SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

1. [Supplementary](#page-1-0) Methods

1.1. [Participants](#page-1-1) and study design

1.2. Data [acquisition](#page-2-0)

1.2.1. N-back [paradigm](#page-2-1)

1.3. Atlas [construction](#page-2-2)

1.4. [Network](#page-3-0) Control Theory

1.4.1. Model [assumptions](#page-3-1)

The [framework](#page-3-2) of network control theory that we have employed here is based on linear system model that relies on several [assumptions:](#page-3-2)

- 1.4.2. [Continuous](#page-3-3) versus discrete dynamical models
- 1.4.3. [Stabilization](#page-3-4) of the dynamical system
- 1.4.4. Time [horizon](#page-4-0)
- 1.4.5. On the [relationship](#page-4-1) between BOLD signal and control theory measures

1.5. On the use of control theory as a statistical [framework](#page-4-2)

1.6. Gene based polygenic [co-expression](#page-5-0) indices

Polygenic [co-expression](#page-5-1) index calculation

2. [Supplementary](#page-6-0) Results

- 2.1. Null models of [structural](#page-6-1) brain networks
- 2.2. Null models of spatial activity [patterns](#page-7-0)
- 2.3. Robustness to choice of [parcellation](#page-7-1) scheme
- 2.4. [Robustness](#page-7-2) to choice of edge definition
- 2.5. Impact of [medication](#page-7-3) and duration of illness on control properties
- 2.6. [Pharmacological](#page-8-0) validation using Risperidone
- 2.7. Null results for gene score and imaging [associations](#page-8-1)
- 2.8. Relation to previous gene score and imaging [associations](#page-8-2)
- 2.9. Comparison to more [conventional](#page-9-0) SPM analyses
- 2.10. [Suboptimal](#page-10-0) trajectories

3. [Supplementary](#page-10-1) figures

- 3.1. [Supplementary](#page-10-2) Figure 1: N-back task design
- 3.2. [Supplementary](#page-11-0) Figure 2: Control Energy, Stability and Average Brain Activity for Placebo and Amisulpride

3.3. [Supplementary](#page-11-1) Figure 3: Control Energy, Stability and Average Brain Activity for Individuals with schizophrenia and Healthy [Controls](#page-11-1)

3.4. [Supplementary](#page-13-0) Figure 4: Control Impact for different visualization thresholds

4. [Supplementary](#page-15-0) tables

- 4.1. [Supplementary](#page-16-0) Table 1: Statistical details for the main findings and replication analyses
- 4.2. [Supplementary](#page-18-0) Table 2: Graph metrics for structural connectomes

[Supplementary](#page-19-0) Table 3: List of brain regions included in the extended Glasser parcellation

5. [Supplementary](#page-27-0) references

1. Supplementary Methods

1.1. Participants and study design

All participants provided written informed consent for protocols approved by the Institutional Review Board of the medical faculty in Mannheim. For the first study including healthy controls and patients with schizophrenia, we included a total of 202 subjects (178 healthy controls, 24 individuals with schizophrenia, see Supplementary Table 1). General exclusion criteria in controls included the presence of a lifetime history of psychiatric, neurological, or significant general medical illness, pregnancy, a history of head trauma, and current alcohol or drug abuse. The patients were recruited from the Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy at the Central Institute of Mental Health in Mannheim and via local advertisements. A trained psychiatrist or psychologist verified the diagnosis of schizophrenia based on ICD-10 criteria.

Neuropsychological characterization of healthy controls included the trail-making-test B (TMT-B) (1) and the German multiple-choice vocabulary intelligence test (MWT-B) (2) as a measure of premorbid intelligence. Clinical characterization included the assessment of current symptom severity using the Positive and Negative Symptom Scale (PANSS) (3), Beck's Depression Inventory (4), measures of global functioning in daily life (global assessment of function (GAF)) and current antipsychotic medication dosage (converted into chlorpromazine dose equivalents (CPZE)).

