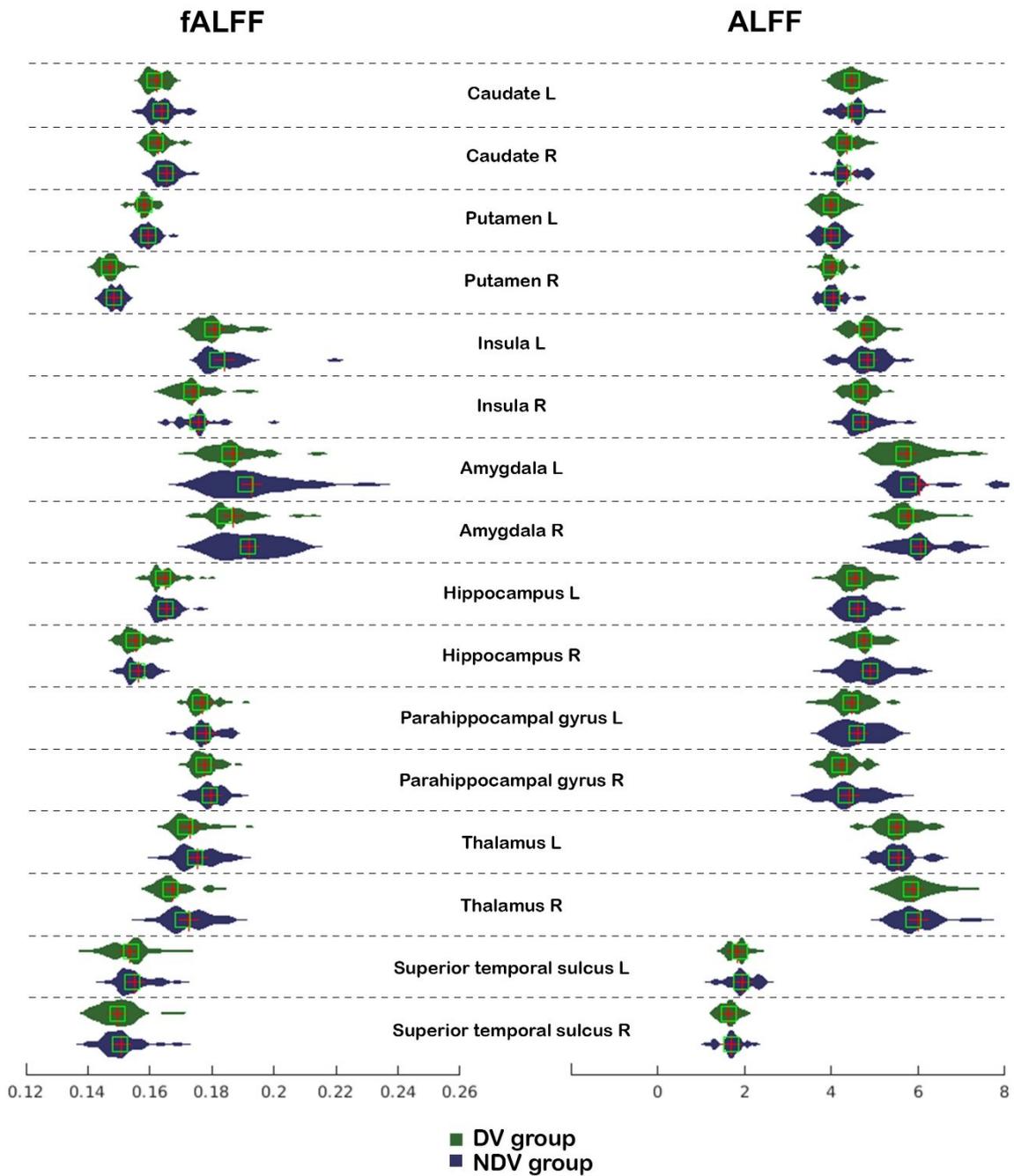
23 PLS analyses conducted on revealed that both ALFF and fALFF values showed non-significant  
24 trends towards slightly higher values for the DV compared with the NDV group in the slow-1  
25 and slow-2 frequency bands. Conversely, values for both metrics were slightly greater for the  
26 NDV relative to the DV group in slow-3, slow-4 and slow-5, but these comparisons did not  
27 reach statistical significance. These results are presented in Supplementary Materials.

