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## **White matter microstructure of the extended limbic system in male and female youth with conduct disorder**

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## **Abstract**

**Background:** Previous studies of conduct disorder (CD) have reported structural and functional alterations in the limbic system. However, the white matter tracts that connect limbic regions have not been comprehensively studied. The uncinate fasciculus (UF), a tract connecting limbic to prefrontal regions, has been implicated in CD. However, CD-related alterations in other limbic tracts, such as the cingulum and the fornix, have not been investigated. Furthermore, few studies have examined the influence of sex and none have been adequately powered to test whether the relationship between CD and structural connectivity differs by sex. We examined whether adolescent males and females with CD exhibit differences in structural connectivity compared to typically-developing controls.

**Methods:** We acquired diffusion-weighted MRI data from 101 adolescents with CD (52 females) and 99 controls (50 females). Data were processed for deterministic spherical deconvolution tractography. Virtual dissections of the UF, the three subdivisions of the cingulum (retrosplenial, parahippocampal and subgenual cingulum), and the fornix were performed and measures of fractional anisotropy (FA) and hindrance-modulated orientational anisotropy (HMOA) were analysed.

**Results:** The CD group had lower FA and HMOA in the right retrosplenial cingulum tract relative to controls. Importantly, these effects were moderated by sex - males with CD significantly lower FA compared to male controls, whereas CD and control females did not differ.

**Conclusions:** Our results highlight the importance of considering sex when studying the neurobiological basis of CD. Sex differences in retrosplenial cingulum connectivity may contribute to sex differences in the clinical presentation of CD.

Word count abstract: 248

## 1 **Introduction**

2 Conduct Disorder (CD) is diagnosed in children and adolescents who display a pattern of behaviour in  
3 which societal rules and the rights of others are violated (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).  
4 Although the lifetime prevalence of CD is higher amongst males than females (by a ratio of  
5 approximately 2.4:1), it is increasingly prevalent in adolescent females. Individuals with CD have poor  
6 prognoses with negative adult outcomes that include criminality, alcohol abuse, unemployment, and  
7 poor mental and physical health. CD is one of the main reasons for referral to child and adolescent  
8 mental health services, and places a high burden on the affected individuals, families and society in  
9 general. Therefore, CD can be considered a major mental and public health priority and gaining a better  
10 understanding of its neurodevelopmental underpinnings is critical.

11  
12 It has been proposed that limbic system dysfunction may underlie antisocial behaviour. Brain regions  
13 that make up the limbic system include the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) and posterior cingulate  
14 cortex (PCC), orbitofrontal cortex (OFC), ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC), hippocampus,  
15 hypothalamus, amygdala, and medial temporal lobe (Rolls, 2004, 2013). The limbic system is involved  
16 in emotion processing and regulation, reward-related decision-making and a range of other cognitive  
17 functions (Blair, 2008). Evidence implicating limbic brain structures in antisocial behaviour comes  
18 from a number of sources. Two structural magnetic resonance imaging (sMRI) meta-analyses  
19 concluded that the most robust abnormalities in grey matter volumes observed in this population are in  
20 limbic brain structures, such as the amygdala, ACC and vmPFC (Aoki et al., 2014; Raschle et al., 2015;  
21 Rogers and De Brito, 2016). In line with this, a recent meta-analysis of fMRI studies reported that CD  
22 individuals consistently displayed underactivation in the ACC and vmPFC during tasks involving  
23 emotion processing, and ‘hot’ (motivationally-relevant) executive functions, and in dorsolateral  
24 prefrontal cortex (dlPFC), dorsal ACC, and hippocampus during ‘cool’ (non-affective) executive  
25 function tasks (Alegria et al., 2016).

26  
27 Given this evidence for structural alterations and abnormal neural activity in limbic regions in  
28 individuals with CD, it is possible that the structural connections linking these regions are also  
29 compromised. The major limbic system white matter (WM) pathways include the fornix, the cingulum,  
30 and the uncinate fasciculus (UF; Catani et al., 2013). Structural connectivity and the micro-structural  
31 properties of brain tissue are frequently assessed using diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) techniques  
32 (Catani and Thiebaut de Schotten, 2012). However, previous DTI studies in youths with CD and related  
33 disorders have had several limitations. First, the majority of DTI studies in CD have focused on males  
34 (although see Menks et al., 2017). Therefore, possible sex differences in the microstructural integrity  
35 of limbic system-related tracts have not been investigated. This is important as the neurobiological basis  
36 of CD has been shown to differ in several respects between males and females (Fairchild et al., 2013;

37 Decety et al., 2015; Smaragdi et al., 2017). Only one small study directly compared males and females  
38 with CD (n=14 and 13, respectively) in terms of WM microstructure (Zhang et al., 2014). It  
39 investigated fractional anisotropy (FA) values of the UF using deterministic tractography (which  
40 investigates specific anatomical pathways). Interestingly, the authors found higher FA values in the UF  
41 in males, but not females, with CD. These preliminary findings suggest that WM microstructural  
42 alterations in temporo-frontal regions might be specific to males with CD.

43

44 Additionally, aside from one very recent study (Sethi et al., 2018), previous studies using DTI-based  
45 tractography methods in individuals with CD have largely focused on the UF tract (Passamonti et al.,  
46 2012; Sarkar et al., 2013; Zhang, Gao, et al., 2014). The fact that these studies focused on this tract may  
47 have been due to earlier studies in adults with antisocial personality disorder (ASPD; an adult condition  
48 of which CD is an antecedent) and psychopathy, finding lower FA in the UF in these individuals  
49 compared to healthy controls (Craig et al., 2009). However, opposite findings have been reported in  
50 youths with CD, who show higher FA values in the UF relative to healthy controls (Passamonti et al.,  
51 2012; Sarkar et al., 2013; Zhang, Gao, et al., 2014). Similarly, a study investigating the dorsal and  
52 ventral components of the cingulum tract, reported lower radial diffusivity (RD) in the dorsal cingulum  
53 bundle in individuals with CD compared to controls (Sethi et al., 2018). This was opposite to the pattern  
54 observed in adults with ASPD (Sethi et al., 2014). Several authors have suggested that the opposite  
55 patterns observed in WM microstructural measures in youths and adults might be due to abnormally  
56 accelerated maturation of WM tracts in individuals with CD (Passamonti et al., 2012; Sarkar et al.,  
57 2013b; Zhang, Gao, et al., 2014). Although these previous studies were important first steps in  
58 understanding CD-related alterations in structural connectivity, the focus of research needs to be  
59 expanded to consider additional limbic system tracts. It is also important to test whether alterations in  
60 WM microstructure are common or distinct across males and females with CD.

