

Atypical Brain Asymmetry in Autism—A Candidate for Clinically Meaningful Stratification

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ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND: Autism spectrum disorder (“autism”) is a highly heterogeneous neurodevelopmental condition with few effective treatments for core and associated features. To make progress we need to both identify and validate neural markers that help to parse heterogeneity to tailor therapies to specific neurobiological profiles. Atypical hemispheric lateralization is a stable feature across studies in autism, but its potential as a neural stratification marker has not been widely examined.

METHODS: In order to dissect heterogeneity in lateralization in autism, we used the large EU-AIMS (European Autism Interventions—A Multicentre Study for Developing New Medications) Longitudinal European Autism Project dataset comprising 352 individuals with autism and 233 neurotypical control subjects as well as a replication dataset from ABIDE (Autism Brain Imaging Data Exchange) (513 individuals with autism, 691 neurotypical subjects) using a promising approach that moves beyond mean group comparisons. We derived gray matter voxelwise laterality values for each subject and modeled individual deviations from the normative pattern of brain laterality across age using normative modeling.

RESULTS: Individuals with autism had highly individualized patterns of both extreme right- and leftward deviations, particularly in language, motor, and visuospatial regions, associated with symptom severity. Language delay explained most variance in extreme rightward patterns, whereas core autism symptom severity explained most variance in extreme leftward patterns. Follow-up analyses showed that a stepwise pattern emerged, with individuals with autism with language delay showing more pronounced rightward deviations than individuals with autism without language delay.

CONCLUSIONS: Our analyses corroborate the need for novel (dimensional) approaches to delineate the heterogeneous neuroanatomy in autism and indicate that atypical lateralization may constitute a neurophenotype for clinically meaningful stratification in autism.

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Autism spectrum disorder (“autism”) is a neurodevelopmental condition characterized by social-communicative deficits, restricted and repetitive behaviors, and sensory abnormalities (1). One of the key characteristics of autism is its great phenotypical and biological heterogeneity (2,3). Particularly in the neuroimaging literature, results are mixed and inconsistent and have been attributed to this heterogeneity in the autism population. To provide a more coherent picture of the complex neuropathology of autism, it is critical to tackle its heterogeneity and identify the neural markers that are consistent across studies. Such markers can provide clinically relevant stratification of individuals with autism.

When it comes to identifying a consistently implicated neural feature in autism, a large body of literature converges toward a disruption of hemispheric specialization—one of the most fundamental biological properties of our brains (4,5). This basic organizational principle describes that the two hemispheres differ in their functional specialization and exhibit pronounced structural asymmetries (6,7). Functional specialization involves leftward lateralization of language and motor skills and rightward lateralization of spatial perceptual abilities (8). It is also evident in gray matter asymmetries, with the frontal opercular and temporal perisylvian regions and hippocampus exhibiting leftward asymmetries and the thalamus

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and posterior parietal cortex showing rightward asymmetries (9,10).

Individuals with autism exhibit impairments in left hemisphere skills such as social-communication, language, and motor-related symptoms, while appearing relatively intact in right hemisphere functions such as visuospatial skills (11). This lateralized pattern of deficits and strengths in autism has given rise to theories trying to reconcile its complex clinical profile with atypical structural hemispheric specialization (11). In the largest autism cohort to date, comprising more than 3000 subjects, individuals with autism presented with widespread leftward cortical reductions (12). Meta-analyses (13), reviews (14), and smaller studies (15–22) are in line with this, confirming either a reduction or even reversal of typical leftward asymmetries in language- and motor-related regions. However, even though atypical lateralization in autism is among the most replicated findings, results present with small to moderate effect sizes (12,13). This is mostly attributed to subtle effects being diluted by small underpowered samples and sample heterogeneity that can result from a range of codependent factors such as age, sex, handedness, different symptom profiles, and co-occurring conditions. For example, lateralization in neurotypical subjects becomes more pronounced through age-related maturational processes (23). This typical trajectory is disrupted in individuals with autism, showing increasing reversed rightward lateralization (24). Sex-related asymmetry differences are evident in that neurotypical males are usually more strongly lateralized while neurotypical females have a more symmetric distribution (25,26). How sex affects atypical asymmetry in autism is unknown. Handedness is one of the most strongly behaviorally associated features of brain asymmetry (27). Left-handed individuals have a higher chance of being bihemispherically or even right-lateralized compared with the 90% of right-handed individuals who are left-lateralized for language (28). Individuals with autism exhibit elevated rates of non-right-handedness, comprising both left- and mixed-handedness, which has been attributed to atypical specialization in the brain (16,29). It is thus likely that there are common underlying neural mechanisms influencing both. Associated co-occurring symptoms, such as early language delay (LD) or attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), are also associated with atypical lateralization (14,17). For example, individuals with autism and early LD show more pronounced deviations from typical asymmetry than those without LD (17,30).

