Compensatory functional connectome changes in a rat model of traumatic brain injury

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Abstract

Penetrating cortical impact injuries alter neuronal communication beyond the injury epicenter, across regions involved in affective, sensorimotor, and cognitive processing. Understanding how traumatic brain injury (TBI) reorganizes local and brain wide nodal functional interactions may provide valuable quantitative parameters for monitoring pathological progression and functional recovery. To this end, we investigated spontaneous fluctuations in the functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) signal obtained at 11.1 Tesla in rats sustaining controlled cortical impact (CCI) and imaged at 2- and 30-days post-injury. Graph theory-based calculations were applied to weighted undirected matrices constructed from 12,879 pairwise correlations between fMRI signals from 162 regions. Our data indicate that on days 2 and 30 post-CCI there is a significant increase in connectivity strength in nodes located in contralesional cortical, thalamic, and basal forebrain areas. Rats imaged on day 2 post-injury had significantly greater network modularity than controls, with influential nodes (with high eigenvector centrality) contained within the contralesional module and participating less in cross-modular interactions. By day 30, modularity and cross-modular interactions recover, although a cluster of nodes with low strength and low eigenvector centrality remain in the ipsilateral cortex. Our results suggest that changes in node strength, modularity, eigenvector centrality, and participation coefficient track early and late TBI effects on brain functional connectivity. We propose that the observed compensatory functional connectivity reorganization in response to CCI may be unfavorable to brain wide communication in the early post-injury period.

                                    Introduction

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) is a leading cause of emergency department visits, long-term

disability, and accidental deaths in the U.S. (CDC, 2019). Among different types of moderate-to-

severe brain injury, penetrative concussive cortical injury can cause permanent structural and

functional deficits in brain areas that regulate cognitive, sensorimotor, and affective functions

(Arciniegas, 2011; Hegde, 2014; Johnstone *et al.*, 2015; Thomas *et al.*, 2015). The severity of

cognitive impairment and/or neuropsychiatric sequelae of focal cortical injury may be linked to

the degree of spatial damage caused at and beyond the TBI epicenter (Hall *et al.*, 2005).

Degeneration of axons and dendrites can occur beyond the TBI foci and produce impairments in

brain wide communication across cortical and subcortical regions (Hall *et al.*, 2005; Hall *et al.*,

2008; Carron *et al.*, 2016; Ping and Jin, 2016).

The large-scale neurobiological changes that occur with TBI have been investigated using

resting state functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and graph theory-based analysis of

functional connectivity (Hillary *et al.*, 2011; Sharp *et al.*, 2011). Disruption of functional

connectivity between subdivisions of the caudate and putamen and distributed cortical regions,

including the anterior cingulate, was observed to be associated with cognitive impairments in a

cohort of 42 TBI patients compared to aged-matched control participants (De Simoni *et al.*,

2018). Structural connectivity-based network matrices in 52 TBI patients, 21 of which sustained

microbleeds, were shown to have a reduction in nodes with high betweenness and eigenvector

centrality in caudate and anterior cingulate cortex (Fagerholm *et al.*, 2015). These nodes are

highly influential within networks, constituting routes of high traffic or communication between

distant regions of the cortex. Cognitive processing was closely linked to the degree of

disconnection in network hubs, perhaps because of a reduced number of influential nodes

following diffuse axonal injury (Fagerholm *et al.*, 2015). A comprehensive longitudinal blast

related TBI study reported significant modular organizational changes (Han *et al.*, 2014).

Functional connectivity can be parcellated into groups or modules with greater rates of within-

group connectivity than between-group node interactions. This modular pattern is thought to be

a fundamental organizational aspect of neural activity in the brain of various species and may

be important in the segregation of functions across distributed networks. The number of

between-module connections, as quantified by the participation coefficient, is reduced with blast

injury and this has important implications for cognitive function and the binding of multiple

sources of sensory, affective, and memory information.

The above neuroimaging studies in human subjects emphasize the promise of graph theory

measures as functional TBI biomarkers. Comparable methods in animal models of TBI allow

investigation of neurobiological mechanisms linked to network metric changes. Repetitive

closed head injury disrupts functional connectivity between midbrain, hippocampal, and

cerebellar regions and produced hyperconnectivity in olfactory regions and other areas of the rat

brain (Kulkarni *et al.*, 2019), and caused widespread changes in tissue apparent diffusion

coefficient values (Yang *et al.*, 2015). Niskanen and colleagues provided evidence of post-

concussive functional recovery of BOLD signal responses to forepaw electrical stimulation in

primary somatosensory (S1) cortex by day 56 in a lateral fluid percussive injury (LFPI) rat model

(Niskanen *et al.*, 2013). Rats sustaining LFPI were also shown to have reduced cortical

functional connectivity at four months post-injury (Mishra *et al.*, 2014). In a series of studies

using the controlled cortical impact (CCI) model in rats, Harris and colleagues demonstrated

contralesional increases in cortical excitability, c-Fos expression, and BOLD signal responses to

forepaw electrical stimulation (Verley *et al.*, 2018). Interestingly, the S1 cortical hyperexcitability

was observed as early as 2 days post-injury using electrophysiological methods but at later time

points with fMRI data collected at 7 Tesla (Verley *et al.*, 2018). Consistent with these findings,

further functional connectomic assessments by Harris and colleagues demonstrated increased

network strength and topological reorganization involving interactions between strongly and

weakly connected regions (Harris *et al.*, 2016).

In the present study, we investigated functional connectivity changes in a rat CCI model at

2- and 30-days post-injury. Our results indicate that at two days post-injury cortical regions

contralateral to the CCI epicenter show a significant increase in node strength along with a

global increase in modularity, with low and high centrality nodes largely distributed in different

modules. Participation in cross-modular connectivity was also reduced on day 2, however, this

recovered to control levels by day 30 post-CCI.

Materials and Methods

Subjects

Female and male Sprague-Dawley rats (220-300g) were obtained from Charles River

Laboratories (Raleigh, NC, USA.). Rats were housed in sex-matched pairs in a temperature and

humidity-controlled vivarium with a 12 h light cycle (lights on at 0700 h) and food and water

provided ad libitum. Rats were assigned to one of two experimental conditions: controls (15

male and 8 female rats) and controlled cortical impact (CCI; 19 male and 12 female rats). A

subgroup of CCI rats were imaged 2 days post-injury (16 male and 7 female rats) and another

group (3 male and 5 female rats) at 30 days. All procedures received prior approval from the

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Florida and followed all

applicable NIH guidelines.

