MEG analysis of neural dynamics in Attention-Deficit/ Hyperactivity Disorder with Fuzzy Entropy

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Abstract- The aim of this study was to analyze the neural dynamics in Attention-22 23 Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). For this purpose, magnetoencephalographic (MEG) background activity was analyzed using fuzzy entropy (FuzzyEn), an entropy 24 25 measure that quantifies signal irregularity, in 13 ADHD patients and 14 control children. Additionally, relative power (RP) was computed in conventional frequency 26 27 bands (delta, theta, alpha, beta and gamma). FuzzyEn results showed that MEG activity 28 was more regular in ADHD patients than in controls. Moreover, we found an increase 29 of power in delta band and a decrease in the remaining frequency bands. Statistically significant differences (p-values < 0.05; nonparametric permutation test for multiple 30 31 comparisons) were detected for FuzzyEn in the posterior and left temporal regions, and for RP in the posterior, anterior and left temporal regions. Our results support the 32 hypothesis that ADHD involves widespread functional brain abnormalities, affecting 33 34 more areas than fronto-striatal circuits, such as the left temporal and posterior regions.

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Keywords- Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder, fuzzy entropy, relative power,
 magnetoencephalography.

1. INTRODUCTION

Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is the psychiatric disorder most 40 commonly diagnosed and treated in children. Its prevalence ranges between 8% and 41 42 12% children worldwide. Additionally, at least half of children with the disorder will 43 continue suffering the symptoms in adulthood [1]. It is characterized by several 44 behavioral disturbances, such as inattention, hyperactivity and impulsivity, which predispose the patients to academic and social dysfunctions, accidents or chaotic 45 46 interpersonal relationships [2]. Pharmacotherapy helps children and adolescents with 47 ADHD to concentrate and to be calmer, less hyperactive and more focused [3]. 48 Methylphenidate is the most commonly used medicine in the management of ADHD, 49 whereas atomoxetine is recommended when the former fails. However, medication 50 should always be offered as part of a comprehensive treatment plan [3], [4].

51 Initially, it was believed that the etiology of the disease consisted on one simple 52 cause. However, nowadays ADHD is considered a complex, multifactorial disorder 53 caused by the confluence of many different types of risk factors (e.g., genes, biological 54 predisposition and psychosocial adversity) [5]. This multifactorial view of ADHD is 55 consistent with the heterogeneity in its pathophysiology and clinical expression [1]. The ADHD pathophysiology profile comprises dysfunction in the fronto-subcortical 56 57 pathways and imbalances in the dopaminergic and noradrenergic systems [2]. Brain imaging studies fit well with this concept and also involve the cerebellum and corpus 58 59 callosum in the pathophysiology of ADHD [6].

60 The complexity of the diagnosis cannot be ignored. Because there is no objective 61 test or marker for ADHD, diagnosis relies entirely on clinical criteria [1]. Although 62 there are well-defined criteria (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders,

DSM, and International Statistical Classification of Diseases, ICD), clinicians must deal with data from multiple informants (parents, teachers and friends) and must attend to developmental variations in symptom expression (comorbidity is a key clinical feature observed in ADHD patients). This complexity may explain the discrepancies among clinicians and among different studies of the disorder [5]. Hence, new approaches are needed to understand ADHD [7], [8]. With this aim, the analysis of brain activity can be a noteworthy alternative.

70 The neurobiological basis of ADHD has been widely studied using neuroimaging 71 techniques (for a review, see [9] and/or [10]). Initially, single photon emission 72 computed tomography (SPECT) and positron emission tomography (PET) were used to 73 study the involvement of basal ganglia [11], blood flow measurement [12] and cerebral 74 glucose metabolism [13], among other parts and characteristics of the brain. However, 75 these early studies showed some methodological concerns (poor subject matching, 76 absence of control group, etc.). Hence, it is difficult to assess their results and make 77 cross-comparisons. Later, other neuroimaging techniques, like functional magnetic 78 resonance imaging (fMRI) and diffusion tensor imaging (DTI), enabled functional and structural connectivity studies, respectively [14]. Their main results suggest that the 79 80 core symptoms of ADHD might derive from dysregulated modulation of cortical 81 plasticity in the developing brain, which leads to altered patterns of corticocortical 82 connectivity [14]. Structural connectivity studies involve alterations in the white matter frontostriatal and in the superior longitudinal fasciculus. Alternatively, functional 83 84 connectivity studies put forward that functional disconnections within frontostriatal and mesocortico-limbic circuits play a fundamental role in the generation of ADHD 85 symptoms. On the other hand, neurophysiological measures can provide complementary 86 87 information to neuroimaging techniques about this issue [14].

