

## **Avoiding monetary loss: a human habenula functional MRI ultra-high field study.**

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1 **Abstract**

2 A number of convergent human neuroimaging and animal studies suggest that habenula  
3 neurons fire in anticipation of non-rewarding outcomes, and suppress their firing in anticipation of  
4 rewarding outcomes. This normative function of the habenula appears disrupted in depression, and  
5 may be critical to the anti-depressant effects of ketamine. However, studying habenula functionality  
6 in humans using standard 3T MRI is inherently limited by its small size. We employed ultra-high field  
7 (7T) fMRI to investigate habenular activity in eighteen healthy volunteers during a Monetary  
8 Incentive Delay Task, focussing on loss avoidance, monetary loss and neutral events. We assessed  
9 neural activation in the field of view (FOV) in addition to ROI-based habenula-specific activity and  
10 generalized task-dependent functional connectivity. Whole FOV results indicated substantial neural  
11 differences between monetary loss and neutral outcomes, as well as between loss avoidance and  
12 neutral outcomes. Habenula-specific analyses bilateral deactivation during loss avoidance, compared  
13 to other outcomes. This first investigation into the habenula's role during loss avoidance revealed  
14 that the left habenula further differentiated between loss avoidance and monetary loss. Functional  
15 connectivity between the right habenula and the ipsilateral hippocampus and subcallosal cingulate  
16 (regions implicated in memory and depression pathophysiology) was enhanced when anticipating  
17 potential losses compared to anticipating neutral outcomes. Our findings suggest that the human  
18 habenula responds most strongly to outcomes of loss avoidance when compared to neutral and  
19 monetary losses, suggesting a role for the habenula in both reward and aversive processing. This has  
20 critical relevance to understanding the pathophysiology of habenula function in mood and other  
21 neuropsychiatric disorders, as well as the mechanism of action of habenula-targeting  
22 antidepressants such as ketamine.

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24 *Keywords: habenula, reward processing, loss avoidance, monetary incentive delay task,*  
25 *functional connectivity*

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## 1. Introduction

The human habenula (HB) complex plays a critical role in anti-reward processing and is relevant also, to reward processing<sup>1,2</sup>. The lateral habenula (LHB) has been implicated in the pathophysiology of psychiatric disorders such as Major Depressive Disorder (MDD)<sup>3-6</sup>, with rodent studies highlighting the LHB in mediating the anti-depressive effect of ketamine<sup>7</sup>. The human HB is located bilaterally between the pineal gland and the dorsomedial thalamus and represents a small neural structure (around 30 mm<sup>3</sup> volume per hemisphere)<sup>8</sup> composed of grey and white matter. Cytologically, the HB can be subdivided into medial and lateral nuclei<sup>9</sup> which have different genetic profiles as well as anatomic connections based on non-human studies<sup>10</sup>. The capacity to differentiate medial and lateral HB in human *in vivo* neuroimaging research is limited due to their small size<sup>11</sup>. Here we aim to assess HB function using a task-based ultra-high field 7T fMRI study in healthy volunteers focusing on loss avoidance and incurring losses.

Non-human primate research suggests the LHB plays a critical role in the upstream modulation of midbrain dopaminergic neurones and is involved in anti-reward processing and, to a lesser extent, in reward processing<sup>1,2</sup>. When non-human primates are anticipating non-rewarding outcomes, excitation of the LHB neurons temporally precedes the inhibition of dopamine neurons. Similarly, electric stimulation of LHB neurons induced inhibition of dopamine neurons, indicating that the inhibitory effect of non-rewarding stimuli on dopamine neurons is guided by the LHB. The anticipation of rewarding outcomes, on the other hand, leads to decreased firing of LHB neurons<sup>2</sup>. A similar neuronal response profile is seen in response to the outcomes themselves, with strong excitation of LHB neurons for negative and inhibition for positive outcomes<sup>1</sup>. Single-cell recordings further showed that the neuronal response of the LHB depends on the context, with strongest neuronal responses to cues predicting the worst outcome among the available alternatives (for instance: the absence of reward when the alternative is reward, or the presence of punishment when the alternative is absence of punishment)<sup>1</sup>. The LHB neurons are also sensitive to the mismatch between prediction and outcome as indicated by weaker excitatory responses when a

1 negative outcome was fully predictable compared to a less certain outcome, and, greater negative  
2 prediction errors being associated with increased LHB neuron firing rate<sup>1</sup>. Thus, the LHB is  
3 responsive to both reward and negative prediction errors, and in particular to negative  
4 motivational value, with the encoding direction opposite to that of dopamine neurons<sup>1, 2</sup>.

