A closed-loop brain-machine interface to modulate pain

3	Qiaosheng Zhang ¹ , Sile Hu ² , Robert Talay ¹ , Amrita Singh ¹ , Bassir Caravan ² , Zhengdong Xiao ² ,
4	David Rosenberg ² , Anna Li ¹ , Johnathan D. Gould ³ , Zhe S. Chen ^{2,4,5*} & Jing Wang ^{1,4,5*}
5	
6	1. Department of Anesthesiology, Perioperative Care and Pain, New York University School of Medicine,
7	New York, NY 10016
8	2. Department of Psychiatry, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY 10016
9	3. College of Arts and Sciences, New York University, New York, NY 10003
10	4. Department of Neuroscience & Physiology, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY
11	10016
12	5. Neuroscience Institute, NYU Langone Health, New York, NY 10016
13	Correspondence: *Equal contribution. <u>zhe.chen@nyulangone.org</u> (ZSC) and <u>jing.wang2@nyulangone.org</u>
14	(JW)
15	
16	
17	A key challenge for the study and treatment of neuropsychiatric diseases is to target
18	pathological neural activities with high temporal resolution. Pain is a fundamental sensory-
19	affective experience, and chronic pain, a disorder that affects one in three adults, comprises
20	discrete symptomatic episodes of unpredictable timing and frequency ¹ . Non-adaptive,
21	continuous treatments for pain, especially chronic pain, are associated with poor efficacy
22	and untoward side effects including addiction. Brain-machine interface (BMI) offers a
23	potential solution to this challenge. BMIs have been developed to detect and ablate epileptic

events and to link cortical commands with prosthetic devices for motor control²⁻¹⁵. Here we

have engineered a BMI to uniquely modulate the sensory-affective experience in rats by 25 coupling neural codes for nociception directly with therapeutic cortical stimulation in a 26 closed-loop system. We record neural activities in the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), a 27 region that is critical for pain processing¹⁶⁻²³, in freely behaving rats, and decode the onset 28 of evoked pain episodes in real time based on ensembles of online sorted spikes^{24,25}. We 29 then couple this pain onset detection with optogenetic activation of the prelimbic prefrontal 30 cortex (PFC), a region well-known to provide descending pain inhibition in rodents²⁶⁻³⁰. 31 Our closed-loop BMI not only effectively inhibits sensory and affective components of acute 32 33 mechanical and thermal pain, but also detects and relieves sensory hypersensitivity and enhanced aversion associated with chronic pain. Furthermore, this system enables the 34 identification and regulation of tonic pain. Together, these findings support the closed-loop 35 neuromodulation strategy for both pain therapy and the study of pain mechanisms. More 36 generally, these results provide a blueprint for the development of BMIs to target 37 neuropsychiatric disorders affecting the sensory and affective systems. 38

39

To design a closed-loop BMI for pain, we paired a detection arm with a treatment arm (Fig. 1a). 40 For pain detection, we recorded neural activity from the ACC with silicon probes (Fig. 1b and 41 Extended Data Fig. 1). Numerous studies have shown that the ACC is critical for pain 42 processing¹⁶⁻²³. Recently, we and others have demonstrated that neural signals from the ACC, 43 including spike activities, can be used to decode the intensity and timing of pain with good 44 sensitivity and specificity^{24,25,31}. We have developed a state-space model (SSM) to detect the 45 onset of pain experience based upon ensemble spike activity in the ACC (Methods; Fig. 1c, and 46 47 Extended Data Fig. 2a). With this SSM-based strategy, we identify a proxy for the acute pain 48 signal that drives the observed population spike activity, thus formulating pain onset detection as detection of a change from the putative baseline condition. This model-based strategy has 49 revealed that the latent processes driving ACC neuronal activities correlate to the onset of 50 observed pain behavior with high degrees of accuracy and temporal precision^{24,25}. Furthermore, 51 the performance of our strategy for detecting pain onset is robust with both well-isolated offline 52 sorted single units and multi-unit activity, thus facilitating its application with online sorted 53 spikes²⁴. For the treatment arm, we used optogenetic activation of the prelimbic region of the 54 PFC (Extended Data Fig. 1b), as previous work has shown that the activation of this region 55 provides effective relief of sensory and affective pain symptoms via descending projections in 56 rodents²⁶⁻³⁰. To assist online model parameter selection and data visualization, we designed a 57 custom graphic user interface (GUI) to integrate the pain detection arm with the treatment arm 58 (Extended Data Fig. 2b), forming a closed-loop neural interface. 59

60

We first applied this real-time BMI in the context of acute thermal pain. We used a calibrated 61 infrared (IR) generator from the Hargreaves' pain assessment toolkit to deliver a noxious 62 stimulus at high IR intensity, and a non-noxious stimulus at low IR intensity to the hind paws of 63 rats (Fig. 2a, b). As shown previously, ACC neurons contralateral to the site of peripheral 64 stimulation increased their firing rates in response to the noxious thermal stimulus (Extended 65 Data Fig. 3)³¹. In contrast, the non-noxious stimulus did not produce significantly increased 66 67 spiking activities in the same neurons (Extended Data Fig. 3). We then applied our SSM-based decoding strategy to detect the onset of pain experience in real time by identifying a change in 68 online sorted ACC ensemble spikes (Extended Data Fig. 2). Our model-based strategy detected 69 70 pain onset reliably after the presentation of noxious stimulus, with high temporal precision (Fig.

71 2c). The SSM-based decoder was able to detect up to 75% evoked thermal pain episodes, with few false detections (Fig. 2d, e and Extended Data Table 1). In a majority of the cases, detection 72 occurred after the presentation of noxious stimulus but prior to paw withdrawals, suggesting that 73 cortical nociceptive response precedes behavioral response (Fig. 2f, g). This temporal delay also 74 indicates the possibility for a closed-loop system to intervene in pain behaviors in real time 75 immediately after pain detection. Thus, we coupled pain onset detection with optogenetic 76 activation of the prelimbic PFC contralateral to the ACC recording sites (Fig. 1 and Extended 77 Data Fig. 1). PFC activation triggered by the SSM in our closed-loop BMI prolonged paw 78 withdrawal latency on the Hargreaves' test (Fig. 2f, h), demonstrating pain relief. This pain-79 inhibitory effect provided by the BMI was as strong as constitutive, manually controlled 80 prelimbic PFC activation, further validating the capability of this closed-loop neuromodulation 81 system to inhibit acute thermal pain. Next, we used pin prick (PP) to deliver mechanical pain to 82 the hind paws of rats (Fig. 2i, j). In contrast to IR, PP caused almost instantaneous withdrawal 83 response. Nevertheless, ACC neurons increased their firing rates in response to noxious 84 stimulations, in contrast to non-noxious stimulations (von Frey filaments, or vF) (Extended Data 85 Fig. 4). Our SSM-based decoder accurately detected ~60% of evoked mechanical pain episodes 86 (Fig. 2k-m, and Extended Data Table 1). We then used a classic conditioned place aversion 87 (CPA) assay to assess the ability of the BMI to control the aversive response to mechanical 88 pain³¹⁻³⁴. During the conditioning phase, we applied noxious stimulations (PP) to the rats' hind 89 90 paws in both treatment chambers (Fig. 2n). In one of these chambers, rats received automated, BMI-triggered therapeutic PFC activation. In the opposite chamber, rats received randomly 91 delivered PFC stimulations of matching duration and intensity. After conditioning, rats preferred 92 93 the chamber associated with the BMI treatment (Fig. 20-q). In contrast, rats did not develop such

94 preference for the BMI treatment when the peripheral stimuli were non-noxious, indicating that PFC stimulation delivered by the BMI was not intrinsically rewarding or aversive (Extended 95 Data Fig. 5). These results demonstrate that a closed-loop system coupling therapeutic PFC 96 activation with decoded pain episodes based on ACC activities inhibits both sensory and 97 affective behavioral response to acute pain. At the cellular level, activation by BMI reduced the 98 peak and cumulative firing rates of ACC pyramidal neurons after noxious stimulations (Fig. 2r-99 t). This temporally specific link between reduced ACC neuronal activity and decreased pain 100 aversion validates a causal effect between ACC activity and affective pain behaviors that has 101 been suggested in previous studies^{20,31}. Therefore, a closed-loop BMI can not only deliver 102 therapeutic interventions in real time, but also enable studies of causal inference for the neural 103 basis of pain. 104

105

Next, we investigated whether this closed-loop BMI could be used to inhibit behaviors 106 associated with chronic pain. Two hallmark features of chronic pain are hypersensitivity to 107 peripheral stimuli and tonic or spontaneous pain. We first assessed hypersensitivity in a well-108 established inflammatory pain model (Complete Freund's Adjuvant or CFA model, Fig. 3a). As 109 expected³¹, CFA-treated rats developed sensory allodynia to mechanical von Frey filament (vF) 110 stimulations, as manifested by paw withdrawal responses (Fig. 3b and Extended Data Fig. 6). 111 Our neural decoding analysis was able to distinguish a 6g vF stimulus sufficient to elicit 112 113 nocifensive withdrawals from a 0.4g vF stimulus that did not consistently elicit withdrawals (Fig. 3c-e and Extended Data Table 1). These results indicate that our SSM-based decoder can detect 114 allodynia events in real time as well as events triggered by noxious stimuli such as PP. BMI-115 driven activation of the prelimbic PFC, meanwhile, reduced mechanical allodynia (Fig. 3f). In 116

