

HHS Public Access

Author manuscript

Biol Psychiatry Cogn Neurosci Neuroimaging. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2019 September 01.

Published in final edited form as:

Biol Psychiatry Cogn Neurosci Neuroimaging. 2018 September ; 3(9): 777–787. doi:10.1016/j.bpsc. 2018.07.004.

Biophysical Modeling of Large-Scale Brain Dynamics and Applications for Computational Psychiatry

John D. Murray, **Murat Demirtaş**, and **Alan Anticevic**

Department of Psychiatry, Yale University School of Medicine, New Haven, Connecticut.

Abstract

Noninvasive neuroimaging has revolutionized the study of the organization of the human brain and how its structure and function are altered in psychiatric disorders. A critical explanatory gap lies in our mechanistic understanding of how systems-level neuroimaging biomarkers emerge from underlying synaptic-level perturbations associated with a disease state. We describe an emerging computational psychiatry approach leveraging biophysically based computational models of largescale brain dynamics and their potential integration with clinical and pharmacological neuroimaging. In particular, we focus on neural circuit models, which describe how patterns of functional connectivity observed in resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging emerge from neural dynamics shaped by inter-areal interactions through underlying structural connectivity defining long-range projections. We highlight the importance of local circuit physiological dynamics, in combination with structural connectivity, in shaping the emergent functional connectivity. Furthermore, heterogeneity of local circuit properties across brain areas, which impacts large-scale dynamics, may be critical for modeling whole-brain phenomena and alterations in psychiatric disorders and pharmacological manipulation. Finally, we discuss important directions for future model development and biophysical extensions, which will expand their utility to link clinical neuroimaging to neurobiological mechanisms.

Keywords

Computational model; Functional connectivity; Neuroimaging; Resting-state; Schizophrenia; Transcriptomics

> A central research challenge in clinical neuroscience is to develop a mechanistic understanding of how molecular and synaptic-level disturbances in the human brain propagate across levels to analysis to impact systems-level neural activity, and ultimately cognitive computations, in neuropsychiatric disorders. At the level of microcircuitry, the field is generating hypotheses related to cell types and synaptic processes, such as disrupted balance between synaptic excitation and inhibition. For instance, histological studies have revealed alterations in synaptic densities in schizophrenia (1,2). At the molecular level, transcriptome mapping has characterized alterations in cortical expression levels of genes regulating synaptic and neuronal processes across multiple disorders (3-6), implicating

Address correspondence to John D. Murray, Ph.D., N3 Division, Yale Psychiatry, 40 Temple Street, Suite 6E, New Haven, CT 06510; john.murray@yale.edu.

microcircuit dysfunction in psychiatric neuropathologies. However, it is unclear how such deficits impact distributed computations in large-scale brain networks, which subserve cognitive functions.

At a vastly different level of analysis, clinical neuroscience has leveraged noninvasive neuroimaging techniques to discover disorder-related biomarkers in the large-scale organization of anatomical structure and functional dynamics in the human brain. Altered evoked and intrinsic neural activity across distributed brain systems can be observed from modalities including functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), electroencephalography (EEG), and magnetoencephalography (MEG). Resting-state fMRI has emerged as a powerful tool for characterizing the intrinsic functional organization of brain network dynamics in terms of functional connectivity (FC), the statistical covariation of neural activity (7-10), with widespread application to psychiatric disorders (11).

One promising effort to bridge this gap is the multidisciplinary field of computational psychiatry, which uses theoretical neuroscience models to study how disruptions at lower levels propagate upward to produce dysfunction at higher levels of behavior and function. Computational psychiatry encompasses a wide range of modeling approaches, from biophysical simulation of microcircuit dynamics, to connectionist modeling of distributed neural computation, to normative models of learning and decision making. In turn, these distinct levels of computational modeling connect to different types of neural and behavioral measurements. A number of recent articles and books have surveyed the progress and challenges in the emerging field of computational psychiatry (12-18).

Among computational psychiatry approaches, biophysically based modeling of neural circuit dynamics is well suited to link synaptic-level disruptions to emergent brain dysfunction (12,15,19-21). Circuit models can simulate neural population activity and computations, incorporating key properties of neurons and synaptic connectivity (22). Simulated activity patterns can then be related to empirical measures of neural activity, or in some cases even behavior. Perturbation of specific synaptic parameters can simulate hypothesized disease mechanisms and pharmacological manipulations, generating predictions for their impacts on neural activity and behavior (23-25). Such model results can then be related to experimental findings from clinical populations, pharmacological challenge, or animal models of disease states. Through mechanistically linking molecular, cellular, circuit, and ultimately behavioral levels of analysis, biophysically based modeling has the potential to inform rational design of pharmacological therapies.

We provide a targeted review of progress in biophysically based circuit modeling of largescale neural dynamics in the human brain and application of these whole-brain neural circuit models to understanding findings in clinical neuroimaging. Dynamical modeling has been applied to a variety of neuroimaging phenomena, including in psychiatric disorders; a more general overview of this field can be found in several recent review articles (14,26,27). In particular, a number of studies have used brain network models to study how the FC of neural activity across brain areas emerges from the interplay between their anatomical structural connectivity and intrinsic dynamics (27-33).

We focus here on whole-brain dynamical models that attempt to bridge from the level of synapses and neurons to that of spatiotemporal dynamics in distributed brain systems. These models can incorporate key features of neuronal and synaptic processes and integrate data from multimodal human neuroimaging (32). They can therefore study how synaptic-level physiological perturbations impact large-scale organization of functional dynamics. For computational psychiatry applications, we focus on studies relating these models to schizophrenia (34-37). Schizophrenia is a disorder thought to involve large-scale dysconnectivity (38,39) as well as alterations in local cortical excitation-inhibition (E-I) physiology (40-43) and therefore poses important research questions that are amenable to this level of computational modeling.

We also highlight opportunities in computational psychiatry that will require further development of this class of models. In particular, we emphasize the importance of regional heterogeneity of neural microcircuitry, including across cortical areas (33), which can be informed by empirical measurements such as large-scale transcriptome mapping (44-46). Increasing neurobiological detail in the model's microcircuitry is important to address synaptic-level hypotheses related to psychiatric disorders, yet this also poses critical challenges for how such model features can be adequately constrained and tested with neuroimaging data. Pharmacological neuroimaging may provide an important test bed for future model development and validation (47-50). Whole-brain circuit modeling can thereby provide a translational bridge to advance clinical neuroscience.

COMPUTATIONAL MODELS OF LARGE-SCALE RESTING-STATE DYNAMICS AT THE WHOLE-BRAIN LEVEL

Computational neuroscience has focused primarily on modeling phenomena at levels from neurons to small microcircuits, rather than large-scale neural systems (22). Dynamical modeling of brain networks has a rich history integrating developments from fields including neurophysiology, statistical physics, and nonlinear dynamics. In particular, the field has been strongly influenced by analysis of synchronization of coupled oscillators (51-54). [For a useful overview, see (27).]

Computational modeling of large-scale brain dynamics has been limited by experimental techniques to characterize neural structure and function at the whole-brain level. Progress in resting-state fMRI has played an important role in development of a class of neural circuit models that explicitly relate to resting-state FC. Whole-brain models — which typically do not actually model the entire brain, but, for instance, a cortical hemisphere—operate at the level of large-scale neural systems and address questions such as how distributed structural connectivity shapes FC through dynamical interactions of neuronal populations across brain regions (26,27,55).

