

1 Brain signatures of chronic gut inflammation

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23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Gut inflammation is thought to modify brain activity and behaviour via modulation of the gut-
25 brain axis. However, how relapsing and remitting exposure to peripheral inflammation over
26 the natural history of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) contributes to altered brain dynamics
27 is poorly understood. Here, we used electroencephalography (EEG) to characterise changes
28 in spontaneous spatiotemporal brain states in Crohn's Disease (CD) (n = 40) and Ulcerative
29 Colitis (UC) (n = 30), compared to healthy individuals (n = 28). We first provide evidence of a
30 significantly perturbed and heterogeneous microbial profile in CD, consistent with previous
31 work showing enduring and long-standing dysbiosis in clinical remission. Results from our
32 brain state assessment show that CD and UC exhibit alterations in the temporal properties of
33 states implicating default-mode network, parietal, and visual regions, reflecting a shift in the
34 predominance from externally to internally-oriented attentional modes. We investigated these
35 dynamics at a finer sub-network resolution, showing a CD-specific and highly selective
36 enhancement of connectivity between the insula and mPFC, regions implicated in cognitive-
37 interoceptive appraisal mechanisms. Alongside overall higher anxiety scores in CD, we also
38 provide preliminary support to suggest that the strength of chronic interoceptive hyper-
39 signalling in the brain co-occurs with disease duration. Together, our results demonstrate that
40 a long-standing diagnosis of CD is, in itself, a key factor in determining the risk of developing
41 altered brain network signatures.

42 INTRODUCTION

43 Immune dysfunction and accompanying systemic inflammation is thought to play a key role
44 in the development of mood and affective symptoms (1, 2). As part of this mechanism, the
45 presence of pro-inflammatory cytokines is communicated to the central nervous system (CNS)
46 via peripheral activation of receptors expressed on vagal afferents, or the production of
47 molecular intermediates at the blood-brain interface (c.f., circumventricular organs and the
48 choroid plexus) (3). The brain recognises inflammation as a molecular signal of sickness,
49 inducing changes at the neurophysiological and neurotransmitter level within brainstem, limbic
50 and prefrontal regions (3, 4). Together, these neural responses generate a repertoire of
51 “sickness behaviours” that includes social avoidance, anhedonia, fatigue, and depressed
52 mood (1, 5, 6). The brain-cytokine response has been demonstrated in healthy adults
53 administered lipopolysaccharides (LPS) (7) or typhoid vaccination (3, 8), who show transient
54 alterations to cognitive-affective regions (involving the thalamus, amygdala, insula, and
55 anterior cingulate), and a symptom profile that includes anxiety, poor mood, and impaired
56 memory. These effects, however, embody the response of the resilient and adaptive CNS to
57 an acute perturbation. Recent work investigating repeated exposure to immunogenic
58 substances over an extended timeframe suggests more pervasive and enduring brain network
59 abnormalities in chronic inflammation (9, 10).

60

61 Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), a chronic, relapsing, and remitting intestinal disease,
62 provides a unique and ecologically valid model to study the effects of inflammation chronicity
63 on the brain (11). While IBD can occur at any age, disease incidence peaks in early adulthood
64 (between 15 and 30 years) such that individuals experience a number of acute and recurrent
65 inflammatory events that can endure for decades (12). As inflammation emerges within the
66 gastrointestinal (GI) tract, the disease is well-placed to exert influence over the gut-brain axis
67 (13). That is, the physical proximity of inflammation to the intestinal epithelium - a putative gut-
68 brain interface - allows neural-related changes to be conceptualised as dysfunctions to vagal,
69 immune, microbial, or endocrine signalling pathways. Alongside the mechanisms by which
70 inflammation reaches and impacts the brain, an important research endeavour is focused on
71 identifying specific brain regions affected by chronic inflammation, and how this can manifest
72 behaviourally.

73

74 Neuroimaging work has provided initial insights into altered functional brain connectivity
75 underpinning IBD pathophysiology, and suggests that a re-organisation of large-scale brain
76 networks, rather than localised deficits, more clearly recapitulates disease-related changes
77 (14-18). Specifically, there is a growing consensus that individuals with IBD exhibit alterations

78 to default-mode network (DMN) activity (15, 18). The DMN comprises a set of brain regions
79 that exhibit coherent neural activity during rest, and deactivation during externally oriented
80 cognitive tasks (19). Alongside its involvement in social, cognitive and affective processes, the
81 network plays a critical role in endogenous thought, such as rumination, and self-referential
82 processing (20, 21). Abnormal patterns of activation and deactivation within the DMN has
83 been linked to the development of neuropsychiatric disorders, including depression (22) and
84 anxiety (23). In IBD, functional connectivity changes have been reported between key regions
85 of the DMN, including the posterior cingulate cortex, medial prefrontal cortex, and precuneus
86 regions (15, 18). Aberrant connectivity between nodes of the salience network (SN) (14, 17),
87 including the anterior cingulate and insula cortex, further supports the possibility that IBD
88 individuals experience altered interoceptive processing of visceral sensations (e.g.,
89 nociceptive, inflammatory, or microbial-related stimuli) (24). Given the relationship between
90 the DMN and SN in anxiety and depression, the reported alterations in patients with IBD may
91 be of substantial clinical importance. Critically, these results are reported in quiescent IBD (15,
92 16, 25-27), further supporting the argument that acute inflammation alone cannot account for
93 the observed neural and behavioural impairments (9, 27, 28).

94

95 Among the two main IBD diagnoses, brain and behavioural abnormalities have more
96 consistently been reported in Crohn's Disease (CD) as opposed to Ulcerative Colitis (UC) (14,
97 15, 17, 18, 25, 26, 29). Despite overlapping symptoms, CD is thought to exhibit a more
98 pervasive and severe disease expression attributed in part to the extent of affected anatomical
99 sites, transmural involvement, and genetic and immune factors involved (30, 31). Moreover,
100 while the microbiome in UC cannot be differentiated from controls following successful
101 treatment, dysbiosis (imbalance) in CD persists long after remission and responds poorly to
102 faecal microbiota transplantation (32-34). Despite well-defined heterogeneity between UC and
103 CD - with the latter thought to express a more chronic and systemic disease profile – only a
104 limited number of studies (35, 36) have directly compared IBD sub-groups in the context of
105 whole-brain signatures.

106

107 In this study, we investigated whether CD and UC were associated with alterations to
108 spontaneous brain state dynamics. To do this, we fit a Hidden Markov Model (HMM) to resting-
109 state electroencephalography (EEG) data which describes brain dynamics as a sequence of
110 transient and distinct patterns of power and phase-coupling within and between brain regions,
111 respectively. We further explored these brain dynamics at a sub-network resolution, showing
112 differential patterns of effective connectivity that are specific and selective to CD. Our results
113 converge on the suggestion that long-term exposure to chronic gut inflammation confers a

114 higher risk of altered brain and behavioural signatures, with the extent of these effects related
115 to disease duration.

116

117 **METHODS**

118 **Participants**

119 The study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of QIMR Berghofer
120 Medical Research Institute (P3436). Written informed consent was obtained for all participants
121 in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Twenty-eight healthy controls (34 ± 11 years;
122 16 female), 40 CD (43 ± 13 years; 20 female), and 30 UC (42 ± 11 years; 21 female)
123 participants were recruited from the Brisbane (Australia) metropolitan area by
124 gastroenterologist (GRS) and accredited practising dietitian (CVH) (Supplementary Table 1).
125 Exclusion criteria are presented in Supplementary Note 1. Study requirements involved (I)
126 general health and clinical questionnaires; (II) neurocognitive assessments; (III) a resting state
127 EEG recording; and (IV) a stool sample collected at home.

