

1 **Ultra-high field imaging reveals increased whole**
2 **brain connectivity underpins cognitive strategies**
3 **that attenuate pain**

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18 **ABSTRACT**

19 The perception of pain activates a number of brain regions and processes that are involved
20 in its sensory, emotional, cognitive, and affective aspects; all of which require a flexible
21 functional connectivity between local and distant brain regions. Here, we investigate how the
22 attenuation of pain with cognitive interventions affects the strength of these connections by
23 pursuing a whole brain approach in order to assess every cortical connection that
24 contributes to successful pain relief.

25 While receiving 40s trials of tonic cold pain, 22 healthy participants were asked to utilise
26 three different pain attenuation strategies: (a) non-imaginal distraction by counting
27 backwards in steps of seven, (b) imaginal distraction by imagining a safe place, and (c)
28 cognitive reappraisal. During a 7T fMRI recording, participants were asked to rate their pain
29 after each single trial. We related the trial-by-trial variability of the attenuation performance to
30 the trial-by-trial functional connectivity of the cortical data. Across all three conditions, we
31 found that a higher performance of pain attenuation was predominantly associated with
32 higher functional connectivity between all regions.

33 Of note, we observed an association between low pain and high connectivity for regions that
34 belong to the core areas of pain processing, i.e. the insular and cingulate cortices. For one of
35 the cognitive strategies (safe place), the performance success of pain attenuation was
36 explained by diffusion tensor imaging metrics of increased white matter integrity.

37 Therefore, successful cognitive interventions to ameliorate pain and improve clinical
38 outcomes would require the strengthening of cortical connections.

39 **SHORT TITLE**

40 Cognitive Strategies Increase Brain Connectivity to Attenuate Pain.

41 INTRODUCTION

42 An increased perception of pain is generally associated with increased cortical activity; this
43 has been demonstrated for a number of brain regions and processes involved in sensory,
44 emotional, cognitive, and affective aspects of pain (1,2). Given the threatening nature of pain,
45 the information processed from these different aspects have to be integrated and assessed
46 to compute an appropriate decision and subsequent action (3). To do so, pain-processing
47 brain regions are required to exchange information, which entails increased functional
48 connectivity between relevant cortical and subcortical regions (4,5). Conversely, less is
49 known about connectivity changes during decreased pain, although many studies highlight
50 decreased neuronal activity with some studies highlighting selective changes in coupling
51 between brain regions (6).

52 Such studies have largely investigated the network activity of the pain system by quantifying
53 the covariation of the fluctuating blood-oxygen-level dependent (BOLD) activity. Changes of
54 this covariation of cortical signals have then been related to conditions that represent
55 different levels of pain experience. Villemure & Bushnell (2009) and Ploner et al. (2011), for
56 example, investigated the influence of different levels of emotion and attention on pain-
57 related cortical connectivity (5,6). Both studies observed an increase of connectivity for the
58 conditions that increased the intensity of pain; i.e. increased attention towards painful stimuli
59 was associated with more negative emotions.

60 A further study found that a change in pre-stimulus cortical connectivity patterns from the
61 anterior insula to the periaqueductal grey (PAG), which is part of the descending pain
62 modulatory system (7), determined whether a subsequent nociceptive stimulus was
63 perceived as painful or not (8). Supporting that observation, other investigations have
64 similarly reported increased functional connectivity between the PAG and the perigenual
65 anterior cingulate cortex (pACC) for conditions associated with decreased pain intensity
66 perception (placebo, shift of attention) (9-11). A recent study even showed that the structural
67 integrity, as measured using diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) of white matter tracts between
68 brain regions coupled with this descending pain modulatory system, was significantly
69 correlated to the effectiveness of transcranial direct current stimulation brain stimulation in
70 alleviating pain (12).

71 Therefore, all studies to date point to the relevance of connectivity patterns in pain
72 modulation; yet, excluding an increased connectivity to the descending pain modulatory
73 system's PAG, the precise nature of cortical connectivity during decreased pain is unclear

74 and limited. Using ultra-high field functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) to provide
75 enhanced signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) to facilitate single-trial analysis, we explored the
76 functional connections that contribute to the attenuation of pain by means of three different
77 cognitive interventions: (a) a non-imaginal distraction by counting backwards in steps of
78 seven; (b) an imaginal distraction by imagining a safe place; and (c) reinterpretation of the
79 pain valence (cognitive reappraisal). These cognitive strategies are hypothesised to be
80 represented in the brain by a complex cerebral network that connects a number of brain
81 regions, where:

82 (1) The effective use of a cognitive strategy that is successful for pain attenuation results in
83 an increase of functional connectivity between task-related brain regions.

84 (2) Decreased connectivity is expected between cortical areas that are involved in the
85 processing and encoding of pain intensity, e.g. sub-regions of the insular cortex, the
86 cingulate cortex, somatosensory cortices, and PAG.

87 (3) Increased connectivity is hypothesised for the descending pain control system,
88 particularly for the connection between the pACC and the PAG.

89 (4) Divisions of the insular cortex and their connections to frontal and somatosensory regions
90 play a key role through their high relevance in integrating sensory information.

91 Unlike previous research paradigms, the present experimental procedure aims to
92 approximate clinical treatment procedures by using a novel pain stimulation approach that
93 produces longer lasting pain experiences. Healthy participants were asked to utilise
94 cognitive strategies in order to attenuate the experience of pain during 40s of cold
95 stimulation. We pursued a whole-brain parcellation approach (13) in order to assess every
96 cortical connection that contributes to successful pain relief.

97 RESULTS

98 Overall, we found an increase of connectivity during pain attenuation: trials rated as low pain
99 as a consequence of utilising a cognitive strategy had stronger connectivity compared with
100 trials of the unmodulated pain condition that were rated as high pain. Therefore trials with
101 high pain are coupled with low connectivity, and trials with low pain are coupled with high
102 connectivity.

103 We pursued a whole-brain approach by subdividing the cortex into 180 regions per
104 hemisphere plus 21 subcortical regions (13) and related cortical connectivity to pain ratings
105 at single trial level. This approach was facilitated by an increased SNR as a result of ultra-
106 high field recording, as well as by a more reliable assessment of single trial data from longer
107 lasting painful stimulation and an extended task application. For each of the three conditions,
108 we merged the 11 trials of the cognitive interventions with the 11 unmodulated pain trials,
109 which has two major advantages:

110 (i) First, it takes the within-subjects variable performance of the pain attenuation attempts
111 into account; e.g. a more successful attempt to attenuate pain is considered to cause a
112 different cortical connectivity than a less successful attempt.

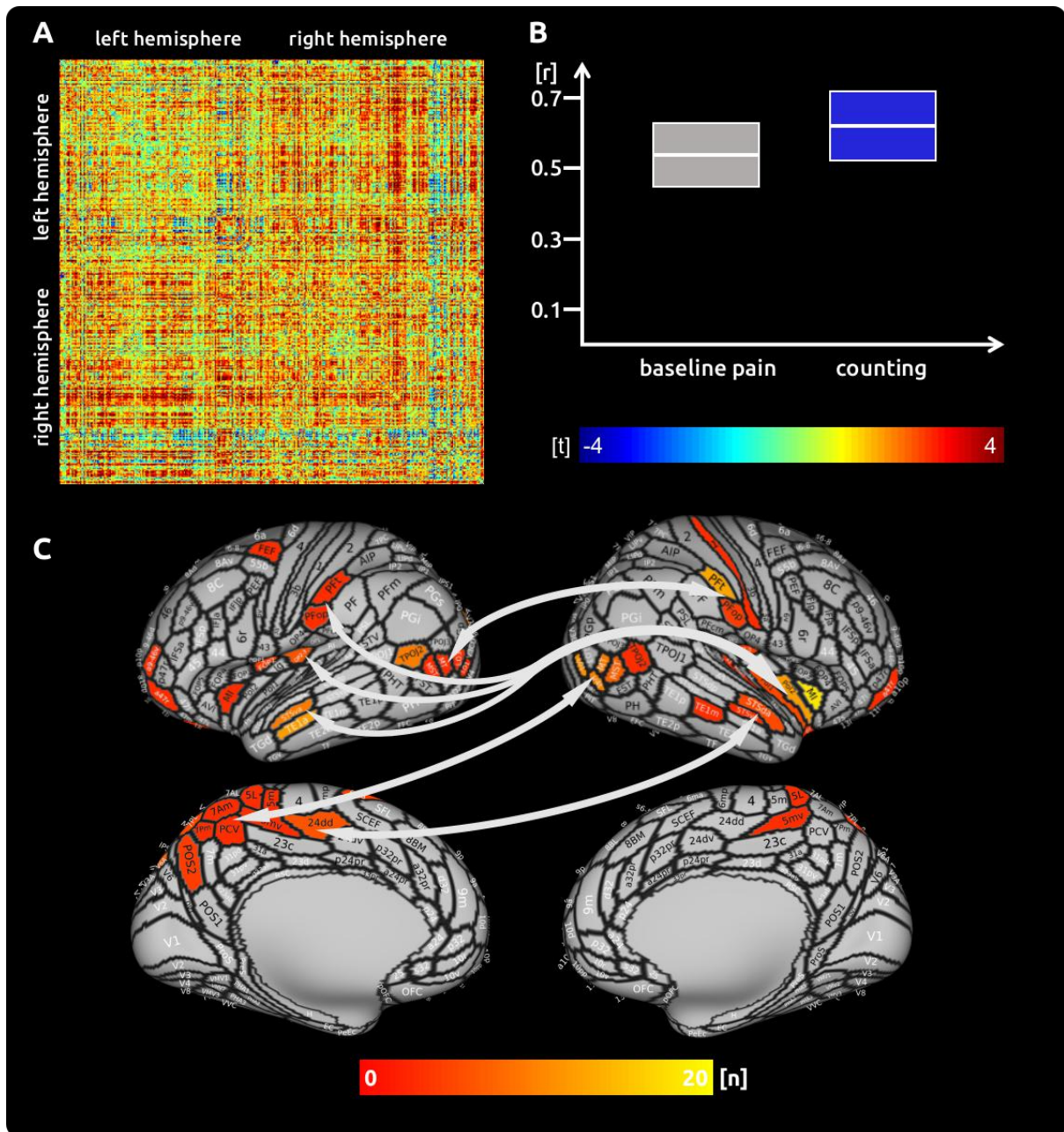
113 (ii) Second, we also take into account the more natural fluctuation of the unmodulated pain
114 trials.