5 In humans, neuroimaging research using task-based functional magnetic resonance imaging  
6 (fMRI) to delineate the HB function is sparse due to the inherent difficulty of isolating signal change  
7 from small structures such as the habenula. Similarly, the majority of fMRI studies on the human HB  
8 were carried out using standard field strengths, such as 3T, which further limits the delineation of  
9 the HB due to lower resolution than recent advantages utilizing ultra-high field imaging (7T). Indeed,  
10 the standard voxel size used in 3T EPI sequences for fMRI studies is 3 mm, a major limitation for a  
11 nucleus of 30 mm<sup>3</sup> volume. Despite these constraints, previous human fMRI studies (including those  
12 using specialised high-resolution 3T sequences) converge with primate single-cell recordings  
13 demonstrating the importance of the human HB for the anticipation of punishment and changing  
14 reward contingencies.

15 In healthy humans, anticipating electrical shocks (versus neutral outcomes) evoked  
16 increased activation in bilateral insula, caudate, but also in the left, and to a lesser extent, in the  
17 right, HB<sup>12</sup>. Region of interest (ROI) analyses revealed that the left-hemispheric HB activity increase  
18 during punishment anticipation also holds when compared to reward (juice receipt) anticipation;  
19 anticipating rewarding versus neutral outcomes did not affect left HB signal change<sup>12</sup>. In line with  
20 primate findings, the human HB is also sensitive to probabilities. For example, cues predicting a high  
21 versus low chance of losing points in a guessing game evoked increased left-, but not right-,  
22 hemispheric HB activation<sup>13</sup>. While this previous study found the left HB to be sensitive to  
23 probabilities, a separate study investigating HB responses to cues indicative of a high versus low  
24 chance for upcoming punishment (in the form of electrical shocks) or monetary rewards reported a  
25 bilateral increase in HB activation for the anticipation of punishment and a decrease for monetary  
26 rewards. Interestingly, this study also investigated monetary losses within the same design and while

1 HB activation increased, the HB response to losses fell in between monetary wins and shock as  
2 punishment, in line with earlier reports of the HB responding to the most salient among outcomes<sup>14</sup>,  
3 <sup>14</sup>.

4         Converging with the HB's role in tracking prediction errors in non-human primates, human *in*  
5 *vivo* neuroimaging research suggests that right HB activation increases linearly in response to  
6 increased adversity of anticipatory cues, highlighting the sensitivity of the human HB to the  
7 motivational value of anticipatory cues<sup>14</sup>. When utilizing losing and winning points as punishment  
8 and reward conditions, no laterality effect was observed regarding prediction errors, instead,  
9 bilateral HB activation was enhanced for punishment-related prediction errors compared to reward-  
10 based prediction errors<sup>15</sup>. Investigating neural responses to prediction errors across studies, a recent  
11 Activation Likelihood Estimation (ALE) meta-analysis confirmed a role for the human HB particularly  
12 for punishment-related prediction errors, in addition to brain areas such as the middle frontal gyrus  
13 (MFG) and the insula. Reward-based prediction errors on the other hand, were associated with  
14 activation changes in reward-processing related brain areas such as the striatum including the  
15 nucleus accumbens (NACC)<sup>16</sup>.

16         While the reviewed findings relate to the anticipation of positive and negative outcomes,  
17 differential HB activation has also been observed during outcome presentation. When assessing HB  
18 responses to outcomes in a guessing game, bilateral HB responses increased for monetary losses  
19 over wins, while only left-hemispheric signal change differed between healthy volunteers and  
20 patients suffering from MDD<sup>13</sup>. In contrast, when investigating HB response to outcomes such as  
21 losing or winning points (each normalized to neutral outcomes), left-hemispheric HB activation  
22 differentiated between punishment, which led to increased, and reward, which resulted in  
23 decreased HB activation<sup>15</sup>. Regarding the presentation of negative and positive non-verbal feedback  
24 during a prediction task, enhanced bilateral thalamus activation, which included the HB, was  
25 reported for negative versus positive feedback alongside greater activity in bilateral anterior insula  
26 and anterior cingulate cortex (ACC)<sup>17</sup>.

1           In summary, convergent studies of human HB function using 3T highlight HB responsiveness  
2 to punishment and reward, although laterality effects remain unclear. During anticipation, as well as  
3 during outcome presentation, the human HB increases activation for stimuli associated with  
4 punishment over reward. This is convergent with non-human primate research investigating the  
5 firing patterns of LHB neuron populations, which showed that HB subpopulations are activated  
6 following negative and inhibited following positive motivational stimuli<sup>1</sup>.

