

1 **Individual differences in time-varying and stationary brain connectivity during movie watching**  
2 **from childhood to early adulthood: Effects of age, sex, and behavioral associations**

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23 **Running title:** Individual differences in connectivity

24

25 **Abstract**

26 Spatially remote brain regions show dynamic functional interactions during various task conditions.  
27 Time-varying functional connectivity measured during movie watching was sensitive to movie content,  
28 while stationary functional connectivity remains stable across videos. Therefore, it has been suggested  
29 that dynamic and stationary functional interactions may reflect different aspects of brain function.  
30 However, how individual differences in time-varying and stationary connectivity are associated with  
31 behavioral phenotypes is still unclear. We analyzed an open-access functional MRI dataset collected from  
32 participants (5 to 22 years old) as they watched two cartoon movie clips. Regional brain activity, time-  
33 varying and stationary functional connectivity were calculated, and associations with age, sex, and  
34 behavioral assessments were examined. Using a model comparison method, we showed that time-varying  
35 connectivity was more sensitive to age and sex effects compared with stationary connectivity. The  
36 preferred age models were quadratic log age or quadratic age effects, corresponding to inverted-U shaped  
37 developmental curves. In addition, females showed higher consistency in regional brain activity and time-  
38 varying connectivity than males. However, in terms of behavioral predictions, only stationary  
39 connectivity could predict full-scale intelligence quotient. The results suggest that individual differences  
40 in time-varying and stationary connectivity may reflect different aspects of behavioral phenotypes.

41

42 **Keywords:** brain connectivity, brain development, model comparison, movie watching, time-varying  
43 connectivity.

44

## 45 **1. Introduction**

46 Functional integration between spatially remote brain regions is thought to be critical to understanding  
47 brain functions. Functional connectivity is characterized by the statistical dependency between observed  
48 brain signals (Friston, 1994). This stationary characterization of functional connectivity can be studied  
49 during the resting-state (Biswal et al., 1995, 2010), and has furthered our understanding of brain  
50 functional organization (Biswal et al., 2010; Margulies et al., 2016; Yeo et al., 2011). On the other hand,  
51 functional connectivity is also highly dynamic (Allen et al., 2014). Whole-brain dynamic connectivity  
52 patterns constitutes different “states” (Allen et al., 2014), which are reliable (Abrol et al., 2017).  
53 Disruptions to dynamic connectivity have been associated with various mental disorders (Fu et al., 2019).

54 In recent years, movie watching has emerged as an alternative paradigm between the  
55 unconstrained resting-state and well controlled task experiments. Participants’ experience when watching  
56 video clips is more “natural” than performing some cognitive tasks. In addition, movie watching bears  
57 advantages over resting-state in terms of scanning compliance and with potentially lower head motion  
58 artifacts (Vanderwal et al., 2019). When watching the same movie clip, different participants tend to show  
59 similar patterns of brain activity (Hasson et al., 2004), which could be taken as an indicator of functional  
60 significance of the observed brain activity. Time-varying connectivity also shows high constancy across  
61 participants (Di et al., 2022; Di and Biswal, 2020), which supports the functional significance of time-  
62 varying measures of functional connectivity.

63 Time-varying and stationary functional connectivity may reflect distinct aspects of brain function.  
64 Many studies have found that the stationary connectivity during watching of different movies is very  
65 similar (Di et al., 2022; O’Connor et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2021), and may even be highly correlated with  
66 other mental states, such as resting-state (O’Connor et al., 2017). On the other hand, time-varying  
67 connectivity can depend on the movie content, thus dynamic patterns and region pairs involved have been  
68 shown to vary greatly between different movie clips (Di et al., 2022). This seems to suggest that the time-  
69 varying connectivity may be more sensitive to reflect moment-to-moment brain function. More generally,  
70 during resting-state, time-varying connectivity can capture unique behavioral variability compared with

71 stationary connectivity (Eichenbaum et al., 2021). A handful studies on disease classifications showed  
72 that resting-state time-varying connectivity has better predictive power than stationary connectivity to  
73 classify schizophrenia, bipolar disorder (Rashid et al., 2016), and post-traumatic stress disorder (Jin et al.,  
74 2017).

75 To further explore the functional relevance of time-varying and stationary connectivity, we aim to  
76 examine individual differences in time-varying and stationary connectivity during movie watching. Age  
77 and biological sex are common factors that give rise to individual variations. When watching movie clips,  
78 adults showed higher synchronized regional activity compared with children (Cantlon and Li, 2013;  
79 Petroni et al., 2018), but children may show distinct patterns of responses compared with adults (Di and  
80 Biswal, 2022). A few studies have examined age effects on time-varying and stationary connectivity in  
81 the resting-state (Faghiri et al., 2018; Marusak et al., 2017; Rashid et al., 2018). They found linear  
82 correlations between some dynamic connectivity measures and age. In the current study, we utilized more  
83 complex age models and a model comparison framework to examine age effects. We asked whether time-  
84 varying and stationary connectivity differently represent age and sex effects.

85 Further, we ask whether individual differences in time-varying and stationary connectivity are  
86 associated with behavioral outcome measures. In the resting-state, time-varying connectivity performed  
87 better than stationary connectivity in predicting behavioral phenotypes (Eichenbaum et al., 2021) and in  
88 classification of mental disorders (Jin et al., 2017; Rashid et al., 2016), and post-traumatic stress disorder  
89 (Jin et al., 2017). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that the time-varying connectivity during movie  
90 watching may also perform better than stationary connectivity in predicting behavioral outcome measures.

