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Selective influence of dopamine on electrocortical signatures of error monitoring: a combined EEG and immersive virtual reality study in Parkinson’s disease

Abbreviated title: *Dopamine and error monitoring in Parkinson’s Disease*

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1

2 **Abstract**

3 Detecting errors in one’s own and other’s actions is likely linked to the discrepancy
4 between intended or expected and produced or observed output. To detect and process the
5 occurrence of salient events seems associated to the release of dopamine, the balance of which
6 is profoundly altered in Parkinson’s disease (PD). EEG studies in healthy participants indicate
7 that the occurrence of errors in observed actions triggers a variety of electrocortical indices
8 (like mid-frontal theta activity, error-related delta and the Error Positivity, oPe), that seem to
9 map different aspects of error detection and performance monitoring. Whether these indices
10 are differently modulated by dopamine in the same individual has never been investigated. To
11 explore this issue, we recorded EEG markers of error detection by asking healthy controls
12 (HCs) and PD patients to observe ecological reach-to-grasp a glass actions performed by a
13 virtual arm seen in first person perspective. PD patients were tested under their dopaminergic
14 medication (‘on-condition’), and after dopaminergic withdrawal (‘off-condition’). HCs
15 showed a clear oPe and an increase of delta and theta power during the observation of erroneous
16 vs. correct actions. In PD patients, oPe and delta responses were always preserved. Crucially,
17 however, an error-related increase of theta power was found in ‘on’ but not in ‘off’ state PD
18 patients. Thus, different EEG error signatures may index the activity of independent systems
19 and error related theta power is selectively modulated by dopamine depletion. Our findings
20 may pave the way to the discovery of dopamine-related biomarkers of higher-order motor
21 cognition dysfunctions that may have crucial theoretical and clinical implications.

22

1 **Significance Statement**

2 Dopaminergic neurons respond to salient events during performance monitoring. Yet,
3 the impact of dopamine depletion on the human reactivity to observed errors is still unclear.
4 We recorded EEG in patients with Parkinson's Disease (PD) under dopaminergic treatment
5 ('on-condition') and medication withdrawal ('off-condition') while they observed correct and
6 erroneous goal-related actions performed by a virtual limb. Analysis of Error Positivity (oPe)
7 and theta and delta power increase, markers of physiological error-monitoring, indicates that
8 while the formers were intact, the latter was preserved in the 'on' and altered in the 'off'
9 condition. Thus, different EEG markers of error monitoring likely rely on independent circuits.
10 Moreover, mid-frontal theta activity alterations may represent a marker of dopamine-related
11 neurophysiological impairments of higher-order cognition.

12

13 **Introduction**

14 The progressive degeneration of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra pars
15 compacta that characterizes Parkinson's Disease (PD) brings about alterations in a complex
16 circuit involving subcortical and cortical (mainly frontal and cingulate) regions (Parkinson,
17 1817; Ullsperger & Von Cramon, 2006; Wylie et al., 2010; Zavala et al., 2018) that lead not
18 only to motor symptoms, but also to deficits of higher order cognitive functions (Chaudhuri et
19 al., 2010; Ponsi et al., 2021), including performance monitoring (Seer et al., 2016). Studies
20 about the influence of dopamine on cognitive functions hint at its role in regulating predictive
21 processes (Clark, 2013; Friston & Kiebel, 2009). Indeed, dopamine is released in response to
22 salient and unexpected events, such as unpredicted errors (Gardner, et al., 2018; Holroyd &
23 Coles, 2002; Schultz, 1998, 2016).

24 Making an error triggers specific EEG signatures (Mid-frontal theta increase, increase
25 in delta power, Error-Related negativity, Positivity Error; Cavanagh et al., 2012; Joch et al.,

1 2017; Ridderinkhof et al., 2004a). Although, smaller in amplitude and higher in latency (Koban
2 & Pourtois, 2014) similar signatures are also triggered by mere action error observation (de
3 Bruijn et al., 2007). Specifically, observation of others' errors is accompanied by increased
4 mid-frontal theta, frontal error-related negativity (oERN – observed error related negativity),
5 and a Positivity Error (oPe – observed positivity error) that may be seen not only when one
6 observes an error committed by another person (van Schie et al., 2004), or by a partner during
7 motor interactions (Era et al. 2019; Moreau et al., 2020) but also when committed by an
8 embodied virtual arm seen in first-person perspective (1PP; Pavone et al., 2016; Spinelli et al.
9 2018). From a neuroanatomical and functional point of view, mounting evidence suggest that
10 the prefrontal cortex, including the dorsal ACC generates error-related midfrontal theta/ERN
11 as a low-level mismatch between the actual and expected response (Cavanagh et al., 2014;
12 Jocham & Ullsperger, 2009; Parker et al., 2005; Ridderinkhof et al., 2004b). On the other hand,
13 less clear is the origin of the Pe, which has been associated with the engagement of different
14 areas such as the anterior parts of the ACC (Holroyd & Coles, 2002), posterior portions of the
15 cingulate (Vocat et al., 2008) and insular cortices (Klein et al., 2013), which in turn have been
16 associated to the salience network (Lenzoni et al., 2021; Orr et al., 2011; Wessel, 2017); the
17 Pe/oPe seem to signal the awareness of an error, following motivational and affective events,
18 and may be link with post-error adaptation (Overbeek et al., 2005; Danielmeier & Ullsperger,
19 2011). The distinct cortical involvement of these error-related responses is in line with evidence
20 suggesting the existence of independent mechanisms underlying the error monitoring system
21 (di Gregorio et al., 2018; Steinhauser & Yeung, 2010), that seem also to rely on distinct
22 neurotransmitters (Falkenstein et al., 2005; Holroyd & Coles, 2002). As pointed out by
23 Overbeek, Nieuwenhuis & Ridderinkhof (2005) and few pharmacological studies (De Bruijn
24 et al., 2004), the midfrontal cortex is densely targeted by ascending dopaminergic projections
25 which might affect midfrontal theta and ERN amplitude, but not the Pe and error-related delta

1 activity, which have been associated with locus coeruleus-norepinephrine system activity
2 (Ridderinkhof et al., 2009; Ullsperger et al., 2010; Wessel et al., 2011). On this road, studies
3 on rats investigated the effects of neurochemical lesions of the ventral tegmental area, a major
4 source of dopaminergic projections to the forebrain, finding a 30-46% reduction in dopamine,
5 that however did not alter the P3-like potentials recorded intracranially (Ehlers & Chaplin,
6 1992; Nieuwenhuis et al., 2005). Despite a few studies pointing in this direction, the evidence
7 is still not clear since no study has simultaneously investigated the dopaminergic influence on
8 different error monitoring processes. In this vein, testing PD patients while under their
9 dopaminergic medication ('on-condition') and after dopaminergic withdrawal ('off-condition')
10 can be an ideal model for exploring the selective influence of dopamine on different EEG
11 correlates of error monitoring. Few EEG studies reported diminished amplitude of the
12 ERN/theta during action execution in PD, while some other studies found mixed results for the
13 Pe (see Lenzoni et al., 2021 and Pezzetta et al., 2021 for systematic reviews). It is worth noting
14 that only two studies used the time-frequency approach (Beste et al., 2017; Singh et al., 2018)
15 and only one found no difference due to dopaminergic medication in conflict-related theta
16 (Singh et al., 2018). Thus, it is still unclear whether dopamine balance is necessary for human
17 mid-frontal theta activity during error monitoring. Beside theta, other frequencies are implied
18 into error-monitoring processes and Parkinson's Disease. Delta (2-4 Hz) frequencies were
19 found associated with the Pe response, such that erroneous actions are characterized not only
20 by the positive deflection in the time-domain but also by an enhanced delta power (Luu et al.,
21 2004; Ullsperger et al., 2004). On the other hand, several studies found patterns of beta
22 alteration in patients with dopaminergic deficiency (Moran et al., 2011), such as exaggerated
23 burst of beta oscillations, which has been associated with the motor impairments often observed
24 in this population.

