

# 1 Functional MRI brain state 2 occupancy in the presence of 3 cerebral small vessel disease – 4 pre-registration for a replication 5 analysis of the Hamburg City Health 6 Study

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Preprocessed data will be  
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## 11 Abstract

12 **Objective:** To replicate recent findings about the association between the extent of  
13 cerebral small vessel disease (cSVD), functional brain network dedifferentiation and  
14 cognitive impairment.

15 **Methods:** We will analyze demographic, imaging and behavioral data from the  
16 prospective population-based Hamburg City Health Study. Using a fully prespecified  
17 analysis pipeline, we will estimate discrete brain states from structural and resting-state  
18 functional magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). In a multiverse analysis we will vary brain  
19 parcellations and functional MRI confound regression strategies. Severity of cSVD will  
20 be operationalised as the volume of white matter hyperintensities of presumed  
21 vascular origin. Processing speed and executive dysfunction are quantified by the trail  
22 making test (TMT).

23 **Hypotheses:** We hypothesize a) that greater volume of supratentorial white matter

hyperintensities is associated with less time spent in functional MRI-derived brain states of high fractional occupancy; and b) that less time spent in these high-occupancy brain states is associated with longer time to completion in part B of the TMT.

## Introduction

Cerebral small vessel disease (cSVD) is an arteriopathy of the brain, associated with age and common cardiovascular risk factors (Wardlaw, C. Smith, and Dichgans, 2013). cSVD predisposes to ischemic, in particular lacunar, stroke and may lead to cognitive impairment and dementia (Cannistraro et al., 2019). Neuroimaging findings in cSVD reflect its underlying pathology (Wardlaw, Valdés Hernández, and Muñoz-Maniega, 2015) and include white matter hyperintensities (WMH) and lacunes of presumed vascular origin, small subcortical infarcts and microbleeds, enlarged perivascular spaces as well as brain atrophy (Wardlaw, E. E. Smith, et al., 2013). However, the extent of visible cSVD features on magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is an imperfect predictor of the severity of clinical sequelae (Das et al., 2019), and our understanding of the causal mechanisms linking cSVD-associated brain damage to clinical deficits remains limited (Bos et al., 2018).

Recent efforts have concentrated on exploiting network aspects of the structural (Tuladhar, Dijk, et al., 2016; Tuladhar, Tay, et al., 2020; Lawrence, Zeestraten, et al., 2018) and functional (Dey et al., 2016; Schulz et al., 2021) organization of the brain to understand the relation between cSVD and clinical deficits in cognition and other domains reliant on distributed processing. Reduced structural network efficiency has repeatedly been described as a causal factor in the development of cognitive impairment, in particular executive dysfunction and reduced processing speed, in cSVD (Lawrence, Chung, et al., 2014; Shen et al., 2020; Reijmer et al., 2016; Prins et al., 2005). Findings with respect to functional connectivity (FC), on the other hand, are more heterogeneous than their SC counterparts, perhaps because FC measurements are prone to be affected by hemodynamic factors and noise, resulting in relatively low reliability, especially with resting-state scans of short duration (Laumann, Gordon, et al., 2015). This problem is exacerbated in the presence of cSVD and made worse by the arbitrary processing choices (Lawrence, Tozer, et al., 2018; Gesierich et al., 2020).

As a promising new avenue, time-varying, or dynamic, functional connectivity approaches have more recently been explored in patients with subcortical ischemic vascular disease

56 (Yin et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2021). While the study of dynamic FC measures may not solve  
57 the problem of limited reliability, especially in small populations or subjects with exten-  
58 sive structural brain changes, it adds another – temporal – dimension to the study of  
59 functional brain organisation, which is otherwise overlooked. Importantly, FC dynamics  
60 do not only reflect moment-to-moment fluctuations in cognitive processes but are also  
61 related to brain plasticity and homeostasis (Laumann and Snyder, 2021; Laumann, Sny-  
62 der, et al., 2017), which may be impaired in cSVD.