1 Significant differences were found in the slow-3 frequency band, however, with the NDV group  
 2 showing higher fALFF values. As shown in Table 1 and Figure 2, the most pronounced  
 3 differences in this direction were observed in the right caudate, thalamus and putamen, and  
 4 bilateral amygdala.

6 Table 1. Comparisons of ALFF and fALFF values within DV-ROIs, in the slow-3 frequency  
 7 band.

ROIs		fALFF	ALFF
Caudate	L	-1.07	-0.04
	R	-2.94*	0.02
Putamen	L	-1.63	-0.19
	R	-2.13*	0.52
Insula	L	-1.61	0.64
	R	-0.87	0.83
Amygdala	L	-1.98*	1.46
	R	-2.36*	1.91
Hippocampus	L	-0.46	0.57
	R	-0.79	1.25
Parahippocampal gyrus	L	-0.93	1.37
	R	-1.78	1.27
Thalamus	L	-1.87	0.11
	R	-3.32*	0.89
Superior temporal sulcus	L	-1.13	1.53
	R	-0.76	0.77
<b>PLS p-value</b>		<b>0.029*</b>	<b>0.146</b>

28 *Note:* The table presents the results of PLS analyses; specifically, the vector of saliences  
 29 expressed as *z*-scores (stability across subjects of the measure extracted from each brain region),  
 30 with negative values representing NDV>DV, and the *p*-value of the latent variable obtained  
 31 from permutation testing. Asterisks indicate *p*-values with  $\alpha < 0.05$  and *z*-scores  $> 1.96$ .  
 32 *Abbreviations:* L/R = left/right.



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Figure 2. Violin plots depicting the distribution of ALFF and fALFF values across the DV and NDV group within DV-ROIs for the slow-3 frequency band. Abbreviations: L/R = left/right.