Delineating such heterogeneity remains one of the central tasks in autism research (31). However, there is still little effort to address this challenge methodologically. One promising novel approach in this regard is normative modeling (32,33). Similar to the use of growth charts in pediatric medicine, normative modeling aims to place each individual with respect to centiles of variation in the population and thereby facilitates a move away from classic case-control analyses that ignore individual differences. Applying normative modeling to cortical thickness estimates, Zabihi *et al.* (34) showed that individuals with autism exhibit highly individualized atypicalities of cortical development. Whether this applies to other features, such as laterality, remains to be established.

Here, to overcome small sample size, we leveraged the EU-AIMS (European Autism Interventions—A Multicentre

Study for Developing New Medications) Longitudinal European Autism Project (LEAP) (35,36), which is the largest harmonized autism sample to date and is deeply phenotypically characterized. Previous studies in this sample reported altered resting-state intra- and internetwork connectivity (37–39), decreased density in structural gray matter covariations (40), and attenuated reward-processing responses (41), while at the same time reporting no task-related differences in the social brain network (42). The present study was designed to address heterogeneity in autism with regard to age, sex, handedness, and core and co-occurring symptoms in the context of brain lateralization, using novel individualized analyses: 1) we transcended classic case-control analysis and address interindividual variation by applying normative modeling (32,43), and 2) we aimed to identify laterality-related subtypes by considering co-occurring clinical symptoms in autism such as language development. Through capturing variation at the individual level in combination with addressing different sources of heterogeneity and using a consistent imaging feature in autism, our work provides a step toward precision neuroscience in autism.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

Participants

Participants were part of the EU-AIMS and AIMS-2-TRIALS LEAP (35,36) cohort—the largest European multicenter initiative aimed at identifying biomarkers in autism. Participants underwent comprehensive clinical, cognitive, and magnetic resonance imaging assessment at one of six collaborating sites (Figure S1). All participants with autism spectrum disorder had an existing clinical diagnosis of autism. For details on participants, study design, and exclusion criteria, see the Supplement and (36). The final sample comprised 352 individuals with autism (259 male and 93 female), and 233 neurotypical control subjects (154 male and 79 female) between 6 and 30 years. For details on demographic information, see Table 1.

Clinical and Cognitive Measures

IQ was assessed using the Wechsler Abbreviated Scales of Intelligence. The Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule (44) measured clinical core symptoms of autism. The Autism Diagnostic Interview—Revised (ADI-R) (45) was used to measure parent-rated autistic symptoms and LD, which was defined as having onset of first words later than 24 months and/or first phrases later than 33 months. ADHD symptoms were assessed with the DSM-5 ADHD rating scale. Handedness was assessed with the short version of the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory (46). For further details on all cognitive measures, see the Supplement and (35).

Image Preprocessing

For magnetic resonance imaging data acquisition parameters, see the Supplement and Table S1. Structural T1-weighted images were preprocessed according to a validated laterality pipeline (17,47,48) using the CAT12 toolbox (<http://www.>

Table 1. Demographic and Clinical Characterization of the Longitudinal European Autism Project Sample