91 In the current study, we analyzed movie watching fMRI data from a large open-access dataset  
92 called the Healthy Brain Network (HBN) (Alexander et al., 2017). A few studies have utilized this dataset  
93 to examine model-based brain activations (Richardson, 2019), stationary connectivity (Vanderwal et al.,  
94 2021), and event segmentation (Cohen et al., 2022) during the movie watching. Female and male  
95 participants age between 5 to 22 years were recruited in this project, with rich behavioral assessments and  
96 MRI scanning. From the fMRI data during movie watching, we calculated regional activity, stationary

97 connectivity, and time-varying connectivity. We used a model comparison framework to examine the age  
98 and sex effects on the different brain measures, and adopted a predictive modeling approach to examine  
99 the prediction power of these brain measures on behavioral measures. We hypothesize that time-varying  
100 connectivity will show stronger evidence of age and sex effects compared with stationary connectivity  
101 and regional activity, and time-varying connectivity will also show higher prediction power than  
102 stationary connectivity and regional activity in predicting behavioral outcomes.

103

## 104 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 105 **2.1. Healthy Brain Network dataset**

#### 106 **2.1.1. Dataset and participants**

107 The MRI data were obtained from the Healthy Brain Network project website  
108 ([http://fcon\\_1000.projects.nitrc.org/indi/cmi\\_healthy\\_brain\\_network/](http://fcon_1000.projects.nitrc.org/indi/cmi_healthy_brain_network/)) (Alexander et al., 2017). We  
109 identified 279 participants who have no diagnosis of any psychiatric or neurological disorders and have  
110 T1 weighted MRI data available (up to Release 9). We performed stringent quality control on the T1  
111 weighted structural images and fMRI images (see below for details). 159 participants' structural images  
112 were found with motion artifacts or lesions. After additionally removing participants with excessive head  
113 motion during fMRI scans (maximal framewise displacement smaller than one voxel), 87 participants for  
114 'The Present' dataset and 83 participants for the 'Despicable Me' dataset were included in the current  
115 analysis. Among them, 66 participants overlapped. For all the included participants, there were 61 males  
116 and 43 females (age range 5.0 to 21.9 years, *Mean* = 12.0; *Standard Deviation* = 4.1).

#### 117 **2.1.2. MRI data**

118 We analyzed fMRI data collected while the participants watched two animated movie clips. The first is a  
119 short film 'The Present' (3 minutes and 21 seconds long, Filmakademie Baden-Wuerttemberg, 2014). The  
120 second is a 10-minute clip from the animated film 'Despicable Me' (Illumination, 2010). The high-  
121 resolution anatomical MRI images were also used for preprocessing purposes.

122 MRI data were acquired from two MRI centers, Rutgers University Brain Imaging Center  
123 (RUBIC), with a 3T Siemens Trio scanner, and Citigroup Biomedical Imaging Center (CBIC), with a 3T  
124 Siemens Prisma scanner. The scanning protocols were similar across sites. For fMRI, the key imaging  
125 parameters were as follows: TR = 800 ms; TE = 30 ms; flip angle, 31°; voxel size = 2.4 x 2.4 x 2.4 mm<sup>3</sup>;  
126 multi-band acceleration factor = 6. For T1 weighted anatomical MRI, the images were acquired using  
127 either the Human Connectome Project (HCP) or the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD)  
128 sequences. The sequences are different in terms of voxel sizes, however, the anatomical images were only  
129 used for preprocessing of the fMRI images. For more information about the MRI protocols, please refer to  
130 the HBN project website and (Alexander et al., 2017).

### 131 **2.1.3. Behavioral measures**

132 We picked two behavioral measures, full-scale intelligence quotient (FSIQ) from the Wechsler  
133 Intelligence Scale for Children – Fifth Edition (Wechsler, 2014) and the Social Communication  
134 Questionnaire (SCQ) (Rutter et al., 2003). FSIQ measures general cognitive ability, which is widely used  
135 in studies of brain-behavior relationships (Vieira et al., 2022). 64 and 60 participants with the video clip  
136 ‘The Present’ and with the clip ‘Despicable Me’ had FSIQ scores available, respectively. SCQ is a parent  
137 report questionnaire that measures social and communication symptoms related to autism spectrum  
138 disorder. In a previous work using the same dataset, it has been reported that the SCQ scores were  
139 associated with brain activation during certain time points (events) (Richardson, 2019). 70 and 65  
140 participants with the video clip ‘The Present’ and the clip ‘Despicable Me’ had SCQ scores available,  
141 respectively.

## 142 **2.2. MRI data processing**

### 143 **2.2.1. Structural MRI quality control and processing**

144 We visually inspect the MRI images for all the participants. Issues noted included excessive head motion,  
145 partial coverage, or brain lesions. We performed visual quality control on the T1 weighted images as well  
146 as segmented images. 159 participants’ images were found with ghost artifacts, motion artifacts, or  
147 lesions. MRI data of 120 participants were included in the current analysis.

148 Statistical parametric mapping (SPM12, <https://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/>) in MATLAB  
149 (R2021a, <https://www.mathworks.com/>) was used for MRI image processing. The T1 weighted image for  
150 each participant was first segmented into gray matter, white matter, cerebrospinal fluid, and other tissue  
151 types, and roughly aligned into standard Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) space using linear  
152 transformation. Then the DARTEL procedure was used to register the segmented gray matter and white  
153 images across all the individuals and generate a sample specific template through several rounds of  
154 iterations (Ashburner, 2007). The averaged gray matter template was then linearly normalized to MNI  
155 space.