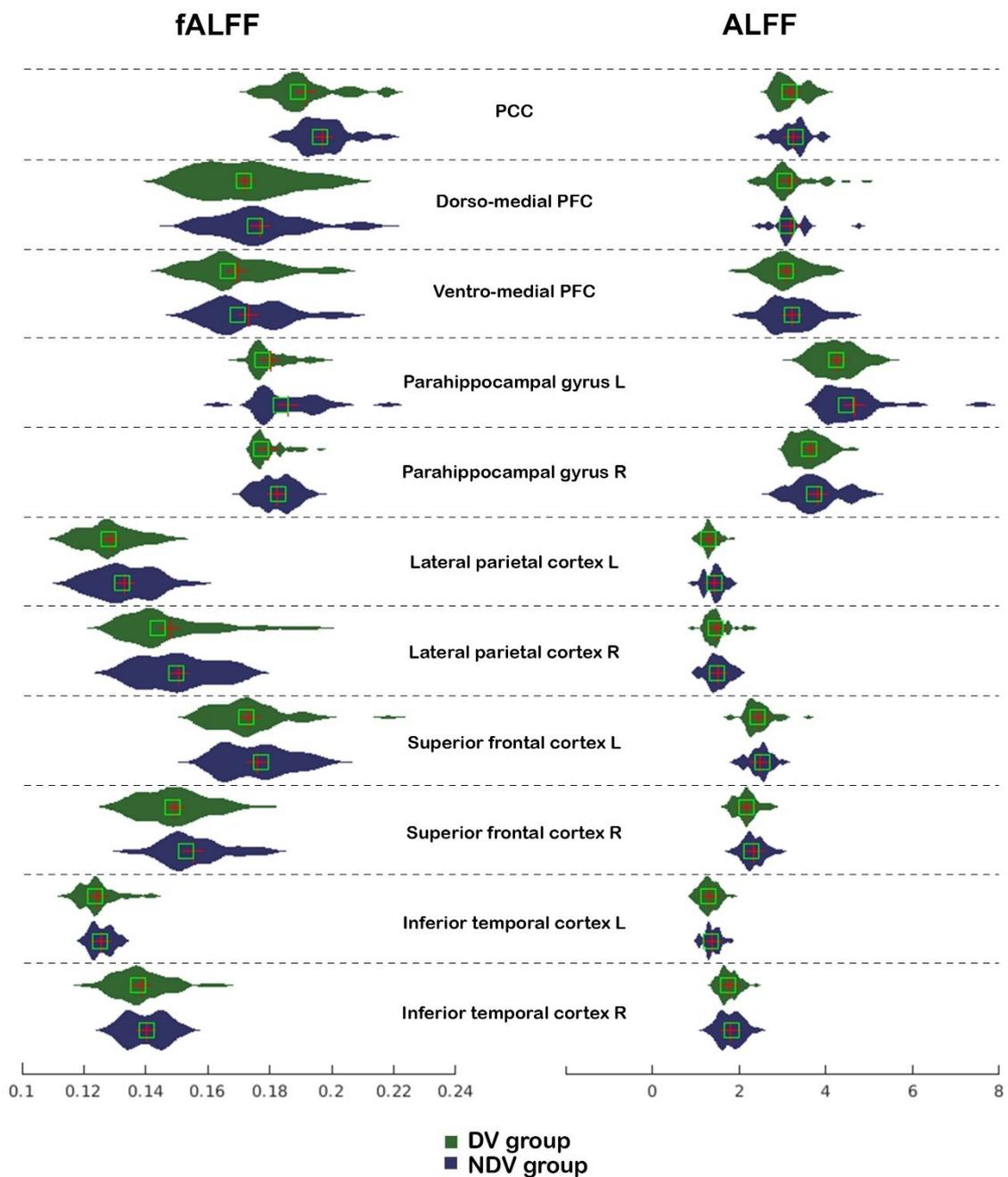
### 1            **3.2. DMN-ROIs**

2    An opposing trend was observed in brain regions comprising the DMN-ROIs: ALFF and fALFF  
3    values were higher for the DV relative to the NDV group in the slow-5 frequency band, and the  
4    NDV group showed higher values in the slow-1, slow-2, slow-3, and slow-4 bands. The  
5    majority of analyses did not reach statistical significance, however, indicating that these  
6    differences were insufficiently reliable. These results are presented in the Supplementary  
7    Materials. Statistically significant differences were again found within DMN-ROIs in the slow-  
8    3 band between the DV and NDV groups for ALFF, with the higher amplitudes in the NDV  
9    group. Significantly higher amplitudes in NDV were found in the left posterior cingulate cortex,  
10    bilateral parahippocampal gyri, left parietal cortex and right superior frontal cortex.

1 Table 2. Differences in fALFF and ALFF values within DMN-ROIs in the slow-3 frequency  
 2 band.

<b>Label</b>		<b>fALFF</b>	<b>ALFF</b>
PCC	bilateral	2.38	-0.61
Dorso-medial PFC	bilateral	1.22	-0.31
Ventro-medial PFC	bilateral	1.21	-0.91
Parahippocampal gyrus	L	2.23	-2.17*
	R	2.11	-1.41
Lateral parietal cortex	L	2.05	-1.93
	R	0.87	-0.41
Superior frontal cortex	L	0.91	-0.38
	R	2.25	-2.64*
Inferior temporal cortex	L	1.12	-1.40
	R	0.88	-0.55
<b>PLS <math>p</math>-value</b>		<b>0.10</b>	<b>0.048*</b>

3  
 4 *Note:* The table presents the results of PLS analyses; specifically, the vector of saliences  
 5 expressed as  $z$ -scores (stability across subjects of the measure extracted from each brain region),  
 6 with negative values representing  $NDV > DV$ , and the  $p$ -value of the latent variable obtained  
 7 from permutation testing. Asterisks indicate  $p$ -values with  $\alpha < 0.05$  and  $z$ -scores  $> 1.96$ .  
 8 *Abbreviations:* L/R = left/right, PCC = posterior cingulate cortex, PFC = prefrontal cortex.