Characteristic	ASD Males (<i>n</i> = 259)	ASD Females (<i>n</i> = 93)	NT Males (<i>n</i> = 154)	NT Females (<i>n</i> = 79)	Post Hoc Analysis ^a
Age, Years	16.8 (5.4) [7.1–30.3]	16.9 (6.1) [6.8–30.3]	17.1 (5.9) [7.4–30.9]	16.4 (5.8) [6.9–28.5]	ns
Full Scale IQ	100 (18.9) [56–148]	97 (18.5) [57–131]	107 (15.1) [53–142]	107 (18.0) [52–142]	(ASD M = ASD F) < (NT M = NT F)
Verbal IQ	98 (18.8) [52–160]	97 (18.6) [50–136]	105 (16.3) [46–142]	107 (19.6) [51–160]	(ASD M = ASD F) < (NT M = NT F)
Performance IQ	101 (21.0) [44–150]	97 (19.7) [55–133]	108 (17.3) [51–147]	105 (18.4) [58–139]	(ASD M = ASD F) < (NT M = NT F)
ADI-R					
Social	17.2 (6.4) [1–28]	15.5 (7.1) [1–29]	–	–	ns
Communication	13.8 (5.7) [0–26]	12.4 (5.3) [0–24]	–	–	ASD M > ASD F
RRB	4.5 (2.7) [0–12]	3.8 (2.6) [0–10]	–	–	ASD M > ASD F
ADOS-2					
Social-Affect	6.2 (2.6) [1–10]	5.3 (2.5) [1–10]	–	–	ASD M > ASD F
RRB	4.9 (2.8) [1–10]	4.3 (2.6) [1–9]	–	–	ns
CSS total	5.6 (2.8) [1–10]	4.5 (2.5) [1–10]	–	–	ASD M > ASD F
Handedness ^b					
	176 (80.3%) R 34 (16.3%) L 7 (3.4%) A	71 (84.5%) R 9 (10.7%) L 4 (4.8%) A	105 (89.7%) R 9 (7.7%) L 3 (2.6%) A	56 (83.3%) R 8 (12.1%) L 2 (3%) A	(ASD M = ASD F) < (NT M = NT F)
ADHD					
	106 ADHD+ 109 ADHD–	34 ADHD+ 52 ADHD–	–	–	ns
LD					
	76 LD 100 NoLD	19 LD 47 NoLD	–	–	ns

Results are presented as mean (SD) [range], *n* (%), or *n*.

A, ambidextrous; ADHD, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder; ADI-R, Autism Diagnostic Interview—Revised; ADOS-2, Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule, Second Edition; ASD, autism spectrum disorder; CSS, calibrated severity score based on ADOS-2; F, females; L, left-handed; LD, language delay; M, males; NoLD, no language delay; ns, nonsignificant; NT, neurotypical; R, right-handed; RRB, restricted and repetitive behavior.

^aPost hoc analyses were computed using analysis of variance tests (or χ^2 tests in the case of categorical variables).

^bHandedness was assessed with the short version of the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory. Scores ranged between +500 (right-handed) and –500 (left-handed). To characterize demographics here, a categorical variable was computed comprising right-handed (+150 to +500), ambidextrous (–149 to +149), and left-handed (–500 to –150).

neuro.uni-jena.de/cat/) (see Figure S2). All original images were segmented and affine registered to a symmetrical tissue probability map before being reflected across the cerebral midline ($x = 0$). All segmented reflected and original (non-reflected) gray matter maps were then used to generate a symmetrical study-specific template via a flexible high-dimensional nonlinear diffeomorphic registration algorithm (DARTEL) (49). They were next registered to the symmetrical study-specific template as per standard DARTEL procedures. An intensity modulation step was included to retain voxelwise information on local volume (48). The final resulting images were modulated, warped, reflected (I_{ref}), and nonreflected (I_{nref}) gray matter intensity images. A laterality index was calculated at each voxel using the following formula: $2(I_{nref} - I_{ref}) / (I_{nref} + I_{ref})$. Positive values in the right hemisphere of the laterality image indicate rightward asymmetry, and negative values in the right hemisphere of the laterality image indicate leftward asymmetry. Laterality index values in the left hemisphere have identical magnitude but opposite sign and were therefore excluded from further analyses. Laterality images were smoothed with a 4-mm full width at half maximum isotropic Gaussian kernel.

Normative Modeling

The normative modeling method has been described in detail previously (32,34,50–52). In summary, we estimated a

normative brain aging model at each gray matter laterality voxel by using Gaussian process regression (53), a Bayesian nonparametric interpolation method that yields coherent measures of predictive confidence in addition to point estimates (for details see the Supplement). With this method, we could predict both the expected regional gray matter asymmetry changes and the associated predictive uncertainty for each individual, allowing us to quantify the voxelwise deviation of gray matter asymmetry from the neurotypical range across the entire brain.

