

1 **Emotional conflict processing in adolescent Chronic Fatigue Syndrome: a**
2 **pilot study using fMRI**

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Emotional conflict processing in adolescent Chronic Fatigue Syndrome: a pilot study using fMRI

Introduction: Studies of neurocognition suggest abnormalities in cognitive control contribute to the pathophysiology of chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS) in adolescents, yet these abnormalities remain poorly understood at the neurobiological level. Reports indicate that adolescents with CFS are significantly impaired in conflict processing, a primary element of cognitive control. *Method:* In this study, we examine whether emotional conflict processing is altered on behavioral and neural levels in adolescents with CFS and a healthy comparison group. Fifteen adolescent patients with CFS and 24 healthy adolescent participants underwent functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) while performing an emotional conflict task that involved categorizing facial affect while ignoring overlaid affect labeled words. *Results:* Adolescent CFS patients were less able to engage the left amygdala and left mid-posterior insula (mpINS) in response to conflict compared to the healthy comparison group. An association between accuracy interference and conflict-related reactivity in the amygdala was observed in CFS patients. A relationship between response time interference and conflict-related reactivity in the mpINS was also reported. Neural responses in the amygdala and mpINS were specific to fatigue severity. *Conclusions:* These data demonstrate that adolescent CFS patients displayed deficits in emotional conflict processing. Our results suggest abnormalities in affective and cognitive functioning of the salience network, which might underlie the pathophysiology of adolescent CFS.

Key words: chronic fatigue syndrome; adolescents; functional MRI; cognitive control; emotion; conflict

62 **Introduction**

63 Disabling physical and mental fatigue, which worsens from physical and mental exertion,
64 characterize chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS) (IOM, 2015). CFS constitutes one of the major
65 threats towards adolescent health (Royal College of Paediatrics and Child Health, 2004).
66 Neuropsychological studies have documented cognitive impairments in adolescent patients,
67 suggesting that a sustained stress response might be an important part of the pathophysiology
68 (Wyller, Eriksen, & Malterud, 2009). Recently, a deficit in cognitive inhibition was reported
69 in adolescents with CFS (Sulheim et al., 2015). In another study, the Eriksen Flanker test
70 revealed conflict processing impairment in adolescents with CFS (van de Putte et al., 2008).
71 Haig-Ferguson, Tucker, Eaton, Hunt, and Crawley (2009) and Kawatani et al. (2011) reported
72 attention impairments in adolescent CFS patients. An event-related potential (ERP) study
73 found working memory impairment was associated with frontal lobe alterations in adolescents
74 with CFS using KANA-Pick-out test (Tomoda et al., 2007). These studies point to a specific
75 impairment in cognitive control and warrant further investigation.

76 The human cognitive system has the remarkable ability to adapt efficiently and effectively to
77 a changing environment. This would entail an efficient salience network (SN) in the brain that
78 identifies and integrates salient events, both endogenously and externally cued, to help guide
79 behavior. The main regions of the brain that comprise the SN are the insula, dorsal anterior
80 cingulate cortex (dACC), and amygdala. The dynamic hub of the SN is the fronto-insular
81 cortex (FIC) that integrates other SN regions in the processing of sensory, emotional and
82 cognitive information (Menon, 2015). Importantly, the right FIC has been implicated as the
83 region of the SN, which mediates autonomic signaling with conscious awareness (Craig, 2002;
84 Critchley, 2004; Critchley, Melmed, Featherstone, Mathias, & Dolan, 2002). The worsening
85 of symptoms after physical and mental exertion (post-exertional malaise), as seen in CFS,

86 could suggest a malfunction of the SN, because inefficiencies might demand greater mental
87 effort and disrupt the interpretation of salient biological and cognitively important information.
88 SN theory suggests that deficiencies in the in filtering and registering of salient stimulus cues
89 into the SN influence the engagement of other brain networks, such as the lateral
90 frontoparietal network, which leads to impoverished cognition (Menon, 2015). Previous
91 neuroimaging studies on adults with CFS have shown functional and anatomical alterations in
92 brain areas with reduced activity in the dorsolateral and medial prefrontal cortex, anterior
93 cingulate gyrus, insula, and parietal cortices (Caseras et al., 2006; Caseras et al., 2008; de
94 Lange et al., 2004) during cognitive tasks, and decreased grey-matter volume in bilateral
95 prefrontal cortices (de Lange et al., 2008; Okada, Tanaka, Kuratsune, Watanabe, & Sadato,
96 2004). A recent *fMRI* study on childhood CFS found that patients exhibited less efficient
97 frontal activity during a dual verbal task, where increased mental effort afforded costly energy
98 requirements (Mizuno et al., 2015). Fatigue influences neural function and studies relating
99 these changes to the specificity of fatigue and not to confounding factors like anxiety and
100 depressive symptoms are currently missing in the literature.