### 156 **2.2.2. Functional images preprocessing**

157 Functional images were realigned to the first image, coregistered to the anatomical image, and then  
158 normalized into MNI space. During the normalization step, the functional images were resampled into 2.4  
159 x 2.4 x 2.4 mm<sup>3</sup> voxel size, and spatially smoothed using an 8 mm Gaussian kernel. Lastly, voxel-wise  
160 general linear model (GLM) was used to remove head motion artifacts and low-frequency drifts. The  
161 GLM included Friston's 24 head motion parameters (Friston et al., 1996), and 1/128 Hz high pass filter.  
162 The residual images from the GLM step were used for further analysis.

163 Head motion is considered an important factor that affects BOLD fMRI signals. We removed  
164 participants who's maximum framewise displacement in any directions or movie clips were larger than  
165 2.4 mm or 2.4° (proximately the size of a voxel). Next, we examined the association of head motion and  
166 the observed age effects. First, we showed that the frame-wise displacement time series were not  
167 synchronized across subjects. The first PC explained less than 5% of variance (Figure S1A). Secondly, we  
168 used mean frame-wise displacements in translation and rotation as measures of head motion, and  
169 examined their age effects. Model comparison showed that for 'The Present' clip, a constant model  
170 without age effects was favorable (Figure S1C and S1D). However, for the 'Despicable Me' clip, there  
171 was evidence of log age effects (Figure S1E and S1F). The age effect patterns on head motion look very  
172 different from the age effects on the brain measures. Nevertheless, we added mean framewise  
173 displacement of translation and rotation in the age fitting models.

#### 174 **2.2.4. Independent component analysis**

175 We first utilized independent component analysis (ICA) to reduce the dimensionality of the fMRI data  
176 (Di et al., 2022; Di and Biswal, 2022). The ICA was performed using the Group ICA Of fMRI  
177 Toolbox(GIFT) (Calhoun et al., 2001) with data from both video clips combined together. Twenty  
178 independent components (ICs) were extracted and visually inspected. Eighteen components were  
179 considered functional meaningful networks. Based on our previous work (Di et al., 2022; Di and Biswal,  
180 2022). Four networks are specifically of interest due their involvement in movie watching (Di et al., 2022;  
181 Di and Biswal, 2022): the dorsal visual network, temporoparietal junction, supramarginal network, and  
182 the default mode network (particularly the posterior cingulate cortex) (Figure 1A). The time series for  
183 each of the 18 networks were back reconstructed for each participant and video clip, which were used for  
184 further analysis.

#### 185 **2.3. Statistical analysis**

##### 186 **2.3.1. Regional activity and connectivity measures**

187 Inter-subject correlation has been used to index shared responses during movie watching (Hasson et al.,  
188 2004; Nastase et al., 2019). Here we used a principal component analysis (PCA) based method to estimate  
189 inter-individual consistency (Di and Biswal, 2022). For each network (IC), the time series from each  
190 participant formed a  $t \times n$  matrix, where  $t$  and  $n$  represent the number of time points and participants,  
191 respectively. The matrices were  $250 \times 87$  for the clip ‘The Present’, and  $750 \times 83$  for the clip ‘Despicable  
192 Me’. We performed PCA on the matrix, and obtained the variances explained by the first and second PCs.  
193 A circular time-shift randomization method was used to determine the null distribution with 10,000 times  
194 randomizations (Di and Biswal, 2022; Kauppi et al., 2010). The loadings of the first PC were used as a  
195 measure of individual differences.

196 Between each pair of two networks (ICs), we calculated point-by-point interactions  
197 (multiplications) to index time-varying connectivity (Di et al., 2022; Faskowitz et al., 2020). We similarly  
198 performed PCA to estimate the inter-individual consistency of the time-varying connectivity. The  
199 loadings of the first PC were used as an index of individual differences in time-varying connectivity.



200 Lastly, we calculated stationary connectivity as the Pearson's correlation of the time series  
201 between each pair of the 18 networks (ICs).

### 202 **2.3.2. Age and sex effects**

203 We adopted a model comparison framework to examine age and sex effects on regional activity,  
204 stationary connectivity, and time-varying connectivity. For each region or region pair of a brain measure,  
205 we built five models of age effects, with sex as a separate regressor. Additional covariates included a  
206 scanner site variable and mean framewise displacement in translation and rotation. The five models are as  
207 follows,

$$208 \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot sex + \beta_2 \cdot site + \beta_3 \cdot FD_{Trans} + \beta_4 \cdot FD_{Rot} + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

$$209 \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot age + \beta_2 \cdot sex + \beta_3 \cdot site + \beta_4 \cdot FD_{Trans} + \beta_5 \cdot FD_{Rot} + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

$$210 \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot age + \beta_2 \cdot age^2 + \beta_3 \cdot sex + \beta_4 \cdot site + \beta_5 \cdot FD_{Trans} + \beta_6 \cdot FD_{Rot} + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

$$211 \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \log(age) + \beta_2 \cdot sex + \beta_3 \cdot site + \beta_4 \cdot FD_{Trans} + \beta_5 \cdot FD_{Rot} + \varepsilon \quad (4)$$

$$212 \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot \log(age) + \beta_2 \cdot \log(age)^2 + \beta_3 \cdot sex + \beta_4 \cdot site + \beta_5 \cdot FD_{Trans} + \beta_6 \cdot FD_{Rot} + \varepsilon \quad (5)$$

213 Where  $y$  represents a specific measure such as regional activity in a network, stationary connectivity, or  
214 time-varying connectivity between two networks. Model 1 represents a baseline condition where there is  
215 no age effect. Models 2 and 3 represent linear age effect and quadratic age effect models. Models 4 and 5  
216 represent log age effect and quadratic log age effect models. The log age models consider the fact that  
217 brain measures may grow faster and then decrease slower within the studied age range. We additionally  
218 built five models the same as models 1 through 5 except that there were no sex effects in each of the  
219 models. Therefore, we had 10 models in total (2 x 5).

