

1 **Reduced volume of the arcuate fasciculus in adults with high-**
2 **functioning autism spectrum conditions**

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36 Atypical language is a fundamental feature of autism spectrum conditions (ASC), but few
37 studies have examined the structural integrity of the arcuate fasciculus, the major white
38 matter tract connecting frontal and temporal language regions, which is usually implicated as
39 the main transfer route used in processing linguistic information by the brain. Abnormalities
40 in the arcuate have been reported in young children with ASC, mostly in low-functioning or
41 non-verbal individuals, but little is known regarding the structural properties of the arcuate in
42 adults with ASC or, in particular, in individuals with ASC who have intact language, such as
43 those with high-functioning autism or Asperger syndrome. We used probabilistic
44 tractography of diffusion-weighted images (DWI) to isolate and scrutinise the arcuate in a
45 mixed-gender sample of 18 high-functioning adults with ASC (17 Asperger syndrome) and
46 14 age- and IQ-matched typically-developing controls. Arcuate volume was significantly
47 reduced bilaterally with clearest differences in the right hemisphere. This finding remained
48 significant in an analysis of all male participants alone. Volumetric reduction in the arcuate
49 was significantly correlated with the severity of autistic symptoms as measured by the
50 Autism-Spectrum Quotient. These data reveal that structural differences are present even in
51 high-functioning adults with ASC, who presented with no clinically manifest language
52 deficits and had no reported developmental language delay. Arcuate structural integrity may
53 be useful as an index of ASC severity and thus as a predictor and biomarker for ASC.
54 Implications for future research are discussed.

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57 Keywords: autism, Asperger syndrome, diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI), arcuate
58 fasciculus, language

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75 1. Introduction

76 Communication impairments are archetypal of autism spectrum conditions (ASC),
 77 with delayed or absent language development the primary cause of concern and referral in
 78 many cases (De Giacomo and Fombonne, 1998; Siegel et al., 1988). A significant proportion
 79 of individuals with ASC will remain minimally verbal into adulthood (Howlin et al., 2014;
 80 Pickles et al., 2014), sometimes presenting with limited to non-speech sounds, stereotyped
 81 use of a few words or phrases, and echolalia. Even high-functioning individuals with ASC
 82 exhibit a broad range of abnormalities across several major linguistic domains, including
 83 prosody, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics (Eigsti et al., 2011; Moseley et al., 2013, 2014,
 84 2015). Although the diagnosis of Asperger syndrome (DSM IV-TR: (American Psychiatric
 85 Association, 2000)), one of the major variants of ASC, was previously given on the basis of
 86 the absence of any delay in language development, these individuals may also show receptive
 87 and expressive language skills at “well below chronological age level” (Howlin, 2003). They
 88 are particularly noted for their use of idiosyncratic, pedantic language, which Hans Asperger
 89 described in his “little professor” patients (Asperger, 1944). This particular feature may be
 90 the linguistic expression of difficulties with ‘theory of mind’ (inaccurately assessing the
 91 knowledge of their listeners), and ‘weak central coherence’ (providing irrelevant and
 92 uninformative detail rather than summarizing the ‘gist’ of the matter). These two cognitive
 93 accounts are not easily disentangled in the domain of communication, as including too much
 94 detail and failing to summarise the wider picture may arise because of a failure to monitor
 95 and recognise the listener’s informational needs (Baron-Cohen, 1988). Nevertheless, the
 96 neuronal basis of language difficulties in ASC, which seem to affect all linguistic levels
 97 (phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic), requires further study.

98 A major white matter tract traditionally implicated in language impairments is the
 99 arcuate fasciculus (Ardila, 2010; Catani and Ffytche, 2005; Geschwind, 1965). The properties
 100 of this frontotemporal fibre bundle distinguish language-using humans from other non-
 101 linguistic primate species (Catani and Ffytche, 2005; Glasser and Rilling, 2008; Rilling et al.,
 102 2008; Saur et al., 2008). It consists of a longer, direct segment connecting Wernicke’s area to
 103 Broca’s area, and two indirect segments: an anterior part linking Broca’s area with the
 104 inferior parietal lobule and a posterior part linking inferior parietal lobule with the superior-
 105 temporal gyrus and sulcus (Wernicke’s area) (Bernal and Altman, 2010; Bernal and Ardila,
 106 2009; Catani and Mesulam, 2008).

107 Like language function itself, the arcuate is believed to be left-lateralised in the
 108 majority of adults (Catani et al., 2007) and children (Lebel and Beaulieu, 2009). The
 109 relationship between *structural* lateralisation of the arcuate and *functional* lateralisation of
 110 language is not always transparent (Propper et al., 2010; Vernooij et al., 2007), but its
 111 structural properties correlate with behavioural measures of language function, such as word
 112 learning (López-Barroso et al., 2013), verbal recall (Catani et al., 2007) and the development
 113 of phonological awareness and reading (Yeatman et al., 2011). Although most brain language
 114 models assume that the arcuate plays a role in translating acoustic into articulatory linguistic
 115 representations (Geschwind, 1965; Hickok and Poeppel, 2004, 2007; Wernicke, 1874),
 116 current action-perception theories of language additionally purport that the arcuate is crucial
 117 for building linguistic representations at all levels (phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic
 118 and pragmatic (Pulvermüller and Fadiga, 2010)). This position suggests AF degradation as a
 119 likely cause of multi-level language and communication deficits such as those manifest in
 120 ASC.

121 Despite the linguistic relevance of this tract and the prominence of language
122 impairments in ASC diagnosis, few studies have examined the arcuate fasciculus structurally
123 in autism. White matter integrity can be studied non-invasively in vivo using diffusion-
124 weighted imaging (DWI), which illuminates the microstructure of white-matter tracts by
125 detecting the diffusion of water through brain tissue (Alexander et al., 2007).