63 In the present paper, we aim to replicate and extend the main results of (Schlemm et  
64 al., 2022); in this recent study, the authors analyzed MR imaging and clinical data from the  
65 prospective Hamburg City Health Study (HCHS, (Jagodzinski et al., 2020)) using a coacti-  
66 vation pattern approach to define discrete brain states, and found associations between  
67 the WMH load, time spent in high-occupancy brain states characterized by activation or  
68 suppression of the default mode network (DMN) and cognitive impairment. Specifically,  
69 every 4.7-fold increase in WMH volume was associated with a 0.95-fold reduction of  
70 the odds of occupying a DMN-related brain state; every 2.5 seconds (i.e., one repetition  
71 time) not spent in one of those states was associated with a 1.06-fold increase of TMT-B  
72 completion times.

73 The fractional occupancy of a functional MRI-derived discrete brain state is a subject-  
74 specific measure of brain dynamics defined as the proportion of BOLD volumes assigned  
75 to that state relative to all BOLD volumes acquired during a resting-state scan.

76 Our primary hypothesis is that the volume of supratentorial white matter hyperinten-  
77 sities is associated with the fractional occupancy of DMN-related brain states in a middle-  
78 aged to elderly population mildly affected by cSVD. Our ~~second~~-secondary hypothesis is  
79 that this fractional occupancy is associated with executive dysfunction and reduced pro-  
80 cessing speed, measured as the time to complete part B of the trail making test (TMT).

81 Both hypotheses will be tested in an independent subsample of the HCHS study popu-  
82 lation using the same imaging protocols, examination procedures and analysis pipelines  
83 as in (Schlemm et al., 2022). The robustness of associations will be explored in a multi-  
84 verse approach by varying key steps in the analysis pipeline.

## 85 Methods

Question	Hypothesis	Sampling plan	Analysis plan	Rationale for the test	Interpretation given different outcomes	Theory that could be shown wrong by the outcome
Is severity of cerebral small disease, quantified by the volume of supratentorial white matter hyperintensities of presumed vascular origin (WMH), associated with time spent in high-occupancy brain states, defined by resting-state functional MRI?	(Primary) Higher WMH volume is associated with lower average occupancy of the two highest-occupancy brain states.	Available subjects with clinical and imaging data from the the HCHS (Jagodzinski et al., 2020)	Standardized pre-processing of structural and functional MRI data • automatic quantification of WMH • co-activation pattern analysis • multivariable generalised regression analyses	Tradition	$P < 0.05 \rightarrow$ rejection of the null hypothesis of no association between cSVD and fractional occupancy; $P > 0.05 \rightarrow$ insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis	Functional brain dynamics are not related to subcortical ischemic vascular disease.
Is time spent in high-occupancy brain states associated with cognitive impairment, measured as the time to complete part B of the trail making test (TMT)?	(Secondary) Lower average occupancy of the two highest-occupancy brain states is associated with longer TMT-B time.	as above	as above	as above	$P < 0.05 \rightarrow$ rejection of the null hypothesis of no association between fractional occupancy and cognitive impairment; $P > 0.05 \rightarrow$ insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis	Cognitive function is not related to MRI-derived functional brain dynamics.

**Table 1.** Study Design Template

## 86 Study population

87 The paper will analyze data from the Hamburg City Health Study (HCHS), which is an  
88 ongoing prospective, population-based cohort study aiming to recruit a cross-sectional  
89 sample of 45 000 adult participants from the city of Hamburg, Germany (Jagodzinski et al.,  
90 2020). From the first 10 000 participants of the HCHS we will aim to include those who  
91 were documented to have received brain imaging (n=2652) and exclude those who were  
92 analyzed in our previous report (Schlemm et al., 2022) (n=988), for an expected sample  
93 size of approximately 1500 participants. The ethical review board of the Landesärztekam-  
94 mer Hamburg (State of Hamburg Chamber of Medical Practitioners) approved the HCHS  
95 (PV5131), all participants provided written informed consent.

## 96 Demographic and clinical characterization

97 From the study database we will extract participants' age at the time of inclusion in years,  
98 their sex and the number of years spent in education. During the visit at the study cen-  
99 ter, participants undergo cognitive assessment using standardized tests. We will extract  
100 from the database their performance scores in the Trail Making Test part B, measured  
101 in seconds, as an operationalization of executive function and psychomotor processing  
102 speed (Tombaugh, 2004; Arbuthnott and Frank, 2000). For descriptive purposes, we will  
103 also extract data on past medical history and report the proportion of participants with  
104 a previous diagnosis of any dementia.