128

129 **General health and clinical questionnaires**

130 The Brisbane Health Area Survey was administered to all participants and included questions
131 about (I) current and previous medical history; (II) current and previous medical history of close
132 family members; (III) medications taken in the previous 12 months; (IV) smoking, alcohol
133 intake, and weight history; and (V) ancestry. The Traditional Mediterranean Diet (TMD)
134 adherence questionnaire was administered by an APD (CVH). Prior to resting-state EEG
135 recordings, blood pressure and heart rate were recorded. For individuals with CD and UC, an
136 additional clinical questionnaire about IBD was administered, including detailed questions
137 about (I) the nature and timing of symptoms experienced prior to a formal IBD diagnosis; (II)
138 current and previous medications used to treat IBD; (III) current and previous history of
139 procedures or surgeries performed in relation to their IBD; (IV) family history of IBD; and (V)
140 comorbid health conditions associated with IBD, including extra-intestinal manifestations.
141 Where available, the patient's gastroenterologist provided clinical indicators of disease activity
142 for CD (Harvey-Bradshaw Index, HBI) and UC (Simple Clinical Colitis Activity Index, SCCAI)
143 patients, in a timeframe two weeks prior to, or two weeks post study participation.

144

145 **Neurocognitive assessments**

146 Neurocognitive assessments were performed by a clinical psychologist and accredited
147 practicing dietitian, and were used to rule out previous or current history of a neurological or
148 psychiatric illness (excluding anxiety-related disorders or depression). Assessments of anxiety
149 and depression included the Hamilton and Montgomery Anxiety (HAM-A), Montgomery-

150 Åsberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS), Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS),
151 Depression Anxiety and Stress Scale (42-item) (DASS), and Generalized Anxiety Disorder (7-
152 item) (GAD-7).

153

154 **Sample collection and processing**

155 Participants were provided with a stool nucleic acid collection and preservation tube (Norgen
156 Biotek Corp., Thorold, Ontario, Canada) and were instructed to collect the sample within a
157 window of 48 hours before/after the study session. Each stool sample was labelled and stored
158 in a -80°C freezer until sample processing. Tissue homogenization was performed using tubes
159 containing 1.4mm ceramic beads (Precellys Lysing Kit). DNA was extracted from samples and
160 quantitated using Nanodrop 2000 (Thermo Scientific). PCR amplification was performed on
161 the V3-V4 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene, and sequenced on a MiSeq sequencer
162 (Australian Genome Research Facility, Melbourne).

163

164 **16S data processing and analysis**

165 Demultiplexed fastq files were processed using default settings within QIIME2 2020.2
166 (<https://qiime2.org>) (37). Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs) were generated by denoising
167 with DADA2 (38). For taxonomic structure analysis, taxonomy was assigned to ASVs using a
168 pre-trained Naïve Bayes classifier and the q2-feature-classifier plugin against the Greengenes
169 13_8 99% 16S rRNA gene sequencing database. Samples were rarefied to a read depth of
170 2200 for diversity analyses. ANCOVA was used to test for group differences in Shannon
171 diversity and Chao1 measures accounting for the effects of age, sex, and body mass index
172 (BMI). Beta-diversity, assessed using unweighted UniFrac distance (39), was used to
173 compare groups, controlling for age, sex, and BMI using qiime2 plugins PERMANOVA and
174 adonis. The metagenomic functional contribution of each sample was predicted using the
175 computational modelling approach, Phylogenetic Investigation of Communities by
176 Reconstruction of Unobserved States 2.0 (PICRUSt2 v2.2.0-b) (40), using the MetaCyc
177 Metabolic Pathway Database (41). The multivariate statistical framework, MaAsLin2 (42),
178 implemented in R, was used to assess the relationship between group membership with (i)
179 microbial abundance (collapsed at genus level) and (ii) functional pathway abundance.
180 Covariates, including sex, age and BMI, were included as fixed effects. Features were
181 included in if they had at least 10% non-zero values (across samples) and a minimum relative
182 abundance threshold of 0.0001, both validated parameter settings in MaAsLin2. Significant
183 features were corrected for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg FDR
184 procedure, with corrected values of $p < 0.05$ and $q < 0.25$ considered statistically significant.

185

186 **Resting-state EEG recordings**

187 Participants were fitted with a 64-channel EEG cap (Ant Neuro – EEGgo sports system),
188 configured to the 10-20 international system. Signals were processed online using EEGgo
189 with a sampling frequency of 2000 Hz. Scalp impedance was reduced to a maximum of 20 $k\Omega$
190 in all electrodes with the application of conductive gel. EEG activity was processed online
191 using eego software. All electrodes were referenced to the CPz electrode. Prior to recordings,
192 participants were reminded to keep their eyes open and fixate on a white crosshair against a
193 black background. Participants were encouraged to breathe and blink normally, and relax
194 head and neck muscles to minimize signal artifacts. Resting-state signals were recorded
195 continuously for 4 minutes.

196

197 **EEG pre-processing**

198 EEG data was pre-processed offline using EEGLab software (v2019.1) in MATLAB (vR2018b).
199 The data were downsampled to 250 Hz. EEG signals were visually inspected, and excessively
200 noisy channels were removed before signals were re-referenced to the common average
201 reference (excluding EOG, M1 and M2 electrodes). Signals were band-pass filtered into a
202 frequency band of 1-45 Hz, and epoched into 5-second segments. Epochs were manually
203 inspected and removed if they contained large artefacts that would otherwise not be detected
204 by independent components analysis (ICA) (e.g., strong muscle artifacts). Artifacts that were
205 characteristic of cardiac, ocular or minor muscular movements were subsequently removed
206 using ICA (InfoMax) (43). As the HMM is sensitive to noise, a fairly stringent approach was
207 adopted to remove potential sources of signal artifact. This approach represents a necessary
208 trade-off to ensure that the HMM is inferred on neurobiologically meaningful data and not
209 spurious noise sources (44). As such, if more than 20 ICs were marked as artefactual, the
210 original time series prior to ICA was re-inspected for additional sources of artefact. If more
211 than 50% of epochs were removed, or more than 20 ICs were excluded after the second ICA
212 run, recordings were excluded from the analysis. Recordings from 11 subjects (2 HC, 3 CD,
213 and 6 UC) were not included in the HMM. Subsequent processing and analysis of EEG data
214 were performed using toolboxes and software packages found within the Oxford Centre for
215 Human Brain Activity (OHBA) Software Library (OSL) and SPM12. For source reconstruction,
216 the forward model was generated using a symmetric boundary element method (BEM) and
217 the inverse model was performed using a Linearly Constrained Minimum Variance (LCMV)
218 vector beamformer. A 44-region weighted parcellation of the entire cortex was adapted from
219 previous work (45-47). Thirty-eight parcels were constructed from an ICA of fMRI data from
220 the Human Connectome Project, while the remaining six parcels corresponded to the anterior
221 and posterior precuneus, bilateral intraparietal sulci, and bilateral insula cortex. The inclusion
222 of the insula cortex - specific to our analyses - was based on previous work supporting the
223 contribution of this region to interoceptive processing in chronic and inflammatory conditions,

224 including IBD (15, 16, 48-50). Time-courses were extracted by taking the first principal
225 component, with voxel contributions weighted by the parcellation. Symmetric multivariate
226 spatial leakage (volume conduction) correction was applied (46).