126 Only four previous DWI studies investigated arcuate structure in autistic children in
127 mixed gender groups. Two reported a lack of typical left-hemispheric asymmetry as
128 compared to typically-developing controls (Joseph et al., 2014; Wan et al., 2012). Another
129 two reported reduced fractional anisotropy (FA) in the left arcuate fasciculus when children
130 with ASC are compared to typically developing controls (Kumar et al., 2010; Lai et al.,
131 2012a). As Kumar and colleagues also included a comparison group of non-autistic children
132 with intellectual disability, they showed that longer fibre length of the right arcuate fasciculus
133 set the ASC group apart from both comparison groups. Ingalhalikar et al. (2011) studied an
134 ASC group consisting of children with mixed language abilities, including language-impaired
135 participants and those in the normal range. They reported reduced fractional anisotropy not in
136 the arcuate but, instead, in the adjacent parts of the superior longitudinal fasciculus, a
137 linguistically important connection between inferior-frontal and temporo-parietal cortical
138 areas. This finding must be interpreted with caution as it pertains to a more inclusive pathway
139 of which the arcuate is a single part: the superior longitudinal fasciculus contains connections
140 between the frontal, parietal, occipital, and temporal lobes (Schmahmann and Pandya, 2006),
141 the arcuate being sometimes defined as the 'long segment' connecting Broca's and
142 Wernicke's areas (Liégeois et al., 2013). A fuller description of these studies can be seen in
143 Supplementary Materials.

144 It is difficult to interpret the findings above as, with the exception of Ingalhalikar et.
145 al (2011), IQ in typically developing and ASC groups was unmatched or even unreported,
146 despite the effects of this variable on white matter microstructure (Penke et al., 2012).
147 Furthermore, some of these findings were obtained from non-verbal children, such that their
148 specificity to language or to ASC in general remains unclear. To elucidate this specificity
149 further, it would be important to study people with ASC who have intact language. To our
150 knowledge, only two tractography studies to date have examined the arcuate in adolescents
151 with high-functioning autism or Asperger syndrome. Whilst one study (Fletcher et al., 2010)
152 revealed a lack of the typical structural lateralisation that corroborates the previous work by
153 the Wan and Joseph groups, the other found no differences at all (McGrath et al., 2013) (see
154 Supplementary materials for further details). These authors of the latter study note that they
155 may have only analysed a partial segment of the arcuate. This leaves open the question as to
156 whether this or the high verbal ability of their participants resulted in the lack of
157 differentiation between groups.

158 Given the small number of studies in this area and the limitations of previous work,
159 the nature of putative structural changes to the arcuate fasciculus in autism is still largely
160 unknown. Existing findings are divergent and sometimes contradictory, and this
161 heterogeneity might have several sources. Previous studies have employed rather
162 heterogeneous groups, differing in sex, age and symptom severity. For example, the age
163 range (and hence cognitive and general developmental stage) differs substantially from 5
164 (Joseph et al., 2014) to 14 years (Fletcher et al., 2010), making it difficult to compare data
165 between studies. Moreover, childhood and adolescence are developmental periods involving
166 substantial changes in structural and functional connectivity of the brain (Asato et al., 2010;
167 Barnea-Goraly et al., 2005; Fair et al., 2009; Mukherjee et al., 2002; Nagy et al., 2004),
168 which might be another reason for lack of arcuate difference in the McGrath study (McGrath

169 et al., 2013). Even children of the *same* chronological age can show large differences in
170 cognitive and social development (Fischer and Silvern, 1985), let alone those from such
171 different age groups. Structural brain anatomy (including asymmetry) is modulated by
172 biological sex in both typically-developing individuals (Bao and Swaab, 2011) and those with
173 ASC (Lai et al., 2012b, 2013), which also has to be taken into account in any
174 neuroanatomical study. Furthermore, many of the above studies (Ingalhalikar et al., 2011; Lai
175 et al., 2012a; Wan et al., 2012) tested children who were very low functioning with severely
176 impaired language and very low verbal IQ. We therefore cannot ascertain whether these
177 reported arcuate differences in low-functioning autism would be seen in children with autism
178 who are verbal, or only related to being non-verbal. In fact, Fletcher et al. (Fletcher et al.,
179 2010) failed to replicate these results in their sample of teenagers with ASC who had average
180 full-scale and verbal IQ. Finally, the arcuate in an adult population of people with ASC have
181 not been examined.

182 To fill these gaps, we aimed to investigate arcuate connectivity in a homogenous
183 group of high-functioning adults with ASC who did not show any intellectual disability or
184 obvious language impairments. This group has been understudied in terms of structural
185 differences in language-related fibre tracts. It is of interest to examine whether this
186 population shows atypical features similar to those seen in individuals with clear language
187 delays and deficits, which could then be attributed to core features of ASC rather than to the
188 obvious language impairments manifest in the latter group. As individuals with Asperger
189 syndrome show subtle linguistic abnormalities (Boucher, 2003; Eigsti et al., 2011),
190 differences in the structural architecture of language can predicted in this population. Based
191 on previous findings, we were interested in measures of cortical asymmetry of the arcuate
192 and in any differences in fractional anisotropy, mean diffusivity and volume between highly
193 verbal adults with and without ASC. Expecting that microstructural differences of the arcuate
194 might appear even in this high-functioning population, we also examined correlations
195 between DWI measures and the Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ: Baron-Cohen et al., 2001),
196 a measure of autistic traits, to see whether a dimensional relationship exists between autistic
197 traits and arcuate structure.

198

199 **2. Methods**

200 *2.1 Participants*

201 Participants included 18 adults (mean age: 30.39 [standard deviation (SD): 9.99]; 10
202 males) with high-functioning autism or Asperger syndrome and 14 neurotypical adults (mean
203 age: 27.64 [SD: 11.28]). All participants were right-handed, native monolingual English
204 speakers, medication-free, and none had a history of neurological disorder. Handedness was
205 assessed using the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory (Oldfield, 1971), and IQ using the
206 Cattell Culture Fair test . Demographics for all measures are shown in Table 1 (see Results).
207 All subjects were verbally fluent without any obvious clinical manifestations of language
208 abnormalities, although were previously shown to exhibit subtle differences in semantic
209 processing under experimental conditions (Moseley et al., 2013, 2014, 2015). In the ASC
210 group, participants demonstrated a high degree of functional adaptation, as indicated by their
211 employment status. Ten participants were employed, 5 were studying at University and only
212 3 participants were unemployed. All participants had completed full time education.

213

214 The ASC sample was recruited from the volunteer database at the Autism Research
215 Centre at Cambridge University (www.autismresearchcentre.com). They had all been

216 previously clinically diagnosed using DSM-IV criteria: 17 met criteria for Asperger
217 Syndrome, and one for PDD-NOS (pervasive developmental disorder not otherwise
218 specified). All completed the AQ. To account for the heterogeneity in our sample introduced
219 by biological sex, a secondary analysis included only the 10 males in each group.

220 All participants gave written informed consent prior to participating in this study,
221 indicating that they understood its purpose and were willing for their data to be included (in
222 anonymous form) in scientific reports. They were remunerated for their time. Ethical
223 approval was provided by NHS Research Ethics Committee of Cambridgeshire.

