

1 **Title: Unsupervised characterization of dynamic functional connectivity reveals**  
2 **age-associated differences in temporal stability and connectivity states during rest**  
3 **and task**

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5 **Authors:**

6 **Nisha Chetana Sastry, Dipanjan Roy, Arpan Banerjee\***

7  
8 **Affiliation:**

9 **Cognitive Brain Dynamics Laboratory, National Brain Research Centre, NH 8, Manesar,**  
10 **Gurgaon 122052**

11  
12 \*Email: arpan@nbrc.ac.in  
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14 **Abstract**

15 Understanding brain functions as an outcome of underlying neuro-cognitive network mechanisms in  
16 rest and task requires accurate spatiotemporal characterization of the relevant functional brain  
17 networks. Recent endeavours of the Neuroimaging community to develop the notion of dynamic  
18 functional connectivity is a step in this direction. A key goal is to detect what are the important events  
19 in time that delimits how one functional brain network defined by known patterns of correlated brain  
20 activity transitions into a “new” network. Such characterization can also lead to more accurate  
21 conceptual realization of brain states, thereby, defined in terms of time-resolved correlations.  
22 Nonetheless, identifying the canonical temporal window over which dynamic functional connectivity  
23 is operational is currently based on an ad-hoc selection of sliding windows that can certainly lead to  
24 spurious results. Here, we introduce a data-driven unsupervised approach to characterize the high  
25 dimensional dynamic functional connectivity into dynamics of lower dimensional patterns. The  
26 whole-brain dynamic functional connectivity states bearing functional significance for task or rest  
27 can be explored through the temporal correlations, both short and long range. The present study  
28 investigates the stability of such short- and long-range temporal correlations to explore the dynamic  
29 network mechanisms across resting state, movie viewing and sensorimotor action tasks requiring  
30 varied degrees of attention. As an outcome of applying our methods to the fMRI data of a healthy  
31 ageing cohort we could quantify whole-brain temporal dynamics which indicates naturalistic movie  
32 watching task is closer to resting state than the sensorimotor task. Our analysis also revealed an  
33 overall trend of highest short range temporal network stability in the sensorimotor task, followed by  
34 naturalistic movie watching task and resting state that remains similar in both young and old adults.  
35 However, the stability of neurocognitive networks in the resting state in young adults is higher than  
36 their older counterparts. Thus, healthy ageing related differences in quantification of network stability  
37 along task and rest provides a blueprint of how our approach can be used for cohort studies of mental  
38 health and neurological disorders.

39

## 40 1. Introduction

41 Functional connectivity (FC) - most simplistically computed using the pairwise Pearson correlations  
42 between brain regions using blood oxygen level dependent (BOLD) fMRI has proven to be a powerful  
43 tool for studying the functional organization of the brain (Friston, et al. 1993). FC sheds light on the  
44 functional coupling and connectedness between proximal and distal brain regions subserving crucial  
45 role towards the neuronal processing of a task (Aertsen, Gerstein, Habib, & Palm, 1989) (Friston,  
46 Frith, Liddle, & Frackowiak, 1993). However, emergence of superior computing prowess has allowed  
47 us to critique the inferences drawn from time-averaged, static FC usually computed by collapsing the  
48 functional dynamics across time (Ciric , Nomi, Uddin, & Satpute, 2017) (Mash, et al., 2019).  
49 Recently, dynamic functional connectivity (dFC) has emerged as a major topic in the resting-state  
50 BOLD fMRI literature (Hutchison et al., 2013). The more refined measure of Dynamic functional  
51 connectivity (dFC) is commonly computed using the sliding window framework, which estimates  
52 dFC by computing average FC over small windows of time, and subsequently sliding the window  
53 over the entire duration of the BOLD time series (Hutchison & et al, 2013). Although, the sliding  
54 window approach has been the most common, simple, and intuitive analysis strategy for estimating  
55 dFC (Kudela, Harezlak, & Lindquist, 2017) (Prete, Bolton, & Van De Ville , 2017), the method suffers  
56 from prominent drawbacks. Arbitrary choice of window length, inherent variation present in the  
57 estimate that can be confused with the empirical time-varying nature of FC, equal weighting of all  
58 observations within the window leading to spurious fluctuations being magnified – all add to the woes  
59 of sliding window based approach (Lindquist, Xu, Nebel, & Caffo, 2014) (Hindriks, et al., 2016)  
60 (Prete, Bolton, & Van De Ville , 2017).Over the years, many meaningful extensions have been  
61 suggested to improve sliding window approach. Independent component analysis (ICA) was used to  
62 decompose windowed BOLD timecourses (Kiviniemi, et al., 2011). Several graph theoretical  
63 summary measures such as assortivity, modularity, efficiency offer promising avenues to extract  
64 information from dFC (Bullmore & Sporns, 2009). In addition, clustering algorithms such as K-

65 means clustering (Damaraju, et al., 2014) (Allen, et al., 2014), hidden Markov models (HMM)  
66 (Vidaurre, Smith, & Woolrich, 2017), temporal ICA (TICA) (Yaesoubi, Miller, & Calhoun, 2015)  
67 allows to identify clustering-derived recurring connectivity patterns or dFC states. Several conceptual  
68 alternative strategies such as wavelet transform coherence (Chang & Glover, 2010), a time/frequency  
69 analysis strategy with an observation window for the frequency content of the time courses; and  
70 frame-wise analysis of the BOLD timecourses (Cabral, et al., 2017), which allows information to be  
71 retrieved from the observation of single frames and yield temporally subsequent co-activation maps  
72 (Liu, Chang, & Duyn, 2013); have been suggested (see (Preti, Bolton, & Van De Ville , 2017) for a  
73 review).

74

75 In spite of inherent limitations, dFC captures the fluctuations of FC, which contain meaningful  
76 information on minute temporal scale (Hutchison & et al, 2013). While, accounting these fluctuations  
77 are critical for understanding complex behaviour, nonetheless, stable representation of information  
78 of neural activity and corresponding stability of FC patterns over time is critical for survival (Li, Lu,  
79 & Yan, 2019). In other words, in an axiomatic sense, there must exist a temporally stable connectivity  
80 pattern that corresponds to one or multiple functional states of the brain. Subsequent transition  
81 between successive functional brain states can be characterized by estimating the dFC patterns. The  
82 two most widely applied dynamic measures in brain/behaviour analyses that are constructed from  
83 dFC time courses based on either applying sliding window or frame wise analysis are connection  
84 variability (CV) and connectivity states (CS). Stable representation of information processing will  
85 reflect the robustness of recurring patterns of CS concatenated across subjects to influence myriad of  
86 behaviour (Bolton, Morgenroth, Preti, & Van De Ville, 2020). Identifying both connectivity states  
87 and their stability in brain dynamics requires delimiting the dFC evolution and dFC stability with  
88 measures of optimality which may or may not be crucially linked with the underlying subject specific  
89 structural connectivity (Surampudi, et al., 2019). The goal of this article is to develop an unsupervised

90 approach to characterize optimal dFC states and go beyond what has been proposed in the existing  
91 literature based on widely applied sliding window or frame wise based approach (Bolton,  
92 Morgenroth, Preti, & Van De Ville, 2020).

93  
94 Previous studies exploring temporal dynamics of FC have tried to investigate the stability by  
95 calculating the correlation between FC matrices computed from successive temporal windows  
96 (Hansen, Battaglia, Spiegler, Deco, & Jirsa, 2015), characterizing CV of the functional connectivity  
97 profile of a given region across time (Zhang & et al, 2016) (Guo, Zhao, Tao, Liu, & Palaniyappan,  
98 2017), by estimating voxel level dFC maps using Kendall's coefficient of concordance with time  
99 windows as raters (Li, Lu, & Yan, 2019), by estimating the standard deviation of global modularity  
100 averaged across all timepoints and all participants (Hilger, Fukushima, Sporns, & Fiebach, 2019). FC  
101 stability has been shown to increase with motor learning (Yu, Song, Huang, Song, & Liu, 2020),  
102 decrease in patients of schizophrenia and their siblings (Guo, Zhao, Tao, Liu, & Palaniyappan, 2017),  
103 was significantly higher in patients with major depressive disorder (Demirtas, et al., 2016). These  
104 studies emphasise the neurobiological significance of the stability of FC.

105  
106 Quantifying the temporal stability of dFC patterns is of immediate concern to studies investigating  
107 the relationship between resting state and task-related brain dynamics (Li, Lu, & Yan, 2019).  
108 Spontaneous brain activity during rest is not random and show specific spatio-temporal organization  
109 in state space (Deco, Jirsa, & Mcintosh, 2011). From a dynamical systems point of view, the resultant  
110 emerging resting state functional connectivity of the brain networks, quantitatively, fits best with the  
111 experimentally observed functional connectivity when the brain network operates at the edge of  
112 instability. Under these near critical conditions, the slow fluctuating ( $< 0.1$  Hz) resting state BOLD  
113 networks emerge as structured noise fluctuations around a stable low firing activity equilibrium state  
114 in the presence of latent "ghost" multi stable attractors (Deco & Jirsa, 2012). Recent work has further

115 demonstrated that during spontaneous resting state activity the ghost attractors makes frequent  
116 excursion to functionally and behavioural relevant phase locking states in a low dimensional state  
117 space (Vohryzek, Deco, Cessac, Kringelbach, & Cabral, 2020) . Brain resides in a specific attractor  
118 state defined by a certain FC pattern according to the cognitive demands of the task (Fedorenko &  
119 Thompson-Schill, 2014) (Pillai & Jirsa, 2017). An overall increase in FC stability has been reported  
120 in the presence of the task (Gonzalez-Castillo & Bandettini, 2018). Subsequently, temporal stability  
121 of FC guides the stability of a functional state. Thus, we tested the following hypothesis, unsupervised  
122 dFC characterization will reveal task specific dFC stability patterns that are local in time, whereas for  
123 the resting state dFC patterns, these functional states are composed of non-local correlations in time.  
124 Prior studies have also explored changes in temporal stability of functional architecture in resting  
125 state of healthy control and patients with psychiatric disorders, and different battery of tasks. Zhang  
126 and colleagues showed disorder specific (ADHD, schizophrenia, autism spectrum disorder)  
127 variability modifications in functional architecture of DMN, visual and subcortical regions of the  
128 brain (Zhang & et al, 2016). Increased functional stability in high-order visual regions during  
129 naturalistic movie watching task were identified (Li, Lu, & Yan, 2019), but these studies are limited  
130 to stability of FC of a given region. The second test for an unsupervised dFC characterization  
131 algorithm will be application to a specific neuroscience problem, such as investigation of lifespan  
132 trajectories in healthy ageing. Although previous studies have explored the association between  
133 dynamic functional connectivity and age (Viviano, Raz, Yuan, & Damoiseaux, 2017) (Chen, et al.,  
134 2017) (Xia, et al., 2018), how the stability of functional architecture modifies across age remains an  
135 open question.