227

228 **Time-delay embedded (TDE)-HMM**

229 We adopted the TDE-HMM implemented within the HMM-MAR MATLAB toolbox
230 (<https://github.com/OHBA-analysis/HMM-MAR>) (44, 45). We used stochastic variational
231 Bayes (45) to infer the TDE-HMM parameterized with 6 states and 41 time lags (corresponding
232 to a window length of 160ms) (Supplementary Fig. 1) using 500 training cycles and
233 initialization parameters according to previously established procedures (45, 51-53). Prior to
234 HMM inference, we concatenated time series across subjects from all three groups, producing
235 a full dataset to obtain a common set of brain states across all participants. This approach
236 facilitated a direct comparison of spatial and temporal statistics across groups (53, 54).
237 Supplementary Note 2 provides a full description of the TDE-HMM and Supplementary Fig. 2
238 provides an overview of the analysis pipeline.

239

240 From the HMM we calculated the (subject-specific) temporal properties of each state using
241 three parameters: (I) fractional occupancy, the proportion of total time spent in a state ($K \times 1$);
242 (II) interval time, the length of time between consecutive visits to the same state ($K \times 1$); and
243 (III) dwell time, the average length of time spent in a state before transitioning to another state
244 ($K \times 1$). We also computed subject-specific transition probability matrices representing the
245 probabilities of transitioning from one state, to every other state ($K \times K$). ANCOVA was used
246 to test for significant differences in fractional occupancy, dwell times, and interval times
247 between groups, controlling for the effects of age and sex. Permutation testing was used to
248 reject the null hypothesis of equality between groups. As implemented in previous work (54),
249 for each state we generated 5,000 permutations by shuffling group labels among participants.
250 We then repeated ANCOVAs on the permuted values, therefore generating an empirical null
251 distribution of F -statistics for each state and temporal measure (fractional occupancy, dwell
252 times, and interval times). We ascribed statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) to the temporal values
253 by assessing the proportion of null statistics that were greater than or equal to the value of the
254 statistic computed for the non-permuted data. For significant ANCOVAs, Tukey's HSD post-
255 hoc paired t-tests were used to identify where differences were expressed between groups.
256 The Network-based Statistic (NBS) (55) was used to perform inference on the transition
257 probability matrices between the three groups, again including age and sex as covariates. We
258 used an F -test with the primary statistic threshold set to 3.0, and performed a total of 5,000
259 permutations (family-wise error rate controlled at 5%).

260

261 **Candidate Cortical Regions**

262 Using state-specific coherence values averaged across subjects, we calculated the
263 eigenvector centrality (EC) measure for each region. EC calculates the centrality (degree) of
264 each node and weights this according to the EC of the nodes that it connects to (56). EC was
265 performed using the *eigenvector_centrality_und* function within the Brain Connectivity Toolbox
266 (57). The top 10% of EC scores taken from a single hemisphere were used to inform regions
267 for a DCM.

268

269 **Dynamic Causal Modelling**

270 We used dynamic causal modelling (DCM) for cross-spectral densities (CSD) to selectively
271 isolate those differences observed in the networks above (58, 59). Specifically, we modelled
272 the extrinsic (between-region) effective connectivity strengths between candidate regions. We
273 adopted the convolution based local field potential (LFP) neural mass model which describes
274 source activity as the result of interactions between populations of inhibitory interneurons,
275 excitatory spiny stellate cells, and excitatory pyramidal cells (60). The data to which the DCM
276 was fit comprised the processed time series. For each subject, we specified and estimated a
277 single model with a fully-connected network of 7 regions. To obtain the most robust estimates,
278 we then re-estimated the DCM using an updated prior parameter space using the posteriors
279 from an exemplar subject (Supplementary Fig. 3). For each subject, we selected the iteration
280 with the best fit (as assessed by free energy). One-way MANCOVA (Wilks' Lambda) was used
281 to assess group differences in the forward and backward connectivity parameters. Univariate
282 tests were corrected for multiple comparisons ($p_{FWE} < 0.05$, Bonferroni corrected). A multiple
283 regression model was used to assess the contributions of behavioural (non-clinical) variables
284 to effective connectivity strengths.

285

286 **RESULTS**

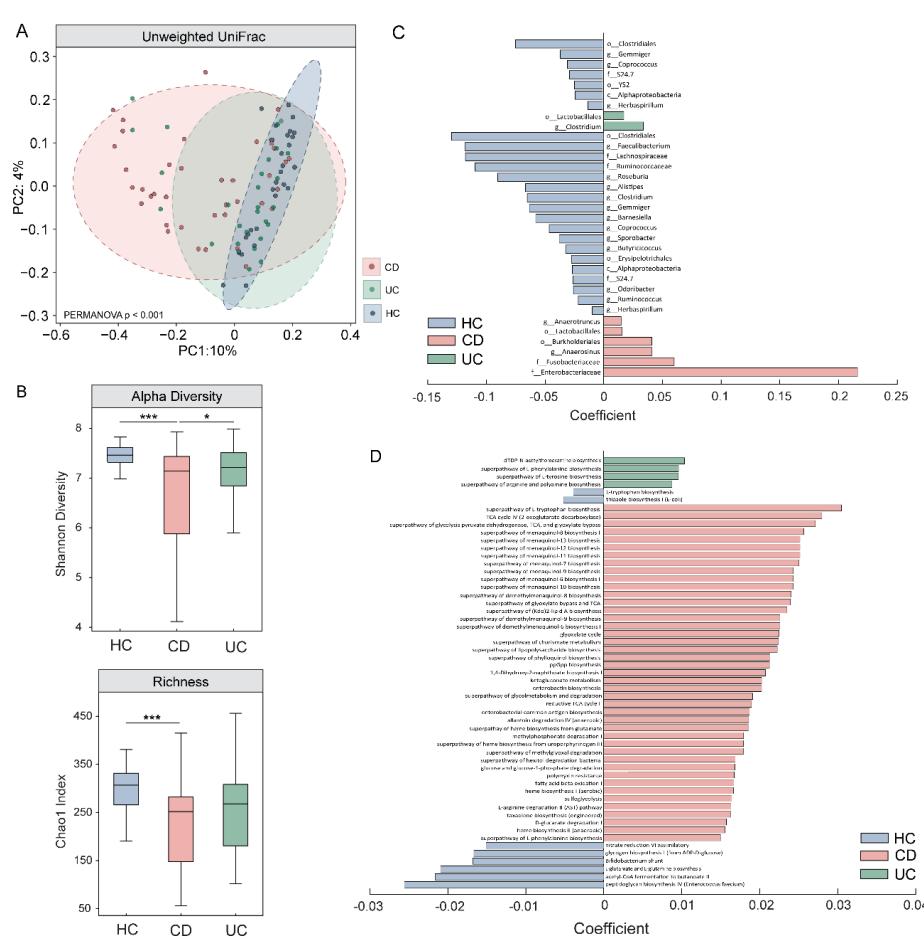
287 Resting-state EEG recordings and 16S rRNA profiles were analysed for 40 CD, 30 UC, and
288 28 healthy participants. Demographic, behavioural, and clinical characteristics are presented
289 in Supplementary Table 1. IBD and healthy control (HC) participants were matched in terms
290 of general demographics with the exception of age, and the Hamilton and Montgomery Anxiety
291 (HAM-A) scores (Supplementary Table 1).