101 In a recent review on predisposing, precipitating, and perpetuating factors in adolescent CFS,
102 an eminent finding was the higher rate of comorbidity with anxiety and depression disorders
103 compared to healthy controls or illness control groups (Lievesley, Rimes, & Chalder, 2014).
104 Anxiety and depression are indicators of altered emotional processing and also a negative
105 affect bias, in terms of impaired performance to faces expressing negative emotion (Bar-Haim,
106 Lamy, Pergamin, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & van, 2007; Gotlib, Krasnoperova, Yue, &
107 Joormann, 2004). However, studies focusing on how emotional processing interact with
108 underlying brain regions and their associated cognitive functions have not been undertaken
109 previously in adolescents with CFS.

110 The cognitive ability to detect a conflict and configure a response for successful conflict
111 resolution has been operationalized in the context of the Stroop task (Botvinick, Braver, Barch,
112 Carter, & Cohen, 2001; Kerns et al., 2004; MacDonald, Cohen, Stenger, & Carter, 2000).
113 Conflicting stimuli in a Stroop task produce an interference in cognitive processing that can
114 be measured behaviorally by increases in response time and decreases in accuracy. An
115 *emotional* Stroop task was designed to explore how emotion-laden stimuli interact with
116 cognitive control and might therefore provide important knowledge on adolescent CFS
117 pathophysiology. When this task was performed on healthy adults, the medial prefrontal
118 cortex (mPFC), anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), and amygdalae have been implicated in
119 conflict detection, stimuli appraisal, and regulation (Egner, Etkin, Gale, & Hirsch, 2008; Etkin,
120 Egner, Peraza, Kandel, & Hirsch, 2006). However, the detrimental effects of interpersonal
121 stress appeared to alter activity in the right FIC and left mid-posterior insula (mpINS) during
122 an emotional conflict task (Bruce et al., 2012; Marusak, Etkin, & Thomason, 2015). CFS
123 appears to be strongly associated with childhood adversities (Afari et al., 2014), and the
124 underlying pathophysiology is indicative of a sustained stress response (Wyller et al., 2009),
125 adding to the possible usefulness of applying the emotional Stroop task in an experimental
126 design.

127 The aim of this study was to explore and link emotional conflict processing to underlying
128 neural mechanisms in adolescent CFS. To gauge emotional conflict processing, we measured
129 the amount of interference, response time slowing and decrease in accuracy, observed on
130 behavioral measures. Firstly, we hypothesized adolescent CFS patients would show reduced
131 behavioral conflict interferences. Secondly, we hypothesized that adolescent CFS patients
132 would exhibit decreased responses in conflict detection regions of the SN: ACC, amygdalae,
133 and insula, and that these alterations would be related to behavioral interferences. Finally, we
134 explored associations between depressive and anxiety symptoms and neural function and

135 tested whether adolescent CFS patients would show a negative affect bias, a common marker
136 in mood and anxiety disorders.

137 **Material and Methods**

138 This study is part of the NorCAPITAL-project (The Norwegian Study of Chronic Fatigue
139 Syndrome in Adolescents: Pathophysiology and Intervention Trial) (Clinical Trials ID:
140 NCT01040429). It was conducted at the Department of Pediatrics, Oslo University Hospital,
141 Norway, which is a national referral center for young CFS patients. The current study is based
142 on cross-sectional data collected during the first clinical in-hospital day of NorCAPITAL,
143 from March 2010 to May 2012. All participants received a gift-card worth NOK 200.
144 Informed, written consent was obtained from all participants and from parents/next-of-kin if
145 required. The study was conducted in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration of the World
146 Medical Assembly and approved by the Norwegian National Committee for Ethics in Medical
147 Research.

148 ***Participants***

149 All hospital pediatric departments in Norway (n=20), as well as primary care pediatricians
150 and general practitioners, were invited to refer CFS patients aged 12-18 years consecutively to
151 our department.

152 The referring units were equipped with written information for distribution to potential study
153 participants and their parents/next-of-kin. If consent was given, a standard form required the
154 referral unit to confirm the result of clinical investigations considered compulsory to diagnose
155 pediatric CFS (pediatric specialist assessment, comprehensive hematology and biochemistry
156 analyses, chest x-ray, abdominal ultrasound, and brain magnetic resonance imaging)(Royal
157 College of Paediatrics and Child Health, 2004). Also, the referring units were required to
158 confirm that the patient a) was unable to follow normal school routines due to fatigue; b) was

159 not permanently bedridden; c) did not have any concurrent medical or psychiatric disorder
160 that might explain the fatigue; d) did not experience any concurrent demanding life event
161 (such as parents' divorce) that might explain the fatigue; e) did not use pharmaceuticals
162 (including hormone contraceptives) regularly. If medical history or current health status
163 indicated a psychiatric condition, physicians were required to refer patients to a psychiatrist
164 for evaluation. If a comorbid psychiatric disorder was found, those patients were removed
165 from the study (Sulheim et al., 2014). No patients received graded exercise therapy (GET) and
166 two patients (out of the 15 viable *f*MRI datasets) received cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT)
167 at baseline. Completed forms were consecutively conveyed to the study center and carefully
168 evaluated by either of two authors (DS or EF). Patients, considered eligible for this study,
169 were summoned to a clinical meeting at our study center, and after which, a final inclusion
170 decision was made.