## MRI acquisition and preprocessing

The magnetic resonance imaging protocol for the HCHS includes structural and resting-state functional sequences. The acquisition parameters on a 3 T Siemens Skyra MRI scanner (Siemens, Erlangen, Germany) have been reported before (Petersen et al., 2020; Frey et al., 2021) and are given as follows:

For  $T_1$ -weighted anatomical images, a 3D rapid acquisition gradient-echo sequence (MPRAGE) was used with the following sequence parameters: repetition time  $TR = 2500$  ms, echo time  $TE = 2.12$  ms, 256 axial slices, slice thickness  $ST = 0.94$  mm, and in-plane resolution  $IPR = (0.83 \times 0.83)$  mm<sup>2</sup>.

$T_2$ -weighted fluid attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR) images were acquired with the following sequence parameters:  $TR = 4700$  ms,  $TE = 392$  ms, 192 axial slices,  $ST = 0.9$  mm,  $IPR = (0.75 \times 0.75)$  mm<sup>2</sup>.

125 resting state functional MRI volumes were acquired ( $TR = 2500$  ms;  $TE = 25$  ms; flip angle =  $90^\circ$ ; slices = 49;  $ST = 3$  mm; slice gap = 0 mm;  $IPR = (2.66 \times 2.66)$  mm<sup>2</sup>). Subjects were asked to keep their eyes open and to think of nothing.

We will verify the presence and voxel-dimensions of expected MRI data for each participant and exclude those for whom at least one of  $T_1$ -weighted, FLAIR and resting-state MRI is missing. We will also exclude participants with a neuroradiologically confirmed space-occupying intra-axial lesion. To ensure reproducibility, no visual quality assessment on raw images will be performed.

For the remaining participants, structural and resting-state functional MRI data will be preprocessed using FreeSurfer v6.0 (<https://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/>), and fmriPrep v20.2.6 (Esteban et al., 2019), using default parameters. Participants will be excluded if automated processing using at least one of these packages fails.

## Quantification of WMH load

For our primary analysis, the extent of ischemic white matter disease will be operationalized as the total volume of supratentorial WMHs obtained from automated segmentation using a combination of anatomical priors, BIANCA (Griffanti, Zamboni, et al., 2016) and LOCATE (Sundaresan et al., 2019), post-processed with a minimum cluster size of 30 voxels, as described in (Schlemm et al., 2022). In an exploratory analysis, we partition voxels identified as WMH into deep and periventricular components according to their distance to the ventricular system (cut-off 10 mm, (Griffanti, Jenkinson, et al., 2018))

## Brain state estimation

Output from fMRIPrep will be post-processed using xcpEngine v1.2.1 to obtain de-confounded spatially averaged BOLD time series (Circic, Wolf, et al., 2017). For the primary analysis we will use the 36p regression strategy and the Schaefer-400 parcellation (Schaefer et al., 2018), as in (Schlemm et al., 2022).

Different atlases and confound regression strategies, as implemented in xcpEngine, will be included in the exploratory multiverse analysis.

Co-activation pattern (CAP) analysis will be performed by first aggregating parcellated, de-confounded BOLD signals into a  $(n_{\text{parcels}} \times \sum_i n_{\text{time points},i})$  feature matrix, where  $n_{\text{time points},i}$  denotes the number of retained volumes for subject  $i$  after confound regression. Clustering will be performed using the  $k$ -means algorithm ( $k = 5$ ) with distance measure given by 1 minus the sample Pearson correlation between points, as implemented in Matlab R2021a. We will estimate subject- and state-specific fractional occupancies, which are defined as the proportion of BOLD volumes assigned to each brain state (Vidaurre et al., 2018). The two states with the highest average occupancy will be identified as the basis for further analysis.

## Statistical analysis

For demographic (age, sex, years of education) and clinical (TMT-B) variables the number of missing records will be reported. For non-missing values, we will provide descriptive summary statistics using median and interquartile range. The proportion of men and women in the sample will be reported. ~~Regression~~ Since we expect, based on our pilot data (Schlemm et al., 2022), that the proportion of missing data will be small, regression modelling will be carried out as a complete-case analysis.