For the second, pharmacological intervention study, 17 healthy individuals completed a subject- and observer-blind, placebo-controlled, randomized three-period cross-over study (see Table 2). Exclusion criteria included a regular consumption of drugs or history of drug or alcohol abuse; systolic blood pressure (SBP) greater than 140 or less than 90 mm Hg, and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) greater than 90 or less than 50 mm Hg; notable resting bradycardia (heart rate (HR) <40 bpm) or tachycardia (HR >90 bpm); use of any medication or herbal remedies taken within 14 days prior to randomization into the study or 5 times the elimination half-life of the medication, clinically significant abnormalities in laboratory test results (including hepatic and renal panels, complete blood count, chemistry panel and urinalysis): a history or presence of clinically significant ECG abnormalities (e.g. PQ/PR interval >210 ms, QTcF >450 ms) or cardiovascular disease (e.g. cardiac insufficiency, coronary artery disease, cardiomyopathy, hypokalemia, congestive heart failure, family history of congenital long QT syndrome, family history of sudden death); any personal or familial history of seizures, epilepsy or other convulsive condition, previous significant head trauma, or other factors predisposing to seizures; disorders of the central nervous system, cerebrovascular events, Parkinson's disease, migraine, depression, bipolar disorder, anxiety, any other psychiatric disorders or behavioral disturbances; regular smoking (>5 cigarettes, >3 pipe-fulls, >3 cigars per day); habitual caffeine consumption of more than 400 mg/d (approximately 4 cups of coffee or equivalent); a history or evidence of any clinically significant endocrinological, hepatic, renal, autoimmune, pulmonary, gastrointestinal, urogenital, oncological, hematological or any other disease; or a body mass index (BMI) of over 30 or below 22.

Participants were invited for a fixed interval of 7 days with each scanning session taking place at approximately the same time of day. On each of three scanning visits, individuals either received a single oral dose of 400 mg Amisulpride, 3 mg Risperidone or Placebo. MRI scanning took place 2 hours after drug administration, with the N-back paradigm commencing approximately 10 minutes after the start of the scan. One subject was excluded from the analysis due to an excessive body-mass index (BMI > 30).

1.2. Data acquisition

1.2.1. **N-back paradigm**

The visual N-back paradigm is a well-established and reliable working memory task consisting of a high memory load (2-back) and an attention control condition requiring motor response (0-back) (5-7). Specifically, a diamond-shaped stimulus containing a number from 1 to 4 was presented every 2 seconds (see Supplementary Figure 1). In the 0-back condition, subjects were required to press the button on the response box corresponding to the number currently displayed on the presentation screen. In the 2-back condition, subjects were required to press the button on the response box corresponding to the number presented two stimuli before the number currently displayed on the presentation screen. Stimuli were presented in alternating blocks of either 0-back or 2-back conditions. In each condition block, 14 stimuli were presented. Each condition block was repeated 4 times. Task performance was measured by accuracy (defined as the percent of correct answers) and reaction time (defined as the time span between stimulus onset and button press) for each condition separately.

1.3. Atlas construction

To combine structural and functional brain imaging data, we first constructed a brain atlas that equally well respects functional and anatomical features. We transformed a recently published multimodal atlas (8) into a volumetric format by projecting its FreeSurfer pial cortex coordinates into standard MNI space. A grey matter prior probability map (thresholded at 0.3) provided in SPM was used to define relevant voxels. Voxels were labeled by choosing the closest label with maximum distance of 4 mm. Since the published multimodal atlas does not cover all subcortical regions of interest (e.g. amygdala, thalamus), we complemented it with subcortical structures from the Harvard-Oxford atlas as implemented in FSL (9). Combining the two atlases resulted in 374 regions that covered cortical and subcortical structures. A full list of regions included in the combined atlas can be found in Supplementary Table 3.

1.4. Network Control Theory

1.4.1. Model assumptions

The framework of network control theory that we have employed here is based on linear system model that relies on several assumptions:

 Linearity: Linearity implies that the system evolves linearly over time. This is probably not an accurate description of most brain dynamics, but non-linear dynamics can be locally approximated by linear dynamics for macroscale brain circuits (10, 11).

• Time invariance: Time invariance means that a systems response does not depend on the time point because both the structural network A and the control set B are constant over time. As we consider brain dynamics over the time scale of minutes, both assumptions hold true.

 Freedom from noise: Neural systems at all time and spatial scale are not noise free. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to consider that the salient features of our model do no depend on noise. This is aided by our definition of brain states as meta states that are defined as statistical patterns of brain activation over repeated measurements.

