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"Early to bed, early to rise": Diffusion tensor imaging identifies chronotype-specificity

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ABSTRACT

Sleep and wakefulness are crucial prerequisites for cognitive efficiency, the disturbances of which severely impact performance and mood as present e.g. after time zone traveling, in shift workers or patients with sleep or 20 affective disorders. Based on their individual disposition to sleep and wakefulness, humans can be categorized 21 as early (EC), late (LC) or intermediate (IC) chronotypes. While ECs tend to wake up early in the morning and 22 find it difficult to remain awake beyond their usual bedtime, LCs go to bed late and have difficulties getting up. 23 Beyond sleep/wake timings, chronotypes show distinct patterns of cognitive performance, gene expression, en- 24 docrinology and lifestyle. However, little is known about brain structural characteristics potentially underlying 25 differences. Specifically, white matter (WM) integrity is crucial for intact brain function and has been related 26 to various lifestyle habits, suggesting differences between chronotypes. Hence, the present study draws on Diffusion Tensor Imaging as a powerful tool to non-invasively probe WM architecture in 16 ECs, 23 LCs and 20 28 ICs. Track-based spatial statistics highlight that LCs were characterized by WM differences in the frontal and tem- 29 poral lobes, cingulate gyrus and corpus callosum. Results are discussed in terms of findings reporting late 30 chronotypes to exhibit a chronic form of jet lag accompanied with sleep disturbances, vulnerability to depression 31 and higher consumption of nicotine and alcohol. This study has far-reaching implications for health and the 32 economy. Ideally, work schedules should fit in with chronotype-specificity whenever possible. 33

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39 Introduction

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The term 'chronotype' refers to an endogenous, self-sustained dispo-40 sition towards sleep and wakefulness (Katzenberg et al., 1998; Vink et al., 41 2001) reflecting preferences in circadian (i.e., oscillation of about 24 h) 4243 rhythms. Chronotypes are categorized according to the circadian phase of their biological clock (Kerkhof and Van Dongen, 1996). Specifically, 44 early chronotypes (EC) spontaneously wake up at an early hour and 45find it difficult to stay up late in the evening. On the other hand, late 46 47 types (LC) tend to go to bed late at night and sleep late into the day. Chronotype-specificity is promoted by the interplay between neural cir-48 cadian and homeostatic oscillators (Borbely, 1982): the homeostatic 49 50process regulated by adenosine stemming from astrocytes (Halassa et al., 2009) steadily increases when awake and declines during sleep. 51 The circadian rhythm originates in the suprachiasmatic nuclei (SCNs) 5253of the anterior hypothalamus. Chronotype-specificity has been shown to be associated with gender, with a higher percentage of females 5455being ECs (Vink et al., 2001), while high testosterone levels seem to 56lead to a stronger evening-orientation in young males (Randler et al.,

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1053-8119/\$ – see front matter 0 2013 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.07.086 2012). Furthermore, chronotype varies with age (Monk et al., 1997). In 57 particular, teenagers often sleep until late morning and whereas elderly 58 people wake up in the early morning hours. Endocrine factors were re-59 ported to be involved in these age-dependent changes of chronotype 60 (Hagenauer et al., 2011). Lastly, the examination of genes contributing 61 to inter-individual differences in sleep architecture, timing, and duration 62 has recently received attention (Lazar et al., 2012). 63

In particular, LCs show a much larger discrepancy between individual 64 sleep preferences and normal work schedules - typically starting early in 65 the day - that lead to the accumulation of a substantial sleep deficit dur- 66 ing the working week as compared to ECs (Roenneberg et al., 2003). 67 Moreover, LCs more frequently report poorer sleep quality, more tired- 68 ness during the day (Giannotti et al., 2002; Taillard et al., 2003), exhibit 69 psychological and psychosomatic disturbances (Giannotti et al., 2002), 70 and consume more legal stimulants such as nicotine and alcohol 71 (Adan, 1994; Mecacci and Rocchetti, 1998; Taillard et al., 1999) than 72 ECs. For example, LCs seem to be more vulnerable to bipolar disorders in-73 cluding depression than ECs and intermediate chronotypes (IC, (Mecacci 74 and Rocchetti, 1998; Wood et al., 2009)). Neurostructurally, the white 75 matter (WM) underlying the anterior cingulate gyrus (ACC) and the cor-76 pus callosum are reportedly affected by these disorders (Brambilla et al., 77 2003; Barnea-Goraly et al., 2009). Moreover, the development of depres-78 sion during the period of a lifetime was shown to be associated with 79 alterations of the white matter underlying the frontal lobes that have 80

