

1 **Spontaneous back-pain alters randomness in functional connections in large scale brain**
2 **networks**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14

15 We use randomness as a measure to assess the impact of evoked pain on brain networks.

16 Randomness is defined here as the intrinsic correlations that exist between different brain regions

17 when the brain is in a task-free state. We use fMRI data of three brain states in a set of back pain

18 patients monitored over a period of 6 months. We find that randomness in the task-free state closely

19 follows the predictions of Gaussian orthogonal ensemble of random matrices. However, the

20 randomness decreases when the brain is engaged in attending to painful inputs in patients suffering

21 with early stages of back pain. A persistence of this pattern is observed in the patients that develop

22 chronic back pain, while the patients who recover from pain after 6 months, the randomness reverts

23 back to a normal level.

24

25 **Author Summary**

26

27 Back-pain is a salient percept known to affect brain regions. We studied random correlations in
28 brain networks using random matrix theory. The brain networks were generated by fMRI scans
29 obtained from a longitudinal back-pain study. Without modelling the neuronal interactions, we
30 studied universal and subject-independent properties of brain networks in resting state and two
31 distinct task states. Specifically, we hypothesized that relative to the resting state, random
32 correlations would decrease when the brain is engaged in a task and found that the random
33 correlations showed a maximum decrease when the brain is engaged in detecting back pain than
34 performing a visual task.

35

36 **Introduction**

37

38 Chronic pain represents a major clinical, social, and economic problem for societies worldwide.
39 The principal complaint is of unremitting physical pain that does not abate with standard
40 analgesics(1–3). The experience of pain is quite different across the population and persists for
41 different durations between individuals. Pain is in essence a threat signal that we localize to a part
42 of the body in the form of an unpleasant sensation. This sensation accompanies a strong negative
43 emotion that works as an aversive signal which is necessary for learning proper avoidance
44 behaviors. In some people, this signal becomes accentuated and tends to persist for long periods
45 of times extending over months to years. These individuals very often show no signs of tissue
46 damage or underlying pathology in the site where they are feeling pain. Brain imaging studies

47 suggest that chronic pain alters the nervous system so that the brain perceives persistent pain due
48 to maladaptive processes in the brain. An expedient approach for understanding these maladaptive
49 processes is to observe how back pain transitions to a chronic form.

50

51 Thus, we know that in some patients, persistent back pain is acute and persists for a few weeks to
52 be classified as subacute back pain (or SBP). This early stage of persistent back pain remits in
53 some individuals, while for others, it persists for months to years and this enduring back pain is
54 classified as chronic (Chronic Back Pain or CBP). The reasons and neural mechanisms due to
55 which back pain transitions from subacute to chronic is still ambiguous, and the pursuit to find
56 neurological reasons for this transition is central to contemporary pain research. In recent years,
57 there have been successful attempts in relating CBP to specific brain activity(4) whereby
58 neuroimaging method of functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) is used to study the
59 correlations between CBP and brain activity. More recently, it has also been shown that
60 chronification of back pain shifts the brain activity from nociceptive to emotional circuits, thereby
61 impacting patients with physiological disorders such as depression and impacting their overall
62 quality of everyday life(3).

63

64 fMRI makes use of the fact that neuronal activity is partly coupled with increases in blood flow in
65 the observed parts of the brain and it images these changes as a haemodynamic response to brain
66 activity. This particular form of fMRI is also referred to as blood-oxygenation-level-dependent
67 (BOLD) fMRI and it offers high spatial resolution. A useful adaptation of this approach is to
68 measure how slow temporal fluctuations (0.01-0.15 HZ) are between different brain regions and
69 this statistical dependency is referred to, more generally, as functional connectivity. The network

70 properties that emerge from large-scale correlations has been shown to be altered in
71 neuropsychiatric and chronic conditions such as CBP(4–9). It is still a challenge to understand the
72 dynamic transition of brain between different states as a result of back-pain. It is because brain is
73 a fairly complex system whereby neurons are constantly interacting with each other often resulting
74 in higher brain functions(10,11) and in the formation of functional networks, even in the absence
75 of any stimuli. Though large-scale functional connectivity is often studied using clustering
76 techniques or principles of graph theory(12), there is a need to apply the concepts and
77 methodologies developed in the context of the theory of random matrices for observing systematic
78 transitions in brain states.