Electroencephalography (EEG) and magnetoencephalography (MEG) measure the 88 89 electric and magnetic fields generated by the neurons, respectively [15]. Both EEG and 90 MEG have higher temporal resolution than PET and fMRI. Likewise, they record the 91 neural activity directly, without the need to interpret it in terms of proxy measures, such 92 as glucose consumption [15], [16]. MEG offers some advantages over EEG, since 93 magnetic fields are reference-free and less affected by distortions produced by the 94 resistive properties of the skull and the scalp [15]. On the other hand, MEG equipment 95 is distinguished by limited availability and high costs in comparison to EEG devices 96 [17], [18]. Previous researches have proven that the analysis of EEG/MEG activity can 97 be useful to characterize the brain activity in ADHD [19].

98 The neurophysiology of ADHD has been mainly examined by means of 99 quantitative EEG/MEG analyses and event-related potentials (ERPs). For resting EEG, 100 a slowing of brain oscillatory activity in comparison to normal children was found. In 101 this sense, an increase in relative theta power and a reduction in relative alpha and beta 102 power, along with increased theta/alpha and theta/beta ratios, are the most reliably 103 findings associated with ADHD [20], [21]. In the case of ERPs, a complex range of 104 deficits has been associated with the disorder, for example, in the preparatory responses 105 or auditory modality [22]. Studies using nonlinear measures have found a decrease of 106 complexity in the MEG frontal activity of ADHD patients [23]. Kovatchev et al. [24] 107 employed a consistency index, derived from a specific mathematical representation of 108 EEG data, to validate the idea that ADHD interferes with transitions from one task to 109 another. The differences were especially significant in male children, which reported good values of ADHD/control classification. Recent studies suggested that irregularity 110 111 analyses based on entropy measures can provide valuable information to understand 112 brain dynamics in ADHD. These studies found that MEG activity in ADHD patients

was less irregular than in controls [25] - [27]. In summary, nonlinear metrics and 113 114 spectral analyses have been useful to explore the neurophysiological substrate of neural 115 dysfunction in ADHD so far. Nevertheless, further research is indeed required to 116 describe the neural dynamics associated with this disorder.

117 In this study, we analyzed the neural dynamics of ADHD by means of fuzzy 118 entropy (FuzzyEn) and spectral analysis. FuzzyEn quantifies the signal irregularity and 119 exhibits a more flexible behavior than other previous entropy metrics, due to the 120 exponential function it uses as a classifier [28]. In addition, relative power (RP) in five 121 frequency bands (delta, theta, alpha, beta and gamma) was calculated in order to explore 122 the spectral content of MEG recordings. In the current research, we attempt to address 123 the following questions: (i) Can FuzzyEn provide further insights into the underlying 124 brain dynamics associated with ADHD?; (ii) Can spectral analysis provide complementary results to FuzzyEn?; (iii) Can FuzzyEn and RP results reflect the 125 126 regional abnormalities of ADHD?

127

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

128 A. Subjects

In this study, MEG recordings were acquired from 27 subjects. Thirteen children 129 130 were included in the ADHD group (age = 9.5 ± 1.3 years, mean \pm standard deviation, 131 SD; range 8-12 years). They fulfilled the criteria of DSM-IV diagnosis of ADHD 132 combined type with associated impairment in at least two settings and a Conners' Parent Rating Scale (CPRS) hyperactivity rating greater than two SD above age- and sex-133 134 specific means [29]. The DSM-IV used the parent version of the Diagnostic Interview for Children and Adolescents [30]. The patients had never taken any psychoactive drug 135 136 or received any psychoactive therapy. The control group was formed by 14 children 137 (10.4 \pm 1.5 years, mean \pm SD; range 8-13 years) without past or present neurological 138 disorders.

Both groups, patients and control subjects, had similar age and years of education (6.8 ± 1.2 years in ADHD patients and 7.3 ± 1.4 years in controls; mean \pm SD). All of them were strictly right-handed. Children and parents gave their written informed consent and assent to participate in the study. The Institutional Review Board approved the research protocol.