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been linked to specific impairments in cognitive functions (for a review
 see McKinney and Jacksonville, 2005).

Findings postulated that LCs exhibit a chronic form of functional jet lag 83 84 (Wittmann et al., 2006) because their endogenous sleep-/wake rhythms rarely fit conventional social schedules. These long-term repeated distur-85 bances of synchronization between the individual, endogenous and the 86 external timing system impair physiological and psychological health 87 and induce stress via high cortisol levels (Winget et al., 1984). Structural 88 89 changes and cognitive impairments became apparent after five years of 90 exposure to high cortisol levels (Cho, 2001), suggesting that chronic dif-91 ferences in sleep preferences associated with chronotype-specificities 92may also be associated with brain structural differences. A structural MRI study demonstrated that chronic jet lag produces temporal lobe 93 94 atrophy leading to spatial cognitive deficits (Cho, 2001). These findings, although stemming from time-zone travelers, highlight the need for 95 structural and not only functional investigations. Consequently, as today's 96 society has become clock driven, so that our sleep/wake behavior is 97 dictated by commercial and industrial demands, the question arises as 98 to whether, for example, chronotype-specificity and health-impairing be-99 havior are associated with specific neural mechanisms. 100

As brain regions are innervated and connected via white matter bun-101 dles, the investigation of WM deserves substantial investigation within 102 103 the scope of chronotype research. Specifically, WM architecture is crucial for coordinated brain function (for a review see Schmithorst and Yuan, 104 2010). Various lifestyle habits, e.g. cigarette smoking (for a review see 105Durazzo et al., 2010), alcohol consumption (Sorg et al., 2012), cannabis 106 use (Zalesky et al., 2012) and sleep deprivation (Rocklage et al., 2009) 107 108 have been reported to result in WM alterations. As chronotypespecificity determines the individual sleep/wake cycle (Borbely, 1982) 109 and influences lifestyle habits to an enormous extent, the question 110 emerges as to whether it is also associated with the underlying white 111 112matter microstructure, especially for LCs who appear to suffer the most 113from 'chronic jet lag' (Wittmann et al., 2006). Understanding the underlying microstructure by investigating the cerebral WM architecture will 114 lead to consequences for chronotherapeutics (i.e. therapies of phase ad-115vanced or delayed sleep disorders) and to the adaptation of work sched-116 ules to chronotype-specificities whenever possible. 117

118 A powerful tool for the investigation of WM microstructure is Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI (Basser et al., 1994)). The commonly used sca-119 lar metrics of DTI are mean diffusivity (MD) and fractional anisotropy 120 (FA) that characterize the magnitude and directionality of constrained 121 122 water diffusion in brain tissue as well as of axial (AD) and radial diffusivity (RD (Song et al., 2003)). AD represents the largest (major) eigenvalue 123 of the diffusion tensor, whereas RD equals the average of two remaining 124 125eigenvalues and characterizes diffusivity in the plane orthogonal to the direction of the largest diffusivity. The number of possible valid tracks 126127is known as the so-called fiber count (FC) metric. In particular, the changes in FC were reported with regard to cerebral palsy due to 128periventricular white matter injury (Thomas et al., 2005). However, it 129should be mentioned that according to Jones et al. (2013), the term 130'streamline count' is sometimes used which offers a more unambiguous 131 132way of reporting results. It indicates that there is a dependence on the 133 tractography algorithm and the experimental conditions. It should be pointed out that either "streamline count" or "fiber count" as provided 134by the tractography tools are not to be confused with a true measure-135ment of the number of actual fibers (i.e. axonal projections). Comparison 136137 of cerebral white matter connectivity and architecture between specific groups of subjects was carried out as voxelwise statistical analyses 138 (Ashburner and Friston, 2001). Recently, an algorithm based on track-139 based spatial statistics (TBSS) was introduced (Smith et al., 2006), 140 which allows for statistical comparisons of multi-subject data at group 141 level using FA and other maps with high reliability due to a simple and 142 clear analysis pipeline. 143