As a first outcome-neutral quality check of the implementation of the MRI processing pipeline, brain state estimation and co-activation pattern analysis, we will compare fractional occupancies between brain states. We expect that the average fractional occupancy in two high-occupancy states is higher than the average fractional occupancy in the other three states. Point estimates and 95% confidence intervals will be presented for the difference in average fractional occupancy to check this assertion.

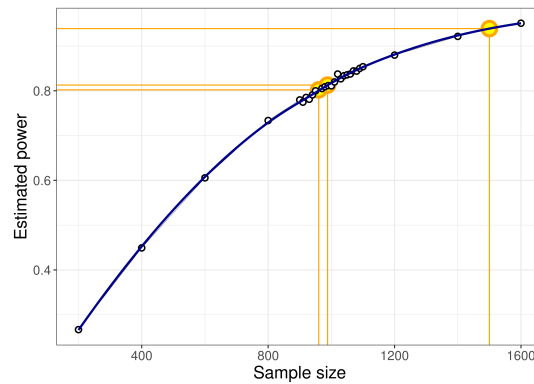
For further analyses, non-zero WMH volumes will be subjected to a logarithmic transformation. Zero values will retain their value zero; to compensate, all models will include a binary indicator for zero WMH volume if at least one non-zero value is present.

169 To assess the primary hypothesis of a negative association between the extent of is-  
170 chemic white matter disease and time spent in high-occupancy brain states, we will per-  
171 form a fixed-dispersion beta-regression to model the logit of the conditional expectation  
172 of the average fractional occupancy of two high-occupancy states as an affine function  
173 of the logarithmized WMH load. Age and sex will be included as covariates. The strength  
174 of the association will be quantified as an odds ratio per interquartile ratio of the WMH  
175 burden distribution and accompanied by a 95% confidence interval. Significance testing  
176 of the null hypothesis of no association will be conducted at the conventional significance  
177 level of 0.05. Estimation and testing will be carried out using the 'betareg' package v3.1.4  
178 in R v4.2.1.

179 To assess the secondary hypothesis of an association between time spent in high-  
180 occupancy brain states and executive dysfunction, we will perform a generalized linear  
181 regression with a Gamma response distribution to model the logarithm of the condi-  
182 tional expected completion time in part B of the TMT as an affine function of the average  
183 fractional occupancy of two high-occupancy states. Age, sex, years of education and log-  
184 arithmized WMH load will be included as covariates. The strength of the association will  
185 be quantified as a multiplicative factor per percentage point and accompanied by a 95%  
186 confidence interval. Significance testing of the null hypothesis of no association will be  
187 conducted at the conventional significance level of 0.05. Estimation and testing will be  
188 carried out using the glm function included in the 'stats' package from R v4.2.1.

189 Sample size calculation is based on an effect size on the odds ratio scale of 0.95, corre-  
190 sponding to an absolute difference in the probability of occupying a DMN-related brain  
191 state between the first and third WMH-load quartile of 1.3 percentage points, and be-  
192 tween the 5% and 95% percentile of 3.1 percentage points. Approximating half the dif-  
193 ference in fractional occupancy of DMN-related states between different task demands  
194 (rest vs n-back) in healthy subjects, which was estimated to lie between 6 and 7 percent-  
195 age points (Cornblath et al., 2020), this value represent a plausible choice for the smallest  
196 effect size of theoretical and practical interest. It also equals the effect size estimated  
197 based on the data presented in (Schlemm et al., 2022).

198 We used simple bootstrapping to create 10 000 hypothetical datasets of size 200, 400,  
199 600, 800, 900, 910, ..., 1100, 1200, 1400, 1500, 1600. Each dataset was subjected to the esti-  
200 mation procedure described above. For each sample size, the proportion of datasets in  
201 which the primary null hypothesis of no association between fractional occupancy and



**Figure 1.** Estimated power for different sample sizes is obtained as the proportion of synthetic data sets in which the null hypothesis of no association between WMH volume and time spent in high-occupancy brain states can be rejected at the  $\alpha = 0.05$  significance level. Proportions are based on a total of 10 000 synthetic data sets obtained by bootstrapping the data presented in (Schlemm et al., 2022). Highlighted in orange are the smallest sample size ensuring a power of at least 80 % ( $n = 960$ ), the sample size of the pilot data ( $n = 988$ , post-hoc power 81.3 %), and the expected sample size for this replication study ( $n = 1500$ , a-priori power 93.9 %).