1 To investigate how dopamine balance influence error monitoring mechanisms, we
2 recorded EEG in the same PD patients while in ‘on’ and ‘off’ condition, as well as in healthy
3 controls. Participants were immersed in a virtual scenario and passively observed from a 1PP
4 a virtual arm that executed correct or incorrect actions. This approach proved adept to induce
5 the illusion of ownership over the virtual body, allowing to investigate error processing in
6 highly realistic circumstances (Pavone et al., 2016; Pezzetta et al., 2018; Spinelli et al., 2018).
7 Moreover, exploring action processing in the absence of overt movements allowed us to control
8 for any confounds due the interindividual differences in task difficulty or response speed that
9 might occur between patients.

10 We hypothesized that distinct and independent error processes co-exist (Di Gregorio et
11 al., 2018), and that patients in ‘off’ condition would exhibit specific alteration of the electro-
12 cortical markers of error processing purportedly modulated by dopamine (i.e. midfrontal theta)
13 without affecting markers that appear to be less related to this neurotransmitter (i.e. oPe/Delta;
14 Falkenstein et al., 2001; Luu et al., 2004). Based on the evidence that fronto-central theta is
15 related to executive functions and working memory (Eckart et al., 2014), we also explored the
16 relation between theta activity and tests assessing executive functions in PD. On the other hand,
17 we expect a modulation of beta frequencies in PD, such as an increased beta activity when
18 patients are tested without dopaminergic intake (Moran et al., 2011).

19

20 **Methods and Materials**

21 **Participants**

22 Seventeen patients with Parkinson Disease (PD) took part in the study. The MorePower
23 (version 6.0.4, Campbell & Thompson, 2012) software used for computing the sample size
24 indicated that 14 participants would be required in a design with a power of 0.85, alpha of 0.05
25 and a partial eta² of 0.4 (as found in a previous study using the same paradigm to assess the

1 electroencephalographic markers of error monitoring; Pezzetta et al., 2018). All the participants
 2 had normal or corrected-to-normal visual acuity. The inclusion criteria were: i) diagnosis of
 3 idiopathic PD (United Kingdom Parkinson's Disease Society brain bank criteria, UPDRS;
 4 Huges et al., 1992); ii) absence of mental deterioration (Mini Mental State Examination,
 5 MMSE > 26); iii) absence of other neurological and psychiatric diseases; iv) treatment with
 6 daily doses of dopamine or dopamine agonists (L-Dopa equivalent doses). One patient was
 7 excluded due to probable misassumption of medication and lack of motor scale data; one
 8 patient dropped the study. Thus, a final group of 15 PD was included (5 females, 10 males;
 9 mean \pm SD: Age: 70 ± 9 ; Years of Education: 12 ± 4). Sixteen healthy participants served as
 10 controls (HCs). One participant was excluded due to impaired vision and one to mental
 11 deterioration, thus, a group of 14 HCs - matched for age and education - was included in the
 12 study (5 females, 9 males. Mean \pm SD: Age: 70 ± 6 ; Years of Education: 13 ± 3). HCs were
 13 included according to the following criteria: i) absence of neurological and/or psychiatric
 14 diseases in anamnesis; ii) absence of subjective cognitive disorders; iii) absence of medications
 15 with psychotropic action iv) MMSE > 26 (details in Table 1a).

1 a			
	PD (N=15)	HCs (N=14)	
	Mean \pm SD	Mean \pm SD	p (< 0.05)
Sex	10 M, 5 F	9 M, 5 F	n.s. (0.89)
Age	69.93 ± 8.75	69.57 ± 6.06	n.s. (0.90)
Education	11.60 ± 4	13.07 ± 2.58	n.s (0.25)
MMSE	29.13 ± 0.64	29.07 ± 1	n.s. (0.84)
MMPSE	29.79 ± 2.29	-	
1b			
	PD on (N=15)	PD off (N=15)	
	Mean \pm SD	Mean \pm SD	p (< 0.05)
UPDRS – III	17.67 ± 6.80	37.21 ± 10.04	s. (0.0001)
H&Y	2.08 ± 0.18	2.32 ± 0.32	s. (0.02)

16

1 **Table 1.** *Demographic and clinical data.* **a.** Summary of demographics and clinical scores for
2 PD group and control group (HC). Age: age in years; Education: education in years; MMSE:
3 Mini Mental State Examination; UPDRS-III: Unified Parkinson’s Disease Rating Scale section
4 III; H & Y: Hoehn and Yahr scale. **b.** Summary of motor scale scores of PD patients tested
5 during dopaminergic medication (‘on’) and dopaminergic withdrawal (‘off’). (n.s.: non-
6 significant, s.: significant).

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9 All participants were naïve as to the purposes of the study and signed the informed
10 consent. The experimental protocol was approved by the local Ethics Committee at the IRCCS
11 Santa Lucia Foundation of Rome (Reference number: CE/PROG.533) and was conducted in
12 accordance with the ethical standards of the 2013 Declaration of Helsinki.

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Apparatus and Stimuli

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17 Participants sat in a Cave Automatic Virtual Environment (CAVE) with projectors
18 directed to four walls of a room-sized cube (3 m X 3 m X 2.5 m; Cruz-Neira, et al., 1993). The
19 virtual scenario consisted of a basic room with a table (scale 1:1). At the center of the table, a
20 dark yellow parallelepipedon was located with a blue glass on top of it. The virtual glass was
21 placed in the participant’s peripersonal space at a distance of ~ 50 cm. Participants observed
22 from a first-person perspective (1PP) a virtual right arm, projected outside their right shoulder,
23 and congruent in dimension and shape with their real body (see Fig 1. A). The virtual arm and
24 the scenarios were created by means of Autodesk Maya 2015 and 3DS Max 2015, respectively.
25 The kinematics of the avatar were realized in 3DS Max and implemented in the virtual scenario
26 as an animated 3D mesh. The Virtual reality-EEG experiment was performed in an immersive
27 three-dimensional immersive virtual environment rendered in CAVE by means of XVR 2.1
28 (Tecchia et al., 2014). Participants observed the virtual environment displayed through the
29 Optoma 3D active glasses while their head position was tracked in real-time by means of an
30 Optitrack System composed by eight infrared cameras placed inside the CAVE.

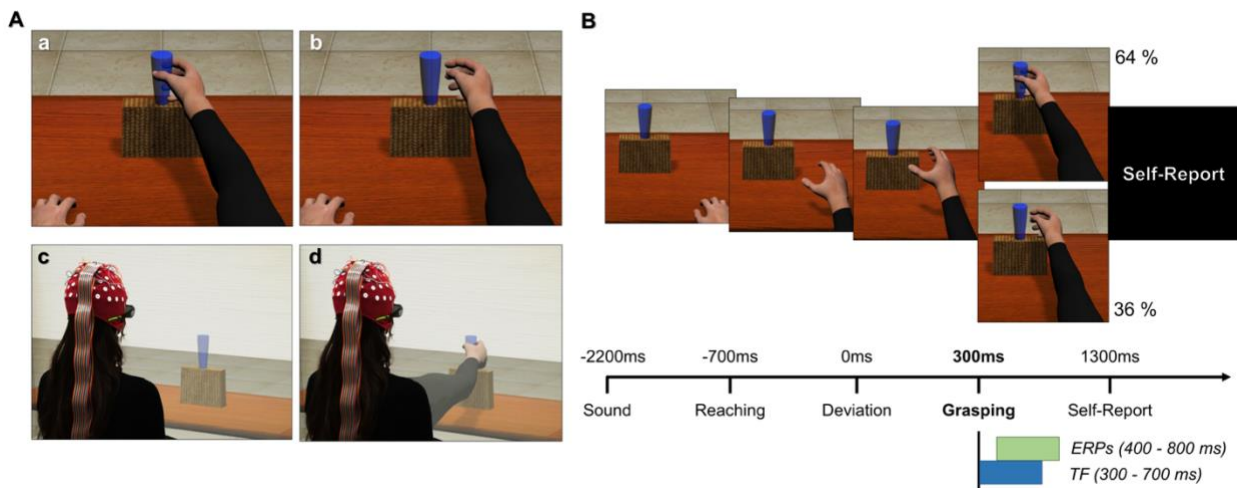
1 **Experimental Procedure**

2 Patients were tested in different sessions in separate days. First, an extensive
3 neuropsychological assessment was administered while patients were under their dopaminergic
4 treatment, to ascertain their cognitive profile, as part of clinical practice at the Foundation. For
5 the experimental Virtual reality-EEG task, the patients visited the laboratory in two separate
6 sessions, 15 days apart. In one session they were examined within 60 minutes from the first
7 medication intake ('on' condition), while in the other after 18 hours washout from the
8 individual prescriptions of dopaminergic medication used to treat PD ('off' condition;
9 Langston et al., 1992). The order of on-off condition was counterbalanced across participants.

