Decreased resting-state alpha-band activation and functional connectivity after sleep deprivation

Jintao Wu
BeiHang University School of Biological Science and Medical Engineering

Qianxiang Zhou
BeiHang University School of Biological Science and Medical Engineering

Jiaxuan Li
BeiHang University School of Biological Science and Medical Engineering

Yang Chen
BeiHang University School of Biological Science and Medical Engineering

Shuyu Shao
Beijing Wuzi University School of logistics

Yi Xiao (✉ canghaiysu1981@126.com)
China Astronaut Research and Training Center

Research

Keywords: sleep deprivation, resting-state, alpha band, electroencephalogram, source location, functional connectivity

DOI: https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-55394/v1

License: ☒ This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. Read Full License
Abstract

Background

Cognitive abilities are impaired by sleep deprivation and can be recovered when sufficient sleep is obtained. Changes in alpha-band oscillations are considered to be highly related to sleep deprivation. The effect of sleep deprivation on brain activation and functional connectivity in the resting-state alpha band remains unclear. The purpose of this study was to investigate how sleep deprivation and recovery sleep could change resting-state alpha-band neural oscillations.

Methods

In this study, thirty young, healthy participants obtained approximately 8 h of normal sleep, followed by 36 h of sleep deprivation. On the following recovery night, subjects underwent recovery sleep. Resting-state EEG after normal sleep, sleep deprivation and recovery sleep was recorded. Power spectrum, source localization and functional connectivity analyses were used to investigate the changes in resting-state alpha-band activity after normal sleep, sleep deprivation and recovery sleep.

Results

The results showed that the global alpha power spectrum decreased and source activation was notably reduced in the precuneus, posterior cingulate cortex, cingulate gyrus, and paracentral lobule after sleep deprivation. Functional connectivity analysis after sleep deprivation showed a weakened functional connectivity pattern in a widespread network with the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex as the key nodes. Furthermore, the changes caused by sleep deprivation were reversed to a certain extent but not significantly after one night of sleep recovery, which may be due to inadequate time for recovery sleep.

Conclusions

In conclusion, large-scale resting-state alpha-band activation and functional connectivity were weakened after sleep deprivation, and the inhibition of default mode network function with the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex as the pivotal nodes may be an important cause of cognitive impairment. These findings provide new insight into the physiological response of sleep deprivation and determine how sleep deprivation disrupts brain alpha-band oscillations.

Highlights

- Sleep deprivation reduced the resting-state alpha-band power at both the scalp electrode level and the cortical source level, and the subcortical activation changes involved precuneus, posterior cingulate cortex, cingulate gyrus and paracentral lobule.
- After sleep deprivation, the resting-state alpha-band functional connectivity of the brain network with precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex as the pivotal nodes was decreased.
One night of recovery sleep can partially but not completely reverse the effects of sleep deprivation.

1 Background

Sleep is an indispensable physiological need in human life. Lack of sleep can lead to a decline in performance, and sleepiness is now widely believed to be one of the major causes of accidents [1, 2]. Studies have recognized that sleep deprivation disturbs almost all specific processes of human behavior [3-5]. Sleep deprivation also negatively affects attention, memory, emotion and other advanced cognitive processes [6-8]. Of course, studies have also found that cognitive impairment caused by sleep deprivation can be recovered by adequate sleep [9, 10].

Growing findings indicate that changes in alpha-band oscillatory power are related to increased sleepiness. Researchers found that alpha power gradually decreased during the sleep onset transition [11], and it was supposed that the decrease in alpha power during wakefulness may indicate an increase in sleep motivation [12]. In fact, a study has reported that subjective sleepiness during sleep deprivation shows an inverse correlation with alpha power [12]. In addition, trains of alpha waves become increasingly discontinuous during a prolonged transition from wakefulness to drowsiness, which is called "alpha power dropout" [13]. Studies have also found that decreased performance is accompanied by reduced alpha power after sleep deprivation, although the relationship was mostly studied in activating task situations, such as a vigilance task [14]. A coexistence relationship between decreased alpha activity and reduced performance (e.g., memory) has been well documented in pathology and aging studies [15], which indicates that there is a substantial correlation between lower alpha activity and cognitive deficits. The decrease in alpha power appears to be associated with the reduced activation of the limbic system in subcortical structures such as the brainstem, midbrain and hypothalamus because a positive correlation between local blood flow and resting-state alpha-band power has been found in these regions [12, 16]. However, the cerebral cortices involved in alpha-band power changes after sleep deprivation have not been clearly specified or closely examined.

