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## **Towards a Neurodynamical Understanding of the Prodrome in Schizophrenia**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2

3 The identification of biomarkers for the early diagnosis of schizophrenia that could inform  
4 novel treatment developments is an important objective of current research. This paper will  
5 summarize recent work that has investigated changes in oscillatory activity and event-related  
6 potentials with Electro/Magnetoencephalography (EEG/MEG) in participants at high-risk for  
7 the development of schizophrenia, highlighting disruptions in sensory and cognitive  
8 operations prior to the onset of the syndrome. Changes in EEG/MEG-data are consistent with  
9 evidence for alterations in Glutamatergic and GABAergic neurotransmission as disclosed by  
10 Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy and brain stimulation, indicating changes in  
11 Excitation/Inhibition Parameters prior to the onset of psychosis. Together these data  
12 emphasize the importance of research into neuronal dynamics as a crucial approach to  
13 establish functional relationships between impairments in neural circuits and emerging  
14 psychopathology that together could be fundamental for early intervention and the  
15 identification of novel treatments for emerging psychosis.

16

17 **KEYWORDS**

18 Schizophrenia, Neuroscience, Prodrome, Oscillations, E/I-Balance, Electrophysiology

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27 1. INTRODUCTION

28

29 1.1 Schizophrenia and Prodrome

30 Schizophrenia is a severe psychiatric disorder that is associated with a life-time prevalence of  
31 approximately 1 % that continues to be a significant challenge for efforts to improve outcome  
32 and treatment. This is because the pathophysiological processes that give rise to both the  
33 psychopathological features (positive, negative and disorganized symptoms) as well as the  
34 pronounced cognitive deficits remain to be elucidated (Insel, 2010). Accordingly, current  
35 treatment options are largely focussed on targeting symptomatic manifestations once the  
36 disorder is fully manifested while interventions that correct fundamental circuit abnormalities  
37 remain unavailable.

38 Current theories have highlighted that one possible reason for the emergence of psychosis  
39 and associated perceptual and cognitive deficits is to be found in the disruption of neural  
40 dynamics that coordinate brain activity in large-scale networks (Uhlhaas & Singer, 2011).  
41 One candidate mechanism for this process is the synchronization of oscillatory responses at  
42 both low- (delta [1-3 Hz], theta [3-8Hz] and alpha [8-12 Hz]) and high- (beta [13-30  
43 Hz]/gamma [30-100 Hz]) frequencies that have been associated with a wide-range of  
44 cognitive and sensory tasks during normal brain functioning (Buzsaki & Draguhn, 2004;  
45 Fries, 2009).

46 Importantly, evidence has emerged suggesting that ScZ is associated with an impairment in  
47 both amplitude and precision of synchronized rhythmic activity (Uhlhaas & Singer, 2010),  
48 consistent with alterations in circuit mechanisms in the disorder that give rise to generation of  
49 neural oscillations during normal brain functioning (Lewis, Curley, Glausier, & Volk, 2012).

50 Crucial variables for the generation of precise rhythmic activity are the balance between the  
51 efficiency of excitation/inhibition (E/I) balance (Sohal, Zhang, Yizhar, & Deisseroth, 2009;

52 Wang, 2010; Whittington, Traub, & Jefferys, 1995) and the layout of long-range connections,  
53 both excitatory and inhibitory, held responsible for the synchronization of spatially  
54 segregated cell groups (Engel, Konig, Kreiter, & Singer, 1991; Melzer, et al., 2012).  
55 Accordingly, investigations into alterations of neural oscillations may allow a unique  
56 opportunity for establishing a translational paradigm, whereby electrophysiological variables  
57 can be linked to basic circuit deficits that can guide development of novel treatment options.

58 Experimental and theoretical data highlighted the contribution of GABAergic interneurons  
59 towards the generation of high-frequency oscillations (Wang & Buzsaki, 1996)(Traub et al.,  
60 2004). Parvalbumin-positive (PV+) cells are one class of interneurons that have been  
61 traditionally involved in the generation of gamma-band oscillations through PV+-mediated  
62 feedback inhibition of principal cell activity (Sohal, et al., 2009). More recently, a second  
63 class of interneurons that express somatostatin (SST) has been shown to be relevant for the  
64 generation of gamma-band oscillations (Veit, Hakim, Jadi, Sejnowski, & Adesnik, 2017)  
65 while previous evidence linked SST-cells predominantly to the generation of low-frequency  
66 rhythms (Urban-Ciecko & Barth, 2016) .

67 Moreover, there is evidence for a specific role of glutamatergic inputs to PV interneurons for  
68 the generation of coordinated network activity. Carlén et al. (Carlen, et al., 2011) showed that  
69 the deletion of the NMDA-NR1 receptors on PV interneurons in mice is associated with an  
70 increase in spontaneous gamma-band activity in somatosensory cortex, while gamma-band  
71 activity during sensory stimulation was reduced. Similarly, the activation of AMPA-receptors  
72 is essential for the emergence of high-frequency activity as indicated by evidence  
73 highlighting that a reduction of the GLuR-D receptor leads to a decrease of AMPA-mediated  
74 currents in PV interneurons and reduced power of oscillations in the 20–80 Hz range (Fuchs,  
75 et al., 2001). However, the relative contribution of both NMDA- and AMPA-Rs towards

76 high-frequency oscillations remains an open question. One possibility is that NMDA-Rs  
77 provide more sustained excitatory drive to PV+ cells (Compte, Brunel, Goldman-Rakic, &  
78 Wang, 2000), while AMPAR mediated-EPSCs provide faster excitatory inputs to the  
79 interneurons that are a prerequisite for the generation gamma-band oscillations (Kirli,  
80 Ermentrout, & Cho, 2014; Rotaru, Yoshino, Lewis, Ermentrout, & Gonzalez-Burgos, 2011).