10 Before the beginning of the Virtual reality-EEG experiment, participants underwent a
11 calibration phase where the size and the position of the virtual right arm was adapted to their
12 real one. A short period of resting-state was included before beginning the experiment, which
13 was not of interest for the current study. Then, they performed a brief practice session (8 trials,
14 4 correct and 4 erroneous) in which they familiarized with the virtual arm's movements and
15 the task. Each participant was requested to passively observe the virtual arm's movements (by
16 avoiding any real movements with their real upper limbs) and was informed that the goal of
17 the movements was to reach and grasp the glass on the table. They were also informed that the
18 action might or might not be successful. The Virtual reality-EEG task consisted in 110 trials
19 per participant (70 correct and 40 incorrect virtual arm's movements) with a total duration of
20 ~20 min. The choice of including a smaller proportion of error rather than correct actions was
21 in line with the literature in which an error is often a salient infrequent event (Ullsperger et al.,
22 2014). Previous studies with the current paradigm have used a proportion of 30-70% incorrect-
23 correct actions (Pavone et al., 2016; Spinelli et al., 2018), as well as the inverted proportion of
24 70%-30% incorrect-correct events (Pezzetta et al., 2018). In this work, the choice to include a
25 smaller number of errors (36%) compared to correct actions (64%) was preferred to keep the

1 infrequency of occurrence of an error and at the same time guarantee a good number of trials,
2 given the fact that a clinical and aging population was tested. At the onset of each trial, a sound
3 signaled the beginning of the action. During the trial, participants passively observed from a
4 first-person perspective the movement of the virtual right arm. The total duration of the
5 movement was 1000 ms; the kinematics of the movement, identical for the 70% of the action
6 duration in both correct and incorrect conditions, could diverge in movement's trajectory in the
7 last 30% of the time, leading to either a successful or unsuccessful grasp (Pavone et al., 2016;
8 Pezzetta et al., 2018; Spinelli et al., 2018; Spinelli et al., 2022). The deviation from the to-be
9 grasped object was identical in all the erroneous trials (Figure 1, panel B). The sequence of
10 correct and incorrect trials was pseudorandomized. After the end of the action, the avatar's arm
11 remained still for 1000 ± 50 ms before a black screen appeared. During the inter-trial interval
12 (ITI), one of three events occurred: 1) in 10 out of 110 trials (4 incorrect, 6 correct), participants
13 had to answer a catch question "Did the arm grasp the glass?" (yes/no) in order to verify the
14 engagement in the Virtual reality-EEG task; 2) in 65 out of 110 trials, an empty black screen
15 was presented; and 3) in 35 out of 110 trials (13 incorrect, 22 correct), participants had to rate
16 their illusory sense of embodiment over the virtual arm. The illusion was verbally rated on a
17 visual analog scale (VAS) between 0 and 100 answering the question "To what extent did you
18 feel the virtual arm was yours?" (0 = no ownership to 100 = maximal ownership; (Casula et
19 al., 2021; Fusaro et al., 2019; Fusco et al., 2020; Pyasik, 2020; Tieri et al., 2015a,b, 2017). In
20 the first and third type of event, the black screen lasted until a vocal response was given,
21 whereas in the second event, the experimenter pressed a key to start the next trial, producing a
22 variable ITI (mean duration: ~ 4.000 ms, [paradigm](#)).

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24



1 **Figure 1** A: example of the experimental paradigm and setup. The image (c,d) shows the
2 participant immersed in virtual scenario by the CAVE (cave automatic virtual environment)
3 system, while observing the real-size virtual arm in first-person perspective, during a correct
4 (a) or erroneous (b) grasping action. B: timeline of a single trial. The avatar's action lasted
5 ~1,000 ms: the reaching phase was equal for both types of movements. The onset of the avatar's
6 arm-path deviation is set at 0 ms; the end of the avatar's action occurs at 300 ms. The time
7 windows for ERPs and TF analyses have been chosen a priori, based on existing literature.
8

9
10 After each EEG session, an expert neurologist administered PD patients the UPDRS-
11 Part III (Fahn & Elton, 1987; a 27 items scale where each item is evaluated on a 5-point Likert
12 scale, ranging from 0 to 4) and the Hoehn and Yahr scale (H&Y, Hoehn & Yahr, 1967; this
13 scale identifies 8 illness stages, indicated with the following numbers: 0-1-1.5-2-2.5-3-4-5).
14 These scales (UPDRS III and H&Y) estimate the patients' motor performance and allows to
15 evaluate the efficacy of the dopaminergic medication in improving motor symptoms (higher
16 scores mean higher disease severity). The two scales were administered in both 'on' and 'off'
17 medication condition.
18

19 **EEG recording and processing**

20 EEG signals were recorded using a Neuroscan SynAmps RT amplifier system and 62
21 scalp electrodes embedded in a fabric cap (Electro-Cap International), arranged according to
22 the international 10–10 system. Horizontal electro-oculogram was recorded bipolarly from

1 electrodes placed on the outer canthi of each eye. Online, EEG signal was recorded
2 continuously in alternating current mode with a bandpass filter (0.05–200 Hz) and sampling
3 rates of 1.000 Hz. Impedances were kept under 5 k Ω . All electrodes were physically referenced
4 to an electrode placed on the right earlobe and re-referenced offline to the common average
5 across all electrodes. Offline, raw data were band-pass filtered with a 0.1-100 Hz filter (finite
6 impulse response filter, transition 40–42 Hz, stopband attenuation 60 dB). Independent
7 component analysis (ICA; Jung et al., 2000) was performed on the continuous EEG signal and
8 components that were clearly related to blinks and ocular artifacts were removed (on average,
9 5.8 ICA components). For ERP analyses, an additional bandpass filter (0.3–30 Hz) was applied
10 on the continuous raw signal. EEG signal was then down-sampled to 500 Hz and epoched in
11 wide windows of 3-s length, from -1.5 to +1.5 s to avoid edge artifacts induced by the wavelet
12 convolution in the time-frequency analysis. Epochs were time-locked (0ms) at the avatar’s
13 arm-path deviation, with DC offset correction to the previous 300 ms preceding the deviation
14 (Moreau et al., 2020; Pezzetta et al., 2018). Each epoch was then visually inspected to remove
15 residual artefacts (e.g. eye blinks) by checking for epochs exceeding ± 100 μ V amplitude,
16 (Drisdelle, Aubin, & Jolicoeur, 2017). After this procedure, a low number of trials was rejected
17 from the original datasets (HCs: 4.5%, PD Dopa-ON: 1%, PD Dopa-OFF: 4%). Therefore,
18 each group had a sufficient and comparable number of trials (mean \pm SD; HC_{TOTAL}: 105 \pm 5;
19 HC_{SCOR}= 67 \pm 3, HC_{SINC}= 38 \pm 2. PD Dopa-ON_{TOTAL}: 109 \pm 3, PD ON_{COR}=69 \pm 4; PD ON_{INC}=
20 39 \pm 1; PD Dopa-OFF_{TOTAL}: 106 \pm 5. PD Dopa-OFF_{COR}=67 \pm 3, PD Dopa-OFF_{INC}= 39 \pm 2;
21 Pontifex et al., 2010).