115 The findings are represented in confusion matrices, depicting the pain intensity-related
116 connectivity between all brain regions. Positive relationships (*red*) show connectivities that
117 were increased in particularly effective trials (performance encoding). For all tasks, we
118 confirmed our first hypothesis by showing that an increased connectivity of *task-processing*
119 brain regions is related to particularly successful attempts to attenuate pain. However,
120 contrary to our second hypothesis, we found increased brain activity for successful single
121 trials also in *pain-processing* regions. The increased connectivities are therefore suggested
122 to initiate mechanisms of cortical activity suppression, such as shown in our previous
123 publication (14). Negative relationships (*blue*) represent cortical connections that are
124 disrupted in successful trials to attenuate pain. Disruptions were hypothesised to occur for
125 the core regions of pain processing, such as for the various subregions of the insular,
126 cingulate, and somatosensory cortices. However, we found that these regions predominantly
127 showed increased connectivity during successful trials of pain attenuation (see above).

128 (1) *Counting*. We aimed to detect patterns of connectivity changes that are related to
129 successful trials during counting. The attenuation of pain during counting is predominantly
130 related to an increase of cortical connectivity in several brain regions, with the exception of
131 decreased connections involving the right temporo-parieto-occipital junction (Figure 1A). The
132 detailed matrix of statistical results can be found in the supplementary material
133 (Supplementary Spreadsheet 1).

134 We found that some regions show a particularly strong connectivity: the right insula, the left
135 and right temporal cortices, the left parietal cortex, as well as higher order visual regions in
136 occipito-temporal areas. The best connected area is the right middle insula (Figure 1C,
137 $p < 0.05$, PALM corrected). Indeed, some prominent connectivity patterns are noticeable: pain
138 attenuation-related connections from the right insular sub-regions are always connected to
139 insular sub-regions from the contralateral hemisphere, but not to other ipsilateral insular
140 regions. In addition, areas in the left medial wall of the parietal cortex (Brodmann area 7) are
141 functionally connected to a right posterior cortical region that stretches from higher order
142 visual areas (lateral occipital cortex) to the posterior medial temporal cortex. The homologue
143 left occipito-temporal region is functionally connected to the right inferior parietal lobe
144 (subregions PFt and PFop). Regions in the left superior and middle temporal cortex are
145 strongly connected with several sections of the insular cortex. Extended regions in the left
146 superior parietal cortex (Brodmann area 5) and the posterior cingulate cortex are functionally
147 connected with the right middle insular cortex (Figure 1C, Supplementary Spreadsheet 1).

148 Measures of structural connectivity (DTI fibre tracking) did not explain interindividual
149 differences in modulating task-related functional connections in the counting condition.

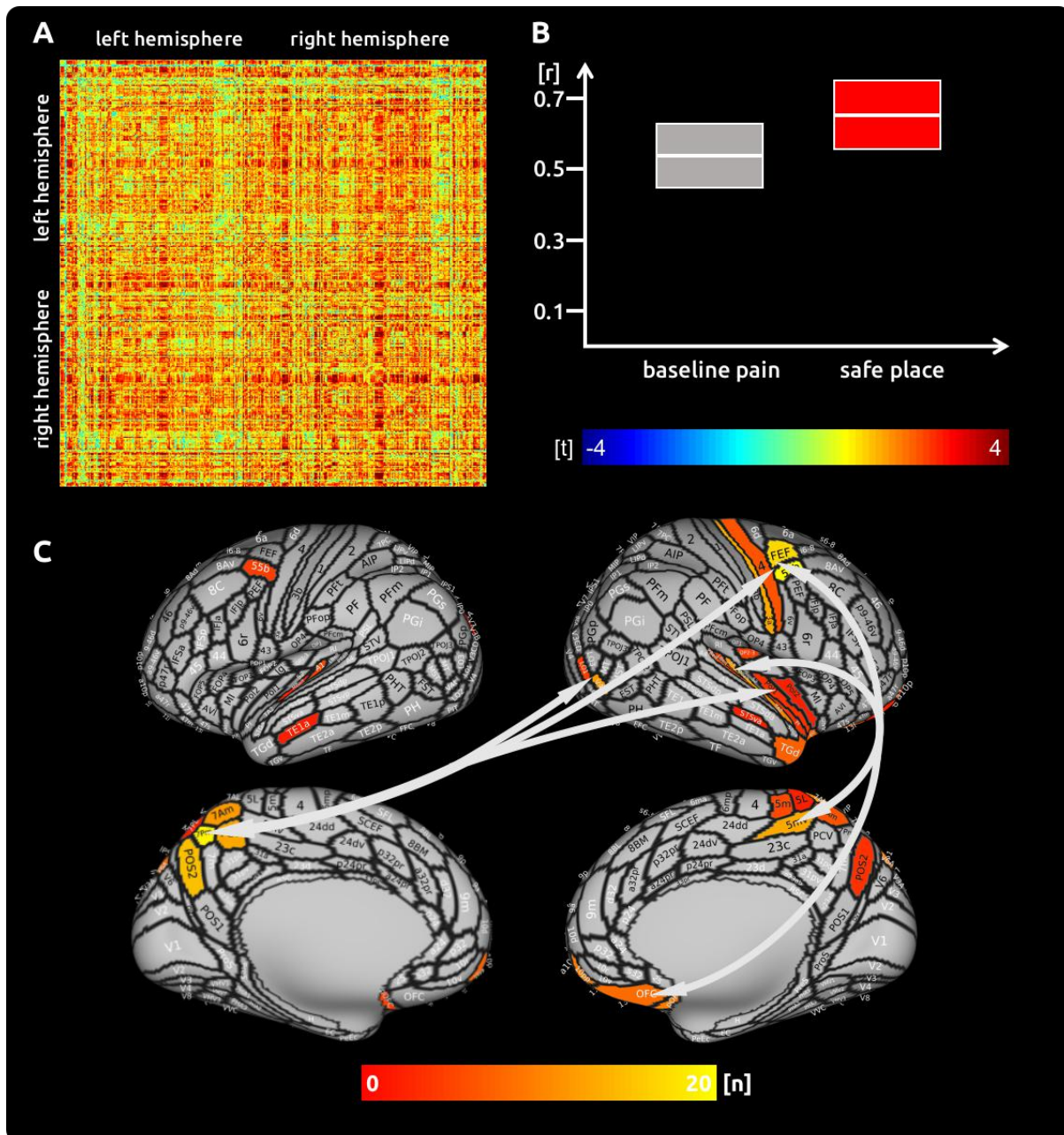


150 **Figure 1.** Counting: (A) the confusion matrix shows the statistical results. The values are mirrored
151 along the principal diagonal of the matrix. A single red dot represents the varying connectivity
152 between two specific brain regions and indicates that a stronger cortical connectivity in a single trial is
153 related to a decrease in pain perception (performance encoding). These findings are the result of the
154 higher connectivity in the trials of the counting task compared to unmodulated pain trials. (B) data
155 from the confusion matrix averaged across all subjects, connections and trials (for illustration
156 purposes only). (C) Depiction of the cortical regions as defined by the Glasser parcellation. The right
157 middle insular cortex has the most connections where connectivity changes are shown to significantly
158 modulate pain intensity.

159 (2) *Safe place*. During the imagining condition, we found an increase of connectivity across
160 all cortical regions when compared to the unmodulated pain condition (Figure 2A). The
161 detailed matrix of statistical results can be found in the supplementary material
162 (Supplementary Spreadsheet 2). There is no negative relationship between single trial

163 connectivity and pain intensity. Besides the well-connected right insular cortex, we observed
164 attenuation-related connectivity changes in right parietal (BA 5) and left superior parietal
165 cortices (BA 7). Further well-connected areas include a frontal language area (BA 55b) as
166 well as motor and premotor areas. The right posterior insular cortex is connected to the left
167 parietal cortex (BA 7). The right precentral areas are functionally interconnected with
168 prefrontal and orbitofrontal areas, the right parietal cortex (BA 5), and the left superior
169 parietal cortex (BA 7). The right “belt” regions are functionally connected to prefrontal and
170 orbitofrontal areas (Figure 3C).