In addition to changes in brain oscillation power, many fMRI studies have shown that there is a disturbed coordination in distributed brain networks after sleep deprivation [17, 18]. For example, studies have found that sleep deprivation not only reduces functional connectivity within the default mode network (DMN) but also reduces the anti-correlation between the DMN and its anti-correlated network [19-21], indicating that sleep deprivation impairs coupling both within highly integrated cortical regions and between highly isolated networks [21]. It has been reported that changes in default mode activity after sleep deprivation may cause attention instability [22]. A similar case identified that the dissociation of functional connectivity within the DMN after sleep deprivation can impair sustained attention, thus affecting stable task performance [23].

In sleep deprivation studies, many researchers used fMRI to examine changes in network coupling, but few used EEG recordings to measure changes in connectivity between brain regions. With the proposition that information communication in neural networks is mediated by synchronous neural activity [24-26],
the oscillatory mechanism of the connectivity changes revealed by EEG has attracted increasing interest. Alpha-band oscillation plays an important role in this framework because it is believed to reflect local and large-scale neuronal synchronization associated with several cognitive processes, such as top-down modulation, attention, inhibition and consciousness [27, 28]. As mentioned above, alpha-band oscillation is closely related to sleep deprivation. We therefore hypothesized that cognitive impairment after sleep deprivation might be partially explained by electrophysiological changes in alpha-band oscillatory brain activity.

The effect of sleep deprivation on brain activation and functional connectivity in the resting-state alpha band remains unclear. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate how sleep deprivation and recovery sleep could change alpha-band neural oscillations. We analyzed the power spectrum, subcortical source activation and functional connectivity in the resting-state alpha band to examine the differences after normal sleep, sleep deprivation and recovery sleep. We hypothesized that (1) alpha-band power would decrease at both the scalp electrode level and cortical source level after sleep deprivation; (2) the connectivity of resting-state networks, especially that of the DMN, would be impaired by sleep deprivation; and (3) recovery sleep would reverse the damage caused by sleep deprivation at a certain level.

2 Methods

2.1 Participants

Thirty male graduate students (age range: 22-26 years) from Beihang University completed the study protocol. None of the participants were taking medications or had a history of neurological disorders. All participants provided written informed consent, and the study was approved by the Research Ethics Board of Beihang University.

2.2 Protocol

The experimental protocol consisted of a normal night, an sleep deprivation, and a recovery night. Participants entered the laboratory the day before the experiment and were sequestered until the study was completed. On the normal night, subjects obtained approximately 8 h of normal sleep (NS), followed by 36 h of sleep deprivation (SD). On the following recovery night, subjects underwent recovery sleep (RS), which was not limited to 8 h but could not be extended to 10 h (Fig. 1). The subjects refrained from caffeine, alcohol, and strenuous exercise a day before and during the entire experiment. During the SD period, participants were supervised by study staff to ensure they were awake. Resting-state EEG after the three sessions (NS, SD and RS) was recorded. During each EEG recording, participants were instructed to close their eyes but stay awake and think of nothing in particular.

Fig. 1. Study protocol.
2.3 EEG Recording and processing

The experiment was carried out in a dimly lit, sound-attenuated chamber. Resting-state EEG data were recorded for 3 minutes from participants while they were awake, were comfortably seated and had their eyes closed. EEG data were acquired from 32 electrodes placed according to the international 10-20 system using an elastic cap (actiCAP, Brain Products GmbH, Gilching, Germany). EEG recordings were accomplished by using Brain Vision Recorder software (Brain Products, Germany). The sampling rate was set at 1000 Hz, and the impedance of the EEG signal was kept below 5 kΩ.

EEG preprocessing was performed with MATLAB R2017 (MathWorks, Natick, MA). The raw data were resampled to 250 Hz and rereferenced to the average reference. EEG data were treated with an 8-12 Hz bandpass filter. Then, EEG data were divided into 2-sec epochs. Independent component analysis was further conducted to eliminate ocular and prominent muscle artifacts [29].

2.4 Spectral analysis

Absolute power was calculated using Welch’s periodogram method in MATLAB, with nonoverlapping Hamming windows of 2 s. The log-transformed power spectra of the alpha band (8–12 Hz) were calculated, which was followed an average power computation.