81 Data from post-mortem (Gonzalez-Burgos & Lewis, 2008), genetic (Pocklington, et al.,  
82 2015) and animal models of ScZ (Behrens, Ali, & Dugan, 2008; Lodge, Behrens, & Grace,  
83 2009) suggest that pathophysiological processes provide converging evidence that  
84 GABAergic and Glutamatergic neurotransmission is impaired in ScZ. Thus, there are  
85 consistent findings for a reduction in transcript and protein-levels of PV+cells across cortical  
86 regions in ScZ as well as for reduced levels of the key GABA-synthesizing enzyme GAD67  
87 (for a review see (Lewis, Hashimoto, & Volk, 2005)). It is currently, unclear, however,  
88 whether the alterations in GABAergic neurotransmission are a primary impairment or whether  
89 these alterations are secondary deficits in excitatory pyramidal cells (Lewis, et al., 2012).  
90 Moreover, it is conceivable that other variables, such as oxidative stress, may lead to  
91 downstream deficits in PV+ cells. Steullet et al. (2017) examined several animal models  
92 characterized by either genetic and/or environmental risk-factors in relationship to PV+ cells  
93 and oxidative stress. Across all animal models, oxidative stress was negatively correlated  
94 with the integrity of PV+ cells.

95 Further evidence for a dysregulation of E/I-balance in ScZ parameters comes from studies  
96 that have examined Glutamate and GABA-levels with Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy  
97 (MRS). The earliest MRS-studies were focusing mainly on high concentration brain  
98 metabolites such as N-Acetylaspartic acid (NAA), creatine (Cr) and choline (Cho) (Jessen et  
99 al., 2006; Wood et al., 2010; Yoo et al., 2009). More recent efforts have been directed

100 primarily at measures of GABA, Glutamate or Glutamate + Glutamine (Glx) (P. Fusar-Poli  
101 2011; Kegeles et al. 2012; Tandon et al. 2013; Natsubori et al. 2014; Liemburg et al. 2016;  
102 Fuente-sandoval et al. 2015; Menschikov et al. 2016; Modinos et al. 2017). Across studies,  
103 elevated glutamate-levels have been demonstrated in cortical and subcortical regions in  
104 clinical high-risk (CHR)-participants (Merritt, Egerton, Kempton, Taylor, & McGuire, 2016)  
105 while the pattern of changes GABA-levels is inconsistent (Egerton, Modinos, Ferrera, &  
106 McGuire, 2017). As MRS-measures of GABA and glutamate could provide important  
107 insights into alterations in E/I-balance parameters in ScZ, the combination with EEG/MEG-  
108 parameters is potentially informative about the physiological origin of impairments in neural  
109 dynamics in ScZ.

110

## 111 1.2 Towards Pre-Emptive Psychiatry and Biomarkers for Early Intervention

112 Recent efforts in ScZ-research have focussed on the possibility of identifying individuals who  
113 have a high risk of developing psychosis and the development of appropriate strategies for  
114 risk prediction and early intervention (Fusar-Poli, et al., 2013; McGorry, et al., 2009). This  
115 approach is based on long-standing evidence that the manifestation of ScZ is preceded by a  
116 prodromal period of up to 5 years during which subtle behavioural changes, cognitive  
117 impairments and sub-threshold psychotic symptoms emerge (Klosterkotter, Hellmich,  
118 Steinmeyer, & Schultze-Lutter, 2001; Yung & McGorry, 1996). As a result, clinical high-risk  
119 criteria (CHR) have been developed based on the presence of attenuated psychotic symptoms  
120 (Yung, et al., 2005) as well as self-experienced perceptual and cognitive anomalies,  
121 representing the earliest manifestation of psychosis risk (Schultze-Lutter, Ruhrmann,  
122 Berning, Maier, & Klosterkotter, 2010). Recent data from several high-risk studies have  
123 shown that CHRs are associated with transition rates between 10 and 30% over a two year



124 period (Fusar-Poli, et al., 2013). While screening procedures are characterized by sufficient  
125 diagnostic accuracy to detect at-risk individuals (Fusar-Poli, et al., 2015), clinical criteria are  
126 currently not sensitive and specific enough to predict psychosis-risk on an individual level, a  
127 key objective for early intervention research. Accordingly, biomarkers may be required to  
128 boost prediction and allow insights into the underlying neurobiology of the at-risk state that  
129 could guide the search for targeted interventions.

