

1 **Impact of second-generation antipsychotics on white matter microstructure in adolescent-onset**
2 **psychosis.**

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26 **Abstract**

27 White matter abnormalities are well-established in adult patients with psychosis. Yet less is known about
28 changes in early onset psychosis (EOP) during adolescence, especially whether antipsychotic
29 medication might impact white matter microstructure in this sensitive phase. Here, we utilized Magnetic
30 Resonance Imaging (MRI) in unmedicated and medicated adolescent EOP patients in comparison to
31 healthy controls to examine the impact of antipsychotic medication status on indices of white matter
32 microstructure. Twenty-two EOP patients (11 unmedicated) and 33 healthy controls, aged between 12-
33 18 years, underwent 3T diffusion-weighted MRI. Using Tract-based Spatial Statistics, we calculate case-
34 control differences in scalar diffusion measures, i.e. fractional anisotropy (FA), axial diffusion (AD) and
35 radial diffusion (RD), and investigated their association with antipsychotic medication. We found
36 significantly lower mean FA and AD in largely overlapping areas, particularly in left anterior corona
37 radiata (ACR), in EOP patients relative to healthy controls. Mean FA in the left ACR was significantly
38 associated with antipsychotic medication status ($t = 2.991$, $p = 0.008$, $R_2 = 0.298$), showing higher FA
39 values in medicated compared to unmedicated EOP patients. The present study is the first to link
40 antipsychotic medication status to altered regional FA in the left ACR, a region being discussed to
41 contribute to the etiology of psychosis. Yet, further work with larger samples is needed to draw firm
42 conclusions about putatively enhancing effects of antipsychotic medication on white matter
43 microstructure early in the disease process.

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54 **Introduction**

55 A variety of hypotheses has been proposed to explain the etiology of psychotic disorders, including
56 aberrant dopamine neurotransmission ¹, altered neurodevelopmental trajectories ², and active
57 neuroinflammation ³. Such theories are not mutually exclusive and are more likely complementary.
58 Patients with early onset psychosis (EOP), with defined age of onset before 18 years, provide an
59 unprecedented opportunity to specifically investigate the perspective of aberrant neurodevelopment.

60 The application of diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) can relate white matter organization to disease.
61 DWI maps the Brownian movement of water molecules in the brain in vivo, and as axon membranes
62 and myelin provide natural barriers for water diffusion, DWI can be used to infer local tissue properties
63 ⁴. The most commonly used scalar measure is fractional anisotropy (FA), which characterizes the degree
64 of diffusion directionality. For an in-depth evaluation of FA, the relative contribution of axial diffusion
65 (AD) along the primary axis, and radial diffusion (RD) perpendicular to it, can be informative. RD has
66 been associated with changes in myelin ⁵, and a disruption of myelin sheaths may be reflected in an
67 increased RD. Conversely, AD has been linked to axonal integrity and axonal damage may be
68 characterized by decreased AD ⁴.

69 Using DWI, a number of studies showed widespread FA reductions in many different brain regions with
70 low spatial overlap such as corpus callosum, cingulum, superior longitudinal fasciculus, inferior
71 longitudinal fasciculus and fronto-occipital fasciculus in EOP patients compared to healthy controls ⁶⁻¹⁰.
72 Scalar DWI measures beyond FA are rarely analyzed in EOP populations. However, Lagopoulos and
73 colleagues report on increased RD values, indicative of potential demyelinating processes underlying
74 the observed white matter abnormalities ¹⁰.

75 The low degree of regional specificity of white matter changes seems to be attributed to a number of
76 factors including differences in image acquisition, different analysis approaches (ROI vs voxel-wise),
77 small sample sizes, low prevalence of EOP (estimated prevalence of 17.6 in 10,000 at age of 18 years
78 ¹¹) and differing sample characteristics such as age of onset. Further, antipsychotic medication status
79 might also affect the pattern of white matter microstructure in EOP.

80 Studies investigating white matter microstructure in EOP mainly focus on case-control differences,
81 either reporting antipsychotic effects as secondary findings or using antipsychotic medication status as
82 a covariate of no interest. So far, studies in EOP patients do not indicate an impact of either current ¹²⁻¹⁴
83 or cumulative antipsychotic exposure ^{6,13,15} on scalar DWI measures. The absence of an antipsychotic
84 medication effect could reflect small sample sizes and young patients with shorter medication histories.
85 The apparent limitations of the adolescent study population also hold potential advantages: EOP patients
86 are less affected by chronic exposure to antipsychotic medication in comparison to their adult
87 counterparts, which allows for dissecting medication-mediated from disease-related effects on brain

88 structure. Furthermore, according to the World Health Organization guideline for pharmacological
89 interventions in adolescents with psychotic disorders (2015), antipsychotic medication use is less
90 recommended in comparison to adult patients with psychosis¹⁶. This partly translates to a clinical
91 practice of a higher reluctance in starting antipsychotic treatment early in the course of psychosis in
92 children and adolescents, leading to a higher percentage of antipsychotic-naïve EOP patients relative to
93 adult first episode patients with psychosis. Thus, EOP patients represent an ideal population to
94 investigate the impact of antipsychotic medication on white matter structure early in disease progression.