Whole-brain models of resting-state dynamics typically represent a brain as a network of interconnected discrete nodes (Figure 1A), with each node simulating a region, e.g., parcellated cortical area. The model architecture requires two key elements: 1) a structural connectivity matrix defining coupling between areas, which can be derived from empirical data, typically diffusion MRI, and 2) equations governing neural dynamics of each local

node, which can be constrained by known neurophysiology (55). The net input to each node can contain contributions from local recurrent connections, long-range connections from other nodes, and fluctuating background input (31,32,56). As nodes respond to inputs, their activity fluctuates in time. Owing to long-range coupling, fluctuations are correlated across nodes, generating spatiotemporal patterns that can be characterized via measures such as FC. The resultant FC pattern is thereby shaped not only by underlying structural connectivity but also by dynamical properties of local nodes.

Neural activity in each node can generate simulated blood oxygen level–dependent signals via hemodynamic models, such as the Balloon-Windkessel model (57), enabling more direct comparison with fMRI measures (58). Empirical neuroimaging data (e.g., fMRI resting-state FC matrices, MEG spectral power maps) can be used to quantitatively fit model parameters to optimize the similarity between simulated and empirical FC patterns (31-33).

Structural connectivity describes long-range inter-areal connections through which nodes interact. In nonhuman primates, these projections can be quantified and compiled through invasive tract-tracing methods (59,60). Such measurements have been used in models of monkey cortex (28,30,61). In models of human cortex, for which tract tracing is unavailable, diffusion MRI can be used to derive a structural connectivity matrix through diffusion tractography (31-35,56,62,63). In models, elements of the structural connectivity matrix set the strength of coupling between nodes. A fundamental limitation of diffusion MRI is that it can yield only symmetric structural connectivity estimates. Loss of directionality in longrange connectivity can impact network properties (64). One approach to mitigate this limitation is to estimate directional effective connectivity for a model by its fit to empirical data (65,66).

A second key element needed to link structural connectivity to FC is the choice for the model generating the local dynamics of the nodes, which differs substantially across computational studies (27,55,67). Owing to the spatiotemporal resolution of neuroimaging, these models typically eschew computationally intensive simulation of spiking neurons in favor of simulating each area with a small number of dynamical variables, which may describe the effective activity levels in neural populations. Models of local cortical nodes differ in their level of detail and correspondence of their parameters to neurophysiology. Most node models exhibit intrinsic dynamical regimes described either as an oscillator or as a point attractor state, and fluctuating background input can perturb the state of the node around these trajectories.

Several early seminal studies of whole-brain models simulated each area as a reduced excitable neural system whose dynamical regime intrinsically generates coherent oscillations, instantiated via a conductance-based neuronal model (28,68), a FitzHugh-Nagumo neuronal model (29), or a Wilson-Cowan excitatory-inhibitory model (30). Intrinsic oscillations can also be directly imposed as in the Kuramoto phase-oscillator model (36,69), in which each node is represented by a single dynamical variable, the phase of the oscillator. The Kuramoto model can be considered an abstraction or reduction of an oscillatory neural system, and its nodal simplicity facilitates tractable analyses of synchronization phenomena in networks (70). An important question is the degree to which oscillators describe

spontaneous dynamics of local microcircuits in awake cortex (71). Recent review articles provide a more comprehensive survey of various local node models (27,55,72).

For computational psychiatry applications, models should be able to instantiate perturbations to parameters that correspond to hypothesized neurobiological alterations in disease-related states (12,15,73). For these purposes, it is advantageous for the local node model to have greater biophysical fidelity, neurophysiologically interpretable parameters, and dynamical regimes in correspondence with in vivo neural activity. Simulation of each node as a large population of spiking neurons is computationally expensive, limiting its applicability (27,56,74). A substantial advance has been development of whole-brain models whose local nodes follow biophysically based mean-field dynamics derived from recurrent networks of excitatory and inhibitory neurons in a cortical microcircuit (31,32). The mean-field equations track aggregate levels of synaptic activity and firing rate in populations of asynchronously spiking neurons, such as excitatory pyramidal neurons of inhibitory interneurons in the local circuit (75). Stochastic background input to the mean-field population induces fluctuations in the dynamical variables describing activity in the population. This aggregate description is computationally tractable and well matched to the coarse spatiotemporal resolution of neuroimaging modalities (27,55).

Mean-field models make simplifying assumptions about circuit activity to reduce the dimensionality and complexity of the system. [For reviews of mean-field and neural field models and applications to neuroimaging, see (27,72).] For instance, typically mean-field models assume asynchronous spiking across the neuronal population, and they therefore cannot model neuronal circuit mechanisms that rely on precise spike timing. Further simplifying assumptions allow greater reduction of the system's dynamics, which may be favorable to match the coarseness of corresponding experimental measures. Of note, these reductions also pose challenges for parameter identifiability, as many biophysical parameters jointly shape the simplified dynamical properties.

Dynamical mean-field models have been applied to study how the physiological state of cortical circuits shapes FC (31,32). In these models, FC emerges from local asynchronous spontaneous fluctuations of areas that are driven by stochastic background input and coupled through structural connectivity. Computational tractability of mean-field models enables efficient analysis of how network dynamics are shaped by synaptic parameters. Deco *et al.* (31,32). fitted the long-range coupling strength parameter to maximize the similarity between simulated and empirical FC (Figure 1A). They found that the best fit occurred when the network's dynamical regime exhibits stable attractor dynamics in its baseline state but is near a bifurcation point where baseline activity destabilizes. Slightly below this point, the system exhibits modes of correlated fluctuations that are strong and broadly distributed across nodes, as observed in resting-state neuroimaging.

APPLICATIONS OF WHOLE-BRAIN CIRCUIT MODELS TO SCHIZOPHRENIA

In recent years, biophysically based models of resting-state dynamics have been applied to study circuit mechanisms underlying neuroimaging biomarkers. Here we focus on applications to schizophrenia, a neurodevelopmental disorder that is thought to involve

large-scale dysconnectivity (38,39) and disruptions in the synaptic E-I balance of local cortical microcircuits (40-43,76). This provides an important test bed in which whole-brain modeling can simulate how synaptic-level perturbations shape large-scale dysconnectivity (73). As shown by whole-brain models described above, FC is shaped both by anatomical structural connectivity and by the dynamics of local circuit activity. Therefore, FC alterations in a psychiatric disorder could be driven jointly by differences in long-range anatomical projections or in local circuit physiology. Biophysically based whole-brain modeling is well suited to examine the respective contributions of these mechanisms.

Schizophrenia is associated with alterations in structural connectivity, as measured by diffusion-weighted imaging of white matter (77-79). To examine how this impacts functional dysconnectivity in schizophrenia, Cabral et al. (37) analyzed a whole-brain model, based on asynchronous attractor dynamics, using structural connectivity matrices from patients with schizophrenia and matched control subjects (Figure 1B). They calculated graph-theoretic measures of the model-simulated FC and compared them with values from resting-state fMRI in patients and control subjects (80). Interestingly, the empirically measured structural connectivity alterations did not produce the functional dysconnectivity observed in patients. In contrast, the graph-theoretic features of functional dysconnectivity in schizophrenia could be captured by changing the global parameter scaling to all long-range connections, which can be interpreted as a synaptic strength (37). This study highlights that FC is shaped by more than structural connectivity and that synaptic disruptions may play a profound role in disease-related dysconnectivity.

As noted, a leading hypothesis for cortical dysfunction in schizophrenia is disruption in the synaptic E-I balance. In a series of studies, Yang et al. (34,35) applied whole-brain models to study the large-scale impact of alterations in the E-I ratio in cortical circuits, relating these effects to resting-state fMRI biomarkers in schizophrenia. Increasing the effective strength of connectivity at either the local or the long-range level, resulting in an elevated E-I ratio, can capture the elevated local and global neural variability observed in schizophrenia (34,81,82). Interestingly, the empirical functional dysconnectivity was preferential in association cortical networks compared with sensory networks. This raises the question of how a global E-I perturbation can give rise to preferential deficits in association networks. One possibility is that local circuit properties differ between association and sensory cortex, which contributes to a preferential vulnerability to E-I imbalance in association cortex. Instantiating this hypothesis in the model, Yang et al. (35) found that endowing association nodes with strong recurrent connectivity resulted in preferential dysconnectivity under elevated E-I ratio perturbations, in line with observations in schizophrenia. These studies highlight the importance of local synaptic properties on large-scale FC and suggest that heterogeneity of local properties across cortical areas may shape the whole-brain organization of dysconnectivity in psychiatric disorders.