130

131 Enter Figure 1 about here

132

133 The search for biomarkers has so far focussed on anatomical parameters, such as volumetric  
134 studies of grey matter (GM), that have revealed reductions in several brain regions prior to  
135 the onset of psychosis in CHR-participants that predict transition to ScZ (Koutsouleris, et al.,  
136 2009; Pantelis, et al., 2003). This view is consistent with the hypothesis that developmental  
137 perturbations of synaptic pruning may give rise to the onset of psychosis (Feinberg, 1982). In  
138 addition, structural magnetic resonance studies of white-matter volume and organization  
139 (Carletti, et al., 2012) as well as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) (Anticevic, et  
140 al., 2015) have provided data supporting the hypothesis that anatomical and functional large-  
141 scale networks are disrupted prior to psychosis-onset.

142 A limitation of these approaches, however, is the absence of direct measurements of neuronal  
143 activity that provide sufficient temporal resolution as well as the difficulty of relating such  
144 measures to basic circuit mechanisms, a prerequisite for translational research (Uhlhaas &  
145 Singer, 2012). In the current paper, we will outline the rationale for applying  
146 electrophysiological techniques, such as electro/magnetoencephalography (EEG/MEG), in

147 combination with brain stimulation and MRS to identify novel biomarkers for early diagnosis  
148 and interventions in ScZ. In the first part of the paper, we will discuss the evidence for  
149 changes in neural oscillations and event-related potentials/fields (ERP/ERFs) in CHR-  
150 participants followed by studies with transcranial magnetic and direct current stimulation  
151 (TMS/tDCS). In the second part, evidence on changes in GABA and Glutamatergic  
152 neurotransmission will be reviewed that are relevant for understanding changes in E/I-  
153 balance alterations as causative factors in emerging psychosis. Finally, we will provide an  
154 assessment of the current evidence on changes in neuronal dynamics in the prodrome of ScZ  
155 with recommendations for future work and links with pre-clinical research.

156

## 157 2. Electrophysiology of the Prodrome

158

### 159 2.1 ERPs in CHR-Participants

160 ERPs/ERFs are time-locked brain responses to internal or external stimuli and provide a non-  
161 invasive method to identify neural correlates of cognitive and perceptual processes (Luck  
162 2012) (for a review of ERP-findings in CHR-participants see Bodatsch et al., 2015). Several  
163 ERP/ERF components have been studied extensively in patients with ScZ to gain insights  
164 into dysfunctions of basic sensory and higher cognitive processing. Evidence shows that there  
165 are impairments in ERP/ERFs at early latencies, such as in the P50 (Bramon et al. 2004),  
166 N100 (Ford et al. 2014), P100 (Earls, Curran, & Mittal, 2016) and mismatch negativity  
167 (MMN) (Umbricht and Krljes 2005), that have been linked to deficits during the encoding of  
168 information, while impairments in the P300 (Bramon et al. 2004), for example, likely reflect  
169 failures in higher cognitive processes.

170 One potential biomarker for psychosis is the auditory MMN or its magnetic counterpart  
171 MMNm, an ERP/ERF that is elicited automatically by a violation of a previously established  
172 auditory regularity (Näätänen et al. 2007; Näätänen, Gaillard, and Mäntysalo 1978). Current  
173 evidence suggest that N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors (NMDA-R) (Javitt et al. 1996) as well  
174 as STS-expressing interneurons play a major role in the generation of MMN-responses  
175 (Hamm & Yuste, 2016).

176 In ScZ, MMN amplitudes are consistently reduced across a range of stimulation protocols  
177 (for a review, see Umbricht and Krljes 2005) and have been associated with a reduction in  
178 both cognition and social functioning (Baldeweg and Hirsch 2015; Light and Braff 2005).  
179 Evidence from computational modeling and EEG/MEG-data suggests that dysfunctional  
180 predictive processes may underlie MMN-deficits (Sauer et al. 2017; Rentzsch et al. 2015;  
181 Wacongne 2015).

182 Several recent studies investigated MMN-responses in CHR-participants, indicating impaired  
183 MMN responses to duration and frequency deviants (Atkinson et al., 2012; Carrion et al.,  
184 2015; Hsieh et al., 2012; Jahshan et al., 2012; Koshiyama et al., 2016; Perez et al., 2014b;  
185 Shaikh et al., 2012; Shin et al., 2009; Solis-Vivanco et al., 2014). However, not all studies  
186 have confirmed this finding (Brockhaus-Dumke et al. 2005; Bodatsch et al. 2011;  
187 Mondragón-Maya et al. 2013; Higuchi et al. 2013) and there is evidence to suggest that  
188 MMN-deficits are primarily observed in CHR-participants who transition to psychosis  
189 (CHR+) (Higuchi et al. 2013; Shaikh et al. 2012 but see Atkinson et al. 2017 for a different  
190 finding.)

191 In addition to MMN-impairments, sensory gating, a pre-attentive measure of auditory  
192 processing that involves presentation of two clicks within a 500 ms window, has been  
193 consistently found to be impaired in ScZ (Brockhaus-Dumke, et al., 2008). There is an  
194 established link between P50 sensory-gating and cholinergic neurotransmission as reflected

195 by genetic data linking the  $\alpha$ -7 nicotinic receptor and P50 responses (Martin & Freedman,  
196 2007).

