

Neural Tracking of Language Emerges from Distributed Synchronization, Sensitivity to Syntax, and Statistics

Filiz Tezcan

tezcanfiliz@gmail.com

Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3327-0181>

Cas Coopmans

Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics

Andrea Martin

Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3395-7234>

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Additional Declarations: There is **NO** Competing Interest.

1 **Neural Tracking of Language Emerges from Distributed Synchronization, Sensitivity to**
2 **Syntax, and Statistics**

3 **Abstract**

4 Neural tracking, how brain activity synchronizes with speech, remains contentious regarding
5 whether it's driven by lexical statistical information or linguistic structures. Previous research
6 provided evidence for both accounts, but methodological limitations made direct comparisons
7 difficult. We used isochronous Turkish stimuli with head-final phrase structure to eliminate
8 confounds of word category repetition at the phrase level. By controlling acoustic features,
9 word repetition, meaning-relatedness, transitional probabilities, and syntactic structure, we
10 isolated distinct contributions of lexical statistics and syntactic structure to neural tracking.
11 Results showed both factors independently shape neural responses, with complex linguistic
12 structures engaging broader brain networks. Computational modeling revealed that
13 hierarchically-coupled oscillations explained neural data better than statistical models alone,
14 supporting structured linguistic representation building alongside word-level statistics. Our
15 model proposes meaning emerges through flexible coupling among neural populations
16 encoding lexical categories. These findings demonstrate that hierarchical processing crucially
17 contributes to neural speech tracking beyond statistical repetitions.

18

19 **Introduction**

20 Neural tracking is the phenomenon by which the phase and power of neural signals become
21 aligned with those of an external stimulus, often a sensory input, such as speech acoustics,
22 but synchronization also occurs with the time course of perception of information that is
23 endogenous or stems from stored knowledge, such as phonemes, morphemes, and words.
24 Neural tracking has been argued to be a process underlying the temporal dynamics of speech
25 perception that enables the brain to interpret such time-sensitive stimuli as language and
26 music, which unfold over time. Importantly, neural tracking is not static but dynamically
27 modulated by multiple linguistic dimensions, including semantic meaning, syntactic
28 structure, word categories, word frequency, and statistical regularities in language (e.g., Di
29 Liberto et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2016; Broderick et al., 2018; Kaufeld et al., 2020; Heilbron et
30 al., 2020; Donhauser and Baillet, 2020; Coopmans et al., 2022, 2025; Ten Oever et al., 2022;
31 Weissbart et al., 2020; Gillis et al., 2023; Tezcan et al., 2023, 2025; Mai and Wang, 2023;
32 Slaats et al., 2023,2024; Karunathilake et al., 2024; Brodbeck et al., 2024; Zhao et al., 2024).
33 Even as the number of empirical studies on neural tracking rapidly multiplies, what drives
34 neural tracking still remains elusive (Meyer, Sun, and Martin, 2020; Ghitza, 2020;
35 Giraud, 2020; Gwilliams, 2020; Haegens, 2020; Kandylaki & Kotz, 2020; Klimovich-Gray &
36 Molinaro, 2020; Lewis, 2020). Central to this debate is the question of whether neural
37 tracking is primarily mediated by surface-level properties, such as the statistical distribution
38 of word-level information, or by more abstract processes like those which comprise the
39 building and interpretation of hierarchical syntactic relations. For instance, the structure-
40 building hypothesis posits that neural tracking reflects the hierarchical organization of
41 linguistic input into progressively larger units, such as phrases and sentences, which recruits
42 broader and more distributed networks in the brain (Marlsen-Wilson & Welch, 1978;
43 Friederici, 2002; Hagoort, 2013, Pylkkänen, 2019; Martin 2016, 2020). This view is

44 supported by studies demonstrating that neural entrainment occurs at multiple linguistic
45 timescales, with slower oscillations (e.g., delta band) aligning with high-level sentence and
46 phrase boundaries (Ding et al., 2016; Kösem et al., 2018; Kaufeld et al., 2020; Coopmans et
47 al, 2022; Ten Oever et al., 2021) and faster oscillations (e.g., theta band) synchronizing with
48 lower-level syllables and words (Pefkou et al., 2017; Mai and Wang, 2023)

49 In contrast, Frank and Yang (2018) suggested that neural tracking may reflect the brain's
50 sensitivity to distributional properties in the input. Statistical regularities in speech, including
51 patterns of word category co-occurrence and transitional probabilities, can shape neural
52 responses without requiring any abstract representations. This view, we refer it as lexical-
53 statistics hypothesis, is supported by evidence from distributional models, which can replicate
54 neural tracking patterns observed in experimental data by relying solely on lexical
55 relationships (Frank & Yang, 2018; Kalenkovich et al., 2022, see also Zhao et al., 2024).

56 The two views are difficult to disentangle, because they can account for the same patterns of
57 results. Ding et al. (2016) conducted an influential study demonstrating that neural
58 entrainment to speech reflects the neural tracking of hierarchical sentence structures. Using
59 isochronously presented speech, they observed that only native speakers exhibit neural peaks
60 at sentence and phrase frequencies, supporting the hierarchical processing in language
61 comprehension. However, alternative interpretations challenge this view, suggesting that
62 such neural entrainment may arise from surface-level lexical representations alone, without
63 necessitating hierarchical structure-building. For example, in a sentence composed of a noun
64 phrase and a verb phrase (e.g., Adj-Noun-Verb-Noun), nouns are repeated at intervals of 2
65 and 4 words. This repetition can generate peaks at phrase- and sentence-level frequencies
66 based solely on recurring lexical patterns, such as word categories (Frank & Yang, 2018).

67 Efforts to disentangle these competing accounts have yielded mixed evidence. Studies have
68 provided support for both hierarchical structure-building and lexical-statistics accounts (e.g.,
69 Burroughs et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2022; Lo et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2024; Kalenkovich et al.,
70 2022). However, methodological differences between these studies complicate direct
71 comparisons. For example, some studies have relied on averaged power differences across all
72 sensors (Lo et al., 2022; Lu et al., 2022; Burroughs et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2024), while
73 others have used stimuli with acoustically or lexically distinct conditions (Lu et al., 2023;
74 Burroughs et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2024; Kalenkovich et al., 2022), making it difficult to
75 isolate the specific contributions of hierarchical structure versus lexical regularities.

76 In addition, very few studies have investigated the coordination of brain networks underlying
77 neural speech tracking (e.g., Park et al., 2015; Schoffelen et al., 2017; Bai et al., 2022).

78 Consequently, the precise ways in which connectivity patterns across distinct neural
79 frequencies, corresponding to sentence, phrase, word, and syllable rates, are modulated by
80 linguistic structure remain unclear. Further investigation is needed to understand how neural
81 network coordination supports hierarchical and lexical processing during language
82 comprehension.

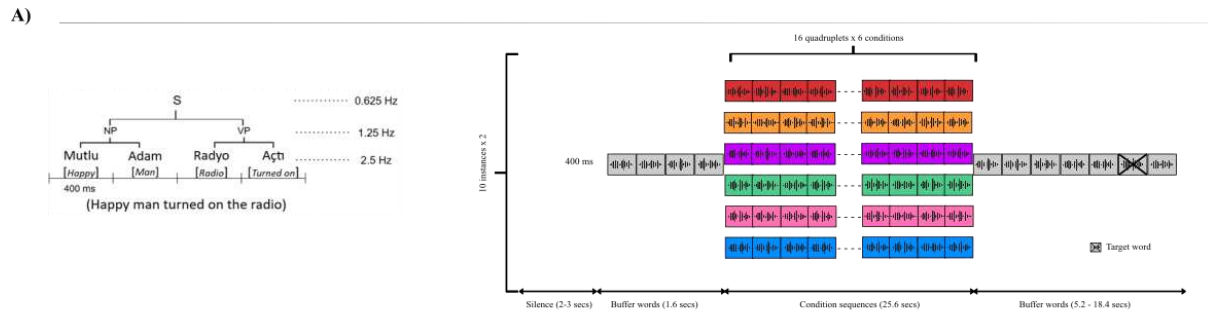
83 To disentangle the contributions of lexical and syntactic information to neural speech
84 tracking, this study employs a frequency-tagging paradigm using isochronous Turkish
85 speech. The impact of varying levels of linguistic structure is examined through measures of
86 induced power, inter-trial phase coherence (ITPC), and whole-brain functional connectivity.

87 Additionally, we simulated the lexical model proposed by Frank and Yang (2018) and a
88 novel hierarchically coupled oscillatory network model to provide further explanatory
89 support for the observed neural data.

90 We propose that neural synchrony, operationalized through weakly coupled oscillators,
91 facilitates the combination of neural representations through cross-frequency coupling
92 (Lakatos et al, 2008; Lisman and Jensen, 2013; Arnal et al, 2015; Hyafil et al, 2015; Brennan
93 and Martin, 2020; Ten Oever and Martin, 2021; Murphy, 2024; Weissbart and Martin, 2024).
94 The network consists of three layers. The first layer includes four oscillators representing
95 word categories (Adjective, Noun, Noun, Verb). The second layer contains two phrase nodes.
96 The first phrase node is coupled to the Adjective and Noun oscillators, while the second
97 phrase node is coupled to the Noun and Verb oscillators. In the third layer, a single sentence
98 node is coupled to the phrase nodes from the second layer.

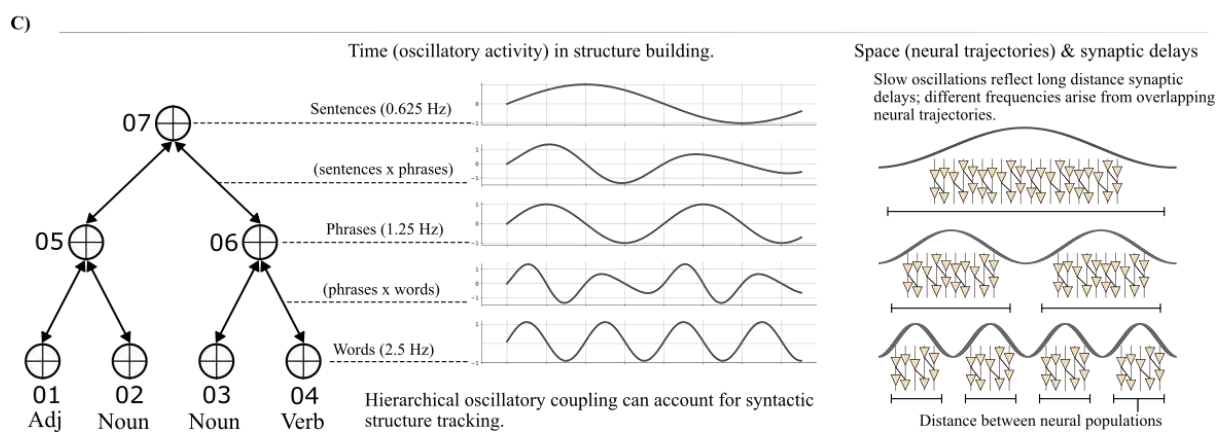
99 This architecture does not postulate dedicated oscillatory circuits for individual phrases or
100 sentences. Instead, the model proposes that lexical categories are represented within low-
101 dimensional latent spaces, encoded by overlapping neural populations (Ralph et al, 2017;
102 Rogers et al., 2021) rather than requiring anatomical segregation as suggested by earlier
103 neuroanatomical studies (Holmes et al., 1971; Damasio & Tranel, 1993; Shapiro et al., 2005).
104 Neural population activity encoding word categories at distinct latent spaces according to
105 semantic distributions may not function as a true (self-sustained fixed frequency) oscillator
106 but rather as resonant activity with a preferred frequency. Resonant activity can amplify
107 external stimuli near the population's natural frequency and align its phase to even non-
108 rhythmic inputs, providing flexible temporal gating for linguistic processing (Izhikevich et al,
109 2003; Doelling & Assaneo, 2021; Vinck et al., 2023). The compositional mechanism operates
110 through cross-frequency coupling (Weissbart and Martin, 2024), whereby higher-order
111 syntactic structures emerge from synchronization between low-dimensional resonant latent
112 neural space of word categories (see Martin, 2016, 2020). For instance, adjective-noun
113 phrasal composition is achieved through phase-locked synchronization between spatially
114 overlapping but dynamically segregated neural ensembles representing adjective and noun

115 categories, with the composite structure encoded by a slower oscillatory frequency in a wider
 116 neuronal population that binds the constituent elements. Phase-locked synchronization
 117 between oscillatory neural populations can be achieved via long range excitatory connections
 118 (See Figure 1 C).