First, we trained a Gaussian process regression model at each voxel on the neurotypical cohort using age, sex, and site as covariates to predict gray matter asymmetry, resulting in a developmental model of gray matter asymmetry in neurotypical individuals. To avoid overfitting, assess generalizability, and determine whether neurotypical individuals fall within the normative range, we used 10-fold cross-validation in neurotypical individuals before retraining the model in the entire sample to make predictions in individuals with autism. We generated normative probability maps, which quantify the deviation of each participant from the normative model for gray matter asymmetry at each voxel. These subject-specific Z score images provide a statistical estimate of how much each individual's true laterality value differs from the predicted laterality value with reference to the neurotypical pattern at each voxel given the participant's age, sex, and site. Normative probability maps were thresholded at an absolute value of $|Z|$

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> 2.6 (32,51). Based on this fixed threshold, we defined extreme rightward-lateralized (positive) and extreme leftward-lateralized (negative) deviations for each participant.

The accuracy of the normative model was evaluated using the correlation between the true and the predicted voxel values generated under 10-fold cross-validation. The neurotypical correlation map was restricted to positive values (i.e., loci with a negative correlation between predicted and true value were excluded) and further analyses were conducted on normative model maps thresholded with this. We included an additional, stringent thresholding of this correlation map, using statistical tests (false discovery rate [FDR] correction) for all normative models, and recomputed all main effects on the basis of voxels significantly different from chance (see the [Supplement](#)). For unthresholded correlation maps along with root mean square error maps, see [Figures S3 and S4](#).

All extreme deviations per subject were summarized into (log-transformed) scores representing the percentage of extreme rightward and extreme leftward deviations per subject in relation to the total number of intracerebral voxels. These percentage scores were compared by calculating a general linear model including diagnosis and sex as the regressors of interest and age as covariate. Effect sizes were computed using partial eta squared (η_p^2) for analyses of variance, Cohen's d for t tests, and Cohen's ω for χ^2 tests. To compare our normative modeling against a conventional group-mean difference analysis we ran Permutation Analysis of Linear Models (PALM) on the laterality images examining the sex-by-diagnosis(-by-age) interaction with site as covariate.

Spatial Characterization of Deviations

We applied two strategies to spatially characterize the extreme rightward and leftward deviations. First, we generated spatial overlap maps for individuals in the same diagnostic and sex group by summing up the number of extreme deviations in each voxel for each subject. These were then divided by the total number of subjects (multiplied by 100) to represent the percentage of extreme right- and leftward deviations per brain voxel. Second, we extracted extreme rightward and leftward deviations within structurally [Harvard-Oxford atlas (54)] and functionally [neurosynth (<http://neurosynth.org>, accessed June 2019) (55)] defined regions of interest (ROIs) (see the [Supplement](#)). For latter, we used the search terms “language,” “motor” (left-lateralized), “visuospatial,” “attention” (right-lateralized), “monitoring,” and “mentalizing” (no lateral bias). All results from these ROI-based post hoc analyses were FDR corrected.

Relative Contributions of Different Cognitive and Behavioral Measures

We ran relative importance analyses within individuals with autism including variables related to lateralization such as LD, ADHD, handedness, sex, and Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule 2 calibrated severity score (CSS). This was done in a sample with reduced sample size ($n = 305$) without missing values on these variables. We used averaging over orderings (56) to rank the relative contribution of highly correlated regressors to the linear regression model. The variable showing

strongest contribution to explained variance was followed up with additional analyses.

Symptom Associations

An individual-level atypicality score was estimated for each individual through extreme value statistics by computing the 10% trimmed mean of the 1% top deviations (34). We then computed 1-tailed Pearson's correlations between these individual atypicality scores and the ADI-R and Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule 2 symptom severity scores. All correlation results were FDR corrected.

Robustness and Replicability

To assess robustness, we conducted a set of control analyses. 1) We estimated a separate normative model without including site as a covariate, but removing site effects using ComBat (57). 2) Another separate normative model was run, including handedness as an additional regressor. 3) For the sake of comparability, we also applied FDR correction (58) to the normative probability maps as an alternative to thresholding at $|Z| > 2.6$. 4) To address confounders, we repeated second-level statistical analyses controlling for Full Scale IQ, handedness, and socioeconomic status in a separate model. 5) To test whether the effects were robust against the influence of intellectual disability, we reran analyses excluding individuals with Full Scale IQ < 70. 6) To further test the influence of handedness, we reran second-level analyses in right-handed subjects only. 7) Finally, as individuals with autism with and without LD were not matched on certain demographic variables, we additionally created a subsample matched for age and symptom severity and reran second-level statistical analyses to assess robustness of results. To assess replicability, we selected a sample from the publicly available Autism Brain Imaging Data Exchange (ABIDE) I and II (59,60) to examine extreme right- and leftward deviations in an independent dataset. For details, see the [Supplement](#) and [Table S2](#).