95 Here, we use a thoroughly clinically characterized adolescent EOP sample to (1) investigate white matter
96 microstructure in comparison to healthy controls, and (2) explore the association between second-
97 generation antipsychotic medication and white matter microstructure in medicated compared to
98 currently unmedicated/antipsychotic-naïve EOP patients. We utilize DWI and, by using Tract-Based
99 Spatial Statistics (TBSS), we calculate FA and its scalar sub-measures, RD and AD, and investigate
100 their association with antipsychotic medication and other clinical measures (e.g. Positive and Negative
101 Syndrome Scale, etc.). Based on the existing literature, we hypothesized that EOP patients show
102 widespread reduced FA attended by increased RD and unchanged AD compared to healthy controls,
103 mainly in the corpus callosum and superior/inferior longitudinal fasciculus. As there are no established
104 effects of antipsychotic medication on white matter structure in EOP patients, our post hoc analysis is
105 exploratory by nature.

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113 **Results**

114 *Demographic and clinical data*

115 Sample demographics and clinical characteristics separated by antipsychotic medication status of EOP
116 patients are reported in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively.

117 *TBSS analyses*

118 Voxel-wise statistical analysis of case-control differences revealed lower mean FA values in the left
119 genu of the corpus callosum, the left anterior corona radiata (ACR), and the right superior longitudinal
120 fasciculus (SLF) in EOP patients compared to healthy controls (see Figure 1 and Table 3). There was
121 no increase in mean FA for the opposing contrast.

122 Applying the TBSS pipeline to diffusion-derived data other than FA, namely RD and AD, did not yield
123 significant case-control differences for RD, but lower mean AD values overlapping with FA findings in
124 EOP patients in comparison to healthy controls. In detail, mean AD values were significantly lower in
125 the left ACR (Table S2, available online), in addition to lower values in the right posterior limb of the
126 internal capsule (PLIC) and right superior fronto-occipital fasciculus (SFOF).

127 Extracted mean values of all scalar diffusion measures for all significant clusters stratified by group are
128 displayed in supplementary Figure S1 (available online) for descriptive purposes only. In the interest of
129 transparency, TBSS case-control differences in mean FA and mean AD (patients < controls) at a cluster-
130 forming threshold of $p \leq 0.05$ are also presented (see supplementary Figure S2, available online).

131 *Linear regression analyses*

132 To evaluate the potential influence of duration of illness and antipsychotic treatment on regional mean
133 FA and mean AD values within significant TBSS clusters, in patients, linear regression analyses were
134 performed. While duration of illness was not significantly associated with mean FA in any of the clusters,
135 we found a significant negative association with mean AD in the left ACR ($t = -2.364$, $p = 0.029$). For
136 latter association, however, the regression equation was not significant ($p = 0.085$) and the overall
137 explanatory power of the model was low ($R^2 = 0.147$), rendering this finding most likely spurious (see
138 supplementary Table S1, available online).

139 Exposure to antipsychotic medication was significantly associated with mean FA values in the left ACR
140 ($t = 2.991$, $p = 0.008$, $R^2 = 0.298$), showing higher mean FA in medicated relative to the unmedicated
141 patients (Figure 2). There was no association between antipsychotic medication and mean FA or mean
142 AD in the other significant TBSS clusters (see supplementary Table S1, available online). Cohen's d
143 effect size values suggest a high ($d = 1.48$) and a low ($d = -0.08$) standardized difference in mean FA of
144 the left ACR in unmedicated and medicated EOP patients relative to healthy controls, respectively.

145 Cohen's d effect size values suggest a high ($d = 1.48$) and a low ($d = -0.08$) standardized difference in
146 mean FA of the left ACR in unmedicated and medicated EOP patients relative to healthy controls,
147 respectively. Based on visual inspection, higher mean FA in medicated patients seems driven by an
148 increase in AD and a decrease in RD (Figure 2). However, extracted mean AD and RD did not differ
149 significantly between medicated and unmedicated patients (Welch Two Sample t-test, AD: $t = 0.183$, p
150 $= 0.857$; RD: $t = 1.887$, $p = 0.079$).

151 *Association with clinical measures*

152 We found no association between current antipsychotic medication evaluated as chlorpromazine
153 equivalent at scan day (CPZ, Spearman $\rho = 0.13$, $n = 11$, $p = 0.695$) or cumulative CPZ (Pearson $\rho = -$
154 0.15 , $n = 11$, $p = 0.665$) with regional mean FA values in the left ACR.

155 In addition, we also found no significant correlations, which survived correction for multiple
156 comparisons (FA cluster: Bonferroni, $\alpha = 0.003$; AD cluster: Bonferroni, $\alpha = 0.004$), between neither
157 extracted mean FA nor mean AD values of all significant TBSS clusters and clinical measures such as
158 PANSS (neither positive nor negative), CGAS and MFQ scores.

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169 Discussion

170 Our case-control results replicate prominent brain regions with known white matter abnormalities
171 implicated in EOP, namely corpus callosum ⁶, right SLF ^{14,17,18} and the left ACR ^{9,10}. Lower FA in these
172 regions seems to occur early in the disease process ^{10,18,19}. For instance, Lagopoulos and colleagues found
173 a decrease in FA in the left ACR in both patients with established psychiatric disorder and patients
174 exhibiting sub-syndromal symptoms, aged 14-30 years. Based on these findings, the authors proposed
175 that abnormalities in the left ACR are a putative precursor to the development of a psychiatric condition
176 ¹⁰.