220 To compare different age models and sex effects, we used a model comparison procedure. The 10  
221 models were fitted with the ordinary least square method, and the Akaike information criterion (AIC) was  
222 calculated. We then calculated Akaike weights (Wagenmakers and Farrell, 2004) for each model. Akaike  
223 weights quantify the model evidence of a specific model relative to the best model among all the 10  
224 models, with the sum of all the models as 1. We first asked what age model best to describe the

225 developmental effects. The Akaike weights of the same age model with and without the sex term were  
226 added as the model evidence of a particular age effect, regardless of the sex effects (Portet, 2020).  
227 Similarly, for the sex effect, we added the Akaike weights for all five age models with the sex term. The  
228 sums of model weights depend on the number of alternative models. We adopt a threshold of 0.6 for the  
229 age model comparison (5 models) and 0.8 for the sex effect comparison (2 models).

### 230 **2.3.3. Behavioral prediction analysis**

231 We applied ridge regression to study brain-behavioral associations. The predicted variable was either  
232 FSIQ scores or SCQ scores, which was an  $n$  by  $1$  vector.  $N$  were different for FSIQ and SCQ scores and  
233 for the two movie clips due to data availability. The predicting variables were either regional activity,  
234 stationary connectivity, or time-varying connectivity. We applied a leave-one-out cross-validation to  
235 evaluate the prediction value for each brain measure. Specifically, we held out one participant's data, and  
236 used the remaining  $n - 1$  data to obtain a prediction model. We used a linear model for the prediction.

$$y = \beta_0 + X \cdot \beta + \varepsilon$$

237 where  $y$  is a  $n - 1$  vector of either FSIQ or SCQ scores,  $X$  is a  $n - 1$  by  $m$  matrix of regional activity,  
238 stationary connectivity, or time-varying connectivity matrices. For the regional activity,  $m$  equals to 18 of  
239 the networks. For the matrices, the number of column equals  $153$  ( $18 \times 17 / 2$ ), which is larger than the  
240 number of rows. We used a dimension reduction procedure to keep 18 features to match with the number  
241 of regional activity. To do so, all the features were correlated with the predicted variable, and the first 18  
242 features with the highest absolute correlations were kept. Therefore,  $X$  is always a  $n - 1$  by  $18$  matrix. The  
243 model was fitted with a ridge regularization. The regularization parameter  $\lambda$  was determined using a  
244 nested cross-validation procedure for each training set. Using the optimal  $\lambda$ , the model was trained using  
245 the  $n - 1$  training data. The model was applied to the held-out participant to calculate the predicted value.  
246 The procedure was performed  $n$  times for the  $n$  participants, resulting in  $n$  predicted values. We calculated  
247 the correlation between the predicted value and the actual values across all  $n$  participants to obtain an  
248 estimate of prediction accuracy.

249 The optimal  $\lambda$  was determined for each leave-one-out sample using an inner leave-one-out loop.  
250 Within the  $n - 1$  outer-loop training set, we built linear models with  $n - 2$  individuals with 21  $\lambda$  values  
251 (from  $2^{-10}$  to  $2^0$  in logarithmical space). The prediction accuracies across all the inner loop samples were  
252 calculated for all the  $\lambda$  values. The  $\lambda$  with the highest correlation was parsed to the outer loop as the  
253 optimal  $\lambda$  for model training and prediction. The prediction procedure is outlined in Supplementary Figure  
254 S1.

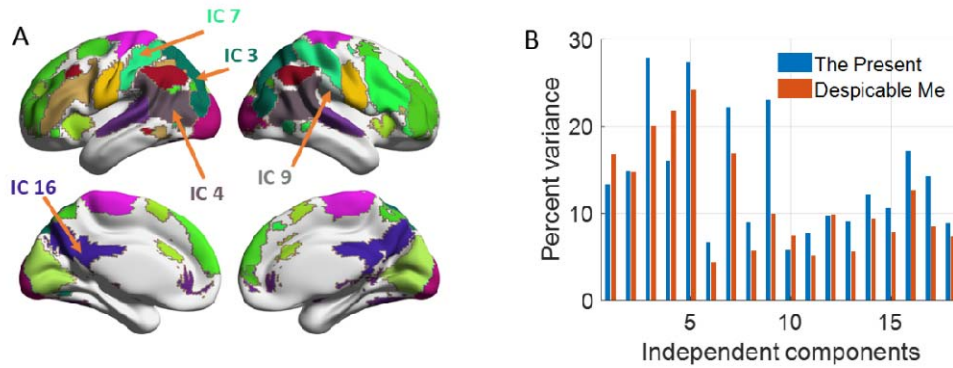
255 To evaluate the prediction accuracies, we used the correlation coefficient between the predicted  
256 and observed values. There are in total 12 predictions (2 movies x 3 brain measures x 2 behavioral  
257 measures). We used false discovery rate correction to account for multiple comparisons ( $q < 0.05$ ).