RESULTS

The classic PALM analysis to assess mean group differences did not yield any significant results. [Figure 1](#) depicts the spatial representation of the voxelwise normative model in neurotypical males in the largest site (labeled KCL) ($n = 42$). Results were similar for neurotypical females ([Figure S5](#)) and when using ComBat to address site effects ([Figure S6](#)). As site was included in the normative model, there are separate distributions for each site by sex, which are shown in [Figure S7](#). In both neurotypical males and females, leftward shifts in gray matter asymmetry were mainly evident in Heschl's gyrus, planum temporale, parietal and central operculum, angular gyrus, supramarginal gyrus, pars triangularis, postcentral gyrus, precentral gyrus, superior and middle frontal gyrus, lateral occipital cortex, and cerebellum. Rightward shifts in gray matter asymmetry mainly occurred in middle and inferior temporal gyrus, posterior supramarginal gyrus, angular gyrus, superior parietal lobule, precuneus, anterior cingulate cortex, supracalcarine cortex, lingual gyrus, occipital pole, and caudate.

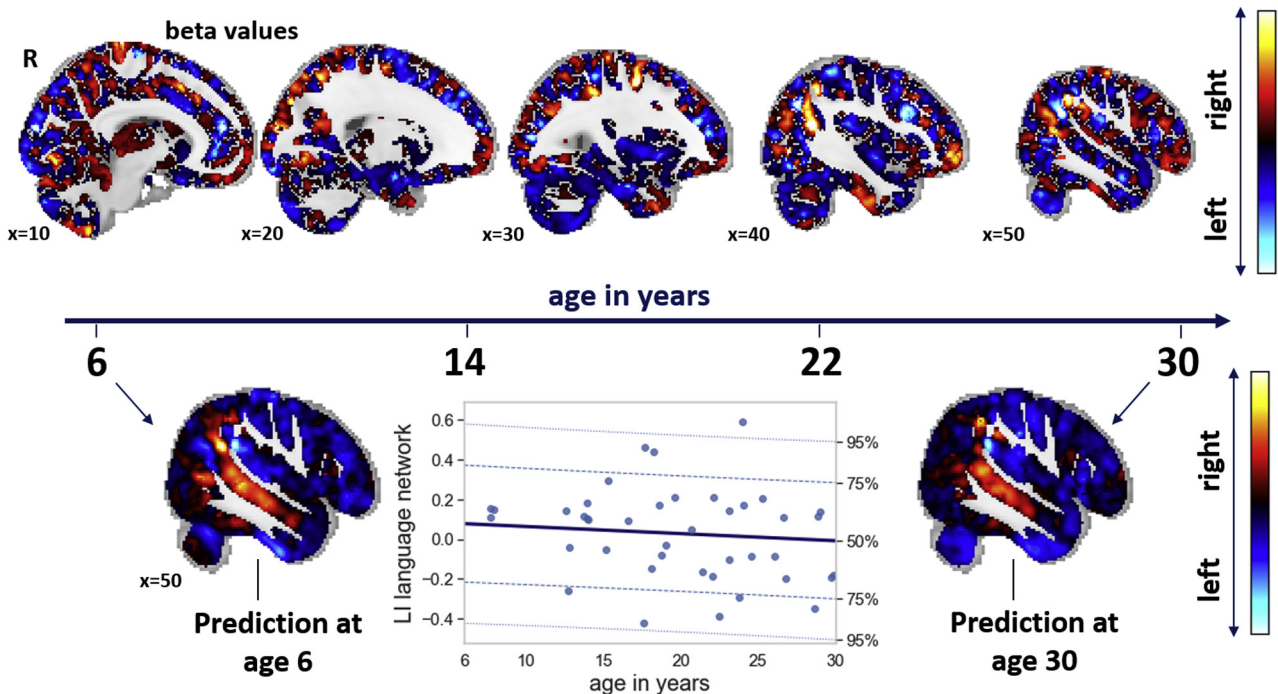


Figure 1. Normative developmental changes for gray matter laterality in neurotypical males. Spatial representation of the voxelwise normative model in neurotypical males from the KCL site. The upper panel shows the beta values of laterality change across 6 to 30 years of age. The lower panel shows the actual prediction of gray matter laterality at ages 6 and 30. Blue indicates a shift toward leftward asymmetry, and red indicates a shift toward rightward asymmetry. The regression line depicts the predicted laterality values extracted from the peak voxel of the language network based on neurosynth ($x = 24, y = 54, z = 51$) between 6 and 30 years of age along with centiles of confidence. These are based on the normative model maps thresholded with the positive correlation map between true and predicted values. Blue dots are the true values for neurotypical males from the KCL site. LI, laterality index; R, right.