61

62 An additional limitation of prior studies is that they used either tractography methods or a  
63 characterization of WM diffusivity exclusively based on the diffusion tensor model. Although the  
64 diffusion tensor model is most frequently used to reconstruct WM tracts and characterise diffusivity in  
65 WM (Basser et al., 2000), this approach has several limitations. First, it is not well-suited for studying  
66 complex fibre configurations such as crossing fibres, branching regions or intra-voxel combinations of  
67 different tissue types (e.g., WM fibres and grey matter). Second, while FA is the most commonly used  
68 index to quantify water diffusivity in studies using tensor-based models, it is calculated at a voxel level  
69 and is determined by several microstructural and macrostructural features, such as myelination of WM  
70 fibres, size and packing density of cells and number of crossing fibres (Vanderauwera et al., 2015).  
71 Thus, partial volume effects (i.e., not fibre- or tissue -specific) can affect DTI indices (e.g., FA, RD),  
72 and voxel-average diffusion MRI parameters such as FA, lack within-voxel single fibre population  
73 specificity (Dell'Acqua et al., 2013; Raffelt et al., 2015). Novel non-tensor models such as constrained

74 spherical deconvolution (SD) have the potential to overcome these limitations and more accurately  
75 characterise the underlying architecture of specific WM tracts (Dell'Acqua et al., 2010). In addition,  
76 the hindrance-modulated orientational anisotropy (HMOA) index that can be derived using SD  
77 algorithms provides greater sensitivity in terms of detecting microstructural changes in specific WM  
78 tracts than FA (Dell'Acqua et al., 2013). Finally, most previous DTI studies included relatively small  
79 samples - typically groups of 15 participants or fewer (Sethi et al., 2018; Finger et al., 2012; Haney-  
80 Caron et al., 2014; Passamonti et al., 2012; Zhang, Gao, et al., 2014).

81  
82 The present study addresses a number of these limitations, and extends previous findings by, first,  
83 examining sex differences in the relationship between CD and WM microstructure. Second, by  
84 examining two key limbic WM tracts overlooked in prior studies: the fornix and the cingulum bundles  
85 - the retrosplenial (RSC), parahippocampal (PHC) and subgenual cingulum (SGC; Jones et al., 2013) -  
86 as tracts plausibly involved in the pathophysiology of CD. Third, by enhancing statistical power and  
87 the robustness of our results by substantially increasing the sample size compared to previous studies.  
88 Finally, by employing a novel method – constrained SD. Recent studies have compared tensor versus  
89 non-tensor models in clinical samples and suggested that the latter approach provides more accurate  
90 and robust results (Auriat et al., 2015). However, to increase comparability with previous studies, we  
91 also estimated indices of FA - the most widely-used parameter in previous structural connectivity  
92 research.

93  
94 We hypothesised that differences between CD and control groups would be most evident in limbic  
95 tracts involved in socio-emotional processes (i.e., subgenual cingulum, retrosplenial cingulum, and UF)  
96 in comparison with posterior and lateral limbic WM tracts (e.g., parahippocampal cingulum). We also  
97 hypothesised that CD-related alterations in WM microstructure would be most evident in males (Zhang  
98 et al., 2014). In addition, recent DTI studies have shown that individuals with CD and elevated callous-  
99 unemotional (CU) traits may differ from those with low levels of CU traits in terms of WM  
100 microstructural abnormalities (Sethi et al., 2018; Puzzo et al., 2017). Thus, we also investigated whether  
101 CU traits contributed to the WM microstructural alterations observed in CD. We also tested for  
102 correlations between WM measures and the grandiose-manipulative and impulsive-irresponsible  
103 subdimensions of psychopathy and CD symptoms.

## 104 **Methods**

### 105 **Participants**

106  
107 Participants for this study were recruited at four different sites involved in the Neurobiology and  
108 Treatment of Female Conduct Disorder (FemNAT-CD; [www.femnat-cd.eu](http://www.femnat-cd.eu)) study - University of

109 Southampton, University of Birmingham, University Hospital Aachen, and University of Basel. All  
110 participants and the majority of their parents underwent a diagnostic interview that was based on  
111 DSM-IV criteria (the Kiddie-Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia-Present and  
112 Lifetime; Kaufman et al., 1997). At the UK sites, IQ was assessed using the two subtest form of the  
113 Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence (Wechsler, 1999) whereas the German version of the  
114 Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (Wechsler, 2003) was used at the other sites. The t and  
115 standard scores from all sites were transformed into z-scores and then combined to yield estimates of  
116 full-scale IQ.

117 The Match program (Van Casteren and Davis, 2007) was used to select an IQ-, age- and gender-matched  
118 sample from the subset of participants for whom diffusion MRI data were available (n=325). There are  
119 dramatic changes in WM development across childhood and adolescence (Casey et al., 2008), thus we  
120 excluded children aged 9-12 years (n=57; see Supplementary Material for more information). A total  
121 sample of 200 adolescents (101 with conduct disorder (52 females) and 99 healthy controls (50 females))  
122 was included in the present analyses – all aged 13-18 years. The Youth Psychopathic traits Inventory  
123 (YPI; Andershed et al., 2002); a self-report questionnaire assessing overall psychopathic traits and sub-  
124 dimensions of psychopathy, and the parent-report Inventory of Callous Unemotional traits (ICU; Essau,  
125 Sasagawa and Frick, 2006); a standardized measure including callous, uncaring and unemotional  
126 subscales, were used to assess psychopathic and callous-unemotional (CU) traits, respectively.

### 127 **Diffusion-weighted MRI data acquisition**

128

129 Diffusion-weighted MRI data were acquired with the following parameters: Repetition time (TR) =  
130 8000ms (Achieva), 8800ms (Tim-Trio), 7500ms (Prisma); echo-time (TE) = 87ms (Achieva), 92ms  
131 (Tim-Trio), 71ms (Prisma) and a bandwidth of 1633.3 Hz/Px (Achieva) or 1776 Hz/Px (Tim-Trio &  
132 Prisma); echo-spacing = 0.75ms (Achieva), 0.73ms (Tim-Trio), 0.65ms (Prisma); slice thickness =  
133 2.0mm; field of view (FOV) = 256 x 256 x 124mm; acquisition matrix = 128 x 128; voxel-size =  
134 2×2×2mm; 62 contiguous axial slices (no slice gap). Images were acquired with diffusion gradients (b-  
135 value=1500 s/mm<sup>2</sup>) applied in 64 non coplanar and non collinear directions and two b-value=0 (s/mm<sup>2</sup>)  
136 volumes with reversed phase encoding (blip-up/blip-down), yielding pairs of images with distortions in  
137 opposite phase-encode directions to enable accurate estimation and correction for susceptibility-  
138 induced distortions.