197 The auditory N100 has also been utilized to explore sensory gating deficits in ScZ. Currently,  
198 there is mixed evidence for P50 and N100 sensory gating deficits in CHR-participants, with  
199 some studies reporting evidence for a reduction (Brockhaus-Dumke et al. 2008), while others  
200 could not distinguish CHR from both ScZ-patients and controls (van Tricht et al. 2015; Hsieh  
201 et al. 2012; Shin, Kim, et al. 2012). Moreover, conflicting findings exist on the predictive  
202 utility of P50 and N100 measures for distinguishing CHR+ (converter) from CHR- (non-  
203 converter) participants (Brockhaus-Dumke et al. 2008; van Tricht et al. 2011; van Tricht et al.  
204 2015; Shaikh et al. 2015).

205 In addition, there is an increasing interest to explore sensory attenuation of ERPs/ERFs and  
206 by calculating the N1/P1 difference between experimental conditions that involve passive  
207 sensory stimulation and an active condition during which the incoming stimulus is self-  
208 generated (Cao, Thut, and Gross 2017; Hughes and Waszak 2011). Impaired auditory sensory  
209 attenuation has been observed in ScZ and is thought to be related to impaired corollary  
210 discharge processes which lead to certain clinical symptoms, such as delusion of control or  
211 hallucinations (Ford et al. 2014; Perez et al. 2012). Perez et al. (Perez et al. 2012) explored  
212 N1 suppression in CHR-participants and found that the degree of N1 suppression was  
213 intermediate between the healthy controls and ScZ-patients. Deficits in the auditory N1 in  
214 CHR-participants have been also related to cortical thinning in auditory regions (Shin, Jung,  
215 et al. 2012).

216 In addition to auditory processing, there is increasing evidence for impaired early visual  
217 information processing in ScZ patients as reflected by reductions in the P100 (Earls, Curran,  
218 and Mittal 2016; Sehatpour et al. 2010) and N170 (McCleery et al. 2015). In CHR-

219 participants, there is currently only preliminary evidence for reduced P100 and N170  
220 amplitude during face processing (Wölwer et al. 2012).

221 The P300 is a positive waveform which has been identified with cognitive processing  
222 (Polich & Kok, 1995), such as attention and memory updating. The P300 is modulated by  
223 multiple neurotransmitter systems (Huang, Chen, and Zhang 2015), predominantly  
224 GABAergic (Watson et al. 2009) and dopaminergic neurotransmission (Pogarell et al. 2011).  
225 There is emerging evidence that CHR-participants are characterized by a deficit in the  
226 amplitude of the auditory P3a (Atkinson, Michie, & Schall, 2012; Bramon, et al., 2008;  
227 Mondragón-Maya, et al., 2013; Nagai, et al., 2013) that is associated with an increased risk  
228 for developing psychosis (Kim, Lee, Lee, Kim, & Kwon, 2015). Besides the auditory P300,  
229 there is preliminary evidence for a reduction of the visual P300 in CHR participants as well  
230 (Lee, Namkoong, Cho, Song, & An, 2010).

231 Enter Figure 2 about here

232

## 233 2.2 Neural Oscillations in CHR-Participants

234 Spectral signatures of EEG/MEG-data have gained increasing interest as a potential  
235 biomarker in CHR-participants. One approach has been the analysis of resting-state activity.  
236 A robust finding in established ScZ is the increase of slow-wave activity as reflected by  
237 elevated delta and theta-band power (Ranlund et al., 2014; see Boutros et al., 2008 for a  
238 meta-analysis;) and increased connectivity (Andreou, et al., 2015).. In CHR-participants,  
239 findings from several EEG-studies have failed to observe similar effects (Wuebben and  
240 Winterer 2001; Lavoie et al. 2012; Ranlund et al. 2014)(Andreou, et al., 2015). However,  
241 there is preliminary evidence that CHR+ participants are characterized by elevated frontal  
242 delta, theta- and beta-band power that correlates with increased negative symptoms, a pattern

243 that was not observed in the CHR- group that did not develop schizophrenia (Van Tricht et  
244 al., 2014). Moreover, alpha power and alpha peak frequency of resting-state oscillations is  
245 reduced in CHR+ (Van Tricht et al. 2014).

246 Resting-state activity at beta- and gamma-band frequencies was investigated by Ramyeed and  
247 colleagues (2015) who showed that current source density (CSD) estimates of 30-50 Hz was  
248 higher in CHR+ as compared to control participants. Moreover, the authors observed  
249 decreased phase synchrony of beta oscillations in the CHR+ group as compared to controls  
250 and a CHR- group. In further analyses, it was found that increased beta/gamma CSD-  
251 estimates strongly contributed to the prediction of psychosis in CHR-participants (Ramyeed  
252 et al. 2016).

253 Moreover, analysis of microstates has been applied to resting-state EEG-recordings. EEG-  
254 microstates can be used to identify short (~ 80-100 ms) quasi-stable brain states through  
255 considering topographies of ongoing electric potentials (Khanna et al., 2014). There are four  
256 standard classes of microstate topography and they have been shown to relate to fMRI  
257 resting-state networks (Koenig et al., 2002; Britz et al., 2010). Previous studies have reported  
258 alterations in resting-state EEG microstate parameters in ScZ patients compared to healthy  
259 controls (for a review see e.g. Rieger et al., 2016), suggesting disturbed information  
260 processing in ScZ patients (e.g. Lehmann et al., 2005). A recent study reported altered EEG  
261 resting-state microstate characteristics in CHRs compared to healthy controls, suggesting that  
262 aberrant resting-state microstates might indicate an increased risk of developing psychosis  
263 (Andreou et al., 2014).