136  
137 The aim of the present study is three-fold: 1) to precisely characterise the stability of whole-brain  
138 dFC patterns 2) to demonstrate that dFC patterns are locally stable during task 3) identify the dFC  
139 patterns during task and rest for a cross-sectional population with age range over human adult lifespan

140 (18-88 years). This manuscript is organized as follows. First, we estimate BOLD phase coherence  
141 over time (Glerean, Salmi, Lahnakoski, Jääskeläinen, & Sams, 2012) which was used as a measure  
142 of dFC for rest and task. Next, we proceed with unsupervised characterization of dFC subspaces  
143 involved in task and rest. Subsequently, the temporal stability of dFC subspaces were computed using  
144 two different measures - angular separation and the Mahalanobis distance (Mahalanobis, 1930) (Shen,  
145 Kim, & Wang, 2010). Finally, the temporal stability of dFC was analysed to draw critical insights  
146 about age associated differences to task and rest using a large human cohort of healthy ageing (Shafto,  
147 et al., 2014).  
148

## 149 **2. Methods**

### 150 2.1 Data sources and participants

151

152 The data were collected as part of stage 2 of the Cambridge Centre for Ageing and Neuroscience  
153 (CamCAN) project (available at <http://www.mrc-cbu.cam.ac.uk/datasets/camcan>) (Taylor, et al.,  
154 2017) (Shafto, et al., 2014). The CamCAN is a large-scale multimodal, cross-sectional, population-  
155 based study. The database includes raw and pre-processed structural magnetic resonance imaging  
156 (MRI), resting state and active tasks using functional MRI (fMRI) and Magnetoencephalogram  
157 (MEG), behavioural scores, demographic and neuropsychological data. From 3000 participants of  
158 stage 1, a subset of approximately 700 participants who were cognitively healthy (MMSE score >25),  
159 with no past or current treatment for drug abuse or usage, met hearing threshold greater than 35 dB  
160 at 1000 Hz in both ears, had at least a corrected near vision of 20/100 with both eyes and could speak  
161 English language (native English speaker or bilingual English from birth) were eligible for MRI  
162 scanning. They were home interviewed and recruited to stage 2. The study was in compliance with  
163 the Helsinki Declaration and was approved by the Cambridgeshire 2 Research Ethics Committee. The  
164 fMRI data from resting state and task periods (naturalistic movie watching and sensorimotor task)  
165 was used in the present study.

166

### 167 2.2 Data acquisition and experimental paradigm

168

169 The fMRI data were collected at MRC Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit, on a 3T Siemens TIM  
170 Trio scanner with a 32-channel head coil, the head movement was restricted with the aid of memory  
171 foam cushions. For the tasks, the instructions and visual stimuli were back projected onto the screen,  
172 auditory stimuli were presented via MR-compatible Etymotics headphones and manual responses  
173 from the participants made with the right hand were recorded using an MR-compatible button box



174 (Taylor, et al., 2017). The fMRI data for eyes-closed resting state and sensorimotor task were acquired  
175 using Echo-Planar Imaging (EPI) sequence, consisted of 261 volumes, each volume with 32 axial  
176 slices (slice thickness 3.7mm, interslice gap 20%) acquired in descending order, TR 1970 ms, TE 30  
177 ms, voxel-size 3 mm 3 mm 4.44 mm. The duration of both the scans was 8 min 40s. The fMRI data  
178 for the naturalistic movie watching task were acquired using multi-echo EPI sequence, consisting of  
179 193 volumes of 32 axial slices each (slice thickness 3.7mm, interslice gap 20%) acquired in  
180 descending order, TR 2470 ms, TE [9,4,21.2,33,45,57] ms, voxel-size 3 mm 3 mm 4.44 mm. The  
181 duration of the scan was 8 min 13s.

182

183 The task-induced BOLD data from the naturalistic movie watching task was acquired from  
184 participants, who watched 8 minutes of narrative preserved, condensed, black and white version of  
185 Alfred Hitchcock's television drama "Bang! You're Dead". The participants were not aware of the  
186 title of the movie but were instructed to pay attention to the movie. In the sensorimotor task, the trials  
187 consisted of a binaural tone simulation at either 300, 600, or 1200 Hz and bilateral black and white  
188 checkerboard. The participants were asked to button press with their right index finger if they hear or  
189 see any stimuli. More details about the task paradigm have been presented here (Shafto, et al., 2014)  
190 (Taylor, et al., 2017).

191

### 192 2.3 Data pre-processing

193

194 Pre-processed data was provided by Cam-CAN research consortium. Mean regional BOLD time  
195 series were estimated in 116 parcellated brain areas of Anatomical Automatic Labelling atlas (AAL)  
196 (Tzourio-Mazoyer, et al., 2002) (available at <http://www.gin.cnrs.fr/tools/aal>). We selected 50  
197 participants, 25 were young adults (48% female; mean age =  $24.1 \pm 3.33$  years) randomly selected  
198 from age range 18-28, and remaining 25 were old adults (52% female; mean age =  $63.8 \pm 2.63$  years)

199 randomly selected over age range 60-68 years. Each participant's BOLD time series in the resting  
200 state, naturalistic movie watching and sensorimotor tasks were extracted.

## 201 2.4 Data analysis

### 203 2.4.1 Characterization of dynamic functional connectivity

205 Time-resolved dynamic functional connectivity (dFC) was estimated, for each individual, using  
206 BOLD phase coherence (**Figure 1A**) (Glerean, Salmi, Lahnakoski, Jääskeläinen, & Sams, 2012)  
207 (Ponce-Alvarez, et al., 2015) (Deco & Kringelbach, 2016) (Cabral, et al., 2017), which resulted in a  
208 matrix with size  $N \times N \times T$ , where  $N=116$  is the number of brain regions defined by AAL atlas,  $T$  is the  
209 total number of time points ( $T=261$  for resting state and Sensorimotor task,  $T=193$  for naturalistic  
210 movie watching task). We chose BOLD phase coherence instead of computing correlation over a  
211 sliding window to calculate dFC, because BOLD phase coherence is an instantaneous measure with  
212 maximum temporal resolution (Glerean, Salmi, Lahnakoski, Jääskeläinen, & Sams, 2012). BOLD  
213 phase coherence does not require time-windowed averaging, that generates biased estimates if the  
214 window length is short and reduces temporal resolution if the window length is longer (Glerean,  
215 Salmi, Lahnakoski, Jääskeläinen, & Sams, 2012).

217 First, the instantaneous phases  $\theta(n, t)$  of the BOLD time series for all the brain regions,  $n$ , was  
218 computed using Hilbert transform. The real-valued modulated BOLD signal  $s(t)$  is expressed as an  
219 analytical signal in the complex plane as:

$$221 \quad z(t) = z_r(t) + jz_i(t) = s(t) + j HT[s(t)] \quad (1)$$

222

223 Where, (HT [\*]) represents the Hilbert transform. The instantaneous phase  $\theta(t)$  is computed as  
224 follows:

225

$$226 \theta(t) = \angle z(t) = \arctan \frac{z_i(t)}{z_r(t)} = \arctan \frac{HT[s(t)]}{s(t)} \quad (2)$$

227

228 Given the phases of the BOLD time series, phase coherence i.e.,  $dFC(n, p, t)$  for brain regions,  $n$   
229 and  $p$  at time  $t$  is computed as:

230

$$231 dFC(n, p, t) = \cos(\theta(n, t) - \theta(p, t)) \quad (3)$$

232

233 when, the phases of BOLD signals,  $\theta(n, t)$ ,  $\theta(p, t)$  of the brain regions  $n, p$  are synchronized,  
234  $dFC(n, p, t)$  (ranges from -1 to 1) is close 1, when the phases from the BOLD signals of brain regions  
235  $n, p$  are orthogonal  $dFC(n, p, t)$  is close to 0. Since the phases are undirected,  $dFC(n, p, t)$  is  
236 symmetric along the diagonal.

237

238 In addition to this, to check for reliability, we compute dFC using a sliding-window approach  
239 (Hutchison & et al, 2013) with non-overlapping, gaussian windows, varying the window length (10,  
240 20, 30 time points) (Supplementary information - **S 1**, **S 2**, **S 3**).

241

#### 242 2.4.2 Extracting Dominant dynamic functional connectivity

243

244 Principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to participant-wise  $dFC(n, p, t)$  matrix of size  
245  $N \times N$  representing the FC between  $n$ th and  $p$ th brain area for each time point. PCA is an  
246 unsupervised, multivariate dimension reduction method that decomposes the data into a set of

247 orthogonal principal components or leading eigenvectors sorted by their contribution to the overall  
248 variance (Friston, 1993). Thus,  $dFC(n, p, t)$  or simply  $dFC_t$  can be expressed as

$$249 \quad dFC_t = V^T S V \quad (4)$$

250 where, matrix  $V$  of size  $N \times N$  are set of eigenvectors, with each column of  $V$  of size  $1 \times N$

251 representing orthogonal principal component, and  $S$  the diagonal matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_N \end{pmatrix}$ , such that

$$252 \quad \lambda_1 > \lambda_2 \dots > \lambda_N$$

253 If  $k$  is the number of principal components chosen to represent  $dFC$ , the corresponding subspace

254  $D(n, k, t)$  or  $D_t$ , representative of dominant dFC pattern, can be expressed as

$$255 \quad D = \tilde{V}^T \tilde{S} \tilde{V} \quad (5)$$

256 where,  $\tilde{V}^T$  is a dimensionally reduced matrix of size  $N \times k$ ,  $\tilde{S}$  is a diagonal matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_k \end{pmatrix}$ .

257 In this study, we chose  $k = 3$  because for all participants at least 99% variance in  $dFC$  matrix is  
258 captured by the 3 leading eigenvectors (S 4). The dimension of  $dFC(n, p, t)$  has been reduced to  
259  $D(n, k, t)$ .