144 B. MEG recording

MEG signals were recorded from each participant using a 148-channel wholehead magnetometer (MAGNES 2500 WH, 4D Neuroimaging) placed in a magnetically shielded room at MEG Center "Dr. Pérez-Modrego" (Spain). Before the recording process, subjects were asked to remain in a relaxed state, lying in a bed, with their eyes closed and awake, in order to reduce the presence of artifacts in the recordings.

150 Five minutes of MEG data were acquired from each subject at a sampling 151 frequency of 678.17 Hz. A process of down-sampling by a factor of four was carried out, resulting a sampling rate of 169.55 Hz. Data were digitally filtered using a 1-65 Hz 152 153 band-pass filter and a 50 Hz notch filter. Both visual inspection and independent 154 component analysis (ICA) were performed to minimize the presence of oculographic, 155 cardiographic and myographic artifacts. A mean of 23.2 ± 14.1 artifact-free epochs of 5 156 s (848 data points) per channel and subject were selected for further analyses. Figure 1 157 shows examples of MEG epochs (channel A1, placed at central region) from an ADHD 158 patient and a control.

159

PLEASE, DISPLAY FIGURE 1 AROUND HERE

160 *C. Fuzzy entropy (FuzzyEn)*

161 FuzzyEn is a measure of time series irregularity. Similar to other embedding 162 entropies, as approximate entropy (ApEn) or sample entropy (SampEn), it provides 163 information about how a signal fluctuates with time by comparing the time series with a 164 delayed version of itself [31]. It is defined as the negative natural logarithm of the conditional probability that two similar vectors remain similar when the dimension 165 166 changes from m to m + 1 [28]. To compute FuzzyEn, three parameters must be fixed. 167 The first parameter, m, is the length of the vectors to be compared, like in ApEn and 168 SampEn. The other two ones, r and n, are the width and the gradient of the boundary of 169 the exponential function, respectively. Similar to ApEn and SampEn, FuzzyEn can be 170 applied to noisy physiological signals with relatively short datasets [28]. However, 171 FuzzyEn provides some advantages over ApEn and SampEn. Firstly, using the concept 172 of fuzzy set, FuzzyEn measures the similarity of two vectors by means of an 173 exponential function rather than the Heaviside function, used by ApEn and SampEn. 174 The latter function is a two-state classifier with a rigid boundary, unsuitable in the real 175 physical world because of the ambiguity in the boundaries between different classes 176 [28]. Due to the soft and continuous boundaries of fuzzy functions, FuzzyEn offers more flexibility in the selection of the parameters than ApEn and SampEn [32]. 177 178 Likewise, it ensures to be well-defined even at small values of such parameters. 179 Secondly, FuzzyEn excludes self-matching (i.e., vectors are not compared to 180 themselves) and considers only the first N - m vectors of length m, being N the length of the original time series. Therefore, all the compared vectors exist, even when their 181 lengths change from m to m + 1. Finally, FuzzyEn removes the baseline in the 182 construction of *m*-dimensional vectors. Thereby, vectors similarity depends on their 183 184 shapes rather than their absolute coordinates. These features provide to FuzzyEn stronger relative consistency and less dependence of data length than ApEn andSampEn algorithms [28], [32].

187 Given a time series
$$X = x(1), x(2), \dots, x(N)$$
 the FuzzyEn algorithm reads as
188 follows [28]:

189 1) Compose N-m+1 vectors of length *m* such that:

190
$$X_{i}^{m} = \{x(i), x(i+1), \dots, x(i+m-1)\} - x_{0}(i)$$
(1)

191 where $x_0(i)$ is given by:

192
$$x_0(i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} x(i+j)$$
(2)

193 2) Compute the distance, d_{ij}^m , between each two vectors, X_i^m and X_j^m , as the 194 maximum absolute difference of their corresponding scalar components:

195
$$d_{ij}^{m} = d(X_{i}^{m}, X_{j}^{m}) = \max_{k \in (0, m-1)} \left[\left(x(i+k) - x_{0}(i) \right) - \left(x(j+k) - x_{0}(j) \right) \right]$$
(3)

196 3) Given *n* and *r*, calculate the similarity degree, D_{ij}^m , between X_i^m and X_j^m 197 through a fuzzy function $\mu(d_{ij}^m, n, r)$:

198
$$D_{ij}^{m}(n,r) = \mu(d_{ij}^{m},n,r) = \exp[-(d_{ij})^{n}/r]$$
(4)