144Based on the reported chronotype-specificities in sleep/wake pro-145cesses, gene expression and lifestyle habits, the present study aimed146at characterizing WM integrity in different chronotypes drawing on

DTI metrics such as FA, MD, AD, RD and FC. First, it is hypothesized 147 that LCs differ significantly in their lifestyle habits from ECs and ICs. 148 Second, we question whether significantly different DTI metrics will 149 be present in LCs as they have been reported to be more vulnerable to 150 bipolar disorders, including depression, than ECs and ICs. Hence, the 151 white matter structures underlying the ACC and the corpus callosum 152 are in particular regions of interest as they have been reported to be af- 153 fected by these disorders. Third, as the development of depression dur- 154 ing a person's lifetime is reported to be associated with impairments in 155 cognitive functions, we query whether significant differences will be 156 found in the white matter underlying the frontal lobes. Fourth, based 157 on the previous finding that LCs suffer from chronic functional jet lag, 158 we reveal whether there are differences in the DTI metrics in the 159 white matter underlying the temporal lobes, reported to be affected 160 by chronic jet lag. 161

Results

Demographic, sleep and lifestyle characteristics

The results of demographic, sleep and lifestyle characteristics are 164 shown in Inline Supplementary Table S1. Statistical differences were revealed for smoking and alcohol consumption with LCs smoking significantly more cigarettes per day and consuming more units of alcoholic 167 beverages per week than ICs (P < 0.05). Moreover, LCs reported drinking significantly more alcoholic beverages than ECs (P < 0.01). Based 169 on inclusion criteria, no significant differences were detected for age, 170 education, Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI (Buysse et al., 1989)), 171 Epworth Sleepiness Scale (ESS (Chervin, 2003)), Karolinska Sleepiness 172 Scale (KSS (Akerstedt and Gillberg, 1990)) and Beck Depression Inventory (BDI (Kumar et al., 2006)) scores. The reported findings that LCs in 174 particular suffer from 'chronic jet lag' and our findings that they also 175 consume more legal stimulants than ECs and ICs, have led to the combining of ECs and ICs in one group for the DTI metrics analysis. 177

Inline Supplementary Table S1 can be found online at http://dx.doi. **Q2 Q3** org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.07.086. 179

White matter integrity measures

Comparison of early and late chronotypes 181 In comparison to ECs, LCs showed significantly lower FA values 182

(P < 0.05) in the WM underlying the left cingulate and anterior cingulate gyrus as well as in the left frontal lobe (Fig. 1a, S2, S3). ECs on the 184 other hand exhibited a significant decrease of MD values (P < 0.05) 185 when compared to LCs, mainly in the left cerebrum, sub-lobar, extranuclear and the left frontal lobe, sub-gyral and in the WM underlying 187 the precentral gyrus (Fig. 1b, S2, S3). AD did not yield significant results. 188

Comparison of intermediate and late chronotypes

For LCs, significantly (P < 0.05) lower FA values emerged in the left 190 corpus callosum (Fig. 2a, S2, S3) and in the WM underlying the left 191 cingulate and anterior cingulate gyri as well as in the left frontal lobe, 192 sub-gyral, as compared to ICs. Additionally, late chronotypes showed 193 lower FC values (P < 0.05) for the right frontal lobe, sub-gyral (Figs. 2c, 194 S2, S3). ICs exhibited significantly lower values of RD (P < 0.05) compared to the LCs in the left temporal and parietal lobe, sub-gyral (Fig. 2b, S2, S3). AD did not yield significant results.