79

80 Random Matrix Theory (RMT) was originally developed in the nuclear physics applications,
81 where nuclei can have many possible states and energy levels and, and their interactions are too
82 complex to be described accurately. In such a scenario, one settles for a model that captures the
83 statistical properties of the energy spectrum. RMT finds extensive applications in the statistical
84 studies of various complex systems such as quantum chaotic systems, complex nuclei, atoms,
85 molecules, disordered mesoscopic systems(13–21), atmosphere(22), financial applications(23),
86 network forming systems(24,25), amorphous clusters(26–29), biological networks(30,31), etc. In
87 recent years, RMT has also been applied towards brain network studies in studying universal
88 behavior of brain functional connectivity and has been effective in detecting the differences in
89 resting state and visual stimulation state(32,33). Recently, attempts using RMT have also been
90 made in brain functional network studies on attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)(34).

91

92 RMT makes use of the fact that true information of the system is contained in the eigenvalues of
93 a correlation matrix. Specifically, for brain networks, the eigenvalues represent the level of
94 functional connectivity between different regions of interest (ROIs) in brain, and larger
95 eigenvalues contain information about significant correlations (or strong connectivity), and
96 therefore, about processes in brain. Recent studies have shown that ROIs in brain are correlated.
97 Furthermore, these correlations closely follow the predictions of Gaussian Orthogonal Ensemble
98 (GOE) of random matrices when the brain is in a state of rest (fully-conscious). The clearest
99 indication so far has come from EEG data(32), which further attributes the observed deviation
100 from GOE predictions to visual stimulation; that is, true information. Other recent studies(33,34)
101 also point to similar information, however, the overall findings are unclear. We hereby propose a
102 hypothesis where, we refer to these observed correlations as random correlations, or in general,
103 randomness, that exists at any given instant in brain network. When the brain is engaged in a task,
104 this randomness would be expected to decrease, as brain regions would be connected in a coherent
105 fashion relative to a task-free or resting state. These random correlations reach their normal levels
106 at resting state. Thus, RMT may offer a principled approach for measuring systematic changes in
107 randomness that occur in brain networks during perception and cognition.

108

109 Here we investigate whether the brain demonstrates a greater deviation from GOE predictions
110 when it is engaged in detecting threats or experiencing discomfort from pain relative to perception
111 of innocuous stimuli. Since the ability to properly detect and perceive pain is fundamental for
112 survival, attending to pain can be expected to add systematic changes in brain connectivity and
113 thus reduce random correlations in brain networks. On the other hand, maladaptive processing of
114 pain inputs during a chronic stage of back pain may show a different behavior, relative to the SBP

115 state. The ability to distinguish these two states using an integrative approach such as RMT could
116 be useful for improving chronic pain diagnosis and prognosis and also for understanding the
117 abnormalities in brain properties that contribute to CBP.

118

119 **Materials and methods**

120

121 Dataset and Tasks

122

123 We use fMRI data available on the open access data sharing platform for brain imaging studies of
124 human pain (www.openpain.org). The complete dataset is a part of 5-year longitudinal study of
125 transition to chronic back pain in which 120 patients were recruited initially. All the participants
126 were trained to perform two tasks using finger-span device with which they provided continuous
127 pain ratings(3,4). This device consisted of a potentiometer in which voltage was digitized. During
128 the brain imaging sessions, the device was synchronized and time-stamped with fMRI image
129 acquisition and connected to a computer providing visual feedback of the pain ratings(35). We use
130 data acquired from three different states, a) A state of rest in which the participants are not thinking
131 about any one thing in particular (RS); b) A state of focusing and rating spontaneous changes in
132 back pain (SP); and, c) A control state in which they are rating changes in length of a visual bar
133 (SV).

134

135 MRI data acquisition

136

137 The data for all participants and visits was collected by a 3T Siemens scanner. At first, MPRAGE
138 type T₁ anatomical brain images were acquired followed by fMRI scans on the same day with the
139 following parameter details given in *Hashmi et al*(3):

140

141 EPI sequence: voxel size 1 X 1 x1 MM, Repetition time=2500MS; Echo Time=3.36MS; Flip angle
142 = 9degrees; In-Plane matrix resolution 256 X 256; slices 160, field of view, 256mm. Functional
143 MRI scans were acquired on the same day as the T1 scan and MPQVAS measures: multi-slice
144 T2*-weighted EPI images with repetition time=2.5s, echo time=30ms, flip angle =90 degree,
145 number of volumes =244, slice thickness =3mm, in-plane resolution =64 x 64.