B)

Conditions	Examples	Syntactic Structure	Lexico-semantic Relatedness	Word Category Repetition	Word Transitional Probabilities
Control Sentences	mutlu - adam - radyo - açtı [happy] - [man] - [radio] - [turned on]	✓	✓	✓	●
Semantically Anomalous	yeşil - köpek - şehre - düşer [green] - [dog] - [into the city] - [fall]	✓	✗	✓	●
Syntactically Anomalous	açtı - radyo - adam - mutlu [turned on] - [radio] - [man] - [happy]	✗	✓	✓	●
Fixed Word Order	düşer - şehre - köpek - yeşil [fall] - [into the city] - [dog] - [green]	✗	✗	✓	●
Random Words	köpek - düşer - şehre - yeşil [dog] - [fall] - [into the city] - [green]	✗	✓	✗	●
Random Syllables	şehpil - düre - köşer - yepék	✗	✗	✗	●



119 Figure 1 A. Experimental Design B. Stimuli C. Hierarchically coupled oscillatory network
 120 model
 121

123 Our stimuli were in Turkish, which is well-suited for our purposes. Turkish phrases are head-
124 final, which means that the verb follows its object (*kurabiyeleri yedi*, lit. “cookies ate”), in
125 contrast to the head-first order in English (“ate cookies”). This feature of Turkish is useful
126 because it avoids any repetition of word categories at the phrase rate in regular sentences
127 when it follows a noun phrase such as *aç kadın kurabiyeleri yedi* “[hungry] [woman]
128 [cookies] [ate]” (Adjective-Noun-Noun-Verb)

129 We constructed speech streams in six experimental conditions designed to systematically
130 vary linguistic structure while maintaining control over acoustic properties (Figure 1 B). Each
131 stream consisted of 64 disyllabic words, which formed 16 four-word sequences. We used the
132 same syllables in each condition organized in different orders to minimize acoustic variability
133 across conditions. The conditions contain progressively more linguistic information. In
134 Random Syllable Lists, consecutive syllables could not be combined to form real disyllabic
135 words. This resulted in sequences devoid of linguistic structure at the word, phrase, or
136 sentence levels. In Random Word Lists, two consecutive syllables formed a word, but two
137 consecutive words did not combine into phrases or sentences. However, words within each
138 quadruplet were semantically related and could form a meaningful sentence if reordered
139 correctly. In Fixed Word Lists, consecutive words did not form phrases or sentences, but
140 word categories (e.g., Verb-Noun/Adv-Noun-Adj) were repeated every four words. Words
141 within each quadruplet were not semantically related. Syntactically Anomalous Sentences,
142 are similar to Fixed Word Lists in the sense that word categories were repeated every four
143 words. However, the words within each quadruplet were semantically related and could form
144 a meaningful sentence if reordered correctly. In Semantically Anomalous Sentences,
145 quadruplets were structured such that the first two words formed an anomalous noun phrase
146 and the last two an anomalous verb phrase (e.g., Adj-Noun-Noun/Adv-Verb). This created
147 sentences that were syntactically coherent but semantically nonsensical. Last, Control

148 Sentences were composed of quadruplets that formed fully coherent sentences, both
149 syntactically and semantically. In sum, constructing conditions that have exactly the same
150 syllables in different orders allows us to systematically vary linguistic structure while
151 controlling for acoustic and lexical properties, thus enabling a targeted examination of
152 language processing under different structural constraints.

153 Moreover, specific comparisons allow us to dissect the neural signatures associated with all
154 levels of linguistic organization, offering insights into the processing of lexical, syntactic, and
155 semantic elements in sentence comprehension. **Random Word List vs. Random Syllables:**
156 This contrast was used to investigate the impact of word structure on neural responses. **Fixed**
157 **Word Order vs. Random Syllables:** By comparing these conditions, we assessed the
158 combined effects of word structure and the regular repetition of word categories, which
159 introduces a predictable organizational pattern without sentence level syntactic structure.
160 **Control Sentences vs. Semantically Anomalous:** This comparison examined the influence
161 of semantic coherence and/or transitional probabilities within sentences, highlighting how
162 meaning and statistical patterns modulate neural processing. **Control Sentences vs.**
163 **Syntactically Anomalous:** This contrast primarily reflected the effects of syntactic structure.
164 However, as the syntactic manipulation also involves differences in statistical patterns, the
165 findings should be interpreted with this overlap in mind. **Semantically Anomalous vs.**
166 **Syntactically Anomalous:** This comparison isolates the neural contributions of syntactic
167 structure by controlling for transitional probabilities between consecutive words, as both
168 conditions consist of low-transitional probability sequences. In the Semantically Anomalous
169 condition, syntactic structure is preserved, but transitional probabilities are low due to phrase
170 combinations that violate lexical knowledge. Conversely, in the Syntactically Anomalous
171 condition, low transitional probabilities arise from violations of syntactic structure. By
172 equating statistical differences between conditions, this comparison eliminates transitional

173 probability as a confounding factor, allowing for the specific investigation of syntactic
174 processing. **Control Sentences vs. Random Syllables:** This final contrast captured the
175 cumulative effects of word structure, semantic coherence (and/or transitional probabilities
176 between consecutive words), and syntactic organization within sentences.

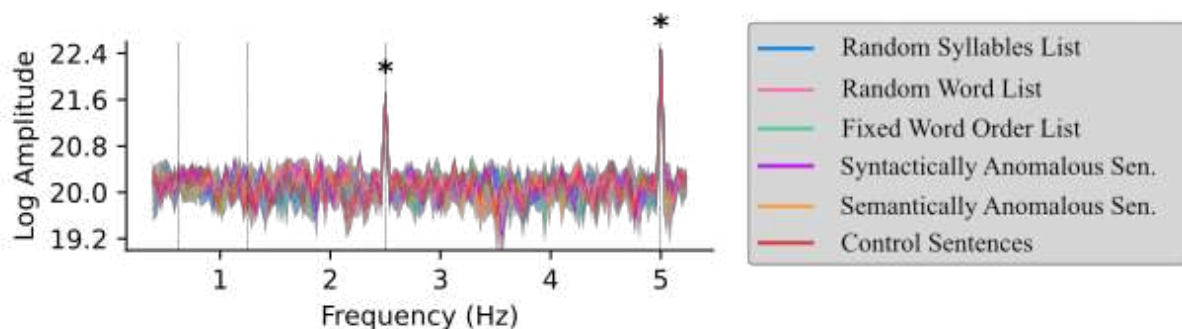
1 Results

2 Behavioral Results

3 To assess whether participants paid attention to the stimuli, we analyzed their performance on
4 multiple-choice questions by comparing the percentage of correct responses. Behavioral data
5 from two participants were unavailable due to a mistake by the experimenter so the analysis
6 included data from 28 participants. On average, participants answered 97.6% (SD = 4.59%)
7 of the questions correctly, which was significantly above the chance level of 25%
8 ($t(27)=110.3, p<0.0001$).

9 Power Spectra of the Stimuli

10 Analyzing the power spectra of the stimuli, we found that all conditions exhibited a
11 significant spectral peak at both the word (2.5 Hz) and syllable (5 Hz) frequencies ($p < 0.05$),
12 while no significant peaks were observed at the sentence (0.625 Hz) or phrase (1.25 Hz)
13 frequencies. (Figure 1A). Comparison of powers at each frequency did not show any
14 significant effect of condition (Sentence Freq. $F(5,54) = 1.461, p=0.218$; Phrase Freq.
15 $F(5,54) = 0.062, p=0.997$; Word Freq. $F(5,54) = 0.324, p=0.897$; Syllable Freq. $F(5,54) =$
16 $0.084, p=0.994$ See Figure 1 and Suppl. Figure 1)



17

18 **Figure 1. A)** Power spectrum of stimuli for each condition (Vertical dashed lines indicate the
19 FOIs at sentence (0.625 Hz), phrase (1.25 Hz), word (2.5 Hz), and syllable frequency (5 Hz).

20 Stars indicate significant peaks ($p < 0.05$); shaded areas indicate the standard error of the mean
21 over trials.)

22 The cosine similarity of word pairs within each quadruplet, used as a measure of lexico-
23 semantic relatedness, was significantly higher in the Control Sentences, Syntactically
24 Anomalous, and Random Words List conditions compared to the Semantically Anomalous
25 and Fixed Word Order List conditions ($t(1) = 2.65$, $p = 0.0079$). Additionally, analysis of the
26 surprisal values for words across trials revealed a significant effect of condition ($F(4,3195) =$
27 35.99 , $p < 0.0001$). Pairwise comparisons indicated that surprisal values were highest in the
28 Fixed Word Order List condition and lowest in the Control Sentences condition relative to all
29 other conditions. No significant differences in surprisal values were observed between the
30 Random Words List, Semantically Anomalous, and Syntactically Anomalous conditions (see
31 Supplementary Fig. 2 and Table 1). These results confirm that the experimental conditions
32 were effectively designed to manipulate the semantic relatedness of words within
33 quadruplets.

34 **Power Spectra of the MEG Signal**

35 All conditions exhibited a significant peak ($p < 0.05$) at the word (2.5 Hz) and syllable (5 Hz)
36 frequencies. The Control Sentences, Semantically Anomalous Sentences, and Fixed Word
37 List conditions additionally showed significant peaks at both sentence (0.625 Hz) and phrase
38 (1.25 Hz) frequencies, along with significant peaks at the harmonics of the sentence
39 frequency. While the peak at the sentence frequency was not significant in the Syntactically
40 Anomalous Sentences condition, the phrase frequency peak was significant, and significant
41 peaks were also observed at the harmonics of the sentence frequency (Figure 2A).

42 LMM results elicited significantly different spectral power for conditions at all frequencies
43 (Sentence Frequency ($F(5,145) = 6.29$, $p < 0.0001$), Phrase Frequency ($F(5,145) = 23.6$, $p <$

44 0.0001), Word Frequency ($F(5,145) = 69.79, p < 0.0001$), and Syllable Frequency ($F(5,145)$
45 $= 5.07, p < 0.001$).

46 At the sentence frequency, the pairwise comparison analysis revealed that the power in the
47 Control Sentences condition was significantly greater than that of the Syntactically
48 Anomalous, Random Words List, and Random Syllables conditions (see Figure 2B and
49 Suppl. Table 2).

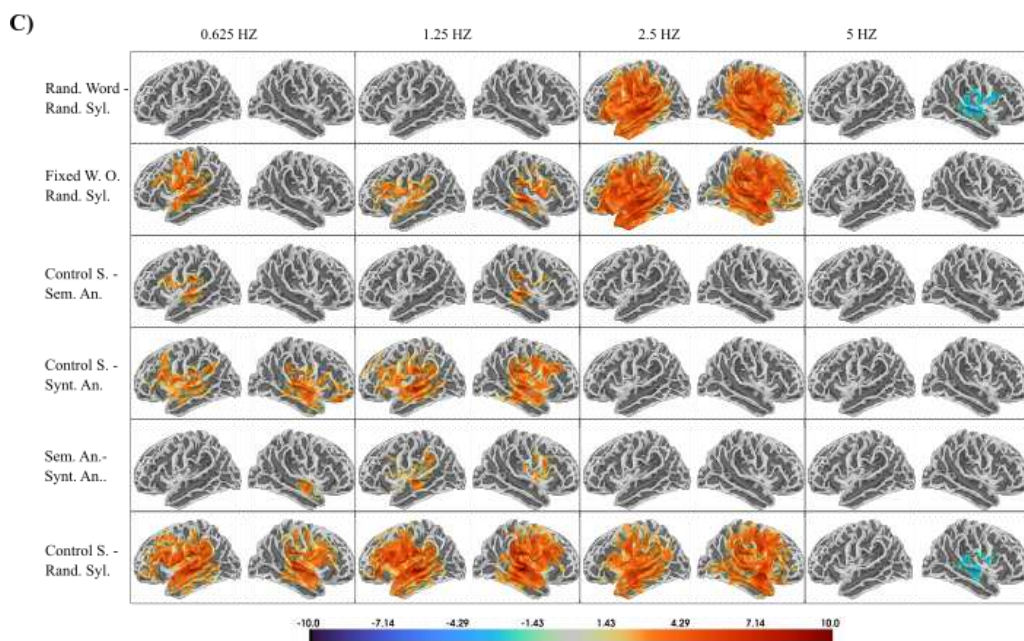
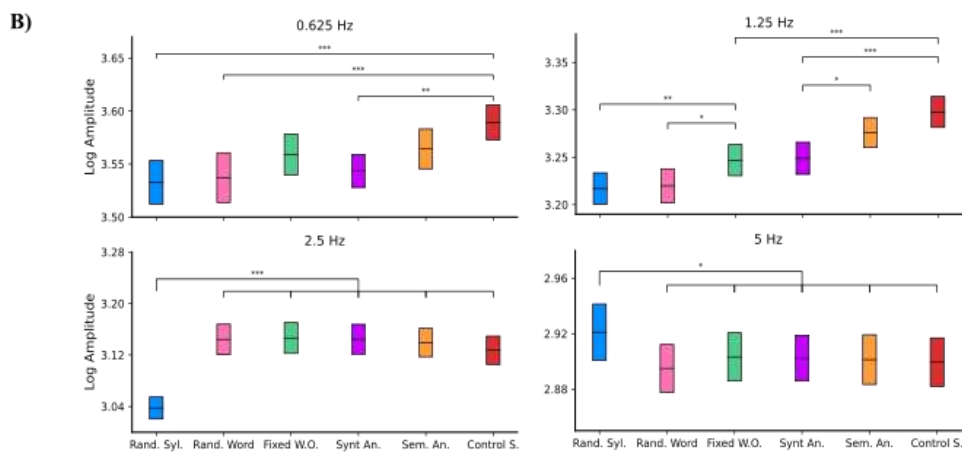
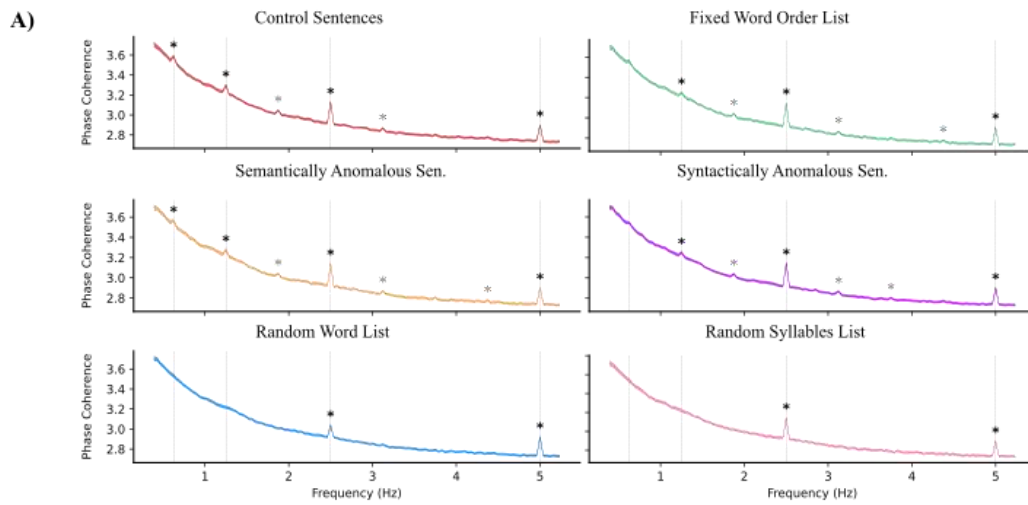
50 At the phrase frequency, the power in the Control Sentences condition remained significantly
51 higher than all other conditions, with the exception of the Semantically Anomalous condition.
52 Notably, although the power in the Semantically Anomalous condition at the sentence
53 frequency did not significantly differ from that in the Syntactically Anomalous condition, it
54 was greater than that at the phrase frequency level.