199 4) Define the function ϕ^m as:

200
$$\phi^{m}(n,r) = \frac{1}{N-m} \sum_{i=1}^{N-m} \left(\frac{1}{N-m+1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N-m} D_{ij}^{m} \right)$$
(5)

201 5) Increase the dimension to m + 1, form the vectors $\{X_i^{m+1}\}$ and get the function 202 ϕ^{m+1} :

203
$$\phi^{m+1}(n,r) = \frac{1}{N-m} \sum_{i=1}^{N-m} \left(\frac{1}{N-m+1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{N-m} D_{ij}^{m+1} \right)$$
(6)

6) Finally,
$$FuzzyEn(m,n,r)$$
 is defined as the negative natural logarithm of the
deviation of ϕ^m from ϕ^{m+1} :

206
$$FuzzyEn(m,n,r) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \left\{ \ln[\phi^m(n,r)] - \ln[\phi^{m+1}(n,r)] \right\}$$
(7)

207 which, for finite datasets, is estimated by the statistic:

208
$$FuzzyEn(m, n, r, N) = \ln \phi^{m}(n, r) - \ln \phi^{m+1}(n, r)$$
(8)

209 D. Spectral Analysis

Spectral analysis is a classic approach to characterize electromagnetic brain recordings. It offers a complementary view of the neural dynamics in comparison to non-linear analysis. In this study, the power spectral density (PSD) for each MEG signal was estimated as the Fourier transform of the autocorrelation function, according to the Wiener-Khinchin-Einstein theorem [33]:

215
$$PSD_{x}(k) = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{2N-1} R_{xx}(i) \cdot e^{-j\frac{2\pi ki}{2N-1}}, k = 0, 1, \dots, 2N-1,$$
(9)

216 where $R_{xx}(i)$ denotes the discrete-time autocorrelation function of time series 217 $X = x(1), x(2), \dots, x(N)$.

The PSD was then averaged for each channel and participant. Likewise, only positive frequencies were selected to obtain the one-sided PSD. Finally, the one-sided PSD was normalized to a scale from 0 to 1, leading to the normalized PSD (PSD_n):

221
$$PSD_{n}(m) = \frac{PSD_{x}(m)}{\sum_{m=m_{1}}^{m_{2}} PSD_{x}(m)}, m = 0, 1, \dots, N-1,$$
(10)

where m_1 and m_2 denote the discrete cut-off frequencies. They can be replaced by the continuous frequencies $f_1 = f_s \cdot m_1/N$ and $f_2 = f_s \cdot m_2/N$, where f_s represents the sampling frequency, whereas $f_1 = 1$ Hz and $f_2 = 65$ Hz are the cut-off frequencies of the digital band-pass filter.

The definition of RP was obtained summing the contribution of the spectral components in the conventional frequency bands: delta (1-4 Hz), theta (4-8 Hz), alpha (8-13 Hz), beta (13-30 Hz) and gamma (30-65 Hz):

229
$$RP^{m_b} = \sum_{m \in m_b} PSD_n(m), m_b = \{ \text{delta, theta, alpha, beta, gamma} \},$$
(11)

where m_b denotes the discrete frequency range corresponding to each conventional frequency band.

232 E. Statistical Analysis

Initially, an exploratory analysis was carried out to study the data distribution. In order to evaluate the normality and the homoscedasticity of FuzzyEn and RP values, the Lilliefors' test and the Bartlett's test were used, respectively. FuzzyEn and RP values did not meet the parametric test assumptions. Hence, grand-averaged FuzzyEn and RP values were compared between ADHD patients and control subjects by means of Mann-Whitney *U*-tests ($\alpha < 0.05$).

Statistical analyses at the sensor level for FuzzyEn and RP were carried out using a multiple comparisons nonparametric permutation test [34]. This test is useful to achieve a strong control over type I error in situations in which the multiplicity of testing must be taken into account (e.g., 148 sensors). In permutation test, the distributional assumption is weak. Typically, it is assumed that each distribution has the same shape, though possibly different means. The null hypothesis asserts that the distributions have equal means, and hence they are the same. Consequently, the

permutation of the distributions within the available observations leads to an equally 246 247 likely statistic. Therefore, the goal is to compute the permutation distribution for the maximal statistic F^{max} (i.e., the maximum of the sensor statistics for each permutation). 248 Multiple comparisons were then corrected by selecting a critical threshold at the c+1249 largest member of the permutation distribution for F^{max} , where $c = |\alpha N|$, αN rounded 250 down (α represents the significance level, typically 0.05, and N is the number of 251 252 permutations, 5000). Sensors with F statistics exceeding this threshold exhibit evidence 253 against the corresponding sensor hypothesis at level α . The corrected *p*-value for each 254 sensor is estimated according to the proportion of the permutation distribution for F^{max} 255 that exceeds the observed sensor statistic [34].