258

### 259 **3. Results**

#### 260 **3.1. Regional activity**

261 We first focused on the inter-individual consistency and differences in regional activity when watching  
262 the two video clips. We performed PCA on the time point by participant matrices of regional activity in  
263 each of the 18 included networks (ICs). The first PCs in all the 18 networks explained a statistically  
264 significant amount of variance for both videos. However, none of the second PCs explained significant  
265 variance. Therefore, we focused on the first PCs in the following analysis. Figure 1B shows the  
266 percentage variance explained by the first PC in the 18 networks for the two movie clips. In addition to  
267 lower-level sensory networks such as the visual and auditory networks, a few higher-level networks also  
268 showed high inter-individual consistency, including the dorsal visual network (IC3), temporoparietal  
269 junction network (IC4), supramarginal network (IC7), and default mode network (IC16). There are also  
270 noticeable differences between the two video clips. In particular, a network covering the posterior insula,  
271 secondary somatosensory regions and cingulate (IC9) showed more than 2 fold in variance explained by  
272 the first PC in ‘The Present’ (23.0%) than ‘Despicable Me’ (10.0%). We submitted the map to  
273 Neurosynth for cognitive decoding (Yarkoni et al., 2011). After removing terms related to brain labels,  
274 the top five terms were pain, painful, tactile, stimulation, and touch.

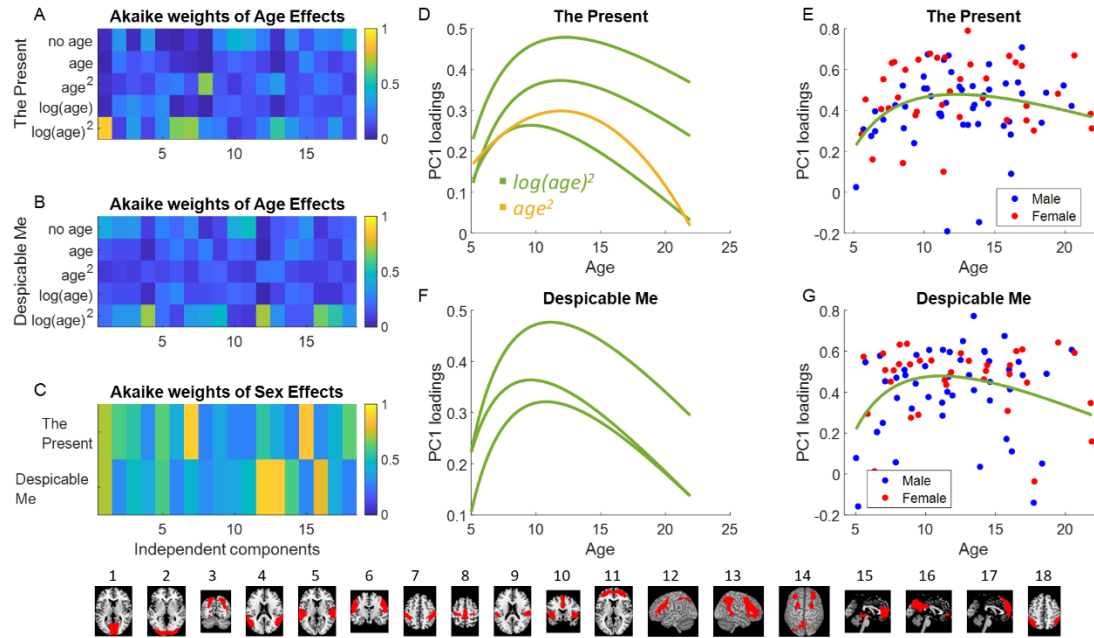


275

276 **Figure 1** A, Maps of eighteen independent components that were included in the current analysis. The  
277 maps were thresholded at  $z > 3$  after  $z$  transformations of the original IC maps, and were shown in a  
278 winner-take-all manner when overlapping. The arrows indicate the networks of interest for movie  
279 watching, IC3, dorsal visual; IC4, temporoparietal junction; IC7 supramarginal; IC9, secondary  
280 somatosensory; and IC16, posterior cingulate. BrainNet Viewer was used for visualization (Xia et al.,  
281 2013). B, inter-individual consistency of regional activity (percent variance explained by the first  
282 principal component) for the two video clips.

283

284 We then applied a model comparison procedure to examine the age and sex effects. Figure 2A  
285 and 2B shows the model evidence among the five age models for the 18 network ICs and the two video  
286 clips. For the networks with a strong preference of a model, the preferred model was usually the quadratic  
287 log age or quadratic age model. We identified the network ICs where a specific age model had model  
288 evidence higher than 0.6, and plotted the fitted effects in Figure 2D and 2F. All the age effects showed an  
289 inverted-U shape, with peak loadings around 10 years of age. The quadratic log age models indicated a  
290 faster increase in the younger age and slower decrease in older age. Figure 2E and 2G further show  
291 individual loadings as well as the fitted curves for the two curves on the top of Figure 2D and 2F. Figure  
292 2E corresponds to the supramarginal network (IC7) in the video clips of 'The Present', and Figure 2G  
293 corresponds to the bilateral parietal junction network (IC4) in the 'Despicable Me' clip.



294

295 **Figure 2** Model comparison results for different age models for regional activity in the 18 network  
 296 independent components (ICs) for the video clips The Present (A) and Despicable Me (B). C shows the  
 297 model evidence of the sex effects. D and F show fitted effects of the ICs who had Akaike weights of one  
 298 model over 0.6. E and G show the PC1 loadings of two representative ICs as functions of age, which  
 299 correspond to the top curves in D and F, respectively.