260

261

#### 262 2.4.3 Computation of stability of dynamic functional architecture

263

264 We seek to characterize the temporal stability of the dominant subspace  $D(n, p, t)$  (or referred to as  
265 simply  $D_t$ ) by estimating how similar they are across time  $t$ . To estimate the similarity between  
266 dominant dFC configurations, we introduce two types of distance measures successive dFC  
267 subspaces, 1) angular distance 2) Normalised Euclidean distance (Figure 1B). We define angular

268 distance as the principal angle between the dFC subspaces from different time points, given by the  
269 following equation:

270

$$271 \quad \phi(t_x, t_y) = \angle(\mathbf{D}_{t_x}, \mathbf{D}_{t_y}) \quad (6)$$

272

273 Where, each entry in the time X time *temporal stability matrix*,  $\phi(t_x, t_y)$  is the principal angle  
274 between the two N X k dimensional subspaces at  $t_x$  and  $t_y$  (Banerjee, Pillai, Sperling, Smith, &  
275 Horwitz, 2012) (Björck & Golub, 1973). The principal angle ranges between 0 (low angular distance)  
276 to  $\pi/2$  (high angular distance).

277 For each individual, we calculate the angular distance between dominant dFC subspaces at  $t_x$  and  $t_y$ ,  
278 by estimating the principal angle between them. The low principal angle between dominant dFC  
279 subspaces means that their dFC configurations are very similar. On the contrary, the high principal  
280 angle between dominant dFC subspaces means that their dFC configurations are dissimilar.

281

282 We define the normalised Euclidean distance between dominant dFC subspaces by the Mahalanobis  
283 distance. Mahalanobis distance measures the distance between points in space 1 from space 2 with  
284 the following equation:

285

$$286 \quad M^2 = (\mathbf{D}_{t_x} - \mathbf{D}_{t_y})^T \mathbf{C}^{-1} (\mathbf{D}_{t_x} - \mathbf{D}_{t_y}) \quad (7)$$

287 where  $M^2$  is the distance between each entry of  $\mathbf{D}_{t_x}$  and  $\mathbf{D}_{t_y}$ . Subsequently, for each individual, we  
288 estimate the time X time *temporal stability matrix*, where each entry is the Mahalanobis distance  
289 ( $M$  ranges between 0.5 to 2.5), averaged across all brain parcels. Low  $M$  means that dominant dFC  
290 subspaces are similar, high  $M$  means that the dFC subspaces are dissimilar.

291

#### 292 2.4.4 Quantifying complexity of temporal stability matrices

293 *Entropy:*

294

295 To evaluate the informational content of temporal stability matrices we evaluated the entropy, for all  
296 three categories, rest, movie viewing and sensorimotor task in young and old adults. Entropy is  
297 defined by the following equation:

298

$$299 \quad E = -\sum p \log(p) \quad (8)$$

300 where  $p$  contains the normalised histogram counts returned from 'imhist.m'. 'imhist.m' calculates  
301 the histogram of temporal stability matrices and returns histogram counts.

302

303 Entropy in temporal stability matrices for empirical data and surrogate data were compared by  
304 generating random time series using MATLAB function 'randn.m' and down sampling them at 0.1  
305 Hz mimicking BOLD activity of each subject. The  $\mathbf{D}$  matrices with same dimensions as the empirical  
306 data were computed. Welch's corrected t-tests revealed significant differences between the entropy  
307 of surrogate and empirical temporal stability matrices of rest ( $p=0.000464$ ) (**S 5**).

308

309 *Frobenius norm:*

310 Frobenius norm was used to measure the differences between the temporal stability matrices  
311 computed for rest and the task conditions. Frobenius norm, also called the Euclidean norm of a matrix,  
312 is defined as the square root of the sum of the absolute squares of its elements. Here, we calculate  
313 Frobenius norm between temporal stability matrices with the following equation:

314

$$315 \quad ||x_F|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^T \sum_{j=1}^T |a_{ij} - b_{ij}|^2} \quad (9)$$

316 where  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_{ij}$  are the entries in the temporal dynamic matrices of rest and any of the task  
317 conditions respectively (movie watching or sensorimotor).  $x_F$  is also computed between the two tasks.

318

### 319 *Stochastic characterization of dFC*

320 The temporal variation of two measures, principal angle and Mahalanobis distance between the  
321 dominant *dFC* subspaces essentially capture the degree of temporal variation in functional network.

322 Principal angular values close to  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  or high Mahalanobis distance at a specific time point reflects the

323 reorganization of the functional state itself, whereas angular values closer to zero or low Mahalanobis

324 distance indicates minor deviation from previous time. To understand the underlying stochastic

325 characteristics of these measures, we use auto-regressive (AR) models where present values of

326  $\phi(t)/M(t)$  are modelled as a linear weighted sum of values from past  $\phi(t-1), \phi(t-2) \dots \phi(t-$

327  $i)/M(t-1), M(t-2) \dots M(t-i)$ . The AR ( $\rho$ ) process,  $X_t$  ( $\phi(t)$  or  $M(t)$ ) is given by the

328 following equation:

$$329 \quad X_t = c + \sum_{i=1}^{\rho} \varphi_i X_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \quad (10)$$

330 where  $\varphi_1 \dots \dots \dots \varphi_{\rho}$  are parameters of the model,  $c$  is a constant,  $\varepsilon_t$  is white noise and  $\rho$  is the lag

331 term or model order. The simplest AR process is AR (0) is essentially a white noise process. In AR

332 (1), the current value is dependant only on its immediately preceding value, and hence captures a

333 Markovian process. Optimal model of an AR process can be computed using the Akaike information

334 criterion (AIC) which is expressed as

$$335 \quad AIC(\rho) = -2L + 2\rho \quad (11)$$

336 where  $L$  is the likelihood function computed by summing up over the mean squared error for an AR

337 model of order  $\rho$  (Wagenmaker & Farrell, 2004) (H.Akaike, 1974). Optimal model order can be

338 selected at a value of  $\rho$  where AIC is minimum. We varied the model order ( $\rho$ ) from 0 to 100 and use

339 the first minimal AIC value to select the best AR ( $\rho$ ), model. If the model order is found to be greater

340 than 1, the underlying process is considered non-Markovian.

## 341 3 Results

### 342 3.1 Dynamic functional connectivity (dFC) patterns during rest, continuous naturalistic movie 343 watching, and discrete sensorimotor task.

344 We computed the *dFC* from parcellated BOLD time series of resting state, naturalistic movie  
345 watching task where the participants watched and listened to an excerpt from Alfred  
346 Hitchcock's "Bang! You're Dead", and a sensorimotor task where participants responded by a  
347 button press to either a visual or an auditory stimulus from the Cam-CAN dataset (details in  
348 Methods). **Figure 2A** represents dFC obtained using BOLD phase coherence connectivity in  
349 resting state. We report the results of the analysis on young adults (age range 18-28) in this  
350 section.  
351

352  
353 Dominant *dFC* subspaces were obtained by applying the unsupervised approach of Principal  
354 Component Analysis (PCA) to BOLD time series at each time point, and then reconstructing  
355 either the task or rest as the dynamics of a reduced dimensional *dFC* subspace. To demonstrate,  
356 that the unsupervised characterization of *dFC* patterns indeed capture the functional brain  
357 network organization, we computed the differences between the temporal stability matrices of  
358 rest and the two task conditions; first using the measure of principal angles and second using  
359 the measure of Mahalanobis distance. Thereafter, other measures of complexity and temporal  
360 variability were tested.

#### 361 362 3.1.1 *Using angular distance to characterize temporal stability matrices*

363 First, we calculate the principal angles among the dominant *dFC* subspaces generated across  
364 all time points. This resulted in time X time temporal stability matrix, averaged across all  
365 subjects, where each entry in the matrix is the angle between dominant *dFC* subspaces at  $t_x$   
366 and  $t_y$ , as shown in **Figure 2B**Figure 2. We consider a dominant *dFC* configuration to be



367 stable if the subsequent subspaces are similar in configuration, i.e., less “angular distant” for  
368 extended duration of time points. Results shown in **Figure 2B** indicate that the resting state  
369 has a global spread of shorter-lived, repeated patterns of stability than both tasks. On the  
370 contrary, both the task cohorts, passive movie watching, and sensorimotor task, showed a local  
371 spread of, longer-lived stability patterns suggesting that local temporal stability of functionally  
372 connected networks are higher in the task than in resting state. To quantify these observations,  
373 we calculated the entropy of temporal stability matrices of each category. The plots in **Figure**  
374 **4A**, which represent entropy of temporal dynamic matrices of three categories, report resting  
375 state to have the highest entropy, followed by movie watching task and sensorimotor task. The  
376 distribution was parametric (normality check was done with Jarque-Bera test and verified with  
377 D’Agostino-Pearson omnibus test), paired two-sample t-tests and effect size analysis using  
378 Cohen’s d, revealed significant differences (at 95% significance level) in entropy values  
379 between resting state and movie watching task ( $p=0.0026$   $d=0.8$ ), and resting state and  
380 sensorimotor task ( $p=0.001$ ,  $d=1.009$ ). However, difference in movie watching task and  
381 sensorimotor task were not significant ( $p=0.4907$  ns). Further, to analyse how similar temporal  
382 stability matrices across rest and tasks are, we calculate the Frobenius norm as shown in  
383 **Figure 4B**. The results reveal a shorter Frobenius norm between the temporal dynamic  
384 matrices of the resting state and movie watching task, than the resting state and sensorimotor  
385 task.

386

### 387 3.1.2 *Using Mahalanobis distance to characterize temporal stability matrices*

388 Alternatively, we evaluate the temporal stability of *dFC*, by estimating Mahalanobis distance,  
389 that resulted in a time X time temporal stability matrix. Each entry of this matrix is the  
390 Mahalanobis distance between dominant *dFC* subspaces (**Figure 3A**). Results, as shown in  
391 **Figure 3B** and **Figure 3C**, reveal global, shorter-lived repeated patterns of temporal stability

392 in resting state and local, longer-lived temporal stability patterns in both the tasks. The entropy  
393 results (**Figure 4A**) reveal high entropy in the resting state, followed by movie watching task  
394 and sensorimotor task. The distribution was non-parametric (normality check was done with  
395 Jarque-Bera test and D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test), we employed Wilcoxon matched  
396 paired test to compute statistical significance between the entropy of temporal stability  
397 matrices of each category, although the results did not reveal statistical significance, the trend  
398 in entropy is similar to the trend in angular distance metric. We repeated the Frobenius norm  
399 analysis, which produced similar results as the angular distance metric, as shown in **Figure**  
400 **4B**.