146

147 Pre-processing of fMRI data

148

149 We use Freesurfer, FMRIB Software Library (FSL) v5.0, and Analysis of Functional Neuro-
150 Images (AFNI) software to preprocess the data similar to procedures adapted for the 1000
151 Functional Connectomes project(36). Data were slice time corrected, motion corrected, temporally
152 band-pass filtered, and then further filtered to remove linear and quadratic trends using AFNI.
153 Complete details of the preprocessing procedure are given in(37). The registration was performed
154 using FMRIB's Linear and non LINEAR Image Registration Tools for transformations from native
155 functional and structural space to the Montreal Neurological Institute MNI152 template with 2 x
156 2 x 2 resolution, with further details given in(37).

157

158 Anatomical parcellation and construction of correlation matrix

159

160 The brain is anatomically parcellated by *an optimization of the Harvard/Oxford parcellation*
161 *scheme* (OHOPS)(38). In this scheme, the anatomical partitioning of cingulate, medial and lateral
162 prefrontal cortices of Harvard Oxford Atlas was increased and in addition, anatomical partitioning
163 of insular label was also performed, and the single Region of Interest (ROI) spanning the entire
164 insula in Harvard Oxford Atlas was further subdivided based on a previous scheme(39). The
165 complete OHOPS consisted of a total of 131 regions(38). Each ROI was designated as a node and
166 the BOLD time series were extracted from each node and averaged to generate 131 time series for
167 each subject. Following this, the whole brain networks were constructed, and network measures
168 were assessed using the Brain Connectivity Toolbox, with formulae used for calculating network
169 measures described in(40). The brain networks are usually assortative in nature(41,42).

170 For each patient, the BOLD time series in each region was correlated with every other region to
171 create a 131 x 131 symmetric correlation matrix based on Pearson's correlation coefficients given
172 by:

173

174

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

175 or, which can be re-written as:

176

177

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{(n-1) \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2 - n\bar{x}^2}{n-1}} \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n y_j^2 - n\bar{y}^2}{n-1}}}$$

178

179 Such correlation matrices are not only symmetric, but they are also positive semi-definite(43), with
180 all eigenvalues being non-negative. This correlation matrix is then diagonalized and eigenvalues

181 (λ) are obtained. In the present case, few eigenvalues are zeros, and remaining have positive
182 values. It must be remembered that not all ROIs are a part of active brain network at a given time
183 and hence, very small eigenvalues are usually ignored, and the related correlations are unimportant
184 from functional connectivity perspective.

185

186 Unfolding of data

187

188 Fluctuations around the eigenvalue spectra are studied using standard methods of RMT. The first
189 step is to unfold the data, meaning, the eigenvalues are arranged in an increasing (cumulative)
190 order and are then mapped using an analytical function in such a way that the average spacing
191 between two successive eigenvalues is unity. This ensures all the eigenvalues are on same-footing.
192 The analytical fitting function used for unfolding need not be unique and, is generally different for
193 different systems(25–29). For this study, the eigenvalue spectra of all the correlation matrices
194 generated is approximated extremely well by a function of the form