292

293 **Establishing distinct microbiota signatures in CD and UC**

294 We first used 16S rRNA sequencing to compare microbiota profiles between the three groups.
295 Our results show a significant difference in beta (unweighted UniFrac) and alpha (Shannon
296 effective species and Chao1 index) diversity measures in CD, compared to HC and UC (**Fig.**

297 **1A-B**). While not reaching statistical significance, UC showed a trend towards lower alpha
298 diversity and distinct beta diversity profiles compared to HC. Multivariate analyses also
299 revealed a number of significant taxonomic and functional differences in CD and to a lesser
300 extent, in UC (**Fig. 1C-D**, enlarged visualisation shown in Supplementary Fig. 4). The
301 microbiota results converge in supporting the existence of a perturbed and heterogeneous
302 microbial profile in CD (33). It is important to note that the small subset of CD participants
303 exhibiting mild ($n = 3$) or moderate ($n = 1$, later excluded for poor quality EEG data) disease
304 activity were not outliers in terms of their diversity scores (i.e., were distributed within the
305 normal range for CD). Together, the clinical and microbiota results demonstrate clear
306 distinctions between CD and UC sub-groups, providing a strong motivation to perform brain
307 assessments in each group independently. Full statistical results for this assessment can be
308 found in Supplementary Note 3.



311 **Figure 1. Comparison of microbiota results between Crohn's Disease (CD), Ulcerative Colitis**
312 **(UC), and healthy control individuals (HC).** Results from **(A)** beta (unweighted Unifrac) and **(B)** alpha
313 diversity (Shannon effective species and Chao1 index) measures show significant differences between
314 CD and UC, and CD and HC, assessed using one-way ANCOVAs. Multivariate analyses performed
315 using MaAslin2 revealed significant differences in **(C)** taxonomic abundance (genus resolution) and **(D)**
316 functional pathways in CD and to a lesser extent, in UC, when compared to HC. Enlarged figures for
317 **(C)** and **(D)** are presented in Supplementary Fig. 4. All microbiota assessments were controlled for the
318 effects of age, sex, and BMI. * denotes $p < 0.05$; *** denotes $p < 0.0005$.

319

320 **Brain states expressed during resting-state EEG**

321 We estimated brain states at rest using the TDE-HMM (61) (Supplementary Note 2). The HMM
322 posits that a time series can be decomposed into a number of discrete and recurrent hidden
323 brain states, comprising several regions that co-activate together, such that at each time point,
324 only one state is active. Results showed that resting-state EEG data was best described by
325 six short-lived and recurring brain states, each with unique spatial, spectral, and temporal
326 profiles (Fig. 2A-F; Supplementary Fig. 5 and Supplementary Note 2). Our state selection is
327 consistent with previous studies modelling M/EEG dynamics using the TDE-HMM, ranging
328 between six and 16 states (44, 45, 62, 63). The spatial maps of power (i.e., the amount of
329 activity) and coherence networks (i.e., the level of synchronisation or coupling between two
330 regions) were averaged across a wideband frequency range (1-30 Hz). Power maps
331 correspond to the mean power within each region and state (z-scored) and coherence
332 networks show functional connections that are stronger ($p < 0.01$) compared to all other
333 possible between-region connections for that state. Our spatial maps share characteristics
334 with previous M/EEG HMM studies, including a bilateral pattern of activity for some, but not all
335 states (44, 45), and strong increases in power often accompanying increases in coherence
336 (45).