177 However, the ACR is a highly heterogeneous structure with three long-range association fiber tracts
178 traversing through it ¹⁰: anterior thalamic radiation (ATR), inferior fronto-occipital fasciculus (IFOF)
179 and uncinate fasciculus (UF). All three association fibers form connections to the frontal lobe and have
180 been implicated in the pathophysiology of psychiatric disorders ^{10,20-22}. In the current study, the left ACR
181 peak voxel shows a 16% probability of IFOF involvement based on the JHU White-Matter Tractography
182 Atlas. The IFOF connects the occipital and temporal lobes with the orbitofrontal cortex as part of the
183 ventral visual and language stream. In particular, the left IFOF seems to subserve language semantics ²³.
184 Already in 1996, Aloia and colleagues proposed that the disruption of semantic networks have potential
185 implications for the origin of “thought disorder” in schizophrenia ²⁴. Adding to this hypothesis, patients
186 with 22q11.2 deletion syndrome, who are genetically at high risk for developing schizophrenia, showed
187 lower FA values in left IFOF ²⁵. Furthermore, DeRosse and colleagues found that lower FA proximal to
188 the SLF and corticospinal tract bilaterally, and left IFOF and left inferior longitudinal fasciculus (ILF),
189 were associated with higher levels of psychotic-like experiences in otherwise healthy volunteers ²⁶. In
190 early-onset schizophrenia (EOS) patients, lower FA in the left IFOF and the left ILF predicted worse
191 neurocognitive performance ⁹. The authors also detected a shared decrease in FA in the left IFOF among
192 patients with clinical high risk for schizophrenia and patients with established EOS, in comparison to
193 healthy controls. Together, these findings suggest that white matter abnormalities in the left ACR,
194 putatively in the left IFOF, may represent a potential candidate for understanding the etiology of
195 psychosis.

196 This assumption seems further supported by effects of antipsychotic medication on diffusion metrics in
197 the left ACR. We found that FA values in the left ACR were significantly predicted by antipsychotic
198 medication status, with higher FA values in medicated relative to unmedicated EOP patients. No such
199 association was found with the other brain regions showing significantly decreased FA values. Besides
200 the high Cohen’s *d* effect size estimate, we found no significant association of regional FA with either
201 current or cumulative antipsychotic exposure. This lack of significant associations is, however, in line
202 with previous studies in EOP patients ^{6,12-15} and likely due to the fairly short medication history in EOP
203 patients compared to their adult-onset counterparts or limited sample size. Hence, the presence of

204 antipsychotic medication rather than the actual dose might induce the observed changes in white matter
205 microstructure.

206 In medicated patients, increased FA values seem to be driven by an increase in AD and a decrease in
207 RD, relative to their unmedicated counterparts (Figure 2). Thus, FA might be enhanced by antipsychotic
208 medication as a result of both facilitated parallel diffusion (AD, potentially mediated by an increase in
209 axon numbers, and restricted perpendicular diffusion (RD), indicative of changes in myelin.

210 Converging evidence from multiple studies suggests oligodendroglial dysfunction, with subsequent
211 abnormalities in myelin maintenance and repair, to underpin white matter abnormalities observed in
212 psychotic patients ²⁷. In the framework of schizophrenia, it has been proposed that myelin dysfunction,
213 especially in frontal regions, contributes to psychotic symptoms ^{13,27}. Based on findings from cell culture
214 studies using aripiprazole ²⁸ and rodent work using quetiapine ^{29,30}, second-generation antipsychotic
215 medication may promote oligodendrocyte recovery and myelin repair leading to reduced white matter
216 abnormalities and, subsequently, reduced psychotic symptoms. A recent study in patients with
217 schizophrenia also reports on promyelinating effects of antipsychotics ³¹. Tishler and colleagues found
218 an increase in intracortical myelin predominantly mediated by risperidone and other second-generation
219 antipsychotics in adult patients with schizophrenia compared to healthy controls within the first year of
220 treatment. In the current study, given that medicated EOP patients either received aripiprazole,
221 quetiapine or risperidone, one might speculate that early medication with second-generation
222 antipsychotics might affect white matter microstructure by remediating oligodendroglial dysfunction,
223 leading to an increase in FA detected by DWI.

224 Even though FA is highly sensitive to microstructural changes in general, it lacks neurobiological
225 specificity to the exact type of change ⁴. For instance, a decrease in FA can reflect alternations in fiber
226 organization, including packing density and fiber crossing, and myelin loss or myelin remodeling ³².
227 The interpretation of FA and its scalar sub-measures is further complicated by the lack of sensitivity in
228 regions of crossing white matter tracts, such as the ACR. Yet, as stated by Alexander and colleagues ⁴,
229 this confound is unavoidable as many areas of the brain have considerable areas of fiber crossing. Here,
230 we found a widespread decrease of AD on a whole brain level, indicative of axonal damage, but no
231 changes were found in RD, relative to healthy controls. This finding is not in line with previous work
232 from Lagopoulos and colleagues, who found a decrease in FA in the left ACR associated with increases
233 in RD and no changes in AD ¹⁰.