7           While task designs differed across studies, most investigations utilized some form of delayed  
8 anti-/reward paradigm, in which negative outcomes are related to losing points, money or  
9 punishment. However, whether the human HB also responds differentially to loss avoidance, the  
10 absence of incurring losses, has not yet been investigated. Neurally, the anticipation of loss  
11 avoidance differs from that of reward anticipation, with anticipation of loss avoidance evoking less  
12 signal change in the NACC in children<sup>18</sup>. Similarly, while ventral striatal activation was generally  
13 decreased for the anticipation of loss avoidance compared to rewards in healthy adolescents,  
14 adolescents with Attention-deficit/Hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) expressed reduced ventral striatal  
15 activation during reward anticipation, but not during loss avoidance anticipation when compared to  
16 controls, further highlighting the differences underlying reward and loss avoidance during  
17 anticipation<sup>19</sup>. Additional differences between loss avoidance and reward were reported during the  
18 outcome phase. In adults, neural responses to feedback relating to the successful avoidance of  
19 losses versus neutral outcomes increased activation in the inferior frontal gyrus and the cerebellum  
20 while clusters being more activated to rewarding than neutral outcomes were more widespread,  
21 including caudate, globus pallidus, and cingulate brain regions among others<sup>20</sup>. Similarly, neural  
22 activity during loss avoidance, but not reward outcomes, differentiated between controls and adults  
23 unmedicated for childhood ADHD, with reduced bilateral insular and precentral gyrus activity in the  
24 latter group for loss avoidance outcomes<sup>21</sup>.

25           Previous research comparing successful loss avoidance to loss incurrance, instead of reward,  
26 did not focus on HB activation, but uncovered enhanced activation for loss avoidance in superior

1 temporal gyri, pre/-cuneus, and reward-related subcortical brain regions such as the caudate and  
2 the ventral striatum in healthy adults<sup>22</sup>. The concept of loss avoidance is further of relevance for  
3 disorders of addiction. Comparing loss avoidance to loss incurrence between alcohol-dependent  
4 patients and controls revealed enhanced activation in reward-related areas such as ventral striatum,  
5 caudate, and putamen as well as in insula, temporal gyri, MFG and precuneus in controls, while  
6 neural activation during reward trials did not differ between groups<sup>22</sup>. A separate investigation  
7 confirmed the reduced striatal activation in alcohol-disordered patients during successful versus  
8 non-successful loss avoidance, and additionally revealed aberrant loss avoidance processing in  
9 pathological gamblers, with reduced activation in ventral striatum and medial prefrontal cortex  
10 compared to controls<sup>23</sup>.

11       Loss avoidance is of high relevance to mental disorders such as ADHD, but also plays and  
12 important role in addiction, particularly for alcohol abuse and gambling disorders. Neurally, loss  
13 avoidance differs from reward processing during anticipation and receipt, and to incurring losses  
14 during the feedback phase. Experimentally, most reviewed research utilized versions of the  
15 Monetary Incentive Delay (MID) paradigm<sup>24</sup>. During each trial, a cue is presented which indicates the  
16 upcoming trial type, e.g. punishment or reward. This is followed by a variable delay during which  
17 anticipation of the trial outcome occurs. Thereafter participants are asked to correctly perform a  
18 task, for instance, to press a button corresponding to the direction of an arrow. This response phase  
19 is typically dynamically adjusted to enhance task difficulty and to increase the proportion of errors  
20 (e.g., <sup>25-28</sup>). Thereafter, visual feedback relating to the correctness of their response is presented,  
21 termed outcome phase. The MID is especially suited for studying the neural basis of anticipation and  
22 receipt due to separating the anticipation and outcome phases in time.

23       Given the importance of loss avoidance for psychiatric disorders, we here report the first  
24 results on human HB function in relation to loss avoidance in healthy volunteers, making use of  
25 advanced neuroimaging techniques, ultra-high field imaging (7T). We utilize the MID task with Loss  
26 and Neutral trials, separating monetary loss avoidance and loss incurrence during the outcome

1 phase. We additionally investigate generalized task-dependent functional connectivity involving the  
2 HB.

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## 2. Methods

### 2.1 Participants

6 Twenty right-handed participants (10 male) participated in the study. All participants fulfilled  
7 7T scanning safety criteria and reported no previous brain injuries, seizures, and mental health  
8 diagnoses. All participants provided informed consent before participation and the study was  
9 approved by the local ethics committee. Two females were excluded, one due to the HB moving out  
10 of the field of view (FOV), the second due to technical issues. The resultant sample of eighteen  
11 participants had a mean age of 29.78 years, age ranged between 20 and 42 years. Sample size was  
12 determined based on previous 7T studies and inclusion/exclusion criteria were established prior to  
13 data analyses.