117 addition to peripheral hypersensitivity at the site of injury, chronic pain also causes an increased aversive response, which can be assessed by the conditioned place aversion (CPA) assay^{27,31-34}. 118 In one chamber, we paired a peripheral 6g vF stimulus (which is sufficient to induce allodynia) 119 with BMI-driven activation of the PFC, and in the opposite chamber paired this stimulus with 120 randomly delivered PFC activation (Fig. 3g). After conditioning, rats preferred the BMI-paired 121 chamber (Fig. 3h-j). In contrast, rats did not prefer the BMI-paired chamber when they received 122 a non-noxious, 0.4g vF stimulus during conditioning (Extended Data Fig. 7). We then repeated 123 these experiments in a model of chronic neuropathic pain (Spared Nerve Injury or SNI)^{26,35} (Fig. 124 3k, 1 and Extended Data Fig. 8). Again, our SSM could detect when rats received a 6g vF 125 stimulus that elicited nocifensive withdrawals, versus when rats received a 0.4g vF stimulus that 126 did not consistently elicit withdrawals (Fig. 3m-o and Extended Data Table 1). The BMI in turn 127 reduced mechanical allodynia in the SNI model (Fig. 3p). In the CPA assay, we paired the 6g vF 128 stimulus with either BMI-triggered or random PFC activation (Fig. 3q), and SNI-treated rats 129 preferred the BMI-paired chamber (Fig. 3r-t). In contrast, rats showed no preference for the 130 BMI-paired chamber if the peripheral stimulus was non-noxious (Extended Data Fig. 9). 131 Together, these results demonstrate that peripheral allodynia in the chronic pain state produces 132 similar neural responses in the ACC as acute noxious stimulations in naïve animals, and these 133 neural responses can in turn be used to trigger closed-loop neurostimulation to inhibit sensory 134 hypersensitivity and decrease aversion. 135

136

In addition to hypersensitivity to evoked stimuli, chronic pain also causes tonic or spontaneous
 pain³⁴. Recent studies have shown that pharmacological or optogenetic interventions during the
 CPA assay can unmask the presence of tonic pain^{26,34,36,37}. However, identifying the dynamic

140 neural processes that underlie individual spontaneous pain episodes remains an unmet challenge in both animal models and human subjects. The specificity and high temporal precision of the 141 closed-loop BMI provides a potential solution to this problem. In CFA-treated rats, we paired 142 one CPA chamber with BMI, and the other chamber with random activation of the PFC of 143 matching duration and intensity, in the absence of additional peripheral stimulations (Fig. 4a). 144 We hypothesized that the same decoding strategy we employed for evoked pain should detect 145 individual spontaneous pain episodes to trigger PFC activation to relieve pain during a prolonged 146 conditioning phase³⁸. Remarkably, after training with an evoked stimulus, our decoder identified 147 putative spontaneous pain events in the CFA model based on ACC ensemble spikes (Fig. 4b). 148 The neural signature for these putative spontaneous pain events bears resemblance to the neural 149 signature for evoked pain episodes (Fig. 3c). Importantly, after conditioning, rats developed 150 151 preference for the chamber associated with BMI activation (Fig. 4c-e). Next, we tested the ability of the BMI for targeting tonic neuropathic pain in the SNI model (Fig. 4f). Our method provided 152 similar tonic pain detection in the SNI model (Fig. 4g), and rats showed the same preference for 153 the BMI treatment, suggesting that our closed-loop BMI could inhibit tonic pain (Fig. 4h-j). As 154 PFC activation triggered by detected pain onset induces pain relief compared with random 155 activation, the detected episodes have a high likelihood of being true spontaneous pain events. 156 Therefore, our BMI can be a valuable tool for identifying spontaneous pain for mechanistic 157 inquiries, similar to the application of the BMI technology in studies of motor learning². To 158 159 validate the capability of our closed-loop BMI to relieve tonic pain, we examined its efficacy at inhibiting paw-licking behaviors. Paw licking has been identified as a spontaneous pain behavior 160 in inflammatory pain models³⁹⁻⁴². Here we compared the number and total duration of paw 161 162 licking episodes during a 10-min session, and found that the closed-loop BMI was effective in

reducing the paw-licking frequency and duration in the CFA model (Extended Data Fig. 10).
These results further support the efficacy of the closed-loop BMI to detect and treat tonic pain in
rodent models.

166

To date, treatment options for severe acute or chronic pain remain limited, and continuous 167 pharmacological and neuromodulation therapies are associated with multiple side effects. Here 168 we have engineered a closed-loop rodent BMI as a prototype demand-based neuromodulation 169 system to inhibit symptoms of acute and chronic pain and to provide causal inference for 170 mechanisms of nociception. Future refinement of this technology and its adaptation to humans 171 hold promise for non-pharmacological treatment for pain. More generally, these results suggest 172 the feasibility of closed-loop BMI to target sensory and affective processes associated with 173 174 neuropsychiatric diseases.

175

176 **METHODS**

177 Experimental protocol, data acquisition and BMI system architecture

All experimental studies were performed in accordance with the New York University School of
Medicine (NYUSOM) Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and the National Institutes
of Health (NIH) *Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals* to ensure minimal animal
use and discomfort.

182

183 Virus construction and packaging

184 Recombinant AAV vectors were serotyped with AAV1 coat proteins and packaged at the UPenn
185 vector core. Viral titers were 5×10¹² particles per mL for AAV1.CaMKII.ChR2186 eYFP.WPRE.hGH, and AAV1. CaMKII(1.3).eYFP.WPRE.hGH.

187

188 Viral injection

Rats were anesthetized with isoflurane (1.5 to 2%). In all experiments, virus was delivered to the 189 prelimbic PFC only. Rats were unilaterally injected with 0.5 µL of viral vectors at a rate of 0.1 190 µL every 20 s with a 26-gauge 1 µL Hamilton syringe at anteroposterior (AP) +2.9 mm, 191 mediolateral (ML) ± 1.6 mm, and dorsoventral (DV) -3.7 mm, with tips angled 17° toward the 192 midline. The microinjection needles were left in place for an additional 10 min, raised 1 mm, and 193 left for another minute to allow for diffusion of virus particles away from injection site and to 194 195 minimize spread of viral particles along the injection tract. After viral injections, the scalp was sutured and given three weeks for viral expression before optic fiber and electrode implantation. 196

197

198 Prelimbic PFC optic fiber and ACC silicon probe implantation surgery

Optic fiber and electrode implants were performed as described in previous studies^{31,33}. We 199 constructed custom fiber optic cannulae with 200 µm optic fibers held in 2.5 mm ferrules 200 (Thorlabs) for prelimbic PFC optogenetic stimulation. 32-channel silicon probes (Buzsaki32-201 H32, NeuroNexus Technologies, or ASSY-116 E-1, Cambridge NeuroTech) were glued with 3D 202 printed custom design drives or commercial dDrives (NeuroNexus) for ACC recording. During 203 the implant, rats were anesthetized with isoflurane (1.5 to 2%). Optic fibers were implanted 0.5 204 mm right above prelimbic PFC viral injection spot (AP +2.9 mm, ML ±1.6 mm, DV -3.2 mm), 205 with tips angled 17° toward the midline. Contralateral to the optical fiber implant, silicon probes 206

were implanted in the ACC (AP +2.7mm, ML±1.6 mm, DV -2.0 mm) with tips angled 22° toward the midline. Silicone artificial dura gel (Cambridge NeuroTech) was added to protect the dura. Vaseline was used for wrapping electrode movable parts, which include silicon probe shanks and flexible cables, and drive shuttle. Both optical fiber and drive were secured to the skull screws with dental cement. After surgery, rats were given one week to recover before neural recordings.

213

214 In vivo electrophysiological recordings and optogentic stimulation

The hardware of the BMI system for pain experiments consists of following components: electrode arrays (with drives) and headstages, commutator, data acquisition system, Optic fiber cannulas, blue LED or blue laser, desktop computer, video cameras and other optional devices, as shown in Fig. 1 and Extended Data Fig. 1.

219

Animals with chronic optical fiber and electrode implants were given a 30 min period to habituate to a recording chamber over a mesh or glass table before recording. Silicon probes were connected with 32-ch digital headstages (HST/32D, Plexon) and wired through a motorized commutator (OPT/Carousel M Commutator 2LED-4DHST-TH, Plexon). Optic fiber cannulas were connected with a 465nm blue LED (OPT/LED_Blue_Compact_LC_magnetic, Plexon) through mating sleeves (ADAF2, Thorlabs) and fiber patch cables. The blue LED was magnetically mounted on the same carousel commutator.

227

Neural signals were recorded at 40 kHz through a 64-ch OmniPlex data acquisition system
(Plexon). The spikes were thresholded from high-pass filtered (>300 Hz) raw neural signals and

230 further online spike sorted through 2D Polygon method (PlexonControl, Plexon). Only spikes with high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR>3) were selected for BMI population decoding. Online 231 sorted spike time events were packaged and sent to BMI client software through Plexon 232 application program interfaces with 50-ms bin size. The state space model would calculate the 233 output inference of current latent variable based on the binned spike counts. The model would 234 trigger an optogenetic stimulation if the threshold criteria was met. In the meantime, the raw 235 neural signals, online sorted spikes, multiple event time stamps which included pain stimulus 236 events, pain onset detection events, optogenetic stimulus events were recorded through 237 238 PlexControl (Plexon) for further offline data analysis.