264

265

Enter Figure 3 about here

266

267 In addition to resting-state activity, recent studies have examined task-related oscillatory  
268 signatures in CHR-participants. An MEG-study by Koh et al. (2011) reported reduced alpha  
269 event-related desynchronization (ERD) to target tones during an auditory oddball task in 17  
270 CHR individuals. Similar findings were obtained with EEG by Kayser et al. (2014) who  
271 observed a reduction in alpha-ERD that was markedly pronounced in CHR+ participants.  
272 High-frequency oscillations have been investigated in the auditory domain in CHR-  
273 participants. Recent studies have shown evidence for a reduction in auditory evoked gamma-  
274 band responses (Perez et al. 2014; Leicht et al. 2016). Moreover, there is evidence for  
275 reduced power and phase-synchronization during auditory steady state responses (ASSRs) in  
276 ScZ, in particular to 40 Hz stimulation (Thuné et al. 2016). A recent study by Tada and  
277 colleagues (2016) assessed 40 Hz ASSRs in 15 CHR individuals, 13 First-Episode (FEP)-  
278 patients and 12 healthy controls, indicating reduced power and phase-locking in CHR-  
279 participants.

280

281 Enter Figure 4 about here

282

### 283 2.3 TMS/tDCS in CHR-Participants

284 Noninvasive brain stimulation techniques such as TMS and tDCs are increasingly being used  
285 as tools for investigating the pathophysiology of ScZ (see Agarwal et al. 2013, for a review).  
286 One approach to assess changes in E/I-balance parameters in ScZ is the investigation of  
287 cortical inhibition through TMS in the motor cortex. Short-latency intracortical inhibition  
288 (SICI) assesses intracortical excitability and inhibition by delivering two stimuli (paired  
289 pulses) in a condition-test paradigm and has been associated with the activity of GABA<sub>A</sub>  
290 receptors (Ziemann 2004; Ziemann et al. 2015). In ScZ patients, there is consistent evidence  
291 for a reduction in SICI, suggesting a disinhibition of motor cortex (Bunse et al. 2014).

292 The Contralateral Silent Period (CSP) refers to a sustained decrease in muscle activity found  
293 after single pulse (TMS) stimulation of the motor cortex during active contralateral muscle  
294 contraction and is mediated by GABA<sub>B</sub> receptors (Werhahn et al. 1999). Several studies have  
295 indicated abnormalities in CSP in ScZ but the direction of the results is conflicting, with  
296 some evidence presented of shortened CSP (Eichhammer et al. 2004; P B Fitzgerald et al.  
297 2002; Paul B Fitzgerald et al. 2002), other results showing prolonged CSP (Wobrock et al.,  
298 2009; Bajbouj et al., 2004; Soubasi et al., 2010).

299 Finally, short-term effects of anodal Transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCs) have been  
300 used to examine non-invasively long-term-potential (LTP) or long-term-depression (LTD)  
301 (Brunoni et al. 2012; Liebetanz et al. 2002). In a recent study by Hasan and colleagues  
302 (Hasan et al. 2011), anodal tDCs-induced plasticity was monitored by TMS-generated motor-  
303 evoked potentials (MEP) in a group of recent-onset and chronic ScZ -patients. ME-  
304 schizophrenia patients showed significantly reduced LTP-like plasticity compared to RO-  
305 patients and healthy controls.

306 First evidence for alterations in TMS-mediated inhibition parameters in CHR-parameters was  
307 reported by Hasan et al. (2012) who examined SICI and CSP. CHR-participants as well as  
308 FEP-patients showed a reduced SICI response compared to controls, but only the FEP-group  
309 demonstrated a prolonged CSP duration. Thus, it was concluded that GABA<sub>A</sub>-mediated  
310 processes (linked to SICI) are disturbed earlier in the disorder than GABA<sub>B</sub>-mediated  
311 mechanisms (linked to CSP). A more recent study by Tang et al. (2014) showed that  
312 medicated ScZ-patients demonstrated both prolonged CSP as well as attenuated SICI,  
313 whereas CHR-participants only showed prolonged CSP.

314

315

Enter Figure 4 about here



### 316 3. Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy in CHR-Participants

317

318 MRS studies of glutamate in ScZ found elevated levels of glutamate or Glx, with significant  
319 increases reported in the thalamus, medial temporal lobe, the basal ganglia (Merritt et al.  
320 2016; Poels et al. 2014) and medial prefrontal cortex (Poels et al. 2014). These increases in  
321 glutamate are consistent with findings of NMDA receptor hypofunctioning in vivo  
322 (Nakazawa, Jeevakumar, and Nakao 2017).

323 Similar findings have been reported in studies focusing on glutamate or Glx in CHR-  
324 participants (Merritt et al. 2016). Significant increases in Glx were found in the medial  
325 prefrontal cortex (Fuente-sandoval et al. 2015), caudate (Fuente-Sandoval et al. 2011; Tandon  
326 et al. 2013) and thalamus (Tandon et al. 2013). However, decreased glutamate levels have  
327 been reported in the thalamus (P. Fusar-Poli 2011) or no difference in glutamate or glx  
328 concentrations (Natsubori et al. 2014; Wood et al. 2010; Yoo et al. 2009).