Comparison of early and intermediate chronotypes 198

TBSS did not reveal any differences of diffusivity between ECs and 199 ICs. $$200\,$

Comparison of early plus intermediate versus late chronotypes

LCs showed significantly lower FA values (P < 0.05) in the WM un- 202 derlying the left cingulate and anterior cingulate gyrus as compared to 203 the combined EC and IC (EC + IC) chronotypes (Fig. 3a, S2, S3). 204

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Fig. 1. Significant differences in a) FA and b) MD for ECs compared to LCs. Background: mean track skeleton (green) and T_1 -weighted MNI 152 brains. Radiological convention. The right inset represents zoomed view of axial projection marked by a yellow square. a) Coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate regions (red), where FA values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -15, Y = -9, Z = 33, respectively, and correspond to center of region. b) Coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate regions (red), where MD values are significantly lower for ECs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -27, Y = -5, Z = 26, respectively, and correspond to center of region.

Additionally, substantially lower FC values (P < 0.05) for the LCs were observed in the right frontal lobe, sub-gyral, (Fig. 3b, S2, S3). MD and RD values were significantly lower for EC + IC (Fig. 3c/d, S2, S3) in the left temporal lobe, sub-gyral (P < 0.05). AD did not yield significant results.

210 Discussion

The present study aimed to characterize the WM architecture of ECs, LCs and ICs by DTI/TBSS. As expected, lifestyle habits differed between chronotypes. More importantly, differences in white matter integrity were prominent, particularly in LCs as compared to ICs and/or ECs. Four specific hypotheses were tested. First, in line with our hypothesis, 215 we identified significant differences between chronotypes, with LCs 216 consuming significantly more nicotine and alcohol than ICs and ECs. 217 Confirming our second hypothesis, significantly different DTI metrics 218 of white matter structures underlying the ACC and the corpus callosum 219 were present. In line with our third hypothesis, significant differences 220 in the white matter underlying the frontal lobes were observed. 221 Confirming our fourth hypothesis, DTI metrics were deviant in the 222 white matter underlying the temporal lobes. 223

Screening confirmed that numbers of alcoholic drinks per week and 224 number of cigarettes per day in the present study did not qualify for al-225 cohol or nicotine abuse. Nevertheless, while having excluded subjects 226



Fig. 2. Significant difference in a) FA, b) RD and c) FC for ICs compared to LCs (IC/LC). Background: mean track skeleton (green) and T_1 -weighted MNI 152 brains. Radiological convention. The right inset represents zoomed view of axial projection marked by a yellow square. a) Coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate regions (red), where FA values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -13, Y = 22, Z = 24, respectively, and correspond to center of region. b) Coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate regions (red), where RD values are significantly lower for ICs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate regions (red), where RD values are significantly lower for ICs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate regions (red), where RD values are significantly lower for ICs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red), where FC values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red), where FC values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red), where FC values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -44, Y = -7, Z = -25, respectively, c) Coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red), where FC values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -32, Y = 36, Z = 10, respectively, and correspond to center of region.

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Fig. 3. Significant differences in a) FA, b) FC, c) MD, and d) RD of ECs and ICs as compared to LCs (EC + IC/LC). Background: mean track skeleton (green) and T_1 -weighted MNI 152 brains. Radiological convention. a) Coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red) where the FA values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -15, Y = -9, Z = 33, respectively, and correspond to center of region. b) Coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red) where the FC values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -15, Y = -9, Z = 33, respectively, and correspond to center of region. b) Coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red) where the FC values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -41, Y = -9, Z = -29, respectively. All correspond to center of regions (red) where the FC values are significantly lower for LCs (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are X = -41, Y = -4, Z = -29, respectively. All correspond to center of regions (red) where the EC + IC group (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red) where the RD values are significantly lower for the EC + IC group (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections demonstrate the RD values are significantly lower for the EC + IC group (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red) where the RD values are significantly lower for the EC + IC group (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections demonstrate the regions (red) where the RD values are significantly lower for the EC + IC group (P < 0.05). MNI coordinates of coronal, sagittal, and axial projections are