401

### 402 **3.2 Unsupervised characterization of *dFC* across healthy ageing**

403 Next, we have included two cohorts, young and old adults from the Cam-CAN dataset and  
404 carried out unsupervised characterisation of *dFC* using participant's resting state, movie  
405 watching, and sensorimotor task data to identify age associated alterations in temporal  
406 stability of dominant *dFC* subspaces.

407

#### 408 *3.2.1 Using principal angle to quantify temporal stability differences in *dFC* between young and* 409 *elderly*

410 The time X time temporal stability matrix was computed for the aged cohort (age range 60-  
411 68) and compared with that of younger cohort computed in the section 3.1. A global spread  
412 of shorter duration of temporal stability patterns was observed in resting state and local spread  
413 of longer duration temporal stability patterns was observed in the task, in both young and old  
414 adults. Further, entropy analysis revealed (**Figure 4A**) a similar trend of peak entropy in  
415 resting state, followed by movie watching task and sensorimotor task in both young and old  
416 cohorts. The distribution was parametric (normality check was done with Jarque-Bera test and

417 D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test), paired two-sample t-test revealed significant differences  
418 in entropy values between resting state and movie watching task ( $p=0.000435$ ,  $d=0.971$ ),  
419 movie watching task, and sensorimotor task ( $p=0.0438$ ,  $d=0.370$ ), resting state and  
420 sensorimotor task ( $p=0.000567$ ,  $d=1.319$ ) of the older cohort (P values of young adults are  
421 reported in the previous section). The Frobenius norm analysis as shown in **(Figure 4B)** also  
422 revealed a similar trend in young and old adults i.e., shorter Frobenius norm between resting  
423 state and movie watching task than resting state and sensorimotor task

### 424 3.2.2 *Using Mahalanobis to quantify temporal stability of dFC between young and elderly*

425 Mahalanobis distance between dominant dFC subspaces showed patterns similar to principal  
426 angle in young and elderly. Further, we calculate entropy as shown in **Figure 4A**, of temporal  
427 stability matrices of each category, in both young and old adults. The results indicate peak  
428 entropy in resting state, followed by movie watching task and sensorimotor task, a similar  
429 trend as the angular distance metric. In the elderly, the distribution was non-parametric  
430 (normality check was done with Jarque-Bera test and D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test).  
431 Wilcoxon matched paired test revealed statistical significance between the entropy of  
432 temporal stability matrices of movie watching task and sensorimotor task ( $p=0.0074$ ,  
433  $d=0.379$ ). Frobenius norm analysis as shown in **Figure 4B** revealed a shorter Frobenius norm  
434 between resting state and movie watching task than resting state and sensorimotor task.

435 The entropy analysis between young and elderly in resting state and tasks is shown in **Figure**  
436 **4A(inset)**. The analysis indicates entropy of resting state in older adults was higher than their  
437 younger counterparts, in both angular distance and Mahalanobis distance metric but statistical  
438 tests (independent t-test for angular distance metric and Wilcoxon rank-sum test for  
439 Mahalanobis distance metric) did not reveal any statistical significance.

440

441 **3.3 Stochastic characterization of  $dFC$**

442  
443 We examined the stochastic structure of  $dFC$  evolution by investigating the principal angle  
444  $\phi(t)$  and Mahalanobis distance  $M(t)$  as functions of time.  $\phi(t)$  and  $M(t)$  are modelled as  
445 auto-regressive or AR ( $\rho$ ) process. The optimal model order was taken to be at the value which  
446 yields lowest Akaike information criterion (AIC). The results from this analysis shown in  
447 **Figure 5A** and **Figure 5B** reveal the best fit model that explains  $\phi(t)$  has a model order  $\rho \geq$   
448 6 i.e., the results suggest  $\phi(t)$  of resting state, movie watching task and sensorimotor task, in  
449 both young and old adults, is neither random ( $\rho \neq 0$ ) nor markovian ( $\rho \neq 1$ ) in nature, and is  
450 dependent on at least 6 immediately preceding values of  $\phi$ . For  $M(t)$ , as shown in **Figure 5C**  
451 and **Figure 5D** both resting state and tasks have the optimum model order  $\rho \geq 6$ , suggesting  
452  $M(t)$  is neither random ( $\rho \neq 0$ ) nor markovian ( $\rho \neq 1$ ) in both young and old adults.

## 453 4 Discussion

454  
455 The functional architecture of the brain is dynamic and changes on a minute temporal scale during  
456 resting state and task (Gonzalez-Castillo J. , et al., 2015) (Hutchison & et al, 2013) (Gonzalez-Castillo  
457 & Bandettini, 2018) (Bolton, Morgenroth, Preti, & Van De Ville, 2020). While previous studies have  
458 explored flexibility (Zhang & et al, 2016) (Yin, et al., 2016) and temporal variability (Zhang & et al,  
459 2016) (Li, Lu, & Yan, 2019) of the functional architecture of a specific region, we propose a novel  
460 unsupervised method, that captures the stability of whole-brain functional architecture on a minute  
461 temporal scale. First, we apply the data-driven unsupervised approach to characterize the high  
462 dimensional dynamic functional connectivity into lower dimensional patterns by identifying  
463 temporally similar dominant FC configurations. Subsequently, using two different measures -  
464 principal angle and Mahalanobis distance applied on dFCs extracted across time, we capture the  
465 stability of dFC through the *temporal stability matrices* that could be used to draw critical insights  
466 about underlying functional brain states. For empirical validation, we explored modifications in  
467 temporal stability matrices of whole-brain FC during a continuous, naturalistic movie watching task  
468 and discrete, goal oriented sensorimotor task and showed that, in contrast to resting state, stability  
469 increased during the task (stability was highest in the sensorimotor task, followed by naturalistic  
470 movie watching task and resting state). Next, we explored ageing specific modulations in temporal  
471 stability matrices of dFC patterns between resting state and task and showed increased stability in the  
472 task in both young and old adults. Finally, we examined the stochastic properties of temporal stability  
473 matrices using an auto-regressive modelling, and showed dominant whole-brain FC configurations  
474 are neither random nor Markovian. We discuss the implications of these key results in the following  
475 subsections.  
476

#### 477 **4.1 Stochastic properties of dynamic functional connectivity**

478 Studies describing brain dynamics have clustered recurring connectivity patterns into states, using  
479 clustering algorithms like K-means clustering (Allen, et al., 2014) (Cabral, et al., 2017) (Damaraju,  
480 et al., 2014), HMM (Cabral, et al., 2017) (Vidaurre, Smith, & Woolrich, 2017) (Vidaurre, et al., 2016)  
481 (Quinn, et al., 2018), suggestive of stability of functional architecture of the brain. Yet, most of the  
482 studies hypothesize a fixed number of discrete recurrent connectivity patterns or states with varying  
483 temporal fractional occupancy. The homogenous states are essentially clustered ignoring their  
484 temporal order and index. Studies have shown clustering time series requires ignoring some data and  
485 few attempts at clustering time series have shown to be objectively incorrect in some cases  
486 (Rakthanmanon, Keogh, Lonardi, & Evans, 2011) (Rahman, Damaraju, Saha, Plis, & Calhoun, 2020).  
487 Rahman and colleagues (Rahman, Damaraju, Saha, Plis, & Calhoun, 2020) have proposed a novel  
488 framework, relying on the concept of shapelets, ‘statelets’- a high dimensional state-shape  
489 representation of temporal dynamics of functional connectivity, instead of clustering. Another set of  
490 prior studies have explored the other side of stability – flexibility, which characterises heterogenous  
491 connectivity between a specific region and others over time (Yin, et al., 2016) (Harlalka, Bapi, Vinod,  
492 & Roy, 2019) and temporal variability (Zhang & et al, 2016) (Li, Lu, & Yan, 2019) of functional  
493 architecture in resting state (Li, Lu, & Yan, 2019) ,naturalistic movie watching task (Li, Lu, & Yan,  
494 2019) and in disease (Zhang & et al, 2016). But these studies are restricted to temporal variability and  
495 flexibility of the functional architecture of a specific region. Our main contribution in this study is an  
496 unsupervised, data-driven approach to characterise the stability of whole-brain functional  
497 connectivity patterns. A recent study (Faghiri , et al., 2020) has proposed a new method, where they  
498 calculate the gradients of timeseries pair and use their weighted average of shared trajectory (WAST)  
499 as a new estimator of dFC. This method defines a subspace on the raw BOLD fMRI timeseries where  
500 as our approach estimated dFC with BOLD phase coherence and defined dominant whole-brain FC  
501 patterns as dominant dFC subspaces with PCA and characterised temporally similar dominant whole-

502 brain FC patterns with two alternative measures, angular distance and verifying the same with  
503 Mahalanobis distance (**Figure 1B**). The central idea is if the dominant FC configurations are similar  
504 for extended time points, then they are considered to be stable.  
505 Viduarre and colleagues (Viduarre, Smith, & Woolrich, 2017) have shown dynamic switching  
506 between brain networks and time spent visiting distinct brain networks are not random. Subsequently,  
507 another study has shown that the switching dynamics of functional brain states in the resting state  
508 follows AR model of order 1, or in other words a Markovian process fully explains the dFC evolution  
509 when correlation was computed using a sliding window approach (liégeois, Laumann, Snyder, Zhou,  
510 & Yeo, 2017). By constructing the unsupervised temporal stability matrices from two alternative  
511 approaches - principal angle,  $\phi(t)$  and Mahalanobis distance,  $M(t)$ , we reveal that dFC evolution is  
512 neither random nor Markovian (**Figure 5A** and **Figure 5B**) (**Figure 5C** and **Figure 5D**).