Characterization of Extreme Deviations

Overall, males and females with autism showed significantly more extreme rightward ($F_{1,580} = 12.5, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .021$) and leftward ($F_{1,580} = 12.0, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .02$) deviations compared with neurotypical males and females (Figure 2). There were no significant sex differences (right: $F_{1,580} = 0.2, p = .67, \eta_p^2 < .01$; left: $F_{1,580} = 0.2, p = .67, \eta_p^2 < .01$) nor sex-by-diagnosis interactions (right: $F_{1,580} = 2.2, p = .14, \eta_p^2 < .01$; left: $F_{1,580} = 0.5, p = .47, \eta_p^2 < .01$). Controlling the FDR at the individual level of each normative probability maps led to identical conclusions (see the Supplement and Figure S8). Overall, individuals with autism showed no differences in the amount of extreme right- and leftward deviations ($t_{702} = 0.04, p = .9$). Furthermore, there was a significant positive correlation between extreme right- and leftward deviations ($r = .41, p < .001$). For rightward deviations, females with autism showed the highest overlap in parahippocampal gyrus, putamen, and amygdala, while males with autism showed the highest overlap mostly in the middle temporal gyrus and hippocampus (Figure 2A). For leftward deviations, females with autism showed highest overlap in orbitofrontal cortex, frontal pole, and postcentral gyrus, while males with autism showed the highest overlap mostly in lateral occipital cortex, temporal pole, and thalamus (Figure 2B). On average, females with autism had higher overlap of deviating regions than males with autism (right: $\chi^2 = 680, p < .001, \omega < 0.01$; left: $\chi^2 = 282, p < .001, \omega < 0.01$).

When considering deviations by structural ROIs, we found a significant main effect of diagnosis in the frontal operculum ($F_{1,580} = 15.7, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .026$) and central operculum ($F_{1,580} = 14.9, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .025$), with individuals with autism showing more extreme rightward deviations, and in the superior lateral occipital cortex ($F_{1,580} = 14.4, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .024$), with individuals with autism showing more extreme leftward deviations. Furthermore, there was a significant sex-by-diagnosis interaction in the temporal occipital fusiform cortex ($F_{1,580} = 19.2, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .032$), with females with autism having more extreme rightward deviations. When considering deviations by functional ROIs, individuals with autism showed extreme rightward deviations in the motor network ($F_{1,580} = 9.8, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .017$) and more extreme leftward deviations in the visuospatial network ($F_{1,580} = 11.6, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .02$). Results were robust across sensitivity analyses (see the Supplement).

Relative Contributions

Results revealed that LD had the relatively largest importance for explaining extreme rightward deviations (% of total R^2 [5.73%]: LD 65.7% > handedness 12.0% > ADHD 11.2% > sex 10.6% > CSS 0.5%), while symptom severity had the relatively largest importance for explaining extreme leftward deviations (% of total R^2 [4.56%]: CSS 37.7% > LD 32.2% > sex 13.0% > ADHD 9.7% > handedness 7.1%) (Figure 3). LD