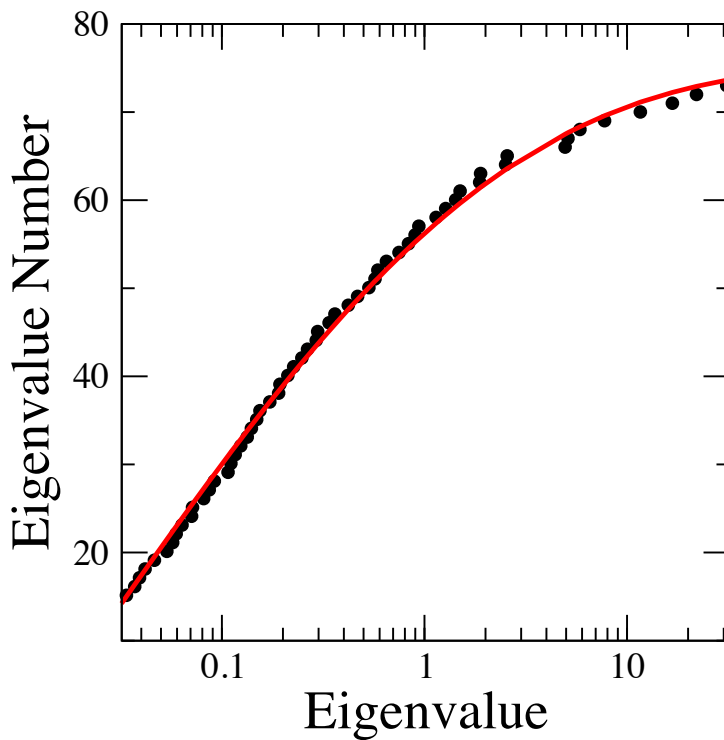
195

$$196 \quad (a - b * e^{-c\lambda^{1/d}})$$

197

198 where a, b, c, and d, are best-fit parameters and λ is the eigenvalue. Figure 1 shows a plot of the
199 cumulative eigenvalue density along with the analytical fitting function. We leave out a small
200 portion of eigenvalues at both ends in order to achieve the best fit, something which has been a
201 standard practice in other works(25–29). We deal with unfolded eigenvalues from this point
202 onwards.

203



204

205 Fig. 1: Eigenvalue number vs eigenvalue (λ) for a typical spectrum. Filled circles (black): Data.
206 Continuous line (red): The best-fit using the functional form described in text.

207

208

209 Results

210

211 We report the spectral statistics fluctuation properties of the eigenvalue spectra in the three brain
212 states in individuals who were suffering with SBP (back pain for < 3 months). We also track what
213 these properties looked like after 6 months in the group of individuals with SBP with persisting
214 back pain(3,4,7,44). Patients had all been pain free for one year prior to their subacute pain episode
215 and had no history of any mental illness including depression. The individual details of patients
216 are also available online on the data sharing platform. It must also be stated that none of the data
217 from available subjects was excluded from the analysis.

218

219 Visit 1

220

221 For visit 1, 68 SP and SV scans are available. In addition, there are 27 RS scans available for visit
222 1. Analysis of randomly picked individual eigenvalue spectra indicate that brain-states have
223 fluctuation properties associated with the Gaussian orthogonal ensemble (GOE) of random
224 matrices. To improve statistics, we combine information from all unfolded data. Figure 2a shows
225 the normalized nearest-neighbor spacing distribution (NNSD) $[p(s)]$ for RS, SP, and SV scans for
226 visit 1. Here, s is the eigenvalue spacing. Superimposed is the GOE result, which is also
227 approximated by Wigner's surmise as:

228

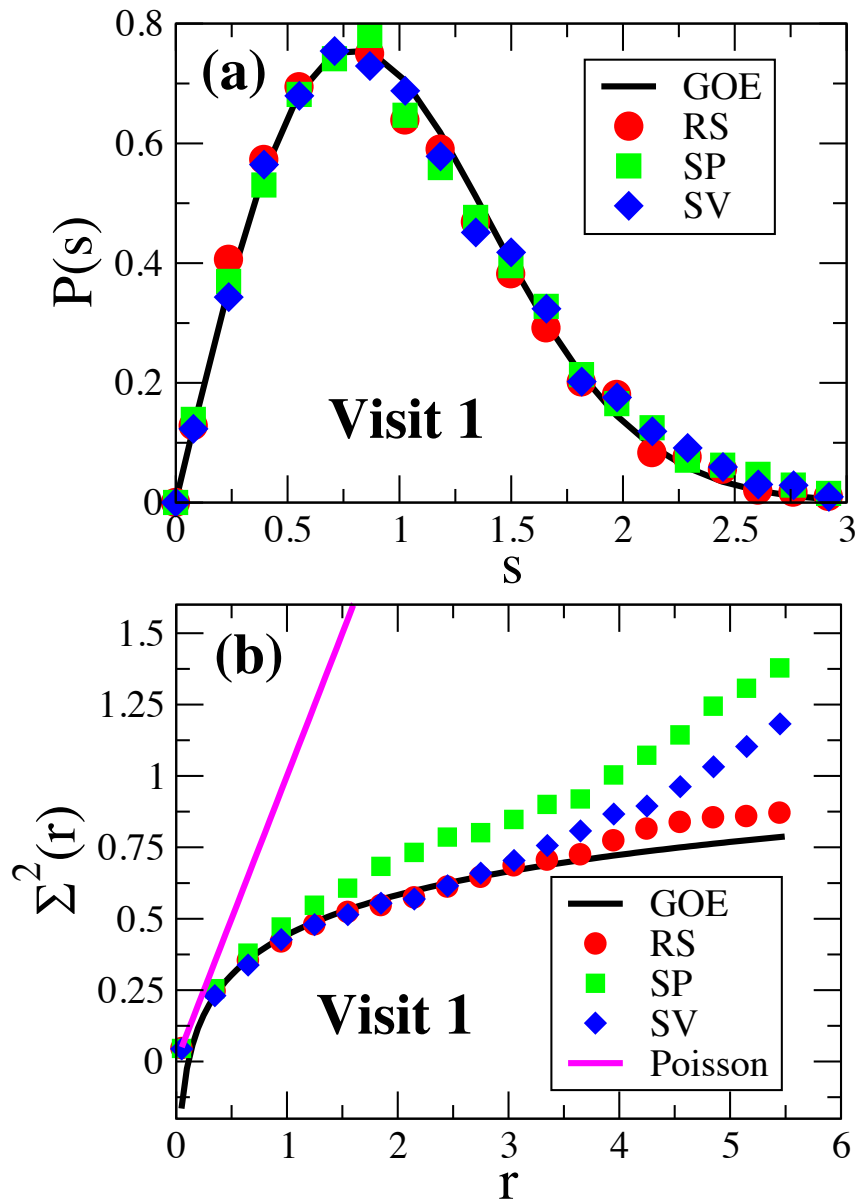
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$$p(s) = \left(\frac{\pi s}{2}\right) * e^{-\pi s^2/4}$$

230

231 For all the cases, we find a good agreement with GOE. A single-valued indicator that follows the
232 $p(s)$ function is the variance of nearest-neighbor spacing. We find this number between 0.297 and
233 0.320 for all the cases, which is quite close to 0.286, the number for GOE(26–28). This agreement
234 could be explained due to the fact that NNSD captures the correlations that exists between
235 successive eigenvalues and does not have information about the long-range correlations. Short-
236 ranged correlations, especially between the nearest-neighbors are quite strong, and hence not
237 altered substantially by both, visual (SV) and pain-rating (SP) tasks. This result is also consistent
238 to other brain-network studies(32–34,42) and hence, further strengthens the belief that there exists
239 strong, stimuli-resistant random correlations between nearest-neighbors in the brain network.

240



241

242 Fig. 2: (a) Normalized neighbor spacing (s) vs probability density $p(s)$ for resting state (red
243 circles), spontaneous pain (green squares), and standard visual (blue diamonds) scans for Visit 1.
244 Solid line is the GOE prediction.; (b) Variance of the number of levels in intervals of length r
245 shown as a function of r for resting state (red circles), spontaneous pain (green squares), and
246 standard visual (blue diamonds) for Visit 1. Black line represents GOE prediction and magenta
247 line represents Poisson distribution.

248

249 Next, we take a look at the long-range (or higher order) random correlations. For this, we measure
250 $\Sigma^2(r)$, the variance of the number of levels $n(r)$ within an interval of length r . The theoretical result
251 for GOE is:

252

253

$$\Sigma^2(r) = \frac{2}{\pi^2} \left(\ln(2\pi r) + 1.5772 - \frac{\pi^2}{8} \right)$$

254

255 The number variance is quite sensitive to changes, and is extremely sensitive to small systematic
256 errors in the approximation to the analytical function used during unfolding(26,27). Contribution
257 of any such error to $\Sigma^2(r)$ grows as r^2 , whereas the GOE prediction for $\Sigma^2(r)$ grows as $\ln(r)$ (29). In
258 Figure 2b, we plot $\Sigma^2(r)$ for RS, SP, and SV scans along with GOE and Poisson [$\Sigma^2(r) = r$]
259 distributions for visit 1. We observe that RS agrees with the GOE prediction over greatest domain,
260 whereas we see deviations for SV and SP scans with SP scans showing maximum deviation. This
261 deviation is attributed to the relative tasks the subjects are performing in each case, with the pain-
262 rating task showing maximum deviation.