#### 513 514 **4.2 Temporal stability of task related dynamic functional connectivity is higher than rest.**

515  
516 A key finding of our study indicates a global spread of shorter-lived, repeated patterns of stability  
517 between dominant FC configurations in resting state and local spread of longer-lived repeated patterns  
518 of stability in the task (in both continuous, naturalistic movie watching task and discrete goal oriented  
519 sensorimotor task) (**Figure 2B** and **Figure 3B**). The resting state is shown to be a multistable  
520 stationary state-regime at equilibrium (Deco & Jirsa, 2012). Ghosh and colleagues (Ghosh, Rho,  
521 McIntosh, Kötter, & Jirsa, 2008) have demonstrated that resting state networks operate close to  
522 instability and explore these states, before committing to one of these states. Deco and Jirsa (Deco  
523 & Jirsa, 2012) have proposed that a repertoire of multistable states exists in resting state, that are  
524 functionally meaningful and inherently supported by the neuroanatomical connectivity, and can be  
525 rapidly activated even in the absence of any task. We speculate that in resting state the global spread  
526 of shorter-lived repeated patterns of stability between dominant FC configurations is associated with  
527 the exploration of multistable dynamic repertoire of states. On the contrary during a task (continuous  
528 or discrete), the repertoire of multistable states are limited, as only task specific, cognitively relevant

529 brain networks are explored. The brain visits task specific stable states for duration that a putative  
530 stimulus triggered cognitive process demands. This is associated with the local spread of longer-lived  
531 temporal similarities between dominant functional connectivity subspaces in a task.  
532 Our entropy results indicate the stability of functional connectivity architecture was highest in the  
533 discrete, goal-oriented sensorimotor task, followed by continuous naturalistic movie watching task  
534 and resting state (**Figure 4A**). This is in line with previous studies which report an increase in overall  
535 stability of FC with the largest increase in between network connections (Elton & Gao, 2015)  
536 (Gonzalez-Castillo & Bandettini, 2018), increase in stability of hemispheric homotopic connections  
537 during a task (Gonzalez-Castillo J. , Hoy, Handwerker, & Bandettini, 2014). Such increased stability  
538 of FC during a task is hypothesised to be associated with cognitive constraints during a task  
539 (Gonzalez-Castillo & Bandettini, 2018). Frobenius distance analysis results reveal the temporal  
540 stability matrices of functional connectivity during continuous, naturalistic movie watching task was  
541 closer to resting state than discrete, goal oriented sensorimotor task (**Figure 4B**). Considering our  
542 Frobenius distance analysis, we hypothesized stability of functional connectivity architecture should  
543 be highest in the sensorimotor task, followed by the naturalistic movie watching task, which was  
544 validated by our entropy results. Our findings thus provide evidence of increased temporal stability  
545 of whole-brain functional connectivity in task, highest in the discrete, goal-oriented task, followed by  
546 continuous, naturalistic movie watching task and then resting-state, using a novel unsupervised  
547 approach of characterising the stability of functional connectivity architecture.

548

#### 549 **4.3 Ageing introduces temporal variability in evolution of dynamic functional connectivity in** 550 **both rest and task**

551

552 Evidence from prior studies reveals the complexity of FC dynamics remains similar for all  
553 participants irrespective of age. An earlier study (Viviano, Raz, Yuan , & Damoiseaux, 2017) found  
554 no association between age and rate of switching between the FC states for resting brain. Our results



555 **(Figure 2B and Figure 3B)** indicate an overall trend of global spread of shorter-lived repeated  
556 patterns of stability between dominant FC configurations in resting state and local spread of longer-  
557 lived repeated patterns of stability in the task was similar in both young and old adults. Our study also  
558 revealed the highest stability of functional connectivity in the discrete, goal-oriented sensorimotor  
559 task, followed by continuous, naturalistic movie watching task and resting state, a trend similar in  
560 both young and old adults **(Figure 4A)**. Interestingly, McIntosh and colleagues (McIntosh, et al.,  
561 2010) have reported BOLD signal variability of hub-region decreases with age, suggestive of increase  
562 in stability of hub regions with age. Our results, which contrasted the stability of functional  
563 architecture in young and old adults **(Figure 4A (inset))**, found increased stability of functional  
564 architecture in young adults in resting state. The neural noise hypothesis suggests the age-related  
565 cognitive decline could be explained as a consequence of the increase in the noisy baseline activity  
566 of the brain (Voytek, et al., 2015) (Davis , et al., 2009). In accordance to this hypothesis, the decrease  
567 in stability of the functional architecture of the brain in older adults can be explained with an increase  
568 in neural noise with age. An important point to note, regardless of age associated changes in the  
569 stability of functional architecture, our results did not reveal statistically significant differences.  
570 Therefore, although there are differences in stability of functional architecture with age, their  
571 magnitude may be modest.

572

### 573 **3.4 Limitations and Future directions**

574

575 An important caveat of the current study was due to parcellation atlas used in the Cam-CAN dataset.  
576 The AAL atlas parcellates the brain regions into 116 structural parcels and few parcels span multiple  
577 functional regions. For future studies, for a more refined spatial profile of temporal stability of  
578 functional architecture, using a finely parcellated brain atlas is recommended. Researchers have  
579 shown stability of functional architecture is modified in patients of Schizophrenia, ADHD and ASD  
580 (Zhang & et al, 2016) (Guo, Zhao, Tao, Liu, & Palaniyappan, 2017). Hence, we can extrapolate that

581 the temporal stability of functional architecture can provide a richer information to discover  
582 biomarkers for neurological and mental disorders.

### 583 **3.5 Conclusion** 584

585 In summary, the current study introduces a data-driven unsupervised approach to characterise the  
586 temporal stability of functional architecture. When applied to a putative lifespan ageing data, the  
587 whole-brain temporal dynamics of naturalistic movie watching task was found to be closer to resting  
588 state than during sensorimotor task. Further, the study revealed peak temporal stability in  
589 sensorimotor task, followed by naturalistic movie watching task and resting state, a trend similar in  
590 both young and elderly. The temporal stability of functional architecture of the resting state was also  
591 found to be higher in young adults than their older counterparts. The quantification of differences in  
592 network stability associated with healthy ageing provides evidence for the potency of the temporal  
593 stability measure to act as biomarker for multiple neurological disorders.

594

595

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610 **Declaration of competing interest**

611 The authors declare no conflicts of interest

612

613 **Ethics statement**

614 CamCAN dataset was collected in compliance with the Helsinki Declaration, and has been approved  
615 by the local ethics committee, Cambridgeshire 2 Research Ethics Committee (reference:  
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617

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849 **Figure captions:**

850 **Figure 1: (A).** The schematic diagram shows how the temporal stability of dynamic functional  
851 connectivity subspaces (dFC) are computed. Dominant dFC subspace, at each time point, is estimated  
852 using the first three principal components of dFC(t), that was computed using the measure of BOLD  
853 phase coherence. The similarity between dFC subspaces are calculated using principal angle (Angular  
854 distance) and Mahalanobis distance (Euclidean distance). If the dominant dFC subspaces are similar  
855 for extended timepoints, then they are considered to be stable. **(B).** A flowchart representation of the  
856 method

857  
858 **Figure 2: (A)** dFC matrices estimated using BOLD phase coherence.

859 **(B)** Time X Time temporal stability matrix of resting state, naturalistic movie watching task and  
860 discrete, sensorimotor task for young and old adults. Each entry in the matrix is the principal angle  
861  $\phi(t_x, t_y)$  between dominant dFC subspaces at  $t_x$  and  $t_y$ . The principal angle ranges between 0 (low  
862 angular distance) to  $\pi/2$  (high angular distance). Resting state, in both young and old adults, has  
863 shorter-lived, global spread of patterns of temporal stability. On the contrary, both the tasks have a  
864 longer-lived, local spread of patterns of stability (indicated by arrows and rectangular boxes).

865  
866 **Figure 3:** Mahalanobis distance between dominant dFC subspaces.

867 **(A)** Mahalanobis distance is a pairwise Euclidean distance between the ROIs of dominant dFC  
868 subspace at  $t_x$ , with the whole-brain dominant dFC subspace at  $t_y$ .

869 **(B)** Time X Time temporal stability matrix of resting state, naturalistic movie watching task, and  
870 sensorimotor task, where each entry in the matrix is Mahalanobis  $(M^2(t_x, t_y))$  distance between the  
871 dominant dFC subspaces. Mahalanobis distance between dominant dFC subspaces is low when the  
872 dFC configurations are similar.

873 (C) The profile of temporal stability estimated with Mahalanobis distance across the brain regions at  
874 different instances of time.

875

876 **Figure 4: (A)** Plots representing entropy of temporal stability matrices of resting state (rest),  
877 naturalistic movie watching task (movie) and sensorimotor task (SMT), for Angular distance and  
878 Mahalanobis distance metric, in both young (magenta) and old adults (blue). Statistically significant  
879 differences are indicated using \* ( $\mathcal{P} \leq 0.05$ ), \*\* ( $\mathcal{P} \leq 0.01$ ), \*\*\* ( $\mathcal{P} \leq 0.01$ ), \*\*\*\* ( $\mathcal{P} \leq 0.001$ ),  
880 \*\*\*\* ( $\mathcal{P} \leq 0.0001$ ), ns (not significant).

881 **(inset)** Distribution of entropy computed from temporal stability matrices of the resting state,  
882 naturalistic movie watching, and sensorimotor task, each contrasted between young (magenta) and  
883 old adults (blue) represented as a violin plot

884

885 **(B)** Plots representing distribution of Frobenius distance between temporal stability matrices of  
886 resting state, naturalistic movie watching (yellow) and resting state, sensorimotor task (pink) for  
887 Angular distance, and Mahalanobis distance metric, in both young and old adults. The violin plots  
888 reveal a shorter Frobenius norm between resting state and movie watching task than resting state and  
889 sensorimotor task in both young and old adults.

890

891 **Figure 5: (A)** Stochastic modelling of principal angle,  $\phi(t)$  as autoregressive, AR ( $\rho$ ) process. The  
892 model order ( $\rho$ ) was varied from 0 to 100. The plot represents Akaike information criterion (AIC)  
893 values corresponding to the model order. Inset shows the first minima of the AIC value and its  
894 corresponding model order.

895 **(B)** Table shows first minimal AIC value and its corresponding model order of  $\phi(t)$  for all the  
896 categories

897

898 (C) Stochastic modelling of Mahalanobis distance,  $M(t)$  as AR ( $\rho$ ) process. The model order ( $\rho$ )  
899 was varied from 0 to 100. The plot represents AIC values corresponding to the model order. Inset  
900 shows the first minima of the AIC value and its corresponding model order.