171 In agreement with NICE clinical guidelines (Royal College of Paediatrics and Child Health,
172 2004; National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence, 2007), we applied a 'broad' case
173 definition of CFS, requiring three months of unexplained, disabling chronic/relapsing fatigue
174 of new onset. We did not require that patients meet any other accompanying symptom criteria,
175 in contrast to the case definition from the International Chronic Fatigue Syndrome Study
176 Group at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (commonly referred to as the
177 Fukuda-definition), which appears to be most frequently used in the scientific community
178 (Fukuda et al., 1994). The Fukuda-definition requires at least six months of unexplained
179 chronic or relapsing fatigue of new onset, severely affecting daily activities, as well as four or
180 more of eight specific accompanying symptoms (headache, muscle pain, joint pain, sore
181 throat, tender lymph nodes, impaired memory or concentration, unrefreshing sleep, and
182 malaise after exertion). However, the validity of this definition has not been established
183 (Brurberg, Fonhus, Larun, Flottorp, & Malterud, 2014). In fact, several empirical findings

184 raise concerns about the validity, in particular among adolescents: A formal factor analysis of
185 symptoms in a broadly defined group of chronic fatigued patients did not show a strong
186 correspondence with the Fukuda accompanying symptoms (Nisenbaum, Reyes, Unger, &
187 Reeves, 2004). A study based upon the Swedish twin registry concluded that there was no
188 empirical support for the requirement of four out of eight Fukuda accompanying symptoms
189 (Sullivan, Pedersen, Jacks, & Evengard, 2005). A report on a broadly defined population of
190 adolescent CFS patients concluded that the subgroup adhering to the Fukuda criteria was not
191 characterized by a certain level of disability, nor was this subgroup specifically related to
192 characteristics of underlying pathophysiology (alteration of cardiovascular autonomic control)
193 (Wyller & Helland, 2013). Accordingly, subgrouping based upon the Fukuda criteria did not
194 influence the cross-sectional comparisons or the intervention effects in previously reported
195 results from the NorCAPITAL project (Sulheim et al., 2014). Thus, the inclusion criteria in
196 this study are wider than the Fukuda criteria. The main reason for not adhering to the Fukuda
197 case definition was too few accompanying symptoms. Disease duration and percentage of
198 patients fulfilling Fukuda and NICE criteria were reported.

199 In NorCAPITAL, a total of 120 CFS patients were included. This study was based upon a
200 subset of patients generated from a computer-based randomization procedure, where one
201 fourth of the patients were randomized to be included in the present study (Sulheim et al.,
202 2014). Disease mechanism in CFS might change over time; in addition, disease duration
203 might be a marker of prognosis. Thus, 18 months disease duration (median disease duration in
204 the NorCAPITAL cohort) served as stratification criterion for the randomization procedure
205 (Sulheim et al., 2014). The randomization procedure allocated 30 patients to fMRI assessment:
206 of these, five patients did not want to participate in the study, four patients were excluded due
207 to orthodontic treatment, three patients were excluded due to excessive movement parameters >
208 3 mm in either of the three translation parameters or three rotation parameters, one was

209 excluded due to poor performance (<50% accuracy), and two were excluded due to scanning
210 error, resulting in a total fMRI dataset of n = 15 adolescent CFS patients for the final analyses.
211 A group of 24 healthy controls having a comparable distribution of gender and age were
212 recruited from local schools. No chronic disease and no regular use of pharmaceuticals were
213 allowed. All participants completed the Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory
214 (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1973), Mood and Feelings Questionnaire for Depression
215 (Sund, Larsson, & Wichstrom, 2001), Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence (WASI)
216 (Wechsler, 2007), and Chalder Fatigue Questionnaire (Chalder et al., 1993). Symptom data
217 were missing at random for two of the patients, and the group mean was used for their lost
218 data.

219 *Clinical Measures*

220 The Chalder Fatigue Questionnaire is a valid outcome measure in adult (Chalder et al., 1993)
221 and adolescent CFS (Tanaka et al., 2008) based on symptoms during the preceding month.
222 The sum across 11 items is scored on a 0-3 Likert scale, thus ranging from 0 (less severe
223 fatigue) to 33 (more severe fatigue).

224 The Mood and Feelings Questionnaire (MFQ) has been validated in children and adolescents
225 (Sund et al., 2001). MFQ consists of 34 items to be rated based on symptoms during the
226 preceding month. Each item is scored on a 0-2 Likert scale, and the total sum score is from 0
227 to 68. Higher scores imply more depressive symptoms.

228 The state anxiety measure from the Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger et
229 al., 1973) is a valid measure of 12 items that asks participants to indicate how they feel right
230 now on 4-point forced-choice Likert-type response scales. Scores range from 12 to 48, with
231 higher scores suggesting greater levels of anxiety.