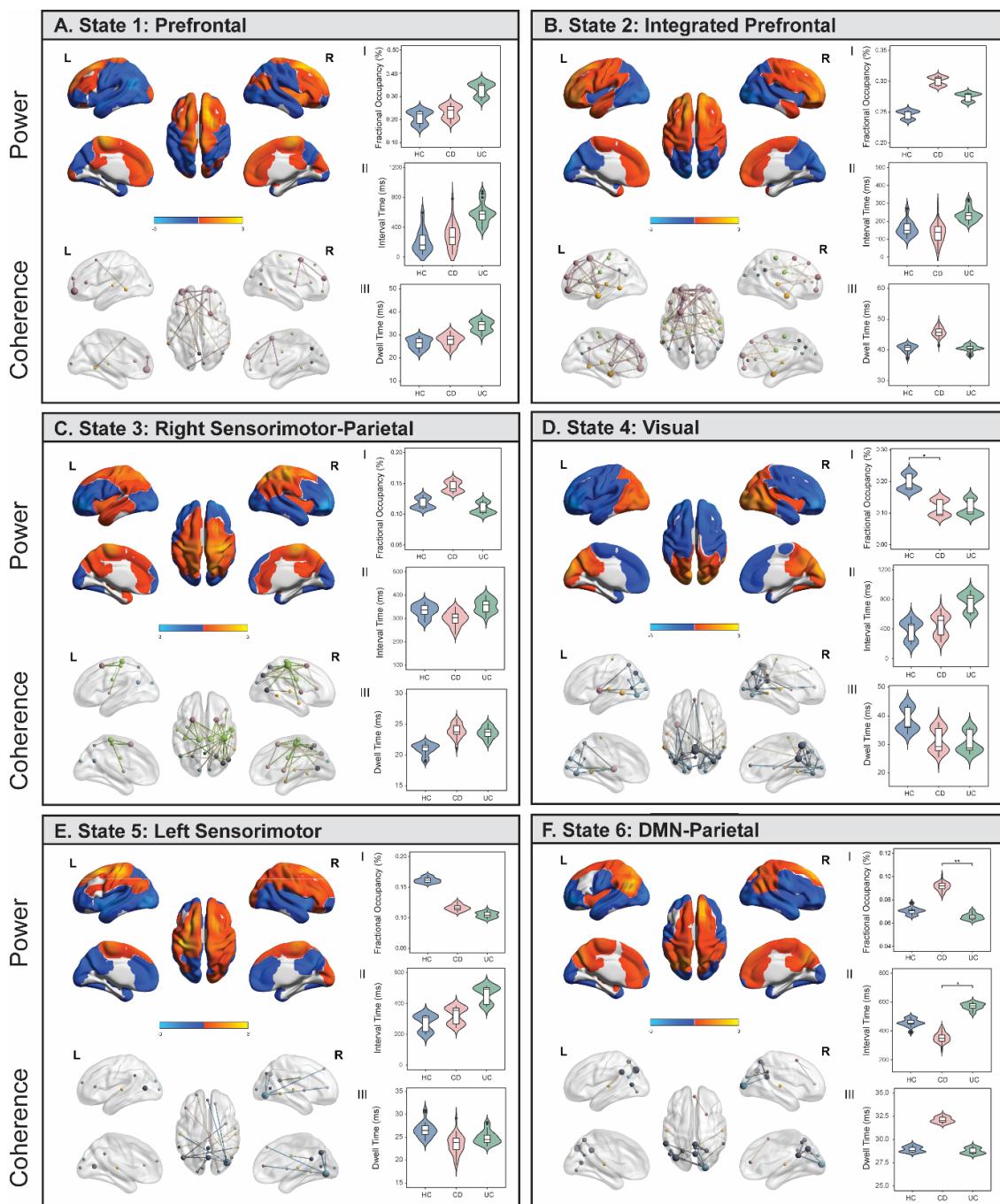
337

338 **Brain states correspond to resting-state association maps**

339 We quantified the functional overlap between the HMM states with established resting-state
340 association networks from the meta-analysis database, Neurosynth (64). Specifically, we
341 assessed the spatial overlap (voxel-wise correlation) between our power maps (z-scored,
342 unthresholded) with canonical maps of prefrontal, parietal, sensorimotor, visual, DMN, and
343 temporal fMRI association maps (Supplementary Fig. 6). For ease of interpretation, states
344 were named according to the spatial patterns of activation to which they were most strongly
345 correlated. States 1 (*prefrontal*) and 2 (*integrated prefrontal*) were defined by higher and lower
346 power in prefrontal and visual regions respectively, with more extensive prefrontal coherence
347 in State 2. States 3 (*right sensorimotor-parietal*) and 5 (*left sensorimotor*) were characterised
348 by higher power in right and left sensorimotor regions, respectively, with coherence patterns
349 closely following power in State 3. State 4 (*visual*) was characterised by high power and
350 coherence in visual regions, while State 6 (*DMN-parietal*) reflected power and coherence in
351 regions associated with DMN and parietal regions. Each state also exhibits frequency-specific
352 differences in power and coherence, which can be visualized as an average across regions
353 over the full spectrum (1-30 Hz) (Supplementary Fig. 5). There is a strong distinction between
354 the *DMN-parietal*, characterised by power in the slower frequencies (delta/theta) and the *visual*
355 state, characterised by stronger power in the alpha frequency. All states exhibit higher

356 coherence within the alpha frequency band, with the strongest occurring in *right sensorimotor-*
357 *parietal, visual, and DMN-parietal* states.

358



359

360 **Figure 2. Brain states identified using Hidden Markov Modelling represent networks of power**
361 **and spectral coherence.** (A) Left panel shows wideband (1-30 Hz) power maps (top) and coherence

362 networks (bottom) displayed for each state. Power maps are relative to the state average (z-scored)

363 where blue colours reflect power that is lower than the state average and red/yellow colours reflect

364 power that is higher than the average within that state. Coherence networks show statistically significant

365 ($p < 0.01$) connections that stand out from a background level of connectivity within that state. Nodes

366 are coloured based on which fMRI association map/s they anatomically correspond to, and the size of

367 each node reflects the centrality (degree) score. (A.I-III) Comparison of temporal statistics between

368 healthy controls (HC), Crohn's Disease (CD) and Ulcerative Colitis (UC) individuals for each state, after

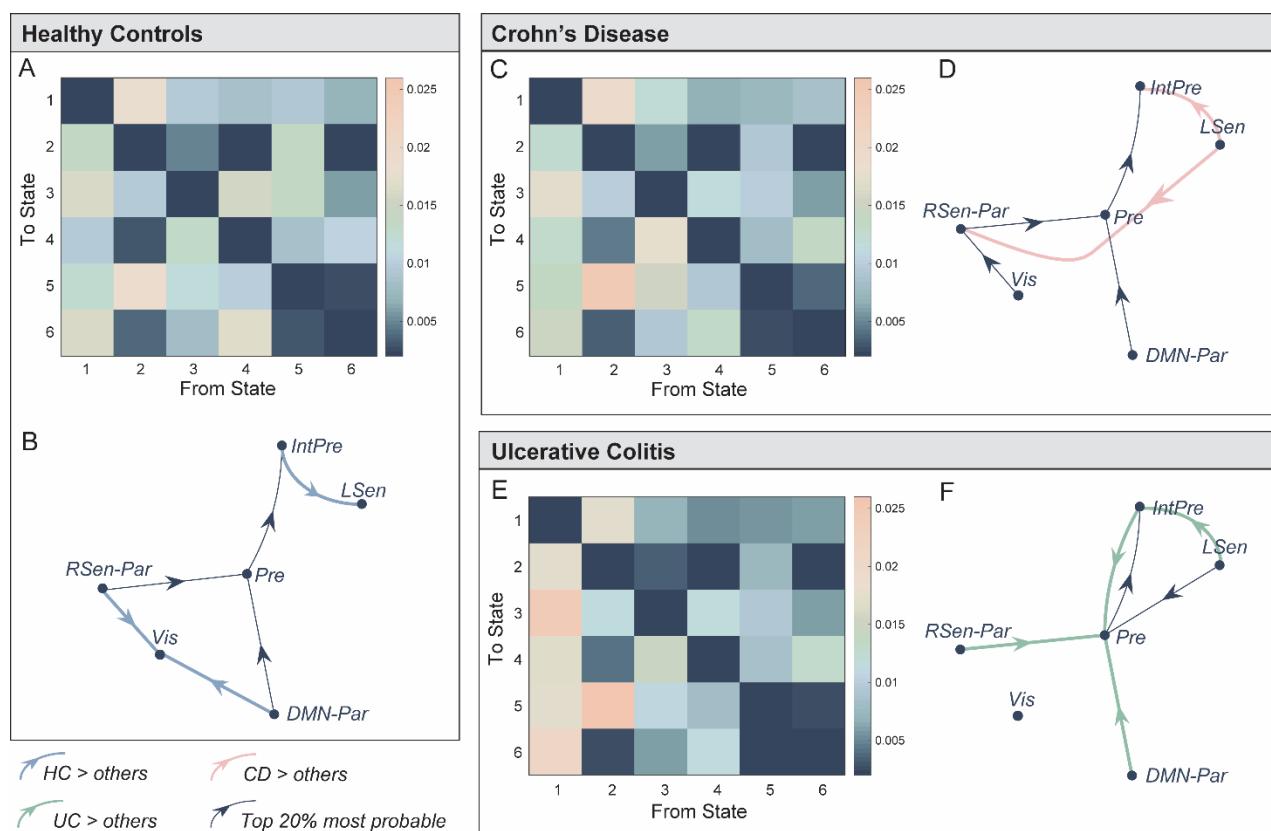
369 adjusting for age and sex. Fractional occupancy (%) represents the proportion of overall time spent in
370 a state; interval time (ms) represents the length of time between consecutive visits to the same state;
371 and dwell time (ms) is the length of each state visit. Permutation tests were performed to assess the
372 null hypothesis of equality in temporal measures between groups and Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests were
373 used to identify where significant pair-wise differences were expressed. * denotes $p_{FWE} < 0.05$; **
374 denotes $p_{FWE} < 0.005$.
375