A future challenge and opportunity for computational psychiatry concerns how to link anatomical or physiological biomarkers to the level of cognitive functions and behavior at which symptoms are manifested and disorders are diagnosed. For instance, schizophrenia is not defined as a disorder of resting-state FC, but is defined by characteristic symptoms including delusions and disorganized thinking, which may arise from aberrant inference

computations (83-85). Behavioral modeling has proposed circuit mechanisms by which false inferences in schizophrenia could arise from imbalanced excitatory-inhibitory interactions in hierarchical processing (86,87). Further research is needed to make connections between circuit-level models and psychological-level models, which may in turn help to link psychiatric biomarkers to symptoms.

IMPORTANCE OF CORTICAL HETEROGENEITY

Most biophysically based circuit models of human resting-state FC have treated all of the cortex as homogeneous, simulating all cortical areas as nodes with identical local circuit properties. Yet cortical microcircuitry varies across cortex in large-scale gradients (88-90); indeed, early areal parcellations were based on regional variation in cytoarchitecture and myeloarchitecture (91). Clinical neuroimaging effects show regional specificity (e.g., differential alterations in association vs. sensory cortical networks) (35,92-94). Therefore, an important direction for translational research in whole-brain modeling will be to incorporate heterogeneity of local circuit properties across cortical areas in principled ways. Such progress will enable greater applicability of these models to pressing challenges in clinical neuroscience. Below we describe examples of recent studies characterizing and modeling cortical heterogeneity.

An influential principle for the large-scale organization of cortex is sensory-to-association hierarchy. In nonhuman primates, anatomical hierarchy is defined by laminar patterns of long-range projections among areas (95,96), and this neural axis captures functionally defined processing hierarchies (95,97-100). To study hierarchical specialization of microcircuitry across human cortex, Burt *et al.* (46) analyzed transcriptional, anatomical, and neuroimaging data from humans and monkeys. They found that the structural MRIderived T1-weighted (T1w)/T2-weighted (T2w) map (91,101) provides a noninvasive proxy of anatomical hierarchy in primate cortex. By correlating the human T1w/T2w map to spatial profiles of gene expression from the Allen Human Brain Atlas (44,45), they found strong hierarchical gradients in expression of genes related to synaptic physiology, cell types, and cytoarchitecture. Remarkably, there is close topographic alignment between the T1w/T2w map and the dominant spatial pattern of gene expression variation across human cortex (Figure 2A, B).

How can whole-brain models incorporate heterogeneity of local circuit properties in a principled way that is constrained by empirical data? To address this, Demirta $et al. (33)$ developed a large-scale cortical circuit model incorporating hierarchical heterogeneity of local microcircuit properties. Model parameters were quantitatively fitted to multimodal human neuroimaging data, using approximate Bayesian computation and population Monte Carlo sampling to estimate posterior distributions for parameter estimates. To instantiate a hierarchical gradient, areal variation in local recurrent strengths was parametrized according to a predefined heterogeneity map, derived from the T1w/T2w map topography, which thereby constrains the topography of local circuit specialization without the need to fit separate parameters for each node in the network.

Compared with a model with homogeneous microcircuit properties (32) , the T1w/T2w– derived heterogeneity map substantially improves the fit to empirical resting-state FC patterns, capturing important sensory-association differences (33). In this model comparison, the heterogeneous model may have an improved fit simply as a result of its extra degrees of freedom, raising the question of whether the T1w/T2w–derived hierarchical heterogeneity map provides a preferential axis of cortical specialization compared with other possible heterogeneity maps. The authors found that the T1w/T2w–derived map indeed yielded substantially improved fits compared with randomized surrogate heterogeneity maps. These findings identify the T1w/T2w map as a preferential axis for heterogeneity shaping FC (102,103). More broadly, this study provides a useful path forward in hypothesis-driven whole-brain modeling by using the topography of a heterogeneity map to parametrize local circuit properties across brain areas. For instance, to simulate a pharmacological perturbation, a whole-brain model can explicitly simulate the regional expression pattern of the drug target by using the corresponding gene expression map.

The studies described above provide convergent evidence that hierarchical gradients of microcircuit properties shape large-scale specialization of cortical function (90). One circuit mechanism for temporal processing hierarchies (97-99) is regional gradients in local synaptic properties (61,104), consistent with microanatomical measurements of dendritic spines on pyramidal neurons (46,61,105,106). Interestingly, the hierarchical organization of the structural connectome can give rise to temporal hierarchies even in networks with homogeneous node properties (107). Future analyses are needed to understand the how interplay between gradients in local properties and network organization of structural connectomes shapes large-scale brain dynamics (61).

Pharmacological neuroimaging may provide a unique test bed for development and validation of whole-brain models with regional heterogeneity in properties such as receptor densities. One can test for correspondence between neuroimaging effects of a drug and the regional topography of its receptor expression. Preller et al. (47) characterized regional topography of acute lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD) effects on fMRI resting-state FC. LSD robustly induced hyperconnectivity predominately in sensory areas, especially the occipital visual cortex, and hypoconnectivity in higher-order association areas (Figure 2E). These neural effects as well as psychedelic effects of LSD were absent after pretreatment with a selective antagonist of the 5-hydroxytryptamine 2A receptor. The expression map for the gene 5HT2A, which codes for the 5-hydroxytryptamine 2A receptor, exhibits a strong positive correlation with the change in mean FC (change in global brain connectivity), exceeding the correlation for other candidate LSD-associated receptor genes (47) (Figure 2E, F). Biophysically based whole-brain models can directly integrate gene expression maps to simulate the neuroimaging effects of pharmacology (33). A growing literature links transcriptomic specialization across cortex with the organization of structural connectivity and FC (45,46,108-111). Integration of transcriptomics with connectomics in whole-brain models can potentially open new opportunities to explore the circuit bases of large-scale structure-function relationships.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Future model development is needed to address critical questions in clinical neuroscience. As described above, the local nodes of current whole-brain models are highly simplified in their description compared with the neurobiological complexity involved in the cellular and synaptic mechanisms hypothesized to underlie disorder-related states (27,72). Current meanfield models can incorporate key neurobiological details, such as biophysically constrained dynamics and recurrent connection strengths between excitatory pyramidal neurons and inhibitory interneurons (32). This level of resolution is sufficient for simulating the effects of relatively coarse perturbations, such as overall E-I imbalance or reductions in net synaptic strength (34-37,81). However, many hypothesized disruptions in psychiatric disorders involve more fine-grained aspects of neural microcircuits, such as distinct inhibitory interneuron cell types or specific cortical layers.

With more complex models, a key computational challenge will be how to map between model parameters and simulated neural features. The effects of multiple synaptic-level perturbations may converge on a common effective circuit disruption, such as E-I imbalance. Effective degeneracies may arise if different circuit alterations similarly impact the mesoscopic aggregate measures of neural activity, as are measured with current neuroimaging modalities. Therefore, the level of the modeling should be matched to the spatiotemporal resolution of the experimental data to which it will be related. Constraining complex neural models may be facilitated through integration of multimodal functional modalities, such as combining the spatial resolution of fMRI with the temporal resolution of EEG.