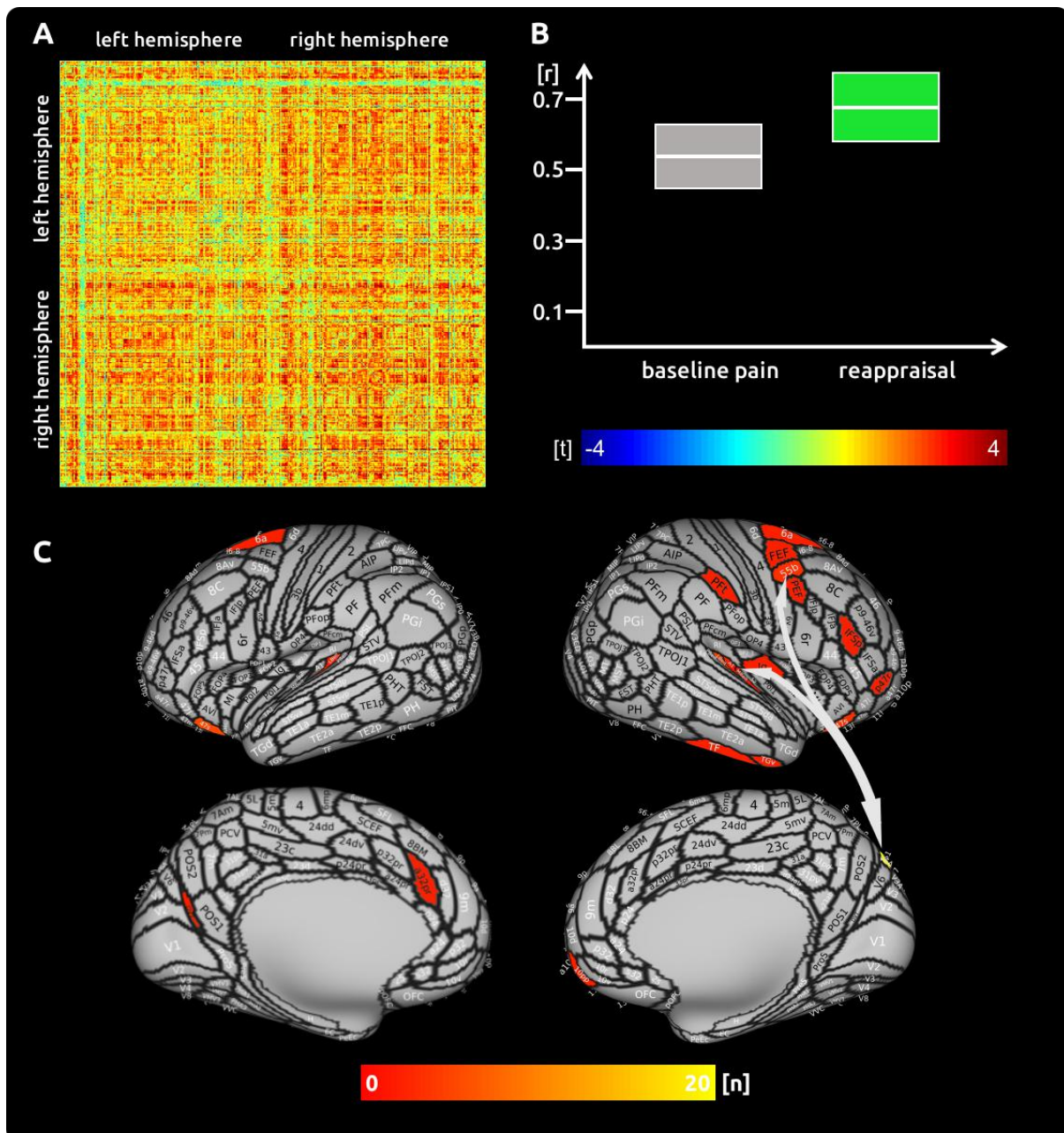
171 For the safe place condition only, we found that the strength of fibre connections mediates
172 the strength of the functional connectivity. Some subjects made use of their better structural
173 connectivity, as measured by the number of streamlines obtained from fibre tracking. Strong
174 structural connectivities are related to a better ability to modulate the functional connectivity
175 in order to attenuate pain. This applies especially to connections between frontal regions
176 (IFSp and Brodmann area 8C) and the secondary somatosensory cortex (SII). Further
177 functional connections that are supported by the strength of fibre connections projected to
178 memory-related areas (presubiculum of the hippocampus and entorhinal cortex).



179 **Figure 2.** Safe place: (A) the confusion matrix shows the statistical results. The values are mirrored
180 along the principal diagonal of the matrix. A single red dot represents the varying connectivity
181 between two specific brain regions and indicates that a stronger cortical connectivity in a single trial is
182 related to a decrease in pain perception (performance encoding). These findings are the result of the
183 higher connectivity in the trials of the imagination task compared to unmodulated pain trials. (B) data
184 from the confusion matrix averaged across all subjects, connections and trials (for illustration
185 purposes only). (C) Depiction of the cortical regions as defined by the Glasser parcellation. The left
186 parietal cortex and right premotor areas have the most connections where connectivity changes are
187 shown to significantly modulate pain intensity.

188 (3) *Reappraisal*. While executing cognitive reappraisal we found a pain attenuation-related
189 increase of functional connectivity compared to the unmodulated pain condition across the
190 entire cortex (Figure 3A). The detailed matrix of statistical results can be found in the
191 supplementary material (Supplementary Spreadsheet 3). Decreased functional connectivity

192 has not been observed. Connections that included frontal premotor and insular sub-regions
193 contributed to a decrease of pain (Figure 3C). However, the main hub of connectivity was
194 located in the medial parieto-occipital cortex. Besides other regions, the area V6A is
195 interconnected with several insular and frontal premotor areas, some of which control eye
196 movements. The structural characteristics between cortical regions did not contribute to an
197 enhanced functional connectivity for reappraisal.



198 **Figure 3.** Reappraisal: (A) the confusion matrix shows the statistical results. The values are mirrored
199 along the principal diagonal of the matrix. A single red dot represents the varying connectivity
200 between two specific brain regions and indicates that a stronger cortical connectivity in a single trial is
201 related to a decrease in pain perception (performance encoding). These findings are the result of the
202 higher connectivity in the trials of the reappraisal task compared to unmodulated pain trials. (B) data
203 from the confusion matrix averaged across all subjects, connections and trials (for illustration

204 purposes only). (C) Depiction of the cortical regions as defined by the Glasser parcellation. The region
205 V6A in the parieto-occipital cortex has the most connections where connectivity changes are shown to
206 significantly modulate pain intensity.

207 (4) *Conjunction analysis*. We did not find any pain-related connectivity changes present in all
208 three conditions.

209 DISCUSSION

210 Here, we aimed to explore how functional and structural connections in the brain contribute
211 to executing cognitive tasks that attenuate pain (14,15) by utilising a single-trial analysis
212 approach afforded by ultra-high field imaging. Across three experimental conditions, 20
213 healthy participants were asked to (a) count backwards, (b) imagine a safe and happy place,
214 and (c) apply a cognitive reappraisal strategy. All strategies resulted in significant pain relief
215 when compared to the unmodulated pain condition. We applied a whole-brain approach on
216 the basis of brain parcellation definitions (13) and explored connectivity patterns during
217 single attempts to attenuate pain. We further explored whether functional connections are
218 facilitated by axonal fibre connections, measured with DTI.

219 Across all cognitive interventions, our results revealed an *increase* of connectivity pattern
220 throughout the cerebral cortex for all three interventions; a higher functional connectivity was
221 related to particularly successful single attempts to attenuate pain. Therefore, the
222 unmodulated pain trials - which were experienced as considerably more painful - exhibited a
223 lower functional connectivity compared to pain trials during cognitive tasks. This finding has
224 two implications:

225 *First*, increased connectivity in *task-related* regions is necessary to successfully execute the
226 respective cognitive tasks.

227 *Second*, contrary to our hypothesis and previous findings, increased connectivity with *pain-*
228 *related* brain regions (e.g. insular cortex, ACC, or somatosensory cortices) is related to
229 successful attenuation trials with decreased intensities of pain. These increased
230 connectivities are required to actively suppress the *activity* in regions known to contribute to
231 pain processing (16) and are further modulated in the respective task (14). The neuronal
232 activity of these pain-related brain regions are most likely to be actively inhibited, such as by
233 GABAergic neurons in the insular cortex (17,18), and thus contribute to a lower pain
234 experience by impeding the processing of pain in this region.

235 *Counting*. For the cognitively-demanding counting task, we found a number of well-
236 connected regions that contribute directly or indirectly to the reduction of pain intensity.
237 These regions are located in the parietal and occipito-temporal cortices, overlapping with the
238 modulation of BOLD activity during counting tasks (14,19). Increased connectivity during
239 counting occurred for connections with pain processing areas, such as divisions of the
240 insular cortex, the posterior cingulate cortex, and the primary and the secondary
241 somatosensory cortices. The highest number of connections to other brain regions during
242 the counting task was found for the right middle insular cortex. Although our analyses do not

243 allow for any assumptions on directionality, the many pain-related functional connectivities
244 between left parietal areas (high BOLD activity) and right insular sub-regions (low BOLD
245 activity) suggest a suppression effect on the insular areas (see (14)).

246 Disrupted connectivities during the counting task were observed for the right temporo-
247 parieto-occipital junction (TPJ) to the right posterior insula, as well as to temporo-occipital
248 areas. Given the involvement of the TPJ in attentional processing (20,21), elevated focus on
249 the task may have decreased the transmission during task execution but increased the
250 transmission for the unmodulated pain trials (14). The counting trials are further suggested to
251 require a visual support by imagining the numbers in space (22). Visual areas in the *left*
252 occipito-temporal cortex connect to and suppress right parietal opercular areas. We also
253 found visual support located in the *right* occipito-temporal cortex that is functionally
254 connected to parietal areas, which in turn suppress insular activity.