376 **Temporal brain state dynamics are differentially expressed in IBD**

377 At each time point in the time series, the HMM estimates the probability that each brain state
378 is active, referred to as the state time course. The state time courses estimated from the HMM
379 were used to investigate between-group differences in three temporal statistics: (a) fractional
380 occupancy, the proportion of overall time spent in a state; (b) dwell time, the length of each
381 state visit; and (c) interval time, the length of time between consecutive visits to the same
382 state. One-way ANCOVAs identified a significant main effect of group on fractional occupancy
383 in the *visual* ($F_{(2,82)} = 4.31, p = 0.018$) and *DMN-parietal* ($F_{(2,82)} = 7.40, p = 0.002$) states, and
384 a main effect of group on interval times in the *DMN-parietal* ($F_{(2,82)} = 4.41, p = 0.001$) (**Fig. 2D&F**). Relative to HC, individuals with CD resided for less time overall in the *visual* state
385 ($p_{FWE} = 0.04$) (**Fig. 2D-I**), but spent a longer time overall ($p_{FWE} = 0.002$) and had shorter interval
386 times between consecutive visits to the *DMN-parietal* state compared to UC ($p_{FWE} = 0.01$) (**Fig. 2D-I-II**). While HC spent more time in the *visual* state compared to UC, and less time in the
387 *DMN-parietal* state compared to CD, these effects did not survive Bonferroni correction (UC,
388 $p_{FWE} = 0.08$; CD, $p_{FWE} = 0.06$).
391

392 We next used the probabilities associated with the state time courses to identify significant
393 between-group differences in the transitions between brain states (Network-based Statistic
394 (55), $p_{FWE} < 0.05$) (**Fig. 3**). Bold, coloured lines indicate transitions included in the significant
395 NBS component while thin black lines show the top 20% most probable state transitions for
396 each group (**Fig. 3B, D & F**). Firstly, individuals with UC were more likely to transition to the
397 *prefrontal* state compared to HC and CD (**Fig. 3E-F**). Secondly, individuals with CD and UC
398 were more likely to transition from the *left sensorimotor* to the *integrated prefrontal* state, while
399 the inverse was true for HC. Finally, HC individuals were more likely to transition to the *visual*
400 state, specifically from the *DMN-parietal* or *right sensorimotor-parietal* states.
401

402 Taken together, our results suggest that: (a) CD and UC individuals spent less time in, and
403 are less likely to transition to the *visual* state; (b) individuals with UC are more likely to
404 transition to, and may spend more time in the *prefrontal* state (although not reaching
405 significance); and (c) individuals with CD reside for longer in, and spent less time between
406 consecutive visits to the *DMN-parietal* state.
407



408

409 **Figure 3. Representation of the transition probabilities between the six brain states in the three**
410 **groups. (A)** We computed subject-specific transition probability matrices representing the likelihood of
411 transitioning from one state, to every other state ($K \times K$). Diagonal matrix elements represent self-
412 transitions (i.e., the probability of remaining in that state) and were set to zero to aid visualisation. **(B)**
413 Directed transition diagram showing the top 20% most probable state transitions, where each arrow
414 represents a transition. The thin black lines do not represent significant between-group differences, but
415 represent transitions that were more probable on average for that group. Bold, coloured lines indicate
416 a significantly higher probability of this transition in that group. The network-based statistics (NBS) was
417 used to identify significant between-group differences in state transitions ($p_{FWE} < 0.05$). **(C-F)** Same as
418 **(A)** and **(B)** but for Crohn's Disease and Ulcerative Colitis. *Prefrontal (Pre)*, *integrated prefrontal (IntPre)*,
419 *right sensorimotor-parietal (RSen-Par)*, *visual (Vis)*, *left sensorimotor (LSen)*, and *DMN-parietal (DMN-Par)*.
420

421

422 Altered connectivity patterns between key brain regions differentiating groups

423 To identify the key drivers of these differences, we performed a refined sub-network analysis
424 on communication between specific nodes within the *visual* and *DMN-parietal* states. We
425 identified seven candidate regions exhibiting higher influence within each state's spatial profile
426 (See *Candidate Regions* in Materials and Methods). The posterior precuneus (Pprec), medial
427 prefrontal cortex (mPFC) and left inferior parietal lobule (IPL) were identified within the *DMN-
428 parietal* state, while the inferior occipital gyrus (IOG), mid occipital gyrus (MOG), and left insula
429 (insula) were identified within the *visual* state (**Fig. 4A**; Supplementary Table 2). The posterior
430 cingulate (PCC) had strong involvement within both states, supporting previous work
431 recognising its "flexible" participation across a number of dynamic networks and associated
432 cognitive processes (65, 66). Using the time series from each candidate region, we calculated
433 the strength of directed (effective) connectivity, using dynamic causal modelling (DCM) (**Fig.**

434 **4B**) (See *DCM* in Methods and Supplementary Fig. 2 for details). Taking the expected values
435 of the estimated connectivity parameters from all subjects, we identified a significant
436 multivariate association between backward connectivity parameters and group membership
437 (Wilks' Lambda = 0.16, $F_{(84, 82)} = 1.52$, $p_{FWE} = 0.03$). Univariate F tests identified a significant
438 difference between groups in the connectivity from the left insula to mPFC ($F_{(2,84)} = 8.57$, p_{FWE}
439 = 0.017) (**Fig. 4C-D**). Specifically, individuals with CD showed significantly stronger
440 connectivity from the left insula to mPFC compared to HC ($p = 3.63 \times 10^4$) and UC ($p = 0.03$).
441 There were no significant differences between UC and HC for any connections.

442

443 **Insula to mPFC connectivity linked to disease duration in CD**

444 Our results demonstrated a highly selective enhancement of connectivity between the left
445 insula to mPFC in the CD group. With the exception of three individuals with mild disease
446 activity, all CD individuals were in clinical remission. Thus, these findings provide support to
447 our hypothesis that between-group connectivity differences may be driven by chronic, rather
448 than acute inflammation. Our final aim was to specifically test whether inter-individual
449 variability in the strength of insula to mPFC connectivity in CD was linked to long-standing
450 disease features, thus testing for a more pronounced relationship of how CD chronicity
451 (disease duration) links to depression, anxiety, and stress scores (DASS-42). The DASS-42
452 is based on a dimensional, rather than categorical, assessment of psychological symptoms,
453 and provides higher inter-subject variability in sub-clinical populations. While the HAM-A and
454 MADRS, and HADS-A and HADS-D, tend to produce anxiety and depression scores that are
455 highly correlated, the DASS-42 is able to more clearly distinguish between anxiety and
456 depression (67). Critical to our study, the anxiety scale assesses key components of
457 interoceptive processing, including autonomic arousal, situational anxiety, and the subjective
458 experience of anxious affect. While results did not show an overall multivariate relationship,
459 we did find a significant independent regression coefficient linking longer CD duration
460 (adjusted for participant age) with stronger insula to mPFC connectivity ($\beta = 0.01$, $t_{(34)} = 2.19$,
461 $p = 0.036$) (**Fig. 4E**).