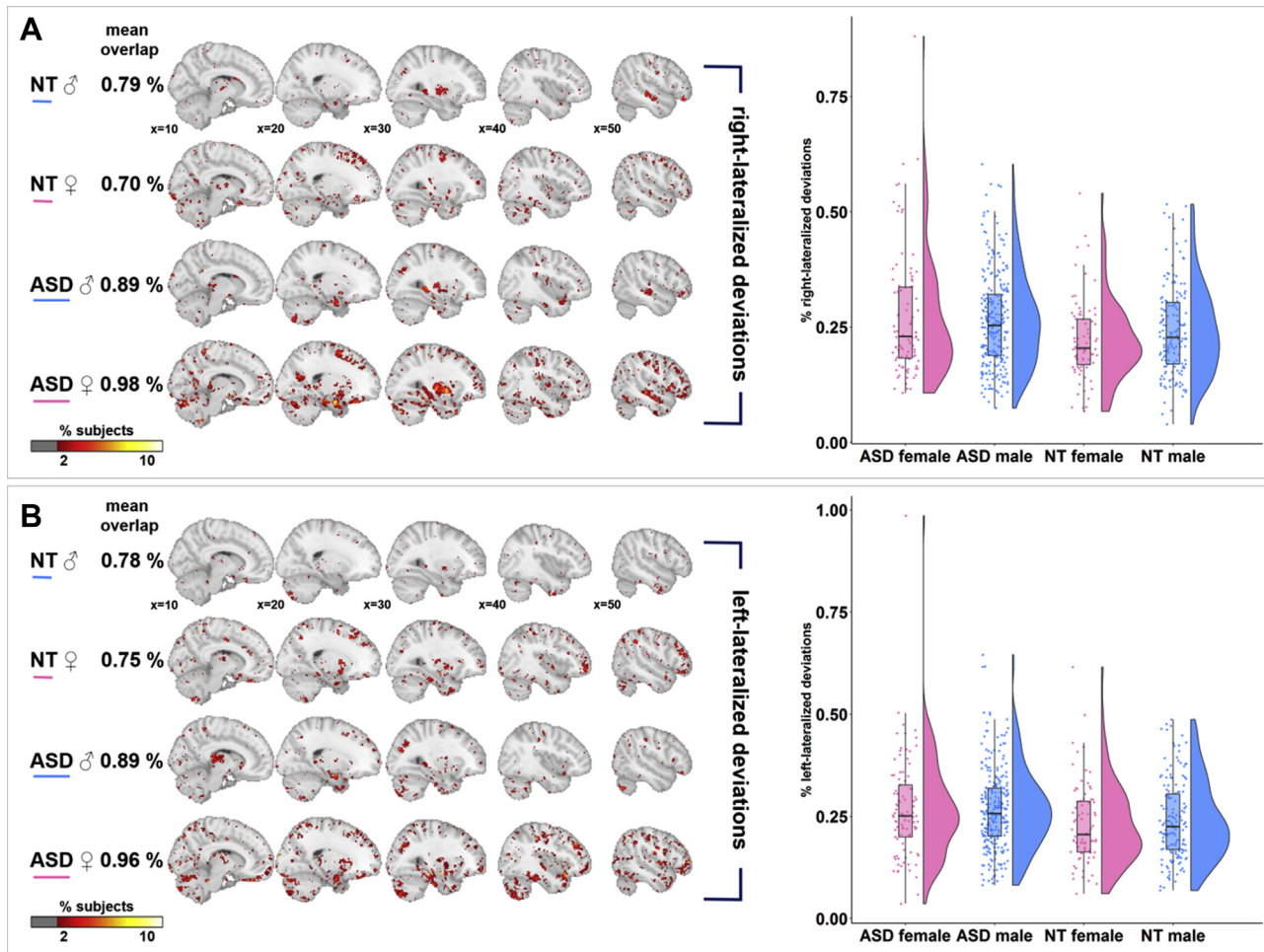


Figure 2. Characterization of extreme laterality deviations: **(A)** extreme rightward deviations and **(B)** extreme leftward deviations. The left panels show the percentage of extreme right- and leftward deviations from the normative model at each brain locus for each diagnostic group and sex separately. We depict loci where at least 2% of the subjects show overlaps. The violin plots on the right show the extreme deviations for each individual within each diagnostic and sex group. On average, individuals with autism show more extreme deviations than neurotypical control subjects for both right- and leftward deviations. ASD, autism spectrum disorder; NT, neurotypical.

was further followed up, showing a significant main effect for rightward deviations ($F_{2,468} = 10.5, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .043$). Specifically, individuals with autism and LD were different from both individuals with autism without LD ($t_{213} = 2.5, p = .01, d = 0.32$) and neurotypical individuals ($t_{152} = 4.6, p < .001, d = 0.58$), while individuals with autism without LD were not different from neurotypical individuals, though trending ($t_{256} = 1.9, p = .06, d = 0.21$). This stepwise pattern was overall more pronounced in males than in females with autism (Figure 4; Figure S9).

Results by language-related ROIs showed a main effect of LD for extreme rightward deviations in the frontal operculum ($F_{2,468} = 10.6, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .043$), central operculum ($F_{2,468} = 7.4, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .03$), and motor network ($F_{2,468} = 6.9, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .029$). Rightward deviations in the language network were significant ($F_{2,468} = 4.1, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .017$) but did not survive FDR correction. For all, there was a stepwise pattern, with individuals with autism and LD showing more pronounced deviations. For a characterization

of the other variables see the Supplement, Figure S10, and Table S3.