139

### 140 **Pre-processing**

141

142 Datasets were corrected for head motion and eddy current distortions using FSL (Andersson and  
143 Sotiropoulos, 2016). Distortions in the magnetic field were estimated. The estimated field was  
144 subsequently used, together with all the diffusion data, to estimate eddy current-induced distortions and  
145 subject movement (Andersson and Sotiropoulos, 2016). Movement-induced signal dropout was  
146 identified and the lost signal was replaced by a non-parametric Q-space interpolation (Andersson et al.,  
147 2016).

148  
149 Spherical deconvolution was calculated using the damped Richardson-Lucy algorithm (Dell'Acqua et  
150 al., 2010) with a fibre response parameter of  $\alpha = 1.5$ , 400 algorithm iterations, threshold parameters of  
151 0.06, and a harmonic order of 8 ( $l_{max}=8$ ). An absolute (0.1%) and relative (5%) threshold on the Fibre  
152 Orientation Distribution (FOD) amplitude were applied to exclude spurious local connections  
153 (Dell'Acqua et al., 2013).

154  
155 Whole brain deterministic tractography was performed using a step size of 0.5mm with a limit set to  
156 display streamlines between 20 and 400 mm. The Euler algorithm was used to follow the orientation  
157 vector of least curvature (angle threshold of 45°). Spherical deconvolution and tractography analysis  
158 was performed using StarTrack software (<https://www.mr-starttrack.com/>). Explore DTI was used for  
159 the tensor fit. Tensor-derived FA and HMOA values of WM microstructural organisation were exported  
160 to TrackVis. We report FA values in the present study for the purpose of increasing comparability with  
161 previous studies.

162

### 163 **Delineation of Regions of Interest**

164 TrackVis was used to reconstruct the fornix, cingulum bundle subdivisions and UF. Reconstruction of  
165 these tracts has previously been described (fornix and UF: (Stieltjes et al., 2013), and CB subdivisions:  
166 (Jones et al., 2013)). The Boolean logic (AND, and NOT gates) was employed to delineate the CB's  
167 subdivisions, the fornix and the UF (Figure 1 shows the reconstruction for all of the limbic WM tracts).

168

### 169 **Statistical analysis**

170 Matlab\_R2016 was used to carry out statistical analysis. Shapiro-Wilk tests were used to verify  
171 normality of HMOA and FA values across subjects.. Tract measures of HMOA and FA were analysed  
172 using a general linear model (GLM) to test for effects of diagnosis and sex-by-diagnosis interactions.  
173 The GLM included the following covariates which have been shown to be associated with WM  
174 microstructural integrity in adolescent studies: age (Asato et al., 2010), IQ (Dunst et al., 2014), and site  
175 (coded as binary fixed effect). Where significant sex-by-diagnosis interactions were found, we followed  
176 these up by comparing FA and HMOA values between CD and healthy control males, and between CD  
177 and healthy control females.

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ADHD is a neurodevelopmental disorder that frequently co-occurs with CD, and previous DTI studies have shown that comorbid ADHD strongly modulates WM effects (Wang et al., 2012). Thus, we repeated the GLM analysis while adding current ADHD symptoms (i.e., those displayed in the last year) as an additional covariate.

In addition, there is some evidence for structural differences between the childhood-onset (CO) and adolescent-onset (AO) variants of CD (Fairchild et al., 2015). Accordingly, we used the same model to compare these subgroups, to assess the validity of combining these subgroups in our main analysis.

The significance threshold was adjusted using the Benjamin-Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR:  $q < 0.05$ ) correction for multiple comparisons across each parameter independently. Effect sizes for diagnosis effects were calculated using Cohen's  $d$  and effect sizes for sex-by-diagnosis interactions were expressed as partial eta-squared ( $\eta^2$ ).

In cases where significant main effects of diagnosis were observed, we followed these up by running a GLM analysis (only in the CD group), to test for associations between CD symptoms, psychopathy (YPI total), dimensions of psychopathic traits (grandiose-manipulative, and impulsive-irresponsible traits), CU traits (YPI subscale and ICU total), ICU subscales (callousness, uncaring, unemotional), and measures of HMOA and FA. Lastly, given that the CD sample included many individuals with comorbid ADHD, we also explored the relationship between ADHD symptoms and measures of HMOA and FA. These correlational analyses were run in a mixed-sex CD group (males and females with CD) as well as in each sex separately.

**Results**

**Demographic Variables**

Individuals in the CD group had significantly more CD, ODD, and ADHD symptoms than healthy controls. They also scored higher in overall psychopathic traits, as well as callous-unemotional, grandiose and manipulative, and impulsive and irresponsible subdimensions of psychopathy (Table 1). There were no significant differences between males and females in the age-of-onset of CD (i.e., childhood-onset vs. adolescent-onset).

In terms of psychiatric comorbidity in individuals with CD, males and females differed only in rates of substance abuse (M>F); there were no other significant differences between males and females. Finally,

211 there was an unequal sample distribution across the sites (see Supplementary Table 1). To address this  
212 issue, we included site as a covariate of no interest.

213

### 214 **Tractography results**

215 There were no significant differences between the CO-CD and AO-CD subtypes in HMOA or FA in  
216 any WM tract.

217

### 218 **Main effects of diagnosis**

219 Relative to controls, individuals with CD had lower HMOA in bilateral retrosplenial cingulum (RSC;  
220 right:  $t(190)=-2.22$ ,  $p=0.03$ ,  $d=0.10$ ; left:  $t(190)=-2.27$ ,  $p=0.02$ ,  $d=0.16$ ), and lower FA in the right RSC  
221 ( $t(190)=-2.91$ ,  $p=0.004$ ,  $d=0.28$ ). However, after correcting for multiple comparisons, only the effect  
222 on right RSC FA remained significant ( $pFDR=.03$ ; Figure 2). There were no significant group  
223 differences in HMOA or FA in any of the other limbic WM tracts.