3. RESULTS

257 A. Optimization of FuzzyEn parameters

FuzzyEn is more flexible than other entropy algorithms to select the value of its 258 parameters. Chen *et al.* [28] recommended choosing *m* such as $N \in (10^m - 30^m)$. 259 Regarding the fuzzy similarity boundary determined by the other two parameters, r and 260 261 n, choosing narrow ones will enlarge the influence of the noise, whereas a broad 262 boundary may cause an information loss. Thus, FuzzyEn was calculated for the 148 MEG channels for all the combinations among the following parameter values: m = 1. 263 2; r = 0.1, 0.15, 0.20, 0.25 times the SD of the original time series; and n = 1, 2, 3. The 264 lowest *p*-value according to the Mann-Whitney *U*-test was achieved for the parameter 265 266 combination: FuzzyEn $(2, 0.2 \cdot SD, 3)$. As shown in Figure 2, the shape of the exponential function makes possible the maximal exploitation of its properties: continuity (there is 267 no abrupt change like in Heaviside function) and convexity (its maximum correspond to 268 269 the self-similarity case).

271 B. Global analysis

FuzzyEn results were grand-averaged based on all the artifact-free 5 s epochs. Mean values (\pm SD) for control and ADHD groups were 0.4811 \pm 0.0376 and 0.4415 \pm 0.0960, respectively. Consequently, we can infer that the brain abnormalities and dysfunctions, which underlay ADHD, can be associated with a decrease in irregularity of MEG activity. Figure 3 summarizes the boxplots of averaged results for each group. Even though non-significant differences were observed, the results showed a trend toward significance (*p*-value = 0.0680; Mann-Whitney *U*-test).

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280

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Additionally, RP in delta, theta, alpha, beta and gamma frequency bands was 281 calculated to complement FuzzyEn results. Figure 4 shows the normalized PSD for 282 283 control and ADHD groups. The spectral analysis showed a significant increase of RP in 284 delta band for ADHD patients (p-value = 0.0061; Mann-Whitney U-test). The results in theta band showed that ADHD patients obtained lower RP values than controls. Even 285 286 though non-significant differences were found, a trend toward significance was observed (p-value = 0.0688; Mann-Whitney U-test). In the remaining bands (alpha, 287 288 beta, gamma), control subjects exhibited higher values of RP than ADHD patients, 289 although differences were not statistically significant. RP mean values and the 290 corresponding *p*-values are shown in Table 1.

291

PLEASE, INSERT TABLE 1 AND FIGURE 4 AROUND HERE

292 *C. Sensor-level analysis*

293 In addition to global analysis, we explored the spatial patterns of FuzzyEn and RP values. The averaging process performed for global analysis may oversimplify ADHD 294 295 related effects on MEG activity. For this reason, further analyses are needed to 296 accurately characterize the neural activity in ADHD. Figure 5 depicts the brain maps showing the spatial distribution of the averaged FuzzyEn for each group and the 297 298 corresponding statistical analyses (multiple comparisons nonparametric permutation 299 test). The major differences can be appreciated in the posterior region, though some 300 differences can also be observed in the left temporal and anterior regions. Significant 301 differences did not appear in the global analyses due to the aforementioned averaging 302 process.

303

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Finally, Figure 5 summarizes the spatial distribution of mean RP values for each frequency band and the corresponding statistical analyses. Delta band exhibits significant differences in the posterior, left temporal and anterior regions, whereas theta band shows only significant differences in the posterior and left temporal areas. Regarding alpha band, significant differences can be found in the posterior region. Beta band displays significant differences in anterior and posterior regions. Lastly, significant differences were found in the posterior area for gamma band.

311

PLEASE, DISPLAY FIGURE 6 AROUND HERE

312 **4. DISCUSSION**

In this paper, we have analyzed MEG background activity from 14 control subjects and 13 ADHD patients by means of FuzzyEn, a measure of time series irregularity. In addition, RP has been computed to complement the FuzzyEn results.

