



Using micro-cognition biomarkers of neurosystem dysfunction to redefine ADHD subtypes: A scalable digital path to diagnosis based on brain function

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ABSTRACT

Symptom-based diagnosis does not align with underlying neuropathology, confounding new treatment development and treatment selection for individual patients. Using high precision micro-cognition biomarkers of neurosystem dysfunction acquired during digital neurotherapy (DNT), we characterized subgroups of ADHD children with different neuropathology. K-means clustering applied to 69 children 6–9 years old with ADHD using performance variables from a Go/NoGo test normalized against 58 typically developing (TD) children identified four subgroups that were validated and further characterized by micro-cognition biomarkers extracted from thousands of responses during the DNT. The clusters differed on emblematic features of ADHD. Cluster 4 showed poor response inhibition and inconsistent attention. Cluster 3 showed only poor response inhibition and the other two showed neither. Cluster 2 showed faster and more consistent responses, higher detection of simple targets and better working memory than TD children but marked performance decrements when required to track multiple targets or ignore distractors. Cluster 1 showed much greater ability recognizing members of abstract categories rather than natural categories that children learn through physical interaction with the environment while Cluster 4 was the opposite. Fine-grained, low-cost, noninvasive, and scalable digital micro-cognition biomarkers can identify patients with the same symptom-based diagnosis but differing neuropathology.

1. Introduction

Diagnostic categories in psychiatry are currently based on clusters of symptoms and recognized to include individuals with different neuropathology. This heterogeneity arises from the fact that in different individuals, different neuropathology can lead to the same symptoms and the same neuropathology can cause different symptoms (Wexler, 1992; Hyman, 2010; Miller, 2010). These limitations in classification confound efforts to develop new treatments and select optimal treatments for individual patients. Accordingly, it is an important research priority to discover biomarkers of neuropathology that define homogeneous groups of patients with similar underlying neuropathology and characterize their pathology. We report that analysis of thousands of responses from individuals during digital neurotherapy (DNT) can provide micro-cognition biomarkers of neurosystem dysfunction that identify clusters of children who share the diagnosis of ADHD but on the basis of different neuropathology.

ADHD has been called “an exemplar of a robust clinical neuropsychiatric syndrome with marked heterogeneity across multiple levels of analysis” (Coghill et al., 2014). For example, multiple neuropsychological tests (Nigg et al., 2005; Sonuga-Barke et al., 2010; Coghill et al., 2014), ratings of temperament and personality (Martel et al., 2010; Karalunas et al., 2014), resting state connectivity on fMRI, clinical course (Karalunas et al., 2014), and EEG power analyses (Clarke et al., 2011), all differentiate groups of children with ADHD from TD children, but each show abnormality in only a minority of children. Nearly 3000 genetic studies, including 32 meta-analyses, demonstrate strong heritability but no defining features of ADHD per se (Schachar, 2014). Using fMRI, clinical, and demographic data from multiple studies to differentiate ADHD from TD children, researchers identified a subgroup in which 94% of children had ADHD, but 80% of ADHD children were not in the group (ADHD-200 Consortium, 2012). Similar heterogeneity confounds diagnosis and treatment development in most brain disorders including depression, schizophrenia, autism, mild cognitive

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impairment, Parkinsonism and dementia.

Given this heterogeneity within the overall diagnostic category of ADHD, phenotype refinement is recognized as an “overarching challenge for the field” (e.g., Nigg et al., 2020a; Buitelaar et al., 2022). There have been two general approaches to the problem. One, instantiated in the DSM-V, defines Inattentive, Hyperactive and Combined presentations based on predominance and mix of different types of symptoms. This approach is compromised by the instability of patient symptoms and the associated groupings, and limited evidence of treatment or etiological differences among the groups (Nigg et al., 2020a; Buitelaar et al., 2022; de la Pena et al., 2020). While, differences among these clinical subtypes on average have been shown on fMRI, rsMRI, DTI in some studies (Saad et al., 2020), it seems unlikely this approach will escape the limitations of symptom-based diagnosis described above.

In the second approach, laid out systematically by Nigg et al., 2020b, a study group of children diagnosed with ADHD is evaluated with measures of behavior, cognition, personality, physiology, brain structure and/or brain activation, and unstructured clustering analyses applied to identify subgroups with common features. Ideally, stability of cluster solutions are evaluated in subsamples and the results validated by comparing clusters with measures different than those used to define them. For example, analysis of performance on two measures of executive function yielded three clusters; one characterized by poor inhibitory control, one by poor set shifting and speed and one by intact performance on the two tests (Roberts et al., 2017). Community detection clustering applied to parent ratings of temperament yielded three subtypes then shown to differ significantly in cardiac physiology and brain functional connectivity (Karalunas et al., 2014). Support vector machine analysis applied to parent report data on ADHD symptoms, executive function, and internalization/externalization proclivities in a transdiagnostic ADHD/AD sample found three subgroups exhibiting dysfunctions in flexibility and emotion regulation, inhibition, or working memory, organization and planning (Vaida et al., 2020). The present study follows this second approach, applying cluster analysis to data including a novel set of micro-cognition assessments.