255 *Safe place*. Similar to the counting condition, we found regions in the left and right parieto-
256 occipital cortex to be highly connected to other brain regions. Notably, the parietal cortex is
257 functionally connected without a rise of regional BOLD activity (see(14)). This effect shows
258 that brain regions can play an important role in pain processing via an exchange of
259 information, where low-scale modulations of cortical activity are not causing large metabolic
260 effects. Moreover, the strong connectivity pattern between left parietal and right insular
261 regions suggests an active suppression of insular regions initiated by the parietal cortex (as
262 reflected by *increased* functional connectivity between these regions).

263 We found well-connected regions in the precentral gyrus: area 55b has been shown to be
264 active during listening to stories in the language task of the Human Connectome Project
265 dataset (13). Therefore, the increased connectivity in area 55b may be related to the
266 narrative aspects of the imaginary task in which the participants may recall being actively
267 involved in an event of pleasure and happiness. The premotor and motor areas in the
268 precentral gyrus in particular may reflect the motor aspect of the imagination task (23,24).
269 They are connected to orbitofrontal areas which are thought to initiate top-down pain
270 suppression of ascending pathways (9,25).

271 For the safe place condition only, we found that the ability to functionally utilise certain
272 pathways is mediated by the strength of axonal fibre connections. These anatomical
273 characteristics are suggested to help the participants with stronger fibre connections to
274 better attenuate pain. This applies especially to connections between middle frontal regions
275 (IFSp and 8C) to the secondary somatosensory cortex (SII). Further functional connections

276 that are supported by the strength of fibre connections project from the frontal cortex to
277 memory-related limbic areas (presubiculum of the hippocampus, entorhinal cortex), which
278 could facilitate memory retrieval for the imagination of pleasant scenes (26-30).

279 *Reappraisal.* The best connected region during cognitive reappraisal is located in the higher
280 order visual cortex, area V6A, which is mainly interconnected with insular and frontal
281 premotor areas. Area V6A is known to contribute to spatial object localisation; a study on
282 monkeys shows that V6A cells are active when executing reaching movements independent
283 of visual or oculomotor processing (31). These cells have also been found to encode body-
284 centred spatial localisation (32). The use of V6A and its connection to other brain areas
285 could help the participants - as required by the task - to focus on the stimulated body site.
286 However, this focussing should be considered as a prerequisite and does not necessarily
287 imply any pain attenuation. Yet the focus on pain has been shown to increase pain
288 perception and pain-related cortical activity (33-35). Therefore, as found in the present
289 investigation, the connections from the inferior frontal cortex, the anterior cingulate cortex,
290 the frontal pole, and orbitofrontal cortex are additionally required to utilise cognitive
291 reappraisal (36,37) in order to ultimately attenuate the experience of pain (14).

292 *Analysing pain-related functional connections in the human brain.* Unlike previous studies,
293 we almost exclusively found a lower functional connectivity for trials and conditions of higher
294 pain intensity, which could be caused by differences in experimental design and analysis
295 strategies.

296 In neuroimaging, functional connectivity is considered a joint phase-locked oscillation of
297 spatially distant cortical regions. Task-based connectivity analyses predominantly utilise a
298 seed-based approach to determine the functional connectivity between a predefined seed
299 region and one or more distant brain regions; such analyses can only take into account the
300 short period during which a task is being executed. However, exact connectivity measures
301 between brain regions would require a sufficient number of samples to quantify the joint in-
302 phase increases and decreases of the BOLD response. In order to estimate a reliable
303 measure of connectivity, we applied a relatively long time window (~30s, 15 data points) for
304 inflicting pain, for executing the cognitive task, and for reliably determining the connectivity of
305 a single trial. The strong focus on extended stimulation makes the present investigation
306 difficult to compare with previous work. For instance, a study by Villemure & Bushnell (5)
307 sampled every 4s but analysed a relatively short time window of 5s painful stimulation to
308 investigate connectivity. Another study analysed a single data point (3s analysis window,
309 sampling of 3s) before nociceptive laser stimulation to predict pain intensity (8). A further
310 study used 3 data points for connectivity analyses of an experiment in which the pain

311 stimulations lasted 10s (4). A repeated stimulation at the frequency of the recording
312 (application of 5 brief laser pain stimuli every 3s sampled with a TR of 3s) makes it difficult to
313 separate the connectivity aspects from the general increase of the BOLD response (6).

314 Therefore, the different methodological approaches might have caused our findings to
315 contradict previous studies, in which high levels of pain were shown to increase cortical
316 connectivity between pain processing brain regions (4-6). Villemure & Bushnell (5) and
317 Ploner et al. (6) found a stronger connectivity in pain processing brain regions for conditions
318 that increased the intensity of pain (i.e. increased attention, more negative emotion). The
319 connectivity of the inferior frontal cortex for an emotional condition, and the connectivity of
320 the superior parietal cortex, and the entorhinal cortex for the attentional condition were found
321 to modulate cortical processes (5).

322 Other studies investigated the connectivity in the descending pain control system and
323 observed an increase of connectivity between the perigenual ACC and the PAG during a
324 pain-relieving placebo intervention (9). Given the lower signal-to-noise ratio in mid-brain
325 areas, this finding could not be replicated in any of the present conditions with the current
326 whole-brain approach and a strict correction for multiple comparisons (38). By lowering the
327 statistical threshold, we found a modulation of pain intensity-dependent functional
328 connectivity from the PAG to regions that contribute to pain processing, such as the anterior
329 ventral insula ($t > 2$), the midcingulate cortex ($t > 2.5$), and the nucleus accumbens ($t > 3$),
330 indicating a stronger connectivity for the pain condition with cognitive modulation.

331 Further studies directly investigated the functional connectivity in the brain in response to
332 different intensities of pain stimuli. Sprenger et al. (2015) found an increase of connectivity in
333 subcortical nuclei for the higher of two pain conditions. Similarly, an increased connectivity
334 has been found in response to cold pain stimulation. The authors reported a significant
335 correlation across the entire time course of the experiment between predefined regions that
336 are known to be involved in the processing of pain (39). As discussed above, our data
337 showed that the decrease of pain is predominantly related to an increase of cortical
338 connectivity in both *pain-related* regions (e.g. subregions of the insular cortex) and *task-*
339 *related* brain regions (subregions in the frontal and parietal cortex).

340 **Summary.** The present investigation resembles a clinical intervention in which a pain patient
341 would be taught to utilise cognitive strategies to attenuate pain. Here, we investigated which
342 cortical connection contributes to particularly successful trials to attenuate pain. In contrast
343 to previous research, we revealed an increased connectivity for the single attempts that

344 resulted in lower percepts of pain. This applies to the classical pain processing regions (e.g.
345 insula, cingulate cortex, and somatosensory cortices). Although we found different
346 connectivity patterns for all interventions, the general mechanism was universally valid. The
347 present findings are suggested to open a new window in the understanding of cortical
348 processes that are associated with high levels of long-lasting tonic or chronic pain. As a
349 consequence, clinical treatments that would aim to decrease cortico-cortical connections are
350 suggested to have a rather detrimental effect on pain relief in patients suffering from chronic
351 pain. Future studies would be needed to investigate the effect of cognitive interventions on
352 the intracortical connectivity in pain patients.

353 METHODS

354 Twenty two healthy human subjects (18 female/4 male) with a mean age of 27 ± 5 years (21 -
355 37 years) participated in the experiment. Two of the female subjects were excluded as a
356 result of insufficient data quality. All subjects gave written informed consent. The study was
357 approved by the Medical Sciences Interdivisional Research Ethics Committee of the
358 University of Oxford and conducted in conformity with the Declaration of Helsinki.

359 The experiment has been described in detail in our previous publication (14) and consisted
360 of four conditions (see table 1) across 4 separate blocks, where each block comprised of 12
361 trials from the same condition. In all conditions and trials the subjects received cold pain
362 stimuli on the dorsum of their left hand delivered by a thermode (Pathway II; Medoc Ltd,
363 Ramat Yishai, Israel). The subjects were prompted to rate pain intensity and pain
364 unpleasantness. A numerical and a visual analogue scale (VAS), ranged between 0 - 100 in
365 steps of 5 points, was used to assess the pain ratings. The endpoints of the scale were
366 determined as no pain (0) and the maximum pain the subjects were willing to tolerate (100).
367 Single trial ratings were recorded after each trial.

368 **Table 1: Conditions and Instructions.**

(0) pain, non-modulated	Concentrate only on the pain.
(A) attentional shift	Count backwards from 1000 (+x) by sevens.
(B) imaginal strategy	Imagine that you are in a safe and happy place that you know very well. That place has the colours you like and you hear the music you like. There are only people around that you want to have around you. You feel well and comfortable.
(C) cognitive reappraisal	Concentrate on the cool and tingling sensations in your arm and reinterpret these sensations as not painful.

369 The thermode temperature for painful stimulation for each subject was determined in an
370 extensive practise session one week prior to scanning and was individually adapted to a
371 VAS score of 50. The 40s of painful stimulation were then preceded by a rest period of 10s
372 at 38°C thermode temperature. The first 10s were not included in the analysis. The mean
373 temperature of cold pain application across subjects was 7°C with a standard deviation of
374 3.6°C . In order to avoid habituation effects, the thermode temperature during painful
375 stimulation was oscillating with $\frac{1}{8}$ Hz at $\pm 3^{\circ}\text{C}$ (40,41).