2.5 EEG source localization analysis

Underlying cortical sources of the alpha band were estimated using the sLORETA software package [30] (available at http://www.uzh.ch/keyinst/loreta). Source localization was performed in the frequency domain to compute the cortical three-dimensional distribution of neuronal activity. Cross-spectral matrices for each subject were computed and then averaged as the input for source analysis. The solution space corresponded to 6239 voxels at a 5 mm spatial resolution. Source activations were estimated using a head model based on the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) 152 standard template [31].

2.6 Functional connectivity analysis

Functional connectivity was computed by eLORETA software (available at http://www.uzh.ch/keyinst/loreta) on 84 regions of interest (ROIs) defined according to the 42 Brodmann areas (BAs) in the left and right hemispheres. The signal at each ROI was the average electrical neuron activity of all voxels in the ROI [32]. Among the eLORETA current density time series of the 84 ROIs, lagged linear connectivity [33] was computed between all possible pairs of the 84 ROIs for the alpha band for each subject. Such connectivity addresses instantaneous, nonphysiological signal contamination due
to volume conduction [33, 34] by calculating the sum of lagged dependence and instantaneous dependence.

2.7 Statistical analysis

In the comparison of the power spectrum, source localization and functional connectivity among the sessions, pairwise comparisons were performed to test the difference between each two sessions, i.e., NS vs. SD, RS vs. SD, and NS vs. RS.

For power spectrum analysis, differences between sessions were assessed by analysis of variance (ANOVA) in a randomized block design with each electrode considered a random block. Post hoc analysis was performed using paired t-test with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons ($\alpha = 0.05/3 = 0.017$), and an FDR correction was further applied for pairwise electrode comparisons [35, 36]. In addition, the average power of all electrodes was also calculated using one-way repeated measures ANOVA to compare the differences among sessions, with Geisser-Greenhouse adjustments for nonsphericity and Bonferroni post hoc tests, where appropriate.

For source localization analysis, based on the log-transformed current source density power determined by eLORETA, we evaluated the difference in cortical source activation between sessions by an independent F ratio test of each voxel. Statistical analysis was performed using the statistical nonparametric mapping (SnPM) method [37, 38] implemented in eLORETA software. The method utilized Fisher's random permutation test with 5000 randomizations to correct for multiple comparisons.

For functional connectivity analysis, tests were conducted using eLORETA to examine all connectivities between 84 ROIs (3486 connectivities) in the alpha band. In addition, we also applied the SnPM method based on the "maximum statistic" to correct multiple comparisons.

3 Results

3.1 Power spectrum comparisons

There was a significant difference across sessions ($F(2, 126.71) = 6.468, p = .003$). Compared with NS sessions, SD sessions and RS sessions revealed an obvious decrease in alpha power in most electrodes (both $p < 0.017$). The alpha power of each electrode in RS sessions was greater than that in SD sessions, but the differences were not significant ($p > 0.017$). Moreover, there were also significant differences in the mean power spectrum of the whole brain among different sessions (NS vs. SD vs. RS: $3.133 \pm 4.718$ dB vs. $-0.771 \pm 4.223$ dB vs. $0.068 \pm 4.061$ dB, $F(2, 126.71) = 6.468, p = .003$). The mean alpha power of NS sessions was significantly larger than that of SD ($p = .008$) sessions and RS sessions ($p = .038$), and there was no significant difference between SD and RS sessions ($p = 1.000$). The power spectrum analysis results are presented in Fig. 2.
3.2 Comparisons of source location

As illustrated in Fig. 3, compared with SD sessions, NS sessions showed a widespread increase in cortical activity, mainly including the cingulate gyrus, precuneus, paracentral lobule, and posterior cingulate cortex (BAs 31/7/23/30; \( t = 3.639; p < .01 \)).

Similarly, compared with RS sessions, NS sessions revealed significant activation in the precuneus, cuneus, cingulate gyrus, paracentral lobule, and inferior parietal lobule (BAs 31/7/23/40; \( t = 3.635; p < .01 \)).

However, no significant differences in activation were identified between NS and RS sessions (\( t = 3.557; p > .52 \)).

3.3 Functional connectivity comparisons

Functional connectivity of SD sessions, compared with that of the NS session, exhibited significantly decreased alpha lagged linear connectivity in most cortical regions, especially in the parietal and limbic lobes (\( t_{\text{max}} = 5.537, p < .01 \)). The network mainly involved the precuneus, posterior cingulate cortex, paracentral lobule, inferior parietal lobule and parahippocampal gyrus (BAs 31/7/23/40/5/27/29); of these areas, the two nodes with the largest degree were located in the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex (Fig. 4(A)).