22 Unless otherwise specified, data were normally distributed (Shapiro-Wilk test); thus,
23 parametric analyses were adopted. Analyses were performed using the Brainstorm toolbox
24 (free open source for MEG/EEG analysis, <https://neuroimage.usc.edu/brainstorm/>; Tadel et al.,
25 2011) and customized Matlab routines. Statistical analyses were performed using R software

1 (R Core Team 2014). Effect sizes were calculated using Cohen d formula. ERPs and time-
2 frequency statistical analyses were made using the *erpR* package (Arcara & Petrova 2014).
3 Practice trials were excluded from the analyses.

4

5 *EEG analyses*

6 *Analysis in the Time Domain*

7 All ERPs analyses were based on mean amplitude, as recommended by (Luck, 2005).
8 To analyze ERPs at a whole brain level, we performed a time-point cluster-based permutation
9 analyses with 1000 repetitions (with significant differences for clusters set for $p < 0.05$) and
10 MonteCarlo correction in the 0-1000 ms time window on all electrodes, with cluster
11 comparison within and between groups, which is appropriate to assess the reliability and
12 robustness of neural patterns over neighboring data points (Formica et al., 2021; Maris &
13 Oostenveld, 2007). Also, analyzing all electrodes allow to capture potential data-driven
14 modulations on all electrode level which can be of relevance in aging or clinical populations,
15 where shifts in neural activation and compensatory processes might be observed (van Dinteren
16 et al., 2018). In addition, traditional ERPs analyses were performed. oERN was not analyzed
17 as it was not found during visual inspection of the time series in the a priori selected time-
18 window (see discussion). The oPe is a P300-like component maximally peaking at electrode
19 Pz (Overbeek et al. 2005). Planned comparisons within groups on the variable “condition” were
20 performed on a-priori established time-windows of interest (400-800 ms) on the electrode of
21 interest (Pz) to be consistent with previous studies (Pavone et al., 2016; Pezzetta et al., 2018;
22 Spinelli et al., 2018). Then, by following golden-standard recommendations (Luck, 2014;
23 Kappenman & Luck, 2016), the ERP differential (obtained by subtracting the correct from the
24 erroneous condition) was compared with three t-tests namely one within the PD “Group” (PD
25 on vs PD off), and two across the HCs vs PD groups (HCs vs PD ‘on, and HCs vs PD ‘off’).

1

2 *Analysis in the Time-Frequency domain*

3 For the time-frequency analysis, we used a complex Morlet transformation to compute
4 time-frequency decomposition. A mother wavelet with central frequency of 1 Hz and 3 s of
5 time resolution (full width half maximum, FWHM) was designed as in Brainstorm software
6 (Tadel et al., 2011). The other wavelets were computed from this mother wavelet and ranged
7 from 1 to 80 Hz, with 0.5-Hz logarithmic frequency steps. To normalize each signal and
8 frequency bin separately with respect to a baseline, we computed the relative power change (in
9 %) over the time-frequency decomposition as

$$10 \quad ERSP(f, t) = \frac{S(f, t) - S_{BASE}}{S_{BASE}}$$

11 where $S(t, f)$ is the signal spectrum at a certain given interval of time (t) and frequency
12 (f), and S_{base} represents the mean power of the reference signal of the baseline interval (event
13 related spectral perturbation, ERSP). To avoid edge effects, the power activity from -700 to -
14 500 ms - the window in which the avatar's movement was identical in erroneous and correct
15 conditions- was used as baseline interval (S_{base}). Positive and negative values index a decrease
16 or an increase in synchrony of the recorded neuronal population (Pfurtscheller, Neuper,
17 Brunner, & Lopes Da Silva, 2005) with respect to a given reference interval, where equal neural
18 activity is expected between conditions. In our case, a relative power increase/decrease
19 represents a modulation of power compared with the mean power activity at baseline (Figure
20 4). To investigate the effect on the whole brain, we performed a time-point cluster-based
21 permutation analyses with 1000 repetitions for each run ($p < 0.05$) and Montecarlo correction
22 on a wide window from 0 ms to 1000 ms to see the distribution on the scalp. Cluster
23 comparisons within and between groups were performed. Also, in line with previous studies
24 (Moreau et al., 2020; Pavone et al., 2016; Pezzetta et al., 2018; Spinelli et al., 2018), the main
25 analyses for theta activity were computed on the FCz electrode, focusing on theta band (4-8.1

1 Hz) in the preselected time interval (300-700 ms) corresponding to a total of 400 ms from the
2 end of avatar's action. For the analyses at the electrode level (FCz), for each group, planned
3 comparisons with a single factor "Condition" with two levels (correct/erroneous) was
4 performed. Then, the theta band differential (obtained by subtracting the erroneous from the
5 correct condition) was compared with three separate analyses (Luck, 2014; Kappenman &
6 Luck, 2016: one t-test in PD with the within factor "Group" with two levels (PD on/PD off),
7 and two across group t-tests (HCs/PD on; HCs/PD off). This has been done to follow the
8 methodology of the cluster-based permutation, based on t-test comparisons. Beside theta (4-
9 8.1 Hz), analyses at a cluster level were performed also on the frequencies of potential interest
10 for error monitoring processes in Parkinson's disease namely: delta (2-4 Hz), alpha (8.1 –12.3
11 Hz), and beta (12.3–30.6 Hz) bands (Koelewijn et al., 2008; Luu et al., 2004; Moran et al.,
12 2011).

13

14 **Clinical and neuropsychological testing**

15 Clinical data ascertaining motor ability in relation to dopaminergic medication were
16 analyzed. For UPDRS III and H&Y scales, two ANOVAs with dopaminergic "Medication" as
17 factor with two levels (on/off) were performed. Correlations between clinical scales (UPDRS,
18 H&Y) and EEG signals were performed to investigate clinical deficits in relation to EEG states
19 during different dopaminergic conditions.

20 Neuropsychological tests assessing executive functions and cognitive control were also
21 administered to the PD 'on', as previous data suggested a relation between theta/ern activity
22 and performance in tasks underlying executive functions (Eckart et al., 2014; Sauseng et al.,
23 2005), such as the Trial Making Test (B and BA) and the Wisconsin Card Sorting Test (Kim
24 Myung et al., 2006; Willemsen et al., 2008). Correlations between theta activity and tests

1 assessing executive functions were conducted. Details on Methods and Results concerning the
2 neuropsychological data can be found in Supplementary Materials.

3

4 **Subjective reports**

5 Embodiment ratings and the catch answers were calculated for correct and erroneous
6 actions in the three groups as in previous studies (Pezzetta et al., 2018; Spinelli et al., 2018).
7 To explore the link between sense of embodiment and electro-cortical indices of error
8 processing, Spearman correlations between subjective reports and EEG signals were
9 computed. Further details on Methods and Results for embodiment ratings can be found in
10 Supplementary Materials.

11

12 Statistical analyses of clinical-neuropsychological data and subjective reports were
13 performed using R software (R Core Team 2014). Greenhouse-Geisser correction for non-
14 sphericity and Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons were applied, when appropriate.