Controlled cortical impact (CCI)

The CCI procedure was carried out using a Leica Impact One device (Leica Microsystems

Inc). Anesthetic levels were induced with 4% isoflurane gas mixed in 100% oxygen and the

maintained under 2% isoflurane for the rest of the procedure. Body temperature was regulated

to 37°C using a thermal pad while rats were prepared for surgery on a stereotaxic frame. A

parasagittal craniectomy (center at anteroposterior [AP], +4.0 mm; L, +2.8 mm from lambda) 5

mm in diameter was performed to expose the brain and allow impactor tip access to the cortical

surface. The impactor had a 4-mm flat-face tip. CCI at a depth of 1.5 mm at 4 m/s and a dwell

time of 240ms was carried out. All injuries occurred in the right hemisphere. The surgical area

was sutured, and recovery was monitored by tail pinch and righting reflexes.

Magnetic resonance imaging

Magnetic resonance imaging was carried out as previously reported (Pompilus *et al.*, 2020).

Images were collected in an 11.1 Tesla MRI scanner (Magnex Scientific Ltd., Oxford, UK) with a

Resonance Research Inc. gradient set (RRI BFG-240/120-S6, maximum gradient strength of

1000 mT/m at 325 Amps and a 200 µs risetime; RRI, Billerica, MA) and controlled by a Bruker

Paravision 6.01 console (Bruker BioSpin, Billerica, MA). A custom-made 2.5 cm x 3.5 cm

quadrature radiofrequency (RF) surface transmit/receive coil tuned to 470.7MHz (^{1}H

resonance) was used for B1 excitation and signal detection (RF engineering lab, Advanced

Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Spectroscopy Facility, Gainesville, FL).

Rats were scanned under a continuous flow of 1.5 % isoflurane (delivered at 0.5L/min mixed

with medical grade air containing 70% N_2 and 30% O_2). Respiratory rates were monitored

continuously, and body temperature was maintained at 36-37°C using a warm water

recirculation system (SA Instruments, Inc., New York). For each rat, we acquired a 10-minute

high-resolution T2 weighted anatomical scan followed by a 10-minute functional magnetic

resonance imaging (fMRI) scan. A T2-weighted Turbo Rapid Acquisition with Refocused Echoes

(TurboRARE) sequence was acquired with the following parameters: effective echo time (TE) =

41 ms, repetition time (TR) = 4 seconds, RARE factor = 16, number of averages = 12, field of

view (FOV) of 24 mm x 18 mm and 0.9 mm thick slice, and a data matrix of 256 x 192 and 25

interleaved ascending coronal (axial) slices covering the entire brain from the rostral-most

extent of the anterior frontal cortical surface, caudally towards the upper brainstem and

cerebellum. Functional images were collected using a single-shot spin-echo echo planar

imaging (EPI) sequence with the following parameters: TE = 15 ms, TR = 2 seconds, 300

repetitions, FOV = 24 x 18 mm and 0.9 mm thick slice, and a data matrix of 64 x 48 with 25

interleaved ascending coronal slices in the same space as the T2 anatomical. Respiratory rates,

isoflurane concentration, body temperature, lighting, and room conditions were kept constant

across subjects.

158   **---Insert Figure 1---**

Image pre-processing and atlas registration

The image pre-processing steps applied in the present study are illustrated in the schematic

in Figure 1. Anatomical and functional scan masks outlining rat brain boundaries were

generated in MATLAB using Three-Dimensional Pulsed Coupled Neural Networks (PCNN3D)

(Chou *et al.*, 2011). Resting state processing was carried out using software tools in Analysis of

Functional NeuroImages (AFNI) (Cox, 1996), FSL (Jenkinson *et al.*, 2002), and Advanced

Normalization Tools (ANTs) (Klein *et al.*, 2009). First, we used 3dDespike in AFNI to remove

time series spikes and 3dvolreg for image volume alignment. Preprocessed scans were cropped

and a high-pass temporal filter (>0.009Hz) was used (3dTproject) to remove slow variations

(temporal drift) in the fMRI signal. Independent component analysis (ICA) decomposition was

then applied to preprocessed scans to assess noise components in each subjects' native space

prior to spatial smoothing and registration. The resulting components were assessed, and in

most cases all components contained noise-related signal along brain edges, in ventricular

voxels, and large vessel regions. These components were suppressed using a soft ('non-

aggressive') regression approach, as implemented in FMRIB Software Library (FSL 6.0.3) using

fsl_regfilt (Jenkinson *et al.*, 2002). A low-pass filter (<0.12Hz) and spatial smoothing (0.6mm

FWHM) was then applied to the fMRI scans.

Preprocessed anatomical and fMRI scans were aligned to a parcellated rat brain template

(Kenkel *et al.*, 2016). Anatomical scans were cropped and N4 bias field correction (Tustison *et*

al., 2010) was applied to remove B1 RF field inhomogeneities and reduce field of view intensity

variations (Kenkel *et al.*, 2016). The extracted brain maps were then linearly registered to the rat

template using FSL linear registration tool (FLIRT) (Jenkinson *et al.*, 2002), using a correlation

ratio search cost, full 180-degree search terms, 12 degrees of freedom and trilinear

interpolation. The linear registration output was then nonlinearly warped to the template space

using ANTs (antsIntroduction.sh script). The resulting deformation field images were used to

generate Jacobian determinant maps to evaluate subject-to-atlas registration quality and

quantify the effects of regional structural differences of CCI rats compared to controls. Average

log-normalized Jacobian maps are shown in Figure 2. Anatomical-to-atlas linear and nonlinear

transformation matrices were applied to fMRI scans at a later stage.

190   **---Insert Figure 2---**

Brain extraction using a mask (see above) was first applied to fMRI scans and the cropped

scans were then aligned to their respective higher resolution anatomical scans. Timeseries

functional images were split into 300 individual volumes and the first in the series was linearly

aligned to the anatomical scan using FLIRT (same parameters as above, except 6 degrees of

freedom was used in this step). ANTs (antsRegistrationSyNQuick.sh script) was used to warp

the lower resolution functional images to their structural (using a single stage step deformable b-

spline syn with a 26-step b-spline distance). Linear and nonlinear warping matrices for fMRI-to-

anatomical alignment were applied to individual scans in the time series, then the merged 4-D

functional timeseries were moved to the atlas space using the prior anatomical-to-template

transformation matrices.