224

225 *2.2 Imaging and statistical analysis*

226 Participants were scanned in a 3T Tim-Trio scanner, using a 12-channel head-coil.
227 Whole brain DWI data was acquired (Repetition Time (TR) = 7800 ms, Echo Time
228 (TE) = 90 ms, field of view: 19.2 cm, slice thickness: 2 mm, 63 slices, acquisition matrix
229 size: 96×96 , voxel size: $2 \times 2 \times 2 \text{ mm}^3$, GRAPPA acceleration factor of 2) using a twice
230 refocused spin echo sequence to reduce eddy currents (Reese et al., 2003). Diffusion
231 sensitising gradients were applied along 64 gradient directions with a b-value of $1000 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$.
232 A high resolution T1-weighted MPRAGE scan was also acquired (TR = 2250 ms,
233 TE = 2.99 ms, field of view: 256x240 mm, slice thickness: 1 mm, 192 slices, GRAPPA
234 acceleration factor of 2).

235 For the purpose of estimating global white matter and intracranial volume (ICV) in
236 participant MPRAGE (T1-weighted) files, preprocessing and segmentation of white and grey
237 matter was performed using Freesurfer (Fischl, 2012), a well-documented analysis tool freely
238 available online (<http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu>). ICV was calculated by the automated
239 ‘eTIV’ process within the mri_segstats function, which derives ICV through brain atlas
240 normalisation procedures that calculate head size (Buckner et al., 2004).

241 Motion parameters were extracted for each DWI volume for all participants using
242 FSL’s motion and eddy current correction function eddy_correct (www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl),
243 and any participants who moved more than 2mm in any direction were excluded. The
244 diffusion weighted volumes were also visually inspected for typical motion artefacts (e.g.
245 striping), but no further participants needed to be removed for this reason.

246

247 In order to check whether there was a difference in the amount of motion between the
248 two groups (patients vs. controls), a summary measure of motion was determined using the
249 root mean square (RMS) volume of the 6 parameters describing the rigid body movement (3
250 translations and 3 rotations). This summary measure was calculated both in absolute terms
251 (i.e., using the firstly acquired volume as a reference), giving a global measure of head
252 motion, and also relative to the preceding volume, giving a measure of the head motion
253 between volumes. The average relative head displacement between volumes was 0.55 mm for
254 the controls, and 0.58 mm for the ASC participants, while the average absolute displacement
255 was 1.47 mm for the controls and 1.54 mm for ASC patients. There was no significant
256 difference between groups ($p=0.47$ for absolute displacement and $p=0.55$ for relative
257 displacement). The maximum relative and absolute displacement for each subject were also
258 compared across groups and again no difference was found ($p=0.96$ for absolute
259 displacement and $p=0.41$ for relative displacement).

260 Preprocessing and analysis of the diffusion-weighted images (DWI) was conducted
261 using MRtrix (J-D Tournier, Brain Research Institute, Melbourne, Australia,

262 <http://www.brain.org.au/software/>), and the full analysis was performed in subject-space.
263 Initially, images were converted from DICOM to MRtrix (.mif) format. A brain-mask with
264 the same dimensions as the diffusion dataset was generated for each participant for use in
265 further analysis, and these were checked against the original DWI images in order to
266 determine whether any manual edits of the mask were required. The diffusion tensor model
267 was then fitted to the DWI data, and a map of fractional anisotropy (FA) was generated for
268 each subject.

269 The arcuate was reconstructed using probabilistic fibre-tracking based on constrained
270 spherical deconvolution (CSD) (Jeurissen et al., 2011). The majority of previous diffusion
271 MRI studies in ASC have used diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) to reconstruct white matter
272 bundles of interest. However, a well known limitation of this approach is its inability to
273 account for crossing fibres in the brain, and the CSD approach was therefore chosen in order
274 to overcome this limitation. CSD is a very powerful tractography technique which is able to
275 trace white matter bundles across regions of crossing fibres, while keeping the total
276 acquisition time manageable for the patients (~10 min). Other crossing-fibre reconstruction
277 techniques, such as diffusion spectrum imaging (DSI), require significantly greater imaging
278 times (>30min), which makes them unsuitable for patient studies due to the increased
279 discomfort this would impose.

280 The fibre orientation distribution function was estimated for each voxel, and a
281 probabilistic fibre-tracking algorithm was used (Jeurissen et al., 2011). Probabilistic
282 algorithms are regarded as less sensitive to noise or artefacts, and better able to account for
283 uncertainty and to reconstruct areas of crossing fibres (Behrens et al., 2007; Klein et al.,
284 2010). The masking and editing tool included in FSLview (Jenkinson et al., 2012) was used
285 to draw seed and target regions of interest (ROIs) in the right and left hemisphere of each
286 participant in native space (see Figure 1). The ROI drawing procedures implemented
287 followed protocol for dissecting the arcuate fasciculus which were published by Liégeois et
288 al. (2013), although for both ROIs we used two slices instead of three. Initially, a seed ROI
289 was placed on two coronal slices at the so-called arcuate “bottleneck”: an anterior-posterior
290 orientated fibre tract lateral to the corona radiata and medial to the cortex (see Figure 1, A).
291 All fibres must pass through this point to reach their destination, and so fibres were
292 reconstructed between this seed and a second “inclusion” ROI, which was placed on two
293 slices in the axial plane, corresponding to superior temporal gyrus (see Figure 1, B). Only
294 tracks which passed through this ROI were included. From these tracks, high-resolution
295 track-density images (TDI) were generated and examined for spurious fibres. These were
296 removed by manually creating exclusion ROIs and repeating the tracking protocol. The
297 following exclusion ROIs were used when necessary: (1) an axial ROI to exclude descending
298 cortico-spinal tracts; (2) an axial ROI above the AF to exclude ascending cortical tracts; (3) a
299 coronal or sagittal ROI to exclude tracts belonging to the inferior longitudinal fasciculus; and,
300 (4) a sagittal ROI to exclude tracts crossing between the hemispheres. All ROIs were drawn
301 by RM, and subsequently checked and adjusted if necessary by MMC.