1.4.2. Continuous versus discrete dynamical models

Linear dynamical system can be studies using different time-system, either continuous or discrete. A discrete-time system assumes that the system evolves in discrete time steps whereas a continuous-time system models continuously changing dynamics. The choice depends on which time assumptions best reflects the neural dynamics at study. Our choice was motivated by a) our definition of brain states as nondiscrete entities of dimensional brain activity summarized over extended brain region and b) the computational traceability. As we considered brain regions containing millions of neurons as network nodes, we assumed that each brain region`s state change is more heterogenous and therefore better represented as a continuous system. For reasons of computational feasibility, we used a discrete-system approach for the computation of the suboptimal trajectories.

1.4.3. Stabilization of the dynamical system

If not stabilized, a dynamical system could potentially increase infinitely over time. Such extreme brain states would be neurobiologically implausible due to the finite energy resources of the brain. We therefore chose to normalize the system by decreasing the average weight of the connectome such that it goes to zero over time:

$$
(1) A_{norm} = \frac{A}{|\lambda(A)_{max}|+c} - I
$$

Here, I denotes the identity matrix, A denotes the structural connectivity matrix and $|\lambda(A)\text{max}|$ denotes the largest eigenvalue of the system. To normalize the system, we must specify the parameter *c*, which determines the rate of stabilization of the system. We choose $c = 1$, meaning that all modes decay and the system goes to zero over time. Within the range of brain states that converge to zero over time, we cannot make statements regarding whether any of these intermediate brain states are biologically plausible or are realized in human brains. Further work integrating experiment and theory is needed to more clearly define types of implausible states, and their respective mechanisms (e.g., metabolic, electrical, informational, or other physical constraints). A more in-depth and mathematical introduction and discussion can be found in Refs. (12-14).

1.4.4. Time horizon

The time horizon T specifies the time over which the control input is applied and the system can be pushed from one state to the other. It determines how quickly the system is required to converge and therefore small values might give the system insufficient time to reach the target state, making it hard to control. In theory, ^T is dimensionless if not coupled to external time domains. As we do not intend to model an evolving process in real time, we chose $T = 1$ to use a normalized time, in line with previous works (15), which allows the system to have adequate time to be controlled (12). For a systematic investigation of the influence of ^T on control processes in the context of brain networks, we refer the reader to (12), as well as to more general introductions of the control processes in linear dynamics (14, 16).

1.4.5. On the relationship between BOLD signal and control theory measures

In the control theory framework, the control input (u) of a node and the state of that same node (x) are highly interrelated. For example, if we consider a simplified system consisting of only one node, then the control energy E necessary to change the state of that node from an initial state (x_0) to a target state (x_T) is basically a function of the squared difference in that node's state

(2) $[E \sim (x_0 - x_T)^2].$

As our definition of brain states is based on β estimates that depend on BOLD activity, in such a simplified system control energy would not give any additional information other than the usual contrast images β_{2back} - β_{Oback} . However, if we consider a more complex system with more than one node, and where all nodes are connected via either direct or indirect links as summarized in the connectivity matrix A, then the control energy of a single node is not a simple function of the squared differences in its state but additionally accounts for the influence of other connected neighbors.

1.5. On the use of control theory as a statistical framework

In our analysis, we apply control theory as a statistical and theoretical tool to answer questions based on the theoretical "dual-state" framework regarding neurobiological properties of brain function. Translating

and transferring across these three levels (control theory as a statistical tool, dual-state theory as a nonlinear theoretical framework, brain imaging data defining meta-level brain states) is challenging and requires (reasonable) simplifications. The hypotheses that we aim to test are based on the dual-state theory framework, which also uses the terminology of brain states and energy. In this framework, states and transitions are based on non-linear dynamics, corresponding to attractor basins, which translate to stable reoccurring activation patterns in neuronal ensembles (17-19). Abstracting these concepts to largescale dynamics of brain macro-circuits provides the underlying basis for the idea that we aim to investigate here: relatively stable "meta"-level brain activation patterns as identified by neuroimaging (including all the caveats of the assumption of stationarity of brain activations measured by functional magnetic resonance imaging) populate a state-space for which we aim to identify the brain regions that are responsible for maintaining and shifting those activation patterns. To answer these cognitive neuroscience questions, we use *network control theory* as a toolkit that makes these questions computationally tractable in a linear dynamical system framework enabling us to quantify the associated "energy cost" of transitions on a brain region level. This effort requires certain (reasonable) assumptions, in particular to assume an equivalence between states defined by neuroimaging and states defined in the control theory framework, as well linear and continuous transitions between those states. Future work integrating biophysical models of taskinduced brain activity in combination with network control theory and tailored imaging paradigms is critically needed to provide further evidence for the assumed relationships (and distinctions) between actual data, network control tools, and the theoretical framework.