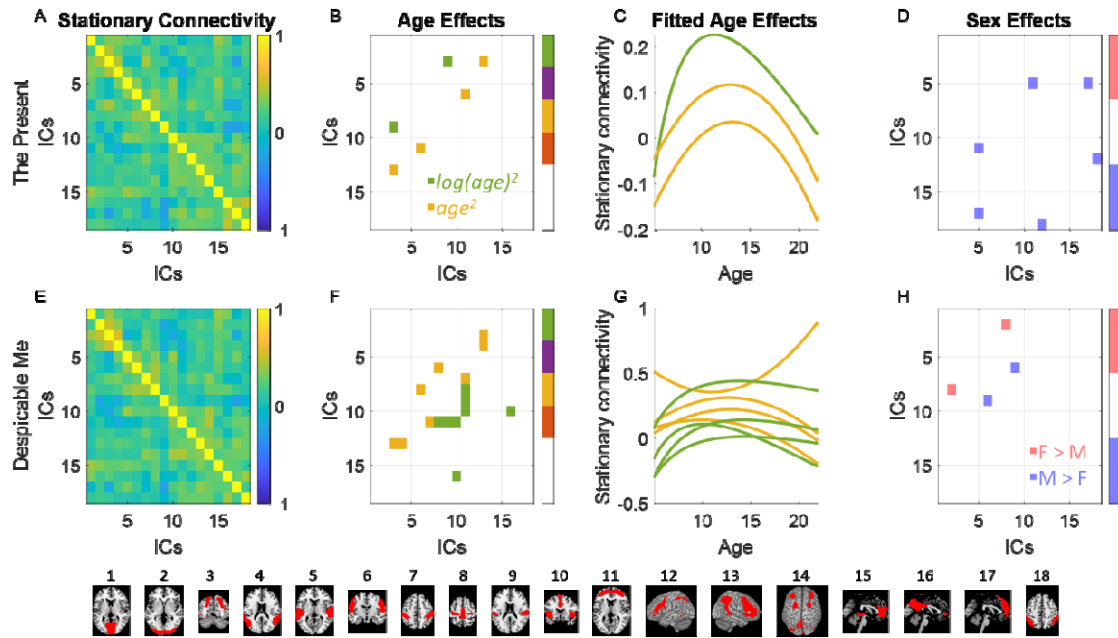
300

301 Four networks showed strong evidence of a sex effect (> 0.8) on regional activity for the two  
 302 video clips differently (Figure 2C). For 'The Present', the supramarginal network (IC7) (model  
 303 probability = 88.36%) and medial frontal network (IC15) (model probability = 85.76%) showed evidence  
 304 of sex effects. While for the video clip of 'Despicable Me', the left (IC12) and right (IC13) fronto-parietal  
 305 networks showed evidence of sex effects (model probability = 88.80% and 87.50%, respectively). For all  
 306 the effects, the females showed higher consistency than the males.

307

308 **3.2. Stationary connectivity**

309 The group averaged stationary connectivity matrices for the two video clips are shown in Figure 3A and  
310 3E. The two matrices were similar, which is in line with our previous work (Di et al., 2022). Higher  
311 stationary connectivity was observed mainly between networks with similar functions, e.g., among visual  
312 networks and among fronto-parietal networks.



313  
314 **Figure 3** A and E, group averaged stationary connectivity among 18 independent component (IC)  
315 networks for the two video clips. B and F, connectivity with winning age models with model evidence  
316 greater than 0.6. C and G, fitted curves with corresponding color representing the specific age models. D  
317 and H, connectivity with evidence of sex effects greater than 0.8. The bottom row shows the  
318 representative maps of the 18 networks.

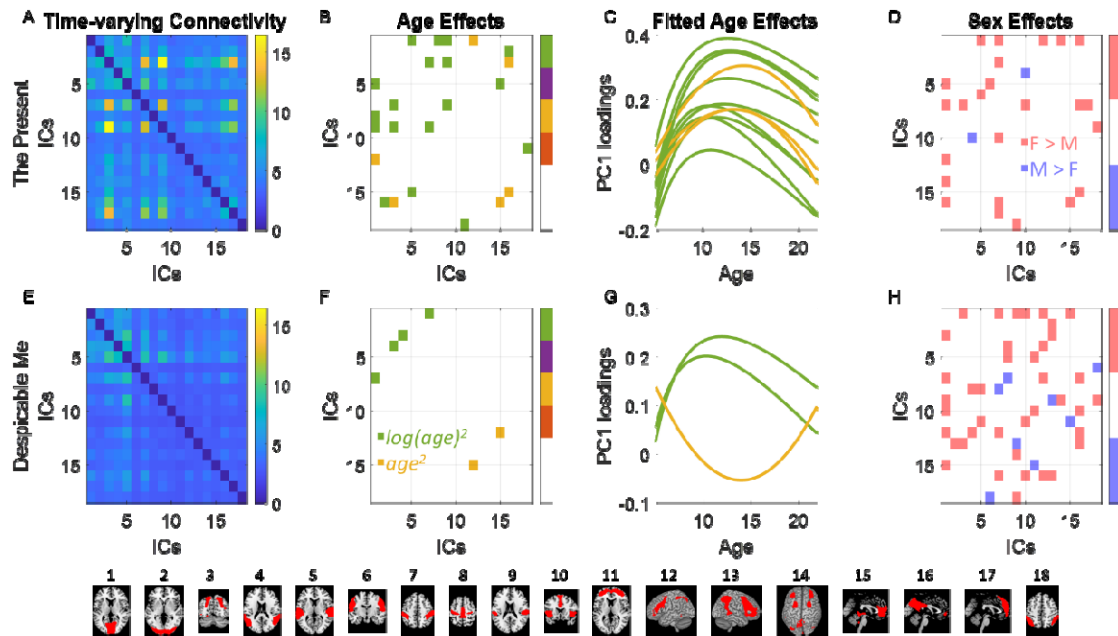
319  
320 The model comparison results for the age and sex effects on the stationery are shown in  
321 Supplementary Figure S3. The connections that showed preferences of an age model with greater than 0.6  
322 model evidence are shown in Figure 3B and 3F. The preferred age models were either quadratic log age  
323 or quadratic age models. All but one age effects showed an inverted-U shapes (Figure 3C and 3G). Three  
324 connections showed a preference of an age model for the clip of ‘The Present’, and eight connections  
325 showed a preference of an age model for the ‘Despicable Me’ video. One stationary connectivity during

326 ‘The Present’ involved two networks of interest, i.e., the dorsal visual network (IC3) and secondary  
 327 somatosensory network (IC9). And the patterns of age effects appeared to be quite different for the two  
 328 video clips. In addition, three connections for the clip of ‘The Present’ and two connections for the  
 329 ‘Despicable Me’ clip showed sex effects, but they were not among the networks of interests related to  
 330 movie watching.