14

### 2.2 Monetary Incentive Delay (MID) Task

16 The MID task was programmed using Presentation software (version 20.2,  
17 www.neurobs.com) and responses were recorded using an fMRI-compatible button box. The MID  
18 task consisted of two trial types: 40 Loss and 30 Neutral trials, shown in equal proportions in the first  
19 and second half of the task. Trial presentation was pseudo-randomised with the restriction of less  
20 than three subsequent trial type repetitions. Each trial consisted of five phases: cue, anticipation,  
21 response, blank screen, and outcome phase (see Figure 1 for stimuli and durations). Participants  
22 were instructed that incorrectly responding during Loss trials results in losing money, and that if they  
23 do not lose much money during this task, they will receive an additional £5 at the end of the  
24 experiment, in addition to their payment for participation which was £10 per hour. For Neutral trials,  
25 participants were instructed that correctness of response does not affect their pay. In reality, all  
26 participants received the additional £5 at the end of the experiment. In the first part of the trial, the



1 Cue phase, participants were shown a visual cue (red square with a crossed out £ sign for Loss trials;  
2 Yellow triangle with a dot in the centre for Neutral trials) indicating the upcoming trial type. During  
3 the anticipation phase, a slightly altered version of the Cue was shown (empty red square for Loss  
4 trials; Empty yellow triangle for Neutral trials). During the response phase, an arrow was either  
5 pointing to the left (requiring a button press with the right index finger) or to the right (requiring a  
6 button press with the right middle finger). Left and right arrows were presented equally often per  
7 trial type, pseudo-randomised with the restriction of less than four trials requiring the same  
8 response in a row. All responses were required to be as fast and accurate as possible. To enable  
9 analyses of correct (pressing the correct button within the response time window) and wrong  
10 responses (pressing the wrong button within the response time window, misses, or any responses  
11 outside the response window), the duration of the response window was constantly adjusted to  
12 yield 50 % correct responses, in line with previous MID task designs<sup>25-28</sup>. The initial response window  
13 was set to 250 ms and adjusted using an independent staircase procedure per trial type. Incorrect  
14 responses prolonged the response window by 50 ms, correct responses decreased the allowed  
15 response duration by 50 ms. Due to the staircase procedure, button presses occurring outside the  
16 response window were likely. To avoid contamination of the outcome phase by button presses, a  
17 blank screen (500 ms duration) interspersed the response phase and the outcome phase. What was  
18 shown during the outcome phase of Loss trials depended on the correctness of the response during  
19 the response phase: Correct button presses led to showing “Money not affected”, indicating  
20 successful loss avoidance, and wrong/late responses led to a screen with a crossed-out pound coin  
21 accompanied by “You lost money”, indicating monetary loss. The outcome phase for Neutral trials  
22 was independent of the correctness of responses and led for both correct and wrong/late button  
23 presses to the “Money not affected” screen.

24           Between trials, a fixation cross was shown. The duration of the fixation cross, as well as the  
25 duration of the anticipation phase, were each drawn randomly from two independent (one for  
26 fixations and one for anticipation) discrete uniform distributions (each from 2000 to 5000 ms, in

1 steps of 50 ms) without replacement, except for 9 additional symmetrical samplings (the mean: 3500  
2 ms, the four shortest: 2000, 2050, 2100, 2150 ms, and four longest durations: 4850, 4900, 4950,  
3 5000 ms) to conform with the number of trials.

4

### 5 **2.3 Image Acquisition**

6 Scanning was performed using the 7T Terra MRI scanner (Siemens, Erlangen, Germany) at  
7 the Wolfson Brain Imaging Centre, Cambridge, UK and a 32-channel receive (1Tx/32Rx) head coil  
8 (Nova Medical Inc, MA, USA).

9 To obtain a high-quality uniform T1w image, the Magnetization Prepared with 2 Rapid  
10 Gradient Echoes (MP2RAGE) sequence was used<sup>29</sup> with the following parameters: TR/TE = 4300/1.99  
11 ms, T11/T12 = 840/2370 ms, nominal FA1/FA2 = 5/6°, in-plane resolution = 0.75 x 0.75 mm<sup>2</sup>, 0.75 mm  
12 slice thickness, image matrix = 300 x 320, 224 slices, GRAPPA acceleration factor = 3, bandwidth =  
13 250 Hz/pixel.

14 The functional data was acquired using a 0.8 mm isotropic 2D single-band gradient-echo  
15 echo-planar imaging (GE-EPI) sequence: TR/TE = 3000/22 ms; nominal FA = 77°, 36 slices, no slice  
16 gap, image matrix = 256 x 256, GRAPPA acceleration factor = 3, bandwidth = 1028 Hz/pixel, phase-  
17 encoding direction anterior-posterior (A-P), partial Fourier = 5/8. Five volumes were collected with  
18 the same parameters as the functional scan but with phase encoding reversed (P-A) before task  
19 onset for B<sub>0</sub> distortion correction. During scanning, the MP2RAGE T1 maps were visualised for each  
20 individual to localise the HB. The FOV was angled for each subject to ensure the HB was located at  
21 least 5 slices above the lower border of the FOV and that the FOV extended as far as possible into  
22 the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (see Figure 2), as such the FOV tilt angles varied minimally across  
23 participants.