15

16 **Data availability**

17 The data are available in the Open Science Framework (OSF) repository <https://osf.io/z9rbu/>.

18

19 **RESULTS**

20 *Clinical deficits in relation to the dopamine states as inferred from UPDRS III and H&Y* 21 *scales*

22 Confirming the beneficial effect of dopamine assumption for extrapyramidal
23 symptoms, the UPDRS III scores of patients with PD decreased significantly from the ‘off’ (M
24 = 37.21, SD = 10.04) to the ‘on’ (M = 17.67, SD = 6.80) treatment condition ($F_{(1,13)} = 29.14$,
25 $p = 0.0001$, $\eta^2_p = 0.69$). Changes of H&Y scale values in the different dopamine levels point at

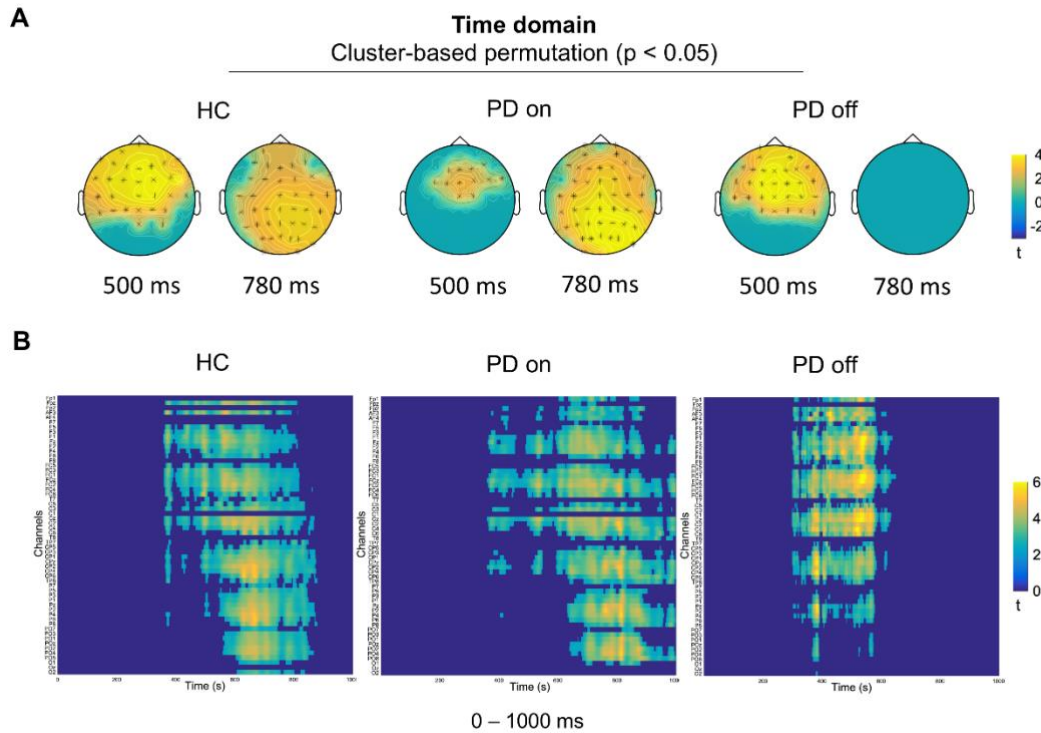
1 a similar effect with significant higher values in ‘off’ ($M = 2.32$, $SD = 0.32$) than in ‘on’ ($M =$
2 2.08 , $SD = 0.18$) condition ($F_{(1,13)} = 7.71$, $p = 0.02$, $\eta^2_p = 0.37$. See Table 1b). One patient was
3 excluded from the analysis because off condition evaluation was missing. No significant
4 correlation was found between UPDRS, H&Y and EEG signals (theta, oPe).

5

6 **EEG**

7 *Time-Domain Analysis*

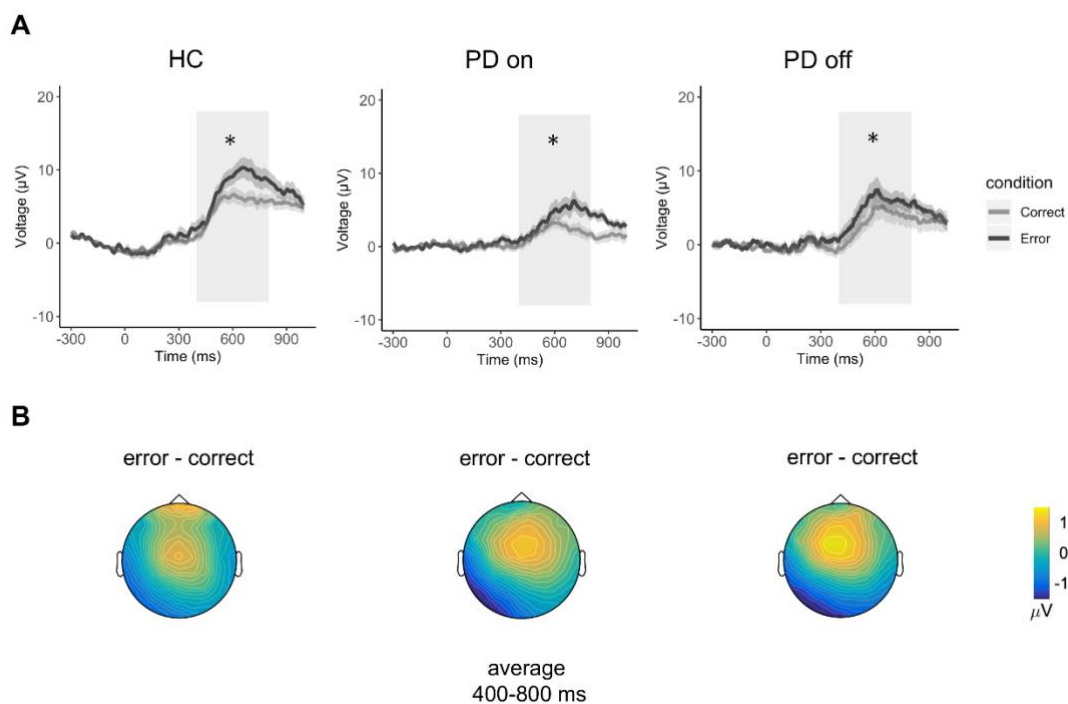
8 **Cluster-based statistics.** We found significant differences in the within group analysis
9 in all three groups, but with dissimilar spatial distribution. In the HCs a significant difference
10 ($p = 0.008$, range 360-876 ms) was found between correct and erroneous actions; similarly, the
11 cluster-based permutation revealed a difference between the two conditions both in PD ‘on’ (p
12 $= 0.002$, range 380-1000 ms) and in PD ‘off’ ($p = 0.008$, range 300-634 ms). PD ‘off’ showed
13 greater voltage in the fronto-central rather than parietal electrodes after the observation of
14 erroneous actions, showing an increased activity that was limited in time (Figure 2). Cluster-
15 comparisons between groups did not show significant differences in the window of 0-1000 ms.



1 **Figure 2.** Cluster-based permutation in the time domain for each group. **A.** Scalp
2 representation of the cluster-based permutations (dependent sample t-test with cluster-
3 correction $p < 0.05$) of erroneous versus correct action, extracted at two representative time
4 points inside the window of interest. **B.** Channel (y-axis) x time (x-axis) representation of the
5 cluster-based permutation for erroneous versus correct actions in the three groups.

6
7
8 **Analyses on the electrode FCz.** Analysis for the oERN were not performed as a clear
9 peak was not found on visual inspection. For a possible interpretation of this negative finding,
10 see the discussion section. **Analyses on the electrode Pz.** Traditional analyses on electrode Pz
11 for the oPe (400-800 ms) showed that all groups had a significant difference between correct
12 and erroneous actions (Figure 3); indeed HCs showed a significant difference, with greater
13 amplitude for erroneous rather than correct actions [HCs: $t(13) = -3.27$, $p = 0.006$, $d = 0.65$,
14 $M_{ERR} = 7.59 \mu V$, $M_{CORR} = 5.10 \mu V$]; a significant difference was also found in the PD groups,
15 both in ‘on’ [$t(14) = -3.08$, $p = 0.008$, $d = 0.61$; $M_{ERR} = 3.90 \mu V$, $M_{CORR} = 2.06 \mu V$] and ‘off’
16 [$t(14) = -2.22$, $p = 0.04$, $d = 0.40$, $M_{ERR} = 4.96 \mu V$; $M_{CORR} = 3.09 \mu V$] condition, with greater oPe
17 for erroneous than correct actions. Analyses of differential voltage (obtained by erroneous

1 minus correct trials) between groups showed no difference, all groups had greater activity
2 during erroneous trials, in the time window of interest. This result is in line also with the cluster-
3 based permutation findings on all electrodes and on a wider window of time (0-1000),
4 suggesting that all three groups (HCs, PD 'on' and PD 'off') showed a consistent result of
5 greater amplitude in response to erroneous rather than correct actions.
6



7 **Figure 3.** Electrophysiological results in the time domain for each group (ERPs). **A.** Grand
8 average waveforms of oPe at electrode Pz. The end of avatar's movement is set at 0ms. Lighter
9 colors denote the standard error around the mean. The light-gray rectangle represents the
10 interval window of analyses. **B.** Graphical representation of voltage distribution. The values
11 are the result of the erroneous-minus correct actions.