Model extensions to include additional fine-grained elements can be informed by basic neurobiology and will need to relate model predictions to the limited spatial and temporal resolution of different human neuroimaging modalities. For instance, inhibitory interneuron classes in cortex differentially contribute to different oscillatory modes of circuit dynamics; disorder-related perturbations to each interneuron class should therefore make dissociable predictions for oscillations in cortical electrophysiology (112,113). These dynamics are too fast to resolve with blood oxygen level–dependent imaging but are amenable to methods such as EEG and MEG (114-116). EEG spectral features have motivated neural models such as the influential Jansen-Rit model (117) and developments incorporating further neurobiological detail (118,119).

Cortical layers differ in their oscillatory dynamics, which in turn shapes the frequency channels used in feedforward and feedback projections across the cortical hierarchy (100,120), as observed in human MEG (121). These spectral properties of hierarchical interactions were recently simulated in a laminar circuit model of monkey cortex (122), and future modeling can extend such phenomena to human neuroimaging findings. Experimentally constrained extensions of local cortical circuit models, embedded in largescale network simulations, will expand the range of computational psychiatry questions these models can address.

Another promising direction for model extension is to incorporate subcortical substructures, such as thalamus. Dynamical neural models of a thalamocortical loop can capture key aspects of the resting-state dynamics, such as the temporal statistics of the alpha rhythm in occipital cortex from EEG (123,124). An open question is how thalamus shapes the spatial patterns of resting-state FC in cortex. Distinct thalamic nuclei interact with different regions of cortex in a bidirectional manner. Future large-scale modeling can be extended to include nodes for thalamic nuclei, with distinct projection patterns with cortex for different nuclei. These models should simulate thalamic nodes differently than cortical nodes in their local dynamics and parametrization, as the thalamus differs in its local synaptic connectivity and neuronal properties (125). The thalamus is a prominent site of dysconnectivity in schizophrenia, with preferential alterations in mediodorsal thalamus, which is interconnected with prefrontal cortex (126-133). Circuit modeling is well suited to study how disruptions of subcortical structures affect functional dynamics at the whole-brain level through large-scale recurrent cortical-subcortical interactions.

There is an acute need for computational psychiatry approaches to parse the individual variation across patients within a diagnostic category. Most prior biophysically based wholebrain models applied to psychiatric disorders have been fitted at the group level (34-37). Recent studies have found that fitting dynamical neural models to fMRI data at the individual level can yield personalized parameter estimates that correlate with clinically relevant behavioral measures (134,135). Individual-level fitting of biophysically based models has the potential to guide hypotheses of variation in neurophysiological state and characterize dimensional variation or clustering within a diagnostic category (136).

In summary, biophysically based whole-brain models of human resting-state dynamics are well positioned to impact the nascent field of computational psychiatry. This emerging modeling framework has the potential to integrate multimodal clinical neuroimaging findings and link them with translational knowledge of neurophysiology and hypothesized synaptic-level alterations in psychiatric disorders.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS AND DISCLOSURES

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (Grant No. R01 MH112746 [to JDM] and Grant No. R01 MH108590 [to AA]) and the Swartz Foundation (to MD).

JDM is a consultant for BlackThorn Therapeutics, Inc. AA is a member of the Scientific Advisory Board of and a consultant for Black-Thorn Therapeutics, Inc. JDM and AA report patents on "Methods and Tools for Predictive Application of Neuroimaging and Gene Expression Mapping" (Provisional Patent Application No. 62/567,087) and "Systems and Methods for Neuro-Behavioral Relationships in Dimensional Geometric Embedding" (Provisional Patent Application No. 62/642,900). MD reports no biomedical financial interests or potential conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

- 1. Glantz LA, Lewis DA (2000): Decreased dendritic spine density on prefrontal cortical pyramidal neurons in schizophrenia. Arch Gen Psychiatry 57:65–73. [PubMed: 10632234]
- 2. Beneyto M, Lewis DA (2011): Insights into the neurodevelopmental origin of schizophrenia from postmortem studies of prefrontal cortical circuitry. Int J Dev Neurosci 29:295–304. [PubMed: 20797429]
- 3. BrainSeq: A Human Brain Genomics Consortium (2015): BrainSeq: Neurogenomics to drive novel target discovery for neuropsychiatric disorders. Neuron 88:1078–1083. [PubMed: 26687217]

- 4. Jaffe AE, Straub RE, Shin JH, Tao R, Gao Y, Collado Torres L, et al. (2017): Developmental and genetic regulation of the human cortex transcriptome in schizophrenia. Nat Neurosci 21:1117–1125.
- 5. Gandal MJ, Haney JR, Parikshak NN, Leppa V, Ramaswami G, Hartl C, et al. (2018): Shared molecular neuropathology across major psychiatric disorders parallels polygenic overlap. Science 359:693–697. [PubMed: 29439242]
- 6. Scifo E, Pabba M, Kapadia F, Ma T, Lewis DA, Tseng GC, Sibille E (2018): Sustained molecular pathology across episodes and remission in major depressive disorder. Biol Psychiatry 83:81–89. [PubMed: 28935211]
- 7. Fox MD, Raichle ME (2007): Spontaneous fluctuations in brain activity observed with functional magnetic resonance imaging. Nat Rev Neurosci 8:700–711. [PubMed: 17704812]
- 8. Biswal BB, Mennes M, Zuo XN, Gohel S, Kelly C, Smith SM, et al. (2010): Toward discovery science of human brain function. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107:4734–4739. [PubMed: 20176931]
- 9. Buckner RL, Krienen FM, Yeo BTT (2013): Opportunities and limitations of intrinsic functional connectivity MRI. Nat Neurosci 16:832–837. [PubMed: 23799476]
- 10. Power JD, Schlaggar BL, Petersen SE (2014): Studying brain organization via spontaneous fMRI signal. Neuron 84:681–696. [PubMed: 25459408]
- 11. Greicius M (2008): Resting-state functional connectivity in neuropsychiatric disorders. Curr Opin Neurol 21:424–430. [PubMed: 18607202]
- 12. Wang XJ, Krystal JH (2014): Computational psychiatry. Neuron 84:638–654. [PubMed: 25442941]
- 13. Stephan KE, Mathys C (2014): Computational approaches to psychiatry. Curr Opin Neurobiol 25:85–92. [PubMed: 24709605]
- 14. Stephan KE, Iglesias S, Heinzle J, Diaconescu AO (2015): Translational perspectives for computational neuroimaging. Neuron 87:716–732. [PubMed: 26291157]
- 15. Anticevic A, Murray JD, Barch DM (2015): Bridging levels of understanding in schizophrenia through computational modeling. Clin Psychol Sci 3:433–459. [PubMed: 25960938]
- 16. Huys QJM, Maia TV, Frank MJ (2016): Computational psychiatry as a bridge from neuroscience to clinical applications. Nat Neurosci 19:404–413. [PubMed: 26906507]
- 17. Redish AD, Gordon JA (2016): Computational Psychiatry: New Perspectives on Mental Illness Strüngmann Forum reports. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- 18. Anticevic A, Murray JD (2017): Computational Psychiatry: Mathematical Modeling of Mental Illness. London: Academic Press.
- 19. Rolls ET, Loh M, Deco G, Winterer G (2008): Computational models of schizophrenia and dopamine modulation in the prefrontal cortex. Nat Rev Neurosci 9:696–709. [PubMed: 18714326]
- 20. Durstewitz D, Seamans JK (2008): The dual-state theory of prefrontal cortex dopamine function with relevance to catechol-o-methyltransferase genotypes and schizophrenia. Biol Psychiatry 64:739–749. [PubMed: 18620336]
- 21. Murray JD, Wang XJ (2017): Cortical circuit models in psychiatry: Linking disrupted excitation– inhibition balance to cognitive deficits associated with schizophrenia In: Computational Psychiatry: Mathematical Modeling of Mental Illness. London: Academic Press, 3–25.
- 22. Gerstner W, Sprekeler H, Deco G (2012): Theory and simulation in neuroscience. Science 338:60– 65. [PubMed: 23042882]
- 23. Loh M, Rolls ET, Deco G (2007): A dynamical systems hypothesis of schizophrenia. PLoS Comput Biol 3:e228. [PubMed: 17997599]
- 24. Murray JD, Anticevic A, Gancsos M, Ichinose M, Corlett PR, Krystal JH, Wang XJ (2014): Linking microcircuit dysfunction to cognitive impairment: effects of disinhibition associated with schizophrenia in a cortical working memory model. Cereb Cortex 24:859–872. [PubMed: 23203979]
- 25. Lam NH, Borduqui T, Hallak J, Roque AC, Anticevic A, Krystal JH, et al. (2017): Effects of altered excitation-inhibition balance on decision making in a cortical circuit model [published online ahead of print Jan 16]. bioRxiv.
- 26. Deco G, Kringelbach ML (2014): Great expectations: Using whole-brain computational connectomics for understanding neuropsychiatric disorders. Neuron 84:892–905. [PubMed: 25475184]