232 *Experimental Paradigm*

233 The emotional conflict task was modified from the previously described paradigm (Egner et
234 al., 2008; Etkin et al., 2006). It consisted of 168 presentations of photographs of happy or
235 fearful facial expressions drawn from the Karolinska database (Lundqvist, 1998). Faces were
236 cropped and overlaid with the words “FRYKT” or “GLEDE,” (English: fear or happy,
237 respectively) and written in prominent red letters across the face, such that word and facial
238 expression were either congruent or incongruent trial types (Figure 1). Stimuli were presented
239 using E-Prime 2.0 software (Psychology Software Tools, Pittsburgh, PA) and MR-compatible
240 goggles with two LCD-displays (VisualSystems®; NordicNeuroLab, Bergen, Norway), while
241 responses were collected using an MR-compatible response grip with two response buttons
242 (ResponseGrip®; NordicNeuroLab, Bergen, Norway). Stimuli were presented for 1000 msec,
243 interstimulus interval with fixation + of 3000 msec, and jitter of 1250-2000 msec (mean ITI =
244 4000) in a pseudorandom order, and counterbalanced across trial types for expression, word,
245 gender and response button. Participants indicated facial affect with a button press response.

246 Participants were instructed to indicate the emotional expression in the face (target), where a
247 word was written across that was either semantically congruent or incongruent with the facial
248 affect. Congruent conditions have semantically compatible faces and words and usually result
249 in better performance, as there is no conflict. The congruent word thus represents a distractor
250 that facilitates cognition. However, an incongruent word stimulus would elicit incompatible
251 response tendencies, one of which is the overlearned prepotent response to read the word. The
252 incongruent word represents a distractor that interferes with cognition and initiates cognitive
253 conflict processing.

254 Behavioral data, accuracy and response times (excluding error trials), were analyzed in SPSS,
255 version 20, (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL). Interference in the response time (RT) data was

256 calculated by subtracting the mean response times of the congruent (C) trials from the mean
257 response times of the incongruent (I) trials. Interference in accuracy (AC) data was also
258 calculated by subtracting mean accuracy scores on congruent trials from mean accuracy
259 scores on incongruent trials. Emotional conflict (I-C) would be indicated on behavioral
260 measures by producing a slowdown in IC-RT and a reduction in IC-AC. Behavioral effects
261 were considered significant at a $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) threshold.

262 To test for a negative affect bias in both the RT and AC data, a 2 x 2 x 2 facial affect (fear vs.
263 happy) x congruency (congruent vs. incongruent) x group (CFS patients vs. comparison group)
264 repeated measures ANOVAs were used.

265 *fMRI Data Acquisition*

266 Scanning was conducted on a 3 T, Phillips Achieva whole-body scanner, with an 8 channel
267 Philips SENSE head coil (Philips Medical Systems). Functional images were obtained with a
268 single-shot T₂* - weighted echo planar imaging sequence (repetition time (TR): 2000 msec;
269 slice echo time (TE): 30 msec; field of view (FOV): 240 x 240; imaging matrix: 80 x 80; flip
270 angle 80° 35 axial slices, interleaved at 3mm thickness, no gap, voxel size 3 x 3 x 3 mm. The
271 scanning session consisted of 510 volumes, synchronized to the onset of the experiment. A T₁
272 - weighted anatomical image with a voxel size of 2 x 2 x 2 mm was recorded for registration
273 of the functional images (60 transverse slices; TR: 10462 msec; TE: 54 msec; FOV: 224 x
274 224; flip angle: 90°).

275 *fMRI Data Analysis*

276 Functional images were converted to 4D NIfTI files
277 (<http://lcn.uoregon.edu/jolinda/MRConvert/>) and analyzed using SPM8
278 (<http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/software/spm8>). Images were preprocessed using the
279 standard SPM pipeline (Ashburner et al., 2012)- corrected for slice timing, realigned to

280 correct for residual head movement, coregistered to the segmented anatomical image, and
281 spatially transformed to the Montreal Neurologic Institute coordinate system (K. J. Friston et
282 al., 1995). Images were resampled every 3 mm, and smoothed with an 8 mm full-width - half-
283 maximum (FWHM) Gaussian kernel. A 128-second temporal high-pass filter was applied to
284 the data. Separate regressors for the stimulus events (congruent and incongruent) were created
285 and convolved with a canonical hemodynamic response function. Error trials were modeled
286 separately. Additional regressors of no interest corresponding to the six motion parameters
287 were also included. This model was applied to normalized data in the context of a generalized
288 linear model (Karl J Friston et al., 1994) and submitted to a group level random-effects
289 analyses using two-sample t tests.

290 We report group differences from separate *a priori* region of interest analyses using both a
291 voxel family-wise error-correction (FWE) and a Bonferroni correction of $p < 0.01$ for multiple
292 tests. Regions online during conflict detection, within the SN and commonly recruited in
293 conflict tasks: bilateral amygdala (left, $x = -30, y = -6, z = -14$; right, $x = 32, y = 0, z = -12$),
294 dACC ($x = 2, y = 32, z = 31$), right FIC ($x = 40, y = 30, z = -7$) were derived from prior work
295 (Egner et al., 2008; Etkin et al., 2006; Marusak, Etkin, et al., 2015). The left mid-posterior
296 insula region ($x = -34, y = -10, z = 10$) was included because of its association with stress in
297 previous studies (Bruce et al., 2012; Marusak, Etkin, et al., 2015). Regional masks (8 mm
298 radii spheres) were created around each coordinate using the WFU PickAtlas (Maldjian,
299 Laurienti, Kraft, & Burdette, 2003). The reported voxels correspond to standardized Montreal
300 Neurological Institute (MNI) coordinate space. For regions showing group differences, signal
301 was extracted using MarsBar (Brett, Anton, Valabregue, & Poline, 2002) and analyzed in
302 IBM SPSS v.22 to evaluate the relationship of brain activation, task performance, and
303 symptom severity. Effects were considered significant at a threshold of $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed).