The brain is hierarchically organized from single cells and cell dyads to local circuits of interconnected neighboring neurons and neurosystems that integrate the action of millions of neurons distributed across multiple brain regions (Wexler, 2022). Biomarkers of function at each level are of potential value and complement each other (Fig. 1). Micro-cognition biomarkers assess function of neurosystems necessary for cognition and emotion. These are important since it is dysfunction at the level of neurosystems that alters thinking and feeling and produces clinical illness. Blood biomarkers provide information on pathology at cellular and synaptic function including inflammation and plasticity but are difficult to associate with brain physical or functional anatomy.

Quantitative EEG and fMRI provide information on neurosystems but are limited in specificity and scalability.

Data for the present analyses derive from a study showing that DNT reduced symptoms and improved cognition in children with ADHD with the degree of symptom reduction associated with baseline and change measures of cognition (Wexler et al., 2020). The DNT systematically challenges and trains incremental fine-grained variations in micro-cognitive elements of attention, response inhibition, speed of processing, working memory, use of categories, and pattern recognition across thousands of training trials, creating micro-cognition biomarkers of neurosystem dysfunction. The DNT program also administers tests of response inhibition, focused attention, and working memory (Kavanaugh et al., 2020; Wexler et al., 2020). We used measures of response inhibition and sustained attention from the Go/NoGo test of response inhibition, hallmark features of ADHD, in unstructured cluster analysis to identify potential subgroups of children. We then used the micro-cognition biomarkers generated by the DNT and scores on the focused attention and working memory tests to validate and further characterize neurosystem dysfunction in the clusters. TD children did the DNT program side-by-side with the ADHD children providing normative values.

2. Methods

2.1. Subjects

Participants were recruited via letters to parents offering a free after school program to improve attention (Wexler et al., 2020). All study procedures comply with ethical standards of the Human Investigation Committee at the Yale School of Medicine and with the Helsinki Declaration as revised in 2008. Informed consent was obtained from parents and participants gave informed assent prior to study procedures. A child was considered “screen-positive” if the average rating per item was greater than 1.2 on the parent or teacher SNAP-IV rating scales (Swanson, 1992; Bussing et al., 2008), and diagnosis confirmed using the Kiddie Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia – Present and Lifetime Version administered by doctorate or master-level clinicians during parent interviews. At that time, the parent SNAP-IV was completed again facilitated by research staff, and clinicians completed the SNAP-IV drawing on impressions during the parent interview and scores on both the parent and teacher SNAP-IVs. Diagnosis of ADHD was assigned if on the basis of the interview, review of K-DADS-PL, review of prior psychological/medical history, and scores on (both) parent and teacher SNAPS a child met DSM-IV TR criteria for ADHD or was deemed to be at “high-risk” for ADHD defined as one symptom below diagnostic criteria. Children were excluded if they had a severe and impairing

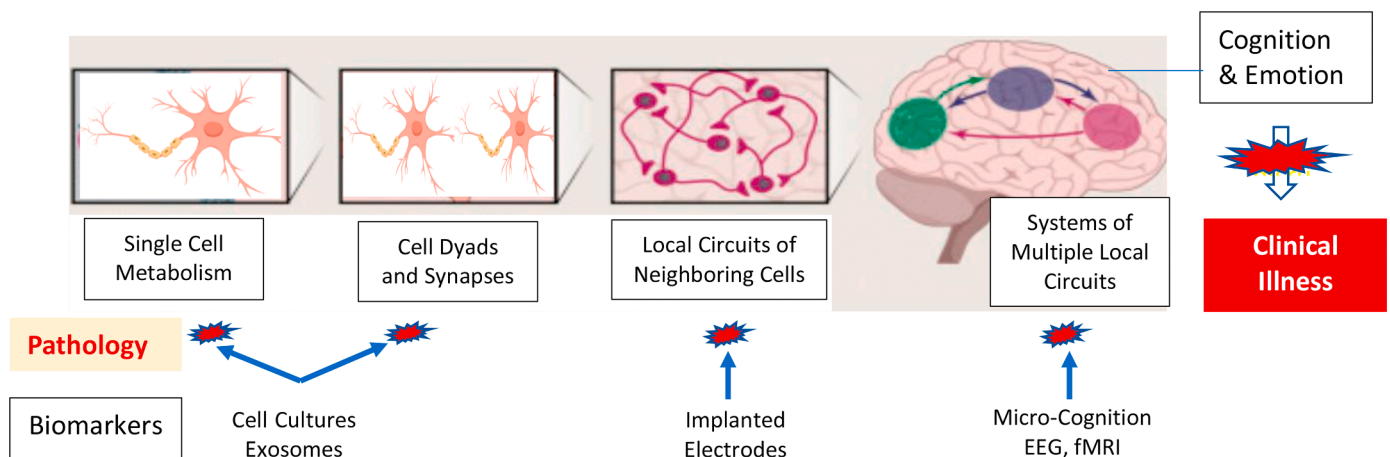


Fig. 1. Brain hierarchical functional organization and biomarkers (modified from Lerner et al., 2016).

co-morbid psychiatric diagnosis, acute behavior problems or physical disability that would prevent them from participating in treatment, or IQ less <80 (Kaufman and Kaufman, 2004). A comorbid diagnosis of autism spectrum disorder was not exclusionary if level of functioning allowed participation. 91 children meeting criteria for ADHD and 86 children considered to be TD between 5 and 9 years old were enrolled. Kindergarten children ($n = 18$) were almost entirely TD younger siblings of participants, enrolled for the convenience of parents and dropped from analysis to better match age ADHD and TD children.