901 (D) Table shows first minimal AIC value and its corresponding model order of  $M(t)$  for all the  
902 categories

903

904

905 **Supplementary Figures:**

906

907 **S 1:** Temporal stability matrices of the resting state, naturalistic movie watching task and  
908 sensorimotor task, where each entry is the principal angle  $\phi(t_x, t_y)$  between dominant dFC subspaces  
909 at  $t_x$  and  $t_y$ , for young and old adults. For validation of the results where dFC was estimated using  
910 BOLD phase coherence, we calculated dFC using sliding window approach with (window length)  
911 WL = 10 time points.

912

913 **S 2:** Temporal stability matrices of the resting state, naturalistic movie watching task, and  
914 sensorimotor task, for both young and old adults. dFC was estimated using sliding window approach  
915 with (window length) WL= 20 time points.

916

917 **S 3:** Temporal stability matrices of the resting state, naturalistic movie watching task, and  
918 sensorimotor task, for both young and old adults. dFC was estimated using sliding window approach  
919 with (window length) WL= 30 time points

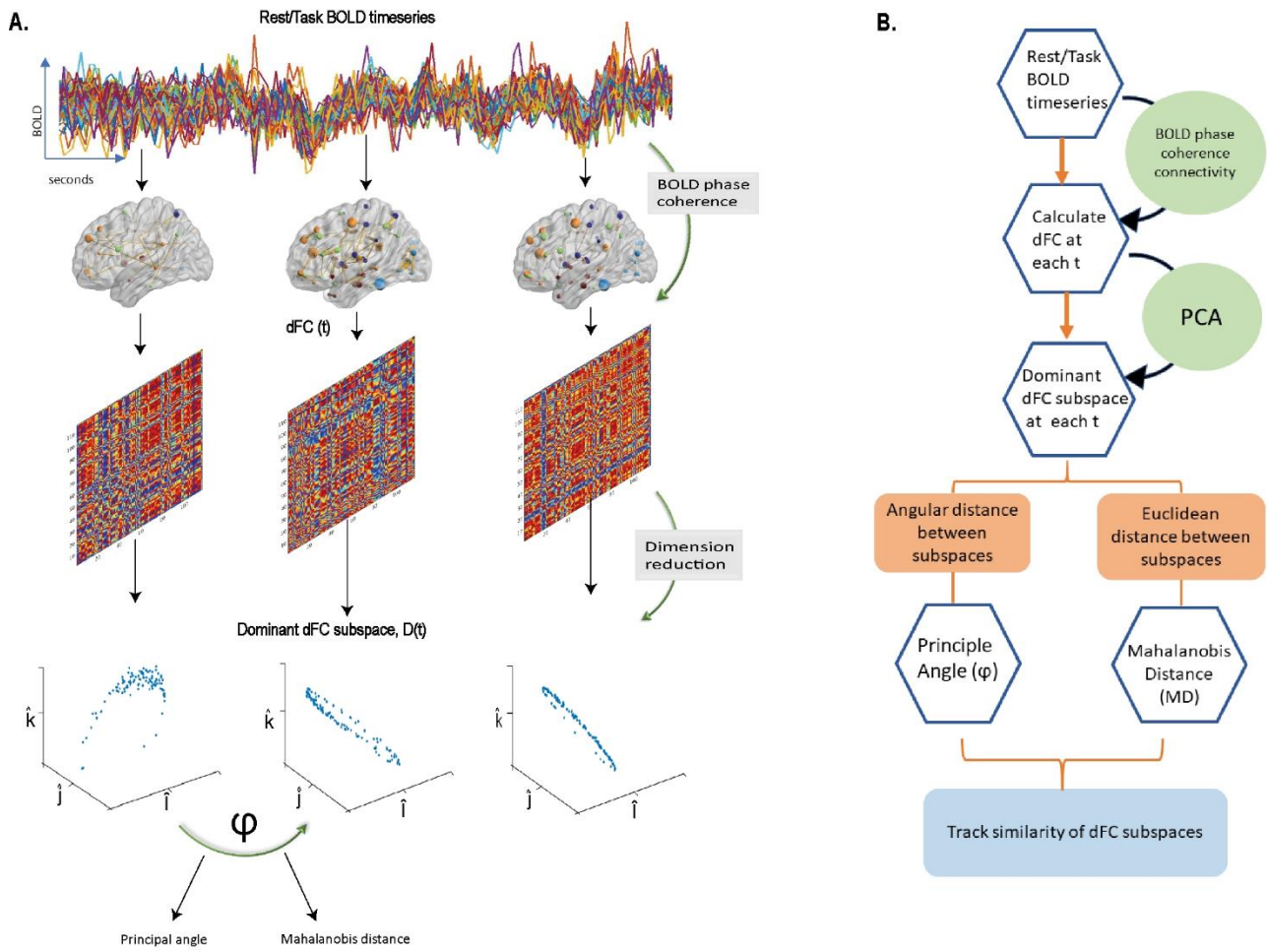
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921 **S 4:** The Plot represents the variance explained by all 116 principal components of the input dFC  
922 matrix for all categories. The first three principal components explain almost 99% of the variance of  
923 the input matrix.

924

925 **S 5:** Temporal stability matrices representing the temporal landscape of randomised BOLD signals,  
926 resting state, naturalistic movie watching task, and sensorimotor task.

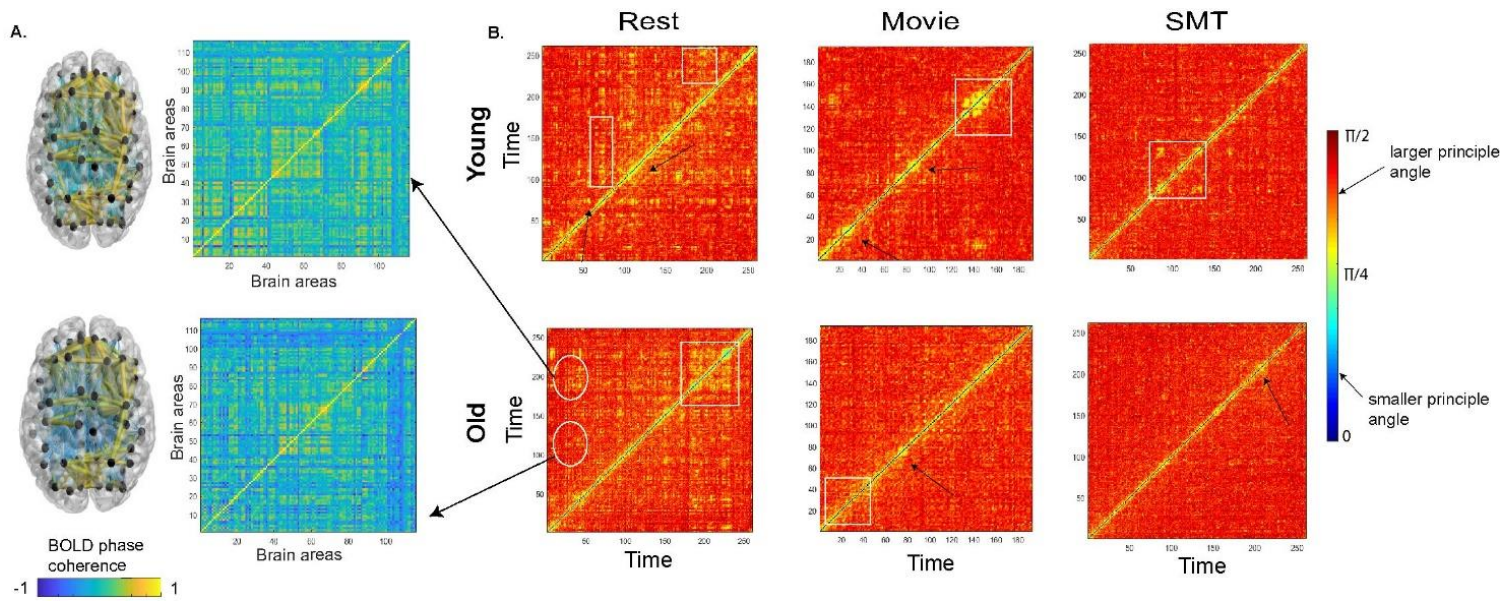
**Figure 1**



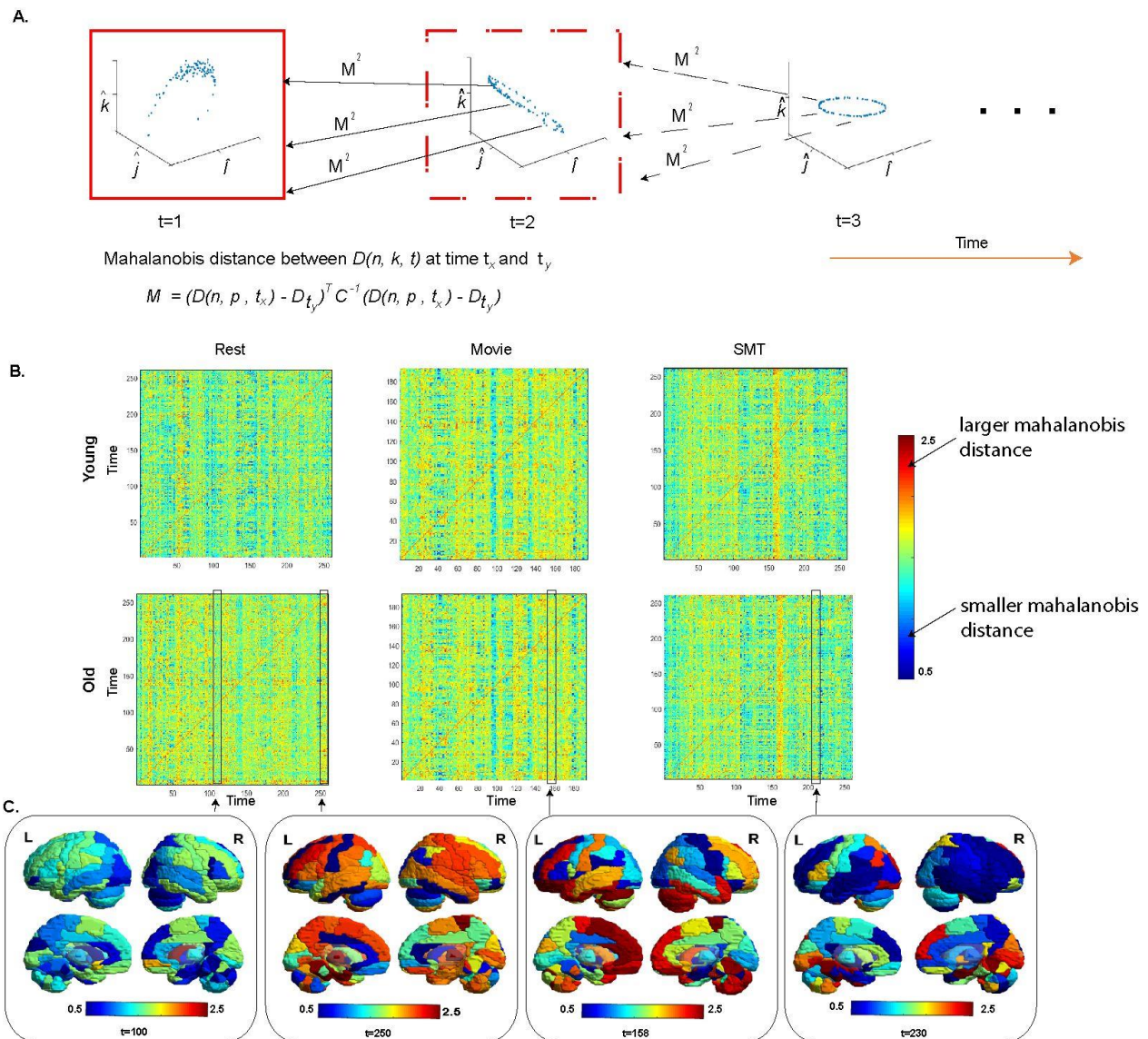
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**Figure 2**