329 So far, <sup>1</sup>H-MRS measures of GABA in ScZ have been inconclusive in established ScZ  
330 (Wijtenburg et al. 2015; Egerton et al. 2017). A recent meta-analysis by Egerton and  
331 colleagues (2017) suggested that across studies, there is no evidence for change in GABA-  
332 levels. However, it should be note that changes have been observed that support either an  
333 increase (Kegeles et al. 2012; Tayoshi et al. 2010; Öngür, Prescott, and McCarthy 2010;  
334 Rowland et al. 2013) or a decrease of GABAergic neurotransmission (Marenco et al. 2016;  
335 Menschikov et al. 2016; Yoo et al. 2009). Differences between studies could potentially be  
336 attributed to methodological parameters, illness-stage as well as selection of ROIs.

337 Accordingly, increases in GABA-levels similar to those observed in ScZ have also been seen  
338 in the medial prefrontal cortex and dorsal caudate of CHR-participants (Fuente-sandoval et  
339 al. 2015). In contrast, Menschikov et al. reported decreased GABA and a decreased

340 GABA/Glx ratio in left anterior cingulate cortex of CHR-participants (Menschikov et al.  
341 2016).

342

#### 343 4. Discussion

344

345 The development of insights into circuit changes that underlie the emergence of psychosis  
346 and cognitive deficits in ScZ remains one of the most urgent challenges in mental health  
347 research. This is because of limited progress in recent decades in the development of novel  
348 interventions that improve outcome in the majority of ScZ-patients. Accordingly, the  
349 possibility to identify at-risk individuals prior to the onset of psychosis could potentially  
350 allow the delay or even prevention of the full expression of psychosis and associated  
351 disability if treatments become available that target mechanisms underlying the development  
352 of ScZ.

353 The current paper aimed to provide a comprehensive overview on neuronal dynamics in at-  
354 risk individuals for psychosis to establish whether alterations in neural oscillations and  
355 ERPs/ERFs and underlying generating mechanisms are already present in CHR-participants.  
356 Evidence has emerged that the pronounced cognitive dysfunctions as well as certain clinical  
357 symptoms in ScZ may be the result of aberrant communication between and within neuronal  
358 assemblies that can be captured through electrophysiological measurements of neural  
359 oscillations and event-related fields (Stephan, Friston, & Frith, 2009; Uhlhaas & Singer,  
360 2010). Moreover, such disturbances are thought to be the consequence of alterations in E/I-  
361 balance parameters which are important aspects for proper gating of information during  
362 normal brain functioning (Haider and McCormick 2009) and for the generation of high-  
363 frequency oscillations (Sohal et al., 2009; Whittington, et al., 1995). Importantly, these  
364 parameters also allow mechanistic insights into the origin of these circuit dysfunctions

365 through links with pre-clinical research and thus offer opportunities for the development of  
366 novel, more effective and pre-emptive interventions (Uhlhaas & Singer, 2012).

367

#### 368 4.1 Neural Dynamics and Biomarkers for Prediction

369 A crucial prerequisite for this endeavour is the identification of biomarkers that allow on the  
370 one hand insights into the causes of emerging cognitive deficits and psychosis and, on the  
371 other hand, are suitable for risk-stratification at the individual level to predict clinical  
372 outcomes. This is because the current criteria for the diagnosis of CHR-status convey risk for  
373 a range of mental health outcomes in young people, including ScZ, affective disorders,  
374 personality disorders (Lin, et al., 2015). Moreover, a substantial number of individuals  
375 fulfilling CHR-criteria will remain without any symptomatic complaints, highlighting the  
376 need to improve on current risk-prediction that is largely based on clinical measures.

377 Novel algorithms that combine clinical, demographical and neuropsychological information  
378 have shown that risk-prediction can be significantly improved over existing data that largely  
379 rely on information based on clinical information alone (Cannon, et al., 2016). Accordingly,  
380 it remains an open question whether biomarkers obtained through EEG/MEG-parameters  
381 perform significantly better or enhance risk-algorithms if they are combined with clinical and  
382 neuropsychological data.

383 Among the most consistent findings in CHR-participants are abnormalities in pre-attentive  
384 auditory processing as reflected by the MMN-potential which may also predict onset of  
385 psychosis (for a review see Bodatsch et al., 2015). Oscillatory activity has been examined in  
386 both task-related and spontaneous contexts in CHR-participants. Reductions in gamma-band  
387 activity during auditory stimulation have been reported (Leicht et al., 2016; Perez et al.,  
388 2014a, Tada et al., 2016) that replicate a large body of work in established ScZ, indicating  
389 that neural circuits are impaired in the generation of high-frequency oscillations (Grent-'t-

390 Jong, et al., 2016; Kwon, et al., 1999; Spencer, et al., 2004). However, it is currently unclear  
391 whether auditory gamma-band oscillations are potential predictors for psychosis  
392 development. Preliminary data from resting-state oscillations suggests that aberrant,  
393 spontaneous high-frequency oscillations potentially indicate a higher risk for transition to  
394 psychosis (Ramyead et al. 2015, 2016), but further data are required to replicate this findings.