263

264 Visit 4

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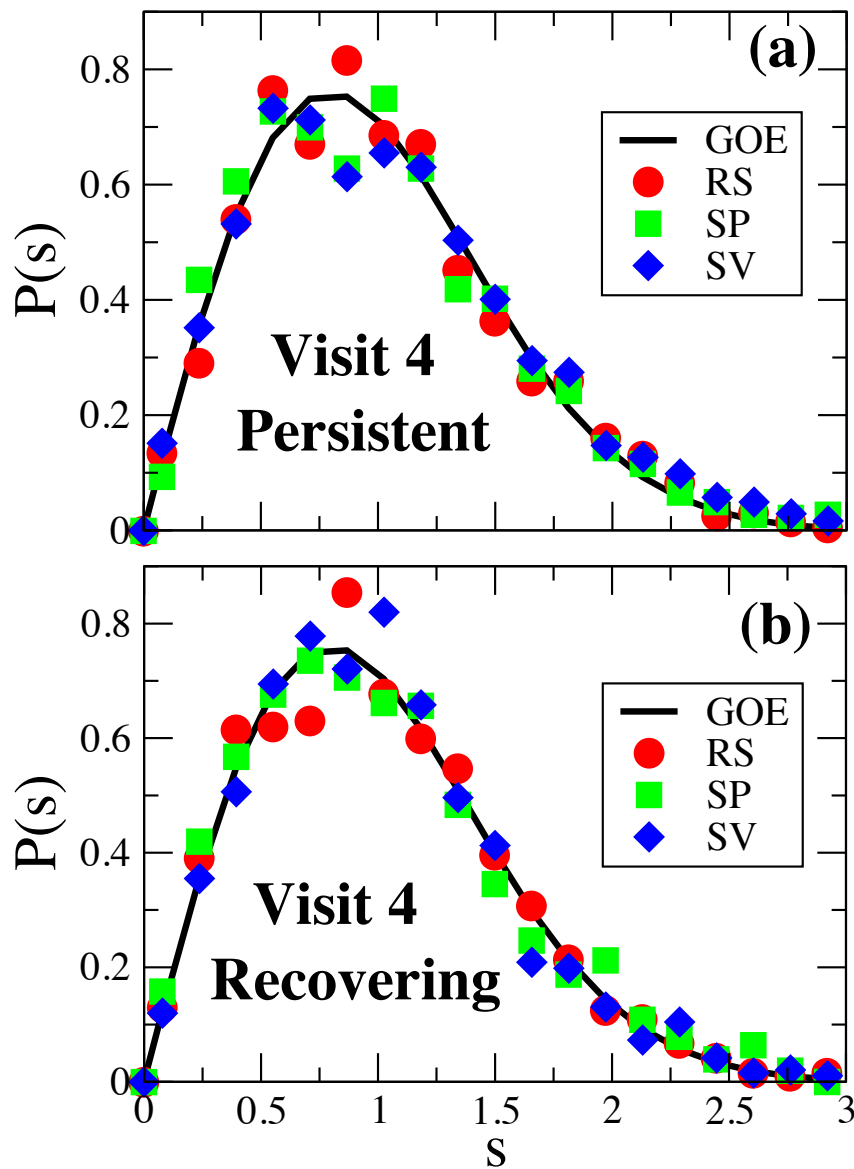
266 At visit 4, which was approximately 6 months after visit 1, some patients recovered from persistent
267 back-pain as a result of spontaneous remission of the condition (recovering group), others
268 experienced a persistence in their back-pain, and represent the group who have developed CBP
269 (persistent group). To define SBP persistent group, we separate participants with pain persisting
270 for 6 months from those that recovered (SBP recovering) based on self-report of pain ratings
271 observed using McGill Pain Questionnaire Visual Analogue Scale (MPQVAS). We compare the

272 MPQVAS value at visit 1 with visit 4. If the pain rating value of a particular subject decreases by
273 30% or more, the subject is classified as "Recovering", else, it is classified as "Persistent". Based
274 on this classification, we have 18 RS, 17 SP, and 23 SV scans for Persistent group and 18 RS, 19
275 SP, and 28 SV scans for Recovering group.