234 Although there are likely several reasons for these conflicting findings, neuroinflammatory processes
235 might pose particular difficulties in interpreting DWI signals in psychotic populations ³³. For instance,
236 in an animal model of cuprizone-induced demyelination of corpus callosum, regions with extensive
237 axonal edema and prominent cellular inflammation showed no change in RD, while AD values were
238 diminished at the beginning of demyelination ³⁴. Given the neuroinflammation hypothesis of

239 schizophrenia ³, it seems likely that the disease progression encompasses a dynamic evolution of
240 inflammation, axonal injury, and myelin degeneration. In the current study, one might speculate that
241 EOP patients are on the verge of undergoing demyelination processes, reflected by widespread decreases
242 in AD. However, the timing of neuroinflammation in psychotic disorders relative to tissue injury is
243 unclear, leading to a heightened risk of misinterpreting changes in DWI measures. According to a recent
244 review of Winklewski and colleagues, in cases of neuroinflammation linked to tissue damage, DWI
245 seems to underestimate the extent of demyelination (undervalued RD), and overestimate the extent of
246 axonal injury (overvalued AD) ³⁵. This pattern seems replicated in our study, with significant changes
247 in AD and no changes in RD. As the consistency of DWI metrics seems affected by brain edema and
248 inflammatory response, future studies can benefit from using tools such as free water imaging which
249 provide the opportunity to separate the contribution of extracellular water from the diffusion of water
250 molecules inside the fiber tracts, leading to a higher specificity in detecting structural changes ³⁶.

251 Deviations in scalar DWI measures in the current study relative to previous studies could also be due to
252 ongoing white matter maturation processes in our adolescent EOP sample. In healthy individuals, age-
253 related increases in FA during childhood, adolescence and early adulthood have been consistently
254 reported ³⁷⁻⁴⁰. This increase in FA seems primarily driven by a reduction in RD, while AD remains fairly
255 stable or decreases slightly ^{41,42}. Findings for AD changes during the transition to adulthood are less
256 consistent ³⁷⁻⁴⁰. Thus, the AD difference found in the current study could also be attributed to
257 developmental processes, which may fade as adolescents mature into adulthood.

258 However, it should be noted that the neurodevelopmental trajectories of white matter structure relative
259 to disease progression in EOP patients are unclear. So far, three different studies yielded inconclusive
260 results, either postulating diverging ¹³, converging ⁴³, or parallel ⁴⁴ trajectories relative to healthy controls.
261 In the current study, we did not find any predictive value of duration of illness for regional FA. This is
262 in line with previous findings from Kumra and colleagues, who speculated that lower FA in EOP patients
263 compared to healthy controls reflects developmental abnormalities rather than secondary effects of the
264 disease progression ¹³. In addition, Epstein and Kumra found lower FA in the inferior longitudinal
265 fasciculus, IFOF and corticospinal tract, but no significant group differences in longitudinal changes in
266 FA ⁴⁴. Thus, the observed changes in the current study might persist but do not affect the overall white
267 matter maturation trajectories. However, the cross-sectional nature of the current study precludes the
268 assessment of developmental effects over time.

269 The results of the current study should be considered in the context of several limitations. Unmedicated
270 EOP patients were significantly younger than those receiving medication. Although the analysis was
271 corrected for age, we cannot exclude that the age of the patients contributes to the observed
272 antipsychotic-medication related changes in white matter structure. It is possible that time-of-
273 measurement effects, with older patients having higher FA values than younger patients due to more

274 advanced white matter maturation, could confound our results. However, while we acknowledge this
275 possibility, we consider this unlikely as we would expect differences in FA values in other regions
276 showing a similar maturation trajectory, such as the SLF ⁴¹, if our results were mainly driven by age
277 differences. This was not the case, as we found no significant difference in mean FA values of the SLF
278 between medicated and unmedicated patients ($t = -0.56934$, $p\text{-value} = 0.576$).

279 We are also aware of the limitations of our small sample size. While we acknowledge the possibility
280 that our results might be spurious and limited to our EOP sample, we consider this unlikely to be the
281 driving factor for the following reasons: (1) using a stringent p-value of 0.01 to only accept an error rate
282 of 1% for the whole-brain TBSS (and subsequent mean FA extractions), we replicated white matter
283 microstructure abnormalities in brain regions implicated in the pathophysiology of EOP and adult-onset
284 schizophrenia; and (2) in the current study, patients on second-generation antipsychotic medication
285 received either aripiprazole, quetiapine or risperidone, drugs which have previously been associated
286 with oligodendrocyte recovery and myelin repair in cell-culture ²⁸, rodent ^{29,30} and human studies ³¹. In
287 summary, a very conservative p-threshold and findings from the literature and our own data support that
288 second-generation antipsychotic medication might impact white matter microstructure in schizophrenia.
289 To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first to highlight this potential association in a well-
290 characterized and balanced sample of medicated and unmedicated EOP patients. Yet, a replication of
291 the results in a bigger sample is warranted.