376 *Data Acquisition.* Imaging data were acquired on a 7T Siemens MRI scanner. Each volume
377 comprised 34 axial slices of 2 mm thickness and 2 × 2 mm in-plane resolution with 1mm gap
378 between slices. The repetition time (TR) was 1.96s, the echo time (TE) was 25ms (flip angle
379 90°), the field of view (FOV) was 220 × 220 mm, and the matrix size was 110 × 110 pixels. A
380 T1-weighted structural image (isotropic 1mm³ voxel) was acquired for the registration of the
381 functional images to the MNI (Montreal Neurological Institute) template. Two sequences of
382 diffusion tensor images (DTI) were recorded with L>>R and R>>L phase encoding direction.
383 64 directions were recorded with a TR of 9.3s, a TE of 63ms, and an acceleration factor of 2.
384 The length of the edge of the isotropic voxels was 1.2 mm.

385 *Image processing - preprocessing of functional connectivity data.* The data were
386 preprocessed with FSL (42). The preprocessing of the *functional data* consisted of brain
387 extraction, high-pass filtering with a frequency cutoff of 1/90 Hz, a spatial normalisation to
388 the MNI template, a correction for head motion during scanning registered to the MNI
389 template, and a spatial smoothing (6mm FWHM). The data were further semi-automatically
390 cleaned of artefacts with independent component analysis (ICA) (43,44). The number of
391 components had been set *a priori* to 200. Artefact-related components were removed from
392 the data. The design matrix for painful stimulation, including the temporal derivative, were
393 then regressed out from the data in Matlab (The Mathworks, USA).

394 *Image processing - preprocessing of structural connectivity data.* Preprocessing of DTI data
395 was performed using FSL. FSL preprocessing included (i) correcting susceptibility induced
396 distortions (“topup”), (ii) skull stripping (“bet”), (iii) corrections for eddy currents and head
397 motion (“eddy”), and (iiii) determining the strength of structural connectivity between cortical
398 regions (“bedpostx” and “probtrackx”) defined by the Glasser atlas.

399 *Image processing - extraction of regions of interest data.* The time series of functional
400 volumes were converted to MNI space and subsequently projected to surface space by
401 using the “Connectome Workbench” package. We used a template that allowed to project
402 from 3D standard MNI space to 2D surface space. Regions of interest (ROIs) were defined
403 by subdividing the cortical surface into 180 regions per hemisphere (13). Six further regions
404 that are important for the processing of pain, such as the PAG, the thalamus and the
405 amygdala, were also included. Latter ROIs were based on the Oxford Atlas, implemented in
406 FSL.

407 *Image processing - computation of single trial functional connectivity scores.* The time
408 courses for all voxels of cortical activity for a specific region of the Glasser Atlas, e.g. the
409 middle insula, were extracted. We computed principal component analyses (PCA) separately
410 for each ROI and subject and selected the first component (Matlab, The MathWorks, Inc.,
411 USA). The plateau phase of the last ~30s of painful stimulation (15 data points) has been
412 extracted from each region and trial for each subject and condition. Outliers were removed
413 from the data. These 15 data points determined the connectivity for a brain region for a given
414 trial. Correlation coefficients were computed for each trial and for each ROI with the
415 remaining 370 ROIs. The single trial correlation coefficients were Fisher Z-transformed and
416 fed into group-level statistical analysis.

417 *Image processing - structural connectivity data.* DTI data were also analysed in FSL. The
418 processing steps included a median filter, a correction for susceptibility distortions, and fibre
419 tracking from the same aforementioned brain regions (Glasser parcellation - see above).

420 *Statistical modelling:* The statistical analysis for the connectivity between cortical regions has
421 been performed in Matlab. To explore the relationship of fluctuating cortical connectivity and
422 the variable pain experience, we computed linear mixed effects models (LMEs) that related
423 the single trial correlation coefficients between two brain regions to the pain intensity scores
424 (14,45). Each condition in the model included the data for the respective intervention plus
425 the trials of the unmodulated pain condition (for more details regarding the statistical
426 analyses see (14). The model is expressed in Wilkinson notation
427 <https://www.mathworks.com/help/stats/wilkinson-notation.html>). Statistical thresholds were
428 determined by PALM software (38).

429
$$\text{painrating} \sim \text{func_conn} + (1 | \text{subject})$$

430 We further analysed whether individual differences in functional connectivity could be
431 explained by individual structural characteristics of the brain. In other words, we analysed
432 whether the functional connectivity that leads to a single subject's successful pain
433 attenuation is facilitated by that subject's high number of fibre tracts. In a similar vein, a poor
434 functional connectivity that is not able to contribute to pain attenuation might be caused by a
435 low number of fibre tracts.

436
$$\text{painrating} \sim \text{func_conn}:\text{struc_conn} + (1 | \text{subject})$$