2.2. Procedures

2.2.1. Micro-Cognition biomarkers derived from computer-presented cognitive-training exercises

The cognitive training games were designed by BEW and developed as web-based applications by the Yale startup company C8 Sciences. Children used three modules, each with 80–150 levels representing incremental changes in task features and difficulty that probe and train micro-variations in cognition and associated neurosystems. All children completed the same levels on all modules, so all had data for all of the micro-cognition biomarkers. Every response from every child during training is captured for analysis. Current analyses used performance from the initial 150 min of training sessions only. The first module (CTB) begins with the child having to click on a yellow ball moving randomly across the screen whenever it turns red, exercising sustained attention. The ball moves faster following correct responses and slows after errors. After challenging simple target detection (level 1) by shorter durations of target color changes, the task changes so the ball sometimes turns blue (a foil, level 2) that is to be ignored, adding response inhibition. Next, the target color randomly changes back and forth between blue and red (level 3), increasing required response inhibition demands and adding cognitive flexibility. Two micro-cognition biomarkers were extracted: target detection rate (levels 1–3) and foil click rate (the percent of foils tapped or clicked on, levels 2–3). In the second module (Fly), children click on butterflies carrying signs only if the object on the sign was a member of a designated category (letters, numbers, animals, plants, or food). With correct responses, the butterflies move faster and more butterflies appear at the same time. Performance measures are target detection rate in each category type at low or high processing loads (1–3 vs 4–6 objects on screen). The third module (Ducks) requires the child to figure out the rule that links a series of three objects in linear array in order to choose a fourth object from among three choices to complete the row. On some levels the patterns were sequences of colored shapes (e.g., red circle, yellow triangle, red circle, yellow triangle) and on others they were sequences of numbers (e.g., 1,1,2,2). Time to respond becomes shorter with correct responses. On some levels, the missing element in the pattern is in the last (fourth) position in the row (“what comes next” or wcn) and on others it is in positions 1, 2, or 3 (“what comes before” or wcb). Extracted micro-cognition biomarkers were percent correct responses and average response times on correct responses.

2.2.2. Formal tests of cognition

Three dimensions of executive cognitive function shown to be compromised in previous studies of children with ADHD—focused attention, response-inhibition, and working memory (Coghill et al., 2014)—were assessed with online versions of established research measures administered in the classroom setting. Classroom administration provides ecological validity of evaluation in the real-world learning environment but without the controlled environment of an office. As a result, we established validity criteria for each test based on accuracy on easier test trials and absence of too many responses either so fast or slow as to question whether the child was adequately engaged with and understood the task. Tests were given one per day beginning on day three. Two tests precisely followed the design from the NIH Toolbox of tests of executive function (nihtoolbox.org). The first was the Flanker Test of

focused attention where the primary performance measures were percent correct and speed and consistency of reaction time on correct congruent and incongruent trials. In this task, children indicate by keyboard response the pointing direction (right or left) of the center arrow in a horizontal array of five arrows. On incongruent trials, the four “flanking” arrows point in the opposite direction of the central arrow. There are three primary performance measures: 1) Difference in percent correct between congruent and incongruent trials; 2) Difference in reaction time between correct congruent and incongruent trials; and 3) standard deviation of reaction time on correct congruent trials. The second test was the List Sorting Working Memory Test. Subjects see a series of animals or household objects and then click on the objects just seen in a grid of 16 objects in order from smallest to largest rather than the order in which they were presented. List length begins at 2 and is increased by one following correct responses. Two consecutive errors end the test. In part one, trials of animals and household objects alternate. In part two, animals and household objects are inter-mixed, and subjects have to reorder the animals first and then the household objects. Dependent measures were longest list lengths achieved in each part. The third test is a Go/NoGo test of response inhibition. Subjects are instructed to press the space bar whenever a “go” stimulus is presented but not when a “no-go” stimulus is presented. There are three blocks of 50 stimuli randomized in sets of 10 with 8 go and 2 no-go in each set. In the first block “P” is the go stimulus and “R” the no-go stimulus. In the second block this is reversed. In the third block, pictures of furniture are go trials and pictures of foods like cake and ice cream are no-go stimuli. Stimuli are presented for 400 msec with a 1400 msec response window after stimulus offset. Errors are indicated by a large red “X.” Performance variables were: 1) percent of response to no-go trials; 2) response time on go trials; and 3) standard deviation of response times on go trials. Absences from the program on a day that a test was administered or failure to meet validity criteria led to variation in the number of children with data from each test.

2.3. Statistical analysis

Analyses used a limited set of variables with established relevance to ADHD in an initial unstructured K-means cluster analysis to identify clusters of ADHD children, evaluated cluster reproducibility in randomly generated split-half samples, and validated and further characterized clusters by comparison with the remaining test and micro-cognition variables. The three performance measures from the Go/NoGo test were used in the cluster analysis because they reflect two features often considered emblematic of ADHD: abilities to inhibit responses and to consistently maintain attention. 69 ADHD and 58 TD children had valid Go/NoGo tests and constituted the study sample for cluster and subsequent analyses (mean age (SD) for ADHD = 7.5 (1.1) and TD = 7.4 (1.1). As expected, boys were over-represented in the ADHD group (70%) while the TD group was more evenly divided by gender (57% girls). While age has very robust effects on executive function, effects of gender are absent or limited in published reports (e.g., MMM Mazzocco and ST Kover 2007; Welsh et al., 2009; N Yamamoto and K Imai-Matsumura 2019). Consequently we used the full age-matched sample of TD children to provide benchmarks to contextualize performance on the cognition and micro-cognition variables that distinguished the ADHD subgroups. Moreover, none of the paper’s hypotheses or evaluations of statistical significance involved comparison of ADHD and TD children. At each stage of validation and further characterization, the clusters were compared to each other by one-way or mixed models repeated measures ANOVAs and relevant post-hoc tests. In addition, scores of the ADHD children were normed against those of TD children to determine whether specific strengths and weaknesses relative to other ADHD subtypes represented weakness or strengths compared to TD children (z-score normalization with mean=0 and sd=1 using sklearn.preprocessing.StandardScaler from the scikit-learn library). In addition, given the a priori overall study goal of