Functional connectivity of RS sessions was significantly decreased in the posterior cingulate cortex and middle temporal gyrus (BAs 23/39; \( t_{\text{max}} = 4.446; p = .04 \)) compared with that of NS sessions (Fig. 4(B)).

In addition, functional connection strength was not significantly different between SD and RS sessions (\( t_{\text{max}} = 4.566, p = 0.07 \)) (Fig. 4(C)).

4 Discussion

In the present study, we utilized resting-state alpha-band EEG data to examine the effects of sleep deprivation and recovery sleep by comparing the differences among NS, SD and RS sessions. The alpha-band activation of SD sessions decreased over a wide range of cortical regions compared with that of NS sessions, especially in the precuneus, posterior cingulate cortex, cingulate gyrus, and paracentral lobule. Compared with NS sessions, the alpha-band functional connectivity of SD sessions decreased, with the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex as the most critical nodes. In addition, there was a trend toward increased alpha-band activation and functional connectivity in RS sessions compared with SD sessions.

This study showed decreased alpha-band power in SD sessions compared with NS sessions, which was consistent with previous research [13, 39, 40]. Evidence has shown that there is a negative correlation between alpha power and subjective sleepiness [12], which was supported by our results. The association
between alpha power and sleepiness seems to be global, indicating that the attention and working memory involved in alpha-band oscillations may be related globally to sleepiness [12, 15].

In this study, the brain regions involved in decreased activation included the cingulate gyrus, precuneus, paracentral lobule, and posterior cingulate cortex (BAs 31/7/5/23/30), which are among the most often reported active regions after sleep deprivation in many fMRI studies [41, 42]. Therefore, these cortices may play an important role in maintaining wakefulness. In particular, it was documented that the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex play a pivotal role in regulating the internal activities of the DMN [43, 44]. Perturbations of DMN activity during wakefulness have been identified in many diseases accompanied by abnormal sleep, such as schizophrenia [45] and anxiety disorders [46], which may demonstrate that sleep modulates the DMN and maintains its function.

Furthermore, SD sessions showed reduced widespread functional connectivity compared with that of NS sessions. This result is in line with those of fMRI findings of sleep deprivation [19, 47-49]. In addition, the results were also supported by previous studies that investigated functional connectivity in diseases with sleep abnormalities. Fingelkurts et al. reported that compared to control subjects, depression patients showed a desynchronization of the alpha band, mainly in the right anterior and left posterior brain areas [50].

Moreover, it is noteworthy that the functional connectivity network changed after sleep deprivation and was mainly distributed in the limbic and parietal cortex. These regions were found to be related to cognitive functions such as semantic processing [51] and attention [52] as well as working memory [53]. The reduced functional connectivity of these areas in the current results may indicate that these cognitive abilities are affected by sleep deprivation. The present analysis revealed that the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex make the greatest contribution to the network, which are considered to be the pivotal area of the DMN and play an important role in mediating intrinsic activities [43]. Considering structural and functional connectivity [54, 55], our results suggested that the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex are neural hubs damaged by sleep deprivation.

After a night of recovery sleep following sleep deprivation, alpha-band activation and functional connectivity did not return to normal levels, indicating that one night of sleep recovery cannot eliminate the damage caused by 36 of sleep deprivation. In general, sleep has a recovery and organizing effect on the cortical activity of wakefulness [56, 57]. Although the sleep recovery effect was not significant in our results, the difference between RS and SD sessions was smaller than the difference between NS and SD sessions, thus confirming the homeostatic regulation of sleep to a certain extent [58].

The current alpha-band power spectrum results are consistent with the source localization results, which show that alpha-band power is decreased at both the scalp level and the source level after sleep deprivation. Similarly, the results of source location and functional connectivity are consistent, indicating that sleep deprivation greatly influences the DMN to which the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex belong. Altogether, our complementary results showed that after sleep deprivation, the simultaneous decrease in cortical activation and connectivity weakened local processing and brain region cooperative
processing. Based on the high coincidence of the alpha-band activation source and alpha-band functional connections of key node positions and the positive coupling of activation power and connectivity strength after sleep deprivation and recovery sleep, we cannot exclude the possibility that the alpha-band connectivities between the DMN and other brain regions may be modulated by oscillation power. This seems to be consistent with the idea that nerve synchronization influences functional integration [27, 59], indicating that power fluctuations in DMN alpha-band oscillations lead to cortical interaction changes.