292 In summary, the present study is the first to link antipsychotic medication status to altered regional FA
293 in the left ACR in patients with EOP. Understanding the significance of white matter abnormalities in
294 the left ACR in adolescents with EOP and the putatively remediating effect of antipsychotic medication,
295 may help to phenotype the disease and to develop new pharmacological regimes to subsequently
296 improve functional outcome. Assuming that antipsychotic medication reverses the hypothesized myelin
297 dysfunction in psychosis, early interventions with antipsychotic medication, already in individuals at
298 risk of developing psychosis, could provide the opportunity to normalize white matter maturation.
299 Although exciting, further work is needed to draw firm conclusions about the putative enhancing effects
300 of antipsychotic medication early in the disease process. Building on our first results, longitudinal
301 studies with larger samples sizes using high resolution DWI in combination with clinical, genetic and
302 neurocognitive measures are warranted to delineate heritability, affected brain regions, antipsychotic
303 medication effects, and directions of FA changes over time.

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321 **Methods**

322 *Participants*

323 The study sample was drawn from the ongoing longitudinal Youth-Thematic-Organized-Psychosis
324 (Youth-TOP) research study, which is a subdivision of the TOP research group/NORMENT and KG
325 Jebsen center of psychosis research in Oslo, Norway. EOP patients, aged between 12-18 years, were
326 recruited from in- and outpatient clinics in the Oslo region. Healthy controls were randomly selected
327 from the Norwegian National Registry in the same catchment areas. All participants and their respective
328 parents/guardians provided written informed consent. The study was approved by the Regional
329 Committee for Medical Research Ethics (REK-Sør) and the Norwegian Data Inspectorate and was
330 conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

331 For study inclusion, participants were required to have an intelligence quotient (IQ) > 70, a good
332 command of the Norwegian language, no previous moderate to severe head injuries, no diagnosis of
333 substance-induced psychotic disorder, and no organic brain disease. IQ was measured by the Wechsler
334 Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence. Diagnosis was established according to the Diagnostic and Statistical
335 Manual of Mental Disorder- IV criteria using the Norwegian version of the Kiddie-Schedule for
336 Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia for School Aged Children (6-18 years): Present and Lifetime
337 Version (K-SADS-PL). The clinical characterization was conducted by trained psychologists or
338 psychiatrists.

339 A total of 67 participants (27 patients/40 controls) satisfied the above-mentioned criteria and underwent
340 MRI examination. All MRI scans were visually inspected by a trained neuroradiologist to rule out any
341 pathological changes. Out of the initial sample, seven control participants and five patients were
342 excluded due to (i) clinical/radiological reasons (five patients/ three controls), or (ii) strong motion
343 artefacts in the diffusion imaging data (four controls), resulting in a final sample of 55 participants (22
344 patients/ 33 controls) being entered in the statistical analysis.

345 *Clinical measures*

346 Presence and severity of psychopathological symptoms of EOP patients were assessed using the Positive
347 and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS). Children Global Assessment Scale (CGAS) and Mood and
348 Feelings Questionnaire (MFQ, long version) were evaluated in all participants to measure general
349 functioning level and to screen for depressive symptoms, respectively. Recreational drug use was
350 assessed within the structured K-SADS interview and scored with 0 or 1 for absent or present. For EOP
351 patients, current and lifetime cumulative use of medication was recorded and converted into
352 chlorpromazine equivalents (CPZ), using formulas published elsewhere⁴⁵. While 11 EOP patients were
353 off any antipsychotic medication at scan, yielding a lack of current CPZ values, three patients had

354 received pharmacological treatment prior to inclusion, resulting in a low cumulative CPZ dosage for
355 this subgroup (see Table 2).

356 ***MRI data acquisition***

357 MR images were acquired on a 3-Tesla General Electric Signa HDxt scanner equipped with an 8-channel
358 head coil at the Oslo University Hospital, Norway. The diffusion imaging data was acquired using a 2D
359 spin-echo whole-brain echo-planar imaging sequence with the following parameters: slice thickness =
360 2.5 mm, repetition time = 15 s, echo time = 85 ms, flip angle = 90°, acquisition matrix = 96 x 96, in-
361 plane resolution = 1.875 x 1.875 mm. A total of 32 volumes with different gradient directions ($b = 1000$
362 s/mm²), including two b₀-volumes with reversed phase-encode (blip up/down), were acquired.

363 ***Diffusion data analysis***

364 Diffusion data were analyzed with FSL version 5.0.9 using the FMRIB's software library
365 (<https://fsl.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl/fslwiki>). Before creating voxel wise maps of diffusion parameters, the
366 following steps of the standard processing pipeline were used: (i) *topup* to correct for susceptibility-
367 induced distortions ⁴⁶, (ii) *eddy* current correction to correct for gradient-coil distortions and head motion
368 ⁴⁷, (iii) removal of non-brain tissue using the Brain Extraction Tool (*bet*) ⁴⁸, and (iv) local fitting of the
369 diffusion tensor at each voxel using *dtifit* (FMRIB's Diffusion Toolbox (FDT) ⁴⁹). *Dtifit* yielded in voxel
370 wise participant-specific maps of FA, mean diffusion (MD), and axial diffusion (AD, derived from
371 eigenvector λ_1). Based on the outputted eigenvectors λ_2 and λ_3 , radial diffusion (RD) was computed
372 ($(\lambda_2 + \lambda_3)/2$). Next, voxel wise statistical analysis of the FA data was carried out using TBSS ⁵⁰. First,
373 all FA images were nonlinearly aligned to the most representative FA image out of all images and
374 transformed into 1x1x1 mm³ MNI152 standard space by means of affine registration. Secondly, TBSS
375 projects all participant's FA data onto a mean FA tract skeleton (threshold FA > 0.25), before applying
376 voxel wise cross-participant statistics. After TBSS for FA was completed, results were used to generate
377 skeletonized RD and AD data for additional voxel-wise group comparisons using the TBSS non-FA
378 pipeline.