WMH load could be rejected at  $\alpha = 0.05$  was computed and is recorded as a power curve in Figure 1.

It is seen that a sample size of 960 would allow replication of the reported effect with a power of 80.2 %. We anticipate a sample size of 1500, which yields a power of 93.9 %.

## Multiverse analysis

Both in (Schlemm et al., 2022) and for our primary replication analysis we made certain analytical choices in the operationalization of brain states and ischemic white matter disease, namely the use of the 36p confound regression strategy, the Schaefer-400 parcellation and a BIANCA/LOCATE-based WMH segmentation algorithm. The robustness of the association between WMH burden and time spent in high-occupancy states with regard to other choices will be explored in a multiverse analysis (Steenen et al., 2016). Specifically, in an exploratory analysis, we will estimate brain states from BOLD time series processed according to a variety of established confound regression strategies and aggregated over different cortical brain parcellations (Table 2, Ciric, Rosen, et al., 2018; Ciric, Wolf, et al., 2017). Extent of cSVD will additionally be quantified by the volume of deep and periventricular white matter hyperintensities.

For each combination of analytical choice of confound regression strategy, parcellation and subdivision of white matter lesion load ( $9 \times 9 \times 3 = 243$  scenarios in total) we will quantify the association between WMH load and average time spent in high-occupancy brain states using odds ratio and 95 % confidence intervals as described above.



Name of the atlas	#parcels	Reference	Design	Reference
Desikan-Killiany	86	Desikan et al., 2006	24p	Friston et al., 1996
AAL	116	Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002	24p + GSR	Macey et al., 2004
Harvard-Oxford	112	Makris et al., 2006	36p	Satterthwaite et al., 2013
glasser360	360	Glasser et al., 2016	36p + spike regression	Cox, 1996
gordon333	333	Gordon et al., 2016	36p + despiking	Satterthwaite et al., 2013
power264	264	Power, Cohen, et al., 2011	36p + scrubbing	Power, Mitra, et al., 2014
schaefer{N}	100	Schaefer et al., 2018	aCompCor	Muschelli et al., 2014
	200		tCompCor	Behzadi et al., 2007
	400		AROMA	Pruim et al., 2015

AAL: Automatic Anatomical Labelling

(a) Parcellations

GSR: Global signal regression, AROMA: Automatic Removal of Motion Artifacts

(b) Confound regression strategies, adapted from (Ciric, Wolf, et al., 2017)

**Table 2.** Multiverse analysis, implemented using xcpEngine (Ciric, Rosen, et al., 2018)

No hypothesis testing and will be carried out in these multiverse analyses. They rather serve to inform about the robustness of the outcome of the test of the primary hypothesis. Any substantial conclusions about the association between severity of cerebral small pathology and time spent in high-occupancy brain states, as stated in the Scientific Question in Table 1, will be drawn from the primary analysis using pre-specified methodological choices.