304 Two-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine group variance and activity in brain regions
305 of interest on interference variables.

306 Next, we explored associations between neural function and fatigue severity and tested for
307 influences of anxiety and depressive symptoms on that relationship in linear regression
308 analyses.

309 Exploratory whole-brain results for the between-group effects of I-C contrasts are also
310 reported at a threshold of $p < 0.005$, cluster minimum = 10 voxels. This threshold was derived
311 from suggested standards for whole-brain comparisons (Lieberman & Cunningham, 2009)
312 and presented for visualization.

313 **Results**

314 Adolescent CFS patient and comparison groups were well matched for age, gender, body
315 mass index (BMI) and IQ; however, patients scored higher on clinical symptom scales (Table
316 1).

317 ***Behavioral***

318 In the analysis to determine a negative affect bias in the RT data, there was a significant main
319 effect of congruency ($F[1, 37]=20.79, p<0.001$). There were no effects for group, either
320 interactions or between-subjects. Since there was no evidence of groups responding
321 differently with the two emotions, further analyses combined emotions across congruency
322 conditions. There was very strong evidence of response time slowing for incongruent trials,
323 compared to congruent trials, in the comparison group (incongruent response time=785 msec
324 [SD=89], congruent response time=748 msec [SD=87]; $t=5.63, df=23, p<0.001$). This effect
325 was not observed in the patient group (incongruent response time=749 msec [SD=75],
326 congruent response time=730 msec [SD=77]; $t=1.66, df=14, p=0.120$; see Figure 2A).

327 In the analysis to determine a negative affect bias in the AC data, there was a significant main
328 effect of congruency ($F[1, 37]=19.04, p<0.001$). There was no between-subjects effect for
329 group, but there was evidence of an interaction for emotion and group ($F [1, 37]=8.62,$
330 $p<0.01$). Independent t-tests revealed a significant difference between patients and controls on
331 happy trials only (patients: happy congruent accuracy =90.0% [SD=8.6]; comparison: happy
332 congruent accuracy=95.8% [SD=4.5]; $t=2.73, df=37, p=0.01$; patients: happy incongruent
333 accuracy=83.5% [SD=11.8]; comparison: happy incongruent accuracy=90.9% [SD=8.9];
334 $t=2.22, df=37, p=0.03$). There was no 3-way interaction effect for emotion, congruency and
335 group. A negative affect bias was not observed in the accuracy data, and further analyses
336 combined emotions across congruency conditions. There was good evidence of a decrease in
337 accuracy for incongruent trials, compared to congruent trials, in both the CFS group
338 (incongruent accuracy=86.8% [SD=10.0], congruent accuracy=91.1% [SD=7.2]; $t=-3.10,$
339 $df=14, p=0.008$), and comparison group (incongruent accuracy=91.6% [SD=8.7], congruent
340 accuracy=95.2% [SD=5.2]; $t=-3.17, df=23, p=0.004$; see Figure 2B).

341 ***Functional MRI***

342 We examined the neural correlates of group differences on the emotional conflict contrast (I-
343 C) in *a priori* region of interest analyses and found the left amygdala revealed a significant
344 decrease in conflict-related activity in CFS patients compared to the comparison group, $x = -$
345 $27, y = -4, z = -11, Z = 3.45, pFWE = 0.009$ (Figure 3A). The right amygdala did not show
346 group differences in responses to conflict. CFS patients showed a significant decrease in
347 reactivity of the left mid-posterior insula (mpINS), $x = -39, y = -7, z = 7, Z = 3.80, pFWE =$
348 0.003 (Figure 3C), in response to conflict compared to the comparison group. Conflict-related
349 activity in the right FIC and dACC did not show group differences.

350 Left amygdala activity was significantly related to accuracy interference, $F(1, 35) = 4.25, p <$
351 $0.05, \eta_p^2 = .11$ There was also good evidence of an interaction between the effects of group
352 and left amygdala reactivity on accuracy interference, $F(1, 35) = 8.58, p < 0.01, \eta_p^2 = .20;$
353 Figure 3B). The relationship between conflict-related activity in the left amygdala and IC-AC
354 decreased in the CFS group, but increased in the comparison group.

355 Group variance was significantly related to response time interference, $F(1, 35) = 4.28, p <$
356 $0.05, \eta_p^2 = .11$. There was also evidence of an interaction between the effects of group and
357 mpINS reactivity on response time interference, $F(1, 35) = 4.53, p < 0.05, \eta_p^2 = .12;$ Figure
358 3D). The relationship between conflict reactivity in the mpINS and IC-RT decreased in the
359 CFS group, but in the comparison group this relationship increased.

360 We found fatigue severity significantly predicted neural reactivity of the left amygdala and
361 mpINS, explaining 16% and 14% of the variance, respectively (Table 2). Adding anxiety and
362 depressive variables, did not improve the fit of the model.