379 ***Statistical analyses***

380 For contrasting case-control differences, we run voxel-wise statistics, co-varied for age and gender,
381 using a nonparametric permutation-based approach (*Randomise*, implemented in FSL, 5000
382 permutations). All variables were demeaned. The statistical threshold was set at $p \leq 0.01$, after family-
383 wise error correction for multiple comparisons using threshold-free cluster enhancement. We chose a
384 highly conservative threshold for FA to minimize type I errors and to better account for the exploratory
385 nature of the study concerning the impact of antipsychotic medication status. For RD and AD, the same
386 statistical model was used.

387 Regions identified with TBSS (FA) and TBSS non-FA (RD/AD) were subsequently used as masks to
388 extract mean FA, RD and AD values for plotting and further analysis. We refrained from using MD
389 values, as a measure of overall diffusivity within a voxel, in further analysis due to its lack of specificity
390 4. As scalar diffusion measures largely vary in their value ranges, extracted mean values were z-
391 standardized for plotting purposes using the following formula: $z = (\text{participant's value} - \text{group mean})$
392 / standard deviation.

393 A linear regression model was performed to examine whether patients' mean values of significant TBSS
394 and TBSS non-FA clusters were associated with duration of illness and antipsychotic medication status
395 as categorical variable (coded as yes (1)/no (0)). The effect size was reported as Cohen's d.

396 If there is an association between patients' regional mean values and antipsychotic medication, follow-
397 up correlation analysis with current and cumulative CPZ were performed using Spearman's rank
398 correlation rho for non-normal data.

399 Further analysis of regional mean values and its association with clinical measures (PANSS, CGAS, and
400 MFQ) were performed using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient.

401 Statistical tests were conducted in R, version 3.5.2 (www.r-project.org).

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544

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Author Contributions

CB undertook the processing of the imaging data, the statistical analysis, the literature search, interpreted the results and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. TPG helped with the processing of the imaging data. VL was significantly involved in the participant inclusion and data acquisition for Youth-TOP and calculated current and cumulative chlorpromazine equivalents. IA designed the ongoing longitudinal Youth-TOP research study the data is drawn from. IA, AMM and OAA obtained funding and contributed to the data acquisition. All authors contributed to the critical revision of the manuscript and approved the final draft for submission.

Additional Information

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figures

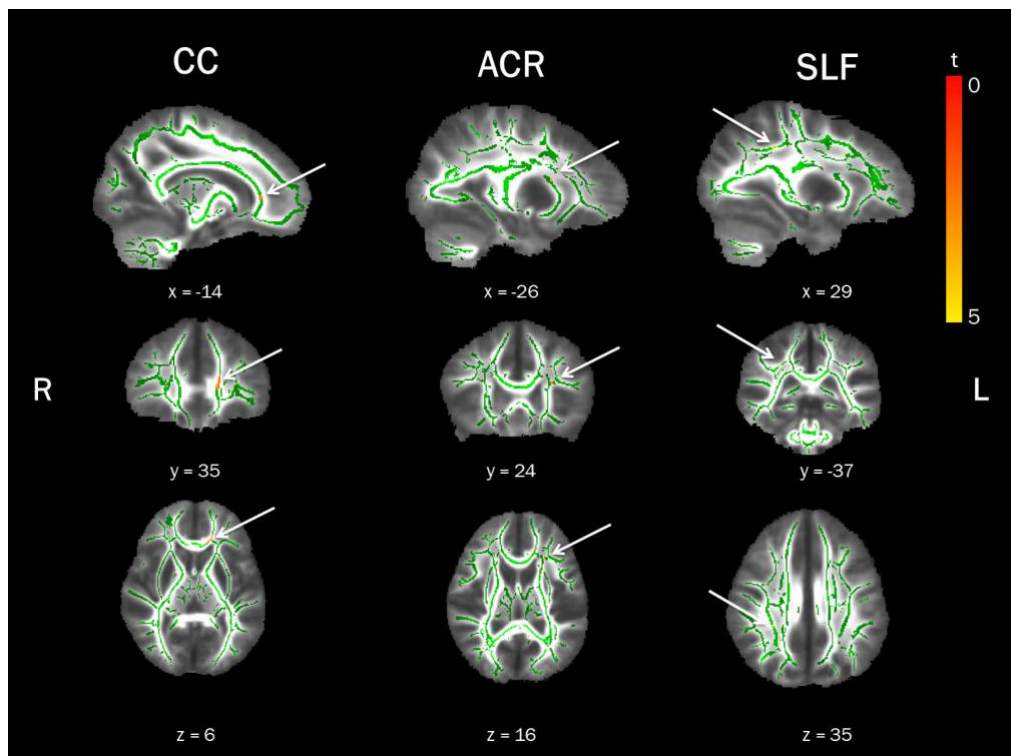


Figure 1| Lower fractional anisotropy (FA) in early onset psychosis (EOP) patients in comparison to healthy controls. Displayed are significant FWE-corrected TBSS results (red-yellow, $p \leq 0.01$), contrasting EOP patients against healthy controls, overlaid on the study-specific mean FA skeleton in green and the mean FA image. Results shown underwent threshold-free cluster enhancement and are corrected for age and sex. CC = corpus callosum, ACR = anterior corona radiata, SLF = superior longitudinal fasciculus, R = right, L = left.