302

303 INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

304

305 With spurious or curling fibres removed, we thresholded the track-density images
306 with an absolute intensity of 0.001 (see Figure 1, C). This thresholded output was then used
307 as a mask to run the ‘mrstats’ function, which calculated the volume of (number of voxels in)
308 the binary arcuate fasciculus mask. The AF masks were also used to calculate average FA

309 and MD along this tract for every participant. The former is a common indicator of
310 microstructural integrity which reflects the degree of anisotropy in brain tissue: whilst low
311 FA values indicate that diffusion of water molecules is restricted or unrestricted in all
312 directions, higher values reflect diffusion that is highly directed along one axis. Mean
313 diffusivity (known as apparent diffusion coefficient in some publications (Kumar et al.,
314 2010), which contributes to the calculation of FA, reflects the trace of the tensor, and the
315 magnitude of diffusion (Alexander et al., 2007).

316

317 The values for each participant were then entered into a statistical programme (SPSS
318 v.21) for analysis. One-level ANOVAs were initially performed to look for differences in
319 participant demographics like age, IQ or handedness that might influence arcuate structure.
320 Volume and FA of the arcuate were analysed in two two-level ANOVAs with the factors
321 Group (ASC versus Controls) and Hemisphere (left versus right hemisphere). Finally, we
322 performed Pearson correlations to examine the relationship between FA, volume, and autistic
323 traits (AQ scores).

324

325 **3. Results**

326 *3.1 Pre-experiment group differences*

327 Participant demographics and statistically significant group differences are reported in
328 Table 1.

329

330 INSERT TABLE 1 here

331

332 The two groups did not differ significantly in age, handedness or IQ, such that
333 differences in arcuate structure could not be related to any of these variables. Though the
334 ASC group were less strongly right-handed than controls, this was non-significant and a
335 common feature of this population (Tsai, 1984).

336 As expected, a highly significant difference appeared in their AQ scores, which
337 strongly predict diagnostic status (Baron-Cohen et al., 2001; Hoekstra et al., 2008;
338 Woodbury-Smith et al., 2005).

339

340 *3.2 Structural imaging analysis: fractional anisotropy (FA) and volume*

341 Analysis of FA revealed a significant main effect of Hemisphere ($F_{[1, 30]} = 130.112, p$
342 $< .001$), reflecting that both groups showed typical lateralisation patterns with greater FA in
343 the left than the right hemisphere (see Figure 2, A). Analysis of MD, too, showed a main
344 effect of hemisphere reflecting rightwards lateralization ($F_{[1, 30]} = 78.400, p < .001$) but no
345 effect of group and no interaction (Figure 2, B).

346 There was a significant interaction of Group and Hemisphere for arcuate volume ($F_{[1,$
347 $30]} = 6.194, p = .019$) and, in addition, a highly significant main effect of Group ($F_{[1, 30]} =$
348 $23.963, p < .001$). Post-hoc t-tests revealed a significant relative reduction in the volume of
349 the left ($t_{[30]} = 2.985, p = .006$) and the right ($t_{[30]} = 4.557, p < .001$) arcuate in the ASC

350 group (see Figure 2, C). A lack of any significant differences in global white matter volume
351 ($p = .453$) showed that this was a specific rather a global effect. Within-group tests showed
352 that although ASC participants showed no significant volumetric differences between the left
353 and the right hemisphere, control participants actually showed greater volume in the right
354 arcuate ($t_{[13]} = 2.654$, $p = .020$), though both groups were left-lateralised for FA.

355

356 INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

357

358 *3.3 Correlation of arcuate structure and clinical measures*

359 Using Pearson correlation, we found that the AQ scores of all participants pooled
360 negatively correlated with volume of the right ($r = -.413$, $p = .019$) arcuate, with a similar
361 marginal trend in the left hemisphere as well ($r = -.342$, $p = .056$). In both cases, a greater
362 number of autistic traits was associated with reduced volume in the arcuate fasciculus (see
363 Figure 3). This correlation fell beneath significance when examined in each group
364 independently. Neither FA or MD in either hemisphere correlated with autistic traits.

365

366 INSERT FIGURE 3 here

367

368 *3.4 Male-only analysis*

369 Sex is a major confound in mixed-gender samples, given that males typically have
370 larger heads than females and thus have greater general intracranial volume (ICV). This was
371 true in the current sample of males and females ($t_{[30]} = 3.134$, $p = .004$), and by virtue of the
372 fact that we recruited more females with ASC than previous studies in this field, the ASC
373 group had significantly lower ICV ($t_{[30]} = -2.147$, $p = .04$) than controls. Multiple regression
374 analyses revealed that whilst ICV contributed to predict left arcuate volume ($B = 180.864$, $t =$
375 2.495 , $p = .019$), it did not significantly predict right arcuate volume ($B = 34.926$, $p = .839$, $p =$
376 $.408$). Indeed, adding ICV as a covariate in our statistical tests showed that the Hemisphere
377 by Group interaction remained significant ($F_{[1, 29]} = 6.060$, $p = .020$), as did the main effect
378 of Group ($F_{[1, 29]} = 16.411$, $p < .001$). As a additional step to confirm this, we normalised
379 arcuate volume for ICV (i.e. dividing arcuate volume in each subject by ICV): the
380 Hemisphere by Group interaction ($F_{[1, 30]} = 5.774$, $p = .023$) and Group effect ($F_{[1, 30]} =$
381 5.350 , $p = .028$) remained significant, as did the group difference in the right hemisphere ($t_{[30]}$
382 $= 2.732$, $p = .01$), but the group difference in the left hemisphere became robustly non-
383 significant ($p = .512$).

384 We repeated our analysis with a reduced, sex-matched sample, a recommended
385 strategy on the basis of neuroanatomical differences between the sexes (Lai et al., 2013). This
386 time, the groups (10 males in each) were matched not only in global white matter volume
387 ($t_{[18]} = .909$, $p = .375$) but also in ICV ($t_{[18]} = .536$, $p = .536$). They also remained matched in
388 all their demographic data, as can be seen below (Table 2).

389

390 INSERT TABLE 2

391

392 Previous trends in FA and volume remained consistent in this smaller subset. Though
393 FA and MD did not differ between groups (Figure 4, A and B), a main effect of hemisphere
394 reflected that both had higher FA in the left than the right arcuate ($F_{[1, 18]} = 77.978, p < .001$)
395 and higher MD in the right than the left arcuate ($F_{[1, 18]} = 46.404, p < .001$). The two-factor
396 ANOVA of volume revealed a significant Hemisphere by Group interaction ($F_{[1, 18]} = 7.820,$
397 $p = .012$) and a main effect of Group ($F_{[1, 18]} = 16.287, p = .001$). Just as before, the ASC
398 group showed significant reduction in the volume of the right arcuate as compared with
399 controls ($t_{[18]} = 16.669, p < .001$), though their reduction in the volume of the left arcuate
400 became marginally non-significant ($t_{[18]} = 2.041, p = .056$) (Figure 4, C). Within groups, the
401 ASC participants showed no significant volumetric differences between the left and the right
402 arcuate, but the typically-developing participants showed greater volume in the right than the
403 left arcuate ($t_{[9]} = 2.736, p = .023$). Although the male groups were matched in ICV, we
404 added this as a covariate in our tests to ensure that results did not change substantially.
405 Indeed, there was little effect on the Group by Hemisphere interaction ($F_{[1, 17]} = 7.114, p =$
406 $.016$) or the Group effect ($F_{[1, 17]} = 15.576, p = .001$).