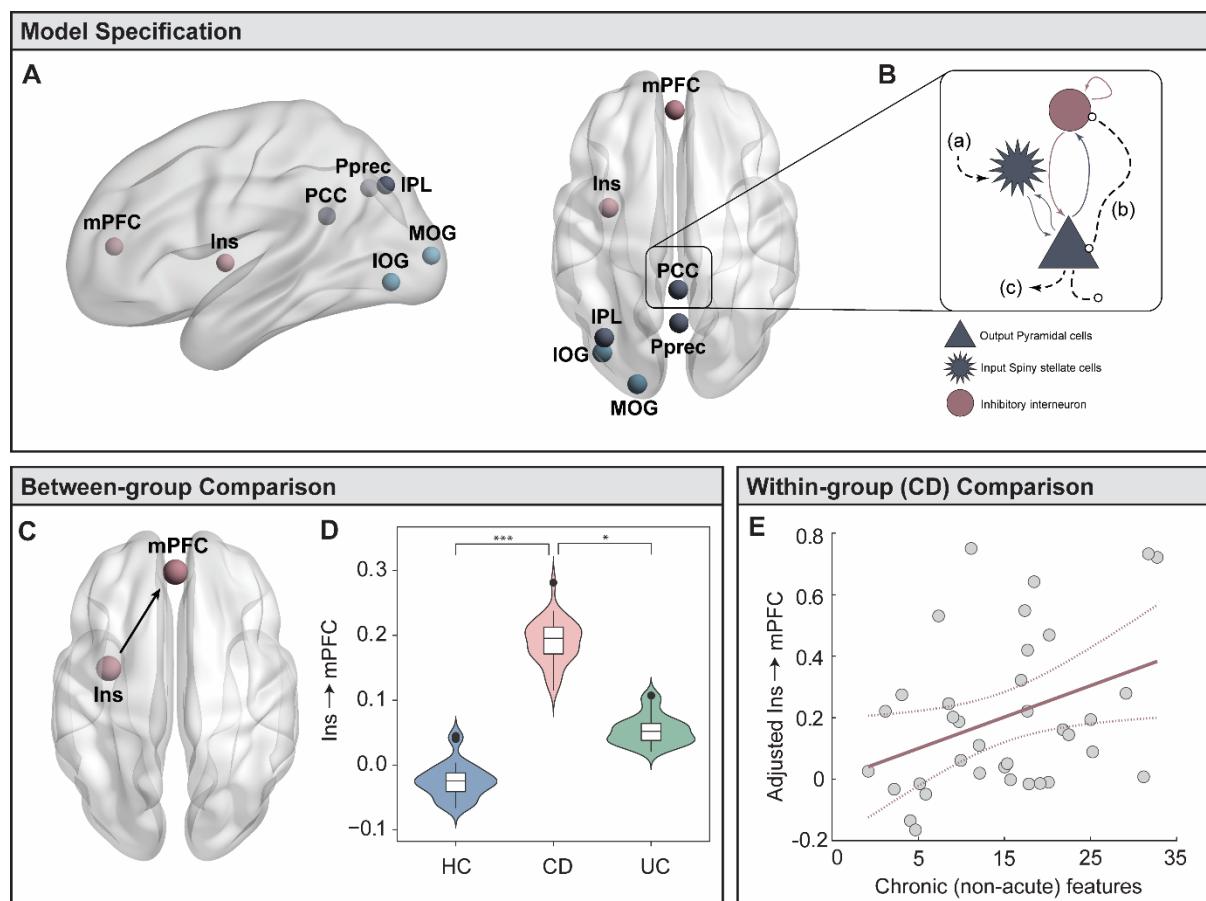


Figure 4. Targeted analyses of effective brain connectivity (Dynamic Causal Modelling, DCM). (A) Candidate regions were selected from the HMM brain states for a DCM analysis. (B) The Local Field Potential (LFP) convolution-based neural mass model was selected, modelling three subpopulations with five intrinsic connections. Extrinsic afferents are conceptualised as (a) forward connections arriving at the input spiny stellate population; (b) backward connections arriving at both the output pyramidal and interneuron populations. (c) Extrinsic (between-region) efferents project from the output pyramidal population to distant targets. (C-D) Results from MANCOVA post-hoc tests, showing significantly stronger effective connectivity from the left insula to the mPFC in CD individuals. (E) Multiple regression in CD group testing whether disease duration and behavioural symptoms predict the strength of left insula to mPFC connectivity. * denotes $p < 0.05$; *** denotes $p < 0.0005$.

473

474 DISCUSSION

475 In this study we assessed whether IBD - a model of chronic, relapsing, and remitting systemic
 476 inflammation - is associated with alterations in the spatiotemporal dynamics of spontaneous
 477 brain states. In particular, we directly compared CD and UC to delineate whether known
 478 distinctions in clinical, microbiome, and physical manifestations of gut inflammation also
 479 extends to variability in brain dynamics. Our findings extend upon previous work by showing
 480 a CD-specific brain signature implicating regions involved in cognitive-interoceptive appraisal
 481 mechanisms. The HMM assessment converges with these findings at a broader scale,
 482 demonstrating that IBD individuals exhibit alterations in the temporal properties of brain states
 483 supporting computations linking internal and external milieus. Together, our study supports a

484 description of IBD as a dysfunction of the gut-brain axis, moving away from clinical definitions
485 that compartmentalise effects in the gut from the CNS.

486

487 Our sub-network DCM dissected the relevant properties of the global brain state assessment.
488 Specifically, this analysis provided a refined interpretation of global neuronal dynamics
489 grounded in physiological and biophysical properties of the brain. These results showed a
490 highly selective enhancement of connectivity from the insula to the mPFC in CD individuals
491 (**Fig. 4C**). The insula is a key interoceptive hub, thought to be responsible for integrating
492 information from the internal and external milieu to generate an awareness of the current
493 emotional and internal state (68-70). During rest, information about the internal milieu likely
494 emerges from gastrointestinal and cardiorespiratory stimuli before converging in the NTS and
495 higher cortical regions, including the insula (24). Anatomically, the insula shares afferent and
496 efferent connections with the mPFC (71) which together provide a contextual evaluation of
497 emotional and affective states (72). The finding that CD individuals exhibit stronger bottom-up
498 signalling from the insula to mPFC converges with a model describing altered interoceptive
499 processing. As a function of persistent worry and rumination over anticipated visceral
500 discomfort, many patients with GI disorders develop strong and rigid beliefs (i.e., hyperprecise
501 priors) about the state of the body (73, 74). While the perception of abdominal pain in a healthy
502 individual may not be considered alarming, the same signal may elicit hypervigilance in IBD.
503 The perceived hypervigilance to visceral sensations has previously been cast within a
504 predictive coding framework (75, 76). That is, the persistent inability to accurately detect
505 afferent viscerosensory signals may produce a mismatch between top-down predicted states
506 and the actual interoceptive input reaching the insula and prefrontal regions. This hypothesis
507 is in line with a recent fMRI study showing altered interoceptive processing in CD to uncertainty
508 about anticipated visceral discomfort, compared to controls (26). The tendency of an individual
509 to overestimate the likelihood of a future aversive bodily state provides a conceptual bridge
510 between altered interoception, and the development of clinical anxiety and depression (75,
511 77). While a confluence of factors are likely to contribute to the high prevalence of anxiety and
512 depression in IBD, models describing the persistence and reinforcement of negative biases
513 towards self-relevant information is thought to be a key contributor. As such, psychological
514 interventions such as mindfulness and meditation have been put forth as adjuvant treatment
515 approaches in IBD to modulate the brain's response to future aversive interoceptive stimuli
516 (78, 79).