- 27. Breakspear M (2017): Dynamic models of large-scale brain activity. Nat Neurosci 20:340–352. [PubMed: 28230845]
- 28. Honey CJ, Kötter R, Breakspear M, Sporns O (2007): Network structure of cerebral cortex shapes functional connectivity on multiple time scales. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104:10240–10245. [PubMed: 17548818]
- 29. Ghosh A, Rho Y, McIntosh AR, Kötter R, Jirsa VK (2008): Noise during rest enables the exploration of the brain's dynamic repertoire. PLoS Comput Biol 4:e1000196. [PubMed: 18846206]
- 30. Deco G, Jirsa V, McIntosh AR, Sporns O, Kötter R (2009): Key role of coupling, delay, and noise in resting brain fluctuations. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106:10302–10307. [PubMed: 19497858]
- 31. Deco G, Ponce-Alvarez A, Mantini D, Romani GL, Hagmann P, Corbetta M (2013): Resting-state functional connectivity emerges from structurally and dynamically shaped slow linear fluctuations. J Neurosci 33:11239–11252. [PubMed: 23825427]
- 32. Deco G, Ponce-Alvarez A, Hagmann P, Romani GL, Mantini D, Corbetta M (2014): How local excitation-inhibition ratio impacts the whole brain dynamics. J Neurosci 34:7886–7898. [PubMed: 24899711]
- 33. Demirta M, Burt JB, Helmer M, Ji JL, Adkinson B, Glasser MF, et al. (2018): Hierarchical heterogeneity across human cortex shapes large-scale neural dynamics [published online ahead of print Jun 8]. bioRxiv.
- 34. Yang GJ, Murray JD, Repovs G, Cole MW, Savic A, Glasser MF, et al. (2014): Altered global brain signal in schizophrenia. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 111:7438–7443. [PubMed: 24799682]
- 35. Yang GJ, Murray JD, Wang XJ, Glahn DC, Pearlson GD, Repovs G, et al. (2016): Functional hierarchy underlies preferential connectivity disturbances in schizophrenia. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 113:E219–E228. [PubMed: 26699491]
- 36. Cabral J, Hugues E, Kringelbach ML, Deco G (2012): Modeling the outcome of structural disconnection on resting-state functional connectivity. Neuroimage 62:1342–1353. [PubMed: 22705375]
- 37. Cabral J, Fernandes HM, Van Hartevelt TJ, James AC, Kringelbach ML, Deco G (2013): Structural connectivity in schizophrenia and its impact on the dynamics of spontaneous functional networks. Chaos 23:046111. [PubMed: 24387590]
- 38. Stephan KE, Baldeweg T, Friston KJ (2006): Synaptic plasticity and dysconnection in schizophrenia. Biol Psychiatry 59:929–939. [PubMed: 16427028]
- 39. Uhlhaas PJ (2013): Dysconnectivity, large-scale networks and neuronal dynamics in schizophrenia. Curr Opin Neurobiol 23: 283–290. [PubMed: 23228430]
- 40. Lewis DA, Hashimoto T, Volk DW (2005): Cortical inhibitory neurons and schizophrenia. Nat Rev Neurosci 6:312–324. [PubMed: 15803162]
- 41. Lisman JE, Coyle JT, Green RW, Javitt DC, Benes FM, Heckers S, Grace AA (2008): Circuitbased framework for understanding neuro-transmitter and risk gene interactions in schizophrenia. Trends Neurosci 31:234–242. [PubMed: 18395805]
- 42. Marin O (2012): Interneuron dysfunction in psychiatric disorders. Nat Rev Neurosci 13:107–120. [PubMed: 22251963]
- 43. Nakazawa K, Zsiros V, Jiang Z, Nakao K, Kolata S, Zhang S, Belforte JE (2012): GABAergic interneuron origin of schizophrenia pathophysiology. Neuropharmacology 62:1574–1583. [PubMed: 21277876]
- 44. Hawrylycz MJ, Lein ES, Guillozet-Bongaarts AL, Shen EH, Ng L, Miller JA, et al. (2012): An anatomically comprehensive atlas of the adult human brain transcriptome. Nature 489:391–399. [PubMed: 22996553]
- 45. Hawrylycz M, Miller JA, Menon V, Feng D, Dolbeare T, Guillozet-Bongaarts AL, et al. (2015): Canonical genetic signatures of the adult human brain. Nat Neurosci 18:1832–1844. [PubMed: 26571460]
- 46. Burt JB, Demirta M, Eckner WJ, Navejar NM, Ji JL, Martin WJ, et al. (2018): Hierarchy of transcriptomic specialization across human cortex captured by structural neuroimaging topography [published online ahead of print Aug 6]. Nat Neurosci.