identifying distinctive features of subgroups of patients sharing the clinical diagnosis of ADHD, and the robust reproducibility of the cluster categorizations (see results), significant differences between one cluster and the others suggestive of a defining feature of the cluster are noted even when the main effect of cluster considering differences among all clusters did not reach significance. Only scores from valid tests were used when comparing clusters leading to variation in the number of subjects in different analyses.

3. Results

3.1. Cluster definition and replication

The three performance variables from the Go/NoGo test were normalized and entered into a K-means cluster algorithm with cluster number set to four by the “elbow” method. As seen in Fig. 2, C4 shows two deficits often considered emblematic of ADHD, with response inhibition reflected in a high percent of responses on no-go trials and inconsistency of attention reflected in high within-subject standard deviation in response times on correct go trials, both > 2 SDs worse than

TD children. C3 also shows a substantial failure of response inhibition but no increase in variability of response times. Strikingly, C2 children were faster and more consistent than TD in response time and consistency and essentially the same as TD in response inhibition. Finally, C1 children were marginally better than TD children in response inhibition but nearly 0.5 SD slower in response times suggesting good self-control and increased carefulness in response. These cluster differences were highly reproducible in two randomly generated split-half samples. The clusters did not differ significantly in age, but since C2 was older on average (8.1 ± 1.2 years) than the others (C1, 7.5 ± 0.8 ; C3, 7.3 ± 1.1 , and C4 7.1 ± 1.3 years) differences between C2 and others reported below were confirmed in analyses with age as a covariate. The clusters did not differ significantly at study entry in either parent (C1 22.3 ± 9.5 , C2 27.8 ± 6.7 , C3 26.9 ± 11.7 , C4 33.4 ± 5.9) or clinician (C1 26.8 ± 6.6 , C2 25.6 ± 6.0 , C3 27.5 ± 7.0 , C4 24.7 ± 7.6) SNAP scores, nor in the proportions of children of Inattentive, Combined or Hyperactive subtypes according to DSM criteria (C1 48–38–14%, C2 38–50–12%, C3 33–46–21%, C4 38–38–24%).



Fig. 2. Four clusters of children with ADHD defined on the basis of failure to inhibit responses to no-go trials (commission errors), response time on go trials, and standard deviation of response times on go trials.

3.2. Comparison of the clusters on the flanker and LSWM tests

3.2.1. Flanker test

None of the one-way ANOVAs for the three performance variables showed significant differences across clusters. However, inspection of the data showed that the impact of the flanking/distracting arrows on response time (response time correct incongruent – response time correct congruent) was nearly one-half SD greater (0.46) in C2 than in TD children while it was actually smaller in C1 and C4 than in TD and nearly the same as TD in C3 (Fig. 3A). The *t*-test between C2 and the other clusters combined was significant ($t[63]=2.03$, $p = 0.047$) while the differences among C1, C3 and C4 did not approach significance.

3.2.2. LSWM test

A mixed model ANOVA with cluster as the between subjects factor and longest list length achieved in levels one and two as within-subject repeated measures showed main effects of cluster ($F[3, 50]=2.85$, $p = 0.046$) and level ($F[1, 50]=19.37$, $p<0.0001$) while the interaction did not approach significance. Independent *t*-tests on the average of maximum list length on the two parts showed the main effect of cluster was due to significantly better performance by C2 compared to C3 and 4 ($t[35]=3.31$, $p = 0.0022$).

3.3. Comparison of the clusters on micro-cognition biomarkers derived from DNT cognitive-training exercises

3.3.1. CTB module

One child from C4 was excluded from analysis due to responding in the absence of a target or foil stimulus 10 times as frequently as the average of all others. A mixed model ANOVA with cluster as the between subject factor and level (simple target detection, target with foils, and switching target) as a within-subject factor yielded significant main effects of cluster ($F[3, 64]=3.07$, $p = 0.034$) and level ($F[2, 128]=6.15$, $p = 0.0028$), with C2 performing better than all others (C2 vs. C1: $t[35]=3.17$, $p = 0.0031$; C2 vs. C3: $t[38]=2.46$, $p = 0.018$; C2 vs. C4: $t[21]=$

2.39, $p = 0.026$) and better than TD (Fig. 3B), and level 3 being more difficult than the first two levels. Similar analysis of foil click rate showed significantly higher rates on level 3 ($t[134]=5.75$, $p<0.0001$) but no significant differences among clusters or interaction.