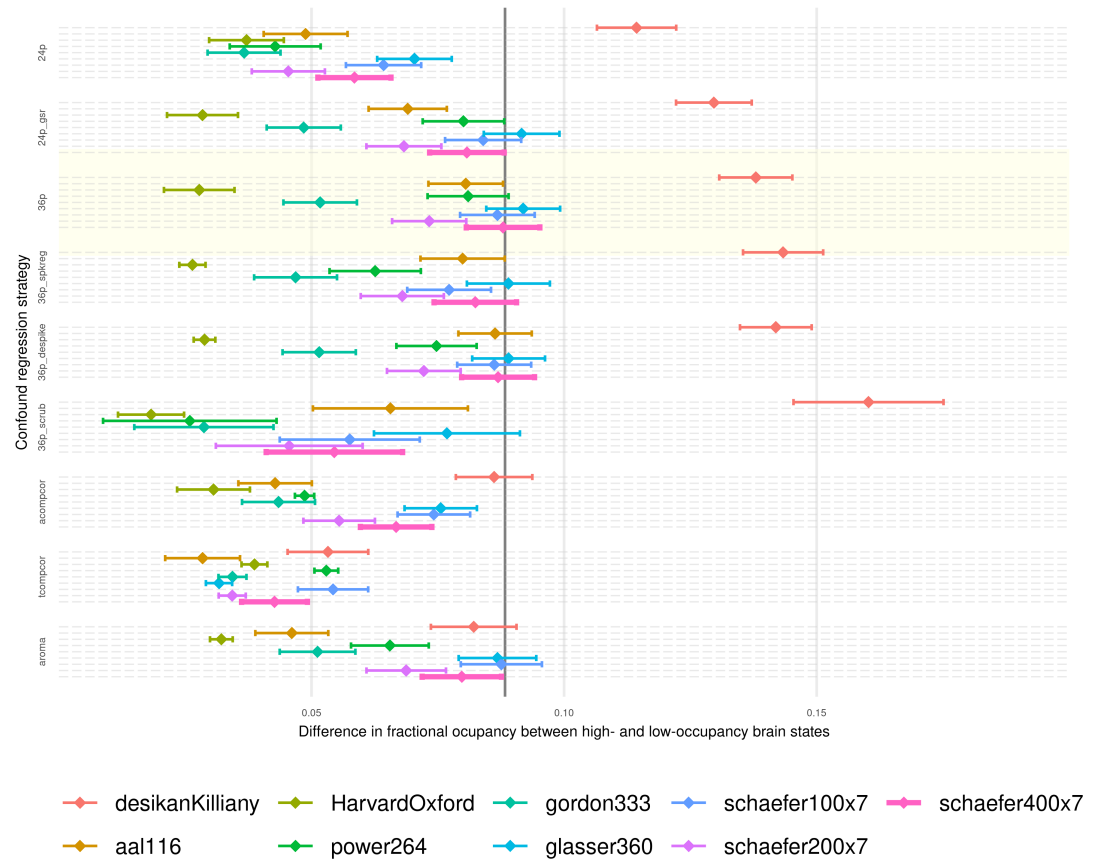
## Further exploratory analysis

In previous work, two high-occupancy brain states were related to the default-mode network (Cornblath et al., 2020). We will further explore this relation by computing, for each individual brain state, the cosine similarity of the positive and negative activations of the cluster's centroid with a set of a-priori defined functional 'communities' or networks (Schaefer et al., 2018; Yeo et al., 2011). Results will be thus visualized as spider plots for the Schaefer, Gordon and Power atlases.

In further exploratory analyses we plan to describe the associations between brain state dynamics and other measures of cognitive ability, such as memory and language.

## Code and pilot data

Summary data from the first 1000 imaging data points of the HCHS have been published with (Schlemm et al., 2022) and form the basis for the hypotheses tested in this replication study. We have implemented our prespecified analysis pipeline described above in R and Matlab, and applied it to this previous sample. Data, code and results have been stored on GitHub ([https://github.com/csi-hamburg/HCHS\\_brain\\_states\\_RR](https://github.com/csi-hamburg/HCHS_brain_states_RR)) and preserved on Zenodo.