395 An important test therefore of the framework proposed here are further studies into the ability  
396 to predict clinical outcome in CHR-participants using time-frequency and ERP/ERF-data.  
397 Currently, only a relatively small amount of studies have tested the possibility of predicting  
398 psychosis-onset based on information from the EEG/MEG-parameters, especially in regards  
399 to the possibility of using neural oscillations as a biomarker for the prediction of psychosis in  
400 CHR-groups.

401

#### 402 4.2 Circuit Dysfunctions and the Pathophysiology of the Prodrome

403 Emerging evidence from MRS and brain stimulation highlight that the disruption of ERPs  
404 and neural oscillations could potentially be due to alterations in E/I-balance parameters. This  
405 is supported by reduced inhibitory cortical transmission as revealed by TMS/tDCS (Hasan et  
406 al. 2012; Tang et al. 2014) as well as by elevated Glutamate levels in MRS-measurements in  
407 CHR-participants cortex (Fuente-sandoval et al., 2011, 2015; Tandon et al., 2013), suggesting  
408 that emerging cognitive deficits as well as psychosis could result from disturbances in  
409 GABAergic and Glutamatergic neurotransmission.

410 This hypothesis is consistent with impairments in MMN-deficits in CHR-participants  
411 (Bodatsch, Brockhaus-Dumke, Klosterkotter, & Ruhrmann, 2015) that together with the  
412 extensive evidence from studies into established ScZ (Erickson, Ruffle, & Gold, 2016)  
413 suggests that the MMM and its neuromagnetic counterpart constitutes currently one of the

414 most promising biomarkers for ScZ. Among the generating mechanisms that have been  
415 implicated in MMN-parameters, involvement of NMDA-Rs (Javitt, Steinschneider,  
416 Schroeder, & Arezzo, 1996) as well as SST-interneurons (Hamm & Yuste, 2016) have been  
417 demonstrated.

418 A related finding that points towards circuit anomalies in auditory regions in CHR-  
419 participants is the emerging evidence on the failure to generate gamma-band oscillations  
420 (Tada, et al., 2016). Given the mechanistic role of PV+ interneurons in the emergence of  
421 rhythmic activity at gamma-band frequencies (Sohal, et al., 2009), an obvious candidate  
422 mechanism are the impairments in GABAergic neurotransmission. As highlighted previously,  
423 however, it is currently unclear whether dysfunctions in PV+ interneurons represent a  
424 primary pathophysiological process or a downstream consequence of deficits in excitatory  
425 pyramidal cell activity and/or oxidative stress (Lewis, et al., 2012; Steullet, et al., 2017).

426 This question also highlights that it will remain challenging to develop mechanistic insights  
427 into the origins of circuit dysfunctions in ScZ based on non-invasive electrophysiology,  
428 neuroimaging and brain stimulation data alone. This is because the disruptions in neural  
429 oscillations and ERP/ERF-parameters may represent endpoints of developmental  
430 disturbances that can arise from different etiologies. Accordingly, it is imperative that  
431 EEG/MEG-approaches are integrated with basic in-vitro and in-vivo studies into the origin  
432 and mechanistic role of E/I-balance disturbances in order to arrive at a neurobiologically  
433 informed understanding of cognitive dysfunctions and emerging psychosis.

434

#### 435 4.3 Neurodynamics and the Treatment of Prodromal Schizophrenia

436 This approach could offer a novel approach towards the treatment of ScZ that so far has

437 largely relied on the assumption that dopaminergic abnormalities are leading to psychosis and  
438 certain cognitive impairments (Howes & Kapur, 2009). However, given the fact that  
439 antipsychotic treatments have not substantially improved the more fundamental cognitive  
440 deficits nor negative symptoms of the disorder, it is possible that addressing alternative  
441 circuit mechanisms that are crucial for neuronal dynamics has great potential for advancing  
442 treatment and therefore clinical outcomes.

443 Preliminary evidence from a study by Kantrowitz et al. (2015) suggests that modulation of  
444 NMDA-Rs in CHR-participants may represent a viable strategy for novel treatment  
445 approaches. Administration of D-Serine, a NMDA-R agonist, significantly improved negative  
446 symptoms in a small sample of participants meeting CHR-criteria. Related evidence from the  
447 same investigators has shown that D-Serine also improves MMN-generation in chronic ScZ-  
448 patients (Kantrowitz, et al., 2016).

449 Another therapeutic target are impairments in oxidative stress that have been identified as a  
450 common factor in several animal models of ScZ and contribute to PV+ interneuron deficits  
451 and NMDA-R hypofunctioning (Steullet, et al., 2017). Administration of the antioxidant N-  
452 acetyl cysteine (NAC) in established ScZ has been shown to improve MMN-deficits as well as  
453 negative symptoms Do (Lavoie, et al., 2008). Related to the possibility of using NAC for the  
454 treatment of prodromal ScZ, [Cabungcal](#) et al. (2014) examined NAC to target the emergence  
455 of cognitive deficits in the neonatal ventral hippocampal lesion (NVHL) rodent model of  
456 ScZ. Administration of NAC in adolescent rats prevented the reduction of PV+ interneuron  
457 deficits in the PFC as well as electrophysiological and behavioral deficits observed in ScZ-  
458 patients, highlighting the potential of preventive treatments that target E/I-balance .for  
459 correction circuit abnormalities prior to the onset of ScZ.