1  
2 *Figure 3.* Violin plots illustrating the distribution of ALFF and fALFF values in the slow-3  
3 frequency band within DMN-ROIs. *Abbreviations:* L/R = left/right, PCC = posterior cingulate  
4 cortex, PFC = prefrontal cortex.

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### 1           **3.3. DV frequency analyses**

2   To examine whether the self-reported frequency of déjà vu experiences corresponded to the  
3   fALFF and/or ALFF indices of brain activity in the slow-3 band within ROIs revealed by the  
4   PLS analyses, a non-parametric analysis was conducted on the three DV subgroups; subjects  
5   reporting the phenomenon less than once a year, those reporting it several times a year, and  
6   those reporting it several times a month. As illustrated in Supplementary Figures S5-8, several  
7   of the DV- and DMN-ROIs showed apparent trends of linear associations between (f)ALFF  
8   values and the frequency of déjà vu experience reported by DV subgroups. None of these  
9   apparent trends reached statistical significance, however, likely reflecting the insufficient  
10  power resulting from these small subgroup sizes.

## 11           **4. Discussion**

12   By assessing the amplitude of low frequency oscillations in resting-state hemodynamics as an  
13  indirect measure of neural signals, this study evaluated brain activity associated with déjà vu  
14  (DV) experience. This revealed reduced amplitudes of low-frequency fluctuations  
15  (fALFF/ALFF) in the .073-.198 Hz (slow-3 frequency band) in individuals who report some  
16  experience of this phenomenon compared with those who do not, both within brain regions  
17  implicated previously in DV (DV-ROIs) and those comprising the default mode network  
18  (DMN-ROIs).

19           Alterations in neural signaling within mesiotemporal circuits has been demonstrated  
20  directly in pathological DV (Bartolomei et al., 2012), and indirectly on the basis of  
21  neuroanatomical data in non-pathological DV (Shaw et al., 2015). In addition to these  
22  structures, the present study demonstrates the involvement of the bilateral putamina, right  
23  caudate, bilateral superior frontal cortices, left lateral parietal cortex, dorsal and ventral medial  
24  prefrontal cortex, and posterior cingulate cortex. Interestingly, changes in the medial prefrontal  
25  cortex and lateral parietal cortex were also observed in functional imaging data acquired during  
26  the experimental elicitation of a DV analogue performed by Urquhart et al.(2018). The medial  
27  prefrontal region is known to be involved in cognitive control, monitoring and conflict  
28  resolution (Ridderinkhof et al., 2004). As suggested by Urganhart et al., this region may therefore  
29  signal the mismatch in mnemonic information from various sources experienced  
30  phenomenologically as DV. This research team also hypothesise that such mnemonic conflict  
31  is not sufficient, however; DV experience also requires the (correct) evaluation of the eliciting  
32  stimulus as new (Urquhart et al., 2018). This hypothesis is supported partly by our findings of  
33

1 more pronounced activity in the superior frontal cortex, the anterior part of which seems to be  
2 responsible for recognition between a current scene and episodic memory, and error detection,  
3 while the posterior part of the superior frontal gyrus is associated consistently with decision-  
4 making processes (Achim and Lepage, 2005; Dobbins et al., 2003; Navarro-Cebrian et al.,  
5 2016; Schacter and Slotnick, 2004). Further, more pronounced activity within the superior  
6 frontal cortex has been observed during an episodic memory task in the brains of individuals  
7 who report no experience of DV (Nigro et al., 2019). Our findings also converge with those of  
8 Nigro et al. (2019) in revealing reduced brain responses in individuals who have experienced  
9 DV relative to those who have not within the right parahippocampal gyrus, and bilateral  
10 hippocampi, thalami and caudate. The present study extends these findings even further by  
11 showing this pattern not only in task-dependent activation, but also in terms of intrinsic  
12 neuronal activity expressed during resting state.