1.6. Gene based polygenic co-expression indices

1.6.1. **Polygenic co-expression index calculation**

Previous publications have shown that gene sets defined using co-expression networks and selected for their association with the genes DRD1 and DRD2 provided replicable predictions of n-back-related brain activity and behavioral indices (20-23). Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis [WGCNA (24)] applied on the Braincloud dataset (N=199) of post-mortem DLPFC gene expression (25) identified 67 non-overlapping sets of genes based on their expression pattern. The co-expression gene sets including DRD1 and DRD2 were summarized into Polygenic Co-expression Indices (PCIs) based on SNPs that predicted co-expression of these genes (called co-expression quantitative trait loci, or co-eQTLs).

PCIs are a proxy for the assessment of the genetic component of gene transcription co-regulation and are computed as a weighted average of the effect of all genotypes of an individual among those selected in the data mining study as co-eQTLs. The effect of individual SNPs is computed as the difference between the gene co-expression distribution of minor allele carriers (heterozygotes and homozygotes) and that of major allele homozygotes, using common tools from signal detection theory (26). Genotype weights, therefore, represent the deviation in gene co-expression from a reference distribution and are not constrained by allele dose. For each genotype of each SNP we computed an index, called A', proportional to the expression of the gene of interest (DRD1 or DRD2) within its co-expression module. The A' index is less dependent than d' on the assumption of a normal distribution of gene expression in each genotypic

population (20). Both PCI-based predictions were significantly replicated in an independent post-mortem dataset, while controlling for ethnicity. The translational effect of these two scores on brain activity during nback has been assessed and replicated across multiple samples, which combined amount to approximately 600 participants (23, 27, 28).

It is important to note that these dopamine-related genetic effects are large in magnitude compared to those estimated by polygenic risk score approaches that focus on epidemiological data, rather than on molecular processes. The DRD2-PCI we developed (23) yielded an effect size $f = 0.30$ in our n-back discovery sample (required sample size to obtain 80% power with α = 0.05 and covariates as in the current work: N = 71). Results were replicated in an independent fMRI dataset collected at a different institution with $f = 0.20$ (required sample size computed as above: $N = 156$). Our follow-up work on the DRD2-PCI (21) considered two datasets of 50 individuals each and yielded a minimum effect size $f = 0.28$ (in the replication sample; required sample size computed as above: $N = 81$). The DRD1-PCI was also tested in two independent samples (20), yielding a minimum effect size $f = 0.37$ (in the replication sample; required sample size computed as above: $N = 46$). Taken together, these published results show that the effects of these polygenic indices on n-back activity in the prefrontal cortex are relatively large, with sizes ranging between 0.20 and 0.37 and with required samples ranging from 46 to 156 individuals. Importantly, the DRD2-PCI was also tested in a small sample of 29 patients with SCZ and yielded results consistent with the effects discovered in healthy controls (23). Although the required sample sizes were computed based on the top cluster, it should be borne in mind that the technique we used in this work employs the entire brain, and therefore (i) is not subject to correction for multiple comparisons, as reflected in the uncorrected alpha used for the power calculations and (ii) benefits from the greatest possible amount of information about brain states.

2. Supplementary Results

2.1. Null models of structural brain networks

To study the impact of structural brain networks on control properties, we repeated the computation of control energy using a randomized null model of the individuals' structural brain networks that preserves the degree distribution and ensure fully connected networks. Null models were created using the *randmio_und_connected* function, rewiring each edge 20 times, as implemented in the Brain Connectivity Toolbox [\(https://sites.google.com/site/bctnet/\)](https://sites.google.com/site/bctnet/). For each subject, we created 100 null models and recomputed control energy. The average control energy over 100 null models was used for further analyses. In line with our expectation, control energy increased significantly for randomized networks (repeated measures ANOVA with null_model_vs_data and transition as within-subject factors: main effect of null_model_vs_data, $F(1,174) = 5.183$, $p = 0.024$). Further analysis revealed no interaction with patient status (repeated measures ANOVA with null_model_vs_data and transition as within-subject factors and

group as between-subject factor: group by null_vs_data interaction, $F(1,99) = 0.289$, p = 0.592). These analyses suggest that human brain structural networks are in some form optimized to control brain state transitions independent of diagnostic status.