with excessive use of nicotine and alcohol, consumption of alcohol and 227 nicotine was more prominent in LCs, thus confirming our first hypothe-228sis. It is well known that LCs consume significantly more alcohol and 229nicotine in real life (Mecacci and Rocchetti, 1998; Taillard et al., 1999). 230231However, further statistical analyses revealed no significant correlations 232between alcohol consumption and significant different DTI metrics (see S4) showing that alcohol consumption is not related to our findings. 233Additionally, alcohol consumption did not account for the significant 234differences of DTI metrics (see S5). While most of our participants 235consumed alcohol (see Participants), smokers among the chronotype 236groups were unequally distributed with only one and two smokers 237 among the ECs and ICs, respectively, but eleven smokers among the 238 LCs. Therefore, correlation analysis was performed only with smoking 239LCs. Here, smoking was an unrelated factor (see S6 and S7) and could 240not explain the observed differences in the clusters, thus confirming 241 that it cannot have influenced our findings. 242

In line with our second hypothesis, LCs exhibited significantly lower
 FA values in the WM underlying the left ACC as compared to ECs and ICs.
 Interestingly, DTI studies assessing elderly patients suffering from major

depression revealed white matter ACC abnormalities (Alexopoulos 246 et al., 2002; Ballmaier et al., 2004), which affected emotional modula- 247 tions and cognitive functioning. For the present study, current or past 248 neuropsychiatric disorders were ruled out and subjects were between 249 18 and 35 years of age, making it difficult to compare results with stud- 250 ies investigating elderly populations. However, LCs were reported to be 251 in particular more vulnerable to develop depression during their life- 252 time than ICs and ECs (Levandovski et al., 2011) as well as bipolar disor- 253 ders (Wood et al., 2009). Hallmarks of bipolar disorders are emotional 254 and behavioral disturbances, which are accompanied by episodes of 255 mania and depression and were reported to exhibit cognitive deficits 256 in attention, executive function and short-term memory (Murphy 257 et al., 2001; Altshuler et al., 2005; Pavuluri et al., 2006). In conjunction 258 with chronotype-specific ACC findings, the present study revealed 259 lower FA values underlying the left corpus callosum for LCs compared 260 to ICs. Among others, abnormal corpus callosum integrity was reported 261 to be associated with bipolar disorders (Brambilla et al., 2003; Barnea- 262 Goraly et al., 2009). Thus, future studies probing, e.g. the white matter 263 integrity in LCs suffering from these disorders versus healthy LCs 264

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might clarify whether our DTI data could serve as a first hint for the development of diseases such as depression, and determine the relationship between chronotype-specificity and the observed white matter
alterations underlying the ACC and the corpus callosum. Vice versa,
studies focusing on these regions of interest should consider chronotype
classification, affective symptoms and cognitive performance as modulating factors.

Confirming our third hypothesis, LCs presented substantially lower 272273FC values in the WM underlying the right frontal lobe compared to 274ECs and ICs while ECs showed lower MD values for the left frontal 275lobe compared to LCs. White matter microstructure underlying the 276frontal lobes has been associated with disturbances in motor move-277ments and cognitive functions, e.g. attention (Kiernan and Hudson, 2781994). The interrelation between motor and cognitive skills is well established (see Diamond, 2000, for a review) - with a close interrela-279 tion of motor development and cognitive development as well as of the 280 cerebellum and the prefrontal cortex. A circadian modulation of motor 281 skills has already been reported (Drust et al., 2005; Jasper et al., 2011) 282but no studies focused on chronotype-specificities of motor skills. 283Given that we did not probe visuomotor coordination or fine motor 284skills, we cannot comment on potential behavioral effects. 285