24 To correct for physiological fluctuations in the fMRI data, cardiac and respiratory data were  
25 recorded from the scanner's pulse oximeter on the left index finger and a pneumatic belt around the  
26 diaphragm.

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## 2.4 Image Pre-processing

SPM12 (Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging, London, UK; <http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm>) was utilized for all preprocessing steps unless specified otherwise. Structural images were skull-stripped and bias-corrected using SPM12's unified segmentation approach<sup>30</sup> and normalised to MNI space. For creation of the study-specific 7T template, all normalised T1w images were averaged using SPM12's 'imcalc'.

For the fMRI data, field maps were created using FSL's 'topup' routine (<http://fsl.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl/fslwiki/TOPUP>) to reduce geometric distortions based on five images of each phase encoding direction. The functional data were realigned and unwarped, slice timing corrected, the mean images were bias-corrected using the unified segmentation approach<sup>30</sup> and coregistered to the individual's T1w in native space.

For the HB ROI analyses, separate left and right HB masks were created by manually selecting each individual habenular voxel on each individual's T1w volume (in native space) using the software MRICron<sup>31</sup>. Given the high contrast of the 7T MP2RAGE, HB delineation was based on visual inspection of T1w image intensity. We additionally created HB ROI's based on the geometric method<sup>8</sup>, outlined in the supplement and Supplementary Figure 1, as additional support for our results. A visual example of the derived masks based on image intensity and the geometric method is presented in Supplementary Figure 2 in addition to the supplementary results based on the geometric method. The percentage of HB voxels falling outside the participants' task fMRI FOV was minimal, ranging between 0 and 7.38% ( $M = 1.06$ ,  $SD = 2.39$ ) for bilateral HB masks based on image intensity and between 0 and 7.56% ( $M = 1.08$ ,  $SD = 2.25$ ) for bilateral HB masks created via the geometric method.

Following HB delineation, the fMRI data subjected to ROI analyses were smoothed using a 2 mm FWHM, whereas the fMRI data used for analysing the whole FOV were normalised to MNI space

1 and subsequently smoothed with a 6 mm FWHM. The usage of different smoothing kernels is in line  
2 with previous research on HB activity<sup>8,14</sup>.

3 Additional motion regressors were created using the Artefact Detection Toolbox (ART,  
4 <http://www.nitrc.org/>) with cut-offs reflecting the 97<sup>th</sup> percentile which are suited for our voxel size  
5 (global signal change > 5, translation > .9 mm). For the creation of physiological regressors relating to  
6 cardiac and respiratory effects, TAPAS R2019b as implemented within the MATLAB PhysIO Toolbox<sup>32</sup>  
7 was utilized. The first level analyses additionally incorporated the six motion regressors and the  
8 changes in translation and rotation between subsequent volumes. The first level model included  
9 each MID component (Cue Loss, Cue Neutral, Blank, Reminder Loss, Reminder Neutral, Arrow,  
10 Outcome Loss Avoidance, Outcome Loss, Outcome Neutral, Fixation) and all events were modelled  
11 with a boxcar function.

12

## 13 **2.5 Statistical Analyses**

14 The whole FOV fMRI analyses were carried out per experimental MID phase (Cue,  
15 Anticipation, Outcome) and based on the activation differences (e.g. Anticipation phase: Loss -  
16 Neutral) calculated at the first level. These contrasts were then included at the group level to  
17 perform one-sample *t*-tests, which were thresholded at  $p_{\text{uncorrected}} < .001$ . Statistical differences were  
18 defined as  $q < .05$  at the cluster level following False Discovery Rate (FDR) correction.

19 For the HB specific analyses, percent signal change was extracted for left HB, right HB and  
20 the combined bilateral HB masks using Marsbar<sup>33</sup> and analysed with SPSS v15. Separate repeated-  
21 measures ANOVAS (rmANOVA) on the individual MID phases were run per ROI with Greenhouse-  
22 Geisser correction applied when applicable and corresponding significant post-hoc *t*-tests were  
23 Bonferroni-corrected ( $p_c$ ).

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## 25 **2.6 Task-based functional connectivity of the habenula**

1 To enable the assessment of functional connectivity between the left and right HB and the  
2 whole FOV at the group level, habenula seed ROIs, separate for left and right, were created by  
3 manually selecting each individual habenular voxel on the study-specific T1w template (in MNI  
4 space) using the software MRICron<sup>31</sup>. Functional connectivity between the HB seed regions and the  
5 whole FOV was assessed using the generalized task-dependent psychophysiological interaction  
6 toolbox (gPPI, <http://www.nitrc.org/projects/gppi>), which calculates functional connectivity based  
7 on the deconvolved first eigenvariate of the seed time series. Functional connectivity was assessed  
8 while correcting for physiological variables and motion as described for the activation analyses and  
9 using the same statistical thresholds and one-sample *t*-tests on the contrasts between conditions.