Parcellation-based node placement and resting state signal extraction

We updated a previous set of 144 node parcellations (Pompilus *et al.*, 2020) to include an

additional 18 region of interest (ROI) masks covering voxels in the CCI region and the

contralateral hemisphere (Figure 3A). These included 4 ROIs covering the primary visual cortex

(Lesion ROI1, 3-5 in Figure 3A), one in the dorsal hippocampus centered on the dentate gyrus

layer (Lesion ROI2), the rostral and caudal retrosplenial cortex (Lesion ROI9 and ROI6,

respectively), and the barrel field and trunk regions of the primary somatosensory cortex (Lesion

ROI7 and ROI8, respectively). Thus, a total of 162 region of interest (ROI) masks, divided into

81 left and 81 right ROI's, were included in our analyses. Individual ROI masks were generated

using a previously published rat brain parcellation (Kenkel *et al.*, 2016). ROI seed generation

was as previously reported (Pompilus *et al.*, 2020) and coordinates were used for 3D network

visualizations in BrainNet viewer in MATLAB (Xia *et al.*, 2013). The principal eigenvector

timeseries vector was extracted from preprocessed fMRI scans with the assistance of ROI mask

overlays. This generated 162 individual ROI text files per subject that contained L2-normalized

resting state signals as a vector of 300 data points. The timeseries files were used in cross-

correlations and in calculations of Pearson r coefficients for every pairwise combinations of

ROIs (1dCorrelate in AFNI). The resulting number of pairwise correlations was 12,879 per

subject (after removing 162 self-correlations). Correlation coefficients were imported to MATLAB

and Fisher's transform applied to ensure a normal distribution of z values prior to analyses.

223   **---Insert Figure 3---**

Analysis of functional network graph properties

Details of network analysis and formal descriptions of graph metrics are published (Pompilus

et al., 2020). Briefly, weighted matrices were analyzed with Brain Connectivity Toolbox (Rubinov

and Sporns, 2010) and MATLAB. Global graph metrics were calculated for edge density

thresholds ranging from 2-40%. Node-specific network measures were calculated at a 10%

threshold. Node strength was assessed at the individual node level and globally at the graph

level to investigate how CCI affected functional connectivity strength. Node strength is the sum

of edge weights per node. The average node strength for all edge connected nodes is the

network strength.

A probabilistic approach for community detection was applied to calculate a modularity

statistic (Q), which indexes the rate of intra-group connections versus connections due to

chance (Blondel *et al.*, 2008). The procedure starts with a random grouping of nodes and

iteratively moving nodes into groups which maximize the value of Q. The final number of

modules and node assignments to each group (e.g., community affiliation assignments) was

taken as the median of 1000 iterations of the modularity maximization procedure (Pompilus *et*

al., 2020). The number of communities per rat, population size of each community, and mean

participation coefficient, eigenvector and betweenness centrality of the top four-most populated

communities were assessed.

The participation coefficient was used to assess within-module nodes with different levels of

participation in connections with nodes in other modules. The calculated participation coefficient

(PC) values were classified according to published node cartographic assignments: *PC*<0.05

are ultra-peripheral (UP), 0.05<*PC*<0.62 are peripheral (PC) nodes, 0.62<*PC*<0.80 are non-hub

connectors (NHC), and *PC*>0.80 are non-hub kinless (NHK) (Guimera and Amaral, 2005). The

presence of highly influential nodes and nodes at the intersection between shortest paths was

determined through calculations of betweenness and eigenvector centrality. Nodes with high

betweenness centrality are present along many shortest paths between any pair of nodes in a

network (Freeman, 1977). Nodes with high eigenvector scores are connected to other high

centrality nodes and are considered highly influential within a network (Newman, 2018).

We next analyzed the tendency of assortative vs dissortative mixing of nodes (Newman,

2002). The assortativity index is a Pearson correlation coefficient comparing node strength

values between pairs of edge-connected nodes. Positive r values indicate connectivity between

pairs of nodes with similar strengths (e.g., high strength nodes pairs with high and low with low),

while negative r values indicate cross-pairings between low and high strength nodes. We also

generated and analyzed weighted rich club coefficient curves (Φ_w) at an edge density of 10%

(Colizza *et al.*, 2006). Nodes belonging to a rich club subnetwork have an above-chance

tendency to tightly connect with each other and share the bulk of connections within the network

(Colizza *et al.*, 2006; van den Heuvel and Sporns, 2011). The approach creates subgraphs

containing nodes with strength values at a predetermined degree value, k. For each k-level

subgraph, Φ_w is calculated as the ratio of the sum of edge weights that connect nodes of degree

k or higher (W>k) to the total possible number of summed weights (van den Heuvel and Sporns,

2011):

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$$\Phi_w(r) = \frac{W > k}{\sum_{l=1}^{E>r} w_1^{rank}}$$

To assess network integration and efficiency, we analyzed the clustering coefficient (CC; an

index of the number of connected neighbors of a node) (Onnela *et al.*, 2005), characteristic path

length (CPL; the lowest average number of edges between node pairs), and the small world

coefficient (SWI; which is > 1 for efficient small world networks) (Bassett and Bullmore, 2006).

Global efficiency was determined as the average inverse of CPL. Edges were randomly

swapped 10 times to generate randomized graphs, preserving original degree and strength

distributions (Maslov and Sneppen, 2002; Rubinov and Sporns, 2010). SWI was then

calculated as the ratio of lambda to gamma coefficients, where lambda is the ratio of real to

random network CC, and gamma the ratio of real to random network CPL (Humphries and

Gurney, 2008).

Functional connectivity network visualizations

Functional connectivity networks were visualized in BrainNet viewer (Xia *et al.*, 2013).

Center coordinates for each ROI were generated based on parcellations on a previously

published rat brain template (Kenkel *et al.*, 2016). A 3D whole brain surface mesh file of the rat

brain template (in *.byu format) was generated using an image binarization command in FSL

(fslmaths) (Jenkinson *et al.*, 2002) and mesh construction tools in ITKSNAP (Yushkevich *et al.*,

2006). Several 3D brain maps were generated. A first series of connectivity strength maps were

produced with the size of nodes (spheres) weighted by node strength and the edges (lines

connecting node pairs) weighted by the Pearson coefficient between pairs of nodes (non-

thresholded to show all edges at 10% density). Additional maps were generated with node and

edge colors representing the module assignment (e.g., community affiliation vector) and node

size weighted by eigenvector centrality scores or participation coefficient values.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses and data plotting were carried using MATLAB and GraphPad Prism 9.