224

### 225 **Sex-by-diagnosis interactions**

226 We observed sex-by-diagnosis interactions for HMOA in bilateral RSC (right:  $t(190)=2.08$ ,  $p=0.04$ ,  
227  $\eta^2=0.02$ ; left:  $t(190)=1.99$ ,  $p=0.05$ ,  $\eta^2=0.02$ ), and FA in right RSC ( $t(190)=2.75$ ,  $p=0.006$ ,  $\eta^2=0.04$ ).  
228 All interactions followed the same pattern: males with CD showed lower values than male controls,  
229 whereas females with CD showed higher values than female controls (Figure 3). However, only the  
230 sex-by-diagnosis interaction for right RSC FA survived correction for multiple comparisons  
231 ( $pFDR=.05$ ). No other significant interaction effects were found in the other limbic tracts (see  
232 Supplementary Table 2). Post-hoc analysis showed that relative to male controls, CD males had lower  
233 HMOA in bilateral retrosplenial cingulum (RSC; right:  $t(190)=-2.52$ ,  $p=0.04$ ,  $d=0.39$ ; left:  $t(190)=-$   
234  $1.99$ ,  $p=0.04$ ,  $d=0.37$ ) and lower FA in the right RSC ( $t(190)=-2.91$ ,  $p=0.01$ ,  $d=0.47$ ). However, after  
235 correcting for multiple comparisons, only the effect in right RSC FA remained significant ( $pFDR=.03$ ).  
236 There were no significant differences between female CD and control groups.

237

### 238 **ADHD comorbidity as a potential confound**

239 The main effects of diagnosis observed for FA in the right RSC ( $p=0.03$ ) and for HMOA in bilateral  
240 RSC (left:  $p=0.05$ ; right:  $p=0.05$ ) in CD versus healthy control males remained significant after  
241 factoring out current ADHD symptoms. However, only the group difference in right RSC FA remained  
242 significant ( $pFDR=0.03$ ) after correcting for multiple comparisons. Moreover, significant main effects  
243 of diagnosis emerged in the right UF when factoring out ADHD symptoms: participants with CD  
244 showed lower FA ( $t(189)=2.00$ ,  $p=0.05$ ,  $pFDR=0.05$ ), and HMOA ( $t(189)=2.07$ ,  $p=0.04$ ,  $pFDR=0.05$ ;

245 Figure S1) relative to healthy controls. Unlike the findings for the RSC, this main effect of diagnosis in  
246 the UF was not qualified by a significant sex-by-diagnosis interaction.

247

### 248 **Correlations between structural connectivity measures and CD symptoms, ADHD symptoms, and** 249 **psychopathic or callous-unemotional traits**

250

251 Within the CD sample, there was a positive correlation between current CD symptoms and right RSC  
252 HMOA ( $r=.36$ ,  $pFDR=0.02$ ; Figure 4). There were no other significant correlations between CD,  
253 ADHD symptoms, overall psychopathic traits, the subdimensions of psychopathy, CU traits or the ICU  
254 subscales (Callousness, Uncaring, Unemotional) and measures of WM in other tracts.

255

256 As effects of diagnosis were found in males, but not in females with CD, we conducted correlational  
257 analyses in males and female groups separately. A strong positive correlation between current CD  
258 symptoms ( $r=.45$ ,  $pFDR=0.002$ ; Figure S2), and a negative correlation between current ADHD  
259 symptoms ( $r= -.31$ ,  $pFDR=0.03$ ; Figure S3) and right RSC HMOA was found in the male CD group.  
260 No effects of CU or psychopathic traits were observed in CD males. No significant correlations were  
261 found between clinical symptoms or CU/psychopathic traits or subscales and measures of structural  
262 connectivity in females with CD. Moreover, there were no significant sex-by-CD symptoms or sex-by-  
263 CU/psychopathic traits interactions for either HMOA or FA.

264

265

### 266 **Discussion**

267 Abnormalities in the limbic system have been consistently implicated in the pathophysiology of CD  
268 (Alegria et al., 2016; Raschle et al., 2015; Rogers and De Brito, 2016). We extended the DTI literature  
269 by including female participants and a much larger sample than has been studied to date ( $N=200$ ). This  
270 allowed us to test whether females and males with CD show common or distinct alterations in limbic  
271 WM microstructure. We also investigated limbic WM tracts beyond the UF and capitalised on recent  
272 methodological advances in diffusion-weighted image processing by employing spherical  
273 deconvolution (SD) models. This approach provides a more reliable estimation of multiple fibres  
274 passing through a voxel with distinct orientations.

275

276 Our findings extend knowledge regarding alterations in limbic WM tracts in CD and support the  
277 hypothesis that abnormalities in fronto-limbic tracts are involved in the pathophysiology of this  
278 disorder. However, such abnormalities appear to be limited to males with CD – no such effects were  
279 found in females. More specifically, only males with CD showed lower FA in the right RSC relative to  
280 male controls. In fact, there was a suggestion that the opposite pattern was observed in females (females

281 with CD appeared to show higher FA and HMOA values relative to control females) – although this  
282 was not statistically significant.

283

284 Previous DTI studies have found structural abnormalities in regions that overlap with the RSC. A recent  
285 study using a similar approach to the present study (i.e., region of interest-based tractography)  
286 investigated dorsal and ventral cingulum WM microstructure in male youths with CD (Sethi et al.,  
287 2018). Lower RD values were observed in bilateral dorsal cingulum in the CD group relative to controls  
288 (Sethi et al., 2018). FA values normally increase when RD decreases, and the opposite pattern seems  
289 associated with myelin loss and axonal abnormalities (Harsan et al., 2006). Although the anatomical  
290 delineation of the cingulum bundle differed between the two studies (i.e., dorsal and ventral in Sethi et  
291 al. versus retrosplenial, parahippocampal and subgenual cingulum in the present study), the dorsal part  
292 of the cingulum overlaps most closely with the RSC tract compared to the other cingulum bundles –  
293 thus the findings are congruent in terms of location, but not in the direction of the effects. In addition,  
294 the Sethi et al. (2018) study differs from the present study in the use of tensor-based models versus non-  
295 tensor models.

296

297 The RSC is composed of fibres that connect the medial prefrontal cortex, dlPFC, ACC, PCC, medial  
298 temporal lobe, and angular gyrus together (Jones et al., 2013). These regions have been associated with  
299 social-emotional processing, self-reflection, executive functions and moral decision-making. They are  
300 key nodes of the default mode network (DMN) that is responsible for self-referential processing (Leech  
301 et al., 2012). Previous studies investigating DMN connectivity in youths with CD have reported reduced  
302 connectivity between core DMN regions including the medial PFC, PCC, precuneus and superior  
303 temporal gyrus, relative to controls (Broulidakis et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2016). It has been proposed  
304 that DMN dysfunction in CD may reflect delays in the development of brain circuits linked to self-  
305 awareness, regulating emotions, moral judgments and future planning (Zhou et al., 2015). Impairments  
306 in these processes have been reported in CD (e.g. White et al., 2014). The RSC connects core regions  
307 that make up the DMN. Thus, the abnormal functional connectivity of the DMN observed in previous  
308 studies may have a structural basis in altered RSC connectivity.