Notably, there are several limitations to this study. First, no control group was set up to eliminate the possible influence of circadian rhythm changes on EEG recordings. The three EEG acquisition sessions in this study did not occur at the same time of day, and EEG data may be potentially affected by participants’ circadian rhythms. Fortunately, studies have confirmed that EEG changes caused by are hardly affected by circadian rhythms [60, 61]. Second, the spatial resolution of the source localization and connectivity analysis was not very high. The spatial resolution of EEG sources increases with the number of electrodes, so high electrode density recording is more reliable in EEG rhythm source analysis. The use of a standard MRI template instead of individual MRIs for source localization further decreases the possible spatial resolution. Third, all of our subjects were men, so the results should be extrapolated to women with some caution. Fourth, the current study examined only EEG changes in the alpha band caused by sleep deprivation and recovery sleep, while possible changes in other frequency bands were not taken into account.

5 Conclusions

This study found that resting-state alpha-band activation and functional connectivity decreased after sleep deprivation, and these changes were not significantly reversed after one night of sleep. Our results reflect the electrophysiological evidence of resting-state alpha-band deactivation and dysconnectivity in extensive cerebral cortices, especially in the DMN with the precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex as pivotal regions. Changes in these regions may be associated with cognitive impairment caused by sleep deprivation.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The study was approved by the Research Ethics Board of Beihang University. All participants provided written informed consent, and our study conformed to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Competing interests

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

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

Not applicable.

Funding

This work was supported by the Independent Project of Key Laboratory of Human Factors Engineering [SYFD160051806], the Foundation of Key Laboratory for Equipment Advanced Research [6142222180204], Equipment Advance Foundation of National Key Laboratory [61422201060317], the Foundation Project in the field of Equipment Advanced Research [61400020402], and the Military Science and Technology Commission National Defense Science and Technology Innovation Zone Project [1716312ZT00212101].

Contributions

YX,QXZ: conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, review and editing. JTW: data curation, statistical analysis, visualization, investigation, writing-original draft preparation, reviewing and editing. JXL,YC,SYS: data processing and supervision.

Acknowledgments

We thank all subjects for participating in this study. We are also grateful for comments from reviewers for improving manuscript.

References

1. Bioulac S, Franchi J-AM, Arnaud M, Sagaspe P, Moore N, Salvo F, et al. Risk of motor vehicle accidents related to sleepiness at the wheel: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Sleep. 2017;40(10).

2. Tsai L-L, Young H-Y, Hsieh S, Lee C-S. Impairment of error monitoring following sleep deprivation. Sleep. 2005;28(6):707-13.

3. Balkin TJ, Wesensten NJ. Sleep loss and sleepiness. Sleep Disorders: CRC Press; 2008. p. 31-40.

4. Killgore WD. Effects of sleep deprivation on cognition. Prog Brain Res. 185: Elsevier; 2010. p. 105-29.

5. McCoy JG, Strecker RE. The cognitive cost of sleep lost. Neurobiol Learn Mem. 2011;96(4):564-82.
6. Alonso J, Romero S, Ballester M, Antonijoan R, Mañanas M. Stress assessment based on EEG univariate features and functional connectivity measures. Physiol Meas. 2015;36(7):1351.

7. Murphy TI, Richard M, Masaki H, Segalowitz SJ. The effect of sleepiness on performance monitoring: I know what I am doing, but do I care? J Sleep Res. 2006;15(1):15-21.

8. Zhang J, Lau EYY, Hsiao JH. Sleep deprivation compromises resting-state emotional regulatory processes: An EEG study. J Sleep Res. 2019;28(3):e12671.

9. Gosselin A, De Koninck J, Campbell KB. Total sleep deprivation and novelty processing: implications for frontal lobe functioning. Clin Neurophysiol. 2005;116(1):211-22.

10. Mander BA, Reid KJ, Baron KG, Tjoa T, Parrish TB, Paller KA, et al. EEG measures index neural and cognitive recovery from sleep deprivation. J Neurosci. 2010;30(7):2686-93.

11. Tanaka H, Hayashi M, Hori T. Topographical characteristics and principal component structure of the hypnagogic EEG. Sleep. 1997;20(7):523-34.