Two-tailed permutation tests (10,000 randomized inter-group data point swaps) were used to

compare data from controls to each of the CCI groups (Zalesky *et al.*, 2010; Chung, 2019).

Significant differences between groups were considered for p-values < 0.05 and an effect size

equal to or greater than 0.8 (large to very large effect size range) (Sawilowsky, 2009). For nodal

metrics and pairwise edge comparisons, false discovery rate (FDR) adjustments to p-values

were carried out using the Benjamini-Hochberg linear step-up procedure (Benjamini and

Hochberg, 1995). We should note, however, that network metrics, particularly across individual

spatially distributed nodes, can be highly correlated due to the physical proximity between

certain nodes in the brain and because of inherent correlative structure produced by the

Pearson r values used as edge weights. Familywise and even FDR p-value corrections in

spatial/anatomical data points that rely on correlated measures (e.g., shared signal components

across multiple regional data points) can thus significantly reduce power. Thus, FDR adjusted p-

values are reported along with uncorrected permutation test p-values and effect sizes, although

the latter two criteria for significance are used here. For global graph metrics, p-values for

repeated tests over different edge-density thresholds were adjusted using a Bonferroni-Holm

(BH) procedure (Holm, 1979; Groppe *et al.*, 2011).

311   **Results**

Structural differences between control and CCI rats

Brain structural differences between control and CCI rats were observed, even after nonlinear warping of each anatomical scan to a reference anatomical template. Figure 2 (top) shows group-averaged normalized (log) Jacobian transformation images of control and CCI day 2 and day 30 rats. Tissue volumetric stretching (expansion) changes relative to the template are noted in yellow-to-red intensity colors and shrinking (contractions) in light-to-dark blue. On average, the control group shows expansion of the cortical mantle along with modest increases in callosal white matter and underlying subcortical (thalamic) areas. The intensity of the observed structural increases differed in CCI rats, particularly at day 2 post-injury. CCI day 2 rats had on average, less cortical expansion, and greater subcortical expansion, with some contraction of white matter structure (splenium of the corpus callosum). Structural differences between CCI day 2 and controls was less intense in CCI day 30 rats (Figure 2, top).

Figure 2 (bottom) shows representative anatomical images of four CCI rats on day 2 and 30, which were registered to the anatomical template. The CCI epicenter sustained significant localized cortical damage across subjects on day 2, which appeared to expand below the cortex to underlying white matter and ventrally towards ipsilateral dorsal hippocampal and thalamic areas, similar to previously reported in histological assessments (Yang *et al.*, 2010). The structural differences between the control and CCI groups were partly, but not completely, corrected by the symmetric normalization warping. Areas outside the CCI epicenter, including contralateral structures, appeared well aligned to the template and its accompanying parcellation.

Contralesional increases in node strength were observed on days 2 and 30 post-CCI

Figure 3B shows 3D functional connectome maps of control (n=23) and CCI groups (day 2

n=23 and day 30 n = 8). Compared to controls, individual nodes on the contralateral hemisphere

to the CCI site had greater mean node strength values on both day 2 and 30. Visualization of

this effect is enhanced in minimum spanning tree maps in Figure 3C. In addition, reductions in

node strength were observed at the ipsilateral CCI area on day 30. When averaged across the

entire brain, the local differences in node strength were not significantly different at a network-

wide level (Figure 3D). However, differences between control and CCI groups was supported by

two-tailed permutation t-tests (Figure 3E). In Figure 3E, blue spheres indicate areas of

significant differences in node strength between CCI and control rats (p<0.05, Cohen's d ≥ 0.8).

These areas of significant differences compared to control group were largely present in contra-

lateral cortex on day 2 but included ipsilateral structures on day 30 post-CCI. Differences in

edges were also investigated between control and CCI groups and these are highlighted as

grey connections between nodes in Figure 3E (p<0.05, Cohen's d ≥ 0.8). We observed a higher

density of significantly different edge weights between control and CCI 30 than in day 2 CCI

rats.

351   **---Insert Figure 4---**

Node strength values were compared between control and CCI groups at an edge density

threshold of 10% (Figure 4). On day 2, CCI rats had greater node strength than controls in the

contralateral secondary visual cortex (t=-3.0, p=0.003, FDR=0.08, d=-0.89), ventral subiculum

(t=-2.8, p=0.006, FDR=0.07, d=-0.82), globus pallidus (t=-3.0, p=0.003, FDR=0.13, d=-0.89),

ventroposterolateral thalamic nucleus (t=-3.0, p=0.004, FDR=0.06, d=-0.87), and lesion nodes 4

and 5 (t=-3.2, p=0.002, FDR=0.16, d=-0.94 and t=-3.0, p=0.003, FDR=0.07, d=-0.89,

respectively), which correspond to different subregions of the primary visual cortex (Figure 4A

and 4C). On day 2, CCI rats had lower node strength than controls in ipsilateral lateral orbital

cortex (t=2.8, p=0.006, FDR=0.08, d=0.82), olfactory tubercle (t=2.7, p=0.007, FDR=0.07,

d=0.80), and laterodorsal thalamic nucleus (t=2.8, p=0.005, FDR=0.08, d=0.84) (Figure 4A and

4C).

On day 30, CCI rats had greater node strength than controls in contralateral primary

somatosensory cortex barrel field (t=-2.3, p=0.04, FDR= 0.30, d=-0.97) and shoulder/limb

regions (t=-2.7, p=0.02, FDR= 0.28, d=-1.51), primary visual cortex (t=-2.4, p=0.03, FDR= 0.26,

d=-1.17) and lesion node 5, which correspond to a different subregion of primary visual cortex

(t=-2.6, p=0.02, FDR= 0.27, d=-1.27). Increased node strength was also observed in ipsilateral

premammillary nucleus (t=-2.2, p=0.046, FDR= 0.30, d=-1.03) (Figure 4B and 4D). On day 30,

CCI rats had lower node strength than controls in ipsilateral primary visual cortex (t=3.2,

p=0.007, FDR= 0.43, d=0.94), hippocampal CA2 (t=2.6, p=0.02, FDR= 0.25, d=0.93),

periaqueductal grey (t=3.5, p=0.003, FDR= 0.46, d=0.92), laterodorsal thalamic nucleus (t=3.2,

p=0.007, FDR= 0.30, d=0.94), ventromedial thalamic nucleus (t=2.9, p=0.01, FDR= 0.34,

d=0.87), ventroposterolateral thalamus (t=2.8, p=0.02, FDR= 0.31, d=0.82), and lesion nodes 1

and 5, which correspond to different subregions of the primary visual cortex (t=2.8, p=0.02,

FDR= 0.34, d=0.90; t=2.3, p=0.04, FDR= 0.29, d=0.80) (Figure 4A and 4C). In summary, on day

2 post-injury there are mostly contralateral increases in node strength, whereas both

contralateral increases and ipsilateral decreases are observed on day 30.