309

310 Although group differences in FA in the UF only became significant after controlling for comorbid  
311 ADHD symptoms, our results are in contrast to findings reported by Zhang et al. (2014). We did not  
312 observe any sex-by-diagnosis interactions in this WM tract. Both males and females with CD appeared  
313 to be equally affected in terms of showing lower UF FA. However, in line with Zhang et al. (2014), we  
314 also observed sex differences in the RSC tract in youths with CD. Males with CD showed lower FA  
315 (and HMOA at an uncorrected level) relative to sex-matched healthy controls, whereas there were no  
316 significant differences between CD and control females.

317 Previous DTI studies of CD have observed higher FA values in male-only samples, suggesting  
318 accelerated maturation in individuals with CD. Here, we observed lower FA in males with CD  
319 compared to male controls. Although the results observed here were in a previously unstudied tract, it  
320 suggests that WM maturation is delayed in males with CD. Delayed maturation of WM is associated  
321 with poor inhibitory control (Simmonds et al., 2014) - a key feature of CD.

322

323 Furthermore, our correlational analyses showed that CD symptoms were significantly (positively)  
324 correlated with HMOA of the right RSC tract in males, but not females. Therefore, the present study  
325 provides new evidence for sex differences in the neurobiological basis of CD – RSC WM abnormalities  
326 were observed in males but not females. We also observed a significant negative correlation between  
327 ADHD symptoms and HMOA in the right RSC tract in males but not females, indicating that ADHD  
328 comorbidity may have influenced the differences between CD and control males in the RSC. This is of  
329 significance due to the substantial overlap of ADHD and CD, and symptom dimensions related to  
330 ADHD such as impulsivity and hyperactivity have been associated with the development of antisocial  
331 behaviour in childhood (Barkley et al., 2004).

332 Several neuropsychological studies investigating aspects of executive functioning (i.e., assessing  
333 inhibition/attention and decision-making), are consistent with our findings by showing divergent results  
334 in males and females with CD. Males with CD exhibit deficits in reversal learning (Herpertz et al.,  
335 2008) and differ in terms of decision-making (e.g., making more risky choices) relative to control males,  
336 whereas CD females do not differ from control females (Sidlauskaitė et al., 2017). In addition, our  
337 finding of a sex-by-diagnosis interaction in the RSC highlights the importance of taking sex into account  
338 when studying the neurobiology of CD, and the problems that might arise when combining males and  
339 females with CD in the same group (Smaragdi et al., 2017). Future studies should investigate the  
340 functional consequences of altered RSC structural connectivity in males and females with CD by  
341 employing resting state functional connectivity methods, and by using neuropsychological tasks tapping  
342 decision-making and empathic processes in the same sample.

343

#### 344 **Strengths and limitations**

345

346 The strengths of this study include the investigation of additional limbic WM tracts by using a more  
347 comprehensive approach – SD tractography. The main benefit of this approach is to resolve fibre-  
348 crossing issues. In addition, SD techniques improve the accuracy of fibre tracking compared to models  
349 based on the diffusion tensor alone (Dell’Acqua et al., 2010). Secondly, the comparatively large sample  
350 size in the present study (N=200), which included males and females with and without CD, allowed us,  
351 for the first time, to comprehensively investigate sex differences in the relationship between CD and  
352 structural connectivity. Another strength is the fact that the CD group was assessed using standardised,

353 semi-structured interviews based on DSM-IV criteria as well as obtaining detailed information about  
354 comorbid disorders and accounting for ADHD comorbidity in our statistical analyses.

355

356 However, our study also had several limitations. First, the sample ranged in age from 13-18 years. The  
357 CD and control groups did not differ in age; however, age is known to have an important effect on white  
358 matter development. Thus, we included age as a covariate of no interest in all analyses. Second, the sex  
359 distribution across the sites was uneven (more girls were tested at some sites than others), and although  
360 quality control procedures were performed prior to starting data acquisition (e.g., matching acquisition  
361 parameters and going through a site qualification process), combining data from different sites and  
362 scanner manufacturers (Phillips and Siemens) may introduce unintended variability. However, to  
363 reduce the impact of this variability, all analyses included site as a covariate of no interest. Finally,  
364 although we used SD methods to reconstruct the WM tracts, indices of FA were derived from tensor-  
365 based models fitted to  $b=1500$  diffusion-weighted data and projected onto the SD-derived tracts. Hence  
366 there is a potential source of variability in terms of comparing the present FA measures with those  
367 reported in previous studies, although several earlier studies adopted a similar approach (e.g.,  
368 Christiansen et al., 2016, Rojkova et al., 2016).

369

370 In conclusion, we found that male adolescents with CD differed from healthy controls in retrosplenial  
371 cingulum white matter microstructure – showing lower FA and HMOA values in this tract. This effect  
372 was not seen in females with CD. These differences in structural connectivity may help explain sex  
373 differences in CD and its clinical presentation. Given the overlap of the RSC tract with brain regions  
374 that constitute the DMN, and its role in connecting these regions together, future studies should  
375 investigate whether there are sex differences in DMN functional connectivity in CD. This would  
376 improve our understanding of the pathophysiology of CD and could lead to improved diagnosis and  
377 treatments for both sexes.

378

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384

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389

390 **Conflicts of interest**

391 Prof. Freitag receives royalties for books on Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder and Autism  
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406

407

408 **Ethical standards**

409 The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of the  
410 relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and with the Helsinki  
411 Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.