407

408 INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE

409

410 Similarly to the main analysis, correlation tests were performed on these male participants
411 pooled. Once again, with all participants pooled, higher AQ scores correlated with lowest
412 volume in the right arcuate fasciculus ($r = -.478, p = .033$). Correlations with AQ were not
413 significant for either of the male groups alone.

414

415 **4. Discussion**

416 Probabilistic tractography revealed a significant volumetric reduction of the arcuate
417 fasciculus, an effect strongest in the right hemisphere, in high-functioning individuals with
418 ASC as compared with typical controls. Although this result could in part be attributed to
419 group differences in intracranial volume (ICV), multiple regression of ICV did not appear to
420 contribute significantly to right arcuate volume and, crucially, analysis of male participants
421 only confirmed these volumetric differences in groups matched for ICV.

422 Furthermore, significant correlations revealed a negative relationship between right
423 arcuate volume and the presence of autistic traits as revealed by the AQ. This shows that
424 decreased volume of the right arcuate is associated with a higher number of autistic traits
425 related to social interaction, lack of imagination, empathy, restricted interests and obsessions,
426 and repetitive behaviour. However, when correlations between arcuate volume and autistic
427 traits were performed separately for the mixed and male ASC groups and the control group,
428 the correlation was not significant for any group. This may be due to the rather small size of
429 each group, making the statistical power insufficient for separate analyses. It could, however,
430 reflect that the correlation in all subjects pooled was driven by the group difference seen
431 between individuals with and without ASC. Replication of results in a larger sample would
432 certainly be required in order to confirm a relationship between dimensional autistic traits in
433 the distribution of the normal population and the volume of the arcuate fasciculus.

434

435 *4.1 The arcuate in autism: placing our findings in context*

436 Our findings contribute to a small literature on the subject of structural changes in the
437 arcuate fasciculus in autism. Our present findings converge with all previous studies in
438 showing that the structure of this major language pathway is altered in high- and low-
439 functioning ASC (although see McGrath et al., 2013 for a divergent view). However, we
440 should also highlight some divergence, if not incompatibility, between the present findings
441 and those of earlier work.

442 Investigations of fractional anisotropy (FA) report inconsistent results across the
443 literature: previous studies have reported generally lower FA in ASC as compared to
444 typically-developing controls (Kumar et al., 2010; Lai et al., 2012a), just relatively reduced
445 laterality of FA in ASC (Fletcher et al., 2010), or even no differences in FA between groups
446 at all (Joseph et al., 2014). Our findings correspond with the latter finding: both groups
447 showed the typical left-hemispheric lateralisation of FA and did not differ significantly from
448 each other in this measure. Of these previous reports of altered FA, however, only one
449 reports any slight difference in a highly verbal group (Fletcher et al., 2010). We did not see a
450 difference in the lateralisation of FA, and so further research is needed to reconcile these two
451 reports, which could potentially relate to the different ages of ours and the Fletcher group's
452 samples (see below).

453 Autistic and control groups did not differ in mean diffusivity (MD) but instead
454 exhibited a rightwards laterality which some groups have suggested may be common in
455 typically-developing individuals (Fletcher et al., 2010). Two previous studies also failed to
456 find differences between children with ASC and typically-developing peers in mean
457 diffusivity (Ingalhalikar et al., 2011; Joseph et al., 2014). Another reported an increase in
458 right-hemispheric MD in children with ASC, but in this variable the group did not differ from
459 children with non-specific developmental impairments (Kumar et al., 2010). In high-
460 functioning participants, Fletcher et al. (2010) found reduced hemispheric *asymmetry* in MD,
461 but did not compare MD directly between groups. Differences in MD are certainly not a
462 strong feature of the landscape in studies investigating the arcuate in autism.

463 Like FA, findings related to volume have been similarly inconsistent. It should be said
464 that, just as fMRI is an indirect measure of neuronal activity, this measure implies reduced
465 connectivity but cannot directly indicate that the existing tissue is compromised. Group
466 differences are absent in some studies (Fletcher et al., 2010). Other studies with low-
467 functioning children report reduced left-lateralisation in autism (Joseph et al., 2014; Wan et
468 al., 2012). Our ASC sample showed slightly greater volume in the left than the right arcuate,
469 but like these studies, we did not see significant left-lateralisation of the arcuate which has
470 been reported in previous research with typically-developing participants .

471 This is, at first glance, an unusual finding. Individual variability in structural (Catani
472 and Mesulam, 2008) and functional (Lidzba et al., 2011) lateralisation does occur, but it may
473 be important at this point to consider differences in the delineation of the arcuate which may
474 contribute to differences in lateralisation of arcuate volume and structure. Although it is
475 widely accepted that the 'arcuate' is left-lateralised, there may be conceptual confusion in the
476 field regarding exactly which white matter tracts are delineated as 'arcuate fasciculus'. Some
477 researchers (Catani and Thiebaut de Schotten, 2008; Catani et al., 2005, 2007) have
478 subdivided the arcuate into three segments: a direct segment connecting Wernicke's and
479 Broca's territories (posterior inferior frontal cortex and posterior temporal cortex
480 respectively), an anterior indirect segment connecting Broca's territory to inferior parietal
481 cortex, and an posterior indirect segment connecting Wernicke's territory to inferior parietal
482 cortex. These authors do not differentiate the arcuate from the superior longitudinal
483 fasciculus (SLF), though the protocol which we follow defines it as part of a "dorsal

484 pathway[...] the long segment of the superior longitudinal fasciculus that connects Broca's
485 and Wernicke's areas" (Liégeois et al., 2013). The established differentiation between SLF
486 and the arcuate is highlighted by Makris et al. (2005), who also splitting the SLF into four
487 tracts (SLF I, II, III and the arcuate). These authors suggest that what Catani and colleagues
488 conceptualise as the anterior indirect (frontoparietal) arm of the *arcuate* is in fact a separate
489 branch of the inferior SLF (segment III). The arcuate in their narrower sense, that is the
490 "direct" frontotemporal segment of this pathway, runs closely alongside the "indirect"
491 frontoparietal section ("SLF III"), such that differentiation between the two (and equally
492 between the arcuate and parieto-temporal short segment), if desired, is challenging. If we
493 adopt the Catani definition of the arcuate (including 'direct' and 'indirect' segments), closer
494 examination reveals that as a whole, the volume of the arcuate fasciculus is *not* strongly left-
495 lateralised. Although the *direct long frontotemporal SLF* segment has indeed been reported to
496 be left-lateralised in FA and volume, the arcuate as a whole is slightly right-lateralised in
497 volume and left-lateralised in FA (Thiebaut de Schotten et al., 2011), a pattern consistent
498 with what we observed in our typically-developed controls.