### 10 **3. Results**

#### 11 **3.1 Behavioural**

12 Behaviourally, participants responded correctly and on time to 47% of loss trials and 44% of  
13 neutral trials. Response times for correct trials were significantly faster for loss ( $M = 321.06$ ,  $SD =$   
14  $37.85$  ms) than neutral ( $M = 361.11$ ,  $SD = 40.55$  ms) trials ( $t(17) = 5.96$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Concurrently, the  
15 performance-based response window duration was significantly shorter during loss ( $M = 360.97$ ,  $SD$   
16  $= 46.08$  ms) trials than neutral ( $M = 398.70$ ,  $SD = 45.63$  ms) trials ( $t(17) = 5.40$ ,  $p < .001$ ). For 17  
17 participants, data were available to delineate the most common type of wrong responses, which  
18 were correct responses occurring outside the response window for loss ( $M = 91.99\%$ ,  $SD = 6.83$ ) as  
19 well for neutral trials ( $M = 95.02\%$ ,  $SD = 6.16$ ).

#### 20 **3.2 fMRI Whole FOV**

21 Cluster level statistics and peak locations are provided in Table 1. Comparing the loss and  
22 neutral cues revealed significantly higher activation to loss cues in four clusters, two occipital, one in  
23 the left anterior insula, and one in the left caudate extending into the thalamus proper (see Figure  
24 3a). No significant clusters were found for the reverse contrast.

25 Next, the activation differences between loss and neutral anticipation phases was assessed.  
26 While on the cluster level no significant differences remained following FDR correction, the right

1 inferior frontal gyrus was marginally more active during anticipation of loss than neutral trials ( $q_{FDR} =$   
2  $.056$ ,  $z = 4.35$ ,  $k_E = 761$ , MNI: 43, 40, 1). No significant clusters or peaks were detected for the  
3 reverse contrast.

4       To compare the neural activation patterns during the MID outcome phase, first, loss  
5 avoidance outcomes were compared to neutral outcomes. Whereas the reverse contrast did not  
6 reveal statistically significant clusters or peaks, enhanced activation for neutral over loss avoidance  
7 was found for two occipital clusters, one containing the bilateral lingual gyrus, the other the right  
8 middle and inferior occipital gyrus, shown in Figure 3b. Next, monetary loss outcomes were  
9 compared to neutral outcomes. Significantly higher activation to monetary loss than neutral  
10 outcomes was found for one cluster in the right middle temporal gyrus, see Figure 3c. In terms of  
11 increased neural activation to neutral than to monetary loss outcomes, three significant clusters  
12 were identified. We observed a decrease in activity to monetary loss in the left anterior insula, the  
13 right fusiform gyrus and in the right caudate. The caudate cluster originated in the right hemisphere,  
14 but contains bilateral caudate, bilateral putamen, bilateral NACC as well as subpeaks in the bilateral  
15 bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (BNST), see Figure 3d.

16       No significant differences emerged on peak or cluster level when comparing loss avoidance  
17 to monetary loss outcomes.

18

### 19 **3.3 fMRI Habenula**

20       The individual rmANOVAS on percent signal change during cue (right HB:  $F(1,17) = .51$ ,  $p =$   
21  $.49$ , left HB:  $F(1,17) = .01$ ,  $p = .94$ , bilateral HB:  $F(1,17) = .19$ ,  $p = .67$ ) and anticipatory phases (right  
22 HB:  $F(1,17) = 2.80$ ,  $p = .11$ , left HB:  $F(1,17) = .33$ ,  $p = .57$ , bilateral HB:  $F(1,17) = 1.25$ ,  $p = .28$ ) did not  
23 reveal differences between neutral and loss trials.

24       The rmANOVA on percent signal change during the outcome phase, divided into neutral, loss  
25 avoidance and monetary loss outcomes, revealed a main effect of outcome type (see Figure 4) for  
26 the right HB ( $F(2,34) = 7.68$ ,  $p_c < .01$ ), the left HB ( $F(2,34) = 4.95$ ,  $p_c < .05$ ) and bilateral HB ( $F(2,34) =$

1 7.17,  $p_c < .01$ ) following Bonferroni-correction. Post-hoc comparisons indicated lower activity during  
2 loss avoidance outcomes (right HB:  $M = -.12$ ,  $SD = .65$ ; left HB:  $M = -.18$ ,  $SD = .47$ , bilateral HB:  $M = -$   
3  $.15$ ,  $SD = .50$ ) as compared to neutral (right HB:  $M = .02$ ,  $SD = .65$ ; left HB:  $M = -.06$ ,  $SD = .48$ , bilateral  
4 HB:  $M = -.02$ ,  $SD = .52$ ) outcomes for the right ( $t(17) = 4.85$ ,  $p_c < .001$ ), left ( $t(17) = 3.48$ ,  $p_c < .01$ ), and  
5 bilateral HB ( $t(17) = 4.56$ ,  $p_c < .001$ ).