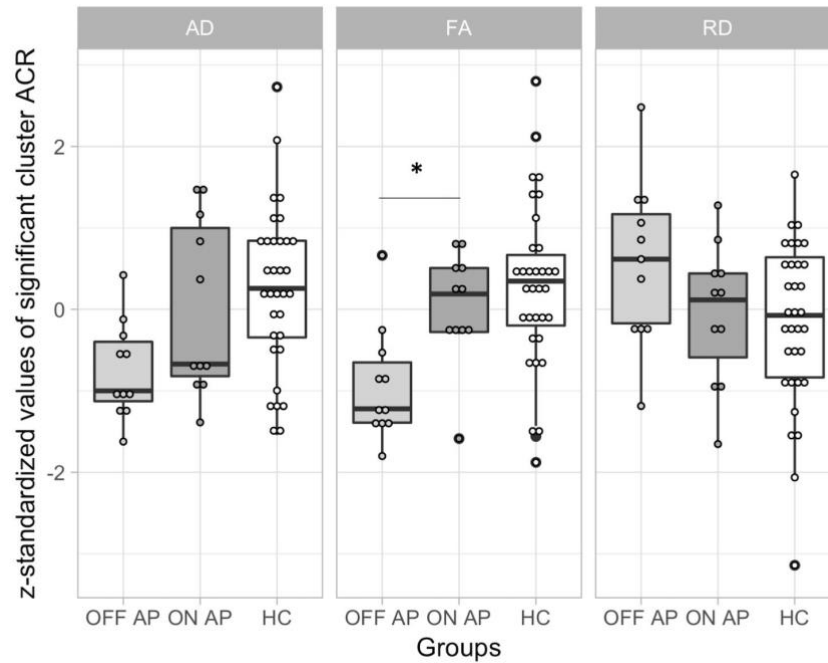


Figure 2| Extracted scalar diffusion values of the left anterior corona radiata (ACR) cluster stratified by antipsychotic use, in comparison to the healthy controls (HC). Data is z-standardized and presented as boxplots for the different scalar diffusion measures overlaid with raw data points. HC are depicted in white, EOP patients on antipsychotic medication in dark grey and EOP patients off antipsychotic medication in light grey. EOP = Early onset psychosis, AP = Antipsychotic use (on = yes, off = no), AD = axial diffusion, FA = fractional anisotropy, RD = radial diffusion. Significant differences in scalar measures between patient subgroups, based on linear regression models, are indicated with a star.

Tables

Table 1| General sample characteristics.

	<i>EOP patients overall</i> <i>N = 22</i>	<i>Healthy controls</i> <i>N = 33</i>	<i>Statistics</i> <i>group-level</i>
<i>Sex, female N (%)</i>	15 (68.2)	20 (60.6)	X ₂ , p = 0.775
<i>Age at MRI (y)</i>	16.71 [16.24, 17.57]	16.19 [15.06, 17.26]	KW, p = 0.128
Range	14.53 – 18.25	12.67 – 18.15	
<i>Handedness N (%)</i>			FET, p = 0.634
<i>Right</i>	18 (81.8)	30 (90.9)	
<i>Left</i>	2 (9.1)	2 (6.1)	
Missing N (%)	2 (9.1)	1 (3.0)	
<i>Parental Education (y)</i>			
<i>Mother</i>	15.00 [14.25, 16.00]	16.00 [15.00, 17.00]	KW, p = 0.106
Range	11 – 19	12 – 22	
Missing N (%)	0	2 (6.1)	
<i>Father</i>	15.00 [12.00, 16.00]	15.50 [15.00, 17.00]	KW, p = 0.133
Range	10 – 23	11 – 20	
Missing N (%)	1 (4.5)	3 (9.1)	
<i>IQ</i>	103.00 [95.50, 109.50]	102.00 [94.75, 110.75]	KW, p = 0.922
Range	83 – 132	70 – 116	
Missing N (%)	3 (13.63)	1 (3)	
<i>CGAS</i>	45.00 [36.25, 53.75]	91.00 [83.00, 95.00]	KW, p < 0.001
Range	32 – 59	75 – 98	
<i>MFQ</i>	28.00 [18.00, 38.00]	5.00 [1.00, 8.25]	KW, p < 0.001
Range	5 – 52	0 – 31	
Missing N (%)	1 (4.5)	1 (3)	
<i>BMI (kg/m²)</i>	20.50 [18.00, 23.15]	20.70 [18.58, 22.18]	KW, p = 0.704
Range	15.4 – 35.4	16.7 – 26.0	
Missing N (%)	3 (13.6)	5 (15.2)	
<i>Cannabis use, yes N (%)</i>	7 (31.8)	1 (3.0)	FET, p = 0.005
<i>Alcohol use, yes N (%)</i>	12 (54.5)	15 (45.5)	X ₂ , p = 0.700