499 With no a priori hypothesis predicting differences in particular *segments* of the
500 arcuate, we employed the approach of greatest familiarity to our group (that employed by
501 (Liégeois et al., 2013)), and so our procedures for fibre definition, which focussed on
502 temporal and parietal ROIs (see Methods), may have led to inclusion of both the long fronto-
503 temporal segment as well as part of the short parieto-temporal segment of the arcuate.
504 Variation in tracking protocols for arcuate delineation may contribute to heterogeneity in
505 results between ASC studies. Whilst some studies employed the Catani protocols (Wan et al.,
506 2012) or placed seed ROIs in the same approximate locations (Fletcher et al., 2010; McGrath
507 et al., 2013) as in the current study, others, for example, approximated the arcuate from
508 dorsal projections from primary auditory cortex (Lai et al., 2012a).

509 There are several other reasons for inconsistencies across studies, all of which make
510 comparison difficult. Some of these include 1) discrepant language ability of participants,
511 particularly given that presence or absence of childhood language delay (irrespective of
512 current language) modulates brain structure (Lai et al., 2014), and 2) the age of participants
513 (since many previous arcuate studies investigated children or adolescents vs. the adult group
514 here). The most comparable study is that of McGrath and colleagues (McGrath et al., 2013),
515 who studied highly-verbal adolescent boys and used a similar placing of ROIs to delineate
516 the arcuate. These authors did not find differences in the arcuate, but still examined
517 significantly younger individuals (mean age: 17.37 in ASC) than the present study did (mean
518 age: 30.39 in ASC). Joseph and colleagues (Joseph et al., 2014) found no relationship
519 between age and their structural arcuate measures (volume, FA, mean, radial or axial
520 diffusivity), but with the extremely small age range of the sample, data on the relationship
521 between age and arcuate structure in this study is not sufficient to allow clear-cut conclusions
522 to be drawn on this issue. In a large sample including a total of 241 children, Su et al. (2008)
523 report differences in myelination speed of language-related brain structures across the
524 lifespan with slowest maturation of AF fibre tracts. These data indicate that any differences
525 between previous studies in ASC children and our study can be strongly influenced by the
526 myelination of the AF. Interestingly, recent large-scale investigations in infants with ASC
527 suggest that the developmental trajectory of the arcuate may be substantially different from as
528 early as 12 months of age (Solso et al., 2014). Researchers have called for a developmental
529 perspective in studies of *functional* connectivity in autism (Uddin et al., 2013). Likewise,
530 longitudinal research with large samples may be needed to validate the relationship between
531 neuroanatomical correlates of the arcuate and age in children and adults with ASC, and might
532 benefit from DWI sequences with higher angular resolution.

533 Apart from age and methodological issues, sex is a factor that seems to play a certain
534 role in brain structure and function. Unfortunately, in our sample, we did not have enough
535 female participants in each group to investigate FA, MD and volume of the arcuate fasciculus
536 in well-matched female groups. As women with autism appear to exhibit markedly different
537 neuroanatomical profiles compared to males (Lai et al., 2012a, 2013), further research is
538 needed to ascertain whether they also show volumetric arcuate reductions in comparison with
539 typical females. Moreover, factors such as functional laterality and language ability should be
540 assessed in larger group samples as these factors systematically differ between males and
541 females (Caplan and Dapretto, 2001; Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 2003; Good et al., 2001).

542 Our findings may constitute a profile for an under-studied group, verbal high-
543 functioning male *adults* with ASC, and should be considered in this context. The crucial
544 finding, in our view, is that despite their high-functioning diagnostic status, these individuals
545 still exhibit a quantitative difference in arcuate volume compared to typical controls. As they
546 are matched to typical controls in IQ, autistic traits are not here confounded by lower mental
547 ability as they have been in previous studies (Ingalhalikar et al., 2011; Joseph et al., 2014;
548 Kumar et al., 2010; Lai et al., 2012a; Wan et al., 2012), and so alterations in arcuate structure
549 can be more confidently ascribed to the ASC phenotype. Nevertheless, further research on the
550 arcuate is needed to validate these volumetric differences and the lack of differentiation in
551 fractional anisotropy in this small, highly verbal segment of the autism spectrum.

552

553 *4.2 Language functions of the right hemisphere*

554 Perhaps surprisingly, the reduction in arcuate volume that we observed in ASC was
555 more striking in the right hemisphere: this was reflected in the interaction of Hemisphere and
556 Group that we observed in both the mixed sex and males only analyses. A strongly
557 significant group difference in left arcuate volume seemed to be driven by differences in ICV
558 and became marginally significant ($p = .056$) in the male group alone. In contrast, the
559 significance of the difference on the right even survived after exclusion of females. Whilst
560 the marginal effect in the left hemisphere still suggests a trend towards general reduction of
561 this language pathway, it leads us to speculate on the particular role that the right hemisphere
562 plays in language processing and the language differences in autism, especially given the
563 association between AQ and right arcuate volume that we observed.