In line with our fourth hypothesis, chronotype-specific DTI metrics 286 287were also identified for the WM underlying the left temporal lobe. A structural MRI study assessing WM in time-zone travelers, suffering 288 from physiological and psychological stress, demonstrated that chronic 289jet lag results in temporal lobe atrophy leading to cognitive deficits in 290tasks probing spatial functions (Cho, 2001). Current or past psychiatric 291292 and neurological diseases and depression served as exclusion criteria for the present study and subjects were young and healthy. Additionally, 293no significant correlations between a self-rated depression questionnaire 294(BDI) and significant different DTI metrics clusters emerged (see S4), 295296 showing that these potential influencing factors have been successfully 297ruled out by our screening procedure. Thus, it still has to be determined 298whether the significant alterations in DTI metrics can be used as an indicator for the development of chronic functional jetlag during aging. 299

Additional to our four main findings, significantly lower MD values 300 were observed for ECs and in the conjunction of ECs and ICs versus 301 302 LCs underlying the left precentral gyrus. This region has been linked to disturbances of the somatosensory pathways (Kiernan and Hudson, 303 1994; Thomalla et al., 2009). Studies investigating chronotype-304 specificities in somatosensory processing, however, are rare; one poten-305 306 tial hint for a particular association between chronotype and somatosensory pathways stems from the fact that LCs are more frequently 307 affected by fibromyalgia syndrome, a diffuse musculoskeletal pain dis-308 order with symptoms of sleep disturbances (Kantermann et al., 2012). 309 As LCs show a significant higher vulnerability to sleep disturbances 310 311 (Giannotti et al., 2002), a joint physiological, potentially brain structural and functional basis may be underlying. If and in how far our results can 312 be directly linked to fibromyalgia and sleep disturbances can only been 313 clarified by combined studies investigating patient populations of fibro-314 myalgia with DTI under consideration of chronotype and thus investi-315316 gating the causal roles of late chronotypes and their vulnerability to 317 sleep disturbances and the development of fibromyalgia.

The above findings represent important white matter characteristics 318 319underlying chronotype-specificity. The current study design successfully 320 ruled out that modulating factors, e.g. sleep disturbances, affected our re-321 sults. Although LCs showed higher values of disturbed sleep quality in the PSQI as compared to ICs, this difference was not significant. More-322 over, no relationship existed between the self-rated sleep questionnaires 323 and significant DTI metrics (see S4), which supports the notion that none 324 of the subjects suffered from disturbingly increased daytime sleepiness 325or sleep disorders. In the literature however, LCs were reported to 326show a larger discrepancy between their preferred sleep time and nor-327 mal work schedules during their lifetime that led to a substantial sleep 328 deficit during the week as compared to ECs (Giannotti et al., 2002; 329 330 Taillard et al., 2003). Advisably, chronotype-specificity should be as well be investigated with electroencephalographic (EEG) recordings 331 during sleep and then could be linked to findings of white matter integ- 332 rity measures to gain insights into group differences of sleep-related 333 pathways. 334

Several limitations of the present study must be highlighted. First, 335 we only included male subjects to avoid adding another level of statisti- 336 cal complexity and variance. Hence, our results need to be replicated in 337 a sample of females. Based on the present cross-sectional study design, a 338 causal relationship between chronotype-specificity, lifestyle habits and 339 WM structure cannot be delineated. In particular, patient and interven- 340 tion studies might reveal insights to chronotype-specificity and the 341 associated findings, e.g. higher vulnerability to depression, cognitive im- 342 pairment and sleep disturbances. Furthermore, the cross-sectional de- 343 sign of the present study allows for the identification of "disturbances 344 of diffusion" in white matter structures in young LCs that have to be fur- 345 ther investigated during adulthood and aging in longitudinal studies. As 346 already pointed out above, although our strict exclusion criteria ensured 347 that the subjects did not suffer from psychiatric and neurological 348 diseases, we cannot rule out the possibility of a later development of 349 e.g. depressive disorders. As chronotype-specificity is complex and not 350 fully understood in its neural and genetic depth, it is possible that com- 351 mon genetic factors influence both chronotype classification and WM 352 structure. Consequently, sources and the directionality of influencing 353 factors have still to be determined. There could even be factors involved 354 that have not been considered so far. Moreover, we cannot comment on 355 whether our brain structural findings relate to behavioral or brain func- 356 tional measures or whether different stress levels affected results. 357 Future studies may want to add neuropsychological testing, brain func- 358 tional scans or cortisol levels. 359