**Figure 3**



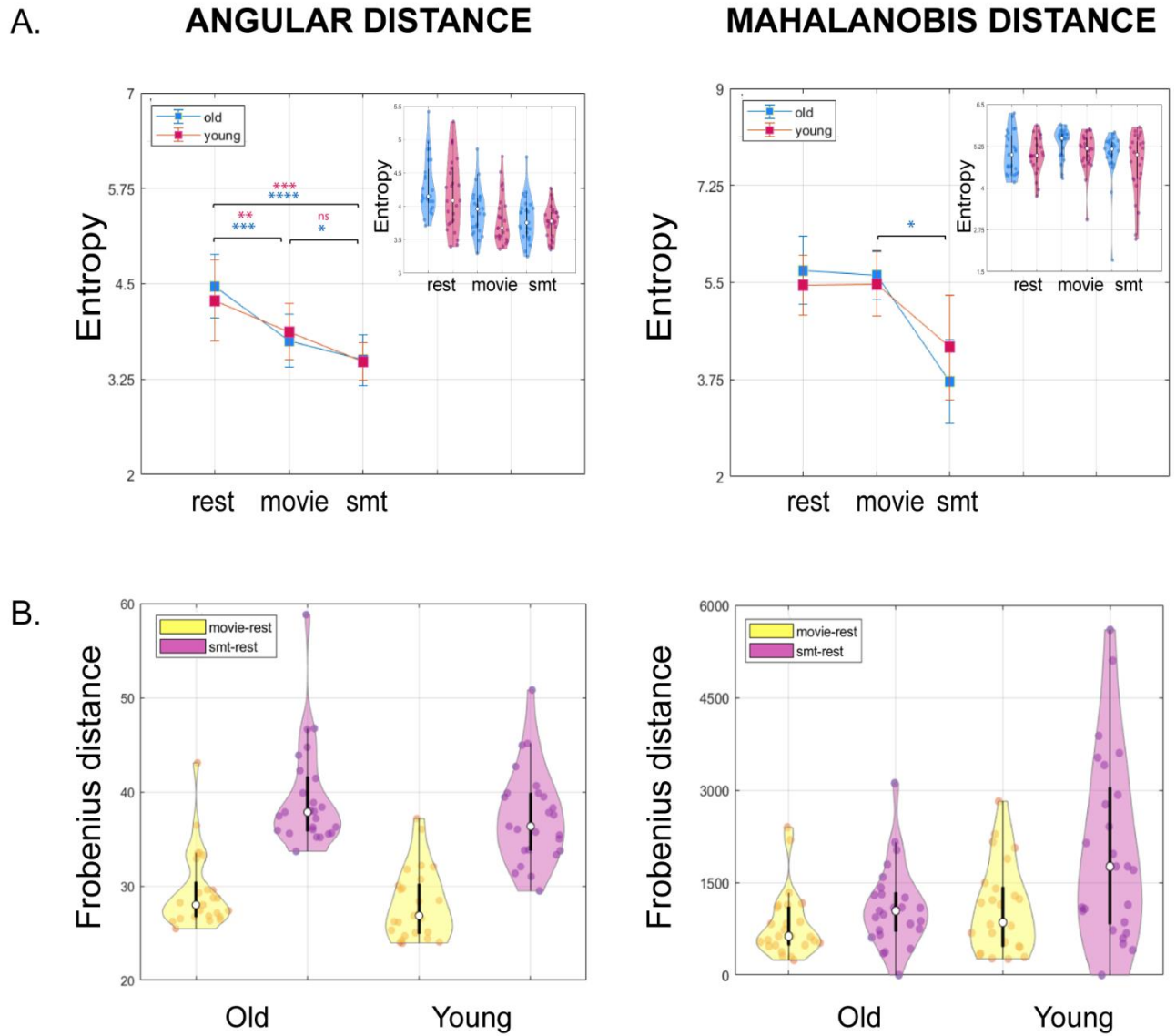
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**Figure 4**



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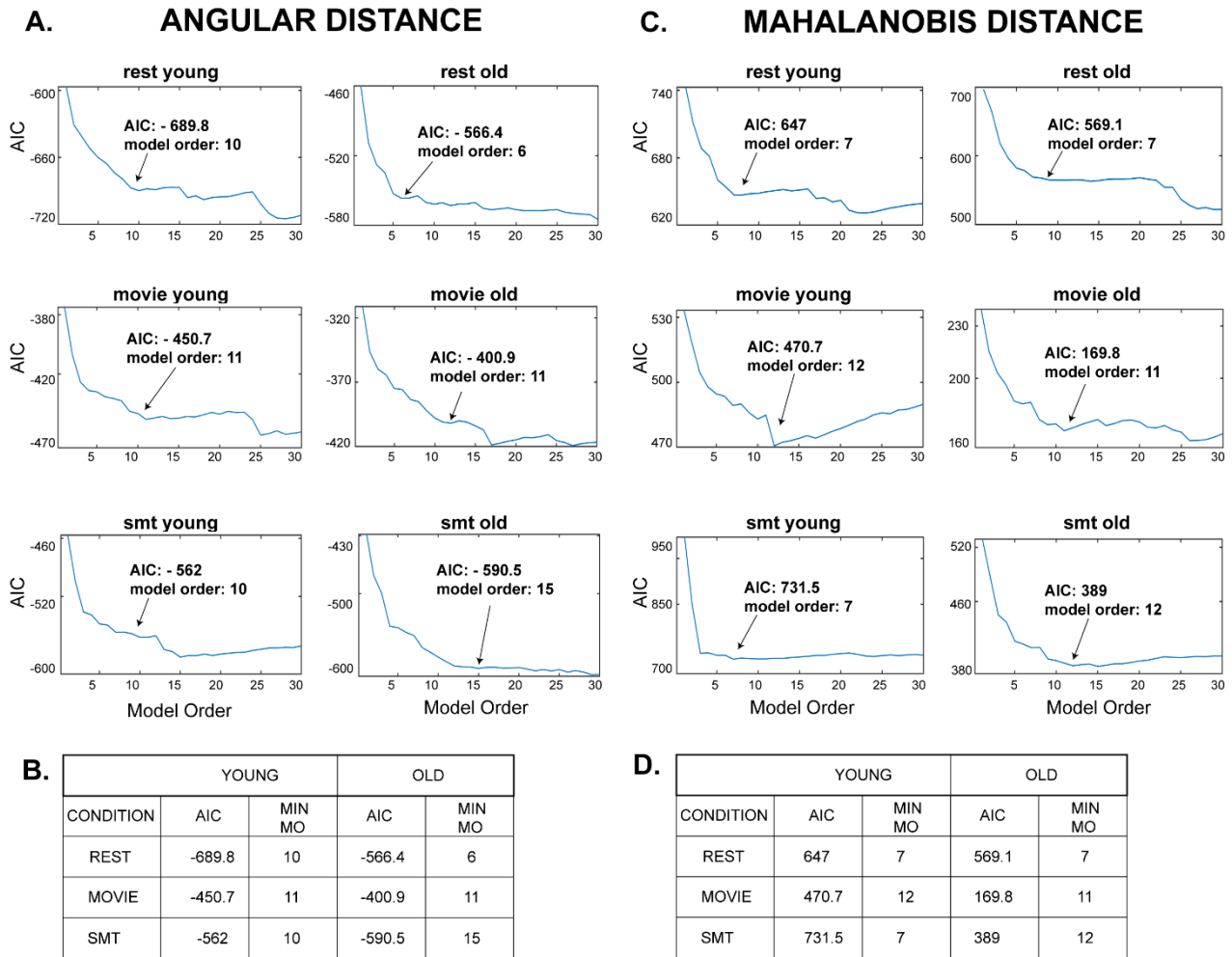
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**Figure 5**