6         Enhanced signal change was also observed during monetary loss (right HB:  $M = -.05$ ,  $SD =$   
7  $.63$ ; left HB:  $M = -.05$ ,  $SD = .49$ , bilateral HB:  $M = -.05$ ,  $SD = .51$ ) as compared to loss avoidance  
8 outcomes for the left HB ( $t(17) = 2.86$ ,  $p_c < .05$ ), while not significant for the right HB ( $t(17) = 1.53$ ,  $p$   
9  $= .144$ ). The difference between loss avoidance and monetary loss in the bilateral HB did not remain  
10 significant following Bonferroni correction ( $t(17) = 2.65$ ,  $p_c = .05$ ). In other words, monetary loss  
11 outcomes were associated with significantly increased left habenula activity compared to avoiding  
12 loss or a potentially rewarding outcome.

13         The comparisons between neutral outcomes and monetary loss was not significant for right  
14 ( $t(17) = 2.16$ ,  $p_c = .14$ ), left ( $t(17) = .11$ ,  $p = .912$ ) or bilateral HB ( $t(17) = .84$ ,  $p = .41$ ).

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### 16 **3.4 Task-dependent functional connectivity with the Habenula**

17         Comparing functional connectivity as indexed by gPPI during the cue phase across loss and  
18 neutral conditions did not reveal significant coupling differences between the left or right HB and  
19 other regions at  $q_{FDR} < .05$ .

20         When comparing loss anticipation to neutral trial anticipation, a significant positive slope  
21 represented the relationship between the right HB and the right hippocampus ( $q_{FDR} < .05$ ,  $z = 4.87$ ,  $k_E$   
22  $= 510$ , MNI: 31 -20 -12), see Figure 5a. Similarly, a significant positive slope was found for the  
23 relationship between the right HB and the subcallosal cingulate ( $q_{FDR} < .05$ ,  $z = 3.94$ ,  $k_E = 514$ , MNI: -2  
24 13 -12), see Figure 5b.

1           When contrasting the functional connectivity across different outcome types, no significant  
2 differences in functional connectivity between the left and right HB seeds and other brain areas  
3 were found.

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#### 4. Discussion

6           In this first ultra-high field neuroimaging study on human HB function during loss avoidance,  
7 we show activity as expected of the HB given its upstream role in modulation of midbrain  
8 dopaminergic function<sup>2</sup>. We showed decreased HB activity, in both hemispheres, to loss avoidance  
9 outcomes (which are effectively acting as reward, relative to neutral and monetary loss).  
10 Behaviourally, response times were faster during loss avoidance than neutral trials indicating  
11 enhanced motivation and potentially salience of these trials. Greater left HB activity was also  
12 observed during monetary loss versus loss avoidance outcomes. During anticipation of loss relative  
13 to neutral outcomes, we found enhanced right HB functional connectivity with the subcallosal  
14 cingulate (SCA) and hippocampus.

15           In the whole FOV approach, even at ultra-high field (7T), HB-specific activation was not  
16 identifiable due to cluster size thresholding and multiple comparison corrections and larger  
17 smoothing kernels, further highlighting the need for an ROI approach to investigate HB  
18 functionality<sup>8</sup>. Single-cell LHB recordings have shown greater firing to the most negative outcome  
19 among alternatives and with inhibition to reward, especially at low predictability<sup>1</sup>. Similarly, human  
20 3T fMRI studies showed enhanced HB activity to both aversive shock and when comparing loss  
21 relative to reward outcomes<sup>13, 14</sup>. Loss avoidance outcomes here behave similarly to reward  
22 outcomes: a deactivation of HB would be presumably associated with greater midbrain dopamine  
23 release. The monetary loss outcomes also show greater activity than loss avoidance outcomes which  
24 presumably would be associated with a cessation of midbrain dopamine activity<sup>34</sup>.

25           Our primary whole-FOV findings were in the outcome phase, demonstrating that monetary  
26 loss relative to neutral outcomes was associated with deactivation of bilateral caudate, putamen,



1 BNST and NACC, and the left anterior insula. The NACC, caudate and putamen have previously been  
2 shown to be differentially responsive to the anticipation of neutral and monetary loss trials with  
3 putaminal activity further reported in the MID outcome phase<sup>24</sup>. The NACC and anterior insular  
4 activity have previously been associated with tracking negative prediction error<sup>35, 36</sup>.