564 Despite the well-reported left-lateralisation of language (Gazzaniga, 2000), optimal
565 linguistic function requires the cooperation of both cerebral hemispheres (Mohr et al., 1994).
566 Right-hemispheric involvement in language processing includes semantics (Pulvermüller and
567 Mohr, 1996; Pulvermüller, 1999), and morphology (Marslen-Wilson and Tyler, 2007), but
568 most notable is its role in social and pragmatic aspects of language (Coslett and Monsul,
569 1994; Lindell, 2006; Mitchell and Crow, 2005; Zaidel, 1998). The right hemisphere is crucial
570 for production and comprehension of emotional prosody (Baum and Pell, 1999; Buchanan et
571 al., 2000; George et al., 1996; Ross et al., 1997; Wildgruber et al., 2009), non-literal language
572 such as metaphors (Bottini et al., 1994; Brownell et al., 1990; Tompkins, 1990), jokes
573 (Shammi and Stuss, 1999), and indirect requests (Foldi, 1987). These abilities intersect
574 closely with theory of mind, the ability to infer a speaker's or listener's intentions and current
575 knowledge. The right hemisphere is also crucially involved in resolving lexical ambiguity
576 (Burgess and Simpson, 1988), drawing figurative inferences from language (Nichelli et al.,
577 1995), processing its broader context (Caplan and Dapretto, 2001), and performing and
578 comprehending socio-communicative 'speech acts' (Egorova et al., 2014) – all functions
579 which make the right hemisphere absolutely essential for comprehending and smoothly

580 contributing to discourse (Bryan, 1988; Myers and Brookshire, 1996; Robertson et al., 2000;
581 Schneiderman et al., 1992; Zaidel et al., 2002). These pragmatic abilities, again, involve
582 central coherence and sound understanding of the listener's knowledge and mental state.

583 Consistent with our findings, the right arcuate fasciculus has been implicated
584 previously in autism. As noted above, Kumar et al. (2010) found increased fibre length in the
585 right arcuate fasciculus to set children with autism apart from typically-developing and
586 developmentally impaired children without autism. Increased fibre length does not appear to
587 correspond with our finding of *reduced* right arcuate volume, but here we might consider the
588 possible effects of age. There is an emerging view of ASC that hyperconnectivity in early life
589 is reversed in adolescence, with hypoconnectivity more commonly reported in adulthood
590 (Nomi and Uddin, 2015; Uddin et al., 2013). We speculate that this could be reflected here at
591 a local level.

592 This study relied on previous diagnostic assessments that had established intact
593 language development (i.e. no delay) in our participants. We can, however, still consider the
594 *type* of language features that are typical of high-functioning individuals such as our sample.
595 All the ASC participants were currently or had previously worked or studied. All but one
596 (PDD-NOS) were clinically diagnosed with Asperger syndrome, which is differentiated from
597 high-functioning autism on the basis of intact (no delay) development of language. This
598 diagnostic distinction, however, is problematic (Bennett et al., 2008; Frith, 2004) and thus is
599 no longer included in the DSM-V (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Linguistic
600 anomalies in high-functioning autism and Asperger syndrome are subtle but have been
601 observed (Boucher, 2003; Eigsti et al., 2011). In addition, some language functions seen as
602 right-hemispheric, such as comprehension and production of emotional prosody (Fine et al.,
603 1991; Korpilahti et al., 2007), are atypical in these populations. Pragmatic impairments, such
604 as in understanding jokes and discourse, are the most universal linguistic impairment in ASC
605 (Colle et al., 2008; Eigsti et al., 2011; Groen et al., 2008; Landa, 2000). Semantic
606 impairments are also present across the spectrum (Boucher, 2003; Eigsti et al., 2011; Groen
607 et al., 2008), ranging from moderate to mild even in high-functioning autism and Asperger
608 syndrome (Moseley et al., 2013, 2014, 2015), and the right arcuate has been particularly
609 implicated in the semantic domain as well as that of prosody (Catani and Mesulam, 2008;
610 Catani et al., 2007), although it certainly also carries phonological/lexical function (Berthier
611 et al., 2012). We hypothesise that the rightwards lateralisation of volumetric differences in
612 our study reflect the typically right-hemispheric language impairments that high-functioning
613 individuals may exhibit.

614 Given the good language capacities of our participants, it is therefore unsurprising
615 that we did not replicate the findings from previous studies of low-functioning children (Lai
616 et al., 2012a; Wan et al., 2012). Quite aside from the fact that both studies tested young
617 children who obviously are not comparable to adults, participants in the Wan study in
618 particular were non-verbal. They reported an atypical pattern of asymmetry in their children,
619 who showed greater volume of the right than the left arcuate. The analysis was based on
620 calculation of 'laterality index' (numeric difference between left and right arcuate volume,
621 divided by their sum), i.e. a relative measure, rather than direct volume comparison. Visual
622 inspection of the figures suggests that there might be a difference in only the volume of the
623 left arcuate fasciculus, which is larger in typically developing children than children with
624 autism. The left-hemispheric difference may therefore reflect the linguistic disability of that
625 sample. As the study did not include a comparison of verbal children with autism and
626 typically developing controls, or a comparison with another nonverbal group, it is impossible
627 to ascertain whether this difference is autism-specific or reflects the difference in language

628 ability between *any* verbal and non-verbal children. Lai and colleagues (Lai et al., 2014)
629 recently demonstrated that even in high-functioning autism samples, the presence or absence
630 of language delay is associated with substantial changes in grey and, to a lesser extent, white
631 matter. An important direction for future research in this area would be to categorise autistic
632 individuals on the basis of language delay or impairment, rather than diagnostic label, to
633 compare the effect of high and low verbal ability on the structural properties of the arcuate
634 fasciculus.

635

636 *4.3 The specificity of arcuate abnormality*

637 While we focus here on the structural hypoconnectivity of the arcuate, we stress that
638 caution should be exercised regarding the specificity of ASC hypoconnectivity to this tract.
639 No difference was seen in global white matter volume between our groups, which suggests
640 specificity of the arcuate finding. This is not, however, a sufficiently rigorous test of
641 structural integrity in other brain tracts, which might be differentially affected in autism. It is
642 additionally important to reiterate again that volume is an indirect indicator of
643 hypoconnectivity; that is, although the arcuate is smaller in ASC, we cannot conclude here
644 that connectivity (at a functional or structural level) is compromised, although this
645 interpretation would be consistent with a body of work reporting hypoconnectivity in ASC
646 (see below).

647 It is difficult to comment on the specificity of the arcuate difference in the earlier
648 research considered above. Wan et al. (2012) only defined the arcuate fasciculus in their
649 participants and made no statements about specificity. Other researchers (Fletcher et al.,
650 2010, Joseph et al., 2014) suggest specificity of arcuate hypoconnectivity: like us, both
651 studies included a measure of global white matter volume which did not differ between
652 groups. This, however, may not constitute a sufficiently adequate analysis of other tracts. Lai
653 et al. (2012a) identified dorsal and ventral tracts which originated from primary auditory
654 cortex (A1, Heschl's gyrus): the dorsal pathway was identified as the arcuate fasciculus, and
655 the ventral pathway connected frontotemporal cortices via the extreme capsule, inferior
656 fronto-occipital fasciculus and uncinate fasciculus. They found decreased fractional
657 anisotropy in the left arcuate, but no microstructural differences in the ventral tract:
658 somewhat limited evidence of specificity.