55 At the word frequency, the Random Syllables condition showed significantly lower power
56 compared to all other conditions, despite being significantly not different than other
57 conditions in the stimuli.

58 At the syllable frequency level, the power in the Random Syllables condition was
59 significantly greater than all other conditions, even though these conditions did not differ
60 acoustically at this frequency. Figure 2B illustrates the power spectra across all conditions at
61 each frequency of interest (FOI).

62 We further examined source-level power differences across conditions by identifying brain
63 regions where significant power differences occurred at each frequency, using a permutation
64 cluster t-test. Power differences were predominantly distributed across the bilateral language
65 network for each contrast. However, we observed a reduced power at the syllable frequency
66 in the contrasts between Control Sentences and Random Syllable List, as well as Random

67 Word List and Random Syllable List, and it was localized on the right hemisphere (See
 68 Figure 2C).



69

70 **Figure 2. A)** Power spectrum of whole brain averaged neural signal in each condition. The
71 vertical dashed lines indicate the FOIs at the sentence (0.625 Hz), phrase (1.25 Hz), word (2.5
72 Hz), and syllable frequency (5 Hz), and black asterisks indicate significant peaks at FOIs, and
73 the grey asterisks indicate significant peaks at the harmonic frequencies (**** <0.0001, ***
74 <0.001, **<0.01, * < 0.05). Shaded areas indicate the standard error of the mean over
75 subjects **B)** Comparison of power averaged over the whole brain at FOIs. Box edges indicate
76 the standard error of the mean over subjects. Black line shows the mean. **C)** Sources that
77 were significantly different between the contrasts. The colors indicate the t-values of the
78 corresponding comparisons.

79 **Intertrial Phase Coherence (ITPC) of the MEG Signal**

80 ITPC analysis showed similar results to the induced power comparison except that ITPC at
81 sentence frequency (0.625 Hz) in Syntactically Anomalous Sentences condition also showed
82 a significant peak (Figure 3A).

83 LMM also revealed significantly different ITPC values for conditions at all frequencies
84 (Sentence Frequency: $F(5,145) = 75.51, p < 0.0001$, Phrase Frequency: $F(5,145) = 80.39, p <$
85 0.0001 , Word Frequency: $F(5,145) = 63.07, p < 0.0001$, and Syllable Frequency: $F(5,145) =$
86 $6.29, p < 0.0001$; see Figure 3 B, Suppl Table 3)

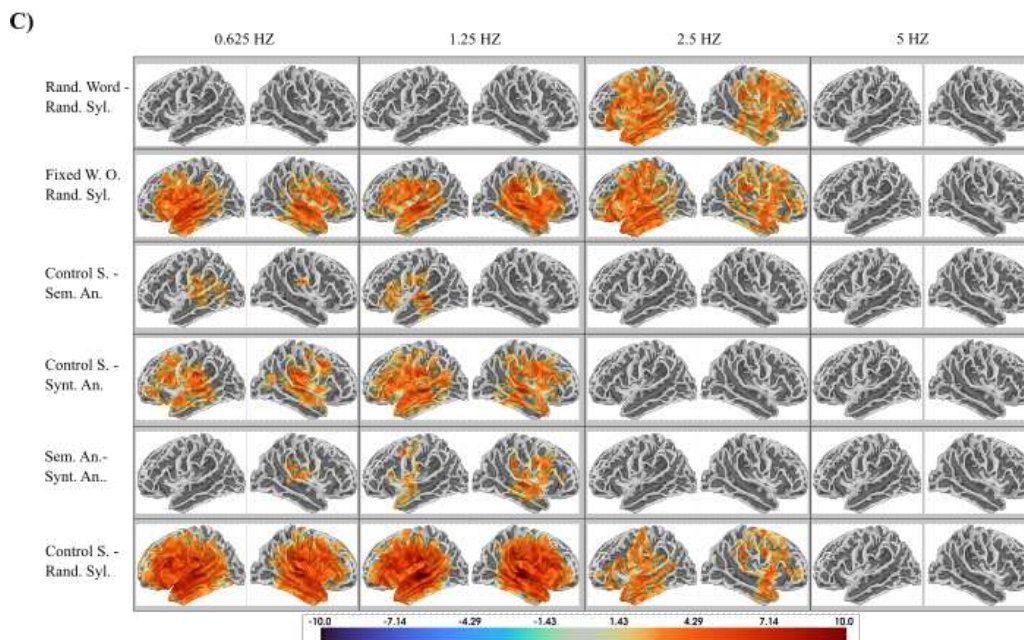
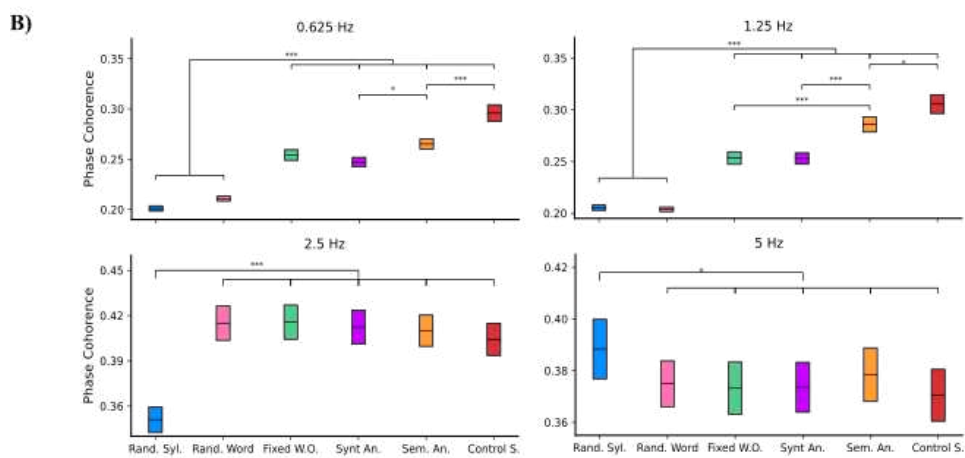
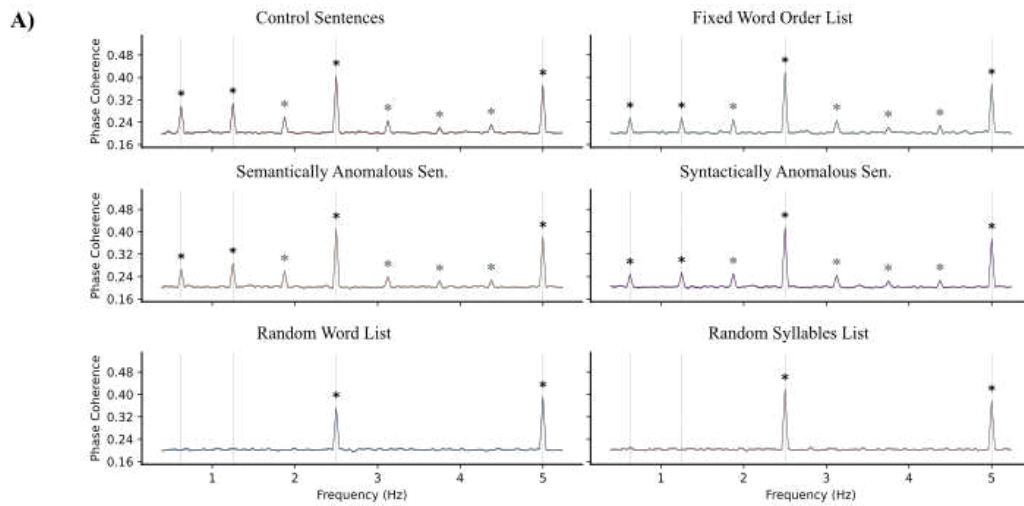
87 Similar to the induced power comparison, at the sentence frequency, the pairwise comparison
88 analysis indicated that ITPC in the Control Sentences condition was significantly higher than
89 in all other conditions. ITPC in the Semantically Anomalous condition was also significantly
90 higher than in the Syntactically Anomalous, Random Word List, and Random Syllable Lists
91 conditions but did not differ significantly from the Fixed Word Order condition.

92 At the phrase frequency level, ITPC in the Control Sentences condition remained
93 significantly greater than in all other conditions. Although ITPC in the Semantically

94 Anomalous condition at the sentence frequency was not significantly different from the Fixed
95 Word Order condition, it exceeded ITPC in the Fixed Word Order condition at the phrase
96 frequency level.

97 At the word frequency level, ITPC in the Random Syllables condition was significantly lower
98 than in all other conditions. Conversely, at the syllable frequency level, ITPC in the Random
99 Syllable List condition was significantly higher than in all other conditions.

100 Further examination of source-level ITPC differences across conditions, also revealed similar
101 results to induced power comparison, with the exception that in the ITPC analysis, no
102 significant difference was observed at the syllable frequency between Control Sentences and
103 Random Syllables or between Random Word List and Random Syllable List (see Figure 3C).



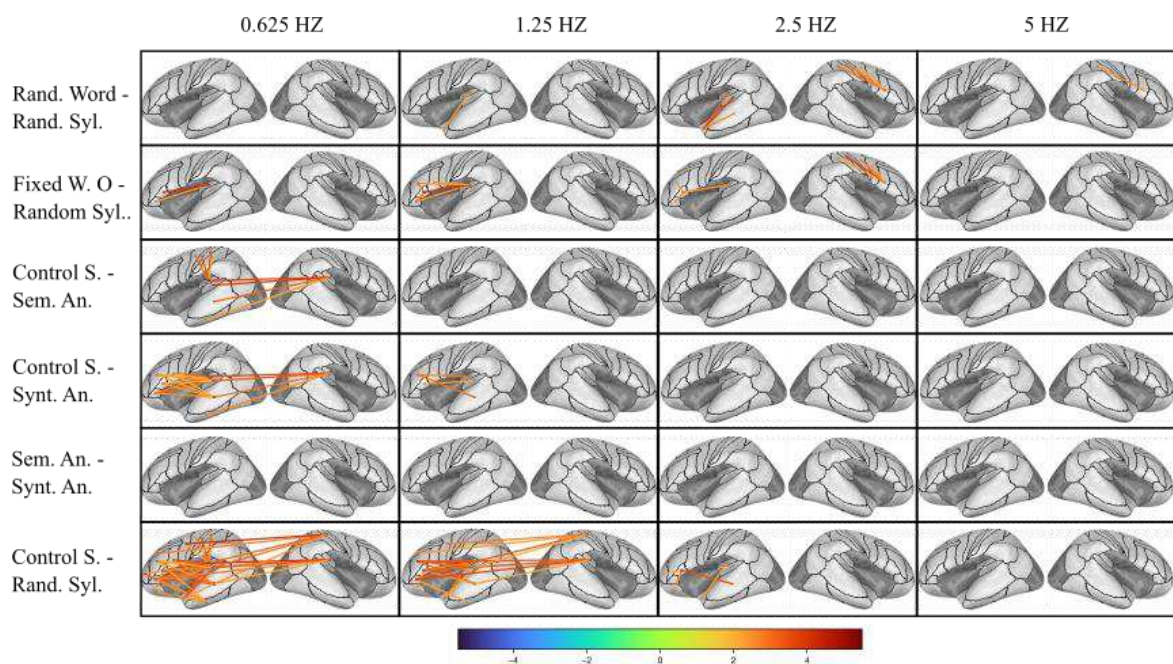
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105 **Figure 3. A)** Whole brain averaged ITPC of neural signal in each condition (Vertical dashed
 106 lines indicate the FOIs at the sentence (0.625 Hz), phrase (1.25 Hz), word (2.5 Hz) , and

107 syllable frequency (5 Hz); black stars indicate significant peaks at FOIs and grey stars
 108 indicate significant peaks at the harmonic frequencies) (**** <0.0001, *** <0.001, **<0.01,
 109 * < 0.05). Shaded areas indicate the standard error of the mean over subjects **B**) Comparison
 110 of ITPC over whole brain at FOIs. Box edges indicate the standard error of the mean over
 111 subjects. Black line shows the mean. **C**) t values of the contrasts on the source level (color
 112 bar indicate the t values at significant sources)

113 **Functional Connectivity Analysis**

114 Figure 4 shows significant differences between conditions in terms of functional connectivity
 115 (pairwise phase coherence) between brain regions. It can be seen that neural synchronization
 116 between different brain regions intensifies as syllable streams are organized into more
 117 complete linguistic structures, reflecting the hierarchical processing of language. When
 118 syllables form real words, evidenced by the comparison between the *Random Word Lists* and
 119 *Random Syllable Lists*, functional connectivity increases between the right parietal and
 120 frontal cortices, as well as within the left temporal cortex, particularly at the word frequency
 121 (2.5 Hz).



122

123 **Figure 4.** t values of connectivity comparison between conditions (color bar indicate the t
124 values at significant regions)

125 The organization of four consecutive words can exhibit regular patterns based on semantic
126 relationships, syntactic structures, or categorical classifications. In the *Fixed Word Order*
127 condition, where word categories are repeated, connectivity is enhanced between the auditory
128 and frontal cortices in the left hemisphere across sentence, phrase, and word frequencies
129 compared to the *Random Syllables* condition. Additionally, this condition also shows
130 increased connectivity between the parietal and frontal cortices in the right hemisphere,
131 similar to the connectivity pattern observed in the word-level contrast.

132 Semantic coherence within quadruplets, examined through the contrast between *Control*
133 *Sentences* and *Semantically Anomalous Sentences*, further increases neural synchrony
134 between the right and left temporal cortices, as well as between the left auditory and motor
135 cortices.