239

For optogenetic stimulation, the blue LED was controlled by OmniPlex digital 5V TTL output.
And the optic fiber tip output power was calibrated before experiments. The parameters for
optogenetic stimulation were 20 Hz with 10-ms pulse width, of 5-s duration.

243

During recording, three video cameras (DMK23U, Imaging Source, FDR-AX53, Sony) were used to record rat behavior and BMI client software online-decoding results. The cameras were synchronized with neural recording at the beginning of each recording session. Long inter-trial intervals between trials were used to avoid behavioral or neural sensitization.

248

249 State-space method for detecting the pain onset

Pain perception is a dynamic process, and the pain percept can be modeled as an abstract latent
variable. In our previous work, we have formulated the problem of detecting the onset of pain
signals as a change-point detection problem^{24,25}. The detection problem was resolved by a state-

space method, where the state-space model (SSM) consists of a state equation and a measurement equation⁴³. In the state equation, we assumed that the temporal neural activity y_k (*k*=1,...,*K*), represented by a *C*-dimensional vector, was driven by a common one-dimensional latent Markovian process z_k :

$$z_k = a z_{k-1} + \epsilon_k$$

where ϵ_k specifies a temporal Gaussian prior (with zero mean and variance σ^2) on the latent process, and 0 < |a| < 1 is the first-order autoregressive (AR) coefficient. In the measurement equation, we assumed the Poisson linear dynamical system (PLDS) for neuronal ensemble spikes, with the observation vector y_k consisting of spike count of *C* neurons (bin size Δ), where the logarithm of the neuronal firing rate, η_k , is modulated by a weight factor in vector *c* plus a DC term *d*

 $\eta_k = c z_k + d,$

264
$$\mathbf{y}_k \sim Poisson(\exp(\mathbf{\eta}_k)\Delta),$$

The second equation is a generalized linear model (GLM) that employs an exponential link function through η_k , where y_k is Poisson distributed with the rate parameter $\exp(\eta_k)$.

267

Let Θ denote all unknown model parameters, and we have developed an iterative expectationmaximization (EM) algorithm to infer latent state sequences (E-step) and unknown parameters $\Theta = \{a, c, d, \sigma^2\}$ (M-step). Upon model identification, an online recursive filter was run to estimate the latent state estimate $\hat{z}_k^{24,25}$. We then computed the Z-score related to the baseline: $Z_score = \frac{z-\text{mean}(z_{\text{baseline}})}{\text{SD}(z_{\text{baseline}})}$ and further converted it to probability or one-tailed *P*-value²³. We monitored the probability to assess the significance of change point detection. The criterion of Zscore change was determined by a critical threshold for reaching statistical significance. The first time point that crossed the significance threshold for the change point was treated as the onset of pain. Using 95% significance level, it was concluded that when Z-score–CI > 1.65 or Z-score + CI < -1.65, where the CI denotes the confidence interval derived from the state posterior variance.

279

280 BMI software development

The BMI software that manages the operation of the system was run on a desktop PC (Intel Xeon E5-1620 CPU, 3.5 GHz, 48 GB memory, Window OS). The software supported the hardware platform for online neural decoding analysis and the graphic user interface (GUI).

284

The components and tasks of the BMI system was managed by a client software including the following modules: (i) data acquisition and buffering, (ii) online neural encoding/decoding algorithms, (iii) external device control, (iv) configuration management, and (v) user interfaces. We developed the software in C/C++ programming language along with the software developing toolkit provided by Plexon and other open-source software packages. To accommodate maximum flexibility while minimizing the complexity of maintenance, the functional modules in the software were designed with encapsulation for decoupling purposes.

292

Proper buffering was required for both the streaming neural signals and the decoding analysis results. In online BMI experiments, although the total recording time lasted for an hour or more, only the recent recorded data contributed to the detection analysis (e.g. computation of Z-score and its confidence intervals) of the current time point. Therefore, we used a small buffer space to store the newest data and updated the buffer when new data arrived. To minimize the data transfer cost in the buffer space, we used a circular buffering strategy; namely, the newest dataalways overwrote the oldest one.

300

The software consists of multiple task threads⁴⁴. In order to avoid the mutual blocking between multiple tasks, we assigned different tasks on multiple threads running in parallel. The task threads included the acquisition thread, training threads, online decoding threads, user interface (UI) thread and external device controlling thread (Extended Data Fig. 2a). A custom GUI was designed and managed by the UI thread, allowing the visualization of the streaming neural signals as well as the response for user operations (Extended Data Fig. 2b).

307

308 Complete Freund's Adjuvant (CFA) administration

To induce chronic inflammatory pain, 0.1 mL of CFA (*Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, Sigma-Aldrich) was suspended in an oil saline 1:1 emulsion and injected subcutaneously into the plantar aspect of the hind paw. CFA injections were administered into the paw that was contralateral to implanted recording electrodes.

313

314 Spared nerve injury (SNI) procedure

315 SNI procedure was performed as described previously⁴⁵. After rats were anesthetized with 316 isoflurane (1.5 to 2%), the skin on the lateral surface of the thighs was incised. The bicep femoris 317 was dissected to expose the sciatic nerve and its three terminal branches: sural, common 318 peroneal, and tibial nerves. The common peroneal and tibial nerves were tied off with 319 nonabsorbent 5-0 silk sutures at the proximal point of the trifurcation, and then cut distal to each 320 knot to prevent reattachments. The muscle layer was then sutured closed with 4-0 absorbable sutures and the skin was sutured closed with 3-0 silk sutures. SNI procedure was always done onthe side contralateral to implanted recording electrodes.

323

324 Hargreaves Test (Plantar Test)

The Hargreaves test was performed to evaluate the rats' response to acute thermal stimulation. A 325 mobile radiant heat-emitting device with an aperture of 10 mm (37370 plantar test, Ugo Basile) 326 was used to produce acute thermal stimulation of the plantar surface of the hind paw. The rats 327 were placed in a plexiglass chamber over a Hargreaves glass table and allowed to habituate. An 328 329 average of at least 5 trials were performed to measure the latency to paw withdrawal for each testing condition. This latency was automatically recorded, and an average latency across the 330 trials was computed. Paw withdrawals resulting from locomotion or weight shifting were not 331 counted and the trials were repeated in such cases. Measurements were repeated at 332 approximately 5-min intervals. An IR intensity of 70 was used to provide noxious stimulation, 333 and intensity of 10 was used as control for thermal stimulation that was not noxious. IR stimuli 334 were terminated by paw withdrawals or held continuously for 5 s. 335

336

For BMI experiments, the SSM was trained with 1-5 trials of noxious stimulus at the beginning of the experiment. Following this, an average of at least 5 trials were performed with activation of the BMI to test the efficacy of the BMI in inhibiting peripheral pain response. Measurements were repeated at 3-5 min intervals.

341 Mechanical pain detection

Rats with optic fiber and silicon probe implants were given 30 min to habituate in a plexiglass chamber over a mesh table. The SSM was trained using a noxious stimulus (pin prick, or PP, in 344 naive rats, and 6g von Frey filaments, or vF, in CFA- or SNI-treated rats). The noxious stimulus was applied to the plantar surface of the hind paw contralateral to the ACC recording site in free-345 moving rats. Noxious stimulations were terminated by paw withdrawal. Following model 346 training, a period of rest was given the rats to avoid behavioral or neural hypersensitivity. A total 347 of 20-25 trials were then performed with each stimulus (equal number for each stimulation type 348 with variable inter-trial intervals) to generate Raster plots and to assess pain detection accuracy. 349 As a control, a non-noxious stimulus (6g vF in naive rats and 0.4g vF in CFA- or SNI-treated 350 rats) was delivered to the plantar surface of the hind paw contralateral to the brain recording site 351 in free-moving rats. Non-noxious stimulations were applied for approximately 5 s or until paw 352 withdrawal. 353

354

355 Mechanical allodynia test

A Dixon up-down method with vF filaments was used to measure mechanical allodynia⁴⁵. Prior to testing, the rats were placed in a plexiglass container over a mesh table and acclimated for 20 minutes. A set with logarithmically incremental stiffness (0.45, 0.75, 1.20, 2.55, 4.40, 6.10, 10.50, 15.10) were applied to the hind paw in order to calculate 50% withdrawal thresholds.

360

For BMI experiments, CFA or SNI-treated rats with optic fiber and electrode implants were placed in a plexiglass chamber over a mesh table and allowed to habituate. 1-5 trials of 6g vF stimulus delivered to the hind paw of the rat were used to train the SSM. Subsequently the rats were allowed a period of rest to avoid hypersensitivity. The testing trials followed the Dixon updown method. Trials with detection were used to calculate 50% withdrawal thresholds. All 366 stimulations were applied to the plantar surface of the hind paw contralateral to the brain 367 recording site.