Increased modularity and segregation of 'hub-like' nodes at 2 days post-injury

In addition to examining the strength of connectivity between individual nodes, we

investigated the organization of functional connectivity in control and CCI groups (Figure 5). We

observed a significantly greater modularity index in CCI day 2 rats versus controls. This

increase was significantly different relative to control group for edge density values of 6%-40%

(t=-2.7 to -4.0, p= 0.009 to 0.00001, BH =0.03 to 0.002, d=-0.79 to -1.17). No differences in

modularity were observed between controls and CCI rats imaged 30 days post-injury (Figure

5A). In addition, no differences between the groups were observed in the size of the largest

module (figure 5B). However, the total number of detected modules was lower in CCI day 2 rats

compared to the control group (Figure 5C). This was significant for edge density threshold

values of 12% (t=2.7, p=0.009, BH= 0.14, d=0.80), 14% (t=2.8, p=0.005, BH= 0.01, d=0.83),

18% (t=2.8, p=0.007, BH= 0.12, d=0.81), 20% (t=3.6, p=0.0005, BH= 0.01, d=1.06), and 24%

(t=2.9, p=0.004, BH= 0.08, d=0.84).

394   **---Insert Figure 5---**

Figure 5D shows 3D connectome maps with node sizes scaled by eigenvector centrality

scores (edge density 10%). In CCI day 2 rats, nodes in the contralateral cortex had the highest

eigenvector centrality values (light blue) compared to nodes in the same anatomical location in

control rats, whereas bilaterally located nodes in frontal cortical and basal forebrain areas (red

nodes) had the lowest. In CCI day 30 rats, nodes in the ipsilateral cortex had the lowest

eigenvector centrality values, whereas nodes in frontal cortical and basal forebrain areas were

similar to controls. We examined the mean eigenvector centrality values for all nodes contained

in each module (Figure 5E). No differences between control and TBI groups were observed in

eigenvector centrality scores across the different modules. We next examined the mean

eigenvector and betweenness centrality values for all nodes forming part of the ipsi- and

contralateral lesion sites (Figure 3A; Figure 5F-I). Contralesional nodes had significantly higher

eigenvector scores in CCI day 2 rats compared to controls (t=-2.5, p=0.02, d=-0.72) (Figure 5F).

CCI day 30 rats showed a similar but non-significant trend in the contralesional cortex (t=-1.7,

p=0.08, d=-0.74). On day 30 post-CCI, rats had lower ipsilateral cortex eigenvector scores

compared to controls (t=2.96, p=0.02, d=1.01) (Figure 5F). Eigenvector centrality scores

trended lower in CCI day 2 rats compared to control rats although this did not reach statistical

significance. No differences in betweenness centrality were observed between the groups

(Figure 5G and 5I).

415   **---Insert Figure 6---**

Figure 6A shows 3D connectome maps with node sizes scaled by the participation

coefficient value (edge density 10%). In CCI day 2 rats, nodes in frontal cortical and basal

forebrain areas had low participation coefficient values compared to the same nodes in control

rats (Figure 6A, red colored nodes middle 3D map compared to left 3D map). In CCI day 30

rats, nodal participation coefficient values resembled those of control rats (red colored nodes in

3D map on right). We assessed the mean participation coefficient for all nodes contained in

each module (Figure 6B). Compared to controls, nodes in the largest module of CCI day 2 rats

had significantly lower participation in cross-modular connectivity (t=3.4, p=0.001, BH=0.006,

d=0.99). We also determined the mean participation coefficient for all nodes in the ipsi- and

contralateral lesion sites (Figure 6C). Participation coefficient values of contralesional nodes

were not different from controls, although a trend towards reduction in CCI day 2 rats was

observed (t=1.8, p=0.07, d=0.53) (Figure 6C). Nodes in the ipsilateral cortex, however, had

lower participation coefficient values in CCI day 2 rats compared to controls (t=3.1, p=0.005,

d=0.90). This difference was not observed on day 30 post-injury. Nodal classification based on

the participation coefficient did not differ between groups (Figure 6D).

Finally, differences in rich club organization and the degree of assortative mixing of nodes

were both assessed (Figure 6E and 6F, respectively). Due to the observed increase in

contralateral node strength in the TBI groups (Figure 3E) and increased contralateral

eigenvector centrality in day 2 CCI rats (Figure 5F), we anticipated similar increases in how high

strength nodes interact with other high strength versus low strength nodes. Although we did not

observe any group differences in the rich club index (Figure 6E), we observed a significant

increase in assortativity index in CCI day 2 rats compared to controls (Figure 6F) (2%: t=-3.9,

p=0.0004, BH= 0.007, d=-1.15; 4%: t=-2.9, p=0.005, BH= 0.10, d=-0.86, 6%: t=-2.4, p=0.005,

BH= 0.35, d=-0.71). No differences between control and CCI groups in the SWI, global CC and

average CPL were observed (Figure 7).

443   **---Insert Figure 7---**

445   **Discussion**

Our data indicate that focal injury to the rat cortex resulted in increased node strength in the

contralesional hemisphere at days 2 and 30 post-injury. At 30 days post-CCI, we observed

significant reductions in node strength in ipsilateral cortex. The brain regions showing node

strength differences between CCI and control rats included cortical nodes in or adjacent to the

CCI foci (e.g., visual cortical and somatosensory areas) and structures directly underneath and

ipsilateral to this region (e.g., thalamic nuclei, hippocampus, PAG) and contralateral homotopic

cortical regions.

In addition to node strength, we assessed network modular organization and node centrality.