12. Strijkstra AM, Beersma DG, Drayer B, Halbesma N, Daan S. Subjective sleepiness correlates negatively with global alpha (8–12 Hz) and positively with central frontal theta (4–8 Hz) frequencies in the human resting awake electroencephalogram. Neurosci Lett. 2003;340(1):17-20.

13. Ferreira C, Deslandes A, Moraes H, Cagy M, Pompeu F, Basile LF, et al. Electroencephalographic changes after one night of sleep deprivation. Arq Neuropsiquiatr. 2006;64(2B):388-93.

14. Lorenzo I, Ramos J, Arce C, Guevara M, Corsi-Cabrera M. Effect of total sleep deprivation on reaction time and waking EEG activity in man. Sleep. 1995;18(5):346-54.

15. Klimesch W. EEG alpha and theta oscillations reflect cognitive and memory performance: a review and analysis. Brain research reviews. 1999;29(2-3):169-95.

16. Sadato N, Nakamura S, Oohashi T, Nishina E, Fuwamoto Y, Waki A, et al. Neural networks for generation and suppression of alpha rhythm: a PET study. Neuroreport. 1998;9(5):893-7.

17. Kaufmann T, Elvsåshagen T, Alnæs D, Zak N, Pedersen PØ, Norbom LB, et al. The brain functional connectome is robustly altered by lack of sleep. Neuroimage. 2016;127:324-32.

18. Zhou X, Wu T, Yu J, Lei X. Sleep deprivation makes the young brain resemble the elderly brain: a large-scale brain networks study. Brain connectivity. 2017;7(1):58-68.

19. De Havas JA, Parimal S, Soon CS, Chee MW. Sleep deprivation reduces default mode network connectivity and anti-correlation during rest and task performance. Neuroimage. 2012;59(2):1745-51.

20. Sämann PG, Wehrle R, Hoehn D, Spoormaker VI, Peters H, Tully C, et al. Development of the brain's default mode network from wakefulness to slow wave sleep. Cereb Cortex. 2011;21(9):2082-93.

21. Yeo BT, Tandi J, Chee MW. Functional connectivity during rested wakefulness predicts vulnerability to sleep deprivation. Neuroimage. 2015;111:147-58.

22. Lim J, Dinges D. Sleep deprivation and vigilant attention. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 2008;1129(1):305.

23. Durmer JS, Dinges DF, editors. Neurocognitive consequences of sleep deprivation. Semin Neurol; 2005: Copyright© 2005 by Thieme Medical Publishers, Inc., 333 Seventh Avenue, New …
24. Andreou C, Nolte G, Leicht G, Polomac N, Hanganu-Opatz IL, Lambert M, et al. Increased resting-state gamma-band connectivity in first-episode schizophrenia. Schizophr Bull. 2015;41(4):930-9.

25. Engel AK, Fries P, Singer W. Dynamic predictions: oscillations and synchrony in top–down processing. Nature Reviews Neuroscience. 2001;2(10):704-16.

26. Fries P. A mechanism for cognitive dynamics: neuronal communication through neuronal coherence. Trends in cognitive sciences. 2005;9(10):474-80.

27. Palva S, Palva JM. New vistas for α-frequency band oscillations. Trends Neurosci. 2007;30(4):150-8.

28. Palva S, Palva JM. Functional roles of alpha-band phase synchronization in local and large-scale cortical networks. Front Psychol. 2011;2:204.

29. Jung T-P, Makeig S, Humphries C, Lee T-W, Mckeown MJ, Iragui V, et al. Removing electroencephalographic artifacts by blind source separation. Psychophysiology. 2000;37(2):163-78.

30. Pascual-Marqui RD. Standardized low-resolution brain electromagnetic tomography (sLORETA): technical details. Methods Find Exp Clin Pharmacol. 2002;24(Suppl D):5-12.

31. Mazziotta J, Toga A, Evans A, Fox P, Lancaster J, Zilles K, et al. A probabilistic atlas and reference system for the human brain: International Consortium for Brain Mapping (ICBM). Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 2001;356(1412):1293-322.

32. Vecchio F, Miraglia F, Gorgoni M, Ferrara M, Iberite F, Bramanti P, et al. Cortical connectivity modulation during sleep onset: a study via graph theory on EEG data. Hum Brain Mapp. 2017;38(11):5456-64.