276

277 Figure 3 shows NNSD for Persistent and Recovering groups. Both the plots show agreement with
278 GOE predictions; an indicator of strong nearest-neighbor random correlations. Figure 4 shows
279 plots of $\Sigma^2(r)$ for Persistent and Recovering groups. In both the cases, we find RS scans staying
280 close to GOE predictions. However, we find a striking difference between SP and SV scans in the
281 two cases. For the Persistent group, both SP and SV scans show deviations from the theory, with
282 SP scans showing greater deviations than SV scans. For the Recovering group, both SP and SV
283 scans match GOE predictions over a larger domain, and undistinguishable from RS scans.

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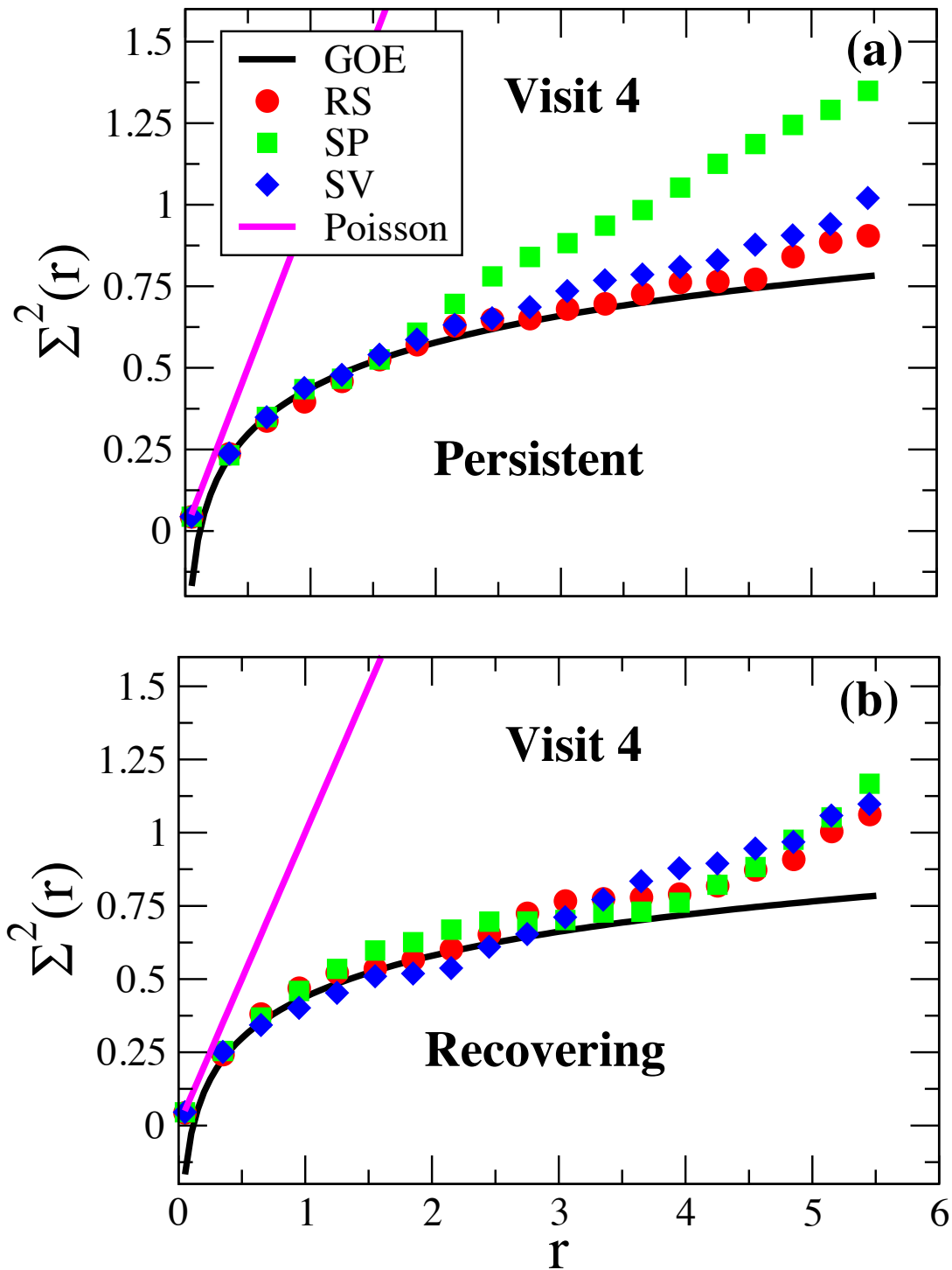