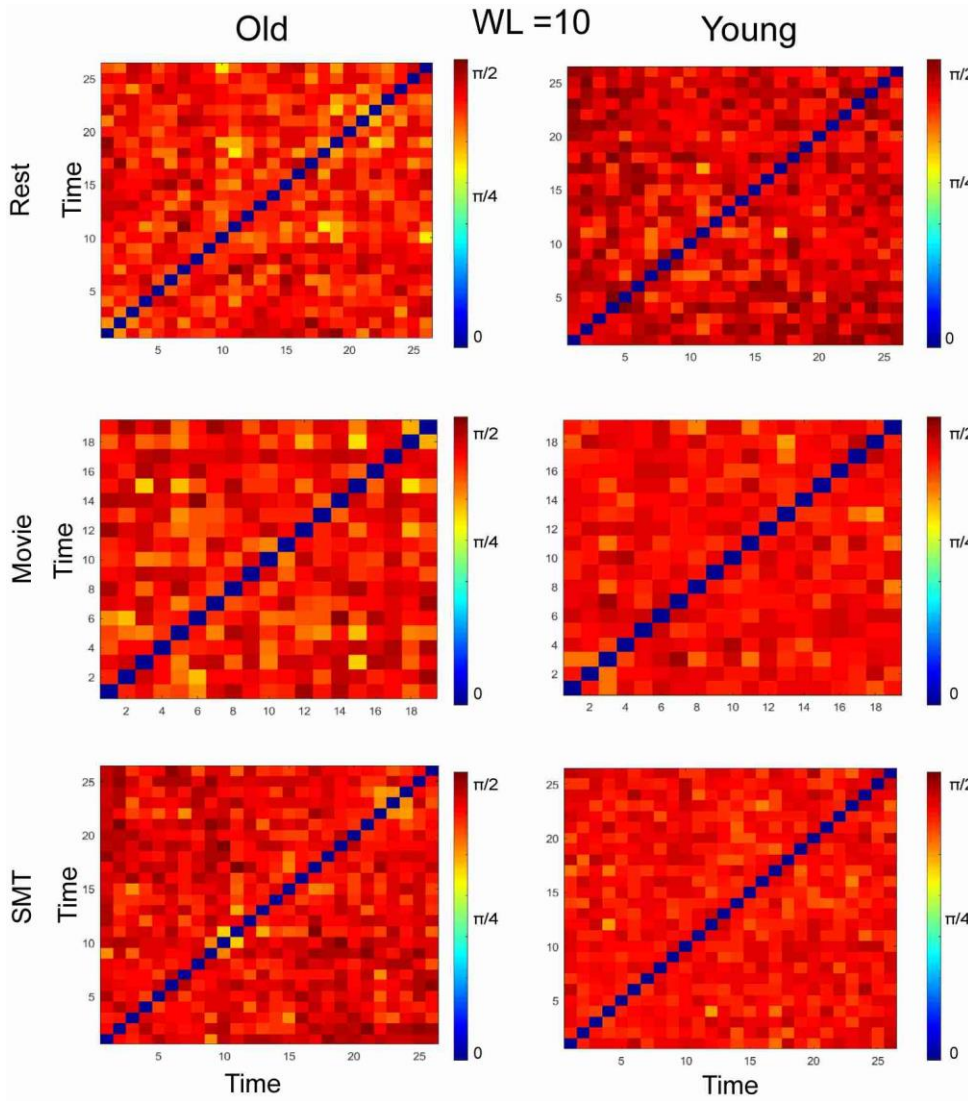
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941 **Supplementary figures**

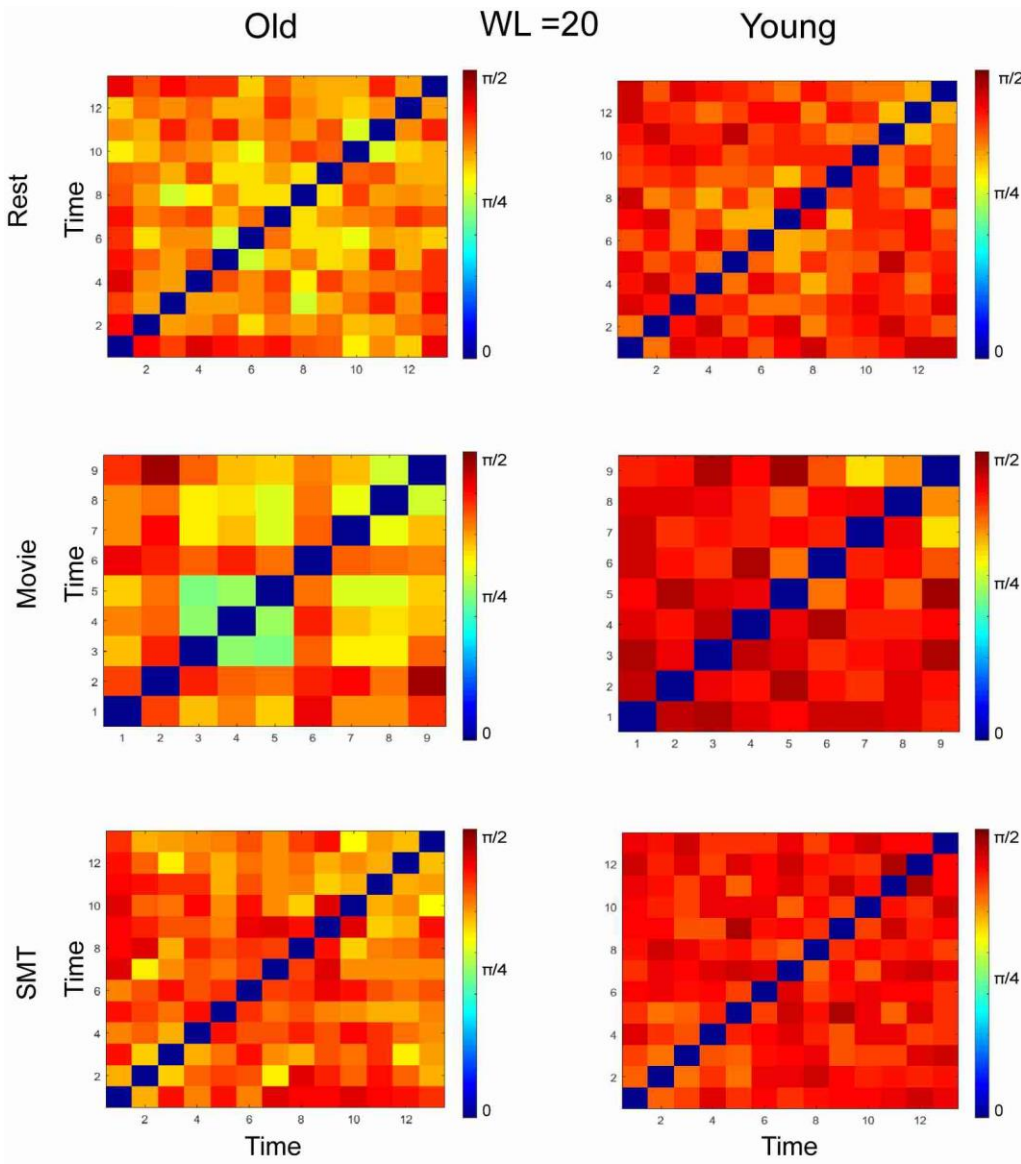
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**S 1**



S2



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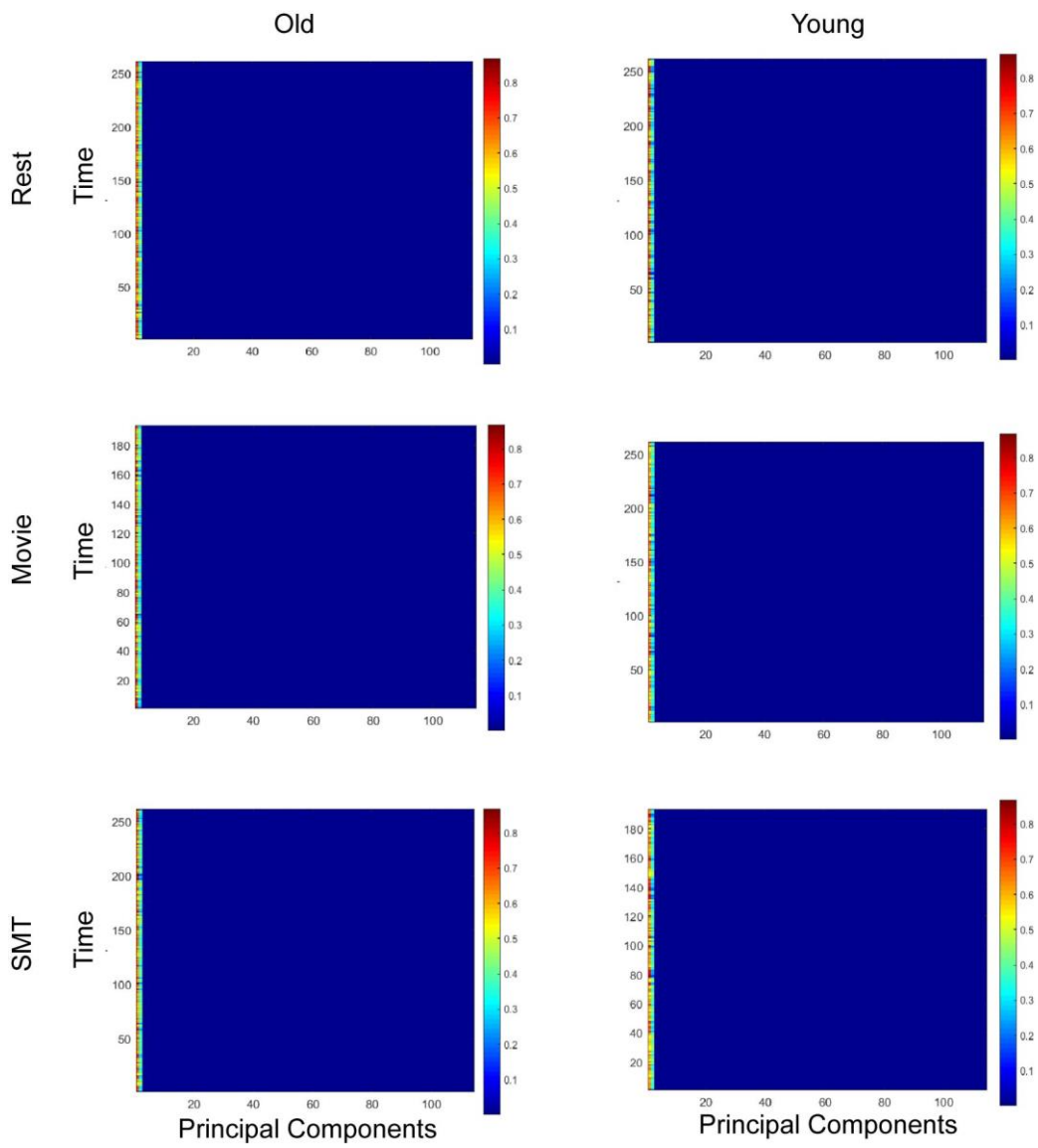
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S 4

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