437 We considered only functional connections with a t-value >2 as potentially modulated by
438 structural connections.

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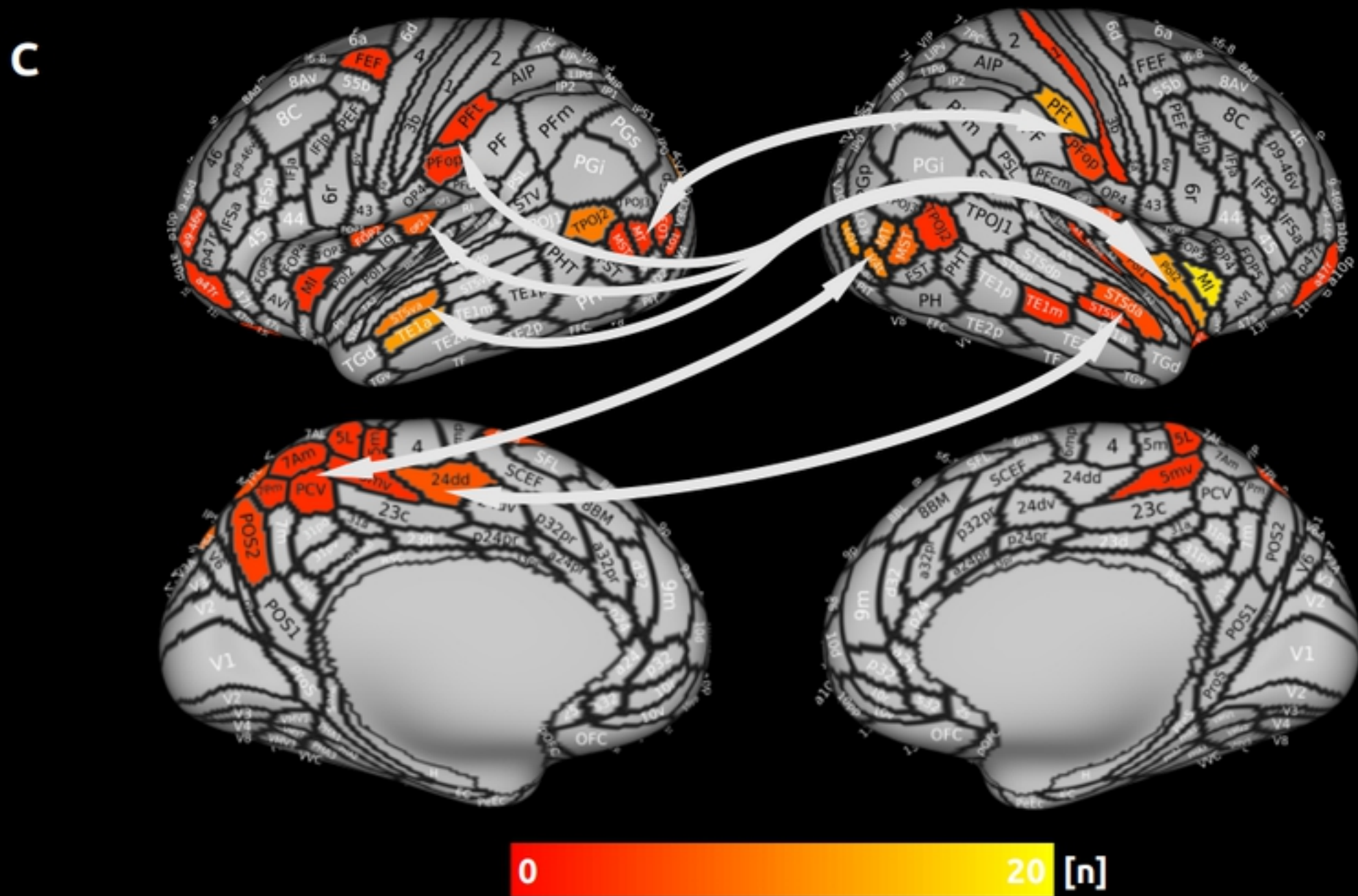
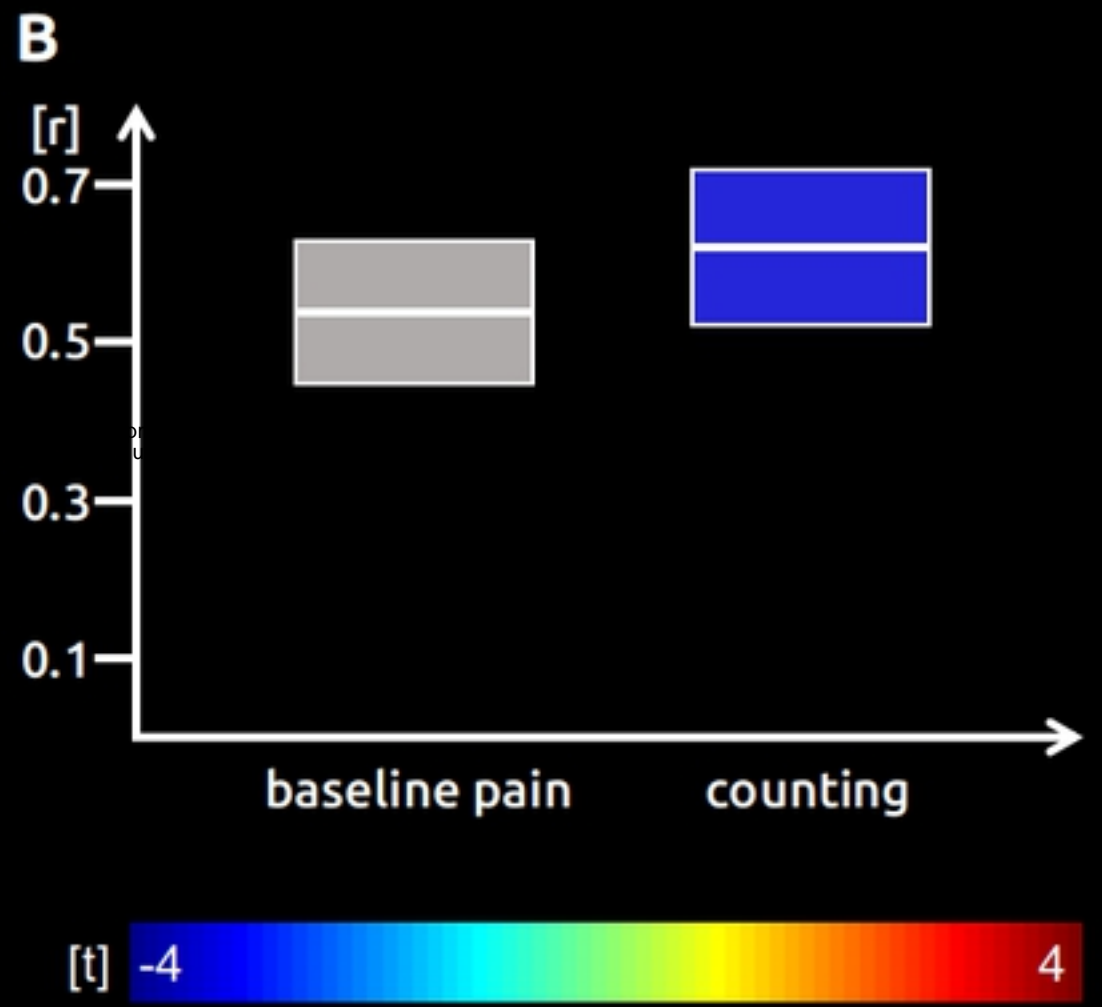
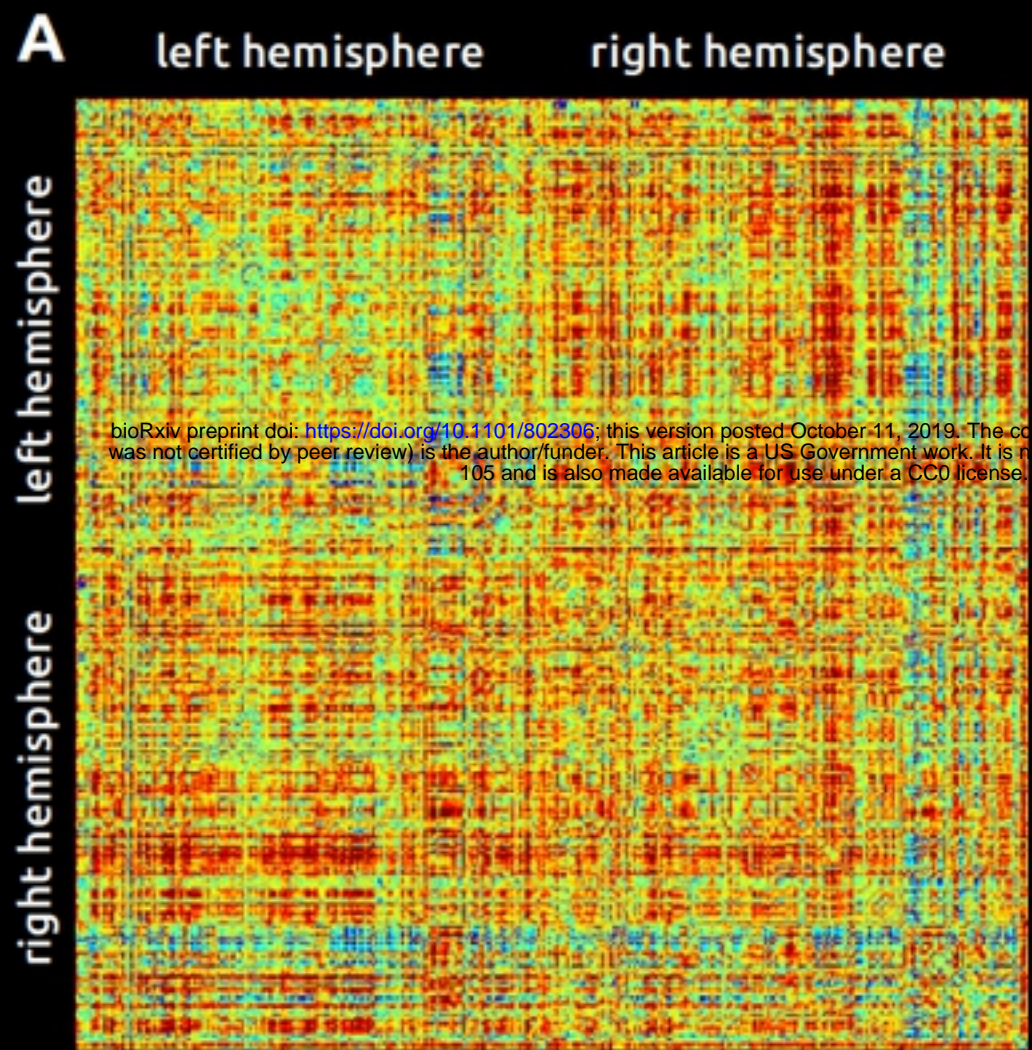