363 Exploratory whole-brain effects of I-C are provided in Table 3. In short, adolescent CFS
364 patients showed decreased response to conflict in the insula, precentral gyrus, middle
365 temporal gyrus, cingulate, middle occipital gyrus, middle frontal gyrus, thalamus, precuneus
366 and cuneus.

367 **Discussion**

368 The main findings of this study were that adolescents with CFS were less able to engage the
369 left amygdala and left mid-posterior insula (mpINS) in response to conflict compared to the
370 healthy comparison group. Reactivity of the amygdala was associated with accuracy
371 interference during conflict. Conflict-related activity in the mpINS was related to response

372 time interference. There were no associations between brain activity and depressive and
373 anxiety symptoms. The CFS group did not produce a negative affect bias.

374 Within CFS group, we found inefficient response time interference performance; however,
375 this effect was not significantly different between-groups. This finding is in contrast to studies
376 on adult depression and anxiety disorder (Etkin, Prater, Hoeft, Menon, & Schatzberg, 2010;
377 Etkin & Schatzberg, 2011) and trauma-exposed youths, which do produce significant group
378 differences on interference performances (Marusak, Etkin, et al., 2015; Marusak, Martin,
379 Etkin, & Thomason, 2015). The response times for congruent and incongruent trials were not
380 significantly different between groups. However, the absence of a response time conflict
381 effect within patients indicates inefficient response time processing and suggests the
382 emotional information in the stimuli either did not aid in cognitive processing on congruent
383 trials and/or did not interfere in cognitive processing on incongruent trials, as observed in
384 healthy adolescents. During the congruent condition, the competing word stimulus is
385 understood to prime cognition, as there is no conflict in stimuli semantics. In the incongruent
386 condition, the competing word stimulus is understood to interfere with cognition, as there is
387 conflicting semantics in the stimuli. Both conditions represent a degree of cognitive inhibition
388 of the overlearned prepotent response to read the word. Consequently, the absence of a
389 response time conflict effect in adolescent CFS seems to be due to inefficient processing of
390 the word-distractor stimuli, which should either facilitate or interfere with cognition,
391 accordingly.

392 Decreases in neural reactivity to conflict in the left amygdala and left mpINS indicate deficits
393 in cognitive and affective functioning of the salience network (SN) (Marusak, Etkin, et al.,
394 2015; Menon, 2015). Perceptive sensory areas send information to amygdala and FIC that is
395 further relayed to the mpINS (Cauda, Geminiani, & Vercelli, 2014). The lateralized left
396 amygdala and mpINS effects found in our study might be related to the different roles of

397 hemisphere function in emotional processing. In a systematic review, researchers found
398 predominate left amygdala activation across *fMRI* studies (Baas, Aleman, & Kahn, 2004).
399 Their study supports the theoretical view of functional brain asymmetry in the local and
400 global processing of information. Local processing of the left hemisphere is relatively biased
401 towards the processing fine-grained details of a stimulus or scene; whereas, global processing
402 of the right hemisphere is relatively biased towards the processing of holistic aspects of a
403 stimulus or scene (Hugdahl & Davidson, 2004). The decrease in left amygdala reactivity of
404 adolescent CFS patients could suggest inefficient local functioning in the detection of salient
405 stimuli cues that might influence further cognitive processing to the left mpINS.

406 Current SN theory suggests salience filtering occurs in the SN initiating cognitive control
407 signaling that influence how stimuli are processed (Menon, 2015). As such, neural activity in
408 regions responsible for detecting conflict should reflect the amount of behavioral interference,
409 resulting in higher activity in those regions. Even though the behavioral interference measures
410 did not reveal between-groups effects, we found the relationship between group differences
411 and interference measures varied as a function of conflict-related neural activity in the
412 amygdala and insula, which better illustrates group differences in brain behavior relations.

413 The negative association between accuracy interference and conflict-related reactivity in the
414 left amygdala, and the lack of association between response time interference and conflict-
415 related reactivity in the mpINS in CFS patients are indicators of inefficient salience detection
416 and filtering function of the SN. In a previous study on childhood CFS, increasing poor task
417 performance in patients resulted in a less efficient use of neural resources in frontal regions,
418 where greater mental effort afforded costly energy requirements (Mizuno et al., 2015).

419 Exertion intolerance experienced by CFS patients might be a consequence of impoverished
420 cognitive control signaling from SN regions that results in inefficient use of neural resources
421 and energy consumption, a vicious cycle that increases fatigue.

422 Adolescent CFS group and comparison group did not differ on demographic factors, allowing
423 us to compare effects of fatigue in groups that had similar sociodemographic backgrounds.
424 Thus, the observed neural changes may represent specific fatigue related alterations, as
425 symptoms of depression and anxiety did not influence the relationship between fatigue
426 severity and neural function. Additionally, negative affect bias to faces expressing negative
427 emotion, a surrogate marker in anxiety and depression disorders (Bar-Haim et al., 2007; Gotlib
428 et al., 2004) and a developmental effect seemingly amplified during childhood (Augusti,
429 Torheim, & Melinder, 2014), was not observed in the CFS group of this study. Within the
430 adolescent CFS patients, psychiatric disorders were ruled out prior to inclusion in this study
431 (Sulheim et al., 2014). Even though they reported significantly more anxiety and depressive
432 symptoms than the healthy comparison group, they did not produce this bias effect. In fact
433 they were less accurate on both happy conditions suggesting trials that should be relatively
434 easy did not help cognition. The lack of neural associations with depressive and anxiety
435 symptoms and the absence of a negative affect bias further supports CFS as an important
436 clinical entity (Lamers, Hickie, & Merikangas, 2013), where the relationship between
437 prolonged fatigue and neural dysfunction potentially threatens normal development in
438 adolescents.