136 Syntactic structure, assessed through the contrast between *Control Sentences* and
137 *Syntactically Anomalous Sentences*, like the semantic coherence, also increases functional
138 connectivity between the right and left temporal cortices, and in addition to that there is an
139 increase in functional connectivity between the left temporal and frontal cortices.

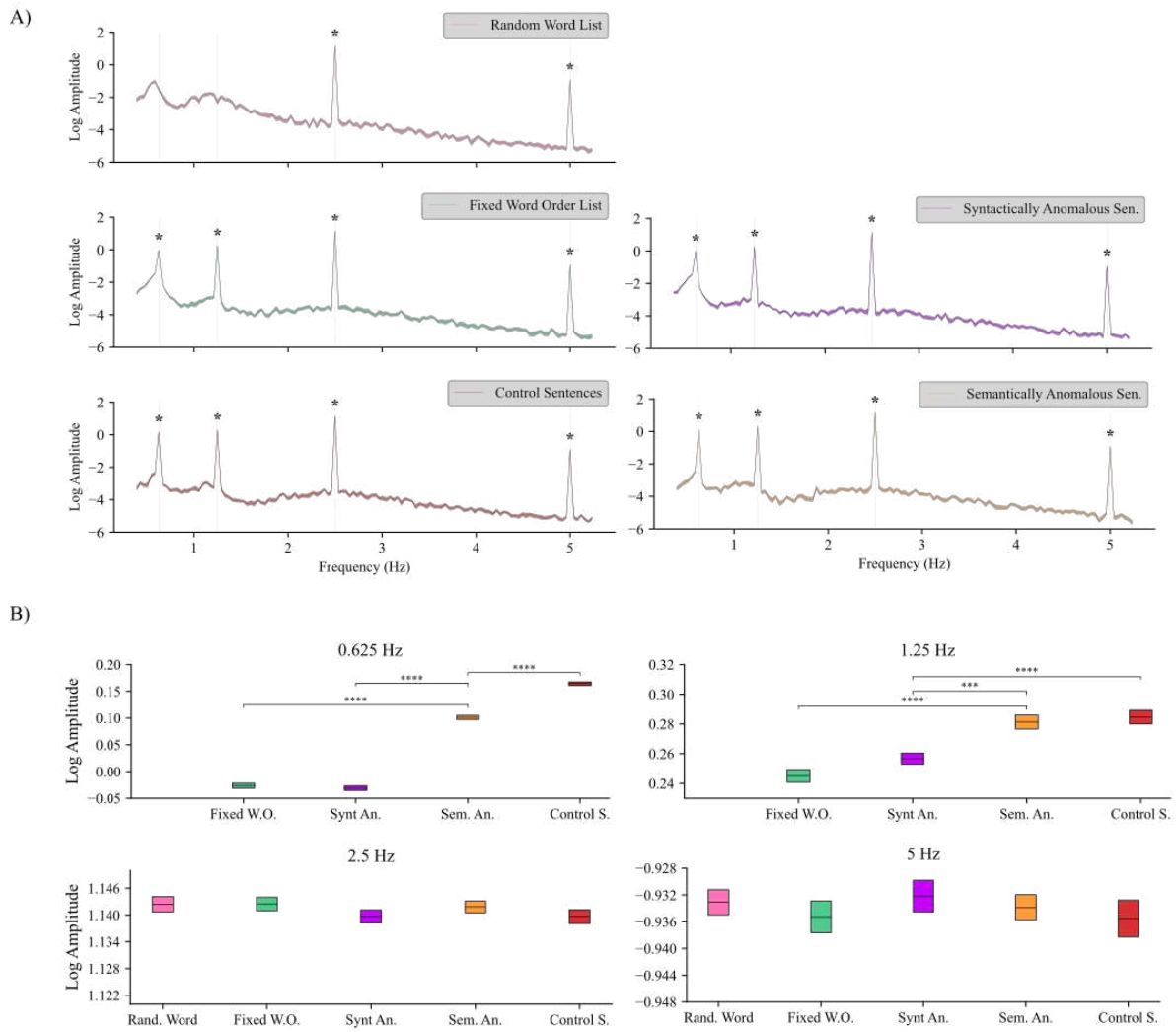
140 The contrast between Semantically and Syntactically Anomalous conditions which has
141 different words in each quadruplet didn't show any significant connectivity difference.

142 Finally, the contrast between the most structured (*Control Sentences*) and least structured
143 (*Random Syllables*) conditions reveals the most widespread increase in functional
144 connectivity.

145 In summary, increasing linguistic structure is associated with enhanced connectivity between
146 brain regions at slower frequency bands, engaging a broader neural network. Connectivity
147 driven by word-level structure predominantly occurs at the word frequency, while sentence-
148 level structure elicits increased connectivity at both the phrase and sentence frequencies.

149 **Hierarchically Coupled Oscillatory Network Model**

150 We simulated the neural response to all conditions except the Random Syllable List condition
151 because the oscillatory model doesn't have syllable level nodes. All conditions demonstrated
152 significant peaks ($p < 0.05$) at the word frequency (2.5 Hz). Additionally, the Fixed Word,
153 Syntactically Anomalous, Semantically Anomalous, and Control Sentences conditions
154 exhibited significant peaks at the sentence frequency (0.625 Hz) and phrase frequency (1.25
155 Hz). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed significant differences in spectral power across
156 experimental conditions at both the sentence- and phrase-level frequencies, whereas no
157 significant differences were observed at the word- or syllable-level frequencies (Sentence
158 Frequency ($F(4,145) = 265.9, p < 0.0001$), Phrase Frequency ($F(4,145) = 294.3, p < 0.0001$),
159 Word Frequency ($F(4,145) = 0.46, p=0.90$), and Syllable Frequency ($F(4,145) = 0.81, p$
160 $=0.39$)). Pairwise comparisons for each frequency band power are shown on Figure 6 B (see
161 Suppl. Table 1).



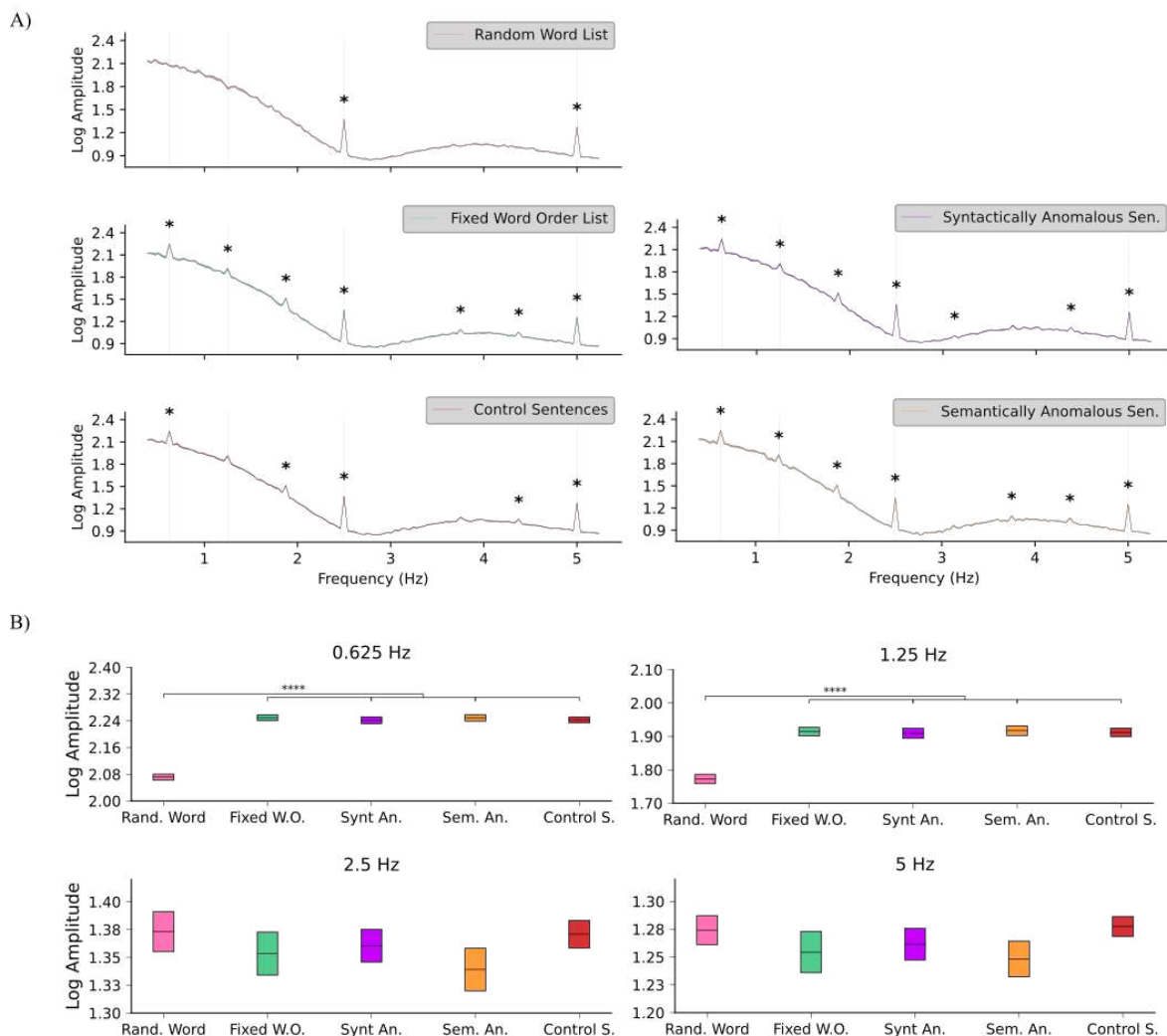
162

163 **Figure 5. A)** Power spectrum of simulated conditions (Vertical lines mark sentence, phrase,
 164 word and syllable frequencies, * indicates significant peaks) **B)** Power at sentence-, phrase-,
 165 and word-level frequencies (**** <0.0001, *** <0.001, ** <0.01, * < 0.05)

166 **Lexical Model**

167 We simulated the neural response to all conditions except the Random Syllable List condition
 168 because it does not contain real words and therefore could not be modeled via word
 169 embeddings. All conditions demonstrated significant peaks ($p < 0.05$) at the word frequency
 170 (2.5 Hz) and syllable frequency (5 Hz). Additionally, the Fixed Word, Syntactically
 171 Anomalous, Semantically Anomalous, and Control Sentences conditions exhibited peaks at
 172 the sentence frequency (0.625 Hz) and phrase frequency (1.25 Hz). However, the phrase-

173 level peak in the Control Sentences condition did not reach statistical significance. Analysis
 174 of variance (ANOVA) of the lexical model at each FOI revealed a significant effect of
 175 condition at sentence and phrase frequencies (Sentence: $F(4,45) = 60.01, p < 0.0001$; Phrase:
 176 $F(4,45) = 20.22, p < 0.0001$; Word: $F(4,45) = 0.668, p = 0.618$; Syllable: $F(4,45) = 0.737,$
 177 $p = 0.571$). Pairwise comparison showed that at both sentence and phrase frequency, power of
 178 Fixed Word, Syntactically Anomalous, Semantically Anomalous and Control Sentences
 179 conditions is higher than Random Words condition. In contrast to the neural data, the
 180 simulated data did not show a difference between the Control Sentences and Fixed Word
 181 Lists, Syntactically Anomalous and Semantically Anomalous Sentences, neither either at the
 182 phrase rate nor at the sentence rate (Figure 6, Suppl. Table 4).



183

184 **Figure 6. A)** Power spectrum of lexical model in each condition. The vertical dashed lines
185 indicate the FOIs at the sentence (0.625 Hz), phrase (1.25 Hz), word (2.5 Hz), and syllable
186 frequency (5 Hz), and black asterisks indicate significant peaks at FOIs, and the grey
187 asterisks indicate significant peaks at the harmonic frequencies (**** <0.0001, *** <0.001,
188 **<0.01, * < 0.05). Shaded areas show the standard error of the mean within trials **B)**
189 Comparison of power averaged over trials. Box edges indicate the standard error of the mean
190 over trials. Black line shows the mean.

191 **Discussion**

192 We utilized a frequency-tagging paradigm with isochronous speech to examine how the
193 presence of varying levels of linguistic structure influenced neural speech tracking. The
194 primary goal of this study was to disentangle the distinct contributions of syntactic structure,
195 semantic coherence (and/or transitional probabilities between consecutive words), and word
196 category repetition. Specifically, we aimed to test two competing hypotheses regarding the
197 processes underlying neural speech tracking: (1) the Lexical-Statistic Hypothesis, which
198 posits that repetition of lexical-level distributional representations can generate power peaks
199 at phrase- and sentence-level frequencies, and (2) the Structure-Building Hypothesis, which
200 proposes that lexical information is integrated into hierarchical structure.

201 To address these hypotheses, we analyzed measures of induced power, inter-trial phase
202 coherence, and whole-brain functional connectivity. Additionally, we simulated a
203 computational model representing the Lexical-Statistic Hypothesis.

204 Our findings revealed that neural tracking increases at word, phrase, and sentence frequencies
205 as syllables coalesce into words, words combine into phrases, and phrases combine into
206 sentences. The results of connectivity analyses suggested that this increase in neural tracking
207 is driven by the synchronization of an increasingly extensive neural network as the

208 complexity of linguistic representations rises. Neural activity within lower-frequency bands
209 exhibits greater synchronization across a wider brain network. Furthermore, semantic
210 coherence and word category repetition also contributed to enhanced neural tracking,
211 alongside syntactic structure, although these factors appeared to engage distinct neural
212 networks.

213 Additionally, our computational simulations demonstrated that a non-hierarchical lexical
214 model, in which distributional vectors are repeated, can simulate neural tracking at sentence
215 and phrase frequencies in condition which word categories are repeated. However, this model
216 did not account for contributions of syntactic structure. In contrast, a hierarchically coupled
217 oscillatory network, where word-category nodes are coupled with a phrase node, and phrase
218 nodes are coupled with a sentence node, can successfully distinguish between semantic and
219 syntactic coherence. This model does not assume fixed oscillators or dedicated circuits for
220 individual words or phrases. Instead, it generates compositional structure dynamically
221 through cross-frequency coupling within low-dimensional resonant activity, supported by
222 overlapping neural populations that encode lexical categories.