368

369 Conditioned place aversion test for evoked pain

CPA experiments were conducted in a connected two-chamber device. Animal movements in 370 each chamber were recorded by a high-speed camera from above the chamber and analyzed with 371 the AnyMaze software (Stoelting Co.), followed by visual verification of the recorded videos by 372 an independent experimenter. The CPA protocol consists of preconditioning (baseline), 373 374 conditioning, and testing phases. During 10-min preconditioning, the rat was allowed to move freely between the two chambers, and the time spent in each chamber was recorded. Rats that 375 spent more than 500 s or less than 100 s in each chamber during the preconditioning phase were 376 not used in further testing. After the training of the model, the rat was then conditioned with 377 either BMI or random optogenetic activation of the PFC. One of the chambers was paired with 378 BMI and the other chamber with random optogenetic activation of matching intensity, number 379 and duration (control). The animal was confined to one of the associated chambers during each 380 conditioning phase. During conditioning with BMI, the total number and duration of optogenetic 381 382 activation events were calculated. The same number and duration of optogenetic activation was randomly delivered in the opposite control chamber. Optogenetic activation and chamber 383 pairings were counterbalanced. The same peripheral stimulus was used in both chambers during 384 385 the conditioning. PP and 6g vF (control) were used for the testing of naïve rats. For experiments with CFA- and SNI-treated rats, 6g vF and 0.4g vF (control) were used to deliver peripheral 386 stimulus to the hind paw, whereas 6g stimulus was used to train the model. During the test phase, 387

the animal was not given any peripheral stimulus or optogenetic activation and had access tomove freely between the chambers. The time spent in each chamber was recorded and analyzed.

390

391 Conditioned place aversion test for tonic pain

CPA experiments were conducted for CFA- or SNI-treated rats in a connected two-chamber 392 device. Animal movements in each chamber were recorded by a high-speed camera from above 393 the chamber and analyzed with the AnyMaze software, followed by visual verification of the 394 recorded videos by an independent experimenter. The CPA protocol consists of preconditioning 395 (baseline), conditioning, and testing phases. During the 10 min of preconditioning, the rat was 396 allowed to move freely between the two chambers, and the time spent in each chamber was 397 recorded. Rats that spent more than 500 s or less than 100 s in each chamber during the 398 preconditioning phase were not used in further analysis. Following preconditioning, the SSM 399 was trained with 6g vF filament stimulation of the hind paw. During conditioning (60 min total), 400 no peripheral stimulus was given, but rats received either BMI-triggered optogenetic activation 401 of the prelimbic PFC or random PFC (control) activations of matching duration and intensity. 402 The animal was confined to one of the associated chambers during each conditioning phase. 403 During conditioning with BMI, the total number and duration of optogenetic activation events 404 were calculated, and the same number and duration of activation was randomly delivered in the 405 opposite control chamber. Furthermore, optogenetic activation and chamber pairings were 406 407 counterbalanced. During the test phase, the animal was not given any peripheral stimulus or optogenetic activation and had access to move freely between the chambers. The time spent in 408 each chamber was recorded and analyzed. 409

410

411 Offline data statistical analysis

The neural data and behavior data were offline analyzed by custom MATLAB (Version 2018, 412 MathWorks) scripts, NeuroExplorer (Version 5.0, NeuroExplorer) and GraphPad Prism Version 413 8 software (GraphPad). Online-sorted spikes were further offline spike sorted by Offline Sorter 414 (4.0, Plexon). For each sorted neuron, a peri-stimulation time histograms (PSTH) was generated 415 5 s before and after the onset of the peripheral stimulus with 100 ms bin size. The normalized Z-416 score firing rates at each bin was calculated by the following equation: $Z = (FR - mean \text{ of } FR_b) / R_b$ 417 standard deviation of FR_b, where FR indicates firing rate and FR_b indicates baseline firing rate 418 419 prior to stimulus. A positive or negative response unit was defined by at least 2 consecutive bins firing rates were higher or lower than mean of FR_b+/-3 standard deviation of FR_b within the 420 range (0-5 s) for Hargreaves Test or (0-1 s) for PP and vF test. The cumulative firing rate was 421 calculated by MATLAB function trapz. Positive pain onset detection trials were defined by SSM 422 prediction within 5 seconds after stimulus (0-5 s). Detection rates were calculated by positive 423 pain onset detection trials divided total stimulus trials. Student's t test was used to compare z 424 scored firing rates across different conditions, and paired t test was used for repeated data. 425 Fisher's exact test was used to analyze the population changes for pain response 426

427

The results of behavioral experiments were given as mean \pm S.E.M. For mechanical allodynia, a one way ANOVA with repeated measures and post-hoc multiple pair-wise comparison Bonferroni tests was used to compute the 50% withdrawal threshold over time, whereas an unpaired Student's t test was used to calculate the difference in allodynia between BMI and control conditions. During the CPA test, a paired Student's t test was used to compare the time spent in each treatment chamber before and after conditioning (i.e. preconditioning vs testing phase for each chamber). A CPA score was calculated by subtracting the time spent in the more
noxious chamber during the testing phase from the time spent in that chamber during the
preconditioning phase. A two-tailed unpaired Student's t test was used to compare differences in
CPA scores under various testing conditions.

438

439 Immunohistochemistry

Rats were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane and transcardially perfused with ice-cold PBS.
Brains were fixed in paraformaldehyde overnight and then transferred to 30% sucrose in PBS for
3 days. Next, 20µm coronal sections were collected using Leica CM3050S cryostat] (Leica
Biosystems). Images containing electrodes of cannula were stained with cresyl violet and viewed
using an Axio Zoom widefield microscope (Carl Zeiss).

445

446 Acknowledgments

This work was supported by NIH grants R01-NS100065 (Z.S.C., J.W.), R01-GM115384 (J.W.)
and R01-MH118928 (Z.S.C.), and NSF grant CBET-1835000 (Z.S.C., J.W.).

449

450 Author contributions

- J.W. and Z.S.C. conceived and designed the study; Q.Z., S.H., R.T., A.S., B.C., Z.X., D.R., A.L.,
- and J.D.G. collected the data; Q.Z., A.S., Z.X., J.D.G., and R.T. analyzed the data; S.H., Z.X.
- 453 and Z.S.C. contributed to BMI software development; J.W. and Z.S.C. supervised the project;
- 454 J.W. and Z.S.C. wrote the manuscript with input from other authors.

455

456 Competing interests

458

- Basbaum, A.I., Bautista, D.M., Scherrer, G. & Julius, D. Cellular and molecular mechanisms of
 pain. *Cell* 139, 267-284 (2009).
- 461 2. Sadtler, P.T., et al. Neural constraints on learning. Nature 512, 423-426 (2014).
- Berenyi, A., Belluscio, M., Mao, D. & Buzsaki, G. Closed-loop control of epilepsy by transcranial
 electrical stimulation. *Science* 337, 735-737 (2012).
- 464 4. Bergey, G.K., *et al.* Long-term treatment with responsive brain stimulation in adults with 465 refractory partial seizures. *Neurology* **84**, 810-817 (2015).
- 466 5. Heck, C.N., *et al.* Two-year seizure reduction in adults with medically intractable partial onset 467 epilepsy treated with responsive neurostimulation: final results of the RNS System Pivotal trial.

468 *Epilepsia* **55**, 432-441 (2014).

- 469 6. Morrell, M.J. & Group, R.N.S.S.i.E.S. Responsive cortical stimulation for the treatment of
 470 medically intractable partial epilepsy. *Neurology* **77**, 1295-1304 (2011).
- 471 7. Ajiboye, A.B., *et al.* Restoration of reaching and grasping movements through brain-controlled
 472 muscle stimulation in a person with tetraplegia: a proof-of-concept demonstration. *Lancet* 389,
 473 1821-1830 (2017).
- 474 8. Taylor, D.M., Tillery, S.I. & Schwartz, A.B. Direct cortical control of 3D neuroprosthetic devices.
 475 Science 296, 1829-1832 (2002).
- 476 9. Hochberg, L.R., *et al.* Neuronal ensemble control of prosthetic devices by a human with
 477 tetraplegia. *Nature* 442, 164-171 (2006).
- 478 10. Hochberg, L.R., *et al.* Reach and grasp by people with tetraplegia using a neurally controlled
 479 robotic arm. *Nature* 485, 372-375 (2012).

- 480 11. Collinger, J.L., *et al.* High-performance neuroprosthetic control by an individual with tetraplegia.
 481 *Lancet* 381, 557-564 (2013).
- 482 12. Aflalo, T., *et al.* Neurophysiology. Decoding motor imagery from the posterior parietal cortex of
 483 a tetraplegic human. *Science* 348, 906-910 (2015).
- 484 13. Wenger, N., *et al.* Closed-loop neuromodulation of spinal sensorimotor circuits controls refined
- 485 locomotion after complete spinal cord injury. *Science translational medicine* **6**, 255ra133 (2014).
- 486 14. Wagner, F.B., *et al.* Targeted neurotechnology restores walking in humans with spinal cord
 487 injury. *Nature* 563, 65-71 (2018).
- 488 15. Anumanchipalli, G.K., Chartier, J. & Chang, E.F. Speech synthesis from neural decoding of spoken
 489 sentences. *Nature* 568, 493-498 (2019).
- 490 16. Turnbull, I.M. Bilateral cingulumotomy combined with thalamotomy or mesencephalic
 491 tractotomy for pain. *Surgery, gynecology & obstetrics* 134, 958-962 (1972).
- 492 17. Rainville, P., Duncan, G.H., Price, D.D., Carrier, B. & Bushnell, M.C. Pain affect encoded in human
 493 anterior cingulate but not somatosensory cortex. *Science* 277, 968-971 (1997).
- 494 18. Foltz, E.L. & White, L.E. The role of rostral cingulumotomy in "pain" relief. *International journal*495 *of neurology* 6, 353-373 (1968).
- 496 19. Qu, C., *et al.* Lesion of the rostral anterior cingulate cortex eliminates the aversiveness of
 497 spontaneous neuropathic pain following partial or complete axotomy. *Pain* 152, 1641-1648
 498 (2011).
- Johansen, J.P., Fields, H.L. & Manning, B.H. The affective component of pain in rodents: direct
 evidence for a contribution of the anterior cingulate cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **98**, 8077-8082 (2001).