5 Loss cues in the whole-FOV analysis were associated with activity in regions implicated in  
6 loss and value representation with greater predominantly left-sided activity in the anterior insula  
7 and caudate. The loss cue, although associated with the opportunity to avoid losing, predicted an  
8 increased chance on losing than the neutral cue.

9 In contrast to previous meta-analyses which have shown similar activations during the  
10 anticipatory phase of reward and loss trials in the MID task<sup>37-39</sup>, we did not observe any differential  
11 activity in the anticipation phase in the whole-FOV analyses. However, we found differences in  
12 functional connectivity with greater connectivity between the right HB and hippocampal and  
13 subcallosal cingulate. The hippocampal involvement likely reflects underlying memory-related  
14 processing<sup>40</sup> and has been shown in the anticipatory phase in the MID task<sup>41</sup>. Hippocampal activity  
15 has been previously shown to linearly scale with loss magnitudes<sup>42</sup>. Rodent lesion studies suggest  
16 that the hippocampal complex is especially relevant at learning the initial matching between cues  
17 and outcomes as well as during memory processing relating to non-specific reward expectancy<sup>40</sup>.  
18 The role of the hippocampus may relate to information transfer between the anticipatory cue and  
19 associated potential outcomes.

20 The SCA is a projection target for midbrain dopaminergic neurons modulated by HB activity<sup>2</sup>,  
21 <sup>43</sup>. Resting-state 3T functional connectivity of the human HB has previously identified enhanced  
22 functional coupling between the HB and the SCA<sup>44</sup>. Similarly, a probabilistic Pavlovian learning  
23 paradigm with monetary rewards, losses and electric shocks as punishment showed a non-significant  
24 increase in functional coupling between the right HB and Brodmann Area 25, with increasing  
25 motivational value of the punishment-related conditioned stimulus<sup>14</sup>.

1           Our findings might be particularly relevant in the context of major depression. Depression is  
2 associated with abnormal subcallosal cingulate activity and connectivity patterns<sup>45-48</sup> and positive  
3 effects on depressive symptoms were reported with deep brain stimulation (DBS) targeting the  
4 SCA<sup>49</sup>. A similar remission of depressive symptoms has been seen in a case study following DBS to  
5 the lateral HB in an MDD patient<sup>3</sup> and in a patient with bipolar disorder with refractory depression<sup>4</sup>.

6           The current study is not without limitations. In light of the intended functional connectivity  
7 and FOV brain analyses in addition to the HB ROI analyses, we attempted to include core MID task-  
8 related structures such as the hippocampus and subcallosal cingulate in the assessed FOV. This,  
9 meant that we could not centre the FOV over the HB, which enabled one participant to move their  
10 HB out of the FOV during the scan and corresponding data was subsequently discarded from all  
11 analyses. We were also unable to distinguish between lateral and medial HB. Further, HB ROIs were  
12 not independently confirmed by other raters. We address this issue by presenting results of ROIs  
13 created two ways: based on 7T image contrast and using the geometric method<sup>8</sup>. Finally, while we  
14 controlled for known confounds, such as cardiac rhythm and respiratory rate<sup>50</sup>, recent evidence also  
15 hints towards a possible effect of circadian rhythm<sup>51</sup>. Given the inconsistencies regarding laterality  
16 findings of HB function across previous research, we chose to analyse left, right and bilateral HB  
17 separately without directly assessing lateralization. Of note, the majority of trials leading to negative  
18 feedback in the loss condition were correct responses occurring outside the response window. While  
19 staircase procedures, hence adjusting the allowed response window, are commonly utilized in MID  
20 tasks (e.g., <sup>25-28</sup>), incorrect button presses occurred at a low rate. As such we suggest that  
21 investigations aiming to specifically delineate the HB response to behavioural errors utilize task  
22 designs evoking higher proportions of incorrect button presses.

23           In summary, we demonstrate that HB activity differentiates between monetary loss  
24 avoidance, monetary loss and neutral outcomes for the first time in an ultra-high field (7T)  
25 subcortical task-based fMRI study. Our findings thus converge with proposed HB function in rodent  
26 studies and extend previous observations in human imaging studies at 3T. The HB appears to be a

1 critical structure particularly in depressive disorders and has been implicated as a potential key node  
2 in the anti-depressive mechanism of action of ketamine<sup>7</sup>. Further studies using task-based fMRI at  
3 7T to investigate the role of the HB in depression and the effects of ketamine are warranted.

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10 No part of the study procedures and analyses was pre-registered prior to the research being  
11 conducted. We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions, all  
12 inclusion/exclusion criteria, whether inclusion/exclusion criteria were established prior to data  
13 analyses, all manipulations, and all measures in the study. Study data, digital study materials, and  
14 analysis code are available via <https://doi.org/10.17863/CAM.66358>.

15

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19

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23 All authors supported the drafting of the manuscript and agree to this publication.

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