- 47. Preller KH, Burt JB, Ji JL, Schleifer C, Adkinson B, Staempfli P, et al. (2017): Changes in global brain connectivity in LSD-induced altered states of consciousness are attributable to the 5-HT2A receptor [published online ahead of print Nov 13]. bioRxiv.
- 48. Anticevic A, Gancsos M, Murray JD, Repovs G, Driesen NR, Ennis DJ, et al. (2012): NMDA receptor function in large-scale anti-correlated neural systems with implications for cognition and schizophrenia. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 109:16720–16725. [PubMed: 23012427]
- 49. Driesen NR, McCarthy G, Bhagwagar Z, Bloch M, Calhoun V, D'Souza DC, et al. (2013): Relationship of resting brain hyperconnectivity and schizophrenia-like symptoms produced by the NMDA receptor antagonist ketamine in humans. Mol Psychiatry 18:1199–1204. [PubMed: 23337947]
- 50. Honey G, Bullmore E (2004): Human pharmacological MRI. Trends Pharmacol Sci 25:366–374. [PubMed: 15219979]
- 51. Freeman WJ (1987): Simulation of chaotic EEG patterns with a dynamic model of the olfactory system. Biol Cybern 56:139–150. [PubMed: 3593783]
- 52. Collins JJ, Stewart IN (1993): Coupled nonlinear oscillators and the symmetries of animal gaits. J Nonlinear Sci 3:349–392.
- 53. Abarbanel HD, Rabinovich MI, Selverston A, Bazhenov MV, Huerta R, Sushchik MM, Rubchinskii LL (1996): Synchronisation in neural networks. Physics-Uspekhi 39:337–362.
- 54. Strogatz SH (2001): Exploring complex networks. Nature 410:268–276. [PubMed: 11258382]
- 55. Deco G, Jirsa VK, McIntosh AR (2011): Emerging concepts for the dynamical organization of resting-state activity in the brain. Nat Rev Neurosci 12:43–56. [PubMed: 21170073]
- 56. Deco G, Jirsa VK (2012): Ongoing cortical activity at rest: criticality, multistability, and ghost attractors. J Neurosci 32:3366–3375. [PubMed: 22399758]
- 57. Friston KJ, Harrison L, Penny W (2003): Dynamic causal modelling. Neuroimage 19:1273–1302. [PubMed: 12948688]
- 58. Razi A, Seghier ML, Zhou Y, McColgan P, Zeidman P, Park HJ, et al. (2017): Large-scale DCMs for resting-state fMRI. Netw Neurosci 1:222–241. [PubMed: 29400357]
- 59. Kötter R (2004): Online retrieval, processing, and visualization of primate connectivity data from the CoCoMac database. Neuroinformatics 2:127–144. [PubMed: 15319511]
- 60. Markov NT, Ercsey-Ravasz MM, Ribeiro Gomes AR, Lamy C, Magrou L, Vezoli J, et al. (2014): A weighted and directed interareal connectivity matrix for macaque cerebral cortex. Cereb Cortex 24:17–36. [PubMed: 23010748]
- 61. Chaudhuri R, Knoblauch K, Gariel MA, Kennedy H, Wang XJ (2015): A large-scale circuit mechanism for hierarchical dynamical processing in the primate cortex. Neuron 88:419–431. [PubMed: 26439530]
- 62. Hagmann P, Cammoun L, Gigandet X, Meuli R, Honey CJ, Wedeen VJ, Sporns O (2008): Mapping the structural core of human cerebral cortex. PLoS Biol 6:e159. [PubMed: 18597554]
- 63. Honey CJ, Sporns O, Cammoun L, Gigandet X, Thiran JP, Meuli R, Hagmann P (2009): Predicting human resting-state functional connectivity from structural connectivity. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106:2035–2040. [PubMed: 19188601]
- 64. Kale P, Zalesky A, Gollo LL (2018): Estimating the impact of structural directionality: How reliable are undirected connectomes? Netw Neurosci 2:259–284. [PubMed: 30234180]
- 65. Friston KJ (2011): Functional and effective connectivity: A review. Brain Connect 1:13–36. [PubMed: 22432952]
- 66. Gilson M, Moreno-Bote R, Ponce-Alvarez A, Ritter P, Deco G (2016): Estimation of directed effective connectivity from fMRI functional connectivity hints at asymmetries of cortical connectome. PLoS Comput Biol 12:e1004762. [PubMed: 26982185]
- 67. Messé A, Rudrauf D, Giron A, Marrelec G (2015): Predicting functional connectivity from structural connectivity via computational models using MRI: An extensive comparison study. Neuroimage 111:65–75. [PubMed: 25682944]
- 68. Breakspear M, Terry JR, Friston KJ (2003): Modulation of excitatory synaptic coupling facilitates synchronization and complex dynamics in a biophysical model of neuronal dynamics. Network 14:703–732. [PubMed: 14653499]

- 69. Cabral J, Hugues E, Sporns O, Deco G (2011): Role of local network oscillations in resting-state functional connectivity. Neuroimage 57:130–139. [PubMed: 21511044]
- 70. Breakspear M, Heitmann S, Daffertshofer A (2010): Generative models of cortical oscillations: Neurobiological implications of the Kuramoto model. Front Hum Neurosci 4:190. [PubMed: 21151358]
- 71. Wang XJ (2010): Neurophysiological and computational principles of cortical rhythms in cognition. Physiol Rev 90:1195–1268. [PubMed: 20664082]
- 72. Deco G, Jirsa VK, Robinson PA, Breakspear M, Friston K (2008): The dynamic brain: From spiking neurons to neural masses and cortical fields. PLoS Comput Biol 4:e1000092. [PubMed: 18769680]
- 73. Anticevic A, Cole MW, Repovs G, Savic A, Driesen NR, Yang G, et al. (2013): Connectivity, pharmacology, and computation: Toward a mechanistic understanding of neural system dysfunction in schizophrenia. Front Psychiatry 4:169. [PubMed: 24399974]
- 74. Izhikevich EM, Edelman GM (2008): Large-scale model of mammalian thalamocortical systems. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105:3593–3598. [PubMed: 18292226]
- 75. Wong KF, Wang XJ (2006): A recurrent network mechanism of time integration in perceptual decisions. J Neurosci 26:1314–1328. [PubMed: 16436619]
- 76. Krystal JH, Anticevic A, Yang GJ, Dragoi G, Driesen NR, Wang XJ, Murray JD (2017): Impaired tuning of neural ensembles and the pathophysiology of schizophrenia: A translational and computational neuroscience perspective. Biol Psychiatry 81:874–885. [PubMed: 28434616]
- 77. Zalesky A, Fornito A, Seal ML, Cocchi L, Westin CF, Bullmore ET, et al. (2011): Disrupted axonal fiber connectivity in schizophrenia. Biol Psychiatry 69:80–89. [PubMed: 21035793]
- 78. van den Heuvel MP, Sporns O, Collin G, Scheewe T, Mandl RCW, Cahn W, et al. (2013): Abnormal rich club organization and functional brain dynamics in schizophrenia. JAMA Psychiatry 70:783–792. [PubMed: 23739835]
- 79. Fornito A, Bullmore ET (2015): Reconciling abnormalities of brain network structure and function in schizophrenia. Curr Opin Neurobiol 30:44–50. [PubMed: 25238608]
- 80. Lynall ME, Bassett DS, Kerwin R, McKenna PJ, Kitzbichler M, Muller U, Bullmore E (2010): Functional connectivity and brain networks in schizophrenia. J Neurosci 30:9477–9487. [PubMed: 20631176]
- 81. Anticevic A, Hu X, Xiao Y, Hu J, Li F, Bi F, et al. (2015): Early-course unmedicated schizophrenia patients exhibit elevated prefrontal connectivity associated with longitudinal change. J Neurosci 35: 267–886. [PubMed: 25568120]
- 82. Cole MW, Yang GJ, Murray JD, Repovš G, Anticevic A (2016): Functional connectivity change as shared signal dynamics. J Neurosci Methods 259:22–39. [PubMed: 26642966]
- 83. Corlett PR, Taylor JR, Wang XJ, Fletcher PC, Krystal JH (2010): Toward a neurobiology of delusions. Prog Neurobiol 92:345–369. [PubMed: 20558235]
- 84. Adams RA, Stephan KE, Brown HR, Frith CD, Friston KJ (2013): The computational anatomy of psychosis. Front Psychiatry 4:47. [PubMed: 23750138]
- 85. Powers AR, Mathys C, Corlett PR (2017): Pavlovian conditioning-induced hallucinations result from overweighting of perceptual priors. Science 357:596–600. [PubMed: 28798131]
- 86. Jardri R, Hugdahl K, Hughes M, Brunelin J, Waters F, Alderson-Day B, et al. (2016): Are hallucinations due to an imbalance between excitatory and inhibitory influences on the brain? Schizophr Bull 42:1124–1134. [PubMed: 27261492]
- 87. Leptourgos P, Denève S, Jardri R (2017): Can circular inference relate the neuropathological and behavioral aspects of schizophrenia? Curr Opin Neurobiol 46:154–161. [PubMed: 28915387]
- 88. Palomero-Gallagher N, Zilles K (2017): Cortical layers: Cyto-, myelo-, receptor- and synaptic architecture in human cortical areas [published online ahead of print Aug 12]. Neuroimage.
- 89. Dombrowski SM, Hilgetag CC, Barbas H (2001): Quantitative architecture distinguishes prefrontal cortical systems in the rhesus monkey. Cereb Cortex 11:975–988. [PubMed: 11549620]
- 90. Huntenburg JM, Bazin PL, Margulies DS (2018): Large-scale gradients in human cortical organization. Trends Cogn Sci 22:21–31. [PubMed: 29203085]