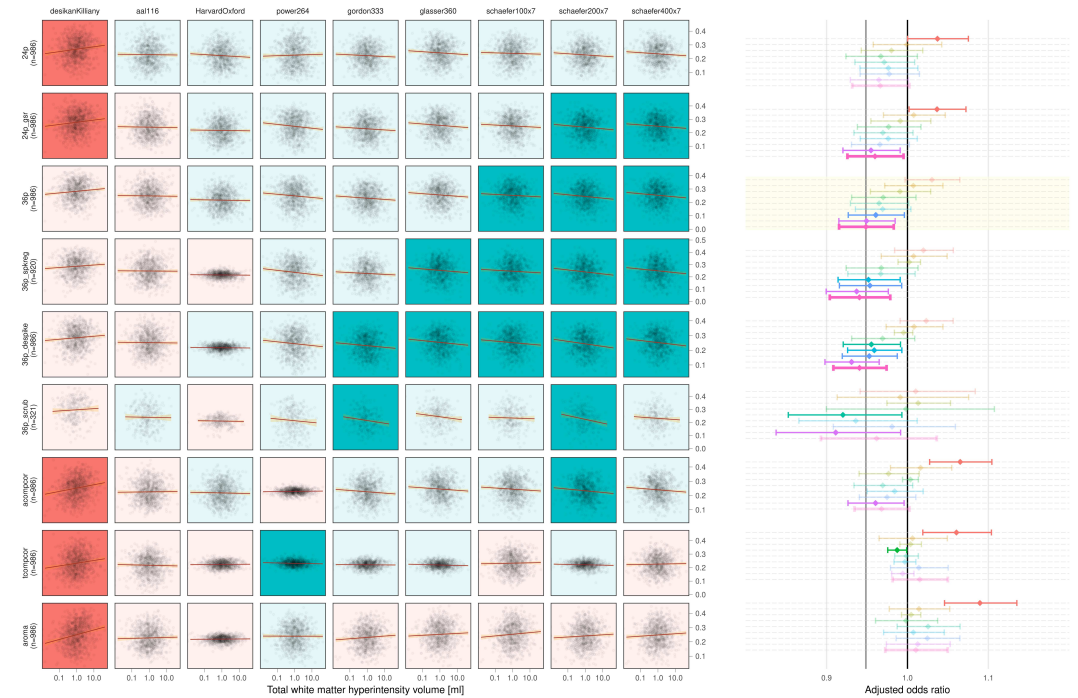


**Figure 2.** Point estimates (dots) and 95 % confidence intervals (line segments) for the mean difference in fractional occupancy between high- and low occupancy states are shown for different confound regression strategies (groups along the vertical axis) and brain parcellations (color). The difference in FO for a particular choice of regression strategy and brain parcellation is nominally statistically significantly different from zero at a significance level of 5% if the corresponding interval does not contain zero. Hence, the FO difference is significant for *all* processing choices, reflecting the separation between high- and low-occupancy states. The primary choices (*36p* and *schaefer400*) are highlighted by a yellow box and thick pink line, respectively. The effect size reported in (Schlemm et al., 2022) is indicated by a vertical line at 0.08830623.

Thus re-analysing data from 988 subjects, the separation between two high-occupancy and three low-occupancy brain states could be reproduced for all combinations of brain parcellation and confound regression strategies (Figure 2).

In a multiverse analysis, the main finding was somewhat robust with respect to these choices: a statistically significant negative association between WMH load and time spent in high-occupancy states was observed in 18/81 scenarios, with 5/81 statistically significant positive associations occurring with the Desikan–Killiany parcellation only (Figure 3).

The secondary finding of an association between greater TMT-B times and lower fractional occupancy was similarly robust with 12/81 statistically significant negative and no




**Figure 3.** On the left, scatter plots of average fractional occupancies in high-occupancy states against WMH volume on a logarithmic scale (base 10 for easier visualization) for different combinations of confound regression strategies and brain parcellations. Linear regression lines indicate the direction of the unadjusted association between log(WMH) and occupancy. Background color of individual panels indicates the direction of the association after adjustment for age, sex and zero WMH volume (green, negative; red, positive). A pale background indicates that the association between log(WMH) and average occupancy is not statistically different from zero. On the right, the same information is shown using point estimates and 95 % confidence intervals for the adjusted odds ratio of the association.

253 statistically significant positive associations.

## 254 **Timeline and access to data**

255 At the time of planning of this study, all demographic, clinical and imaging data used in  
256 this analysis have been collected by the HCHS and are held in the central trial database.  
257 Quality checks for non-imaging variables have been performed centrally. WMH segmen-  
258 tation based on structural MRI data of the first 10 000 participants of the HCHS has been  
259 performed previously using the BIANCA/LOCATE approach (Rimmele et al., 2022) and re-  
260 sults are included in this preregistration (`./derivatives/WMH/cSVD_all.csv`). Functional  
261 MRI data and clinical measures of executive dysfunction (TMT-B scores) have not been  
262 analyzed by the author. Analysis of the data will begin immediately after acceptance-in-  
263 principle of the stage 1 submission of the registered report is obtained. Submission of  
264 the full manuscript (stage 2) is planned two months later.

## 265 **Acknowledgment**

266 This preprint was created using the LaPreprint template ([https://github.com/roaldarbol/](https://github.com/roaldarbol/lapreprint)  
267 [lapreprint](https://github.com/roaldarbol/lapreprint)) by Mikkel Roald-Arbøl .

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