517

518 Recent work has demonstrated that long-term exposure to recurrent systemic inflammation
519 impacts brain and behavioural responses in a more permanent and pervasive way as opposed
520 to a single inflammatory event (9, 10). Both CD and UC participants were either in clinical

521 remission or had a mild disease course, with no difference in cardiovascular risk compared to
522 healthy participants. Our results strongly suggest that brain dynamic alterations do not
523 represent the effects of acute inflammation or vascular events, but suggests a more
524 permanent network reconfiguration. In our study, we showed that insula to mPFC hyper-
525 connectivity strengthens with disease duration in CD (**Fig. 4E**). The persistent and chronic
526 effects from repeated exposure to inflammation are likely to result in a confluence of
527 behavioural, biological, and neurophysiological changes, including alterations to interoceptive
528 processing (e.g., heightened sensitivity to visceral inflammatory or nociceptive signals) (16,
529 26), hyper-activation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (80), functional changes to the
530 gut-brain interface, or altered serotonergic and glutamatergic neurotransmission (1, 81). In
531 this study, we did not observe a relationship between effective connectivity and behavioural
532 symptoms. However, it is possible that altered insula-mPFC hyper-connectivity represents a
533 vulnerability towards developing psychological symptoms. Our results provide a strong
534 motivation to pursue longitudinal assessments - monitoring fluctuations in inflammatory
535 activity, medication use, symptoms, surgical procedures, and behaviour – to identify the causal
536 mechanisms contributing to altered network signatures in long-standing CD.

537

538 Our results suggest that a diagnosis of CD is, in itself, a key factor in determining the risk of
539 developing altered brain network signatures. Previous work suggests that UC and CD exhibit
540 distinct disease processes (30, 31, 33). UC is described as a mucosal disease with an acute
541 onset, while CD is considered a chronic and systemic disease with a long premorbid phase
542 and transmural involvement (82). Systemic involvement in CD may also be reflected in the
543 higher prevalence of extra-intestinal manifestations (83), with one study attributing low bone
544 density to chronic and long-standing exposure to cytokines selectively in CD, but not in UC
545 (82). Moreover, emerging work suggests that neurological effects related to IBD follows a
546 differential pattern of involvement between sub-groups (84). That is, UC appears to exhibit
547 extra-intestinal manifestations mostly in the peripheral nervous system, while CD is more
548 closely associated with effects in the CNS (84). These observations are in line with a previous
549 structural MRI (sMRI) and resting-state fMRI study comparing CD and UC sub-groups,
550 showing that neural changes in CD may be more pronounced in patients exhibiting extra-
551 intestinal manifestations (36). However in contrast to our results, this study, as well as another
552 using near infrared spectroscopy (35), found that UC exhibited more pronounced neural
553 changes overall compared to CD. Longitudinal and adequately powered studies will be critical
554 to disentangle the nuanced alterations between CD and UC reported in this current study, and
555 in previous work. Our results also showed that diversity, taxonomic, and functional microbiota
556 profiles in CD are significantly different from UC and HC, despite the absence of major
557 inflammatory activity (**Fig. 1**). The failure to restore eubiosis in CD may indirectly serve as a

558 marker of chronicity, representing an epiphenomenon caused by repeated inflammation and
559 extensive bowel damage, as well as a risk factor for recurrent relapse (32-34). Our
560 observations underscore the broader significance of early diagnosis, and both rapid and
561 effective control of gut and systemic inflammation in IBD patients.

562

563 A number of caveats need to be considered when interpreting the results from this study. The
564 cross-sectional design and modest sample size are recognised as limitations. For example,
565 our microbiota assessments of alpha and beta diversity did not detect significant differences
566 between UC and HC. While these results are consistent with results from previous longitudinal
567 16S rRNA studies showing only diversity differences in CD compared to HC, but not in UC
568 (33, 85), our relatively modest sample size may have resulted in a type II error (i.e., the non-
569 detection of smaller effects in UC individuals). Secondly, our cross-sectional design does not
570 allow us to disentangle the relative contribution of long-standing GI symptoms versus chronic
571 inflammation to observed brain-related effects. However, recent works comparing UC to a
572 control group with irritable bowel syndrome (GI symptoms without underlying inflammation)
573 provides further support that these changes are more specifically driven by chronic gut
574 inflammation, rather than long-term GI symptoms (50, 86). IBD is a heterogeneous disease,
575 and even within CD and UC there is large variability in terms of surgical procedures,
576 medication use, genetics, and inflammatory history. However, the main focus of this study was
577 to characterise the large-scale brain effects from chronic, recurrent and relapsing gut
578 inflammation within an ecologically valid and naturalistic setting. For example, a key source of
579 heterogeneity was medication use in IBD. Specifically, there was a higher proportion of UC
580 individuals taking aminosalicylates, analgesics, and corticosteroid medication (Supplementary
581 Table 1). However, the fact that the CD group appear to be less reliant on medications overall
582 – specifically analgesics – highlights that they have well-controlled symptoms. Taken together,
583 this further strengthens the interpretation of our CD results, supporting the idea that hyper-
584 connectivity from the insula to mPFC is more closely linked to disease chronicity, rather than
585 acute inflammation or symptom flare-ups. Our study provides the initial impetus to pursue
586 future targeted work, including a focus towards creating larger, longitudinal databases
587 including multimodal neuroimaging, clinical, behavioural, and metagenomics data. While most
588 IBD participants were in clinical remission, a number of participants were taking biologic
589 agents, anti-inflammatory, or immunomodulatory medication. This suggests that some
590 participants had experienced an acute inflammatory event at some point prior to the study. As
591 we do not have longitudinal data about previous disease activity, we cannot directly assess
592 their contribution to observed brain alterations. Unlike DCM, the TDE-HMM is a statistical
593 method that is not grounded on biophysical models of neural activity. When inferring the HMM
594 we recognize, like previous authors (45), that there is no biological 'ground truth' with regards

595 to the number of brain states selected. Instead, varying the number of states simply offers
596 different resolutions (spatiotemporal detail) to study brain dynamics. Selecting six states
597 represented a necessary trade-off, allowing us to examine brain states that overlap with
598 established fMRI resting state maps but in the process, limiting our ability to detect more subtle
599 dynamics. Our HMM brain states were inferred from resting-state data. Future investigations
600 could extend this work by assessing how external task-related demands modulate
601 spatiotemporal dynamics in DMN and visual networks in CD and UC.

602

603 There is converging evidence showing the effects of acute inflammation on brain activity and
604 behaviour (3, 7, 8). However, there remains a large gap in understanding how chronic and
605 repeated exposure to systemic inflammation engenders change in spontaneous whole-brain
606 dynamics. Using an ecologically valid model of peripheral inflammation, we demonstrate that
607 CD individuals exhibit alterations in brain states and patterns of effective connectivity
608 supporting computations within internal, interoceptive mental states. Our results provide
609 motivation to pursue longitudinal assessments evaluating the impact of mood and affective
610 disorders on the natural history of IBD, and vice versa. Understanding the extent and nature
611 of gut-brain dysfunctions in IBD will help to optimise the monitoring and management of
612 behavioural symptoms and critically, to prevent a gut disease from progressing to a comorbid
613 psychiatric or neurodegenerative illness.

614

615 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

616 Data supporting the findings of this study is available from the corresponding authors on
617 reasonable request.

618

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621

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625

626 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

627 The authors report no competing interests.

628

629 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

630 Conceptualization and methodology, Caitlin V. Hall, Rosalyn J. Moran and Luca Cocchi;
631 Formal analysis: Caitlin V. Hall, and Rosalyn J. Moran; Data curation: Caitlin V. Hall, Conor

632 Robinson, Emma Savage and Graham Radford-Smith; Writing—original draft, review, and
633 editing, all authors; Funding acquisition, Graham Radford-Smith and Luca Cocchi;
634 Supervision, Rosalyn J. Moran and Luca Cocchi.

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