The present study is a first successful attempt to shed light on the underlying white matter architecture of chronotype-specificity. Differences 361 of white matter integrity were prominent in LCs as compared to ICs and/362 or ECs in regions of the frontal, temporal lobes as well as the corpus 363 callosum. Follow-up studies will clarify the link between these white 364 matter alterations in LCs and the potential development of chronic functional jet lag and its associated symptoms during adulthood. The study of chronotype-specificity has far-reaching implications not just for health 367 but also for the economy: ideally, work schedules, especially shift 368 work, should fit in with chronotype-specificity to reduce suboptimal or seven erroneous performance at work, which is often associated with 370 higher accidents rates. 371

Materials and methods

Participants

16 healthy male ECs, 20 ICs and 23 LCs completed the study protocol. 374 Categorization of individual chronotypes was based on the Munich 375 Chronotype Questionnaire (Roenneberg et al., 2003). Subjects were 376 recruited by internet alerts, newsletters and flyers and were financially 377 compensated for participation. Besides common MRI exclusion criteria 378 (e.g. incorporated metal such as retainers, pacemakers, tattoos etc.), 379 study-specific inclusion criteria were (1) age 18-35 and right- 380 handedness according to the Edinburgh Inventory of Handedness 381 (Oldfield, 1971). The following served as exclusion criteria: (a) current 382 or past psychiatric, neurological, or relevant medical disease (e.g. head 383 trauma with unconsciousness >5 min) as determined by experienced 384 raters using a short version of the SCID (Saß and Zaudig, 1996), 385 (b) daily consumption of more than four cups of coffee, caffeinated 386 soft drinks, or energy drinks, (c) history of night work or shift work, 387 (d) crossing of more than two time zones during the last three months 388 prior to the study, (e) symptoms of a possible sleep disorder according 389 to the PSQI (Buysse et al., 1989) or the ESS (Chervin, 2003) and (f) a de- 390 pressed state according to the BDI (i.e. <8; Kumar et al., 2006). The local 391 Ethics Committee (RWTH Aachen University) approved the study pro- 392 tocol, screening questionnaires and consent forms. All subjects provided 393

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written informed consent prior to participation. Participants were 394 395 instructed that the study was aimed to investigate differences in 396 chronotypes and were requested to maintain a regular sleep-wake 397 schedule during the last week prior to admission. Moreover, on the day of the MRI scan, participants were asked not to practice sports, to 398 abstain from alcohol and energy drinks and not to consume coffee/tea 399 or caffeinated beverages for at least 3 h prior to scanning. Immediately 400 prior to the DTI session, each participant's subjective sleepiness was 401 402 rated on the KSS (Akerstedt and Gillberg, 1990). Among ECs, ICs and LCs, there were a) one, two and eleven smokers, respectively, and b) 403 404 twelve non-alcohol consumers (five ECs, three ICs and three LCs).

405 Data acquisition

The MRI session was conducted ten to twelve hours after each 406 individual's wake up time as determined by sleep diaries. Scanning 407was performed on a 3 T MAGNETOM Tim Trio scanner (Siemens, 408 Erlangen, Germany) using standard gradients and a circular polarized 409 phase array head coil. Participants lay in a supine position; head move-410 ment was limited by foam padding within the head coil. Diffusion-411 weighted data was acquired with the standard double-refocused spin-412 echo echo-planar imaging using the following parameters: diffusion 413 414 weightings, *b*-value = $1000 \text{ s} \text{ mm}^{-2}$, 72 slices, 30 directions, four averages, voxel size of measurement: $1.9 \times 1.9 \times 1.9 \text{ mm}^3$. For anatomical 415 localization, a magnetization prepared rapid gradient echo (MP-RAGE) 416 sequence was acquired during the imaging session (TR = 2250 ms; 417 TE = 3.03 ms; ST = 1 mm; FOV = 256×256 mm; voxel size = 418 419 $1.0 \times 1.0 \times 1.0 \text{ mm}^3$).