*non-normal distributed data in median [interquartile range], N = Number of participants, m = male, f = female, y = years, r = right, l = left, IQ = Intelligence Quotient, BMI = Body Mass Index, CGAS = Children's Global Assessment Scale, MFQ = Mood and Feelings Questionnaire, KW = Kruskal-Wallis Test, FET = Fisher's Exact Test

Table 2| Patient clinical characteristics stratified by antipsychotic medication status

	<i>EOP patients Off AP at scan N = 11</i>	<i>EOP patients On AP at scan N = 11</i>	<i>Statistics patient-level</i>
<i>Sex, female N (%)</i>	6 (54.5)	9 (81.8)	FET, p = 0.361
<i>Age Scan (y)</i>	15.94 ± 1.00	17.44 ± 0.65	t-test, p < 0.001
Range	14.53 – 17.25	16.53 – 18.25	
<i>BMI (kg/m²)</i>	19.20 [17.40, 22.90]	20.55 [18.93, 25.43]	KW, p = 0.457
Range	15.4 – 28.7	16.3 – 35.4	
Missing N (%)	0	3 (27.3)	
<i>CGAS</i>	46.00 ± 8.00	43.91 ± 9.38	t-test, p = 0.580
Range	34 – 59	32 – 58	
<i>MFQ</i>	30.82 ± 12.60	27.10 ± 13.39	t-test, p = 0.520
Range	5 – 52	8 – 49	
Missing N (%)	0	1 (9.1)	
<i>PANSS</i>			
<i>positive</i>	19.09 ± 3.83	17.18 ± 3.84	t-test, p = 0.257
Range	12 – 25	13 – 26	
<i>negative</i>	22.09 ± 7.13	18.27 ± 6.96	t-test, p = 0.218
Range	9 – 32	7 – 32	
<i>general</i>	38.73 ± 8.44	36.27 ± 7.89	t-test, p = 0.489
Range	28 – 54	24 – 52	
<i>Age of Onset (y)</i>	14.39 ± 1.92	14.83 ± 2.07	t-test, p = 0.614
Range	10 – 16	12 – 17.6	
<i>DUP (w)</i>	36.00 [23.00, 82.00]	12.00 [8.00, 18.00]	KW, p = 0.005
Range	14 – 227	3 – 125	
<i>DUI (y)</i>	0.75 [0.66, 1.79]	1.76 [0.64, 4.52]	KW, p = 0.375
Range	0.47 – 4.53	0.33 – 5.97	
<i>Diagnosis</i>			FET, p = 1.000
SCZ	7	7	
SCA	1	0	
NOS	3	4	
<i>Antipsychotics</i>			
Aripiprazole		5	
Risperidone		3	
Quetiapine		3	
<i>CPZ</i>			
current		272.3 ± 140.83	
Range		151.52 – 559.44	

<i>cumulative</i>	0.08 ± 0.28	21.6 ± 19.13	
(AP-naïve, N = 9)			
Range	0 – 0.92	1.69 – 59.28	
Cannabis use, yes N (%)	3 (27.3)	4 (36.4)	FET, p = 1.000
Alcohol use, yes N (%)	4 (36.4)	8 (72.7)	FET, p = 0.198

*normally distributed data as mean ± standard deviation, non-normal distributed data in median [interquartile range], AP = antipsychotics, N = number of participants, m = male, f = female, y = years, r = right, l = left, IQ = Intelligence Quotient, BMI = Body Mass Index, CGAS = Children’s Global Assessment Scale, MFQ = Mood and Feelings Questionnaire, PANSS = Positive and Negative Symptom Scale, DUP = Duration of Untreated Psychosis, DUI = Duration of illness, SCZ = schizophrenia, SCA = schizoaffective, NOS = psychosis, not other specified, CPZ = chlorpromazine equivalent, KW = Kruskal-Wallis Test, FET = Fisher’s Exact Test.

Table 3| White matter cluster of reduced fractional anisotropy in early onset psychosis patients relative to healthy controls.

Cluster	Region* ₁	Side	Voxels	MNI coordinates in mm			t-values
				X	Y	Z	
4	Genu of corpus callosum	L	150	-14	35	6	3.35
3	Anterior corona radiata* ₂	L	46	-26	13	14	3.69
2	Superior longitudinal fasciculus	R	12	29	-37	35	4.81
1	Anterior corona radiata (16% inferior fronto-occipital fasciculus) * ₃	L	9	-26	24	16	4.05

*₁ Johns Hopkins University International Consortium for Brain Mapping (JHU ICBM)-DTI-81 white matter atlas and JHU white matter tractography atlas (in brackets) were utilized to label significant clusters with specific tract names

*₂ 6% uncinate fasciculus/ 5% inferior fronto-occipital fasciculus according to JHU White-Matter Tractography Atlas

*₃ 11% anterior thalamic radiation, 8% uncinate fasciculus according to JHU White-Matter Tractography Atlas