- LaGraize, S.C., Borzan, J., Peng, Y.B. & Fuchs, P.N. Selective regulation of pain affect following
 activation of the opioid anterior cingulate cortex system. *Experimental neurology* 197, 22-30
 (2006).
- 505 22. Lubar, J.F. Effect of Medial Cortical Lesions on the Avoidance Behavior of the Cat. *Journal of* 506 *comparative and physiological psychology* **58**, 38-46 (1964).
- 507 23. Melzack, R.a.C., K.L. Sensory, motivational, and central control determinants of pain: a new 508 conceptual model. . *The Skin Senses.*, 423-443 (1968).
- 509 24. Chen, Z., Zhang, Q., Tong, A.P., Manders, T.R. & Wang, J. Deciphering neuronal population codes
 510 for acute thermal pain. *Journal of neural engineering* 14, 036023 (2017).
- 511 25. Hu, S., Zhang, Q., Wang, J. & Chen, Z. Real-time particle filtering and smoothing algorithms for
 512 detecting abrupt changes in neural ensemble spike activity. *Journal of neurophysiology* 119,
 513 1394-1410 (2018).
- Lee, M., *et al.* Activation of corticostriatal circuitry relieves chronic neuropathic pain. *The Journal*of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience **35**, 5247-5259 (2015).
- 516 27. Martinez, E., *et al.* Corticostriatal Regulation of Acute Pain. *Frontiers in cellular neuroscience* 11,
 517 146 (2017).
- 518 28. Zhang, Z., et al. Role of Prelimbic GABAergic Circuits in Sensory and Emotional Aspects of
 519 Neuropathic Pain. Cell reports 12, 752-759 (2015).
- 520 29. Hardy, S.G. Analgesia elicited by prefrontal stimulation. *Brain research* **339**, 281-284 (1985).
- 521 30. Kiritoshi, T., Ji, G. & Neugebauer, V. Rescue of Impaired mGluR5-Driven Endocannabinoid
- 522 Signaling Restores Prefrontal Cortical Output to Inhibit Pain in Arthritic Rats. *The Journal of* 523 *neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience* **36**, 837-850 (2016).
- 524 31. Zhang, Q., *et al.* Chronic pain induces generalized enhancement of aversion. *eLife* **6**(2017).

- 525 32. Zhou, H., *et al.* Ketamine reduces aversion in rodent pain models by suppressing hyperactivity of
 526 the anterior cingulate cortex. *Nature communications* 9, 3751 (2018).
- 527 33. Dale, J., *et al.* Scaling Up Cortical Control Inhibits Pain. *Cell reports* **23**, 1301-1313 (2018).
- 528 34. King, T., *et al.* Unmasking the tonic-aversive state in neuropathic pain. *Nature neuroscience* 12, 1364-1366 (2009).
- 530 35. Decosterd, I. & Woolf, C.J. Spared nerve injury: an animal model of persistent peripheral 531 neuropathic pain. *Pain* **87**, 149-158 (2000).
- 532 36. De Felice, M., *et al.* Capturing the aversive state of cephalic pain preclinically. *Annals of* 533 *neurology* (2013).
- Navratilova, E., *et al.* Endogenous opioid activity in the anterior cingulate cortex is required for
 relief of pain. *The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience* 35,
 7264-7271 (2015).
- 537 38. Xiao, Z., et al. Cortical Pain Processing in the Rat Anterior Cingulate Cortex and Primary
 538 Somatosensory Cortex. Frontiers in cellular neuroscience 13, 165 (2019).
- 39. Karim, F., Wang, C.C. & Gereau, R.W.t. Metabotropic glutamate receptor subtypes 1 and 5 are
 activators of extracellular signal-regulated kinase signaling required for inflammatory pain in
 mice. *The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience* 21, 37713779 (2001).
- 40. Hu, H.J., Alter, B.J., Carrasquillo, Y., Qiu, C.S. & Gereau, R.W.t. Metabotropic glutamate receptor
 544 5 modulates nociceptive plasticity via extracellular signal-regulated kinase-Kv4.2 signaling in
 545 spinal cord dorsal horn neurons. *The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society*546 *for Neuroscience* 27, 13181-13191 (2007).

547	41.	O'Callaghan, J.P. & Holtzman, S.G. Quantification of the analgesic activity of narcotic antagonists
548		by a modified hot-plate procedure. The Journal of pharmacology and experimental therapeutics
549		192 , 497-505 (1975).
550	42.	Cheppudira, B.P. Characterization of hind paw licking and lifting to noxious radiant heat in the

- rat with and without chronic inflammation. *Journal of neuroscience methods* **155**, 122-125 (2006).
- 553 43. Chen, Z. Advanced state space methods for neural and clinical data., (Cambridge University
 554 Press, 2015).
- Hu S, Z.Q., Wang J, Chen Z. A real-time rodent neural interface for deciphering acute pain
 signals from neuronal ensemble spike activity. *Proc. Asilomar Conf. Signals, Systems & Computers*, 93-97 (2017).
- 558 45. Wang, J., *et al.* A single subanesthetic dose of ketamine relieves depression-like behaviors 559 induced by neuropathic pain in rats. *Anesthesiology* **115**, 812-821 (2011).

560

561

562 Figure Legends

Fig 1. Design of a closed-loop brain-machine interface (BMI) to detect and treat pain. a, 563 Schematic of BMI that consists for three steps: (1) Neural recording and online signal processing 564 including spike sorting; (2) neural decoding for pain onset detection based on sorted units; (3) 565 pain onset detection to trigger therapeutic neurostimulation. b, Placement of optic fiber in the 566 prelimbic prefrontal cortex (PFC) and recording electrodes in the anterior cingulate cortex 567 (ACC). c, Left: schematic of the state-space model (SSM) for detecting the change point (pain 568 onset) from the neuronal ensemble spike activity. Right: an example of pain onset detection 569 using the SSM-based decoding strategy. The SSM parameters were inferred from the ACC 570

ensemble spike data directly in the training stage, and the Z-score (red trace) was calculated from
the inferred latent variable (see Methods).

573

Fig 2. Closed-loop BMI control of acute mechanical and thermal pain. a, Schematic of BMI 574 experiments during thermal pain delivery with an infrared (IR) emitter. Stimulus presentation 575 lasted until paw withdrawal or 5 s. b, Peripheral nocifensive behavioral response to thermal 576 stimulation. A noxious stimulus (IR 70) triggered paw withdrawals, whereas a non-noxious 577 stimulus (IR 10) did not. n = 7-17; p < 0.0001, unpaired Student's t test. c, d, The SSM-based 578 579 decoder detected the onset of a pain episode in a single trial in response to noxious stimulation (IR 70), in contrast to a trial with non-noxious stimulation (IR 10). Rasters show online sorted 580 population spike counts with a bin size of 50 ms. The color bar indicates spike count, with the 581 darker color representing greater spike counts. The red curve represents the estimated Z-score 582 from the univariate latent state, and the shaded area marks the confidence intervals (see 583 Methods). Horizontal dashed lines mark the thresholds for statistical significance. The vertical 584 lines indicate the time of peripheral stimulation; red: noxious stimulus; green: non-noxious 585 stimulus. e, Accuracy of SSM-based decoder in detecting acute thermal pain. n = 7-18; p < 586 0.0001, unpaired Student's t test. f, Schematic of SSM-decoder training and behavior testing 587 with BMI. g, Pain onset detection occurred prior to withdrawal responses to noxious thermal 588 stimulations. n = 9; p = 0.0057, paired Student's t test. h, Application of the closed-loop BMI 589 prolonged the withdrawal latency on Hargreaves' test. No opto vs. BMI opto: n = 8; p = 0.0074, 590 no opto vs. manual opto: n = 8; p = 0.0027, BMI opto vs. manual opto: n = 8; p = 0.4486, one-591 way ANOVA, Tukey's multiple comparisons test with repeated measures. i, Schematic of BMI 592 593 experiments during mechanical stimulus delivery. *j*, Peripheral nocifensive behavioral response

594 to mechanical stimulation. A noxious stimulus (pin prick or PP) triggered paw withdrawals, whereas a non-noxious stimulus (6g von Frev filament, or vF) did not. n = 9; p < 0.0001, paired 595 Student's t test. k, l, The SSM-based decoder detected the onset of a pain episode in a single trial 596 in response to noxious stimulation (PP), in contrast to a trial with non-noxious stimulation (6g 597 vF). m, Accuracy of SSM-based decoder in detecting mechanical pain. n = 9; p = 0.0002, paired 598 Student's t test. n, Schematic of CPA to assess pain aversion. In a two-chamber set up, aversive 599 response was triggered by a noxious mechanical stimulus (PP) applied to the hind paws. One of 600 the chambers was paired with BMI, and the opposite chamber was paired with random PFC 601 activation of matching duration and intensity. **o**, After conditioning, rats preferred BMI treatment 602 in the presence of acute pain stimuli. n = 9; p = 0.0007, paired Student's t test. p, YFP control 603 rats demonstrated no preference for the BMI treatment. n = 4; p = 0.5657, paired Student's t test. 604 **q**, CPA scores for BMI treatment in rats that experienced acute mechanical pain. n = 4-9; p =605 0.0147, unpaired Student's t test. r, Left: a representative ACC neuron increased firing rates in 606 response to a noxious thermal stimulus (IR 70). Right: BMI reduced firing rate changes in 607 response to the noxious stimulus. Time 0 indicates the onset of the stimulus. FR: firing rates. s, 608 BMI treatment reduced the peak firing rates of pain-responsive ACC neurons in response to the 609 noxious stimulus (see Methods). n = 33, p = 0.0004, paired Student's t test. t, BMI treatment 610 reduced cumulative firing rate response of ACC neurons over a 5-s period (within the [0, 5] s 611 range, where time 0 indicates the onset of the stimulus) in response to the noxious stimulus. n =612 613 33, p = 0.0135, paired Student's t test.