2.2. Null models of spatial activity patterns

To study the impact of the spatial distribution of activity patterns on control properties, we repeated the computation of control energy and spatially randomized individuals' brain activation patterns. Randomization was done using the *randperm* function in matlab for the paired vectorized brain activation patterns (related to 0- and 2-back) followed by recomputation of control energy. This procedure was repeated 100 times and the averaged brain-wide control energy over all 100 iterations for each subjects was used in the subsequent analysis. In line with our expectation, control energy increased significantly for randomized networks in both groups (repeated measures ANOVA with model_vs_data and transition as within-subject factors, HC: main effect of model vs data, $F(1,174) = 6.995$, p = 0.009). Further analysis revealed no interaction with patient status (repeated measures ANOVA with null_model_vs_data and transition as within-subject factors and group as between-subject factor: group by null_vs_data interaction, $F(1,99) = 3.904$, $p = 0.056$). These analyses suggest that the spatial distribution of brain activity patterns is important for minimizing control effort, but individuals with schizophrenia have a differently, potentially less organized activity pattern than healthy controls.

2.3. Robustness to choice of parcellation scheme

To demonstrate the robustness of the results to our choice of parcellation scheme, we repeated our analysis using a recently published functionally defined atlas comprising a similar number of areas (29). Specifically, we used the "Gordon" template (29) consisting of 333 regions that are functionally derived from resting-state connectivity analyses. Data were reprocessed using the same pipeline as for the main analysis and all parameters were kept identical in the subsequent analysis. Notably, we replicated all main results (see Supplementary Table 1), indicating that our reported findings are robust to the choice of parcellation scheme.

2.4. Robustness to choice of edge definition

To demonstrate the robustness of our results to our selection of connectivity measure, we repeated our analysis using the number of streamlines normalized by the respective size of the regions to construct structural connectivity matrices (15). All parameters were kept identical in the subsequent analysis. All main results could be replicated (see Supplementary Table 4), indicating that our findings are robust to the choice of edge definition.

2.5. Impact of medication and duration of illness on control properties

In patients, the potential relationship between control energy and stability, antipsychotic drug dose (expressed in chlorpromazine equivalents (CPZE), n=20), and clinical parameters (illness duration, illness severity as indexed by global functioning (GAF) and Positive and Negative Symptom Scale (PANSS)) were explored using Pearson correlation. Neither the control energy for the 0-back to 2-back transition nor the opposite transition or the stability of either state were significantly associated with CPZE ($N = 20$, 0 - to 2back: $r = 0.078$, $p = 0.767$; 2- to 0-back: $r = 0.320$, $p = 0.210$; 0- back stability: $r = 0.150$, $p = 0.564$; 2- back stability: $r = 0.096$, $p = 0.713$), with illness duration (N = 23, 0- to 2-back: $r = 0.017$, $p = 0.937$; 2- to 0-back: $r = -0.226$, $p = 0.299$; 0- back stability: $r = 0.110$, $p = 0.644$; 2- back stability: $r = 0.281$, $p = 0.230$), or with GAF (N = 24, 0- to 2-back: $r = -0.086$, $p = 0.690$; 2- to 0-back: $r = -0.254$, $p = 0.230$; 0- back stability: $r = -0.254$ 0.135, $p = 0.570$; 2- back stability: $r = 0.066$, $p = 0.793$). Please note, that a lack of between-subject correlations in small samples can only provide weak proof of evidence for a null effect.

2.6. Pharmacological validation using Risperidone

To demonstrate the robustness of our pharmacological intervention of dopaminergic signaling, we additionally analyzed the data of the Risperidone condition in the same subjects. Risperidone also preferentially targets D2 receptors, but also affects D1, adrenergic, serotoninergic and histaminergic pathways. Using the same models and covariates as in the main analysis, we detected a trend-wise increase in control energy needed for both transitions (repeated measures ANOVA with drug and transition as within-person factors; main effect of drug: $F(1,10) = 3.490$, $p = 0.091$; drug-by-condition interaction: $F(1,10) = 0.238$, $p = 0.636$; activity difference, drug order, and sex as covariates of no interest), but no effect on stability ($F(1,8) = 0.105$, $p = 0.334$; mean brain activity, sex, and drug order as covariates of no interest). Although these results showed only trend-wise significance, likely due to the lower D2-specificity of Risperidone, the detected pattern was conserved across drugs, validating the proposed underlying concepts.