The grouping of nodes into segregated functional units or modules is a salient characteristic of

structural and functional brain networks and is highly conserved across various species

(Gomez-Gardenes *et al.*, 2010; Harriger *et al.*, 2012; D'Souza *et al.*, 2014; Shih *et al.*, 2015;

Bardella *et al.*, 2016; Zamora-Lopez *et al.*, 2016; Brittin *et al.*, 2021). This graph metric of

network segregation has been shown to be disrupted in TBI patients (Han *et al.*, 2014) and is

responsive to cognitive training (Han *et al.*, 2020). In the present study we observed that rats

imaged 2 days after CCI had increased modularity. The CCI day 2 rats had populations of

nodes with either low or high eigenvector centrality scores that were segregated into different

modules. High centrality scores were observed in modules with nodes located at or near the

contralesional cortex. Low centrality scores were observed in modules with nodes anatomically

more distant from the injury site. This segregated pattern of low and high centrality nodes is

consistent with an observed increase in positive assortative mixing of nodes in CCI day 2 rats.

Adding to this segregation of high and low influence nodes was a reduction in node participation

in cross-module interactions (reduced participation coefficient) in CCI day 2 rats. These findings

suggest that in early stages post-CCI there is transient network topology involving increased

functional specialization of separate pools of high and low influence nodes within highly self-

contained modules. This network topology appears unfavorable to neuronal communication and

to the 'binding' of separate streams of information. By day 30 post-injury, nodes in the injury

epicenter had lower eigenvector centrality scores compared to control rats, perhaps due to

ongoing loss of influence of lesioned structures on overall network topology. However, cross

module interactions and assortative mixing did not differ from control rats – suggesting partial

recovery.

There are a growing number of clinical TBI studies that use graph theory analytical methods

to investigate functional network topology. Nakamura and colleagues were among the first to

demonstrate the value of graph theory metrics as potential biomarkers of TBI progression. They

imaged 6 subjects over the course of 3- and 6-months post-injury and observed significant

reductions in node strength and graph sparsity (Nakamura *et al.*, 2009). The small cohort of

patients had varying lengths of hospitalization, age, gender, and location of contusions, but all

participants had an initial (e.g., 24hr) Glascow Coma Score of 3-8, in the severe range.

Compared to controls and to the 6-month timepoint of recovery, at 3-months of recovery TBI

patients had shorter CPL, increased global and local efficiency, and reduced small worldness at

a graph sparsity of 50% (Nakamura *et al.*, 2009). At 6-months post-trauma, mild TBI patients

suffering from post-concussion syndrome had reduced modularity compared to controls and this

was correlated with symptom severity (Messe *et al.*, 2013). Consistent with the present work in

rats, patients exposed to blast related mild TBI had lower participation coefficient values

compared to non-TBI controls that also experienced blasts (Han *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly,

reductions in nodal participation in cross-module interactions was most severe within the early

timepoint of 90 days post-blast compared to subsequent imaging sessions at 6- and 12-month

follow-up (Han *et al.*, 2014). This suggests that cross-modular functional connectivity returns

over the course of recovery and the participation coefficient calculation is responsive to these

network level changes.

At approximately 8 years after injury, chronic TBI patients had significantly lower connectivity

within default mode and frontoparietal control networks (DMN and FPCN, respectively), and

reduced connectivity of these two networks with the dorsal attention network (DAN) (Han *et al.*,

2016). At a graph sparsity threshold greater than in the above cited work by Nakamura and

colleagues (Nakamura *et al.*, 2009), TBI patients had significantly reduced network efficiency

(Han *et al.,* 2016). Decreased local efficiency and degree centrality were also reported in mild

TBI follow imaging visits at 3 months post-injury, with regions of the DMN being most affected

(Sun *et al.*, 2021). This is consistent with moderate and severe TBI patients 1-year post-injury,

which had lower local integration (lower clustering coefficient) and higher CPL (less efficiency)

compared to controls (Gilbert *et al.*, 2018), and with mild TBI patients imaged within 10 days

which showed increased node strength and CPL (Hou *et al.*, 2019). These clinical mild TBI

studies agree for the most part that functional connectivity networks of patients have high

characteristic path lengths (low efficiency), increased node strength, lower local integration (low

clustering). In addition, communication between large functionally specialized groups of nodes

(such as DMN, FPCN, and DAN) is disrupted in TBI patients. Our data in the rat CCI model can

be considered severe early stage TBI, with a limited analysis across the lifespan of young adult

rodents. Nonetheless, our results are in general agreement with increased functional

specialization, increased strength of connectivity, and reduced cross module communication in

early TBI, which is partially recovered by 30 days. It should be noted that variations across

studies may be due to the variability of brain injury across individuals and differences in short-

and long-term TBI effects (e.g., location, extent or magnitude of damage, neurological and

neuropsychiatric sequelae, age, etc.). In addition, assumptions in the initial steps in network

processing such as the choice threshold (graph sparsity) or whether to threshold or not (use

individual graph sparsity) can produce different results across laboratories. In some cases, low

thresholds that allow the inclusion of weaker edges (much lower Pearson r values) or edges

with negative values can lead to spurious results.

Compared to clinical studies, there have been fewer animal fMRI studies of TBI, particularly

studies focused on analyzing network interactions following controlled focal or diffuse injury.

This might be due to concerns over the inability of fMRI connectivity measurements to

disambiguate changes in neurovascular coupling from frank neuronal or synaptic deficits, and

valid concerns regarding the confounding effects of anesthetics and sedatives used for

functional imaging of rodents. Apart from these important issues, the experimental use of

methods that allow well-controlled site-specific lesions and diffuse injuries offers an opportunity

to investigate network metrics as potential functional brain biomarkers of TBI. This is illustrated

in a within-subjects imaging study in the CCI rat model by Harris and colleagues (Han *et al.*,

2016). Rats were imaged in a 7 Tesla MR scanner under continuous medetomidine sedation

during baseline conditions (pre-injury), and at 7-, 14- and 28-days post-injury. Their results

indicated a significant increase in global node strength, which is consistent with reports of

hyperconnectivity in TBI patients (Bernier *et al.*, 2017). Consistent with our present findings, CCI

rats had significantly increased node strength in contralesional cortex and reduce strength in

ipsilateral cortex. In terms of topological changes over time, they report decreases in CPL,

increased efficiency, consistent with initial work in TBI patients by Nakamura and colleagues

(Nakamura *et al.*, 2009). Their data also showed increased global network clustering and

transiently reduced modularity index (on day 7 compared to pre-injury), which is consistent with

diffusion MRI based tractography studies in the closed head weight drop model in mice

(Meningher *et al.*, 2020). We did not observe differences in weighted clustering coefficient

between the groups (in our between-subjects design), but we did observe a similar but non-

significant trend towards increased global transitivity and binarized clustering coefficient in CCI

day 2 rats compared to controls (data not shown).