439 The decreased neural reactivity to conflict in adolescent CFS patients is not clear. Following
440 the *Sustained Arousal* model of disease mechanisms in CFS, a maladaptive stress response is
441 a central pathophysiological element (Wyller et al., 2009), eliciting autonomic and
442 neuroendocrine alterations that parallel the pathophysiology of chronic PTSD (Pervanidou &
443 Chrousos, 2010; Sulheim et al., 2014). Prolonged stress affects both the structure and function
444 of the PFC and stress related alterations occur in regions mediating the highest levels of
445 cognitive function (see McEwen and Morrison (2013) for review). Neuroimaging findings on
446 trauma-exposed youths at-risk for stress-related psychopathology showed a similar abnormal

447 activity pattern in regions of the SN (Marusak, Etkin, et al., 2015). Even though SN
448 dysfunction seems to parallel those that are stress-related, the neural responses were opposite
449 in CFS adolescents.

450 A supplemental frame for the findings of this study might be alexithymia, which literally
451 means - no words for emotions. Individuals suffering from alexithymia have difficulty in
452 verbally describing their own emotions and are known to be comorbid with a number of
453 psychiatric conditions (Taylor, Bagby, & Parker, 1999). Previous CFS research has reported
454 alexithymic correlates in adolescents and adults (Sepede et al., 2011; van de Putte, Engelbert,
455 Kuis, Kimpen, & Uiterwaal, 2007). Future research could focus on the connection between
456 the clinical phenomena of alexithymia and the apparent “washing out of emotions” in
457 adolescent CFS, suggested by the deficits in salience detection observed in this study.

458 ***Strengths and limitations***

459 Using an adolescent patient population, it might be easier to identify real disease mechanisms
460 as opposed to secondary phenomena associated with years of chronicity. As the findings of
461 our study are only preliminary, future studies should confirm the results in a larger sample of
462 patients. Furthermore, a causal relationship cannot be inferred in a cross-sectional design. We
463 used liberal inclusion criteria, where not all patients adhere to the Fukuda-definition that is
464 most widely accepted. Of the CFS patients allocated to this study, there were extenuating
465 circumstances that reduced the number from 30 to 15 (i.e. not wanting to participate, having
466 orthodontic treatment, and movement). So far as can be determined, there was no reason to
467 suspect selection bias.

468 The emotional conflict task used in this study did not include a neutral condition, which
469 would have helped to dissociate interference related to emotion in patients. Specifically, a
470 neutral face condition would provide information to see if the lack of response time conflict

471 effect in patients was due to the inability to perceive emotion. The paradigm design did not
472 allow us to measure conflict regulation. Conflict regulation effects provide information to
473 dissociate neural regions active specifically in the regulation of emotional conflict. However,
474 future research might consider using these aspects to further understand alterations in
475 emotional conflict processing of adolescent CFS patients.

476 ***Conclusion***

477 Our data highlight behavioral and neural deviations in emotional conflict processing of
478 adolescent CFS patients and deficits in these neural regions may contribute importantly to the
479 maintenance CFS pathology. Our findings of amygdala and insula dysfunction demonstrates a
480 disruption in cognitive and affective functioning of the salience network, a potential
481 biomarker in developmental psychopathology (Uddin, Supekar, Ryali, & Menon, 2011).
482 However, it is unknown whether impairments in salience detection during emotional conflict
483 processing in adolescent CFS reflect a disorder-specific abnormality or a more general
484 endophenotype of complex symptom disorders, such as chronic stress and pain. Nevertheless,
485 the group differences suggest that the inability of patients to efficiently and effectively resolve
486 emotional conflict is an important aspect of the pathophysiology of adolescent chronic fatigue
487 syndrome and potentially of other chronic disorders. This nature of research warrants further
488 investigation.

489 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

490 None.

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499 **Author Contributions**

500 LW carried out data analyses and drafted the manuscript. TE and VBW conceptualized and
501 contributed to the study design. DS and EF collected clinical data and contributed to the study
502 design. AM and MØ contributed to the study design. All authors contributed to data
503 interpretation and drafting of the manuscript.

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699 FIGURE 1. Emotional conflict task

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702 Figure 1 shows a sample task time course illustrating the contrasts made to examine
 703 emotional conflict effect using incongruent and congruent trials. Participants were asked to
 704 respond to the emotional face and ignore the word.