659 Ingalhalikar and colleagues (2011) attempted to classify subjects based on DWI
660 anisotropy and diffusivity values. The brain regions contributing to diagnostic prediction
661 included the left superior longitudinal fasciculus (which includes the arcuate) but also the
662 right internal and external capsule, the fornix, and white matter of the occipital gyri and
663 inferior temporal cortex. McGrath et al. (2013), who failed to find arcuate differences in
664 ASC, found differences in the inferior fronto-occipital fasciculus, though they did not
665 examine any other tracts. Kumar et al. (2010) reported abnormalities of the corpus callosum,
666 uncinate fasciculus *and* the arcuate which were specific to children with autism.

667 Specificity of hypoconnectivity to the arcuate fasciculus may be unlikely given the
668 large body of work documenting atypical connectivity in autism in general (Di Martino et al.,
669 2014; Kana et al., 2011; Müller et al., 2011; Uddin et al., 2011; Vissers et al., 2012). ASC
670 have been described as “developmental disconnection syndromes” (Geschwind and Levitt,
671 2007), but in reality present a more complex and, as mentioned, sometimes heterogeneous
672 neuroanatomical profile. Analyses of structural connectivity have reported differences in the
673 corpus callosum (Booth et al., 2011; Frazier and Hardan, 2009) and white matter reductions
674 in frontal, temporal and limbic cortices (Barnea-Goraly et al., 2004; Ecker et al., 2010;

675 Sundaram et al., 2008). Contrary to these data, some studies report white matter excess,
676 particularly in frontal cortex and locally, in the microcolumns of the brain (Casanova and
677 Trippe, 2009; Courchesne and Pierce, 2005; Ecker et al., 2010; Herbert et al., 2004;
678 Mostofsky et al., 2007; Weinstein et al., 2011). However, with a strict interpretation of ‘long-
679 range’ connectivity as tracts connecting brain regions further than one centimetre apart, our
680 findings corroborate the common view that atypical connectivity in ASC leans towards hypo-
681 , rather than hyper-, connectivity in adulthood (Vissers et al., 2012).

682 Further research must investigate directly the contribution of arcuate abnormalities to
683 autistic symptomatology, particularly those symptoms related to language.

684

685 **5. Conclusions**

686 This study demonstrates structural, volumetric abnormalities in the arcuate fasciculus
687 in high-functioning (verbal) individuals with ASC who have no apparent language difficulties
688 and, in the case of those individuals with Asperger syndrome (94% of this sample), no delay
689 in language development. Volumetric reductions of the arcuate tended to be present
690 bilaterally but most strongly expressed and significant in the non-dominant right hemisphere,
691 where they seemed to predict the severity of autistic symptoms. We suggest that the right-
692 lateralised structural changes in the arcuate may constitute the neuroanatomical substrate of
693 more subtle pragmatic and semantic language impairments seen in high-functioning
694 individuals.

695

696 **Abbreviations**

697 AQ; Autism-Spectrum Quotient; ASC: Autism spectrum conditions; CSD: Constrained
698 spherical deconvolution; DSM-IV-TR: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental
699 Disorders IV, Text-Revised; DWI: diffusion-weighted images; FA: fractional anisotropy;
700 ICV: intracranial volume; IQ: Intelligence Quotient; PDD-NOS: Pervasive Developmental
701 Disorder Not Otherwise Specified; ROI: Region of interest; TDI: Track-density images.

702

703 **Conflict of interests**

704 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

705

706 **Authors’ contributions**

707 FP, BM and RM were involved in initial experiment design. Recruitment of participants,
708 collection of data, tractography and drawing of ROIs, statistical analysis and manuscript
709 production were carried out by RM. MC guided RM in DWI analysis, checked, adjusted and
710 validated ROIs drawn by RM, and contributed to the manuscript. BM provided theoretical
711 input, assisted with participant recruitment, and contributed to the manuscript. SBC assisted
712 with participant recruitment, provided analysis advice and contributed to the manuscript.
713 Both YS and FP supervised and advised RM during analysis and contributed to the
714 manuscript, and BM and FP led the original conception of the study. All authors read and
715 approved the final manuscript.

716

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Table 1: Participant demographics and statistical comparison of group averages for the mixed-gender sample. Values represent group averages with standard deviations in brackets () and range in square brackets [].

	ASC group (N=18)	Control Group (N=14)	Statistical testing (t)
Age	30.39 (9.99) [39]	27.64 (11.28) [44]	.729, p = .472
Handedness	76.1 (26.2) [60]	90 (14.1) [40]	1.790, p = .085
IQ	112.72 (22.56) [66]	108.86 (12.67) [42]	.573, p = .571
Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ)	34.9 (11.3) [35]	12.71 (5.6) [19]	6.722, p < .001

Table 2. Participant demographics and statistical comparison of group averages for the reduced, all-male sample. Values represent group averages with standard deviations in brackets () and range in square brackets [].

	ASC group (N=10)	Control Group (N=10)	Statistical testing (t)
Age	32.8 (11.11) [34]	29.1 (12.9) [44]	.515, p = .613
Handedness	76 (30.6) [60]	90 (12.5) [60]	1.339, p = .197
IQ	112.3 (26.7) [60]	107.5 (12.5) [42]	.684, p = .502
Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ)	32.5 (9.1) [29]	13.8 (6) [16]	5.438, p < .001

Figure captions

Figure 1. Example seed (A) and inclusion (B) ROIs for a representative participant, defined in accordance with Liégeois *et al.*, (2013). Panel C shows the track-density image for the left AF of the same participant (left), and also the thresholded AF mask used for the statistical analysis (right).

Figure 2: Average fractional anisotropy (FA) and volume of (number of voxels in) the arcuate fasciculus for each group. Error bars reflect standard error. Asterisks (*) reflect significant group differences.

Figure 3: Correlations between autistic traits, as measured by the Autism-Spectrum Quotient, and volume of the arcuate fasciculus. These are displayed for the left and right hemispheres respectively, with control participants represented by grey circles, ASC participants by grey triangles.

Figure 4: average fractional anisotropy and volume of (number of voxels in) the arcuate fasciculus in the smaller, male only subgroups. As before, asterisks (*) reflect significant group differences, and error bars reflect standard error.