331

### 332 3.3. Time-varying connectivity

333 Figure 4A and 4E show the consistency of time-varying connectivity for the two movie clips. In general,  
 334 the clips of ‘The Present’ showed higher consistency of time-varying connectivity. Interestingly, the time-  
 335 varying connectivity among many networks of interest, i.e., the dorsal visual network (IC3),  
 336 supramarginal network (IC7), and secondary somatosensory network (IC9) showed high consistency.  
 337 Moreover, the medial prefrontal network (IC17), which is part of the default mode network, also showed  
 338 consistent time-varying connectivity with the other regions of interest.



339

340 **Figure 4** A and E, the inter-individual consistency of time-varying connectivity (percent variance  
 341 explained by the first principal component) among 18 networks (independent components, ICs) for the  
 342 two video clips. B and F, connectivity with winning age models with model evidence greater than 0.6. C

343 and G, fitted curves with corresponding color representing the specific age models. D and H, connectivity  
344 with evidence of sex effects greater than 0.8. The bottom row shows the representative maps of the 18  
345 networks.

346

347 The age effects on time-varying connectivity also preferred quadratic log age or quadratic age  
348 effects (Supplementary Figure S3 and Figure 4B and 4F). Fourteen connections showed strong  
349 preferences to an age model for the video ‘The Present’. Interestingly, time-varying connectivity among  
350 the dorsal visual (IC3), supramarginal (IC7), and secondary somatosensory (IC9) networks strongly  
351 preferred the quadratic log age effects. In contrast, only three connections showed strong preferences to  
352 an age model for the video ‘Despicable Me’.

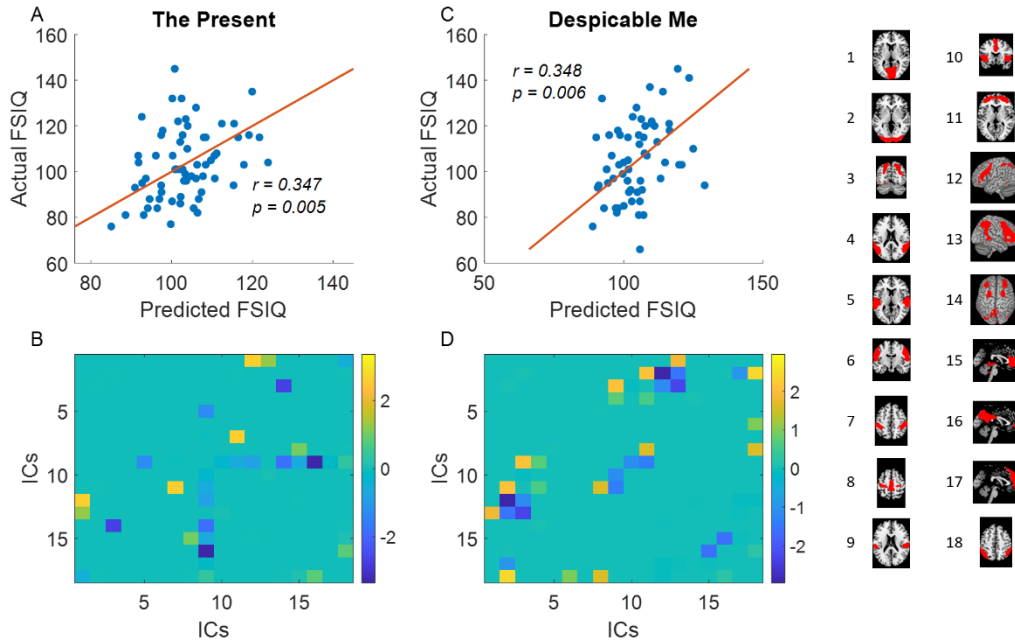
353 Many connections also showed strong evidence of sex effects, mainly with higher consistency in  
354 females than males (Figure 4D and 4H). This included time-varying connectivity between the dorsal  
355 visual (IC3) and the supramarginal networks (IC7).

356

### 357 **3.4. Behavioral relevance**

358 Lastly, we used machine learning regression to examine the behavioral relevance of regional activity,  
359 stationary connectivity, and time-varying connectivity. Two behavioral measures were studied: FSIQ and  
360 SCQ scores. With leave-one-out cross-validation, we estimated the prediction accuracy of the three types  
361 of brain measures on FSIQ and SCQ scores. Only stationary connectivity showed statistically significant  
362 prediction accuracies (Figure 5). Using stationary connectivity from both video clips, we could predict  
363 FSIQ scores with accuracies of around 0.35. Individual differences of regional activity and time-varying  
364 connectivity could not predict FSIQ scores (Supplementary Figure S5). In addition, none of the brain  
365 measures could predict SCQ scores (Supplementary Figure S6).





366

367 **Figure 5** Results of full-scale intelligence quotient (FSIQ) predictions using stationary connectivity for  
368 the two video clips. Top row, each dot represents a predicted value using leave-one-out cross validation  
369 and its corresponding actual value. The red line indicates  $y = x$ . Bottom row, averaged weights of the  
370 prediction model across all the LOO models. The maps of the corresponding independent components  
371 (ICs) are shown on the right.