Figure 1

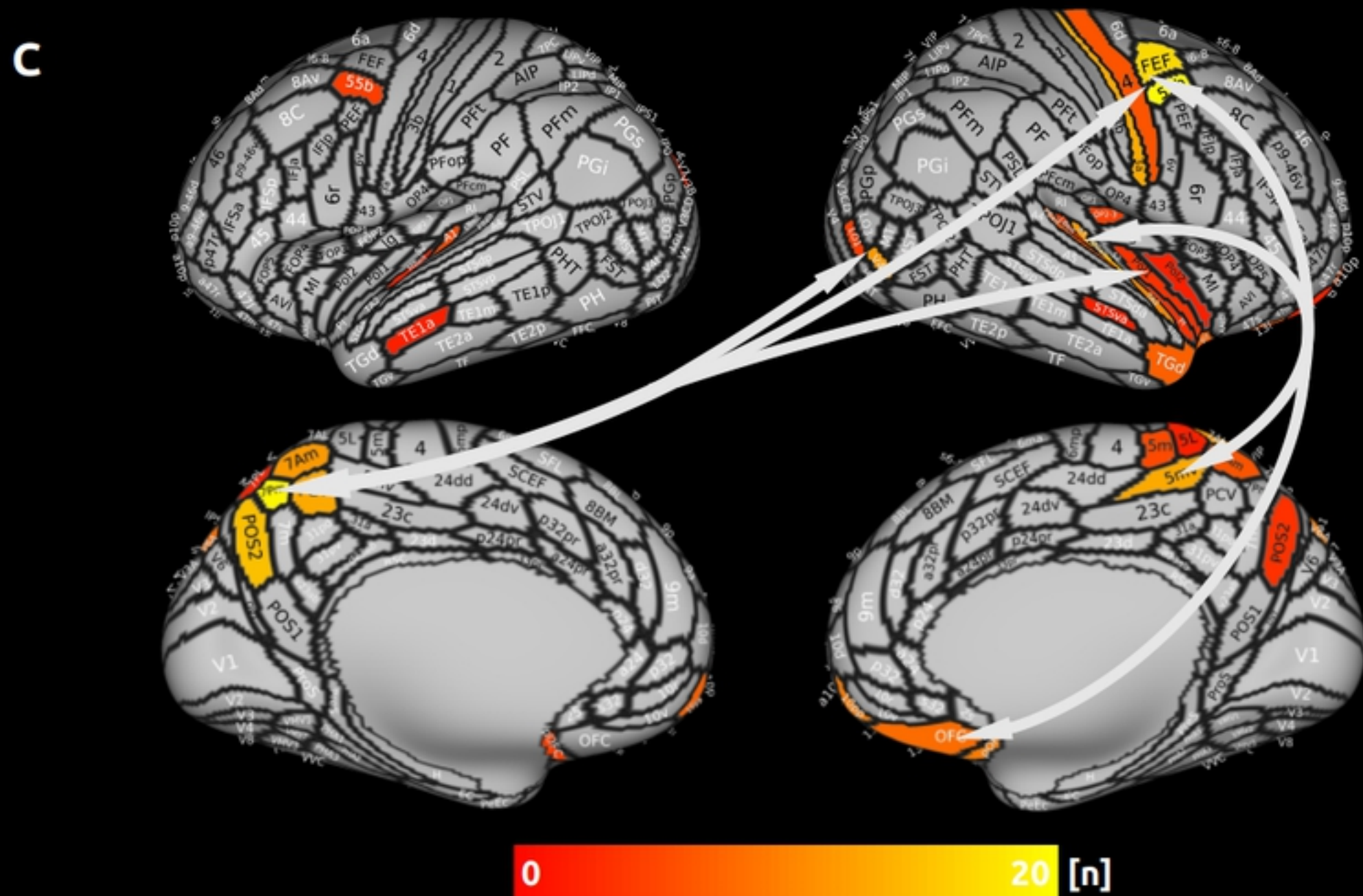
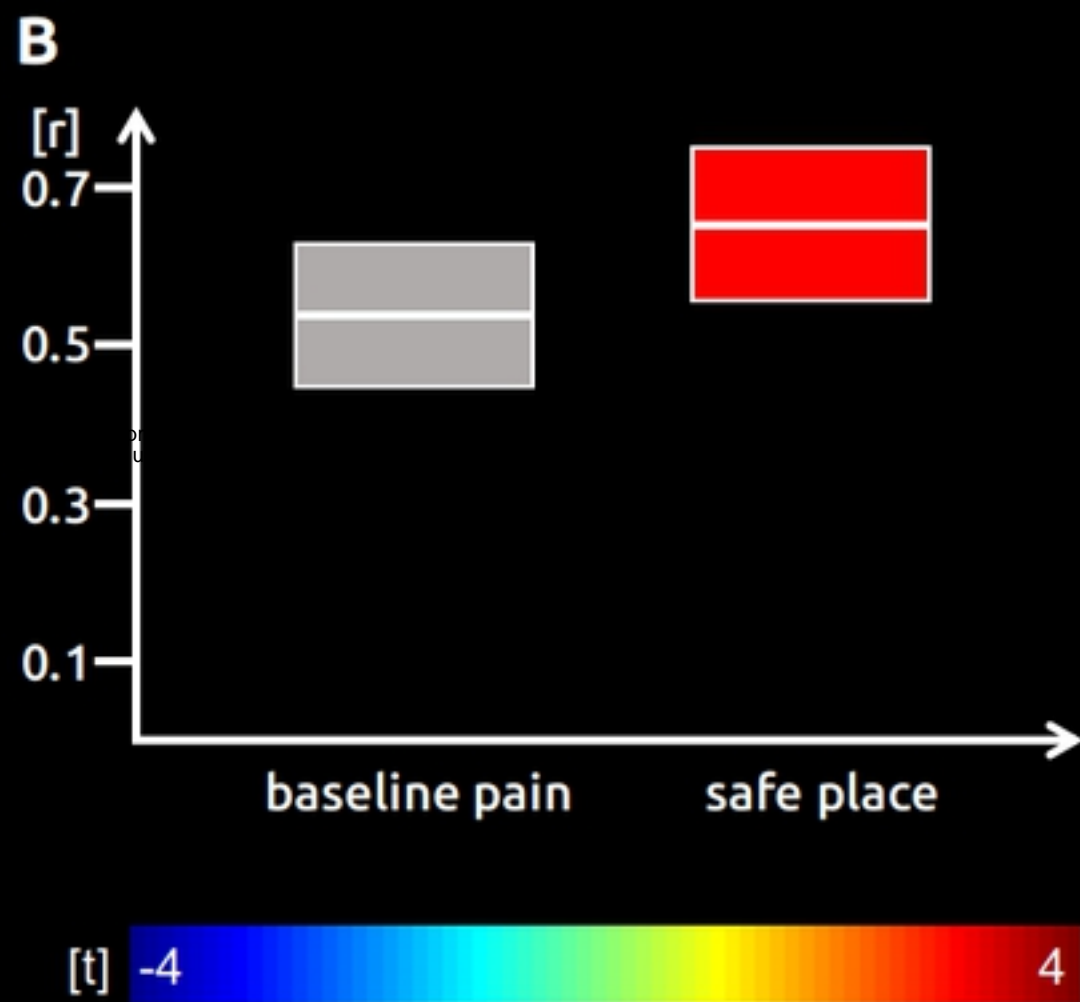
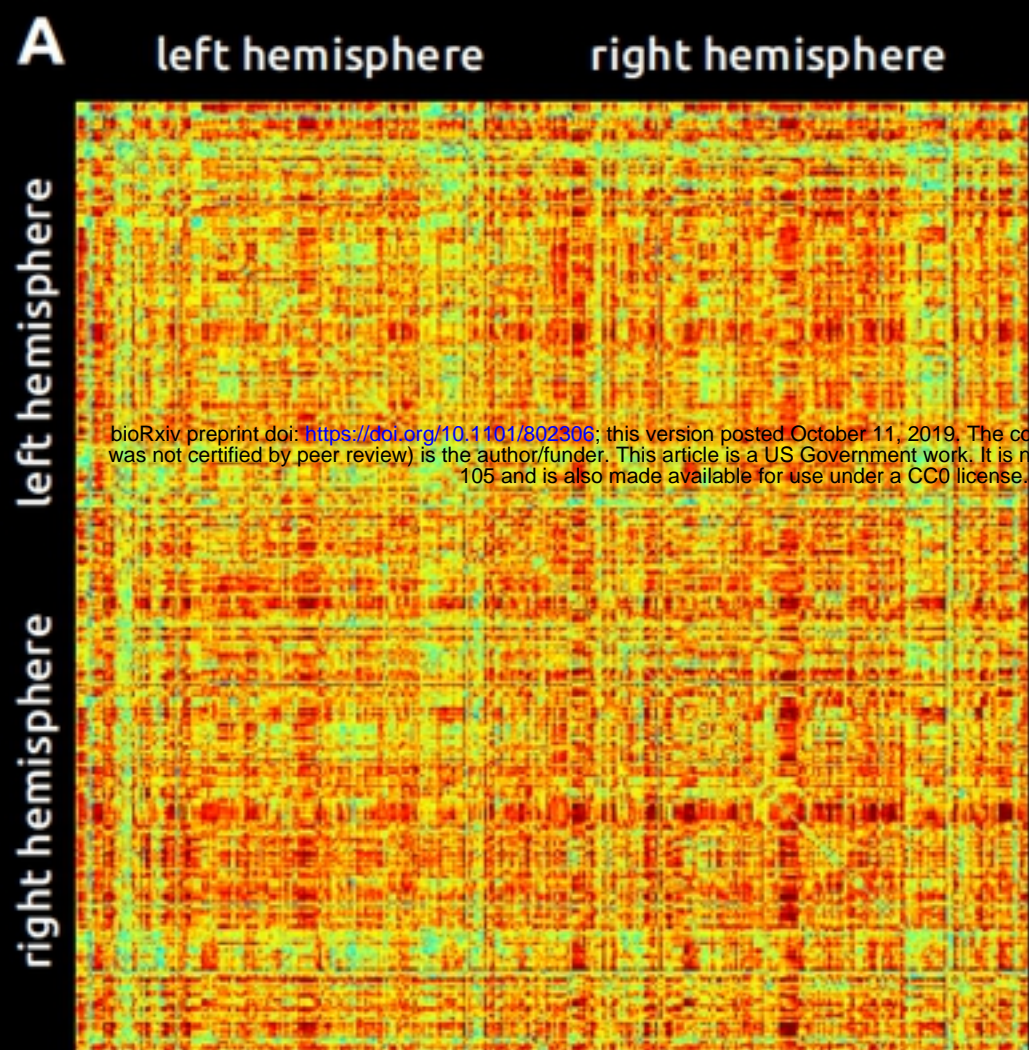