3.3.2. Fly module

A mixed model ANOVA with cluster as the between subject factor and category (numbers, letters, animals, plants, and food) and difficulty (either 1–3 or 4–6 items on the screen) as within-subject factors yielded significant main effects of cluster ($F[3, 60]=3.67$, $p = 0.017$), category ($F[3, 194]=15.05$, $p<0.0001$), and difficulty ($F[1, 60]=36.44$, $p<0.0001$), a significant interaction of cluster x category ($F[9.71, 194.24]=4.48$, $p<0.0009$), and a trend level interaction of cluster x difficulty ($F[3, 60]=2.26$, $p = 0.090$).

The main effect of cluster reflected lower overall performance by C4 (accuracy 93% +/- 4.9%) compared to the other three which did not differ significantly (C1 97.6% +/- 1.89%, C2 96.7% +/- 3.0%, C3 96.5% +/- 3.5%). The robust cluster x category interaction was driven by relative differences between performance on numbers and letters—abstract human made categories—compared to performance on plants, animals, and food which are natural categories that children interact with physically (Rosch 1973). Combining numbers and letters, and plants, animals, and food, the interaction between cluster and category type was significant as expected ($F[3, 60]=7.99$, $p<0.0002$). C3's preferential ability on numbers and letters is 0.85 SD greater than TD while C4 differed from TD by 0.75 SD in the opposite direction due to higher performance identifying animals, plants, and food (Fig. 3C).

Given the large differences between C4 and the others in overall performance, and our *a priori* interest in evaluating the differences among the other clusters in micro-cognition, we repeated the mixed model ANOVA with only clusters 1–3. The cluster effect was now non-significant ($F[2, 54]=0.72$, $p = 0.49$) while the cluster x difficulty interaction was significant ($F[2, 54]=3.14$, $p = 0.05$); C2 showed the largest decline in performance from low to high difficulty on all five categories and C1 showed the smallest decline on all five categories with

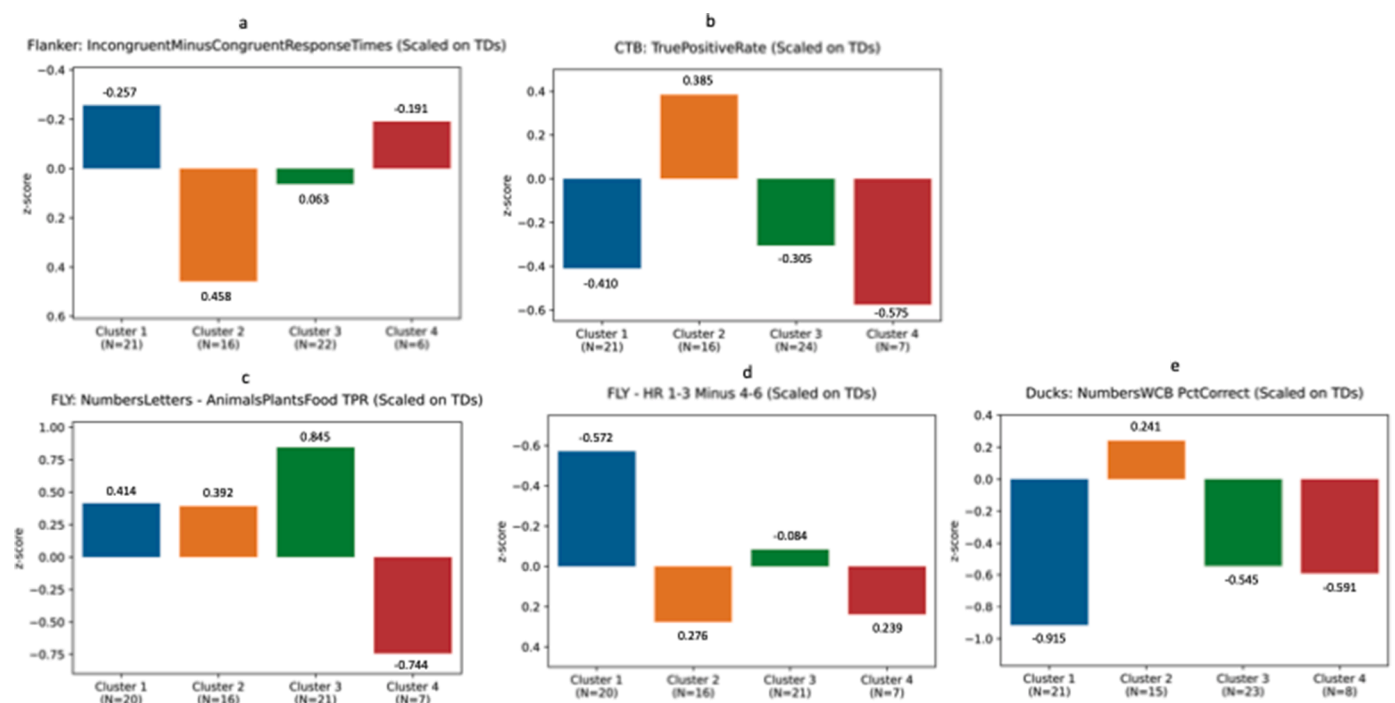


Fig. 3. Comparisons of clusters on micro-cognition performance variables. Values are standard deviations from typically developing children. Values below the zero line represent performance worse than typical developing except in the 2c where the variable is the difference in performance when assigning objects to abstract categories versus natural categories. All four clusters showed greater differential performance than typically developing children, but the difference was particularly pronounced in C3 and C4 but with opposite directionality in the two clusters.