412

413

414

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416

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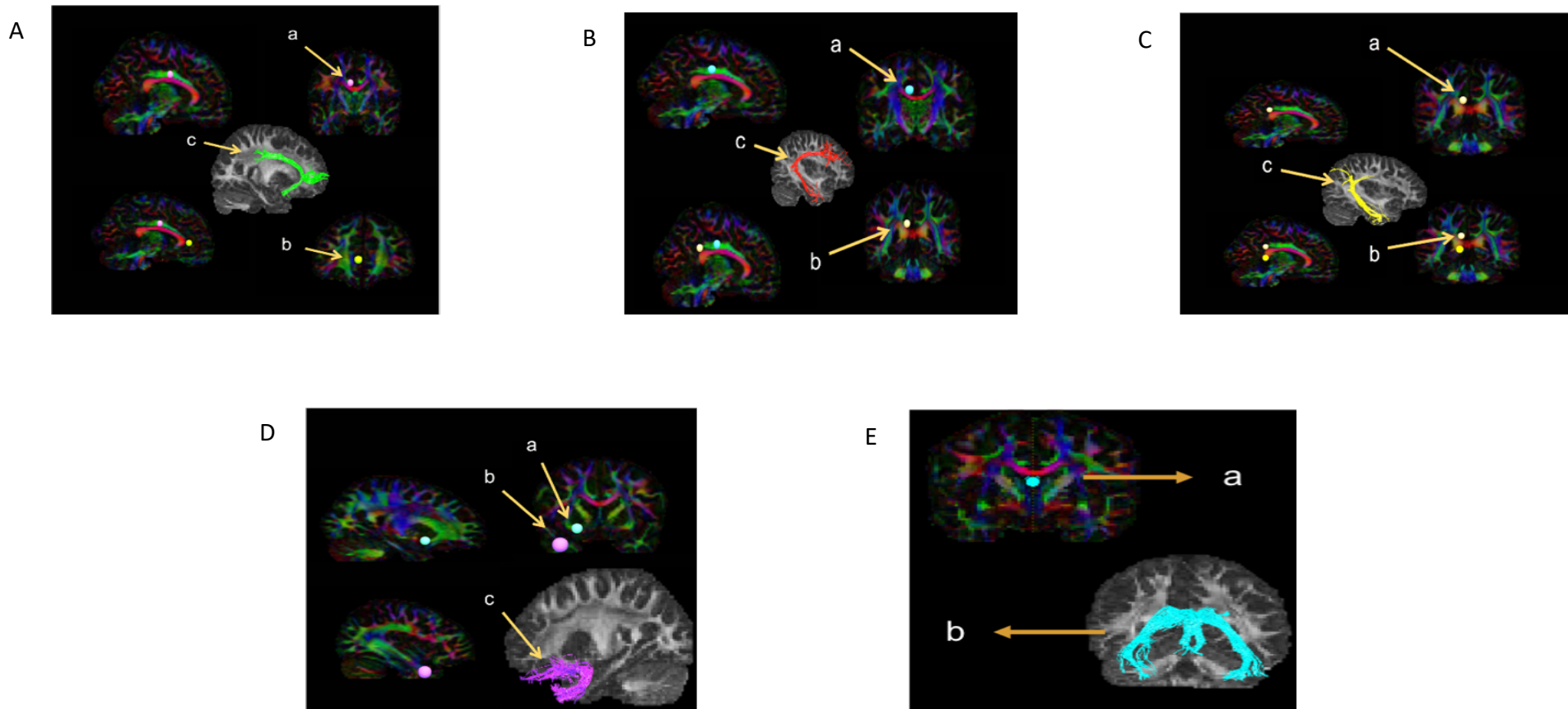
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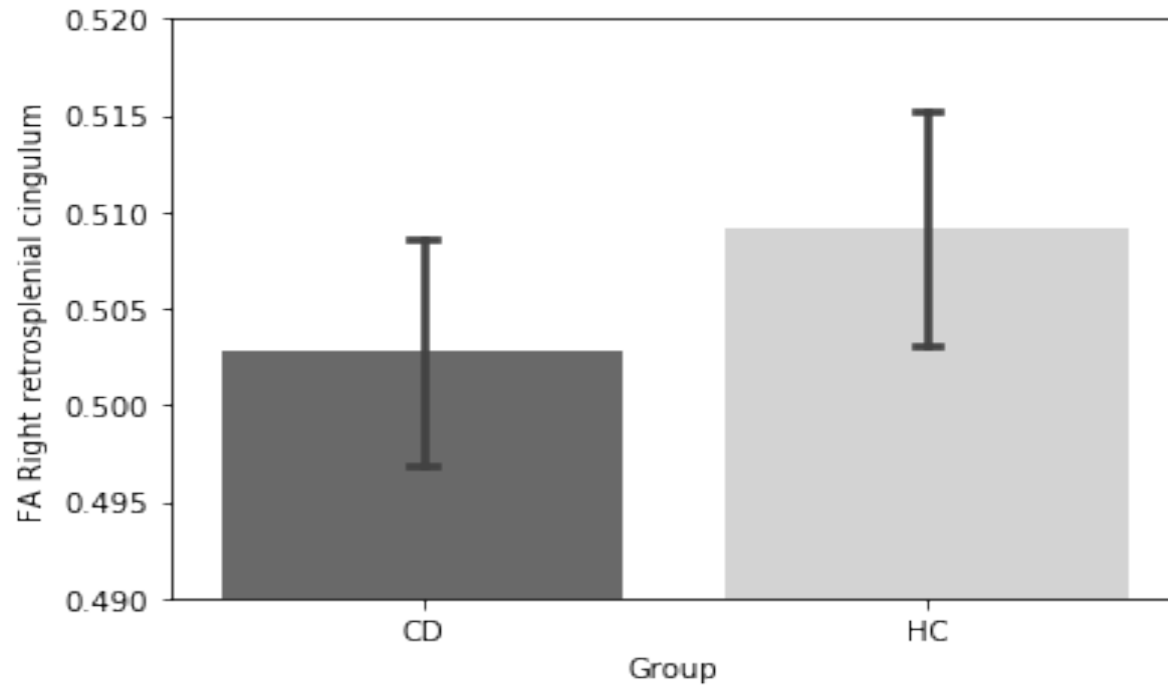
Table 1 Demographic and clinical characteristics of the sample