12

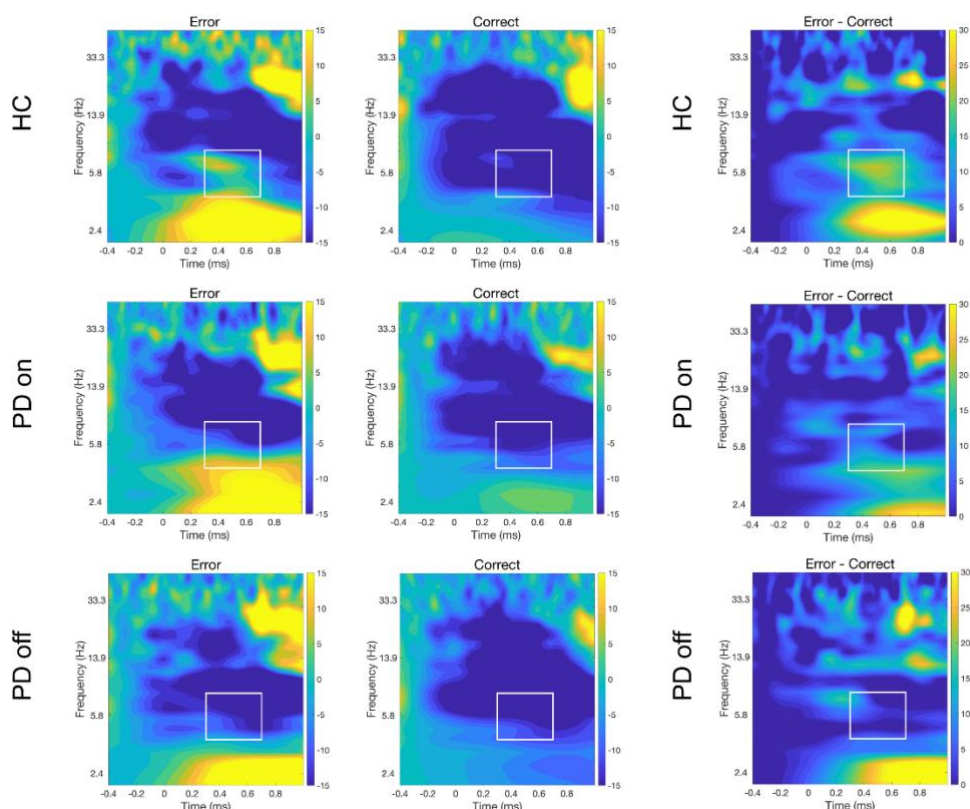
13

14 *Time-Frequency Domain Analysis*

15 *Theta (4-8.1Hz)*

16 **Cluster-based statistics.** We found a difference between erroneous and correct
17 condition in the HCs ($p= 0.004$, range 208-888 ms) and in PD 'on' ($p= 0.01$, range 0-648 ms),

1 with greater theta activity for erroneous actions; the difference was most pronounced over the
2 central areas (see scalp distribution of the clusters, figure 6). In PD ‘off’ there was no
3 significant error vs correct grasping difference. When the HCs and PD ‘off’ were compared,
4 we found a significant difference ($p = .01$, range 392-792 ms), most pronounced in the frontal
5 and posterior areas. No other significant difference between groups was found (Figure 4).
6



7 **Figure 4.** Time-frequency representation of Relative Power change (in %) with respect to the
8 baseline for erroneous and correct conditions. The end of avatar’s arm-path deviation is set at
9 0ms. Erroneous and correct plots at electrode FCz in the three groups, frequencies from 1 to
10 50 Hz are displayed. In the third column, the differential plots are provided (erroneous – correct
11 actions). The white rectangles highlight the a priori chosen window of interest between 300-
12 700 ms and 4-8.1 Hz, that indicate the values used for statistical analyses.

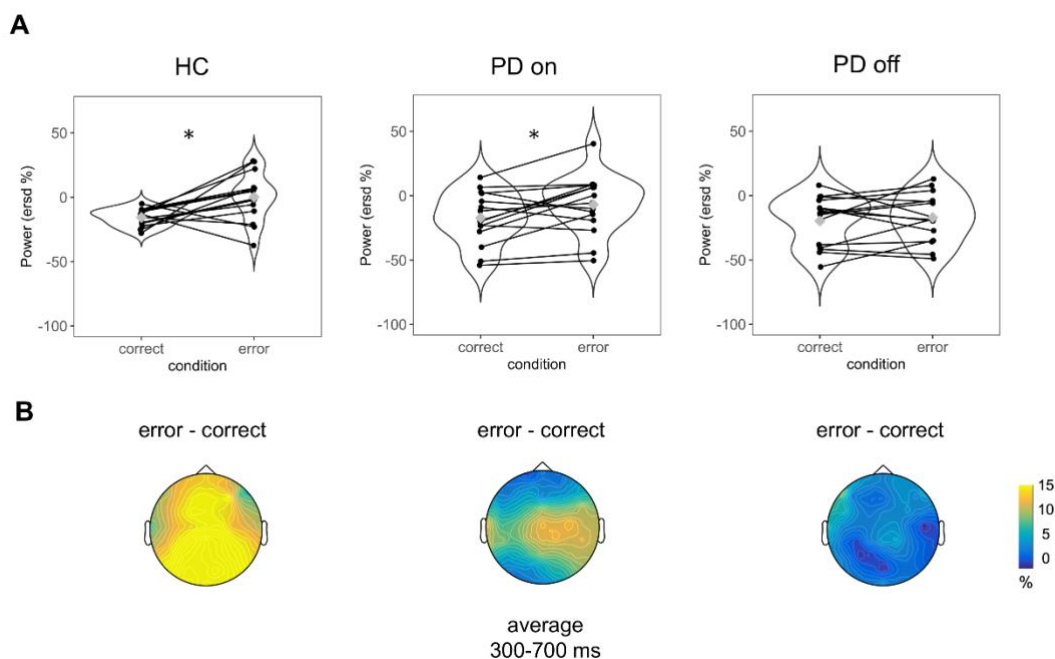
13

14

15 **Analyses on the electrode FCz.** The HCs showed an effect of Condition [$t(13)=-2.74$,

16 $p=0.02$, $d=1.14$, $M_{ERR}= 0.10$, $M_{CORR}=-15.65$], that was also present in PD ‘on’ [$t(14)=-2.53$,

1 $p=0.02$, $d=0.42$, $M_{ERR} = -6.94$, $M_{CORR} = -17.22$], with greater theta activity for erroneous
2 compared to correct actions. Contrary to the other two groups, ‘off’ patients did not show any
3 difference [$t(14)=0.68$, $p=0.51$, $d=0.14$, $M_{ERR} = -17.08$, $M_{CORR} = -19.74$] (Figures 5, 6). Group
4 comparisons on differential theta (erroneous – correct actions) showed a trend when the HCs
5 and PD ‘off’ were compared [$t(27)=1.90$, $p=0.067$, $d=0.71$, $M_{HC}=15.75$, $M_{OFF}=2.66$]. We found
6 no difference between the HCs and PD ‘on’: [$t(27)=0.79$, $p=0.44$, $d=0.29$, $M_{HC}=15.75$,
7 $M_{ON}=10.27$] and PD ‘on’ vs. PD ‘off’: [$t(14)=1.31$, $p=0.21$, $d=0.50$, $M_{ON}=10.27$, $M_{OFF}=2.66$].
8



9 **Figure 5.** Graphical representation of Theta power (4-8.1 Hz) in the three groups. **A.** Violin
10 plots represent theta activity in Correct and Erroneous actions. Y-axes represent theta power
11 expressed in Relative Power change (in %). Gray diamonds in the violin plots represent the
12 mean value; black lines connect individual subject observations (i.e., black points) in the two
13 conditions. **B.** Graphical representation of voltage distribution. The values indicate the
14 erroneous-minus correct action difference.
15

16

17 ***Other EEG frequencies potentially involved in error monitoring***

18 ***Delta (2-4Hz)***

1 **Cluster-based statistics.** We found significant difference for the three groups,
2 respectively (HCs: $p=0.008$, range 0-1000 ms; PD ‘on’: $p=0.002$, range 0-1000 ms; PD ‘off’:
3 $p=0.004$, range 0-1000 ms). The clusters showed greater delta activity for erroneous compared
4 to correct actions (see Figure 6), in all three groups. In the HCs the difference was more
5 prominent in the frontal and parietal areas, whereas in PD it was more prominent in the fronto-
6 central areas. No statistical differences between groups (comparing the maps of erroneous –
7 correct conditions) were found.