223 In the following sections, we will discuss each of these findings in order of increasing
224 linguistic complexity.

225 ***When syllables combine into words, neural tracking at word frequency was enhanced and***
226 ***it was suppressed at the syllable frequency:***

227 We analyzed induced power to examine the modulation of power that is not necessarily
228 phase-aligned and inter-trial phase coherence (ITPC) to separately investigate phase
229 alignment. Whole-brain average results from the Random Words versus Random Syllables
230 contrast revealed that both power and ITPC at the word frequency increased when syllables
231 formed words, while neural tracking at the syllable frequency was stronger in the Random

232 Syllables condition. At the source level, we observed increases in both induced power and
233 phase coherence at the word frequency in widely distributed cortical regions for words.
234 However, when comparing induced power in Random Words versus Random Syllables at the
235 syllable frequency, we identified suppression around the right auditory cortex for words or
236 enhancement for syllables. This modulation may reflect reduced reliance on lower-level
237 information due to higher-level expectations for the second syllable in real words. In contrast,
238 in the Random Syllables condition, the first syllable of a real word is followed by the second
239 syllable of a different word so it was unexpected (Rao & Ballard, 1999; Friston, 2005;
240 Sohoglu et al., 2024). Alternatively, this effect may indicate that linguistic structure enhances
241 the tracking of higher-level representations (Kaufeld et al., 2020; Coopmans et al., 2022; Ten
242 Oever et al., 2022; Tezcan et al., 2023, 2025; Weissbart and Martin, 2024; Mai & Wang,
243 2023; Gillis et al., 2023; Brodbeck et al., 2024; Pérez-Navarro, 2024). In the Random Words
244 condition, the highest level of linguistic information processed corresponds to words,
245 whereas in the Random Syllables condition, it is limited to individual syllables. However,
246 since this contrast did not control for statistical regularities at the syllable or sub-word level,
247 nor for the structural properties of word formation, it remains unclear whether the observed
248 suppression or enhancement at word and syllable frequencies is driven by statistical
249 properties or hierarchical linguistic structure. Consequently, the present experimental design
250 does not allow for a definitive dissociation between these potential processes.

251 ***Word category repetition increased neural tracking at both sentence and phrase frequency:***

252 The contrast between Fixed Word List and Random Syllables revealed a similar pattern of
253 word formation at the word frequency. Additionally, it demonstrated an increased power and
254 phase coherence at both phrase and sentence frequencies. Notably, since word categories
255 were only repeated every four words (sentence frequency), and since there were no phrases in
256 the Fixed Word List condition, there was no regular repetition at the phrase frequency. This

257 suggests that the increase at the phrase frequency could potentially represent a harmonic of
258 the sentence frequency (Zhou et al, 2016). These findings align with the lexical-statistics
259 hypothesis (Saffran et al, 1996; Frank et al., 2012; Batterink and Paller, 2017, 2019; Frank
260 and Christiansen, 2018; Frank and Yang, 2018) suggesting that repetition of word categories
261 can generate a power peak at the sentence frequency. Furthermore, tracking the repetition of
262 word categories enhanced phase synchronization between the left auditory and frontal
263 cortices.

264 In this comparison, the suppression of induced power at the syllable frequency for words
265 which was observed in the previous contrast was not evident for source level comparison of
266 the Fixed Word List condition. However, whole-brain-averaged power at the syllable
267 frequency remained higher in the Random Syllables condition compared to the Fixed Word
268 List condition. If this suppression were driven by predictive processing related to the
269 expectation of a second syllable in real words or tracking the highest-level linguistic
270 structure, we would expect the same effect to emerge in this comparison, as well as in the
271 comparison of Random Syllables with all other conditions, since all conditions used the same
272 set of words. To further investigate, we directly compared Random Syllables with all other
273 conditions. This analysis revealed suppressed induced power at the syllable frequency in all
274 other conditions localized around the right auditory cortex (see Supplementary Figure 3).
275 Notably, the statistical significance of the cluster exhibiting reduced induced power for words
276 in this contrast approached conventional thresholds, with a p-value of 0.071.

277 ***Semantic coherence in a sentence (and/or transitional probabilities between consecutive***
278 ***words) also contributed to the neural tracking:***

279 The contrast between Control Sentences and Semantically Anomalous Sentences highlighted
280 the contribution of semantic coherence (and/or transitional probabilities between words)

281 within a sentence. This was associated with increased induced power and phase coherence at
282 both sentence and phrase frequencies, as observed in the source-space analysis. However, the
283 effect was more pronounced in phase coherence, as demonstrated in the whole-brain average
284 analysis as well. Since both conditions share the same syntactic structure and pattern of word
285 category repetition, these differences can be attributed to the presence or absence of semantic
286 coherence (Kaufeld et al., 2020; Coopmans et al., 2022) and/or the statistical regularities
287 (transitional probabilities between consecutive words) informed by broader language
288 knowledge. This process appears to enhance phase synchronization between the right
289 auditory and left temporal cortices, as well as between the left auditory and parietal cortices.

290 ***Syntactic structure enhanced neural tracking beyond statistical information alone:***

291 To examine the effect of syntactic structure on neural tracking, we compared Control
292 Sentences with Syntactically Anomalous Sentences. In the Syntactically Anomalous
293 condition, word order was reversed, thereby preserving word category repetition and the
294 presence of semantically related words within each quadruplet (see also Lo et al., 2022).
295 However, this manipulation introduced violations of transitional probabilities between
296 consecutive words as well as syntactic structure (Slaats and Martin, 2025). The combination
297 of syntactic structure and transitional probabilities enhanced induced power and inter-trial
298 phase coherence (ITPC) at sentence- and phrase-level frequencies. Similar to the comparison
299 between Control Sentences and Semantically Anomalous Sentences which showed the effect
300 of semantic coherence and/or transitional probabilities, this contrast also revealed increased
301 functional connectivity between the right and left temporal cortices. Additionally, there was
302 an observed increase in functional connectivity between the left temporal and frontal cortices,
303 likely driven by syntactic processing (Hagoort, 2005; Friederici, 2011)

304 To isolate the specific contribution of syntax, we compared Semantically Anomalous
305 Sentences with Syntactically Anomalous Sentences. Both conditions exhibited similar
306 surprisal values (i.e., transitional probabilities) between consecutive words and had repeated
307 word categories every four words, but they lacked shared lexical items within each
308 quadruplet. The Semantically Anomalous Sentences compared to Syntactically Anomalous
309 sentences demonstrated increased induced power and ITPC at frequencies associated with
310 sentence- and phrase-level structures, indicating that syntactic structure enhances neural
311 tracking beyond what can be attributed to word category repetition and transitional
312 probabilities (Ding et al 2016; Zhao et al. 2024; Coopmans et al. 2025; Weissbart and Martin,
313 2024). However, no significant differences in functional connectivity were observed between
314 these conditions. This absence of connectivity differences may reflect the engagement of
315 distinct cognitive strategies for integrating information within word quadruplets. In the
316 Semantically Anomalous Sentences, syntactic structure drives the integration process,
317 whereas in the Syntactically Anomalous Sentences, semantic relatedness of words likely
318 played a more dominant role. These divergent mechanisms may recruit different neural
319 pathways which may not be distinguished phase coherence analysis such as the direction of
320 connectivity, contributing to the observed sentence-level tracking in both conditions.

321 ***The Lexical Model accounted for sentence- and phrase-level peaks through word category***
322 ***repetition but did not capture syntactic structure, a limitation overcome by the Oscillatory***
323 ***Model***

324 We simulated neural responses using the Lexical Model proposed by Frank and Yang (2018).
325 As consistent with previous studies (Burroughs et al., 2021; Lo et al., 2022; Kalenkovich et
326 al., 2022) our results revealed that the Lexical Model produces peaks at phrase- and sentence-
327 level frequencies across all conditions involving word category repetition. However, the
328 model failed to account for the effects of syntactic structure on tracking as evidenced by

329 statistically similar peak magnitudes observed for Control and Syntactically Anomalous
330 sentences, as well as for Semantically Anomalous and Fixed Word Order conditions. This
331 would be consistent with embedding vectors generated by the GPT-2 model encoding lower-
332 dimensional patterns that to some degree may reflect word categories. But these lower-
333 dimensional patterns do not capture transitional probabilities between word categories, as the
334 transitional probabilities between words were primarily captured at the token level rather than
335 generalized to the level of word category.

336 Furthermore, our analysis of surprisal values revealed lower values for Control Sentences
337 compared to Semantically Anomalous and Syntactically Anomalous sentences, with no
338 significant difference between the latter two conditions. Importantly, this lack of
339 differentiation persisted despite the intact grammatical structure of Semantically Anomalous
340 sentences. These could be one of the reasons that while models like GPT-2 excel in
341 generating coherent and predictable sentences and continuations, they struggle to generalize
342 effectively to novel combinations of word categories due to their reliance on token-based
343 relationships rather than abstract categories and hierarchical relationships between them.

344 The Hierarchically Coupled Oscillatory Network, similar to DORA (Martin & Doumas,
345 2017), integrates word categories into higher-order abstract nodes, such as phrases and
346 sentences. We propose that neural synchrony, operationalized through coupled oscillators,
347 facilitates the combination of neural representations through cross-frequency coupling
348 (Lakatos et al, 2008; Lisman and Jensen, 2013; Arnal et al, 2015; Hyafil et al, 2015; Brennan
349 and Martin, 2020; Ten Oever and Martin, 2021; Murphy, 2024; Weissbart and Martin, 2024).
350 This approach aligns with the notion that linguistic unit representations, activated by sensory
351 input, must be maintained in a separable and active state until their transformation into
352 higher-order constructs is complete (Poeppel & Monahan, 2011; Bever & Poeppel, 2010;
353 Marslen-Wilson & Welsh, 1978; Halle & Stevens, 1962; Martin, 2020).

354 Our findings demonstrate that coupled oscillators associated with word category nodes can
355 account for differences in power magnitude at phrase- and sentence-level frequencies across
356 conditions. These oscillators generate distinct neural responses that reflect changes in both
357 syntactic structure and semantic coherence and/or transitional probabilities, thereby capturing
358 the hierarchical structure of linguistic input.

359 In conclusion, we investigated how varying levels of linguistic structure influence neural
360 speech tracking using a frequency-tagging paradigm with isochronous speech. By examining
361 induced power, inter-trial phase coherence, and whole-brain functional connectivity, we
362 aimed to disentangle the contributions of syntactic structure, semantic coherence, and word
363 category repetition. Our results demonstrated that neural tracking is progressively enhanced
364 at word, phrase, and sentence frequencies as linguistic elements are hierarchically integrated
365 into higher-order structures. Word category repetition, semantic coherence (and/or
366 transitional probabilities), and syntactic structure each independently contributed to enhanced
367 neural tracking. Complementary connectivity indicated that this enhancement is associated
368 with the recruitment and synchronization of an increasingly distributed neural network
369 reflecting the growing complexity of linguistic processing.

370 To further explore the underlying computational principles, we simulated a model suggested
371 by Frank and Yang (2018). A non-hierarchical lexical model, in which lexical distributions
372 are repeated, successfully replicated power peaks at phrase- and sentence-level frequencies
373 for conditions which word categories are repeated but failed to account for syntactic
374 contributions. In contrast, a hierarchically coupled oscillatory model, where word-category
375 nodes interact with phrase and sentence nodes, effectively captured the distinction between
376 syntactic structure and semantic coherence. These findings support the idea that hierarchical
377 processing plays a crucial role in neural speech tracking beyond simple word-category
378 repetition. They suggest that cross-frequency-coupled oscillatory activity may help organize

379 hierarchical structure, and both statistical information and syntactic structure contribute to
380 shaping linguistic representations in the brain.

381 **Materials and Methods**

382 **Participants**

383 Thirty native speakers of Turkish participated in the experiment (17 females, mean age = 32.4
384 years, age range = 22-42 years). All participants were right-handed, reported normal hearing,
385 had either normal or corrected-to-normal vision, and had no history of dyslexia or other
386 language-related disorders. Prior to participating in the MEG and MRI sessions, participants
387 underwent a screening for eligibility and provided written informed consent. The study
388 received approval from the Ethics Committee for Human Research in Arnhem/Nijmegen
389 (project number CMO2014/288). Participants were compensated for their involvement in the
390 study.

391 **Stimuli**

392 The experiment consisted of six conditions (see Table 1 for examples). Each condition had 10
393 unique syllable streams, each repeated twice. Each trial in each condition comprised 16
394 quadruplets of words (64 bisyllabic words - 128 syllables - 25.6 seconds), presented
395 consecutively without any silence between them. We used the same syllables in each
396 condition to minimize acoustic variability across conditions. The conditions contain
397 progressively more linguistic information. In Random Syllable Lists, consecutive syllables
398 could not be combined to form real bisyllabic words. This resulted in sequences devoid of
399 linguistic structure at the word, phrase, or sentence levels. In Random Word Lists, two
400 consecutive syllables formed a word, but two consecutive words did not combine into phrases
401 or sentences. However, words within each quadruplet were semantically related and could
402 form a meaningful sentence if reordered correctly. In Fixed Word Lists, consecutive words
403 did not form phrases or sentences, but word categories (e.g., Verb-Noun/Adv-Noun-Adj)

404 were repeated every four words. Words within each quadruplet were not semantically related.
405 Syntactically Anomalous Sentences, are similar to Fixed Word Lists in the sense that word
406 categories were repeated every four words (Verb-Noun/Adv-Noun-Adj). However, the words
407 within each quadruplet were semantically related and could form a meaningful sentence if
408 reordered correctly. In Semantically Anomalous Sentences, quadruplets were structured such
409 that the first two words formed an anomalous noun phrase and the last two an anomalous
410 verb phrase (e.g., Adj-Noun-Noun/Adv-Verb). This created sentences that were syntactically
411 coherent but semantically nonsensical. Last, Control Sentences were composed of
412 quadruplets that formed fully coherent sentences, both syntactically and semantically (Adj-
413 Noun-Noun/Adv-Verb).