- 91. Glasser MF, Goyal MS, Preuss TM, Raichle ME, Van Essen DC (2014): Trends and properties of human cerebral cortex: correlations with cortical myelin content. Neuroimage 93(Pt 2):165–175. [PubMed: 23567887]
- 92. Baker JT, Holmes AJ, Masters GA, Yeo BTT, Krienen F, Buckner RL, Öngür D (2014): Disruption of cortical association networks in schizophrenia and psychotic bipolar disorder. JAMA Psychiatry 71:109–118. [PubMed: 24306091]
- 93. Whitfield-Gabrieli S, Thermenos HW, Milanovic S, Tsuang MT, Faraone SV, McCarley RW, et al. (2009): Hyperactivity and hyperconnectivity of the default network in schizophrenia and in firstdegree relatives of persons with schizophrenia. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106:1279–1284. [PubMed: 19164577]
- 94. Buckner RL, Sepulcre J, Talukdar T, Krienen FM, Liu H, Hedden T, et al. (2009): Cortical hubs revealed by intrinsic functional connectivity: Mapping, assessment of stability, and relation to Alzheimer's disease. J Neurosci 29:1860–1873. [PubMed: 19211893]
- 95. Felleman DJ, Van Essen DC (1991): Distributed hierarchical processing in the primate cerebral cortex. Cereb Cortex 1:1–47. [PubMed: 1822724]
- 96. Markov NT, Vezoli J, Chameau P, Falchier A, Quilodran R, Huissoud C, et al. (2014): Anatomy of hierarchy: feedforward and feedback pathways in macaque visual cortex. J Comp Neurol 522:225– 259. [PubMed: 23983048]
- 97. Lerner Y, Honey CJ, Silbert LJ, Hasson U (2011): Topographic mapping of a hierarchy of temporal receptive windows using a narrated story. J Neurosci 31:2906–2915. [PubMed: 21414912]
- 98. Honey CJ, Thesen T, Donner TH, Silbert LJ, Carlson CE, Devinsky O, et al. (2012): Slow cortical dynamics and the accumulation of information over long timescales. Neuron 76:423–434. [PubMed: 23083743]
- 99. Murray JD, Bernacchia A, Freedman DJ, Romo R, Wallis JD, Cai X, et al. (2014): A hierarchy of intrinsic timescales across primate cortex. Nat Neurosci 17:1661–1663. [PubMed: 25383900]
- 100. Bastos AM, Vezoli J, Bosman CA, Schoffelen JM, Oostenveld R, Dowdall JR, et al. (2015): Visual areas exert feedforward and feedback influences through distinct frequency channels. Neuron 85:390–401. [PubMed: 25556836]
- 101. Glasser MF, Van Essen DC (2011): Mapping human cortical areas in vivo based on myelin content as revealed by T1- and T2-weighted MRI. J Neurosci 31:11597–11616. [PubMed: 21832190]
- 102. Margulies DS, Ghosh SS, Goulas A, Falkiewicz M, Huntenburg JM, Langs G, et al. (2016): Situating the default-mode network along a principal gradient of macroscale cortical organization. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 113:12574–12579. [PubMed: 27791099]
- 103. Huntenburg JM, Bazin PL, Goulas A, Tardif CL, Villringer A, Margulies DS (2017): A systematic relationship between functional connectivity and intracortical myelin in the human cerebral cortex. Cereb Cortex 27:981–997. [PubMed: 28184415]
- 104. Murray JD, Jaramillo J, Wang XJ (2017): Working memory and decision-making in a frontoparietal circuit model. J Neurosci 37:12167–12186. [PubMed: 29114071]
- 105. Elston GN (2003): Cortex, cognition and the cell: New insights into the pyramidal neuron and prefrontal function. Cereb Cortex 13:1124–1138. [PubMed: 14576205]
- 106. Scholtens LH, Schmidt R, de Reus MA, van den Heuvel MP (2014): Linking macroscale graph analytical organization to microscale neuroarchitectonics in the macaque connectome. J Neurosci 34:12192–12205. [PubMed: 25186762]
- 107. Gollo LL, Zalesky A, Hutchison RM, van den Heuvel M, Breakspear M (2015): Dwelling quietly in the rich club: Brain network determinants of slow cortical fluctuations. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 370(1668).
- 108. Wang GZ, Belgard TG, Mao D, Chen L, Berto S, Preuss TM, et al. (2015): Correspondence between resting-state activity and brain gene expression. Neuron 88:659–666. [PubMed: 26590343]
- 109. Krienen FM, Yeo BTT, Ge T, Buckner RL, Sherwood CC (2016): Transcriptional profiles of supragranular-enriched genes associate with corticocortical network architecture in the human brain. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 113:E469–E478. [PubMed: 26739559]

- 110. Richiardi J, Altmann A, Milazzo AC, Chang C, Chakravarty MM, Banaschewski T, et al. (2015): Correlated gene expression supports synchronous activity in brain networks. Science 348:1241– 1244. [PubMed: 26068849]
- 111. Fulcher BD, Fornito A (2016): A transcriptional signature of hub connectivity in the mouse connectome. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 113:1435–1440. [PubMed: 26772314]
- 112. Gonzalez-Burgos G, Lewis DA (2008): GABA neurons and the mechanisms of network oscillations: implications for understanding cortical dysfunction in schizophrenia. Schizophr Bull 34:944–961. [PubMed: 18586694]
- 113. Neymotin SA, Lazarewicz MT, Sherif M, Contreras D, Finkel LH, Lytton WW (2011): Ketamine disrupts θ modulation of γ ina computer model of hippocampus. J Neurosci 31:11733–11743. [PubMed: 21832203]
- 114. Uhlhaas PJ, Singer W (2010): Abnormal neural oscillations and synchrony in schizophrenia. Nat Rev Neurosci 11:100–113. [PubMed: 20087360]
- 115. Rivolta D, Heidegger T, Scheller B, Sauer A, Schaum M, Birkner K, et al. (2015): Ketamine dysregulates the amplitude and connectivity of high-frequency oscillations in cortical-subcortical networks in humans: Evidence from resting-state magnetoencephalography recordings. Schizophr Bull 41:1105–1114. [PubMed: 25987642]
- 116. Grent-'t-Jong T, Rivolta D, Sauer A, Grube M, Singer W, Wibral M, Uhlhaas PJ (2016): MEGmeasured visually induced gamma-band oscillations in chronic schizophrenia: Evidence for impaired generation of rhythmic activity in ventral stream regions. Schizophr Res 176:177–185. [PubMed: 27349815]
- 117. Jansen BH, Rit VG (1995): Electroencephalogram and visual evoked potential generation in a mathematical model of coupled cortical columns. Biol Cybern 73:357–366. [PubMed: 7578475]
- 118. Robinson PA, Rennie CJ, Wright JJ, Bahramali H, Gordon E, Rowe DL (2001): Prediction of electroencephalographic spectra from neurophysiology. Phys Rev E Stat Nonlin Soft Matter Phys 63(2 Pt 1): 021903. [PubMed: 11308514]
- 119. Bastos AM, Usrey WM, Adams RA, Mangun GR, Fries P, Friston KJ (2012): Canonical microcircuits for predictive coding. Neuron 76:695–711. [PubMed: 23177956]
- 120. van Kerkoerle T, Self MW, Dagnino B, Gariel-Mathis MA, Poort J, van der Togt C, Roelfsema PR (2014): Alpha and gamma oscillations characterize feedback and feedforward processing in monkey visual cortex. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 111:14332–14341. [PubMed: 25205811]
- 121. Michalareas G, Vezoli J, van Pelt S, Schoffelen JM, Kennedy H, Fries P (2016): Alpha-beta and gamma rhythms subserve feedback and feedforward influences among human visual cortical areas. Neuron 89:384–397. [PubMed: 26777277]
- 122. Mejias JF, Murray JD, Kennedy H, Wang XJ (2016): Feedforward and feedback frequencydependent interactions in a large-scale laminar network of the primate cortex. Sci Adv 2:e1601335. [PubMed: 28138530]
- 123. Freyer F, Aquino K, Robinson PA, Ritter P, Breakspear M (2009): Bistability and non-Gaussian fluctuations in spontaneous cortical activity. J Neurosci 29:8512–8524. [PubMed: 19571142]
- 124. Freyer F, Roberts JA, Becker R, Robinson PA, Ritter P, Breakspear M (2011): Biophysical mechanisms of multistability in resting-state cortical rhythms. J Neurosci 31:6353–6361. [PubMed: 21525275]
- 125. Jones EG (2012): The Thalamus. Berlin: Springer.
- 126. Welsh RC, Chen AC, Taylor SF (2010): Low-frequency bold fluctuations demonstrate altered thalamocortical connectivity in schizophrenia. Schizophr Bull 36:713–722. [PubMed: 18990709]
- 127. Woodward ND, Karbasforoushan H, Heckers S (2012): Thalamocortical dysconnectivity in schizophrenia. Am J Psychiatry 169:1092–1099. [PubMed: 23032387]
- 128. Anticevic A, Cole MW, Repovs G, Murray JD, Brumbaugh MS, Winkler AM, et al. (2014): Characterizing thalamo-cortical disturbances in schizophrenia and bipolar illness. Cereb Cortex 24:3116–3130. [PubMed: 23825317]
- 129. Anticevic A, Yang G, Savic A, Murray JD, Cole MW, Repovs G, et al. (2014): Mediodorsal and visual thalamic connectivity differ in schizophrenia and bipolar disorder with and without psychosis history. Schizophr Bull 40:1227–1243. [PubMed: 25031221]