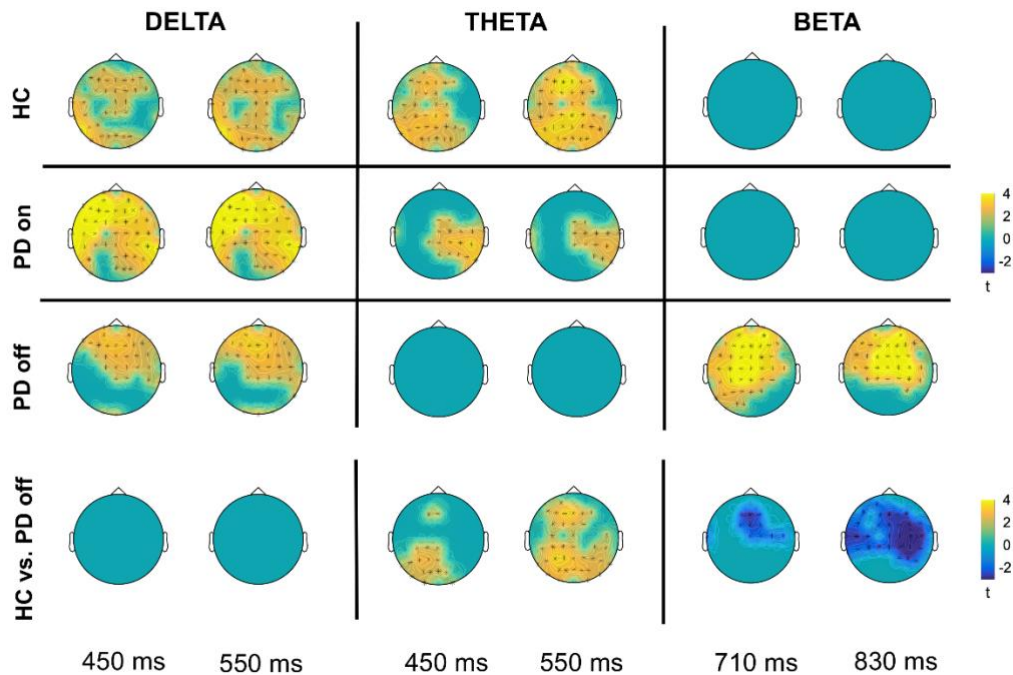
8
9 *Alpha (8.1-12.3 Hz)*

10 **Cluster-based statistics.** No significant activity was associated to erroneous rather
11 than correct actions in any of the three groups.

12
13 *Beta (12.3–30.6 Hz)*

14 **Cluster-based statistics.** Cluster-based permutation indicates a trend in the HCs when
15 erroneous and correct actions were compared ($p= .07$, range 280-440 ms) with central-
16 contralateral distribution opposite to the observed arm (Figure 6). PD ‘on’ showed no
17 significant difference of Condition. PD ‘off’ showed a significant difference ($p = .004$, range
18 150-1000 ms), mainly located on the central electrodes. The independent-samples comparison
19 between groups revealed a significant difference between the HCs and PD ‘off’ ($p=0.04$, range
20 678-968 ms), accounted for by the fact that PD ‘off’ exhibited increased beta power in the
21 central areas compared to the HCs (Figure 6, see Discussion).

22



1 **Figure 6.** Cluster-based permutation in the time-frequency domain for each group. Scalp
2 representation of the cluster-based permutation (dependent sample t-test with cluster-
3 correction $p < 0.05$) of erroneous versus correct action, extracted in two representative time
4 points inside the window of interest. In the bottom line, cluster-based comparison between HCs
5 and PD ‘off’ of differential activity (erroneous minus correct) in the frequency bands of
6 interest. Analyses have been conducted on the wide window 0-1000 ms, two representative
7 time points are shown.

8

9

10 Discussion

11 To explore the influence of dopamine on the electrocortical dynamics of error
12 monitoring we recorded EEG in patients affected by PD while they observed correct and
13 erroneous actions performed by a virtual arm seen from a first-person perspective. Using a
14 within-subject approach, the same patients were tested under dopaminergic medication (PD
15 ‘on’) and after dopaminergic withdrawal (PD ‘off’). A control group of healthy participants
16 was also included (HCs).

17 The first point of novelty is that an increase of theta power contingent upon observation
18 of erroneous actions was found in HCs and PD ‘on’ but not in PD ‘off’ indicating that dopamine

1 depletion modifies this neurophysiological marker of performance monitoring. The second
2 one is that unlike theta activity, higher oPe and delta power for erroneous vs. correct actions
3 was found both in HCs and PD patients (both ‘on’ and ‘off’ condition) indicating that error
4 monitoring comprises distinct and independent neurophysiological processes that may or may
5 not be impacted by dopamine balance.

6

7 *Dopamine does not modulate the oPe*

8 Results revealed that observation of erroneous actions produced a clearly detectable
9 oPe in all groups (electrode Pz). Importantly, however, cluster-based analyses showed that
10 while HCs and PD ‘on’ displayed a distribution of activity spreading from frontal to posterior
11 electrodes, PD ‘off’ had an effect that was mostly pronounced over fronto-central rather than
12 parietal electrodes. This may be in keeping with studies showing that oPe is a cortical response
13 characterized by subcomponents spreading over frontocentral and centroparietal electrodes
14 (Overbeek et al., 2005) and could be associated with age-related and neurophysiological
15 compensatory mechanisms (Iijima et al., 2000; Reuter et al., 2013). Notably, finding a similar
16 oPe in PD ‘off’, PD ‘on’ and HCs, is consistent with the notion that generation of this
17 component does not seem to depend on the dopaminergic system (Falkenstein et al., 2001).
18 This evidence is in line with findings in other clinical populations, such as patients with ACC
19 lesion (Maier et al., 2015; for systematic reviews see Lenzoni et al., 2021 and Pezzetta et al.,
20 2021) in which the Pe – but not the ERN/theta - was unaltered. It was previously found that
21 patients with lateral prefrontal lesion which extended to the insula had reduced Pe response
22 (Ullsperger et al., 2002; Ullsperger & von Cramon, 2006), suggesting that the activity
23 associated to the Pe activity might engage a neural network involving not only the ACC, but
24 also anterior insula and somatosensory areas (Ullsperger et al., 2010), that may be spared in
25 PD.

1 One may find surprising that we did not find any error-related negativity (oERN), a
2 marker of error detection that was present in previous studies with young adults (Pavone et al.,
3 2016; Pezzetta et al., 2018; Spinelli et al., 2018), but absent with older populations (Spinelli et
4 al., 2022). We speculate that such absence may be related to weak modulation of oERN in
5 aging (Nieuwenhuis et al., 2001; Thurm et al., 2020). Another non-alternative explanation is
6 that time-frequency analyses might be better able to capture phase- and non-phase-locked
7 activity during continuous actions (e.g. theta) whilst ERPs are more tuned to discrete events
8 (e.g. ERN; Wang et al., 2020). Indeed, prior data suggest that ERN is dominated by phase-
9 locking of intermittent theta-band (Trujillo & Allen, 2007), but that the observation of an error
10 also elicits non-phase locked activity; thus, not all mid-frontal activity is associated to oERN
11 generation (Moreau et al., 2020; Pezzetta et al., 2018).