414 We generated 320 bi-syllabic Turkish words, comprising 80 adjectives, nouns, adverbs, and
415 verbs, each intended for use in the condition trials, using the Google Cloud Text-to-Speech
416 service (Google Cloud, 2023), with a female voice (tr-TR-wavenet-A). Additionally, 160 bi-
417 syllabic buffer words were generated for use in the task trials which was to detect the last
418 word presented when the stimuli presentation stop at random time intervals and before
419 condition trials which was excluded from the analysis to due acoustic onset responses.

420 The sound wave of each bisyllabic word was manually split into two syllables using the
421 software Praat (Boersma and Weenink, 2018). Subsequently, the duration of each syllable
422 was adjusted to 200 ms yielding a syllable rate of $1/0.2s = 5$ Hz, a word rate of $1/0.4 = 2.5$
423 Hz, a phrase rate of $1/0.8 = 1.25$ Hz and a sentence rate of $1/1.6 = 0.625$ Hz by stretching or
424 compressing the sound wave using a Time-Scale Modification (TSM) algorithm, which alters
425 the length of an audio signal while preserving its pitch (Driedger and Müller, 2014).

426 Additionally, the intensity was normalized to -16 dBFS. In all, this procedure made the words
427 sound more natural than when they were constructed by concatenating separately generated
428 syllables.

429 To quantify the lexico-semantic relatedness of words in each quadruplet, we calculated the
430 cosine similarity of the word embedding of each word pair in the quadruplets, and then ran a
431 two-sided t-test between the cosine similarity values of semantically related conditions
432 (Random Words, Syntactically Anomalous and Control Sentences) and unrelated conditions
433 (Fixed Word List and Semantically Anomalous Sentences. Word embeddings were obtained
434 from a GPT2 model trained on a Turkish dataset (ytu-ce-cosmos/turkish-gpt2: Kesgin et al.,
435 2024). We used the same GPT2 model to calculate the transitional probability of each word
436 pair, which is the conditional probability of a word given the previous word in each trial of
437 each condition. Then, the surprisal values of each word were computed via the negative log
438 of this probability.

439 **Procedure**

440 Participants listened to the speech streams played through in-ear headphones while their brain
441 activity was measured with MEG while participants were fixating a cross in the middle of the
442 presentation screen. In each condition, there were 10 distinct syllable streams (each 25.6
443 seconds) each repeated 2 times, resulting in a total of 20 trials for each condition presented in
444 10 blocks. Four buffer words were presented both before each trial to avoid the evoked
445 response at the stimulus onset. Buffer words were not included in the analysis. Each block
446 started after 30 seconds of silence to allow participants to sit still and prepare for the block.
447 Audio recordings of each trial were played after a random interval ranging from 2 to 3
448 seconds. To maintain participant engagement throughout the experiment, 2-4 multiple-choice
449 questions were included in each block. These questions were randomly presented at the end
450 of trials, requiring participants to choose the last word they heard from four options by
451 pressing a button. To prevent disruption of condition sequences by the button press during the
452 task, new sets of buffer word sequences, ranging from 10 to 44 words in length, were

453 generated specifically for use during these tasks and they were added at the end of conditions
454 sequences.

455 **Data Acquisition**

456 The magnetoencephalography (MEG) signals were recorded with a 275-sensor axial
457 gradiometer system (CTF Systems Inc.) in a magnetically shielded room. All stimuli were
458 presented auditorily using the Psychophysics Toolbox extensions of Matlab (Brainard, 1997;
459 Pelli, 1997; Kleiner et al, 2007). MEG data were acquired at a sampling frequency of 1200
460 Hz. Head localization was monitored during the experiment using marker coils placed at the
461 cardinal points of the head (nasion, left and right ear canal) and head position was corrected
462 before each block to keep it at the same position as at the beginning of the experiment. In
463 addition to MEG data, we also acquired T1-weighted structural MR images of each
464 participant using a 3-T MAGNETOM Skyra scanner (Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen,
465 Germany). Lastly, 3-dimensional coordinates of each participant's head surface were
466 measured using a digitizing pen system (Polhemus Isotrak system, Kaiser Aerospace Inc.).

467 **MEG Data Preprocessing**

468 MEG data were analyzed using mne-python (version 0.23.1). First, data were annotated to
469 exclude the response parts from the rest of the analysis, resampled to 300 Hz, and then we
470 applied a notch filter at 50 and 100 Hz. Data were epoched into trials from 2 seconds before
471 the onset of the first buffer word to the offset of the last buffer word. Epochs were filtered
472 between 0.5 and 145 Hz with a one-pass, zero-phase, non-causal FIR filter using the default
473 settings of mne-python. Ocular and cardiac artifacts were removed with independent
474 components analysis.

475 Individual head models were created for each participant with their structural MR images
476 with Freesurfer (surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu) and were co-registered to the MEG coordinate
477 system with mne's coregistration utility. A surface-based source space was computed for

478 each participant using four-fold icosahedral subdivision. Resting state data 2 seconds before
479 the presentation of each trial (4 mins in total) were used to calculate the noise covariance
480 matrix. Cortical sources of the MEG signals were estimated using dynamic statistical
481 parametric map (dSPM), a noise-normalized minimum norm estimate method. Orientations
482 of the dipoles were constrained to be perpendicular to the cortical surface. The resulting
483 source space was morphed to the fsaverage template provided by FreeSurfer. For the
484 subsequent analyses, the initial 1.6 seconds of each epoch, corresponding to the presentation
485 of buffer words, were excluded to avoid confounding effects from the acoustic onset
486 response.

487 **Spectral analysis**

488 **Stimuli:** The auditory streams for each condition were filtered between 0.5 and 145 Hz using
489 a one-pass, zero-phase, non-causal FIR filter using mne-python library. Then, the temporal
490 envelope was obtained by taking the absolute value of the analytic signal derived via the
491 Hilbert transform. After down-sampling to 50 Hz, the power spectra were computed via a
492 discrete Fourier transform of the envelopes of the stimuli.

493 **Induced Power:** The source-reconstructed data were first down-sampled to 50 Hz and then
494 transformed into the frequency domain using a discrete Fourier transform with a frequency
495 resolution of 1/25.6 Hz. The power spectrum for each source point and trial was calculated by
496 taking the magnitude of the complex values, which involves computing the absolute value of
497 the real and imaginary components. Following this, the magnitude of the power across all
498 trials was averaged, and the logarithm of these averaged values was subsequently computed.

499 **The inter-trial phase coherence:** ITPC at a given frequency f was computed as the mean of
500 the squared sum of the Fourier coefficients at f . This is calculated using the formula:

501
$$R(f) = \frac{1}{k} \left[\sum_k (\cos \theta_k)^2 + \sum_k (\sin \theta_k)^2 \right]$$

502 where k represents the number of trials for each condition, and θ_k denotes the phase angle of
503 the complex Fourier coefficient.

504 **Connectivity Analysis**

505 For the connectivity analysis, the epoched data for each condition and trial were filtered at
506 each frequency of interest (FOIs: 0.625 Hz, 1.25, 2.5, and 5.0 Hz) using a narrow-band, one-
507 pass, zero-phase, non-causal FIR filter with the MNE-Python library. The filter was applied
508 within a range of \pm half the spectral resolution around each FOI. Time series of source
509 estimates for each condition and trial were computed for the frontal, parietal, and temporal
510 brain regions using the 'PALS_B12_Brodmann' atlas (Van Essen, 2005), resulting in 24
511 parcellations per hemisphere. We used pairwise phase consistency (PPC) as the connectivity
512 metric, because PPC is invariant to the direction of information flow, it captures both zero
513 and non-zero phase lag interactions between signals, and it is not biased by the sample size
514 (Vinck et al., 2010, 2012; Bastos & Schoffelen, 2016).

515 **Hierarchically Coupled Oscillatory Network Model**

516 We developed a hierarchically coupled oscillatory network to simulate neural responses
517 across different experimental conditions to test structure-building hypothesis. The network
518 consists of three layers. The first layer includes four oscillators representing word categories
519 (Adjective, Noun, Noun, Verb) for all conditions except the Random Syllable List condition,
520 which does not contain word categories. The second layer contains two phrase nodes. The
521 first phrase node is coupled to the Adjective and Noun oscillators, while the second phrase
522 node is coupled to the Noun and Verb oscillators. In the third layer, a single sentence node is
523 coupled to the phrase nodes from the second layer. The intrinsic frequencies of the oscillators

524 were set to 2.5 Hz for the first layer, 1.25 Hz for the second layer, and 0.625 Hz for the third
 525 layer. Linear harmonic oscillators at each layer were modeled as masses connected by springs
 526 with a damping factor (Figure 1 C).

527 The dynamics of each oscillator were governed by the following equation,

$$\ddot{x}(t) = F - \omega^2 x(t) - \gamma \dot{x}(t) \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

528 where t is time, $x(t)$ is the magnitude of the neural response, $\dot{x}(t)$ and $\ddot{x}(t)$ are the first and
 529 second derivatives of the neural response, respectively, $F(t)$ represents the stimulation input,
 530 ω is the intrinsic angular frequency of the oscillator, and γ is the damping factor. The intrinsic
 531 angular frequency of the oscillators is determined by the following formula where f is the
 532 frequency.

$$\omega = 2\pi f \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

533 To establish interactions between nodes across layers, a coupling constant C_{ij} was introduced
 534 between coupled nodes i and j . The dynamic equations governing all seven nodes are given
 535 below.

$$\ddot{x}_1(t) = F_1 - \omega_1^2 x_1(t) + C_{15} x_5(t) - \gamma_1 \dot{x}_1(t) \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

$$\ddot{x}_2(t) = F_2 - \omega_2^2 x_2(t) + C_{25} x_5(t) - \gamma_2 \dot{x}_2(t)$$

$$\ddot{x}_3(t) = F_3 - \omega_3^2 x_3(t) + C_{36} x_6(t) - \gamma_3 \dot{x}_3(t)$$

$$\ddot{x}_4(t) = F_4 - \omega_4^2 x_4(t) + C_{46} x_6(t) - \gamma_4 \dot{x}_4(t)$$

$$\ddot{x}_5(t) = -\omega_5^2 x_5(t) + C_{15} x_1(t) + C_{25} x_2(t) + C_{57} x_7(t) - \gamma_5 \dot{x}_5(t)$$

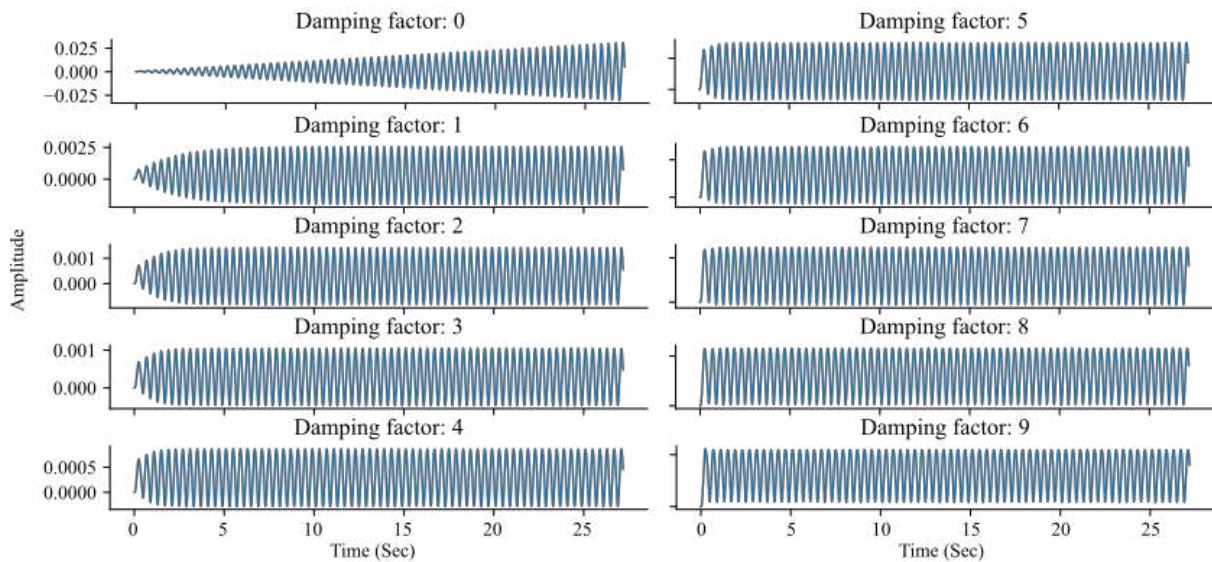
$$\ddot{x}_6(t) = -\omega_6^2 x_6(t) + C_{36} x_3(t) + C_{46} x_4(t) + C_{67} x_7(t) - \gamma_6 \dot{x}_6(t)$$

$$\ddot{x}_7(t) = -\omega_7^2 x_7(t) + C_{57} x_5(t) + C_{67} x_6(t) - \gamma_7 \dot{x}_7(t)$$

536 To simplify the model and have a symmetrical network to ensure the stability of the network,
537 we set the forward and backward coupling strengths to be equal. Both damping factors and
538 coupling strengths were scaled proportionally to the oscillator constant (ω^2). The oscillator
539 constants for oscillators 1 through 4 were set to 246.74, corresponding to a natural frequency
540 of 2.5 Hz as defined by Equation 2. For oscillators 5 and 6, the constants were set to 61.68,
541 yielding a frequency of 1.25 Hz, and for oscillator 7, the constant was 15.42, corresponding
542 to a frequency of 0.625 Hz.