614

Fig 3. Closed-loop BMI control of evoked pain in models of chronic inflammatory and neuropathic pain. a, Schematic for the CFA model of inflammatory pain. b, Peripheral 617 allodynia response after CFA treatment. 6g vF triggered paw withdrawals, whereas 0.4g vF did not. n = 7; p = 0.0008, paired Student's t test. c, d, The SSM-based decoder detected the onset of 618 a pain episode in a single trial in response to peripheral allodynia-inducing stimulus (6g vF) in a 619 CFA-treated rat, in contrast to a trial with a non-allodynia-inducing stimulus (0.4g vF). 620 Population spike counts of sorted ACC units with a bin size of 50 ms. The color bar indicates 621 spike count, with the darker color representing greater spike counts. The red curve represents the 622 estimated Z-score from the univariate latent state, and the shaded area marks the confidence 623 intervals. Horizontal dashed lines mark the significance thresholds. The vertical lines indicate the 624 625 time of peripheral stimulation; red: noxious stimulus; green: non-noxious stimulus. e, Accuracy of SSM-based decoder in detecting the onset of mechanical allodynia in CFA-treated rats. n = 7; 626 p = 0.0008, paired Student's t test. f, Closed-loop BMI inhibited mechanical allodynia in CFA-627 treated rats. n = 4-6; p = 0.0002, unpaired Student's t test. g, Schematic of the CPA assay in 628 CFA-treated rats. Aversive response was triggered by an allodynia-inducing mechanical stimulus 629 (6g vF) applied in both chambers. One of the chambers was paired with BMI, and the opposite 630 chamber was paired with random PFC activation of matching duration and intensity. h, BMI 631 treatment reduced aversion associated with mechanical allodynia (triggered by the 6g vF 632 stimulus) in the CFA model. n = 8; p = 0.0007, paired Student's t test. i, YFP control rats 633 demonstrated no preference for the BMI treatment. n = 4; p = 0.6191, paired Student's t test. j, 634 CPA scores for BMI treatment in CFA-treated rats. n = 4-8; p = 0.0062, unpaired Student's t test. 635 636 **k**, Schematic for the SNI model of chronic neuropathic pain. **I**, Peripheral allodynia response after SNI. 6g vF triggered paw withdrawals, whereas 0.4g vF did not. n = 6; p < 0.0001, paired 637 Student's t test. m, n, The SSM-based decoder detected the onset of a pain episode in a single 638 trial in response to peripheral allodynia-inducing stimulus (6g vF) in a SNI-treated rat, in 639

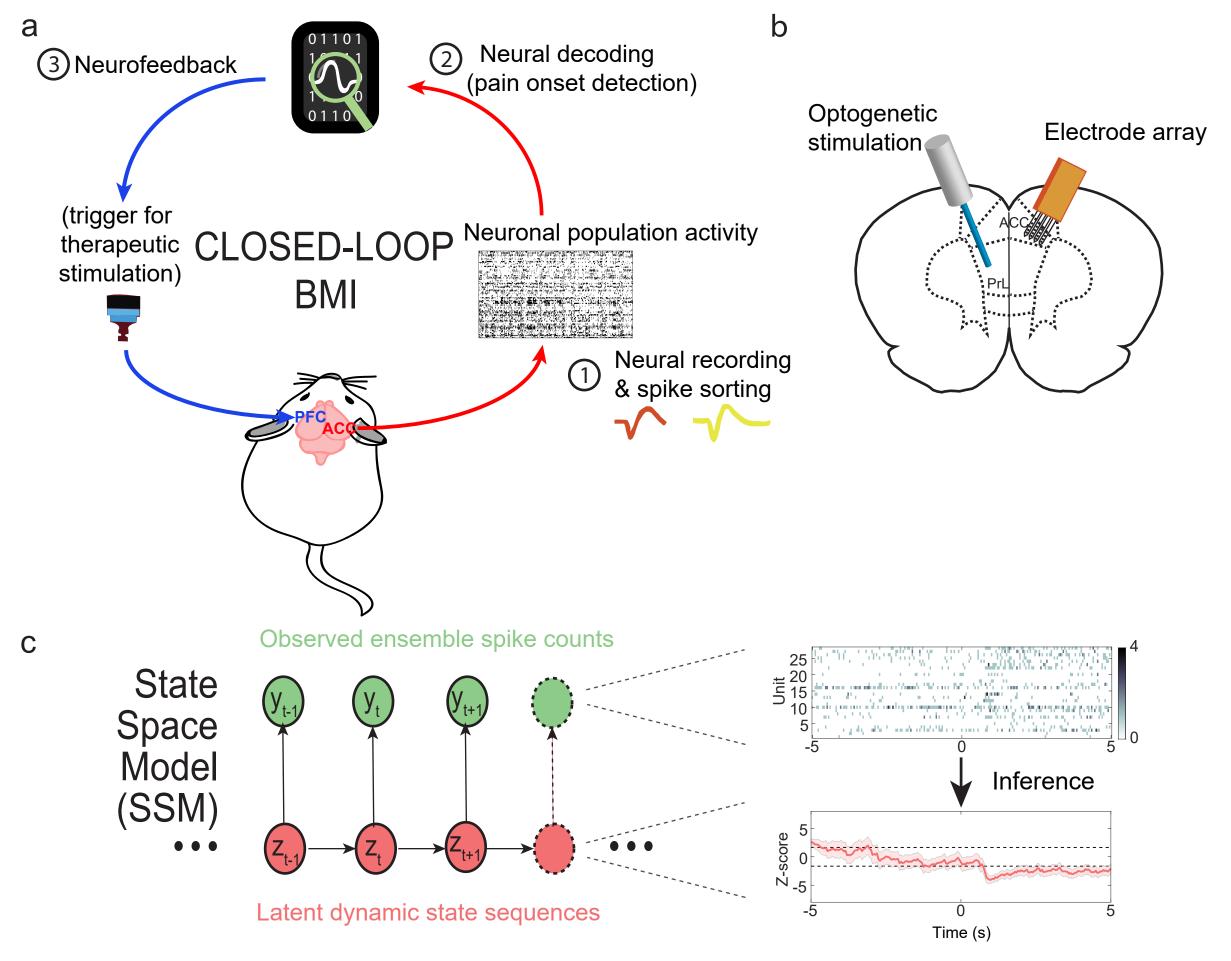
contrast to a trial with a non-allodynia-inducing stimulus (0.4g vF). o, Accuracy of SSM-based 640 decoder in detecting mechanical allodynia in SNI-treated rats. n = 6; p = 0.0008, paired Student's 641 t test. **p.** Closed-loop BMI inhibited mechanical allodvnia in the SNI model. n = 4-5; p = 0.0004. 642 unpaired Student's t test. q, Schematic of the CPA assay in SNI-treated rats. Aversive response 643 was triggered by an allodynia-inducing mechanical stimulus (6g vF) applied in both chambers. 644 One of the chambers was paired with BMI, and the opposite chamber was paired with random 645 PFC activation of matching duration and intensity. r, BMI treatment reduced aversion associated 646 with mechanical allodynia in the SNI model. n = 6; p = 0.0016, paired Student's t test. s, YFP 647 control rats demonstrated no preference for the BMI treatment. n = 4; p = 0.4102, paired 648 Student's t test. t, CPA scores for BMI treatment in SNI-treated rats. n = 4-6; p = 0.0275, 649 unpaired Student's t test. 650