33. Pascual-Marqui RD. Discrete, 3D distributed, linear imaging methods of electric neuronal activity. Part 1: exact, zero error localization. arXiv preprint arXiv:07103341. 2007.

34. Vanneste S, Van de Heyning P, De Ridder D. The neural network of phantom sound changes over time: a comparison between recent-onset and chronic tinnitus patients. Eur J Neurosci. 2011;34(5):718-31.

35. McColgan P, Seunarine KK, Razi A, Cole JH, Gregory S, Durr A, et al. Selective vulnerability of Rich Club brain regions is an organizational principle of structural connectivity loss in Huntington's disease. Brain. 2015;138(11):3327-44.

36. Sunwoo J-S, Cha KS, Byun J-I, Kim T-J, Jun J-S, Lim J-A, et al. Abnormal activation of motor cortical network during phasic REM sleep in idiopathic REM sleep behavior disorder. Sleep. 2019;42(2):zsy227.

37. Holmes AP, Blair R, Watson J, Ford I. Nonparametric analysis of statistic images from functional mapping experiments. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab. 1996;16(1):7-22.

38. Nichols TE, Holmes AP. Nonparametric permutation tests for functional neuroimaging: a primer with examples. Hum Brain Mapp. 2002;15(1):1-25.

39. James LM, Iannone R, Palcza J, Renger JJ, Calder N, Cerchio K, et al. Effect of a novel histamine subtype-3 receptor inverse agonist and modafinil on EEG power spectra during sleep deprivation and recovery sleep in male volunteers. Psychopharmacology (Berl). 2011;215(4):643-53.
40. Nilsson G, Tamm S, Schwarz J, Almeida R, Fischer H, Kecklund G, et al. Intrinsic brain connectivity after partial sleep deprivation in young and older adults: results from the Stockholm Sleepy Brain study. Sci Rep. 2017;7(1):1-12.

41. Dai X-J, Liu C-L, Zhou R-L, Gong H-H, Wu B, Gao L, et al. Long-term total sleep deprivation decreases the default spontaneous activity and connectivity pattern in healthy male subjects: a resting-state fMRI study. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat. 2015;11:761.

42. Robinson JL, Erath SA, Kana RK, El-Sheikh M. Neurophysiological differences in the adolescent brain following a single night of restricted sleep—a 7T fMRI study. Dev Cogn Neurosci. 2018;31:1-10.

43. Fransson P, Marrelec G. The precuneus/posterior cingulate cortex plays a pivotal role in the default mode network: Evidence from a partial correlation network analysis. Neuroimage. 2008;42(3):1178-84.

44. Gusnard DA, Raichle ME. Searching for a baseline: functional imaging and the resting human brain. Nature reviews neuroscience. 2001;2(10):685-94.

45. Garrity AG, Pearlson GD, McKieman K, Lloyd D, Kiehl KA, Calhoun VD. Aberrant “default mode” functional connectivity in schizophrenia. Am J Psychiatry. 2007;164(3):450-7.

46. Zhao X-H, Wang P-J, Li C-B, Hu Z-H, Xi Q, Wu W-Y, et al. Altered default mode network activity in patient with anxiety disorders: an fMRI study. Eur J Radiol. 2007;63(3):373-8.

47. Bosch OG, Rihm JS, Scheidegger M, Landolt H-P, Stämpfli P, Brakowski J, et al. Sleep deprivation increases dorsal nexus connectivity to the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in humans. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 2013;110(48):19597-602.

48. Piantoni G, Cheung BLP, Van Veen BD, Romeijn N, Riedner BA, Tononi G, et al. Disrupted directed connectivity along the cingulate cortex determines vigilance after sleep deprivation. Neuroimage. 2013;79:213-22.

49. Sämann PG, Tully C, Spoormaker VI, Wetter TC, Holsboer F, Wehrle R, et al. Increased sleep pressure reduces resting state functional connectivity. Magnetic Resonance Materials in Physics, Biology and Medicine. 2010;23(5-6):375-89.

50. Fingelkurts AA, Fingelkurts AA, Rytsälä H, Suominen K, Isometsä E, Kähkönen S. Impaired functional connectivity at EEG alpha and theta frequency bands in major depression. Hum Brain Mapp. 2007;28(3):247-61.

51. Abutalebi J, Canini M, Della Rosa PA, Green DW, Weekes BS. The neuroprotective effects of bilingualism upon the inferior parietal lobule: a structural neuroimaging study in aging Chinese bilinguals. J Neurolinguistics. 2015;33:3-13.