C3 in the middle (Fig. 3D). This distribution of frequency in a 3×3 table of clusters and relative rank in performance decrement is significant by Chi-Square (chi-square=30, df=4, yates corrected $p = 0.0007$).

3.3.3. Ducks module

A mixed model ANOVA of correct responses with cluster as the between subject factor and category (colors/shapes or numbers) and position of missing element (wcb or wcn) as within-subject factors yielded a non-significant main effect of cluster ($F[3, 63]=1.92, p = 0.14$), significant main effects of position ($F[1, 63]=26.87, p<0.0001$) and category ($F[1,63]=8.57, p = 0.0048$), and significant interactions of cluster \times position ($F[3, 63]=3.40, p = 0.023$) and cluster \times position \times category ($F[3, 63]=2.95, p = 0.040$). The three-way interactions was driven by higher performance in C2 than the other three clusters (p -values ranged from 0.0012 to 0.0088) on the numbers wcb level (Fig. 3E).

A similar ANOVA using response time on correct responses as the performance variable yielded significant main effects of cluster ($F[3, 63]=3.62, p = 0.018$), position ($F[1, 63]=4.46, p = 0.039$) and category ($F[1,63]=7.46, p = 0.0081$) without significant interactions. C4 was slower in response times compared to the other clusters (C4 vs C1 +2 +3 $t[65]=2.564, p = 0.013$), while across all clusters responses were slower on wcb than wcn trials and to colors/shapes patterns than to number patterns.

3.4. Comparison of the clusters in response to DNT

Repeated measures ANOVAs with time and cluster as factors revealed main effects of time in both parent ($F[1, 57]=14.0, p = 0.0004$) and clinician ($F[1, 60]=12.1, p = 0.0001$) SNAP ratings with lower scores following DNT. In both analyses, C2 children showed the greatest symptom reductions (25% parent ratings, 19% clinician, both $p<0.03$ one-tail) and C4 the least (−5% parent, 0% clinician). C1 (15%, 9%) and C3 (22%, 8%) were intermediate with the reduction in parent ratings in C3 approaching statistical significance ($p = 0.033$ one-tail).

4. Discussion

Diagnosis in psychiatry and many other brain disorders is based on clusters of symptoms that appear by consensus and tradition to have similar form, whereas as diagnosis and treatment in other branches of medicine advanced when knowledge of the normal physiology of the organ system involved provided a logic to diagnose and objective measures to assess disease (Foucault, 1974). Identification of biomarkers of brain dysfunction holds promise to provide a similar path forward for brain disorders. Pathology can exist at any of the hierarchical levels of brain functional organization, and biomarkers at each level are needed. We demonstrate the value of digital micro-cognition biomarkers of the neurosystems pathology that leads to alterations in cognition and emotion that constitute clinical illness. Micro-cognition biomarkers are generated by a DNT program that collects thousands of responses from each patient while probing and training fine-grained incremental variations in perceptual and cognitive processing. The small incremental variations in neurosystem processing demands provide high precision and sensitivity. The micro-cognition biomarkers are low cost, non-invasive and scalable.

Model-free cluster analysis identified four clusters of children all sharing the diagnosis of ADHD but differing in hallmark features of ADHD—response inhibition and speed and consistency of response. The clusters were highly consistent in randomly generated split-half samples even in the relatively small overall sample. Comparison of clusters on the List Sort Working Memory Test, the Flanker Test, and multiple micro-cognition biomarkers extracted from responses to incremental variation in DNT training trials provided external validation of the clusters and initial steps in characterizing neurosystem pathology in each. The clusters do not correspond to current clinical symptom-based subtypes of ADHD.

Fig. 4 summarizes the distinguishing micro-cognition strengths or weaknesses in each cluster relative to the other clusters and TD children. C1 children were slower in response than C2–C4 and TD, and had lower target detection on fast moving targets and decreased ability to recognize patterns of numbers displayed in left-to-right sequences than C2 and TD when the missing element was in one of the first three positions in the sequence (“what comes before, wcb”) rather than the last position (“what comes next, wcn”). On the other hand, C1 had stronger self-control, showed less performance decrement when having to categorize 4–6 objects on the screen compared to 1–3 objects, and showed a much greater performance advantage when identifying members of the abstract categories of numbers and letters compared to the natural categories of animals, plants and food compared both to other ADHD clusters and TD. Together these features suggest a slower and more controlled cognitive style, keeping their efforts, speed, and physicality within a comfort range. Perhaps their ADHD-like symptoms are related to slow response times giving the impression of distraction.

C2 children had two areas of deficit compared both to TD and at least two other ADHD clusters. These otherwise cognitively strong children were particularly impacted when challenged by having 4–6 objects moving on the screen compared to 1–3 objects during categorization training and when distracted by arrows pointing in the opposite direction of the central target arrow on the Flanker Task. These weaknesses are striking in contrast to their consistency of attention and superior performance on simple target detection tasks (Go/NoGo and CTB training module) compared both to other ADHD and TD children. Both can be understood as limits in ability to screen out distractions not present in the simpler target detection tasks. In the Flanker Test, the four distracting arrows are presented 30msec before the target adding primacy to the distraction. In the category training module, distraction is both the concurrent internal categorization task and associated changes in neurosystem configuration as the type of category changes, and the external perceptual load. Together these findings suggest highly efficient and focused attention in many situations, but an abrupt drop off when the full field of simultaneous perceptual and cognitive processing exceeds a capacity point. Inability to attend sufficiently when the threshold is exceeded produces symptoms meeting current criteria for diagnosis of ADHD, but the dysfunction is very different from those in the other clusters despite the shared symptom-based diagnosis. These children may be the ones recognized as dually exceptional—abilities and limitations—or high functioning ADHD. Their pattern of performance decrements suggests their apparent inattention may come from external distraction.