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TABLE 1. Demographic and clinical characteristics of adolescent Healthy Comparison
 Participants and Patients with Chronic Fatigue Syndrome in an fMRI Study

Characteristic	Patients with Chronic Fatigue Syndrome (N=15)		Healthy comparison group (N=24)		p
	N	%	N	%	
Female	14	93	16	67	n.s.
^a Fukuda criteria	10	67			
^b NICE criteria	12	80			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Disease duration in months	19.5	10.7			
Age	15.8	1.5	15.2	1.6	n.s.
^c BMI	22.5	3.6	20.2	2.9	n.s.
^d WASI IQ	107.9	13.3	115.3	17.1	n.s.
Depression ^e MFQ	15.9	8.4	5.6	6.9	<0.001*
Spielberger State Anxiety Inventory	20.3	4.8	16.0	3.5	<0.01*
Chalder Fatigue Questionnaire	19.7	6.5	9.0	3.6	<0.001*

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^aParticipants fulfilling the Fukuda-definition of CFS (Fukuda et al., 1994)

^bParticipants fulfilling the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (2007) definition of CFS

^cBody Mass Index

^dWechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence-estimated full IQ

^eMood and Feelings Questionnaire for Depression

*Indicates group comparison is significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

The χ^2 test was used for sex; two-sample t -tests were used for continuous variables.

Not significant (n.s.)

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719 FIGURE 2. Behavioral response interference to emotional conflict in adolescent patients with
 720 Chronic Fatigue Syndrome and Healthy Comparison participants

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Figure 2 shows response time and accuracy interference scores reflecting the emotional conflict effect (I-C). **Panel A**, adolescent CFS patients did not show response time interference for incongruent relative to congruent trials (I-C). Higher values indicate a loss in performance. ** One-sample t -test, $p < 0.001$. **Panel B**, adolescent CFS patients show a similar loss of accuracy for incongruent relative to congruent trials (I-C). Negative values indicate a loss in performance. * One-sample t -test, $p < 0.01$. Error bars represent standard error.

736 TABLE 2. Linear regression: conflict-related activity in the left amygdala and mid-posterior
 737 insula associated with fatigue severity.

Left Amygdala	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
(constant)	0.25	0.12		0.46	0.25	
Fatigue	-0.02	0.01	-0.40**	-0.03	0.01	-0.47**
Depression				0.01	0.01	0.28
Anxiety				-0.02	0.02	-0.19
<i>R</i> ²		0.16			0.20	
<i>F</i>		6.85**			2.89*	
ΔR^2					0.04	

Left mpINS	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
(constant)	0.23	0.11		0.36	0.23	
Fatigue	-0.02	0.01	-0.38*	-0.02	0.01	-0.34
Depression				0.00	0.01	0.03
Anxiety				-0.01	0.02	-0.13
<i>R</i> ²		0.14			0.16	
<i>F</i>		6.22*			2.14	
ΔR^2					0.01	

738 **Note:** * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

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764 TABLE 3. Group differences in Whole-Brain activity during conflict (Incongruent minus
765 Congruent)

Contrast	Brain Area	BA	Peak			# of voxels	T-Score
			x	y	z		
<i>comparison > CFS</i>							
	R Parahippocampus	36	30	-40	-8	17	4.35
	L Insula	13	-39	-7	7	223	4.23
	R Parietal Precuneus	7	15	-76	40	192	4.15
	R Lentiform Nucleus		21	-10	4	14	3.83
	L Mid Temporal gyrus	37	-48	-67	4	65	3.75
	R Insula	13	39	5	16	12	3.65
	R Precentral gyrus	44	57	8	10	82	3.58
	R Mid Occipital gyrus	18	24	-91	-2	24	3.52
	R Mid Frontal gyrus	6	21	-7	40	46	3.51
	R Mid Occipital gyrus	37	39	-67	1	47	3.44
	L Inferior Parietal	40	-42	-46	55	26	3.40
	R Putamen		27	17	4	55	3.39
	R Superior Frontal gyrus	6	15	-1	64	26	3.38
	L Thalamus		-15	-22	7	44	3.33
	L Posterior Cingulate	30	-18	-61	4	13	3.24
	R Inferior Parietal	40	45	-37	52	17	3.22
	R Cuneus	17	18	-76	10	26	3.21
	L Precentral gyrus	6	-27	-13	64	17	3.10
	L Postcentral gyrus	2	-45	-25	37	12	2.97
	L Cingulate gyrus	32	-9	8	40	10	2.96
<i>CFS > comparison</i>							
	no voxels survived at this threshold						

766 Exploratory whole-brain results provided at $p < 0.005$ uncorrected, cluster minimum = 10
767 voxels. Abbreviations: BA, Brodmann's Area; L, left; R, right. Coordinates are given in MNI
768 convention.

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772 FIGURE 3. Left Amygdala (AMY) and left mid-posterior insula (mpINS) responses to
773 emotional conflict

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776 Figure 3 shows decreased (A) left AMY and (C) left mpINS responses to emotional conflict
777 in adolescent CFS patients compared to healthy comparison (HC) group. (B) The linear
778 relationship between left AMY conflict-related activity and accuracy interference
779 significantly differed in CFS patients than HC. (D) The linear relationship between left
780 mpINS conflict-related activity and response time interference significantly differed in CFS
781 patients than HC. Data used for plotting are extracted data from 8mm ROI spheres. $*p \leq 0.02$
782 two-sample t -test. Error bars represent standard error.