52. Lin P, Yang Y, Jovicich J, De Pisapia N, Wang X, Zuo CS, et al. Static and dynamic posterior cingulate cortex nodal topology of default mode network predicts attention task performance. Brain imaging and behavior. 2016;10(1):212-25.

53. Luber B, Kinnunen L, Rakitin B, Ellsasser R, Stern Y, Lisanby S. Facilitation of performance in a working memory task with rTMS stimulation of the precuneus: frequency-and time-dependent effects. Brain Res. 2007;1128:120-9.
54. Khalsa S, Mayhew SD, Chechlacz M, Bagary M, Bagshaw AP. The structural and functional connectivity of the posterior cingulate cortex: Comparison between deterministic and probabilistic tractography for the investigation of structure–function relationships. Neuroimage. 2014;102:118-27.

55. Rikandi E, Mäntylä T, Lindgren M, Kieseppä T, Suvisaari J, Raij TT. Connectivity of the precuneus-posterior cingulate cortex with the anterior cingulate cortex-medial prefrontal cortex differs consistently between control subjects and first-episode psychosis patients during a movie stimulus. Schizophr Res. 2018;199:235-42.

56. Drummond SP, Paulus MP, Tapert SF. Effects of two nights sleep deprivation and two nights recovery sleep on response inhibition. J Sleep Res. 2006;15(3):261-5.

57. Rabat AA, Amal PJ, Monnard H, Erblang M, Van Beers P, Bourgard C, et al. Limited Benefit of Sleep Extension on Cognitive Deficits During Total Sleep Deprivation: Illustration With Two Executive Processes. Front Neurosci. 2019;13:591.

58. Cajochen C, Münch M, Knoblauch V, Blatter K, Wirz-Justice A. Age-related changes in the circadian and homeostatic regulation of human sleep. Chronobiol Int. 2006;23(1-2):461-74.

59. Varela F, Lachaux J-P, Rodriguez E, Martinerie J. The brainweb: phase synchronization and large-scale integration. Nature reviews neuroscience. 2001;2(4):229-39.

60. Corsi-Cabrera M, Ramos J, Arce C, Guevara M, Ponce-de Leon M, Lorenzo I. Changes in the waking EEG as a consequence of sleep and sleep deprivation. Sleep. 1992;15(6):550-5.

61. Dijk DJ, Shanahan TL, Duffy JF, Ronda JM, Czeisler CA. Variation of electroencephalographic activity during non-rapid eye movement and rapid eye movement sleep with phase of circadian melatonin rhythm in humans. The Journal of physiology. 1997;505(3):851-8.

Figures

![Figure 1](image)

Study protocol.
Figure 2

Alpha power differences. (A) Topographical distribution of NS and SD sessions. (B) Topographical distribution of NS and RS sessions. (C) Topographical distribution of RS and SD sessions. (D) Variability of the average power spectrum of the whole brain across subjects in the three sessions (NS vs. SD vs. RS: 3.133±4.718 dB vs. -0.771±4.223 dB vs. 0.068±4.061 dB). *p < 0.05. Enlarged white circles represent electrodes with significant differences. Abbreviations: NS, normal sleep; SD, sleep deprivation; RS, recovery sleep.
Figure 3

Differences in source activation between pairs of sessions. (A) NS session vs. SD session; (B) NS session vs. RS session; (C) RS session vs. SD session. The significance level of activation contrast was set at $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$. 
Figure 4

Alpha-band functional connectivity differences. (A) NS session vs. SD session. Nodes with at least 14 connectivities are labeled, which contribute approximately 63% of the interactions to the network. (B) NS session vs. RS session. All nodes are labeled because of the small number of connectivities; (C) RS session vs. SD session. No significant connectivities were observed. Node size reflects the number of network connections. Abbreviations: PCC, posterior cingulate cortex; PCUN, precuneus; PoCG, postcentral gyrus; IPL, inferior parietal lobule; PCL, paracentral lobule; PHG, parahippocampal gyrus; MTG, middle temporal gyrus; CUN, cuneus. Color coding: parietal lobe, light blue; frontal lobe, red; limbic lobe, yellow; temporal lobe, purple; occipital lobe, green; insula, dark blue. The figure was visualized with the BrainNet Viewer (available at http://www.nitrc.org/projects/bnv/).