12

13 *Dopamine does influence error-related, mid-frontal theta activity*

14 PD in ‘off’ phase exhibited abnormal theta band activity with no power increase in
15 response to errors. Crucially, when the same PD were tested just after their regular assumption
16 of dopaminergic medication (PD ‘on’), theta activity in response to errors was restored leading
17 to the same HCs pattern (Cavanagh & Frank, 2014). One may note that, similarly to previous
18 studies (Singh et al., 2018; Willemsen et al., 2008), we did not find a direct theta activity
19 difference contingent upon error monitoring between PD ‘on’ and ‘off’. Importantly, however,
20 a significant theta power difference in response to action errors between HCs and PD ‘off’ was
21 found. Compared to previous studies on PD (Seer et al., 2017), our patients in ‘off’ condition
22 had a long withdrawal phase (~ 18 h) and increased severity of extrapyramidal motor symptoms
23 (mean UPDRS = 37) from their dopaminergic medication, which might have allowed to better
24 highlight the contribution of dopamine in performance monitoring, when compared with their
25 ordinary pharmacological treatment, compared to previous reports in which no difference was

1 reported (Holroyd et al., 2002; Singh et al., 2018). Tellingly, no differential error-related theta
2 activity was found between HCs and PD ‘on’, further hinting at the central role of dopamine
3 in performance monitoring-related mid-frontal theta and in regulating the precision of
4 information during predictive processes, triggered by salient and unexpected events (Friston &
5 Kiebel, 2009), as recently found also in social context (Moreau et al. 2022; Solié et al., 2022;
6 Boukarras et al., 2022).

7

8 *Delta, alpha and beta frequencies in response to errors*

9 Studies indicate that alpha (van Driel et al., 2012), delta (Luu et al., 2004; Ullsperger et
10 al., 2014), and beta (Koelewijn et al., 2008) frequencies may be potentially associated to error
11 monitoring processes. In the present research, no error related modulation was found for the
12 alpha band. Instead, delta activity turned out to be higher for erroneous than correct actions in
13 all groups. This is in keeping with the notion that in a filtered signal, delta activity is associated
14 with the Pe response in the time-domain (Luu et al., 2004; Kolev et al., 2005; Ullsperger et al.,
15 2014). Interestingly, results showed how this marker of error monitoring is not influenced by
16 dopamine depletion. The fact that error-related delta activity – together with the oPe - was
17 found enhanced in response to observed erroneous events in HCs and PD (both ‘on’ and ‘off’)
18 suggest that this mechanism is preserved in PD, compared to the error-related theta response
19 which was not found within the PD ‘off’, suggesting that dopaminergic projections may not
20 have a direct prominent role with error-related delta/oPe generation.

21 Analysis of beta band showed error-related increased in PD off, within group and also
22 when contrasted with HCs. Beta rhythm has been associated to sensorimotor control
23 (Jurkiewicz et al., 2006; Pfurtscheller et al., 2005; Torrecillos et al., 2015), learning tasks
24 (Viñales et al., 2021) and long-distance communication between visual and sensorimotor areas
25 (Engel & Fries, 2010). Local field recordings from the subthalamic nucleus identified excessive

1 beta activity in PD associated to with pathophysiological motor symptoms (Oswal et al., 2013),
2 that was restored by the dopaminergic treatment (Doyle et al., 2005). Studies indicate that beta
3 rebound was stronger after incorrect rather than correct actions, suggesting a potential role of
4 beta in the evaluation of action significance and active response inhibition (Koelewijn et al.,
5 2008). In our study, PD ‘off’ showed stronger error-related beta response. No such effect was
6 found in the PD ‘on’ (in whom dopaminergic medication seem to suppress beta activity; Doyle
7 et al., 2005). In sum, while HCs show greater involvement of theta rather than beta response to
8 errors, PD ‘off’ seem to show an opposite pattern. Whether PD may compensate the
9 involvement of mid-frontal theta with higher frequencies during dopaminergic withdrawal, has
10 to be investigated in future studies. It may be of special interest to explore whether increased
11 beta activity might be detrimental (Moran et al., 2011) or whether it might represent a
12 compensatory mechanism rather than a pathophysiological marker (Pollok et al., 2013).

13

14 *Clinical deficits in relation to the dopamine states as inferred from UPDRS and H&Y scales*

15 Concerning the relation between the UPDRS-H&Y and EEG signals, no significant
16 correlation was found. On this regard, we can speculate that this might be due to the fact that
17 the correlation was computed between a subjective measure (e.g. the UPDRS-H&Y scales are
18 administer and rated by a clinician) and an objective measure (the EEG signal). Similar lack of
19 correlation was found also in previous reports (Singh et al., 2018), in which patients in ‘on’
20 condition had lower scores than ‘off’ condition in the UPDRS-III, but this result did not
21 correlate with the EEG signal. Further, the scores obtained with the UPDRS III are related to
22 patients ‘motor ability and it allows to evaluate the efficacy of the dopaminergic medication in
23 improving general motor symptoms; however, this might be not directly related with the error-
24 monitoring signals obtained within this task, in which a direct and active motor performance
25 was not required.

1

2 Our approach allowed to directly investigate how distinct electrocortical signatures to
3 errors are differently affected by dopamine balance in PD. Among the strengths of the present
4 study is that we used an ecological and short (~ 20 minutes) task which, thanks to immersive
5 virtual reality, made possible to test the brain reaction to errors in PD, without confounds due
6 to movement speed or difficulty (Ozkan & Pezzetta, 2018; see Supplementary Materials for a
7 deeper discussion on the embodiment results). We acknowledge, however, some potential
8 limitations. One may observe that PD were tested twice, whereas the HCs only one. Yet, in
9 keeping with previous studies (Singh et al., 2018) we can reasonably exclude a learning effect,
10 because the adopted task involves simple action-observation, and it is not related to the
11 acquisition of task-specific abilities. A second limitation is that other neurotransmitters might
12 play a role in the performance monitoring, either through direct modulation of the ACC or by
13 virtue of their influence on the DA system (Calabresi et al., 2006; Singh et al., 2018). Future
14 studies should take into consideration the role of neurotransmitters like serotonin,
15 norepinephrine, GABA and adenosine in cooperating with dopamine to orchestrate error
16 processes (Jocham & Ullsperger, 2009) in samples with different phenotypes (Van Nuland et
17 al., 2021).

18 In conclusion, we expanded research in old adults and neurological populations, by
19 providing novel support to the idea that error-related signals (theta and oPe/delta) may reflect
20 distinct structural, functional, and biochemical paths within the complex architecture of the
21 performance monitoring system (Di Gregorio et al., 2018; Krigolson & Holroyd, 2007;
22 Steinhauser & Yeung, 2010). The error-related modulation of theta activity contingent upon
23 dopamine depletion reported in our study may pave the way to future studies on
24 neurophysiological biomarkers related to prediction processing and model updating (Klein et

- 1 al., 2007; Friston et al., 2012; Masina et al., 2022) that may ultimately help to understand
- 2 higher-order cognitive control in Parkinson's Disease.
- 3

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4
5 **Paradigm video:** <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=F-NEbOT1nh4>

6 7 **Author Contributions**

8 Conceptualization of the idea: R.P. and S.M.A. Patients recruitment and
9 neuropsychological assessment: S.Z., S.T. Neurological assessment: A.P. Virtual reality
10 implementation and setup, and video production: G.T. Data collection: R.P., D.G.O., V.E.,
11 G.T. Data analysis and figures: R.P. Data interpretation: R.P., V.E., S.M.A. Writing the original
12 draft: R.P., S.M.A. Revision of the manuscript and final approval: all the Authors. Supervision
13 of the project: A.C., C.C., S.M.A.

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