Variable	Females (Mean±SD)		Males (Mean±SD)		Statistics		
	CD (n = 52)	HC (n = 50)	CD (n = 49)	HC (n = 49)	Diagnosis F(p)	Sex F(p)	Sex x Diagnosis F(p)
Age (years)	15.44±1.64	15.38±1.66	15.38±1.765	15.34±1.80	0.045 (0.83)	0.032 (0.85)	0.002(0.96)
Estimated IQ	99.48±11.58	100.24±12.20	96.16±9.49	97.43±11.58	0.403 (0.53)	3.69 (0.06)	0.025 (0.87)
CD symptoms (K-SADS-PL)	5.00±2.89	0.06±0.23	5.53±2.73	0.14±0.40	328.50 (0.001)	1.15 (0.28)	0.617 (0.43)
ODD symptoms (K-SADS-PL)	5.61±2.94	0.02±0.14	5.12±2.92	0.08±0.40	321.26 (0.001)	0.53 (0.47)	0.873 (0.35)
ADHD symptoms (K-SADS-PL)	5.37±5.91	0.08±0.44	7.06±6.58	0.02±0.14	96.04 (0.001)	1.69 (0.19)	1.94 (0.16)
#PTSD (No. traumatic events)	2.85±1.98	1.06±1.17	2.59±2.02	1.41±1.19	41.03 (0.001)	0.013 (0.91)	14.22 (0.001)
<b>CD age of onset – No. (%)</b>							
Childhood onset	24(46)		28(58)			X <sup>2</sup> =1.22 (0.26)	
Adolescent onset	28(54)		21(43)				
<b>Handedness - No. (%)</b>							
Right	45(87)	40(80)	40(82)	46(94)	X <sup>2</sup> = 2.04(0.56)	X <sup>2</sup> = 1.54(0.67)	X <sup>2</sup> = 9.70(0.37)
Left	2(4)	8(16)	7(15)	2 (4)			
Ambidextrous	3(6)	0	1(2)	0			
Missing	2(4)	2(4)	1(2)	1 (2)			
<b>Psychological and personality measures</b>							
Callous subscale (ICU)	10.56±5.31	5.06±3.06	10.43±5.78	5.82±3.06	61.63(0.001)	2.30(0.63)	0.47(0.50)
Uncare subscale (ICU)	14.52±4.98	6.60±3.32	15.27±4.52	9.29±5.50	125.47 (0.001)	7.52(0.01)	2.45(0.12)
Unemotional subscale (ICU)	7.54±4.09	4.36±2.45	7.43±2.76	6.10±3.06	25.24(0.001)	3.18 (0.08)	4.26(0.05)
Total ICU	33.87±12.61	14.66±5.32	34.10±10.92	19.80±8.40	146.97(0.001)	3.69 (.06)	3.15(0.08)
Grandiose manipulative (YPI)	38.13±9.34	31.92±9.09	38.18±13.07	34.93±9.09	10.59 (0.001)	1.11 (0.29)	1.044 (0.30)
Callous/Unemotional (YPI)	29.73±7.69	26.44±6.03	35.57±10.43	30.36±5.29	15.53 (0.001)	20.54 (0.001)	0.788 (0.37)
Impulsive/Irresponsible (YPI)	41.19±8.12	32.16±6.74	39.55±10.01	32.85±5.90	50.12 (0.001)	0.18 (0.67)	1.108 (0.29)
Total YPI	109.07±20.86	90.52±17.89	113.30±28.43	98.18±15.93	31.24 (0.001)	3.89 (0.05)	0.324 (0.57)
<b>Current psychiatric comorbidity - No. with K-SADS-PL diagnoses (%)</b>							
ADHD	16(31)	-	21(43)	-		X <sup>2</sup> =1.58(0.20)	
ODD	34(65)	-	30(61)	-		X <sup>2</sup> =0.18 (0.66)	
PTSD	7(14)		2(4)			X <sup>2</sup> = 2.73 (0.09)	
MDD	11(21)		4(8)			X <sup>2</sup> = 3.36 (0.06)	
Alcohol abuse	1(2)		4(8)			X <sup>2</sup> =2.08 (0.14)	
Alcohol dependence	0		0				
Substance abuse	1(2)		7(14)			X <sup>2</sup> =5.28 (0.02)	
Substance dependence	1(2)		5(10)			X <sup>2</sup> =3.09 (0.07)	
Generalized Anxiety Disorder	7(14)		2(4)			X <sup>2</sup> = 2.73 (0.09)	

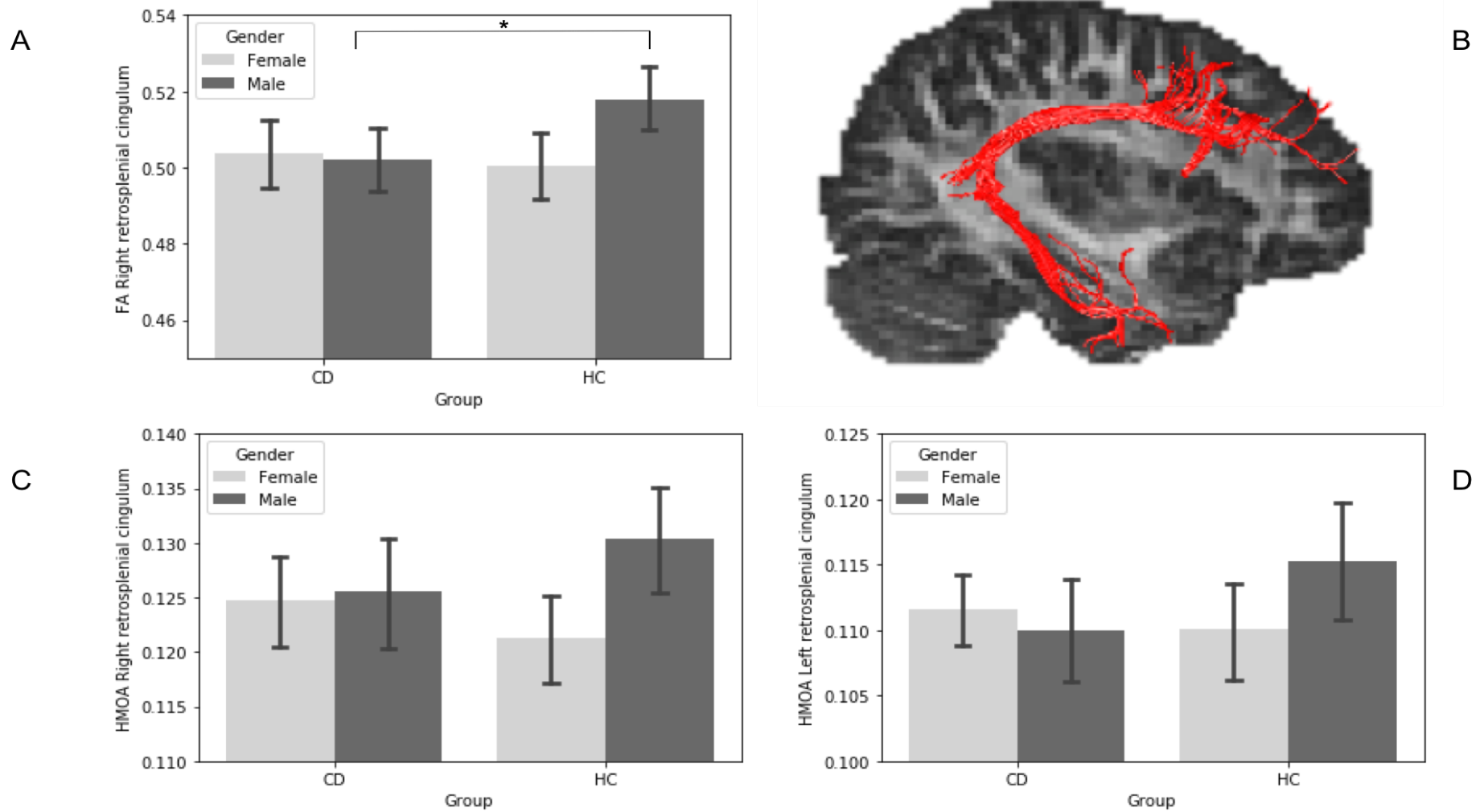
Note: CD, Conduct disorder; HC, healthy controls; ADHD, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder; ODD, Oppositional defiant disorder; PTSD, post-traumatic stress disorder; MDD, major depressive disorder; YPI, Youth Psychopathic traits Inventory; ICU, Inventory of Callous Unemotional traits. # Number of traumatic events were estimated from the K-SADS-PL interview data.