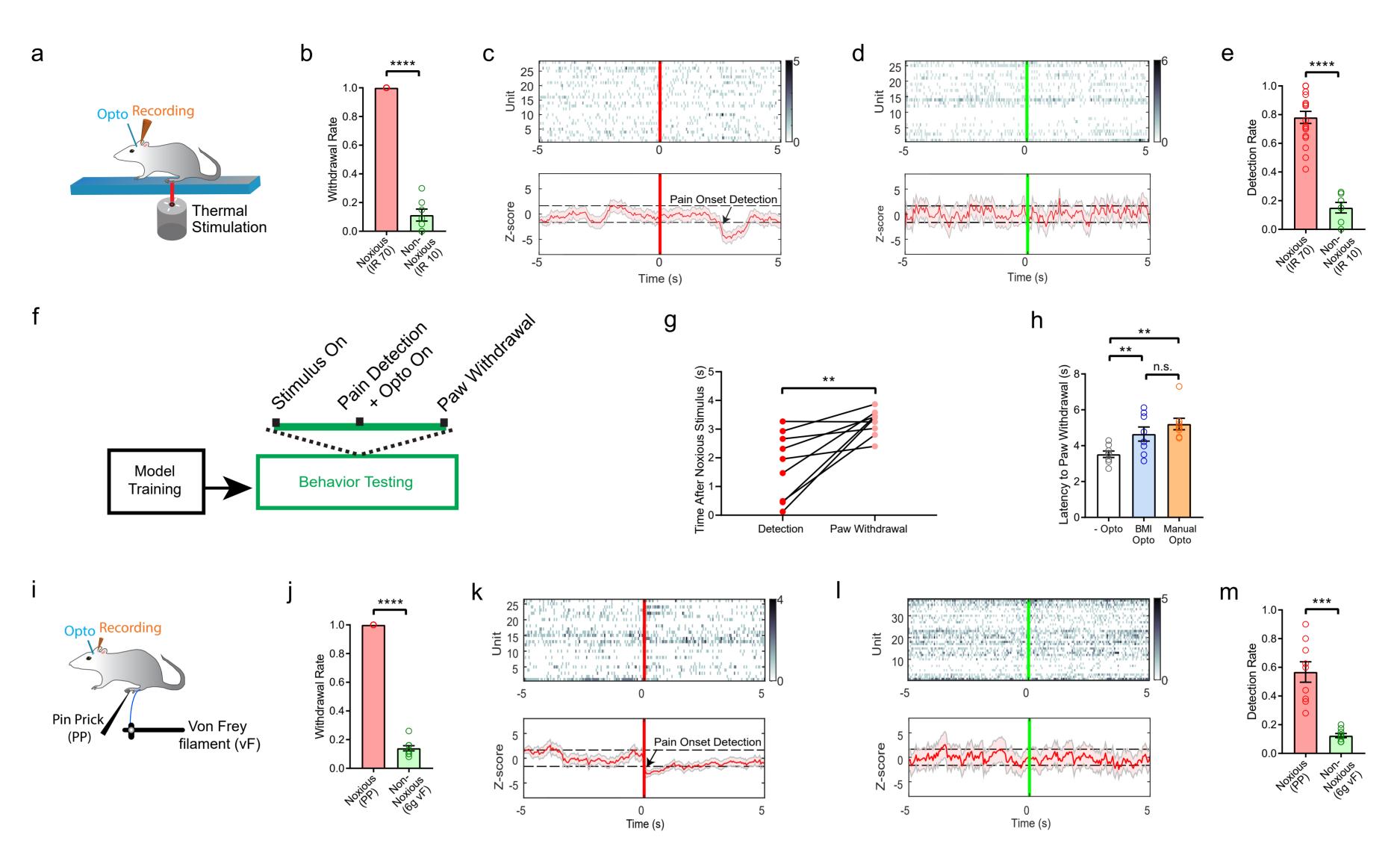
651

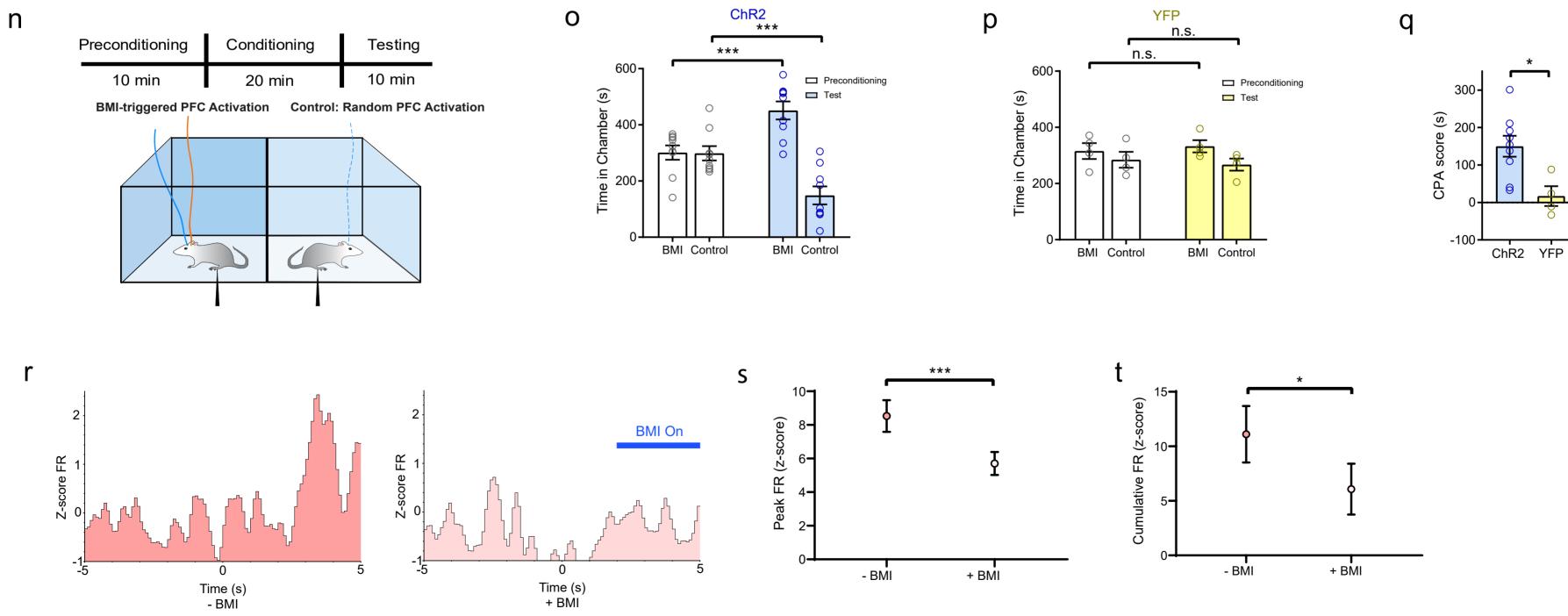
Fig 4. Closed-loop BMI control of spontaneous pain in chronic pain models. a, Schematic of 652 the CPA test in the CFA model to test tonic or spontaneous pain. No peripheral stimuli were 653 given. One of the chambers was paired with BMI, and the opposite chamber was paired with 654 random PFC activation of matching duration and intensity. b, An example of sequential pain 655 onset detection based on the SSM-based decoder in a CFA-treated rat. Arrows indicate detected 656 onset of tonic pain episodes. c, CFA-treated rats prefer the BMI chamber. n = 6; p = 0.0096, 657 paired Student's t test. d, YFP control rats demonstrated no preference for the BMI treatment. n 658 = 4; p = 0.7803, paired Student's t test. e, CPA scores for BMI treatment in CFA-treated rats in 659 reducing tonic pain. n = 4-6; p = 0.0140, unpaired Student's t test. f, Schematic of the CPA test 660 in the SNI models to test tonic pain. No peripheral stimuli were given. One of the chambers was 661 662 paired with BMI, and the opposite chamber was paired with random PFC activation. g, An

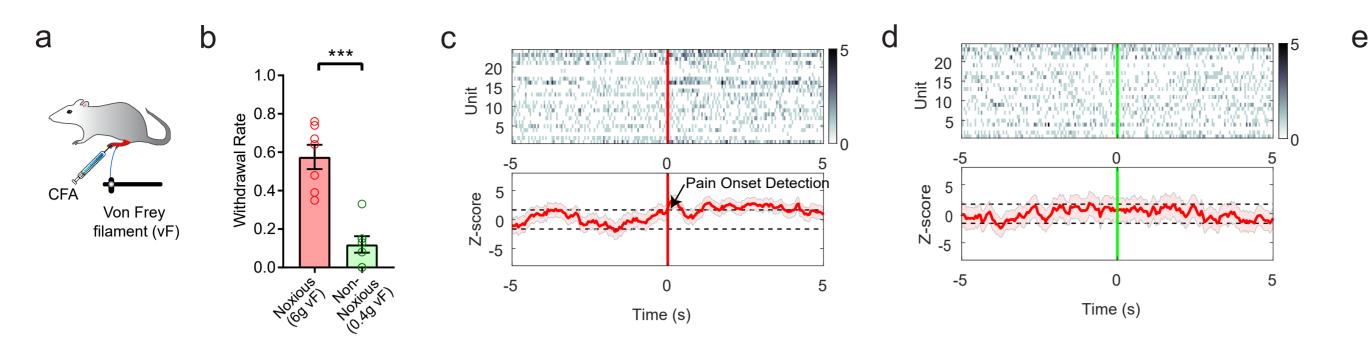
example of sequential pain onset detection based on the SSM-based decoder in a SNI-treated rat. Arrows indicate detected onset of tonic pain episodes. **h**, SNI-treated rats preferred the BMI chamber after conditioning. n = 6; p = 0.0127, paired Student's t test. **i**, YFP control rats demonstrated no preference for the BMI treatment. n = 4; p = 0.9456, paired Student's t test. **j**, CPA scores for BMI treatment in SNI-treated rats. n = 4-6; p = 0.0379, unpaired Student's t test.