316 A. FuzzyEn and the neural activity of ADHD

317 Regarding the first research question, we put forth the idea of whether FuzzyEn 318 could be useful to provide further insights into the underlying brain dynamics of ADHD. Our findings support the notion that FuzzyEn provides an original description 319 320 of ADHD neural dynamics. We found that ADHD patients show significantly lower 321 FuzzyEn values than control subjects, especially in the posterior region. Hence, neural 322 dynamics in ADHD are characterized by a less irregular neurophysiological behavior in 323 this region. Moreover, these results agree with the hypothesis of a loss of physiological 324 complexity due to diseases [35]. However, the dysfunctional implications of this 325 decrease in MEG irregularity are not clear [9]. Initially, it was hypothesized that the 326 neurobiological basis of ADHD involves structural and functional brain abnormalities in fronto-striatal circuits. This hypothesis has been widely supported by neuroimaging 327 studies [10], [14]. However, a second hypothesis stresses that the abnormalities are 328 329 more widespread and affect other cortical regions as posterior parietal cortex and the 330 cerebellum [9]. Despite the fact that MEG signals are thought to reflect the cerebral cortex activity, previous work suggests that they can be also useful to study the activity 331 332 of the cerebellum [36]. Several MRI studies detected a decreased size of the posterior 333 inferior lobe of the cerebellum (lobules VIII-X) in ADHD patients in comparison with 334 controls [37] - [41]. This reduction of the volume may explain the decrease in irregularity that was found in the posterior region. Consequently, the present results 335

would support the second hypothesis from a different perspective of neuroimagingtechniques.

338

B. Spectral analysis to complement non-linear measures

339 The second research question addresses the issue of whether RP results could 340 complement FuzzyEn results. Our findings indicate that they complement each other. 341 All frequency bands show to some extent significant differences in the posterior region. 342 Moreover, left temporal and anterior regions also exhibit significant differences in 343 several frequency bands. Thereby, the spectral analysis involves at least the two cerebral 344 regions in which the neurobiological substratum of the ADHD lies according to the 345 second previous hypothesis (anterior region: prefrontal cortex; posterior region: 346 cerebellum). In that way, we can suggest that, while the first hypothesis is necessary for explaining ADHD pathophysiology, it is not sufficient. 347

348 Although significant differences were found in the left temporal region for both 349 FuzzyEn and RP (delta and theta bands), the pathophysiological explanation is 350 uncertain. Only few neuroimaging cerebral studies reported significant differences in 351 this area. For instance, Castellanos et al. [6] detected significantly reduced temporal 352 lobe volumes. Sowell et al. [42] described abnormal morphology with reduced regional 353 brain size in inferior portions of dorsal prefrontal cortices and in anterior temporal 354 cortices, bilaterally. Again, these changes in size are believed to produce an irregularity reduction and a slowing in MEG background activity [9]. 355

356

C. Widespread abnormalities as core of ADHD pathophysiology

We raised the third research question about whether there is a relationship between our results and the ADHD regional abnormalities. Taking into account that ADHD is considered as a multifactorial, heterogeneous and complex disorder [5], it seems more logic to think that its pathophysiology is caused by impaired interactions

among different parts of the brain, and not only by abnormalities or dysfunctions in a 361 362 particular element. In sum, the second approach is more consistent with the etiological 363 theory of the disorder and our results support it. In this sense, it should be investigated 364 further to discover how genetic disorder, biological predisposition and social adversities 365 modify brain development, leading to a heterogeneous neurobiological profile. 366 Additionally, it should be noted that the prefrontal cortex is one of the brain areas more 367 developed in the human beings and is among the latest cerebral regions that complete 368 their development. Hence, the functions that prefrontal cortex controls or carries out may be more sensitive and, therefore, more easily detectable [43]. This may partially 369 370 explain why originally several neuroimaging studies have postulated the prefrontal 371 cortex and its connections with other cortical regions (fronto-striatal circuits) as the 372 main pathophysiological basis of ADHD.