Differences between the Harris et al. study (Han *et al.*, 2016) and the present study are

perhaps due to the experimental design (e.g., mild to moderate TBI in Harris et al vs a more

severe contusion model used in the present study) and/or methods (alpha-2 agonist sedative-

hypnotic vs light general anesthesia). Also, the independent use of either a within-subjects vs a

between-subjects design limits interpretations between studies. Within-subjects design are

highly robust in terms of tracking individual, subject-specific changes over time and over the

course of disease progression and recovery. However, experience-dependent changes can also

confound interpretations when between-subjects control comparisons are not included in the

study. This point is in part illustrated in previous imaging work by Orsini et al (Orsini *et al.*,

2018) and Colon-Perez et al (Colon-Perez *et al.*, 2019), which used a combination of both

within- and between-subjects comparisons and observed changes over the course of several

imaging sessions that were separated by weeks. In Orsini et al (Orsini *et al.*, 2018), while drug

treatment was observed to lead to increases in functional connectivity (when comparing pre- to

post), these changes were not specific to the drug and were observed with a natural reward

given for the same amount of time. In addition, baseline control groups receiving no treatment

over the course of the 3 imaging sessions still showed differences when compared to baseline

imaging session (Orsini *et al.*, 2018). In Colon-Perez et al (Colon-Perez *et al.*, 2019), the

inclusion of an untrained group of rats functionally imaged at the same timepoints as aged and

young rats that underwent cognitive training was necessary to demonstrate that in fact training

increased rich club organization and node strength (Colon-Perez *et al.*, 2019). Thus, there are

gains in statistical power by including a mixed between/within-subjects multisession imaging

design in TBI research in animal models. There have been other significant functional imaging

studies in animal models of TBI. These have focused on traditional seed-based functional

connectivity but did not examine functional network topology (Heffernan *et al.*, 2013; Mishra *et*

al., 2014; Kulkarni *et al.*, 2019).

Cellular and neurophysiological links to stimulus-based BOLD hyperexcitability in

contralesional cortex of CCI rats have been previously reported (Verley *et al.*, 2018).

Conversely, Hypoexcitability in ipsilateral cortex has also been demonstrated for up to 56 days

in the FPI rat model (Niskanen *et al.*, 2013). Glutamatergic hyperexcitability involved in TBI-

induced epileptiform activity was shown in the CCI injured rat cortex (at 2-4 weeks post-injury)

and was observed to spread to adjacent regions, an effect associated with loss of GABAergic

control (Yang *et al.*, 2010; Cantu *et al.*, 2015). In mice, CCI reduced GABAergic cell counts in

the ipsilateral dorsal and medial hilar of the hippocampal dentate gyrus and reduced inhibitory

post-synaptic currents were observed as early as 1 week and for as long as 13 weeks (Butler *et*

al., 2016). Under control conditions (non-TBI), transcallosal fibers, which in adults are almost

exclusively comprised of glutamatergic projections, exert inhibitory control over contralateral

primary sensory receptor fields (Clarey *et al.*, 1996; Pascual-Leone *et al.*, 2005; Pluto *et al.*,

2005; Schafer *et al.*, 2012). Ipsilateral reductions in neuronal activity have been observed to

widen contralateral neocortical receptive fields, possibly by reducing transcallosal cross-

hemispheric inhibitory control (Clarey *et al.*, 1996). Contralateral cortical BOLD increases in

response to limb stimulation in rats is accompanied by ipsilateral BOLD signal reductions (Devor

et al., 2008). These separate lines of evidence suggests that reductions in the influence of

neuronal populations in the ipsi-lesioned cortex can remove these transcallosal inhibitory control

inputs over the contralateral cortex. The microcircuit mechanism may involve transcallosal

glutamatergic projections that synapse onto contralaterally located GABAergic neurons. While

most callosal inputs terminate in layer 2/3 pyramidal neurons, these also terminate on soma and

dendrites of parvalbumin positive GABA interneurons in deep neocortical layer 6 (Karayannis *et*

al., 2007). These neurons are thought to play a key role in synchronization of thalamocortical

loops (Karayannis *et al.*, 2007). Loss of transcallosal glutamatergic inputs may therefore lead to

decrease excitability of GABA cells and result in pyramidal overexcitation of the contralateral

cortex. This could partly explain the observed compensatory increases in functional connectivity

and reorganization of hub nodes. Spontaneous outputs from these disinhibited pyramidal cells

can lead to downstream plasticity related changes in neuronal activity, as observed in peripheral

sensory deprivation models (Pluto *et al.*, 2005; Petrus *et al.*, 2020).

We should indicate that although neocortical changes in GABA and glutamatergic

excitability can play a role in brain wide changes in functional connectivity in TBI, mechanisms

involved in neurovascular coupling are also likely important (Ahmad *et al.*, 2012; Sakai *et al.*,

2021; Wu *et al.*, 2021). Loss of synchrony in BOLD could reflect underlying changes in

neurovascular coupling, particularly with the occurrence of gliosis and astrocytic changes in the

injury epicenter. The neuronal and cerebrovascular/hemodynamic mechanisms contributing to

the observed increases in contralesional node strength, and the alterations in modularity and

'hub' node organization, warrant future investigations. Network assessments in TBI animal

models opens the door to establishing mechanistic links between graph theory metrics and

underlying neuronal, glial, and vascular mechanisms, and behavior. Understanding the

mechanisms of these and other reported connectomic changes following TBI can help with

therapeutic interventions that use functional connectomic readouts as indices (biomarkers) of

recovery or treatment efficacy.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Image processing and analysis workflow used in the present study. Upper left (top to

bottom) shows anatomical scan to atlas registration steps. Upper right shows resting state fMRI

pre-processing steps and signal extraction based on 1mm diameter spherical seeds. Bottom

panels (left to right) show symmetric matrices of pairwise correlations of fMRI signals from 81

bilateral regions of interest (162 ROI total). Networks are visualized using atlas-based ROI

coordinates in a 3-dimensional translucent rat brain shell with vertex sizes represented by

spheres and weighed by node strength, and edges as lines weighed by correlation coefficients.

Schematic of measures of network and nodal integration, segregation, and centrality that were

derived from constructed weighted matrices.