C3 children showed decreased inhibitory control which is probably the basis of their ADHD diagnosis but without evidence of inconsistent attention, the other hallmark symptom of ADHD. While other differences between C3 and other clusters and TD were limited, they were more challenged by the “what comes before” condition compared to C1, C2, and TD on the pattern recognition training task with both numeric and geometric shape patterns. The wcb condition requires holding an “empty” space in mind and circling back to fill it in. This requires the neurosystems to configure for both pattern recognition and more robust working memory and attention demands, as well as what is involved in the empty space representation. Their weakness on both types of patterns rather than only in numeric patterns differentiates them from C1, suggests dysfunction in aspects of neurosystem configuration challenged by the wcb task configuration in general, rather than C1’s more fine-grained deficit limited to wcb recognition of sequences of numbers. It is possible that the task-general requirements of inhibitory control, maintenance of an “empty space” representation, and increased working memory demand combine at the neurosystem level to produce the deficit.

C4’s performance was more than two SDs worse than TD children in both response inhibition and ability to maintain attention consistently on the Go/NoGo test. In addition, when required to identify objects belonging to specific categories, they had more difficulty picking out

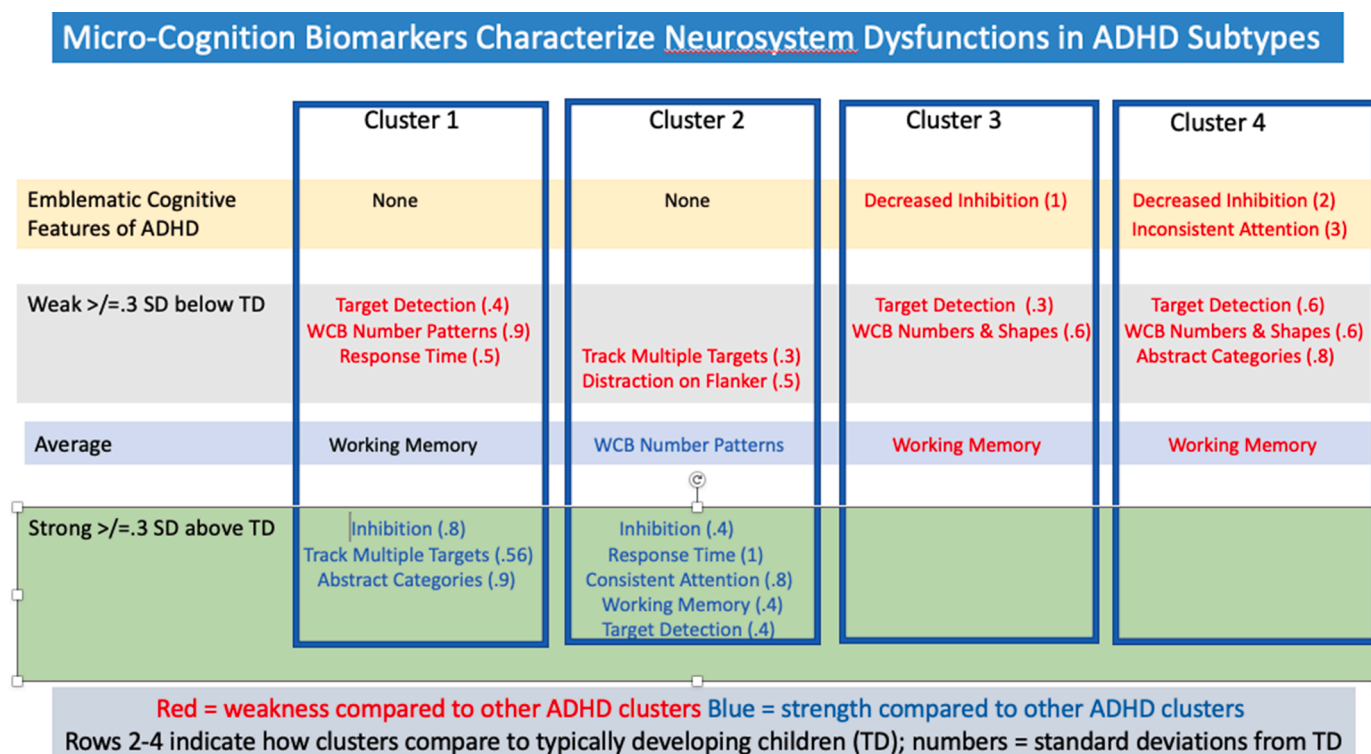


Fig. 4. Overview of differences in micro-cognition biomarkers of neurosystem dysfunction among four subtypes of ADHD. Inhibition, Consistent Attention, and Response Time come from Go/NoGo Test, Distraction from Flanker Test, Working Memory from LSWMT, Target Detection from CTB sustained attention DNT module, Multiple Target Cost and Abstract vs. Natural Categories from Fly category DNT module, What Comes Before (wcb) pattern recognition from Ducks pattern recognition DNT module.

letters or numbers than animals, plants, or foods while the other three clusters showed the reverse pattern. Animals, plants, and food are categories developed on the basis of real-life sensory experience while numbers are abstract human-made categories based more on frontal executive cognitive function. Perhaps these children have a more physical interaction with their environments and may therefore need types of learning opportunities not offered in traditional education settings. Their inattention and other cognitive deficits may come from neurosystem instabilities and internal rather than external distraction.