2.7. Null results for gene score and imaging associations

As mentioned in the main text, D1 receptor expression-related gene scores predicted stability of both states (0-back: $b = 0.184$, $p = 0.034$; 2-back: $b = 0.242$ $p = 0.007$), but not D2 receptor expression-related gene scores (0-back: $b = 0.153$, $p = 0.109$; 2-back: $b = -0.01$ $p = 0.924$). In turn, the control energy of both state transitions could be predicted by the D2 receptor expression-related score (0- to 2-back: $b = -0.076$, $p =$ 0.037; and trending for 2- to 0-back: $b = -0.134$, $p = 0.068$), but not by the D1 receptor expression-related gene score (0- to 2-back: $b = -0.037$, $p = 0.324$; 2- to 0-back: $b = -0.06$, $p = 0.418$).

2.8. Relation to previous gene score and imaging associations

To demonstrate the added value of our analysis, we extracted the BOLD parameters from the voxels reported in Fazio et al. (30) and Selvaggi et al. (32) of a standard 2-back>0-back contrast image and included them a covariates in our main analysis.

D1 expression-related gene score predicted stability of both states (0-back: $b = 0.184$, $p = 0.036$; 2-back: b = 0.242, p = 0.008, age, sex, brain activity, first 5 genetic PCA components and brain activity at [-29 53 24] as peak voxel reported in Fazio et al. as covariates of non-interest).

D2 expression-related gene score predicted the control energy of both state transitions (0- to 2-back: $b = -$ 0.075, $p = 0.042$; 2- to 0-back: $b = -0.139$, $p = 0.062$, age, sex, brain stability, difference in brain activity. first 5 genetic PCA components and brain activity at [-29 53 24] as peak voxel reported in Fazio et al. as covariates of non-interest).

All our previous associations remained significant when controlling for the BOLD parameters, suggesting that our data explains different variance.

2.9. Comparison to more conventional SPM analyses

To demonstrate the added value of our control metrics, we performed the following two more conventional SPM analyses:

1) Association of control energy and stability with PCI scores for DRD1 and DRD2:

We performed a conventional GLM analysis for Placebo versus Amisulpride, using a paired t-test of the 2-back>0back contrast in SPM12. We could not detect any significant clusters, either for the Placebo > Amisulpride nor the opposite contrast, even at a lenient threshold of $P < 0.001$ uncorrected. These results suggest that network control theory can detect biologically meaningful effects that cannot be detected by more conventional SPM analyses.

2) Stability and Control Energy in Schizophrenia:

We performed a conventional SPM analysis for individuals with schizophrenia versus healthy control, using the 2-back > 0back contrast. At a lenient threshold of P < 0.001 uncorrected, we detected two main significant cluster of voxels in the common region-of-interests for the N-back task (comprising dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, hippocampus and parietal cortex). The first cluster for the HC $>$ SZ contrast was located in the right hippocampus at 42 -37 -13 [number of significant voxels $=$ 24, $P_{\text{FWE}=0.554$, T=3.86], while the second cluster was found in the opposite contrast and was located in the right parietal cortex at 51 -43 17 [number of significant voxels = 214, $P_{FWE}=0.171$, T=5.35; see supplemental figure 4B]. To demonstrate that the control energy and stability values of our analysis are not associated with the more conventional activity measures, we extracted the peak voxel beta estimates of those coordinates and performed a partial correlation analyses, correcting for age, sex and group. For both peak voxels, we did not detect a significant association with our control indices (beta estimates at 42 -37 -13: 0-back stability: $r_{par} = -0.005$, $p = 0.961$; 2back stability: $r_{par} = 0.139$, $p = 0.167$; 0- to 2-back control energy: $r_{par} = -0.115$, $p = 0.253$; 2- to 0back control energy: $r_{par} = 0.150$, $p = 0135$. beta estimates at 42-37-13: 0-back stability: $r_{par} = -$ 0.079, $p = 0.431$; 2-back stability: $r_{par} = -0.106$, $p = 0.293$; 0- to 2-back control energy: $r_{par} = -0.144$, $p = 0.151$; 2- to 0-back control energy: $r_{par} = -0.100$, $p = 0.318$).

2.10. Suboptimal trajectories

As mentioned in the main text, the variability in suboptimal trajectories was greater in schizophrenia (rm-ANOVA: main effect of group: $F(1,98) = 4.789$, $p = 0.031$, controlling for age, sex, DTI tSNR, brain state activity difference). These results remained significant after additionally accounting for the stability of both states and for the control energy of both transitions (rm-ANOVA: main effect of group: $F(1,95) = 11.2$, p = 0.001).