Figure 2. Nonlinear registration to a reference T2-weighted scan revealed cortical and

subcortical thalamic structural differences in controlled cortical impact (CCI) rats relative to

controls. Top row shows log-normalized Jacobian maps scaled between -2 to +1 (blue to red;

narrowing and expansive differences, respectively). Jacobian maps represent the average of

each experimental group for controls (n=23), CCI day 2 (n=23) day 30 (n=8) post-injury. Bottom

rows show axial view of cortical parcellation highlighting brain areas impacted by CCI. Also

shown are four representative anatomical scans of CCI rats acquired at 2- and 30-days post-

injury.

Figure 3. Nodes in cortical regions contralateral to the controlled cortical impact (CCI) site show

a significant increase in connectivity strength at day 2 and 30 post-injury. A) A representative T2

anatomical scans highlighting the extent of cortical injury with CCI in the right hemisphere.

Lesion ROIs were generated in CCI regions to capture resting state signals from the injury site

and homologous contralateral representations. B) 3D functional connectome maps at 10% edge

density for control and CCI rats imaged 2- and 30-days post-injury. Scale bars are edge

weights. C) Minimum spanning tree for same networks in B, illustrating strongest weighted

pairwise correlations. D) Overall graph strength did not different between groups. Data are

mean ± standard error at 10% edge density. E) Network statistical maps comparing nodal

strength and edge weights between CCI day 2 or day 30 and controls (randomization test,

10,000 permutations; blue nodes have $p<0.05$ and Cohen's d≥0.08, orange nodes are non-

significant, and grey lines $p<0.05$).

Figure 4. Left hemisphere regions contralateral to the CCI location show increases in node

strength at day 2 post-injury, and ipsilateral nodes reductions in node strength. A) Differences

are not limited to the cortex and include sensorimotor-projecting thalamic and frontal cortical

areas. B) Effect sizes for the differences between control and day 2 CCI are shown in the

bottom graph. C) Left hemisphere regions contralateral to the CCI location show increases in

node strength at day 30 post-injury, and ipsilateral nodes reductions in node strength. D) Effect

sizes for the differences between control and day 30 CCI are shown in the bottom graph.

Significant difference between control and CCI day 2* or day 30**, $p < 0.05$ (permutation test)

and Cohen's $d \geq 0.80$. Data in bar plots in the top row are mean ± standard error at 10% edge

density.

Figure 5. Controlled cortical impact increased network modularity and node eigenvector

centrality. A) Modularity index is significantly higher in CCI day 2 post-injury relative to control

rats. B) No differences in the size of the largest module. C) The mean number of detected

modules was lowest for CCI day 2 post-injury rats. D) 3D connectome maps of node

eigenvector centrality across modules. Color coding represents modular group. E) No

differences in eigenvector centrality scores across the top four largest modules. F) Compared to

control rats, CCI day 2 rats had higher eigenvector centrality and CCI day 30 rats lower scores.

H) Eigenvector centrality scores were generally lowest in CCI day 2 rats compared to controls. I)

No differences in betweenness centrality were observed. Significant difference between control

and CCI day 2* or day 30**, $p < 0.05$ (permutation test) and Cohen's $d \geq 0.80$ (p-values in A and

C adjusted using a Bonferroni-Holm procedure). Data in bar plots in F-G are mean ± standard

error at 10% edge density.

Figure 6. Controlled cortical impact reduced node participation coefficient. A) 3D connectome

maps showing node participation coefficient across modules. Color coding represents modular

grouping of nodes and node size scaled by participation coefficient. B) Participation coefficient

in the largest module (1st) is reduced in CCI day 2 post-injury relative to control rats. C)

Participation coefficient in the ipsilateral cortex is reduced in CCI day 2 post-injury relative to

control rats. D) Control and CCI rats had similar distribution of nodes of distinct cartographic

classifications, including ultraperipheral (UP), peripheral (P), non-hub connector (NHC) and non-

hub kinless (NHK). E) No differences between rich club index were observed. F) Positive

assortativity was higher in CCI day 2 rats compared to controls. Significant difference between

control and CCI day 2* or day 30**, $p < 0.05$ (permutation test) and Cohen's $d \geq 0.80$ (p-values in

A and C adjusted using a Bonferroni-Holm procedure). Data in bar plots in B-C are mean ±

standard error and in data in D is box-whisker plots with 95% confidence bands (at 10% edge

density).

Figure 7. No differences in small world index, clustering coefficient and mean characteristic

path length were observed between control and CCI rats. Data are plotted as mean ± standard

error at varying edge densities.

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Whole brain mask

N4 Bias Field
Correction

Skull Strip

Linear/nonlinear
warping to reference
rat brain

Apply matrices to
fMRI scans

Step 1: Despike time series
Step 2: Slice timing correction (if needed)
Step 3: Motion correction
Step 4: Signal drift removal (<0.009)
Step 5: Nuisance signal regression (ICA-based)
Step 6: Register to atlas space
Step 7: Spatial smoothing
Step 8: Bandpass filtering (<0.12Hz)

*Use atlas-based ROIs to extract the principal
eigenvariate signal*

12,879 pairwise Pearson correlations for 162 ROIs

```
# Pearson correlation [n=300 #col=162]
# Name        Name        Value    BiasCorr  2.50%     97.50%    N: 2.50%  N:97.50%
# --------    --------    -------- --------  --------  --------  --------  --------
  roi1.txt[0]  roi2.txt[0] +0.55240 +0.55144 +0.46654  +0.62604  +0.46847  +0.62646
  roi1.txt[0]  roi3.txt[0] +0.15810 +0.15691 +0.03550  +0.27721  +0.04567  +0.26657
  roi1.txt[0]  roi4.txt[0] -0.16216 -0.16101 -0.27160  -0.04413  -0.27044  -0.04983
  roi1.txt[0]  roi5.txt[0] +0.17899 +0.17819 +0.07065  +0.28263  +0.06711  +0.28643
```

Graph representation:
*Organize correlation
coefficients into
adjacency matrices*

***Node Degree &
Strength***

***Clustering Coefficient &
Path lengths***

***Modular
Organization***

***Node
Centrality***

Control

CCI Day 2

CCI Day 30

Rostral

Log Jacobian (mean)

Caudal

-2   +1

CCI/Day 2

Retrosplenial cortex (Rostral)

Somatosensory (Shoulder)

Somatosensory (Trunk)

Parietal cortex

Visual cortex

Retrosplenial cortex (Caudal)

Hippocampus

Contra   Ipsi

CCI/Day 30