372

373

#### 374 4. Discussion

375 In the current study, we examined individual differences in stationary and time-varying connectivity, as  
376 well as regional activity, during movie watching in a sample of children to young adults. Consistent with  
377 our hypothesis, time-varying connectivity was more sensitive to age and sex effects compared with  
378 stationary connectivity and regional activity. In contrast to our hypothesis, however, only stationary  
379 connectivity could predict FSIQ scores.

380 The two animated video clips evoked consistent brain activations across individuals in higher  
381 order brain regions, including the dorsal visual, temporoparietal junction, supramarginal, and the default

382 mode networks, which have shown similar consistent responses with different movie clips and samples  
383 (Di et al., 2022; Di and Biswal, 2022). Many of these regions, e.g., the temporoparietal junction,  
384 supramarginal, and default mode networks are involve in processing of higher order social information, as  
385 might be expected during watching of the movie clips. More interestingly, a unique independent  
386 component covering the secondary somatosensory cortex, posterior insula, and cingulate cortex showed  
387 much higher consistency in the clip of ‘The Present’ compared with the clip of ‘Despicable Me’. These  
388 regions are related to higher somatosensory and pain process, and may be involved in empathy for pain  
389 (Allen et al., 2017; Lamm et al., 2007). Because ‘The Present’ involves a scene of an amputated limb, it is  
390 reasonable that these regions are involved. Our discussions will focus on these networks.

391 For all the connectivity and activity measures, the optimal age models were quadratic log-age or  
392 age effects, mostly exhibiting an inverted-U shape. Time-varying and stationary connectivity showed age  
393 effects in different connections, with time-varying connectivity showing age effects between regions  
394 related to movie watching. The inverted-U shape indicates that the brain measures increase during early  
395 childhood and later decrease toward adulthood. This provides a more complete picture of synchronized  
396 responses compared with previous studies with only two groups of adults and children (Cantlon and Li,  
397 2013; Petroni et al., 2018). The reduced synchrony in adults compared with teen age children may  
398 indicate that neural processing is more efficient in adults therefore requiring less activation. Alternatively,  
399 the adult participants may have more idiosyncratic responses to the video clips, or the cartoon nature may  
400 make the adult participants less engaged in watching them. Nevertheless, a practical implication is that  
401 when controlling for age effects, a simple linear model may not be sufficient.

402 We observed widespread sex effects for time-varying connectivity, with females having higher  
403 consistency than males. This may due to the fact that many cognitive process involve higher levels of  
404 brain activation in females than males, e.g., empathy for pain (Christov-Moore and Iacoboni, 2019; Groen  
405 et al., 2013) and language processing (Burman et al., 2008). But due to the complexity of the movie  
406 stimuli, it is difficult to pinpoint a specific cognitive process that solely explains the observed sex  
407 differences. Moreover, sex differences may interact with other factors such as age (Etchell et al., 2018).

408 We did not explore the interaction effects in the current study due to the limited sample size, but this  
409 effect needs to be studied in future works with larger samples.

410 In contrast to our hypothesis, the behavioral prediction analyses showed that only stationary  
411 connectivity, but not time-varying connectivity or regional activity, could predict FSIQ scores. Stationary  
412 connectivity could reliably predict FSIQ from both the video clips. The contents of the movie clips  
413 involve social interactions, which may not be related to general intelligence abilities. Indeed, brain  
414 regions that are generally associated with FSIQ are higher-order association regions, such as the lateral  
415 prefrontal cortex (Cole et al., 2012; Geake and Hansen, 2005). The prediction features in the current  
416 analysis (Figure 5C and 5D) supported this point. Because stationary connectivity remains stable across  
417 different conditions, it may reflect general characteristics of cognitive functions, such as FSIQ (Finn and  
418 Bandettini, 2021). On the other hand, time-varying connectivity may be sensitive to certain movie  
419 contents, therefore not reflecting general cognitive ability. In terms of the SCQ scores, none of the brain  
420 measures could predict individual differences in SCQ scores. The SCQ score was chosen because it  
421 reflects deficits in social functions related to autism. A study has reported an association between brain  
422 activity and SCQ scores at certain time points using the same HBN dataset (Richardson, 2019). With a  
423 whole-brain predictive modeling approach with cross-validation, we could not find reliable associations  
424 between brain measures and SCQ scores. The association may exist, but be restricted to brain activity  
425 during certain events. Alternatively, in this normative sample there may not be a large range of SCQ  
426 scores. Therefore, the association between brain measures and SCQ scores in a healthy sample may be  
427 weak.

428 The current study analyzed two animated video clips. Many aspects of individual differences  
429 appeared to be different between the two clips. For example, the preferred age models and sex effects for  
430 both the stationary and time-varying connectivity turned out to be very different between the two clips.  
431 This suggests that many of the individual differences depend on the specific movie stimuli. On one hand,  
432 this may be desirable, because different movie stimuli may be used to probe different brain functions. On

433 the other hand, this means that one should be careful when interpreting results of movie watching studies,  
434 as they might be highly sensitive to the stimuli presented.

435

## 436 **5. Conclusion**

437 In the current study, we examined age and sex effects, and behavioral correlates of time-varying and  
438 stationary connectivity during movie watching. We found that time-varying connectivity is more sensitive  
439 to the age and sex effects. However, only stationary connectivity could predict individuals' FSIQ scores.  
440 These results provide a more detailed portrait of individual differences in time-varying and stationary  
441 connectivity in the human brain.

442

443

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