460 Brain stimulation may represent an additional, emerging approach that could be harnessed in

461 the future to correct abnormalities in neural dynamics. Specifically, it is conceivable that  
462 aberrant oscillatory activity is targeted to with brain stimulation techniques, such as tACS and  
463 TMS, as evidence suggests that brain networks can be entrained at specific frequencies (Thut,  
464 Schyns, & Gross, 2011) This approach has been tested in in-vitro and in-vivo animal research  
465 as well as in human studies, all pointing towards converging evidence for the effectivity of  
466 the approach (Frohlich & McCormick, 2010; Ozen, et al., 2010)(Helfrich, et al., 2014).

467

#### 468 Summary and Outlook

469 The current data provide preliminary support for the hypothesis that the prodrome of ScZ is  
470 associated with aberrant neuronal dynamics. Because of the possibility to link these  
471 parameters to basic circuit mechanisms, we believe that it is important to carry out further  
472 studies using advanced EEG/MEG-approaches that fully exploit advances in signal  
473 processing and source-reconstruction techniques to capture alterations in the spectral  
474 signatures and organization of large-scale networks. Together with systematic links with  
475 translational research, we believe that this approach could potentially lead to paradigm-  
476 changing approach in ScZ towards early intervention and treatment.

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## 487 Figure Legends

488

489 Figure 1: Model of psychosis onset from the clinical high-risk state. Self-experienced  
490 perceptual and cognitive abnormalities are considered to be earliest sign-posts for psychosis  
491 risk prior to the development of sub-threshold psychosis symptoms. (adapted from Fusar-Poli  
492 et al., 2013).

493 Figure 2: MMN-Findings in ScZ and Clinical High Risk Groups: a) Mean effect size and  
494 95% confidence interval by group for MMN-deficits in ScZ, Bipolar, CHR- and first-degree  
495 relatives. CI, confidence interval; SZ, schizophrenia. (adapted from Erickson et al., 2015).

496 b) Duration MMN in CHR-participants. The solid black line represents the duration MMN in  
497 healthy controls, the solid gray line depicts the duration MMN in FEP-patients. HC, healthy  
498 control subjects; AR, at-risk subjects; FES, first-episode schizophrenia.

499 c) Relationship between MMN-deficits and transition to psychosis. Hazard function of the  
500 two risk classes generated by a median split. Cumulative hazard rate in Class 1 (dotted line)  
501 is .34 and .85 in Class 2 (solid line). Follow-up periods exceeding 24 months were considered  
502 at the end of Month 24. (adapted from Bodatsch et al., 2011).

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505 Figure 3: ASSR-Findings in ScZ and Clinical High Risk Groups: a) Meta-Analysis of 40 Hz



506 ASSR in ScZ. Hedges *g* random-effect sizes for 20 studies, showing power and phase effects  
507 separately. Across studies, the Hedges *g* random-effect size was  $-0.46$  for phase measures  
508 and  $-0.58$  for power measures. For both measures combined, the overall effect size was  
509  $-0.50$ .

510 b) EEG 40 Hz ASSR-data in CHR-participants. Left panel: Figure 2. Time course of the 40-  
511 Hz ITC. The x-axis indicates time (ms), and the y-axis indicates ITC. The blue line, dotted  
512 line, and purple line indicate the 40-Hz ITC in healthy controls, ultra-high risk, and FEP  
513 schizophrenia, respectively. Right Panel: The time course of the 40-Hz ERSP. The x-axis  
514 indicates time (ms), and the y-axis indicates ERSP. The blue line, dotted line, and purple line  
515 indicate the 40-Hz ERSP in healthy controls, ultra-high risk, and first-episode schizophrenia,  
516 respectively. (adapted from Tada et al., 2016).

517 c) 40 Hz ASSR and NMDA-R modulation: Heat map representation of mean PLF measure at  
518 the 7 min point following vehicle (a) or ketamine [1 (b) or 30 (c) mg/kg] treatments. Dashed  
519 boxes indicate computed activity within the gamma band (35–45 Hz) for the duration of the  
520 stimulus train (0.5 s). In comparison to the vehicle group, note a clear increase after 1 mg/kg  
521 ketamine treatment and a reduction after 30 mg/kg treatment. Statistical significance  
522 indicated by  $*P < 0.05$ ; Dunnett's test. (adapted from Sivarao et al., 2016)

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525 Figure 4. MRS Glutamate Findings in ScZ and Clinical High Risk Groups

526 a) Overview of MRS Glutamate findings in ScZ. Negative Hedges *g* values denote lower  
527 glutamatergic metabolite concentrations in cases than controls; positive values denote higher  
528 glutamatergic metabolite concentrations in cases than controls. The size of the data markers is  
529 proportional to the total number of individuals. DLPFC indicates dorsolateral prefrontal

530 cortex; Glx, combined glutamate and glutamine signal; MTL, medial temporal lobe; and  
531 WM, white matter. (adapted from Merritt et al., 2016).

532 b) MRS Glutamate findings in CHR-participants. Location of voxel placement for MRS  
533 acquisition and glutamate levels in the region of interests: left hippocampus (upper left),  
534 anterior cingulate (upper right), right thalamus (lower left). Error bars show the 95%  
535 confidence intervals of the means. ARMS indicates at-risk mental state. (adapted from (P.  
536 Fusar-Poli 2011).

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