13 To interpret our results in terms of neuronal excitability, we need to look closely at the  
14 ALFF/fALFF studies in a disease scrutinized most extensively in the context of DV; namely,  
15 epilepsy. In focal epilepsies, higher ALFF and fALFF values are reported in the supposed  
16 epileptogenic foci with moderate to high sensitivity and specificity (Chen et al., 2015; Zhang  
17 et al., 2010). It is suggested that this reflects either local neuronal hyperexcitability or  
18 hypersynchrony. Zhang et al. (2010) also notes, however, that in some brain regions  
19 overlapping with the default mode network, his sample of focal epilepsy patients showed  
20 decreased ALFF values in agreement with our findings. Studies of idiopathic generalized  
21 epilepsies (IGE) report different findings; Liao et al. (2013), for instance, observed no  
22 significant difference in ALFF values in IGE, and McGill et al. (2014) found lower values of  
23 ALFF and fALFF in the prefrontal cortex and thalamus (structures shown previously to be  
24 essential for the initiation and propagation of epileptiform activity in IGE). These regional  
25 differences correspond to those found in our cohort of individuals who reportedly experienced  
26 DV. Wang et al. (2014) explored fALFF in IGE across a range of frequency bands and found a  
27 rather complicated pattern of results: The thalamus showed increased fALFF in a range  
28 corresponding to the slow-4 band assessed in the current study, and decreased values in slow-  
29 2. Conversely, fALFF values decreased in slow-5 and increased in slow-2 within the medial  
30 prefrontal cortex. These results align closely with the trends observed in the present study in  
31 the DV group. In other words, the brains of patients with IGE, presenting focal epilepsies  
32 outside the epileptogenic foci, and the brains of individuals reporting DV experience appear to  
33 share similar characteristics of lower ALFF/fALFF value distribution. The mechanism(s)  
34 driving this similarity remains to be ascertained, however. McGill et al. (2014) propose that a

1 decrease in ALFF in the IGE brain within the thalamic region reflects dysregulated thalamo-  
2 cortical circuitry within the frontal lobe. Wang et al. (2014) arrive at the same conclusion,  
3 suggesting a potential impairment of the brains default function in IGE. It is plausible that the  
4 same principles can be applied to the brains of individuals experiencing DV – that is, the  
5 erroneous discrimination of familiarity reflects a disruption of the default mode network and/or  
6 another cortico-subcortical circuitry. More subtle disruptions might lead to the phenomenon of  
7 non-pathological DV, while greater aberrations might result in idiopathic generalized epilepsy  
8 and seizures.

9 Low frequency oscillations are believed to reflect cyclic intrinsic modulation of gross  
10 cortical excitability and long distance neuronal synchronization (Buzsáki and Draguhn, 2004;  
11 Vanhatalo et al., 2004). Alterations in low frequency oscillation amplitudes (ALFF/fALFF  
12 measures) observed in our sample of individuals who reported DV experiences might reflect  
13 the upregulation of focal cortical excitability, possibly resulting in DV occurrence. Support for  
14 this hypothesis comes from earlier studies that managed to elicit DV experiences through the  
15 stimulation of specific brain regions: Halgren et al. (1978) produced the feeling of DV by  
16 stimulating the hippocampus and amygdala, Bancaud et al. (1994) elicited it when stimulating  
17 temporal neocortex, Bartolomei (2004) was able to generate DV by stimulating the entorhinal  
18 and perirhinal cortices, and Kovacs et al. (2009) reported induced DV experiences through  
19 stimulation of the left internal globus pallidus.