- 130. Woodward ND, Heckers S (2016): Mapping thalamocortical functional connectivity in chronic and early stages of psychotic disorders. Biol Psychiatry 79:1016–1025. [PubMed: 26248537]
- 131. Anticevic A, Haut K, Murray JD, Repovs G, Yang GJ, Diehl C, et al. (2015): Association of thalamic dysconnectivity and conversion to psychosis in youth and young adults at elevated clinical risk. JAMA Psychiatry 72:882–891. [PubMed: 26267151]
- 132. Murray JD, Anticevic A (2017): Toward understanding thalamocortical dysfunction in schizophrenia through computational models of neural circuit dynamics. Schizophr Res 180:70– 77. [PubMed: 27784534]
- 133. Ji JL, Diehl C, Schleifer C, Tamminga CA, Keshavan M, Sweeney J, et al. (2018): Schizophrenia exhibits bi-directional brain-wide alterations in cortico-striato-cerebellar circuits [published online ahead of print Mar 6]. bioRxiv.
- 134. Brodersen KH, Deserno L, Schlagenhauf F, Lin Z, Penny WD, Buhmann JM, Stephan KE (2014): Dissecting psychiatric spectrum disorders by generative embedding. Neuroimage Clin 4:98–111. [PubMed: 24363992]
- 135. Zimmermann J, Perry A, Breakspear M, Schirner M, Sachdev P, Wen W, et al. (2018): Differentiation of Alzheimer's disease based on local and global parameters in personalized virtual brain models. Neuroimage Clin 19:240–251. [PubMed: 30035018]
- 136. Stephan KE, Schlagenhauf F, Huys QJM, Raman S, Aponte EA, Brodersen KH, et al. (2017): Computational neuroimaging strategies for single patient predictions. Neuroimage 145(Pt B): 180–199. [PubMed: 27346545]

Murray et al. Page 18

Figure 1.

Computational circuit models of resting-state dynamics in the human brain and their application to study of functional dysconnectivity in schizophrenia. **(A)** Modeling framework. The neurodynamical model simulates dynamical activity of interconnected microcircuits, each representing a parcellated brain area. Structural connectivity, defining the strengths of long-range connections between local areas, is derived from diffusion magnetic resonance imaging tractography. The simulated blood oxygen level–dependent (BOLD) signal yields a model functional connectivity pattern, which can be compared with empirical functional connectivity patterns. The biophysical parameters of the model (e.g., local or long-range synaptic strengths) can then be fitted to optimize this correspondence. **(B)** Application of the model to study structural and functional dysconnectivity in schizophrenia. The graph-theoretic small-world index is calculated on the simulated functional connectivity, using distinct structural connectivity matrices for control subjects and patients with schizophrenia, as a function of the global coupling strength, and compared with empirically measured values (dotted lines). **(C)** Expansion of the model to incorporate hierarchical heterogeneity of local circuit properties, specifically stronger recurrent excitation (W) in association with cortical networks compared with sensory cortical networks. Elevated excitation-inhibition ratio increases preferential dysconnectivity in association networks in the model. The difference between association and sensory measures $(A - S)$ of within-

network connectivity (covariance) is plotted. **(D)** Empirical measures of within-network connectivity in schizophrenia reveal preferential increase in connectivity in association networks. DTI, diffusion tensor imaging; E-E, excitatory-to-excitatory; E-I, excitatory-toinhibitory; HCS, healthy control subjects; n.s., not significant; SCZ, schizophrenia (patients). [**(A)** Modified with permission from Deco et al. (31); (B) modified with permission from Cabral et al. (37); **(C)** and **(D)** modified with permission from Yang et al. (35).]

Murray et al. Page 20

Figure 2.

Heterogeneity of local circuit properties across human cortex shapes large-scale functional dynamics: insights from transcriptional mapping, computational modeling, and pharmacological neuroimaging. **(A)** (Top) Structural magnetic resonance imaging–derived T1-weighted (T1w)/T2-weighted (T2w) map over human cortex. The T1w/T2w map exhibits a hierarchical topography, with high values in primary sensorimotor areas and low values in higher-order association areas. (Bottom) The first principal component (PC1) of transcriptional expression levels across human cortex for brain-specific genes. PC1 is the spatial map that captures the maximal gene expression variance across cortical areas. **(B)** PC1 captures a dominant proportion of gene expression variance (left), and the T1w/T2w map is highly correlated with PC1 (right). **(C)** Computational modeling of hierarchical heterogeneity in the large-scale model. In contrast to a homogeneous model with uniform values for local circuit parameters across areas (top), in the heterogeneous model, values for local circuit parameters (e.g., recurrent excitatory strength) are scaled according to a heterogeneity map. The heterogeneity map shown is based on the T1w/T2w map to capture specialization along a sensory-association axis related to cortical hierarchy. **(D)** Hierarchical

heterogeneity of local circuit parameters improves the fit to empirical functional connectivity, compared with the homogeneous model or the structural connectivity (SC) (left). The heterogeneous model improves the fit through a gradient of increasing recurrent excitatory strengths along cortical hierarchy (right). **(E)** (Top) Change in global brain connectivity (GBC) (i.e., mean functional connectivity) on resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging induced by administration of lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD). (Bottom) Transcriptional expression levels for the gene HTR2A, which codes for the serotonergic 5 hydroxytryptamine 2A receptor. These maps are correlated ($r_p = .50$), with both exhibiting high values in occipital visual cortex. **(F)** Distribution across genes of the correlation between the transcriptional expression map and the LSD GBC map. Among putative LSDrelated receptor genes, $HTR2A$ exhibits the highest similarity with the LSD $\,$ GBC map and is in the top 5% of all genes. E-E, excitatory-to-excitatory; E-I, excitatory-to-inhibitory; mRNA, messenger RNA. [**(A)** and **(B)** modified with permission from Burt et al. (46); **(C)** and **(D)** modified with permission from Demirta *et al.* (33); **(E)** and **(F)** modified with permission from Preller et al. (47).]