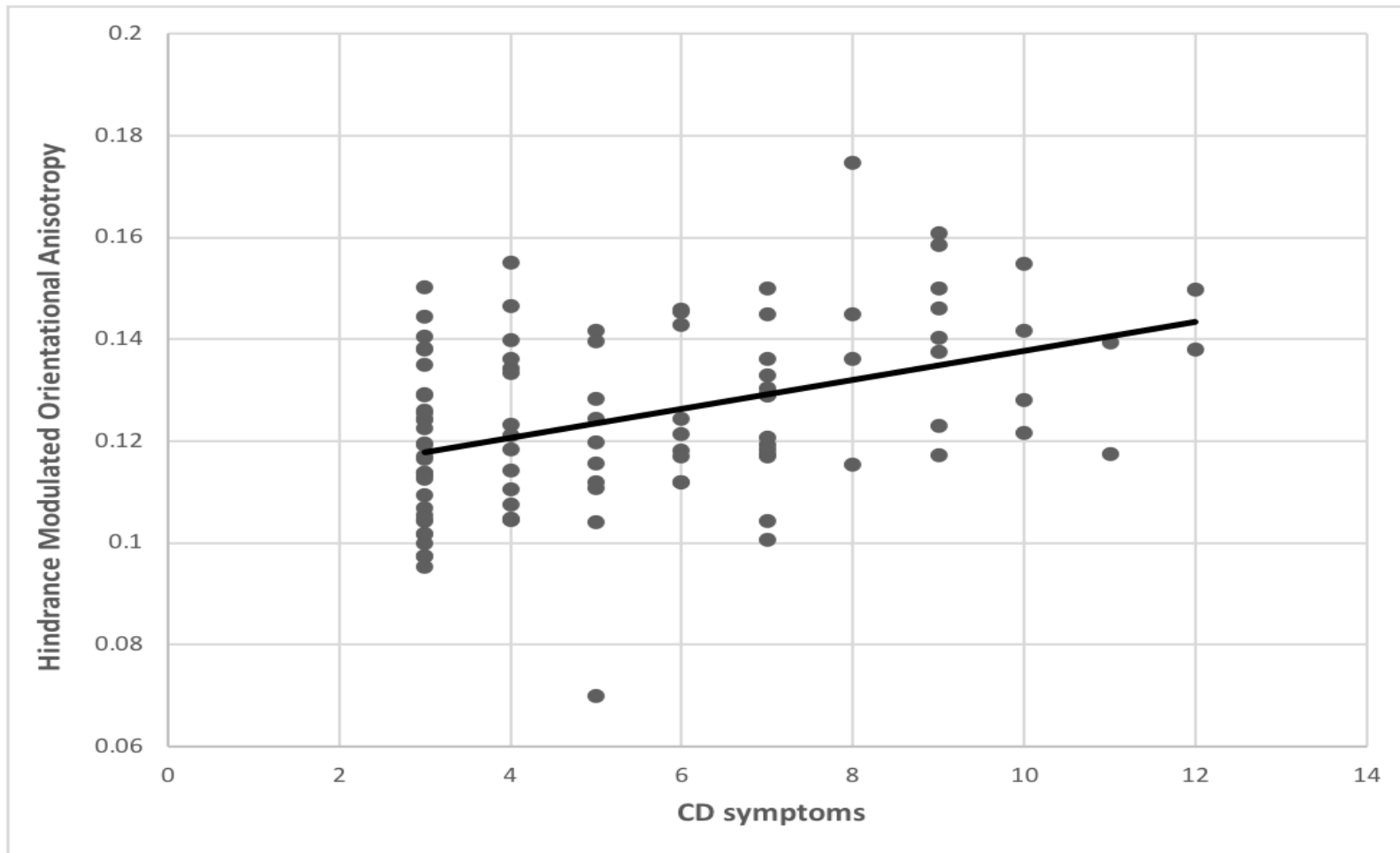
**Figure 1** Tractography reconstruction for all limbic white matter tracts. **A. Coronal tractography reconstruction of the subgenual cingulum (SGC):** a) First sphere of interest placed 5 slices anterior to the mid-sagittal view. b) Target sphere placed 3 slices anterior to the genu of the corpus callosum. c) Final reconstruction of the SGC. **B. Coronal tractography reconstruction of the retrosplenial cingulum (RSC):** a) First sphere of interest placed 5 slices posterior to the mid-sagittal view. b) Target sphere placed 3-4 slices above the splenium. c) Final reconstruction of the RSC. **C. Coronal tractography reconstruction of the parahippocampal cingulum (PHC):** a) First sphere of interest placed behind the splenium. b) Target sphere placed 3-4 slices below sphere A. c) Final reconstruction of the PHC. **D. Coronal tractography reconstruction of the uncinate fasciculus (UF):** a) First sphere of interest placed in the fronto-temporal junction. b) Target sphere placed at the temporal pole. c) Final reconstruction of the UF. **E. Coronal tractography reconstruction of the fornix.** a) One coronal sphere placed in the body of the fornix. b) Final reconstruction of the fornix.



**Figure 2. Main effects of diagnosis on fractional anisotropy of the right retrosplenial cingulum.** Group differences are significant at  $p < .05$ , False Discovery Rate correction. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals of the mean. HC, healthy control; CD, Conduct Disorder; FA, fractional anisotropy



**Figure 3. Sex by diagnosis interactions in the retrosplenial cingulum tract.** A) Sex by diagnosis interaction on fractional anisotropy values in the right retrosplenial cingulum, which was significant at  $pFDR=0.05$ . B) 3D reconstruction of the retrosplenial cingulum tract. C) Sex by diagnosis interactions in the Hindrance Modulated Orientational Anisotropy of the right retrosplenial cingulum. D) Sex by diagnosis interactions in the Hindrance Modulated Orientational Anisotropy of the left retrosplenial cingulum. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals of the mean. HC, healthy control; CD, Conduct Disorder.



**Figure 4. Association between CD symptoms and hindrance modulated orientational anisotropy (HMOA) in the right retrosplenial cingulum in the CD group.** There was a significant positive correlation between CD symptoms and HMOA values in the right retrosplenial cingulum tract.