Figure 2

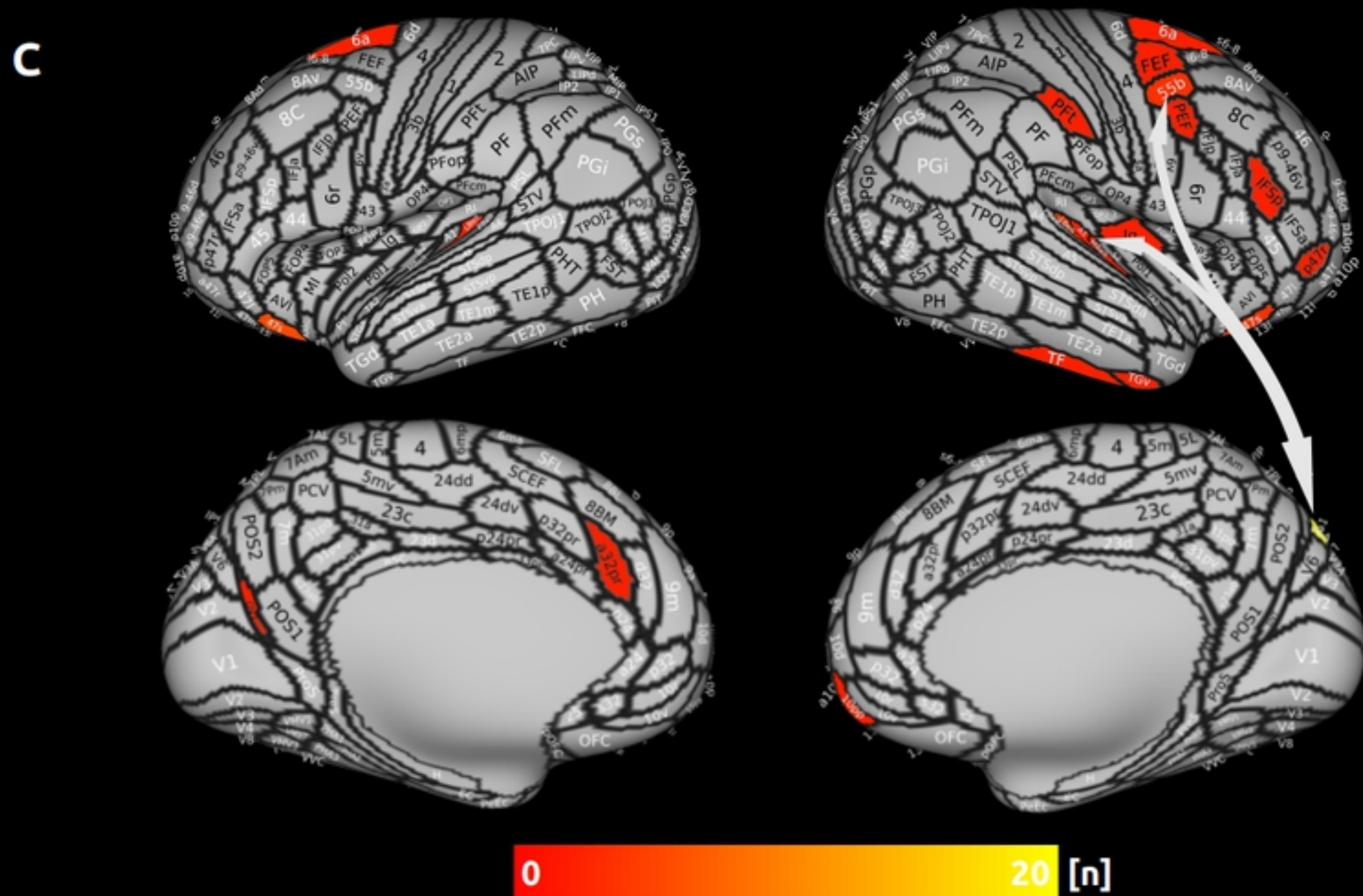
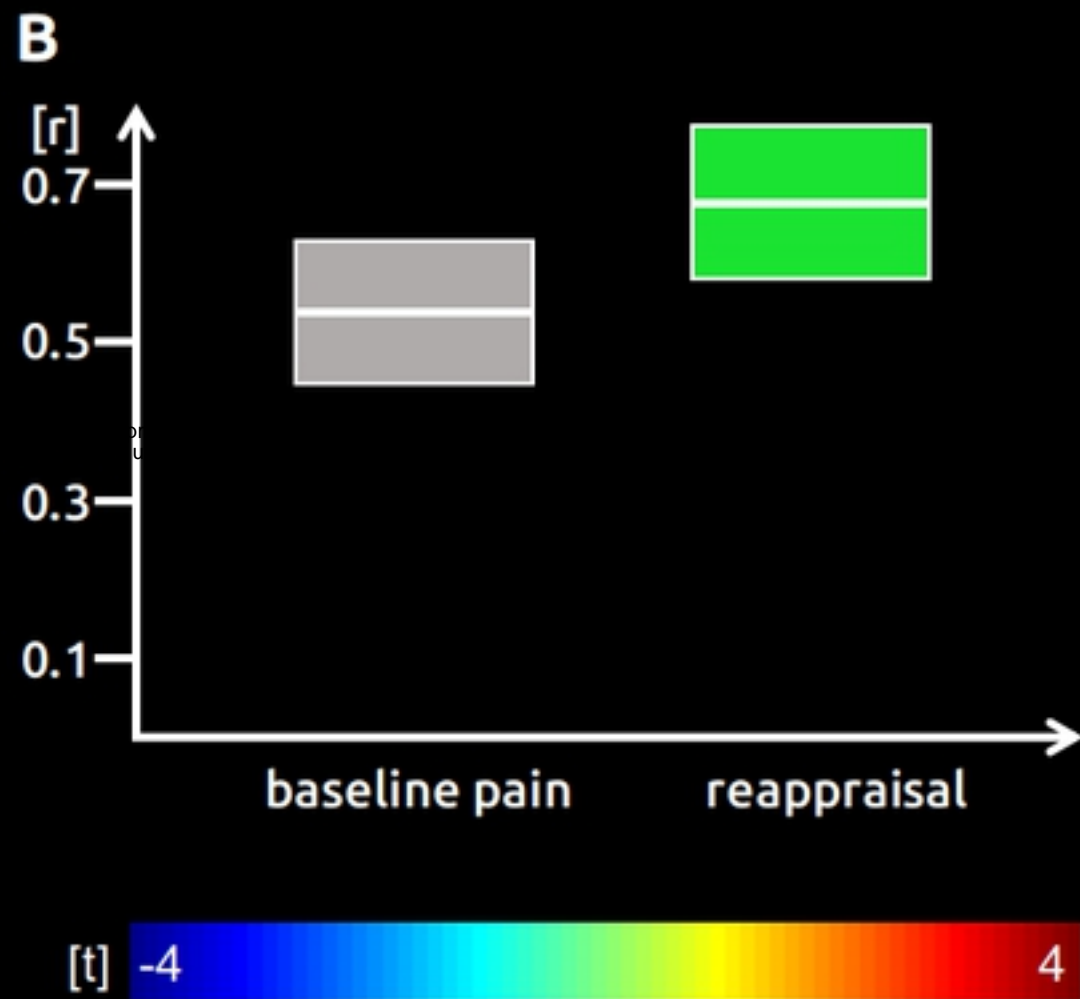
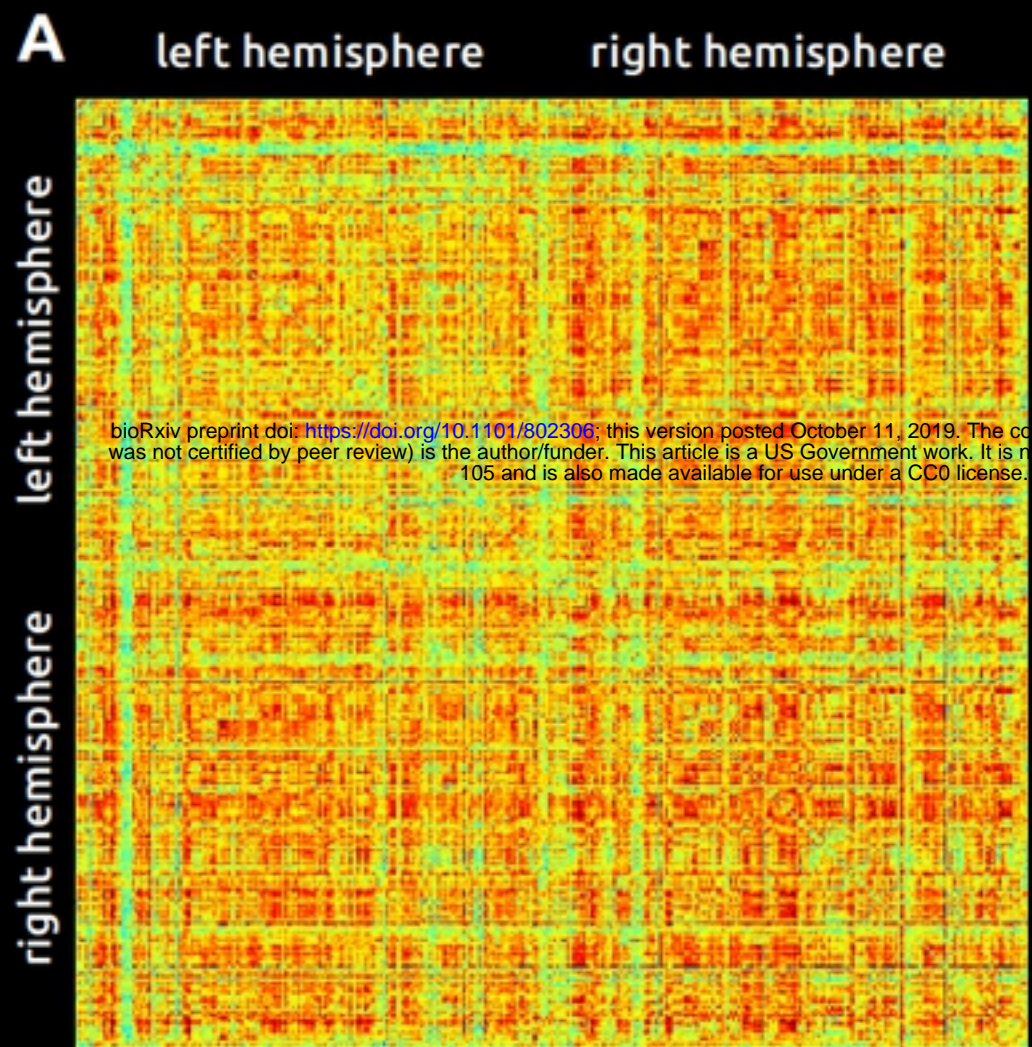


Figure 3