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287 Fig.3: Normalized neighbor spacing (s) vs probability density $p(s)$ for resting state (red circles),
288 spontaneous pain (green squares), and standard visual (blue diamonds) scans for (a) Persistent,
289 and (b) Recovering groups in visit 4. Solid line is the GOE prediction.

290



291

292 Fig. 4: Variance of the number of levels in intervals of length r shown as a function of r for
293 resting state (red circles), spontaneous pain (green squares), and standard visual (blue diamonds)
294 for (a) Persistent, and (b) Recovering groups in visit 4. For both visits, black line represents GOE
295 prediction and magenta line represents Poisson distribution.

296 **Discussion**

297

298 The present study demonstrates that RMT is able to differentiate between two different tasks
299 within the same subject. We find a pattern consistent with our hypothesis, with randomness
300 decreasing when the brain is focused on attending to pain triggered in the back of their body. Here,
301 GOE line represents maximum randomness and Poisson represents no randomness. However, due
302 to the complexity of the experimental design, there could be many possible conjectures (including
303 their combinations) explaining these observations.

304

305 First, as the patients are performing a pain-rating task, whereby they are focusing on the back and
306 reporting the ratings, the observed SP deviations could be attributed to back-pain. As it known
307 from earlier studies that salient percepts such as pain are known to require more brain areas to be
308 engaged than visual stimulation, we see an increased deviation for SP scans relative to SV scans
309 in all the cases(45–47). As more brain regions are engaged in attending to pain, hence relative
310 randomness between them decreases. At Visit 1, all patients report back-pain, whereas at Visit 4,
311 only a subset of them report back-pain, and because their MPQVAS ratings demonstrate
312 chronification of pain, the Persistent group continues to experience back-pain over many months.
313 Hence, this continued deviation of SP scans at Visit 4 in the persisting CBP group is a reflection
314 of chronified pain that continues to affect the GOE pattern. Second possible conjecture is the
315 saliency between the tasks themselves. While visual tasks are relatively easy to perform, pain-
316 rating tasks could be much difficult as back-pain events are generally random. Hence, more
317 attention is needed to perform these tasks, and thereby, we observe a decrease in randomness
318 between the brain regions involved in these tasks.

319

320 The present study also provides some useful insights on the connectivity states of resting state of
321 brain. Previous spectral studies using random matrix theory on quenched (local minima on
322 potential energy landscape) normal modes of network-forming liquids (Water)(25) and amorphous
323 systems (clusters and periodic systems both two-and three dimensions)(26–29) have demonstrated
324 that the fluctuations around the mean spectral densities follow GOE. For normal modes that are
325 not necessarily quenched, this agreement is not perfect, but gets better with increasing density(24).
326 While it is beyond the present work to prove, and further research is needed along these lines, we
327 propose an ansatz that resting state corresponds to local energy minima whereby the intrinsic
328 correlations obey GOE and conditions like back-pain can be viewed as a perturbation in system
329 dynamics resulting in a shift away from stable local minimum. It also remains an open question
330 whether this a unique minimum or there are several quasi-stable states.

331

332 **Availability of data and materials**

333

334 Data used in the preparation of this work were obtained from the OpenPain Project (OPP) database
335 (www.openpain.org). The OPP project (Principal Investigator : A. Vania Apkarian, Ph.D. at
336 Northwestern University) is supported by the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and
337 Stroke (NINDS) and National Institute of Drug Abuse (NIDA). The preprocessing codes are
338 available on request from the authors.

339

340 **Acknowledgements**

341

342 We thank ACENET/Compute Canada for computational resources.

343

344 **Author Contributions**

345

346 The planning of study, simulations and data analyses were done by GSM. GSM and JAH
347 contributed equally in interpreting the results and writing of the paper.

348

349 **Competing interests**

350

351 The authors declare no competing interests.

352

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