373 According to our results and other neuroimaging studies, an element that may be 374 involved is the cerebellum. The cerebellum is associated with the coordination and the 375 motor motion. It also plays a role in executive functions, such as timing of events, 376 cognitive planning or affective processes, and has connections with the frontal brain 377 [44]. The left temporal region also showed significant differences. This region contains 378 areas relevant to the auditory-linguistic function. Consequently, both may be of interest 379 in ADHD. Additionally, the dopamine transporter may play a crucial role. It is thought 380 that a deficit or an excess of noradrenaline or dopamine receptor stimulation impairs 381 neural and subsequent cognitive functions (working memory, executive functions, etc.), 382 known to be deficient in ADHD [45]. Besides, projections from the ventral tegmental area, where is the origin of the dopaminergic cell bodies of the mesocorticolimbic 383 384 dopamine system, to the striatum and the prefrontal cortex are fundamental in motor control and attention [46]. Finally, high levels of catecholamine released during severe 385

386 stress may disrupt cognitive functions of the prefrontal cortex [45]. Similarly, 387 alterations in the superior longitudinal fasciculus [14], a pair of long bi-directional 388 bundles of neurons connecting the front and the back of the cerebrum, emphasize the 389 idea of that ADHD cerebral alterations and dysfunction are widespread.

390

D. Limitations and future research lines

391 There are some concerns that merit consideration. First of all, the size of the 392 sample is small. This shortcoming causes that our findings must be taken as preliminary 393 results. Hence, this approach should be extended on a much larger patient population, 394 especially to assess the usefulness of FuzzyEn and/or RP as diagnostic tools, as well as 395 to analyze the changes induced in the brain activity by pharmacological and non-396 pharmacological therapies. Secondly, one cannot forget the comorbidity of mental disorders. The detected decrease of MEG irregularity is not specific of ADHD. It 397 398 appears in other physiological and pathological states in children, such as sleep [47] or 399 epilepsy [48]. Regarding the spectral analysis, the same observation can be made. For 400 instance, Onoe and Nishigaki [49] also perceived an increase of the delta power in 401 febrile delirium children patients. Finally, we would like to indicate that brain imaging 402 techniques are not absent from debate either [50]. The multitude of analytic techniques and measurements employed in different studies make difficult replication and cross-403 404 study comparisons [14].

405

5. CONCLUSION

In summary, FuzzyEn and spectral analyses of MEG activity exhibited significant differences mainly in the posterior and left temporal regions. The results support the hypothesis that the pathophysiology of ADHD is not only focused on a particular area, such as fronto-striatal circuits, but it is more widespread and it affects other parts of the brain, like the cerebellum. Along with the possible cerebral abnormalities, other factors 411 involved in the ADHD pathophysiology may also explain the differences (e.g., the 412 dopamine transporter, projections from the ventral tegmental area to the striatum and 413 the prefrontal cortex, high levels of catecholamine released during severe stress or 414 alterations in the superior longitudinal fasciculus). The previous ideas are consistent 415 with its multiple etiology pathways and agree with the results provided by 416 neuroimaging studies.

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424

425 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

426 There are no conflicts of interest that could inappropriately influence this 427 research work.

428

429 ETHICAL APPROVAL

430 Psychiatry service of Hospital Clinico San Carlos with number: 12/106-E.

432 AUTHORSHIP RESPONSIBILITY

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- 572

573 **TABLE CAPTIONS**

- Table 1. RP values (mean \pm SD) in the delta, theta, alpha, beta and gamma frequency
- 575 bands for ADHD patients and control subjects, together with the corresponding
- 576 statistical analyses (Mann-Whitney *U*-test).

FIGURE LEGENDS 578

- 579 Figure 1. Example of MEG time series from (a) an ADHD patient and (b) a control 580 subject.
- 581 Figure 2. Exponential function used in vector similarity measurement of FuzzyEn for
- 582 the combination: m = 2, $r = 0.2 \cdot SD$ and n = 3.
- 583 Figure 3. Boxplots of the grand-averaged FuzzyEn results.
- 584 Figure 4. Grand-averaged normalized PSD for control subjects and ADHD patients.
- Figure 5. Topographic brain maps of averaged FuzzyEn values for each group and the 585
- corresponding statistical analyses (nonparametric permutation test corrected for multiple 586 587 comparisons).
- 588 Figure 6. Topographic brain maps of the averaged RP for each group and the
- corresponding statistical analyses (nonparametric permutation test corrected for multiple 589
- 590 comparisons) at (a) delta, (b) theta, (c) alpha, (d) beta and (e) gamma frequency bands.