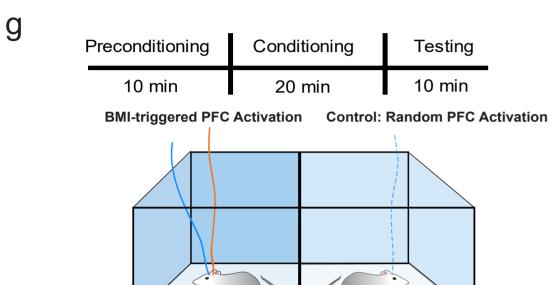
668





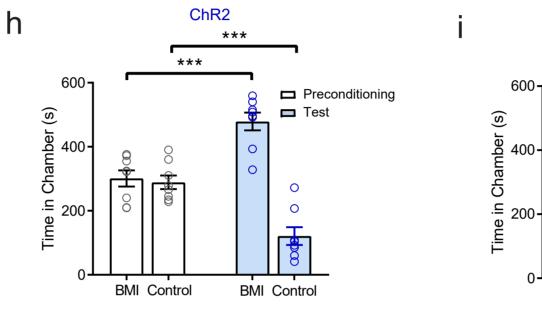


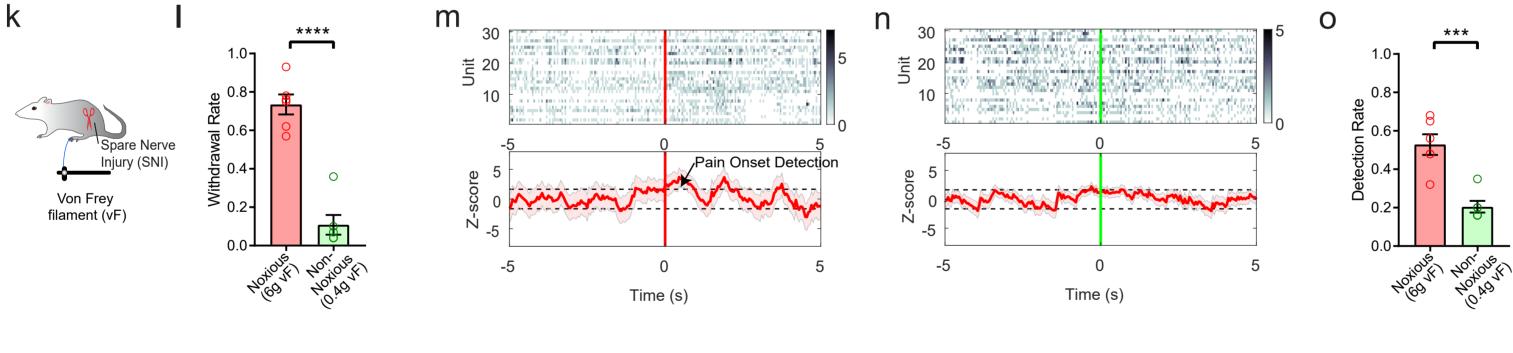


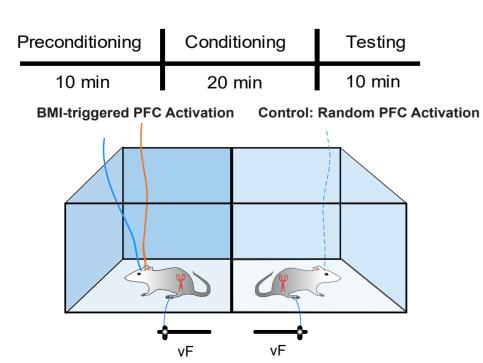


vF

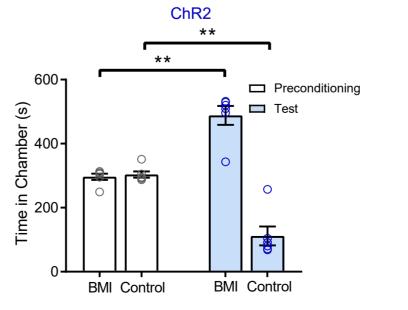
vF

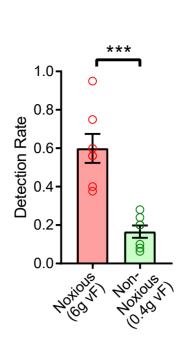


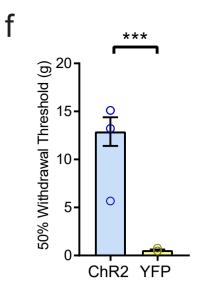


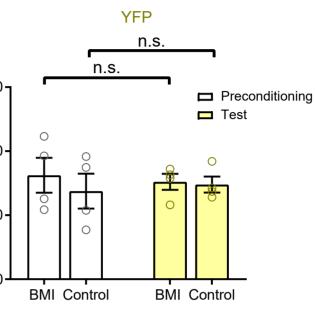


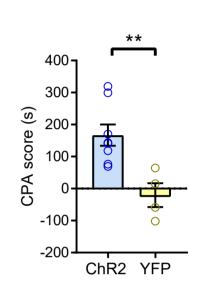
q

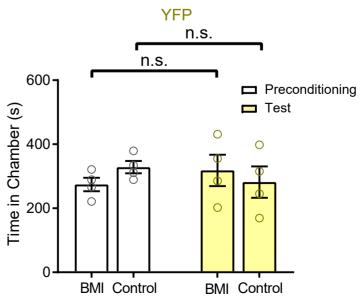




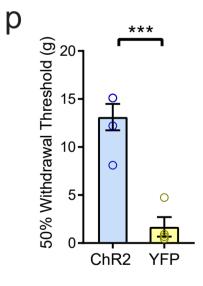




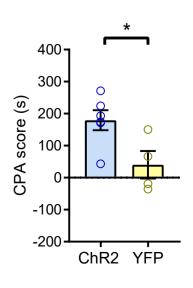


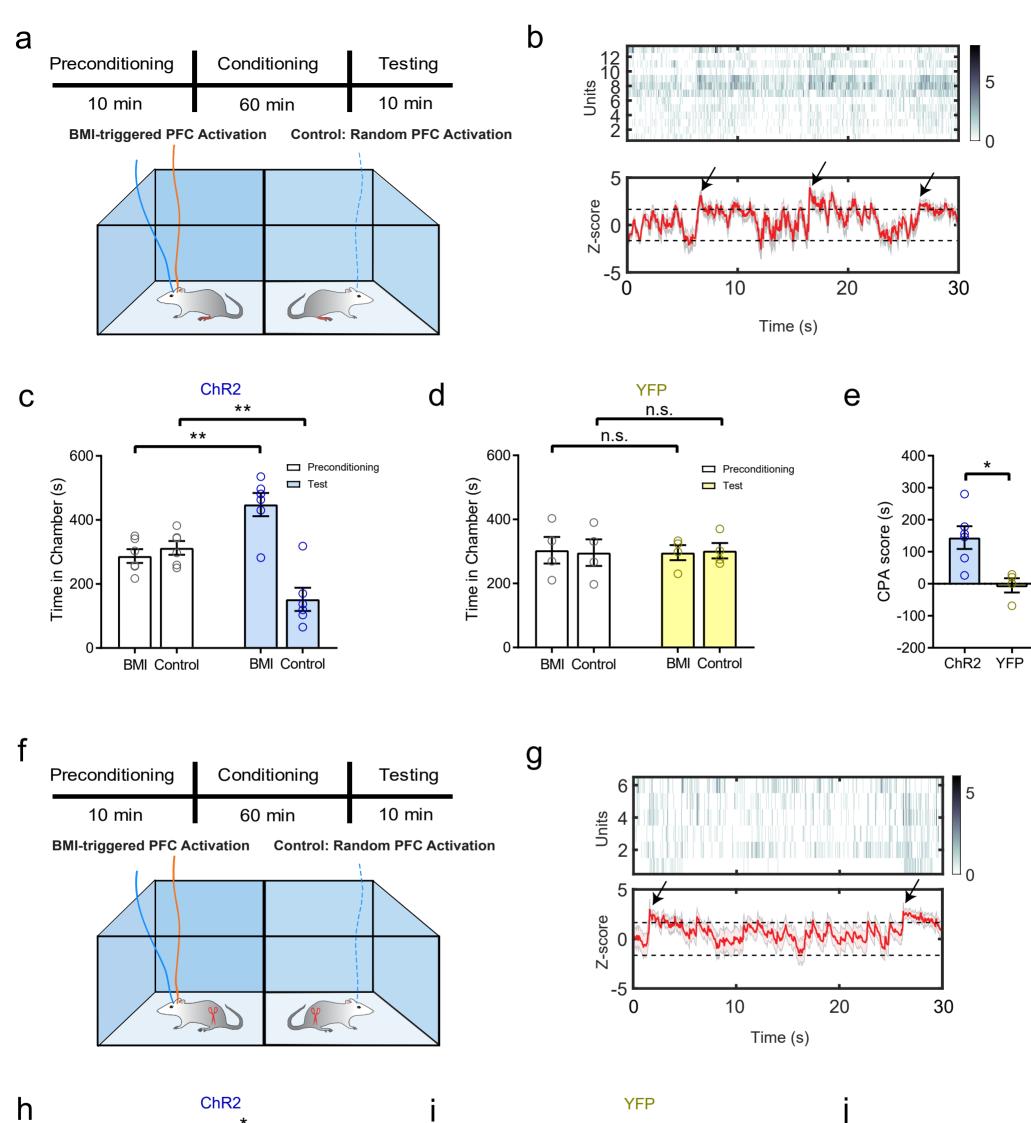


S



t





ChR2 * YFP

Ο

Ο

YFP