543 ***Effect of damping factor:***

544 The damping factor (γ) for word-level oscillators was set to 8 to ensure that the amplitude of
545 oscillatory activity remained stable throughout the stimulation period in the absence of
546 coupling with slower oscillators (Figure 7). At lower damping values, external stimulation
547 leads to an increase in the amplitude of total oscillatory activity, potentially confounding the
548 effects of coupling. For higher-level oscillators, the damping factors were reduced in
549 proportion to their respective oscillator constants, since slower oscillators decay more quickly
550 when using the same damping value. Specifically, the damping factor was set to 2 for phrase-
551 level oscillators and 0.5 for sentence-level oscillators.



552

553 **Figure 7.** Amplitude of total activity in Word Level oscillators with varying damping factors

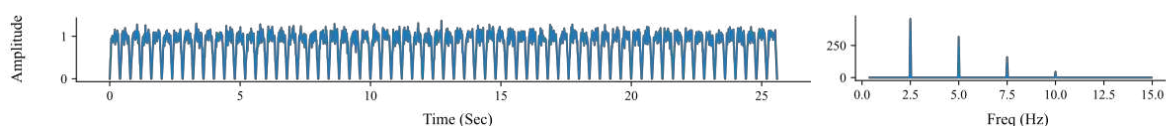
554 *Effect of coupling constants:*

555 The coupling constants were set to be smaller than the oscillator's intrinsic constant ω^2 to
 556 ensure that bottom-up stimulation does not dominate the dynamics of higher-level oscillators,
 557 maintaining a weakly coupled regime. Additionally, the coupling strength of the second
 558 lower-level node to the higher-level node was chosen to be smaller (%20) than that of the
 559 first node. This reduces the suppression caused by the down-phase of the slower oscillation
 560 from the higher level, allowing the higher-level oscillator to produce a stronger peak when
 561 integrating input from both lower-level nodes. Functionally, this may reflect reduced
 562 inhibition for competing words in the second word category, following syntactic predictions
 563 initiated by the first word category (see section Effect of coupling strength asymmetry).

564 Word nodes were stimulated using Gaussian noise with a mean of 1 and 10% standard
 565 deviation, applied over a 400 ms window. To smooth the onset and offset of the stimulation,
 566 a linear fade-in and fade-out of 80 ms was applied (Figure 8). Each word category node was
 567 stimulated in the same sequence as in the experimental conditions. Consistent with the

568 experimental design, we presented 17-word quadruplets and excluded the first quadruplet
569 from the analysis. The total simulation duration was 25.6 seconds, matching the previous
570 experiment. The model was simulated 30 times with varying input signals by numerically
571 solving the differential equations using the `solve_ivp` function from the SciPy library for
572 Python (Virtanen et al., 2020). All oscillators were initialized with zero initial values. Then, a
573 Fourier transform was applied to the aggregated activation of all oscillators.

574 We began our simulations using the Control Sentences condition, which exhibited the highest
575 amplitude at sentence and phrase level frequencies in the experiment, to evaluate the impact
576 of coupling strengths between network nodes. Since the Syntactically Anomalous condition
577 involved a reversed presentation of the Control Sentences, and the Random Word List
578 condition consisted of the same words presented in a randomized order within each
579 quadruplet, we simulated these two conditions by keeping all network parameters constant
580 and varying only the stimulation sequence, in alignment with the design of the MEG
581 experiment.



582

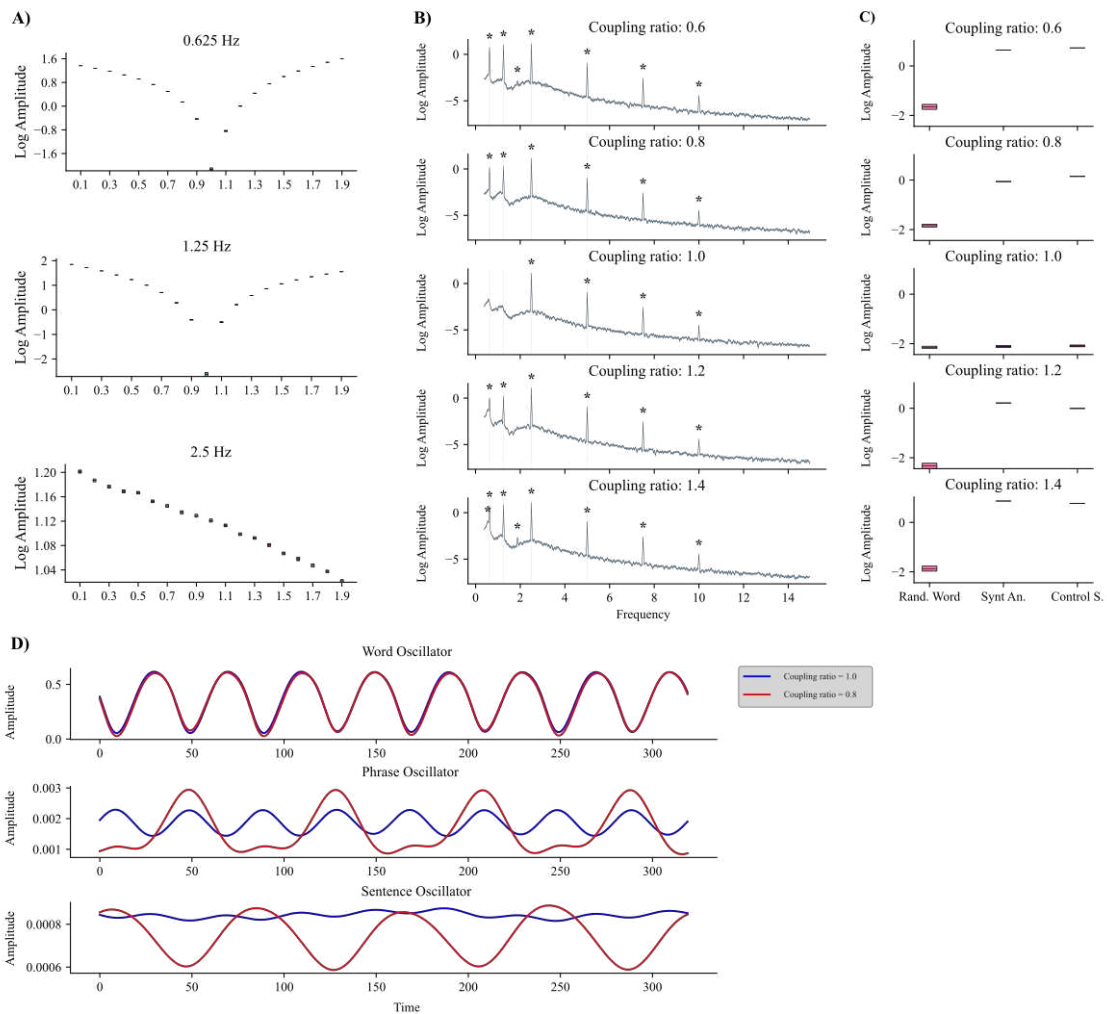
583 **Figure 8 A) Input stimulating word nodes B) Power spectrum of the input**

584 ***Effect of coupling strength asymmetry:***

585 We then examined the effects of coupling strength asymmetry between the first and second
586 word-category nodes by systematically varying the ratio of their coupling strengths. The
587 results indicated that when the coupling strengths were equal (ratio = 1), there was no
588 prominent power peak at the phrase- and sentence-level frequencies. However, as the ratio
589 deviated from 1, power at these slower frequencies increased (Figure 9 A, B). This effect

590 arises because, during the down-phase of the slower oscillation, initiated by the first node of
591 the faster oscillator, the second node becomes active and reinforces the upward phase,
592 thereby driving the slower oscillator. When the coupling strengths are equal, the slower
593 oscillator is entrained by the faster one and begins oscillating at the same frequency,
594 suppressing the natural frequency of slow oscillator. In contrast, when the coupling strength
595 of the second node is weaker than the first node, the slower oscillator can resonate at its
596 intrinsic frequency, resulting in a distinct spectral peak (Figure 9 D).

597 When the coupling strength of the second node is stronger than the first node, a peak at
598 slower frequencies still emerges. However, in this case, the amplitude is greater for the
599 reverse-order condition (*Syntactically Anomalous*) compared to the normal-order condition
600 (*Control Sentences*), which contradicts empirical observations. Furthermore, amplitude
601 differences across the three conditions, normal (*Control Sentences*), reverse (*Syntactically*
602 *Anomalous*), and random (*Random Word List*), were most balanced when the coupling
603 strength ratio was set to 0.8. As the ratio deviated further from 1, the difference between the
604 normal and reverse conditions diminished compared to between reverse and random, despite
605 the increase in power at the phrase and sentence frequencies (Figure 4 A and C). Based on
606 these observations, we selected a coupling strength ratio of 0.8 to better capture the
607 condition-specific differences in amplitude dynamics.



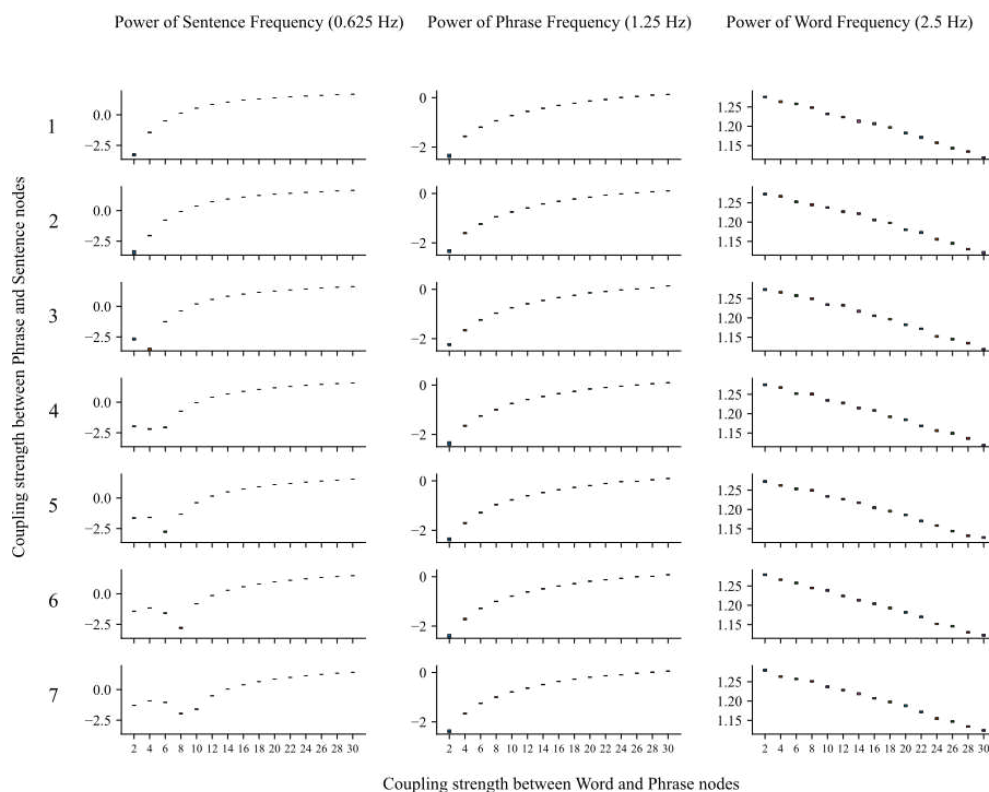
608

609 **Figure 9. A)** Changes in log power at sentence-, phrase-, and word-level frequencies as a
 610 function of the coupling strength ratio between the first and second daughter nodes. **B)** Power
 611 spectra across varying coupling strength ratios. ($* < 0.05$) **C)** Sentence-level power for the
 612 Random Words, Syntactically Anomalous, and Control Sentences conditions across different
 613 coupling ratios. **D)** Amplitudes of word, phrase and sentence level nodes at coupling ratios of
 614 0.8 and 1.0. (Vertical lines show the onset of stimulus)

615 **Effect of coupling strengths:**

616 We then simulated the network for *Control Sentences* conditions using a range of coupling
 617 strengths between the first and second layers, and between the second and third layers, to

618 examine the effects of coupling on network dynamics. Coupling strengths between the first
 619 and second layers were varied from 2 to 30, ensuring that the combined input from the two
 620 nodes did not exceed the intrinsic oscillator constant ω^2 of nodes 5 and 6 (61.68). Similarly,
 621 coupling strengths between the second and third layers were varied from 1 to 7, also to keep
 622 the total input within the bounds set by the ω^2 values of the receiving nodes. Increasing the
 623 coupling strength was found to enhance the power of sentence- and phrase-level frequencies
 624 while simultaneously reducing power at the word-level frequency (Figure 10). To replicate
 625 patterns seen in the experimental data, we selected a coupling strength of 28 between
 626 sentence and phrase frequencies to optimize amplitudes at sentence and phrase level peaks,
 627 and 7 for the coupling from phrase to sentence nodes values scaled in proportion to their
 628 respective oscillator constants.



629

630 **Figure 10.** Log power at sentence-, phrase-, and word-level frequencies as a function of
 631 coupling strength between word and phrase nodes. The x-axis in each graph represents the

632 coupling strength between word and phrase nodes, while each row corresponds to a different
633 fixed coupling strength between phrase and sentence nodes.

634 To simulate the *Semantically Anomalous* and *Fixed Word Order* conditions, characterized by
635 reduced transitional probability (and/or semantic relatedness among words) within each
636 quadruplet, we maintained the same connectivity structure between word, phrase, and
637 sentence nodes. However, based on prior simulation results indicating that both weaker inter-
638 layer coupling and more symmetric intra-layer coupling reduce power at phrase- and
639 sentence-level frequencies, we adjusted the coupling parameters accordingly. Specifically, we
640 assumed that the coupling constants between hierarchical layers should be reduced and that
641 the coupling strength ratio between the first and second daughter nodes should be closer to 1.

642 In the model, the network's connectivity pattern represents syntactic structure, while coupling
643 strength encodes statistical relationships among nodes. Experimental findings from the MEG
644 study showed that phrase- and sentence-level power in the *Semantically Anomalous* condition
645 was lower than in the *Control Sentences* condition but higher than in the *Syntactically*
646 *Anomalous* condition. Moreover, there was no significant difference in power between the
647 *Fixed Word Order* condition, which is a reversed presentation of the *Semantically Anomalous*
648 condition, and the *Syntactically Anomalous* condition.