20 In the current study, the low frequency range was subdivided into 4 constituent bands  
21 defined previously as slow-5 (0.01 - 0.027 Hz), slow-4 (0.027 - 0.073 Hz), slow-3 (0.073 -  
22 0.198 Hz) and slow-2 (0.198 - 0.25 Hz; Zuo et al., 2010). Previous studies have focused  
23 predominantly on the slow-4 and slow-5 frequency bands, neglecting slow-3 and slow-2 (Chen  
24 et al., 2015; Egorova et al., 2017; Han et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2014). Some studies selected even  
25 narrower spectrum of frequencies within the slow-4 band (Hoptman et al., 2010). This is likely  
26 because Zuo et al. (2010) categorized slow-4 and slow-5 as related most closely to gray matter  
27 signal, and therefore most useful in identifying the neural correlates of functional processing  
28 and disorders. For instance, slow-4 neuronal fluctuations are suggested to reflect the  
29 spontaneous intrinsic activity of the basal ganglia (Kalcher et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016), and  
30 therefore present useful metrics for investigating the neural correlates of movement disorders.  
31 Since the brain regions we have interrogated in the present study fall outside of basal ganglia  
32 region, it is unsurprising that the signals emerging from this region were not detected in our  
33 analyses. In contrast, the slow-2 band and, to a lesser extent, the slow-3 band are suggested to  
34 reflect not only gray matter signal but also white matter and other (cardiac or respiratory)

1 signals (Zuo et al., 2010). Since the mesiotemporal structures implicated in DV and  
2 encompassed by the DMN are a unique mixture of grey and white matter, the slow-3 and slow-  
3 2 frequency bands therefore present useful indices for brain activity within these structures  
4 implicated in DV experience (Wang et al., 2014). To control for possible cardiac and respiratory  
5 effects, we employed normalization to whole brain values. The potential influence of other  
6 signals (e.g., adjacency of a vessel) on slow-2 and slow-3 bands remains a limitation of this  
7 study, however, and demands further refinements in metric of low-frequency fluctuations.

8 Lastly, while the findings of the present study advance our neuroscientific  
9 understanding of the functional anatomy of déjà vu, further research is needed to explore other  
10 factors that might influence experiences of the phenomenon through their known effects on  
11 brain function. The present study did not attempt to match individuals reporting DV and those  
12 who did not on body mass index and cigarette smoking, for example, which have been shown  
13 to impact upon fractional amplitude of low-frequency fluctuation in several brain regions (Chao  
14 et al., 2018; Wen et al., 2021). Future research should examine the influence of such factors on  
15 the frequency of DV experience, thereby facilitating more accurate neuropsychological models  
16 of this phenomenon.

17

## 18 **Conclusion**

19 This is the first study to examine the potential neural activity underpinning the experience of  
20 déjà vu by assessing the amplitude of low frequency oscillations in resting-state functional brain  
21 imaging data. In doing so, we have revealed differences in brain function between individuals  
22 who have experienced déjà vu and those who have not; specifically, we have observed  
23 significant differences in ALFF and fALFF measures between these groups in brain regions  
24 implicated previously in déjà vu experience and those comprising the default mode network  
25 that have not yet been investigated in this context. Such differences within the default mode  
26 network suggest that these groups differ in the brains resting state. We interpret these findings  
27 to indicate that, in parallel with idiopathic generalized epilepsies, the default mode network and  
28 other cortico-subcortical circuitry are disrupted in individuals who experience déjà vu, which  
29 leads ultimately to the erroneous feeling of familiarity.

30

## 31 **Conflict of interest**

32 Authors report no conflict of interest.

33

1 **Author Contributions**

2 All authors had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of  
3 the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. Conceptualization, M.B., M.M.,  
4 E.Z.; Methodology, M.M., E.Z., M.K.; Investigation, L.S., K.M., M.K.; Formal Analysis,  
5 M.M.; Resources, M.M., R.M.; Writing - Original Draft, E.Z., M.K., K.M., B.S.; Writing -  
6 Review & Editing, E.Z., D.J.S., B.S.; Visualization, M.M., R.M., D.J.S.; Supervision - M.B.;  
7 Project Administration, K.M., M.K., L.S., E.Z.; Funding Acquisition, L.S., M.B.

8

9 **Data accessibility statement**

10 The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding  
11 author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

12

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