420 Data analysis

Data analysis was performed in FSL with FDT tool (Smith et al., 421 422 2006). Pair comparisons of FA, MD, AD, and RD maps between EC/IC, EC/LC, IC/LC, and EC + IC/LC groups were performed. Streamline 423 tractography was performed for all groups using the ExploreDTI tool 424 (Leemans et al., 2009). Additionally, the fiber track count maps were 425exported using ExploreDTI. The fiber track count map takes into account 426 427the number of all streamlines that can be reconstructed between two regions of interest for the given voxel. The parameters of deterministic 428 streamline fiber tracking algorithm were the same for all subjects and 429equal to the following: FA threshold 0.2, angle deviation 30°, minimal 430and maximal length of fibers 50 and 500 mm, respectively. Determina-431 tion of the location of voxels demonstrating significantly different DTI 432 values was accomplished by converting the x, y, and z coordinates for 433 the peak voxel within a cluster from the Montreal Neurological Institute 434 (MNI) coordinates used in FSL, to Talairach coordinates (Talairach and 435436 Tournoux, 1988) using the MNItoTAL software (http://www. bioimagesuite.org/Mni2Tal/index.html). Demographic data, sleep ques-437 tionnaires and lifestyle habits were analyzed using One-Way ANOVA 438 with chronotype as between - subject factor (post-hoc test, Bonferroni 439- corrected). According to Miller and Chapman (2001), it would be in-440 441 appropriate to include an unequal number of nicotine consumers as a 442 covariate in the correlation analysis. Therefore, correlation analysis was performed only with smoking late chronotypes. 443

444 TBSS pipeline in FSL

Data analysis was performed with the FSL toolkit (Woolrich et al., 445 2009). All datasets were averaged over 4 acquisitions and then 446 corrected for motion/eddy current distortions using the eddy correct 447 utility of FSL. Noise level was then estimated and the target images 448 using a background noise correction scheme (Maximov et al., 2012) 449by in-house Matlab script (The MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA) were 450corrected. The brain volume was extracted by the application of BET al-451gorithm (Smith, 2002). The FA, MD, AD and RD were calculated using 452453 FDT. The workflow of the TBSS approach can be summarized as follows: first, all FA images were preprocessed by being scaled and aligned with 454 each other, removing possible outliers and distortions. After target iden- 455 tification, all FA maps were aligned, transformed, and co-registered by 456 the FNIRT (Andersson et al., 2007) utility of FSL into $1 \times 1 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$ 457 Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI 152) space using the FMRIB58_FA 458 image as a template. All other manipulations with images were 459 performed using this space and resolution. Next, mean FA images 460 were prepared and the mean FA skeleton was produced, which repre- 461 sents the center of all possible tracks overall for all groups. In order to 462 exclude gray matter and cerebrospinal fluids, and to avoid high inter- 463 subject variability, the threshold ≥ 0.2 was applied. Finally, the aligned 464 FA images of each subject were projected onto the mean FA skeleton. 465 Thus, for each subject a personal FA skeleton was produced and then 466 an in-group comparison using the 'randomize' function with 10,000 467 permutations was calculated. All group comparisons were performed 468 using two-sample unpaired t-tests. The TBSS analyses of other maps 469 such as MD, RD, and FC were obtained in the same manner. The statisti- 470 cal threshold t > 3, P < 0.05, corrected for multiple comparisons with 471 threshold-free cluster enhancement (TFCE) was used for this analysis 472 (Smith and Nichols, 2009). 473

Whole-brain fiber tracks of LCs, ECs and ICs are provided in S8. S8 474 represents fiber tracking assessed using a deterministic streamline algo- 475 rithm for randomly selected volunteers from three groups. The coronal 476 and sagittal projections of whole-brain tractography clearly exhibit an 477 absence of any kind of artifacts and allow one to easily identify multiple 478 anatomical regions with associated fiber tracks. In order to emphasize 479 the small, visually detected variation in fiber tracking between the 480 groups, we presented a well-known fiber track of the corpus callosum. 481

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at http://dx. 482 doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.07.086. 483

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