3. Supplementary figures

3.1. Supplementary Figure 1: N-back task design

2-back

Design of the N-back task: Stimuli were presented in blocks of either 0-back or 2-back conditions. There was no additional control or resting condition. In the 0-back condition, subjects were instructed to press the button on the response box corresponding to the number currently displayed on the presentation screen. Here, the red numbers below the screen images indicate correct responses. In the 2-back condition, subjects were instructed to press the button on the response box corresponding to the number presented two stimuli before the number currently displayed on the presentation screen. Here, the red numbers below the screen images indicate the correct responses. Each condition block lasted 30 seconds and was repeated four times in an interleaved manner.

3.2. Supplementary Figure 2: Control Energy, Stability and Average Brain Activity for Placebo and Amisulpride

Supplementary Figure 2: Control Energy, Stability and Average Brain Activity for Placebo and Amisulpride Plots depicting the actual data points $n = 15$ healthy controls for A) control energy, B) stability and C) average brain activity for the pharmacological study. All tests were two-sided and without adjustments for multiple comparisons. Black lines indicate mean, dark boxes indicate 1 standard deviation, light boxes indicate 1.96 SEM.

3.3. Supplementary Figure 3: Control Energy, Stability and Average Brain Activity for Individuals with Schizophrenia and Healthy Controls

Supplementary Figure 3: Control Energy, Stability and Average Brain Activity for Individuals with Schizophrenia and Healthy Controls

Plots depicting the actual data points for A) control energy, B) stability and C) average brain activity for the schizophrenia patient study (healthy control: $n = 80$, individuals with schizophrenia: $n = 24$). All tests were two-sided and without adjustments for multiple comparisons. Black lines indicate mean, dark boxes indicate 1 standard deviation, light boxes indicate 1.96 SEM.

3.4. Supplementary Figure 4: Control Impact for different visualization thresholds

Supplementary Figure 4: Control Impact for different visualization thresholds

Unique and common sets of brain regions contributing most to the transition from 0-back to 2-back and the transition from 2-back to 0-back for different visualization thresholds derived from n = 178 healthy controls. For illustrative purposes, we projected the computed control impact of each brain region for the respective transitions on a 3D structural template, displaying A) the 10% highest for each transition B) the 30% highest for each transition and C) the 50% highest for each transition. D) and E) depict the raw control impact values for the transition from 0-back to 2-back or the transition from 2-back to 0-back, respectively.

4. Supplementary tables

4.1. Supplementary Table 1: Statistical details for the main findings and replication analyses

Abbreviations: FA = structural edge weight defined as mean fraction anisotropy of a track connecting two regions; Count = structural edge weight defined as track count connecting two regions; Gordon = restingstate defined atlas with 333 regions; T02 = control energy for the transition 0 to 2-back; T20 = control energy for the transition 2 to 0-back; \rightarrow = predicts in a regression model; Q = modularity estimate; Pla = Placebo; Ami = Amisulpride; Ris = Risperidone; HC = healthy control; SZ = individuals with schizophrenia. All tests were two-sided and without adjustments for multiple comparisons

4.2. Supplementary Table 2: Graph metrics for structural connectomes

All tests were two-sided and without adjustments for multiple comparisons

Supplementary Table 3: List of brain regions included in the extended Glasser parcellation