Our methods and findings align in encouraging ways with those of Roberts et al. (2017) who applied cluster analysis to scores of response inhibition (Stop Task) and speed and cognitive flexibility (Trails A&B) yielding three clusters of children with clinical diagnoses of ADHD. Their clusters, like ours, did not align with the current symptom-based subtypes. Their cluster 1 was characterized by slow responses, poor cognitive flexibility, lower IQ and academic achievement, and may correspond to our C4 children who had the weakest executive functions on multiple measures. In both studies this was the smallest cluster, representing 18 and 12% of the samples. Both their cluster 2 and our C3 were characterized by poor response inhibition and represented 26% of their sample and 35% of ours. Their “cognitively intact” cluster probably corresponds to our C1 and C2 together. This cluster represented 56% of their sample and our C1 + C2 were 54% of our sample. Consistent with their speculation that cognitive deficits may be apparent in their cluster 3 with broader assessments, our micro-cognition biomarkers may have passed their cluster 3 into two clusters with distinct cognitive deficits.

Identification of subgroups of children whose ADHD symptoms are associated with different underlying neurosystem dysfunctions is important for matching patients with the treatment most likely to benefit them and guiding new treatment development. Children with some neurosystems dysfunctions, for example, may benefit from one type of medicine, DNT, behavioral or psychotherapy but not another. In this study there was evidence of differential response to the DNT. While

the micro-cognition biomarkers used in the present report provide only a limited characterization of the pathology in each cluster, they demonstrate the feasibility and potential power of the approach. As the work developing and applying micro-cognition biomarkers proceeds, more complete information about the nature of neurosystem pathology in different clusters of patients from different current symptom-based diagnostic categories will enable more complete depictions of pathology. As with other research about the nature of CNS pathology, the information will also provide new insights into normal brain functional organization based on dysfunctions that co-occur, and potentially provide new concepts that better integrate the types of biomarker abnormalities seen in each of ADHD clusters. Comparison with serum biomarkers, fMRI, and EEG of groups of patients who, on the basis of shared neurosystem dysfunction revealed by micro-cognition biomarkers are more pathologically homogeneous, will further characterize the nature of different brain disorders and aspects of normal brain organization. Reverse translation of the neurosystem dysfunctions characterizing patient subgroups will provide clinically relevant animal models for rational drug development.

The study has several limitations. First the overall study sample is not very large, and one cluster included fewer than 10 subjects. In addition to general instability inherent in small samples, power to demonstrate statistical significance in comparison of the smallest cluster to the others is limited and may lead to underestimation of differences. The different cognitive tests and micro-cognition biomarkers might vary in sensitivity and reliability leading to appearance of deficit specificity when instead it is a manifestation of a less sensitive marker failing to show a significant difference while a more sensitive one does. While study data included biomarkers of multiple aspects of cognition and neurosystem function, there are many additional aspects of cognition not assessed but needed for fuller characterization of the cluster-specific pathology. Measures related to spatial working memory are notable among additional potentially valuable measures as it has been shown to be

compromised in ADHD. Finally, while the TD sample is used as a common benchmark to normalize and contextualize performance in the subgroups rather than a sample for any of the statistical comparisons, the fact that the parents of the TD children elected to enroll them in a program designed to improve executive functions may mean that the parents thought they had some degree of deficit. If so, this would reduce the deviance in the ADHD children from what would be seen in a standardization sample without this possible selection bias. To realize the potential suggested by the present study, replication in larger samples and longitudinal use in studies comparing different treatments are needed.

5. Conclusion

Micro-cognition biomarkers of neurosystem dysfunction and unstructured data analytic methods identified four groups of children all of whom shared the same clinical diagnosis but differ in neurosystem dysfunctions. The findings provide proof-of-concept for use of micro-cognition biomarkers to refine current diagnostic procedures. These improvements are needed to better match patients with treatments and define pathophysiologically homogeneous patient samples for developing new treatments and characterizing neuropathology. With regard to the ADHD subtypes, additional studies and larger study samples are needed to replicate and identify additional features of each cluster before an integrated view of the system dysfunction can be developed. Comparison of the clusters with serum biomarkers of neuropathology and functional brain imaging activation paradigms informed by the identified differences in micro-cognition are needed to build models of different pathologies. Reverse translation to create clinically relevant animal models can potentially increase the percentage of candidate drugs that prove effective in clinical trials, and lead to rationally developed combinations of pharmaco- and behavioral therapies. Finally, while our DNT will require additional testing for validation, a digitally delivered objective methodology for better classifying ADHD and other brain disorders offers the possibility of a remote assessment, treatment, and longitudinal tracking solution that can increase access to care and allow clinicians to treat more patients more effectively at lower cost.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

Bruce E. Wexler: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Ryan Kish:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: Bruce E. Wexler reports a relationship with C8Sciences that includes: board membership and equity or stocks. Ryan Kish reports a relationship with C8Sciences that includes: Bruce E. Wexler has patent issued to Yale University and C8Sciences. None

Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2023.115348](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2023.115348).

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