649 To replicate these empirical results, we gradually reduced the inter-layer coupling strengths
650 and adjusted the daughter-node coupling ratio. A close match to the experimental data was
651 achieved when the coupling strength ratio between daughter nodes was set to 0.82 (as
652 opposed to 0.8 in the baseline model for Control Sentences) and the overall coupling
653 strengths were reduced by 5%. Similar to experimental results, all conditions exhibited a
654 significant peak ($p < 0.05$) at the word (2.5 Hz) and syllable (5 Hz) frequencies. The Control
655 Sentences, Semantically Anomalous Sentences, Syntactically Anomalous Sentences, and

656 Fixed Word List conditions additionally showed significant peaks at both sentence (0.625
657 Hz) and phrase (1.25 Hz) frequencies. (Figure 5 A).

658 **Lexical Model**

659 Using an approach similar to Frank and Yang's (2018) lexical model to test the lexical-
660 statistics hypothesis (Burroughs et al., 2021; Lo et al., 2022; Kalenkovich et al., 2022)
661 between conditions, we simulated a stimulus time series in the following way. 768-
662 dimensional word-embedding vectors from the GPT-2 model were repeated across 40
663 columns to simulate a word duration of 400 ms at a sampling rate of 100 Hz. The onset time t
664 for each word was randomly drawn from a uniform distribution with a mean of 40 ms and a
665 width of 50 ms. These word embeddings were concatenated into sequences of 16 four-word
666 sentences to represent individual trials. Gaussian noise with a standard deviation of 0.05 was
667 added to the trial matrices, and the discrete Fourier transform was applied to each row. The
668 resulting spectral power was averaged across rows to produce a single power spectrum for
669 each trial in each condition. The Random Syllable List condition was not included because it
670 does not contain real words and therefore could not be modeled via word embeddings.

671 **Statistical analysis**

672 To compare the power spectrum of stimuli, simulated response with lexical model at each
673 frequency of interest, and the surprisal values of words in trials between conditions, we run
674 an ANOVO test after checking for normality with Shapiro-Wilk test. When we found a
675 significant main effect for condition, we carried out a posteriori analysis for pairwise
676 comparison using Holm procedure to correct for multiple comparison using scikit toolbox in
677 Python.

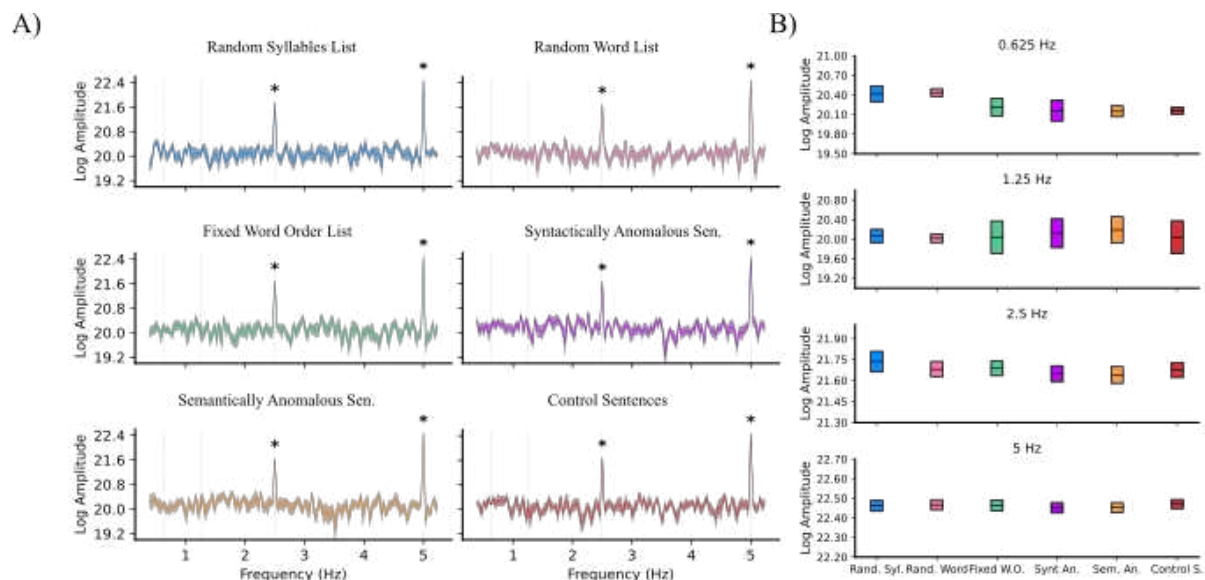
678 For both power and ITPC, we tested if the ITPC and power at each frequency bin was higher
679 than the average of two neighboring frequency bins on each side by using non-parametric 1-

680 sided permutation tests with 10.000 permutations (Maris and Oostenveld, 2007) This analysis
681 was done to detect significant peaks at the different frequencies of interest.

682 To compare the spectral power and ITPC across conditions, we fitted a linear mixed effect
683 model using the lmer function in the lme4 package for R (R Core Team, 2024) with
684 Condition as fixed effect and subjects as random effect. The dependent variable was the
685 power and ITPC averaged over all source points. Separate models were run for each
686 frequency of interest (FOIs: sentence (0.625 Hz), phrase (1.25 Hz), word (2.5 Hz), and
687 syllable (5.0 Hz)). We used the “emmeans” function (Lenth et al., 2018) in R for posthoc
688 pairwise comparisons.

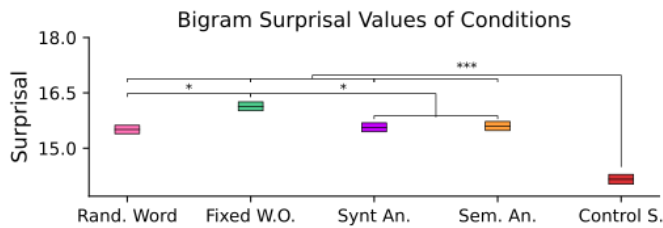
689 We compared the connectivity difference between conditions on the brain parcellations for
690 each frequency bin using cluster-based permutation test (Maris & Oostenveld, 2007) with
691 10,000 permutations.

692 Supplementary Materials



693
694 **Figure 1. A)** Power spectrum of stimuli in each condition. The vertical dashed lines indicate
695 the FOIs at the sentence (0.625 Hz), phrase (1.25 Hz), word (2.5 Hz), and syllable frequency

696 (5 Hz), and black asterisks indicate significant peaks at FOIs, and the grey asterisks indicate
 697 significant peaks at the harmonic frequencies. Shaded areas show the standard error of the
 698 mean within trials **B**) Comparison of power averaged over trials. Box edges indicate the
 699 standard error of the mean over trials. Black line shows the mean.
 700



701
 702 **Figure 2.** Comparison of surprisal values of each word in conditions. Box edges indicate the
 703 standard error of the mean over trials. Black line shows the mean.

704
 705 **Table 1.** Adjusted p values of pairwise comparison of surprisal values between conditions

Comparison	p adj
Random Words - Fixed Word Order	0.0009
Random Words - Syntactically Anomalous	1
Random Words - Semantically Anomalous	1
Random Words - Control Sentences	<.0001
Fixed Word Order - Syntactically Anomalous	0.0045
Fixed Word Order - Semantically Anomalous	0.0077
Fixed Word Order - Control Sentences	<.0001
Syntactically Anomalous - Semantically Anomalous	1
Syntactically Anomalous - Control Sentences	<.0001
Semantically Anomalous - Control Sentences	<.0001

706
 707 **Table 2.** Adjusted p values of pairwise comparison of induced power of the neural signal
 708 between conditions

Comparison	p adj - 0.625 Hz	p adj - 1.25 Hz	p adj - 2.5 Hz	p adj - 5 Hz
Random Syllables - Random Words	0.9991	0.9996	<.0001	0.0001
Random Syllables - Fixed Word Order	0.241	0.0185	<.0001	0.0237
Random Syllables - Syntactically Anomalous	0.9466	0.0094	<.0001	0.0146
Random Syllables - Semantically Anomalous	0.0917	<.0001	<.0001	0.008
Random Syllables - Control Sentences	0.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0026
Random Words - Fixed Word Order	0.4453	0.046	0.9996	0.6807

Random Words - Syntactically Anomalous	0.995	0.0248	1	0.776
Random Words - Semantically Anomalous	0.2082	<.0001	0.9837	0.869
Control Sentences - Random Words	0.0003	<.0001	0.1811	0.9665
Fixed Word Order - Syntactically Anomalous	0.7794	0.9999	0.9998	1
Fixed Word Order - Semantically Anomalous	0.9978	0.0248	0.9217	0.9993
Fixed Word Order - Control Sentences	0.1171	<.0001	0.0911	0.9848
Syntactically Anomalous - Semantically Anomalous	0.4985	0.0459	0.9799	1
Syntactically Anomalous - Control Sentences	0.0023	<.0001	0.1691	0.9956
Semantically Anomalous - Control Sentences	0.2911	0.1844	0.555	0.9995

709

710 **Table 3.** Adjusted p values of pairwise comparison of ITPC of the neural signal between
711 conditions

Comparison	p adj - 0.625 Hz	p adj - 1.25 Hz	p adj - 2.5 Hz	p adj - 5 Hz
Random Syllables - Random Words	0.5227	0.9999	<.0001	0.0035
Random Syllables - Fixed Word Order	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0006
Random Syllables - Syntactically Anomalous	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0009
Random Syllables - Semantically Anomalous	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0701
Random Syllables - Control Sentences	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
Random Words - Fixed Word Order	<.0001	<.0001	1	0.9966
Random Words - Syntactically Anomalous	<.0001	<.0001	0.991	0.9991
Random Words - Semantically Anomalous	<.0001	<.0001	0.8691	0.9229
Random Words - Control Sentences	<.0001	<.0001	0.1568	0.8168
Fixed Word Order - Syntactically Anomalous	0.8217	1	0.9759	1
Fixed Word Order - Semantically Anomalous	0.3895	<.0001	0.7983	0.685
Fixed Word Order - Control Sentences	<.0001	<.0001	0.1127	0.9746
Syntactically Anomalous - Semantically Anomalous	0.0233	<.0001	0.9949	0.7539
Syntactically Anomalous - Control Sentences	<.0001	<.0001	0.4561	0.9537
Semantically Anomalous - Control Sentences	<.0001	0.0346	0.7898	0.2343

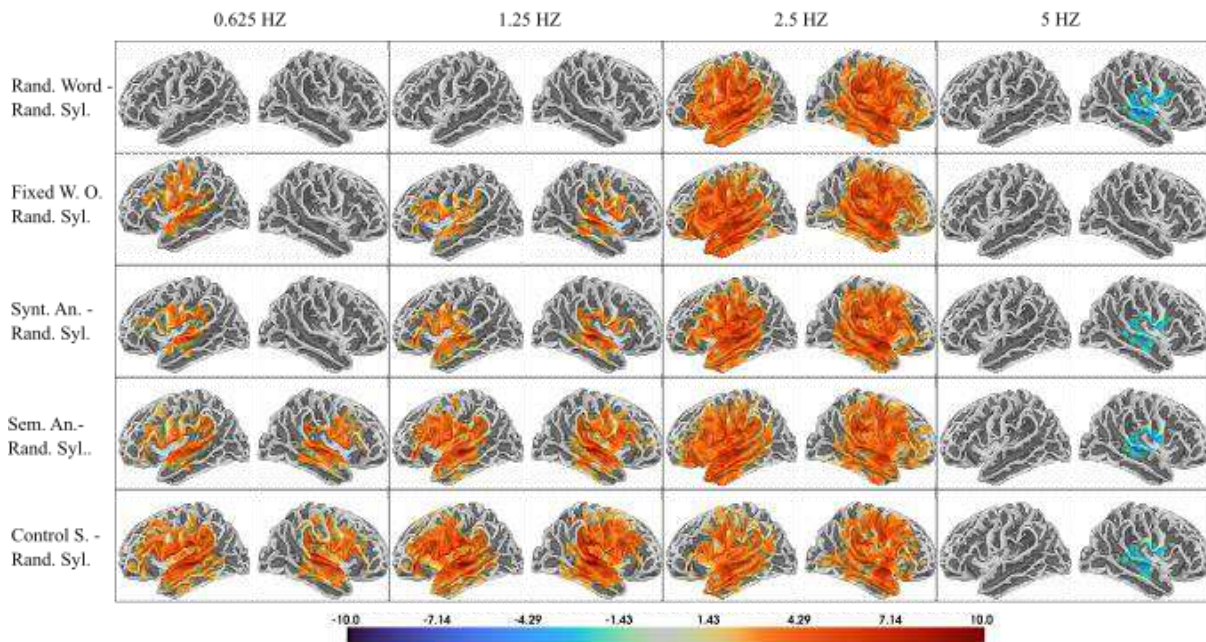
712

713 **Table 4.** Adjusted p values of pairwise comparison of power of the lexical model between
714 conditions

Comparison	p adj - 0.625 Hz	p adj - 1.25 Hz	p adj - 2.5 Hz	p adj - 5 Hz
Random Words - Fixed Word Order	<.0001	1	1	1
Random Words - Syntactically Anomalous	<.0001	1	1	1
Random Words - Semantically Anomalous	<.0001	1	1	1
Random Words - Control Sentences	<.0001	1	1	1
Fixed Word Order - Syntactically Anomalous	1	1	1	1
Fixed Word Order - Semantically Anomalous	1	1	1	1

Fixed Word Order - Control Sentences	1	1	1	1
Syntactically Anomalous - Semantically Anomalous	1	1	1	1
Syntactically Anomalous - Control Sentences	1	1	1	1
Semantically Anomalous - Control Sentences	1	1	1	1

715
716



717

718 **Figure 3.** Sources that were significantly different between the contrasts. The colors indicate
719 the t-values of the corresponding comparisons.

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726

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