5. Supplementary references

- 1. T. N. Tombaugh, Trail Making Test A and B: normative data stratified by age and education. *Archives of clinical neuropsychology* **19**, 203-214 (2004).
- 2. S. Lehrl, G. Triebig, B. Fischer, Multiple choice vocabulary test MWT as a valid and short test to estimate premorbid intelligence. *Acta Neurologica Scandinavica* **91**, 335-345 (1995).
- 3. S. R. Kay, A. Fiszbein, L. A. Opler, The positive and negative syndrome scale (PANSS) for schizophrenia. *Schizophrenia bulletin* **13**, 261-276 (1987).
- 4. A. T. Beck, C. H. Ward, M. Mendelson, J. Mock, J. Erbaugh, An inventory for measuring depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* **4**, 561-571 (1961).
- 5. U. Braun *et al.*, Dynamic reconfiguration of frontal brain networks during executive cognition in humans. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **112**, 11678-11683 (2015).
- 6. M. M. Plichta *et al.*, Test-retest reliability of evoked BOLD signals from a cognitive-emotive fMRI test battery. *Neuroimage* **60**, 1746-1758 (2012).
- 7. J. H. Callicott *et al.*, Physiological characteristics of capacity constraints in working memory as revealed by functional MRI. *Cerebral Cortex* **9**, 20-26 (1999).
- 8. M. F. Glasser *et al.*, A multi-modal parcellation of human cerebral cortex. *Nature* **536**, 171-178 (2016).
- 9. S. M. Smith *et al.*, Advances in functional and structural MR image analysis and implementation as FSL. *Neuroimage* **23 Suppl 1**, S208-219 (2004).
- 10. R. F. Galán, On how network architecture determines the dominant patterns of spontaneous neural activity. *PloS one* **3** (2008).
- 11. C. Honey *et al.*, Predicting human resting-state functional connectivity from structural connectivity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **106**, 2035-2040 (2009).
- 12. T. M. Karrer *et al.*, A practical guide to methodological considerations in the controllability of structural brain networks. *J Neural Eng* 10.1088/1741-2552/ab6e8b (2020).
- 13. J. Kim *et al.*, Topological Principles of Control in Dynamical Network Systems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1702.00354* (2017).
- 14. J. Z. Kim, D. S. Bassett, Linear dynamics & control of brain networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1902.03309* (2019).
- 15. R. F. Betzel, S. Gu, J. D. Medaglia, F. Pasqualetti, D. S. Bassett, Optimally controlling the human connectome: the role of network topology. *Sci Rep* **6**, 30770 (2016).
- 16. J. Z. Kim *et al.*, Role of Graph Architecture in Controlling Dynamical Networks with Applications to Neural Systems. *Nat Phys* **14**, 91-98 (2018).
- 17. M. Loh, E. T. Rolls, G. Deco, A dynamical systems hypothesis of schizophrenia. *PLoS Comput Biol* **3**, e228 (2007).
- 18. E. T. Rolls, M. Loh, G. Deco, G. Winterer, Computational models of schizophrenia and dopamine modulation in the prefrontal cortex. *Nat Rev Neurosci* **9**, 696-709 (2008).
- 19. D. Durstewitz, J. K. Seamans, The dual-state theory of prefrontal cortex dopamine function with relevance to catechol-o-methyltransferase genotypes and schizophrenia. *Biol Psychiatry* **64**, 739-749 (2008).
- 20. L. Fazio *et al.*, Transcriptomic context of DRD1 is associated with prefrontal activity and behavior during working memory. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 10.1073/pnas.1717135115 (2018).
- 21. P. Selvaggi *et al.*, Genetic Variation of a DRD2 Co-expression Network is Associated with Changes in Prefrontal Function After D2 Receptors Stimulation. *Cerebral cortex* 10.1093/cercor/bhy022 (2018).
- 22. G. Pergola *et al.*, Prefrontal co-expression of schizophrenia risk genes is associated with treatment response in patients. *bioRxiv* (2018).
- 23. G. Pergola *et al.*, DRD2 co-expression network and a related polygenic index predict imaging, behavioral and clinical phenotypes linked to schizophrenia. *Transl Psychiatry* **7**, e1006 (2017).
- 24. B. Zhang, S. Horvath, A general framework for weighted gene co-expression network analysis. *Statistical applications in genetics and molecular biology* **4**, Article17 (2005).
- 25. C. Colantuoni *et al.*, Temporal dynamics and genetic control of transcription in the human prefrontal cortex. *Nature* **478**, 519-523 (2011).
- 26. G. Pergola *et al.*, Combined effect of genetic variants in the GluN2B coding gene (GRIN2B) on prefrontal function during working memory performance. *Psychological medicine* **46**, 1135-1150 (2016).
- 27. L. Fazio *et al.*, Transcriptomic context of DRD1 is associated with prefrontal activity and behavior during working memory. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **115**, 5582-5587 (2018).
- 28. P. Selvaggi *et al.*, Genetic Variation of a DRD2 Co-expression Network is Associated with Changes in Prefrontal Function After D2 Receptors Stimulation. *Cereb Cortex* **29**, 1162-1173 (2019).
- 29. E. M. Gordon *et al.*, Generation and Evaluation of a Cortical Area Parcellation from Resting-State Correlations. *Cereb Cortex* **26**, 288-303 (2016).