Symptom Associations

Across the whole brain, there were significant associations between extreme rightward deviations and ADI-R communication scores ($r = .14, p = .004$). No correlations survived FDR correction in individuals with autism with and without LD. In males with autism, there were significant positive correlations between rightward deviations and core autism symptoms (ADI-R social: $r = .18, p = .002$; ADI-R communication: $r = .19, p = .001$). In females with autism, as well as in males and females with autism with and without LD, no results survived FDR correction.

Replicability

In line with the results of the EU-AIMS LEAP sample, males and females with autism of the combined ABIDE dataset

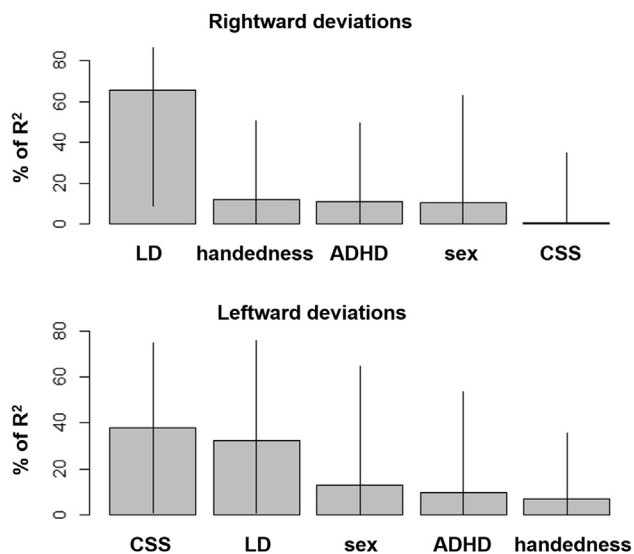


Figure 3. Relative importance of extreme laterality deviations. Language delay (LD) was defined as having onset of first words later than 24 months and/or having onset of first phrases later than 33 months. Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) symptoms were assessed with the DSM-5 ADHD rating scale, covering both inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity symptoms. A categorical variable was computed based on the DSM-5 criteria. Symptom severity was captured by the total Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule 2 calibrated severity score (CSS). We median-split the CSS measure into one group of individuals with autism with high CSS and one with low CSS. Based on the short version of Edinburgh Handedness Inventory, a categorical variable comprising right-handed (+500 to +150) and non-right-handed (−500 to +149) individuals was computed. Categorical variables were input in the model for LD, sex, ADHD, CSS, and handedness. Based on the R package “relaimpo” (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/relaimpo/>), LD had the largest contribution to the total R^2 (5.73%) for extreme rightward deviations, whereas symptom severity had the largest contribution to the total R^2 (4.56%) for extreme leftward deviations. Bar plots are depicted with bootstrapped ($n = 1000$) confidence intervals of the relative importance metric for each factor.

showed both significantly more extreme rightward ($F_{1,1199} = 7.1, p = .008, \eta_p^2 = .01$) and leftward ($F_{1,1199} = 11.6, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .01$) deviations compared with neurotypical individuals (see Figure S11). As in EU-AIMS LEAP, there were no sex differences (right: $F_{1,1199} = 0.3, p = .59, \eta_p^2 < .01$; left: $F_{1,1199} = 0.04, p = .85, \eta_p^2 < .01$) and no sex-by-diagnosis interactions (right: $F_{1,1199} = 3.6, p = .06, \eta_p^2 < .01$; left: $F_{1,1199} = 3.4, p = .06, \eta_p^2 < .01$). When considering deviations by functional ROIs significant in the primary analysis, individuals with autism also showed extreme rightward deviations in the motor network ($F_{1,1199} = 5.2, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .004$) and extreme leftward deviations in the visuospatial network ($F_{1,1199} = 4.0, p = .05, \eta_p^2 = .003$). There were no significant group differences when considering the structural ROIs. For further details, see the Supplement and Figure S11.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we mapped extreme deviations in structural asymmetry at the individual level compared with a normative model of laterality development. A further aim was to explore laterality as a stratification marker in autism in a large and deeply phenotyped cohort and an equally large replication

cohort. We found highly individualized patterns of both right- and leftward asymmetry deviations in males and females with autism. In contrast, when using classic case-control analyses, we did not detect any significant group differences, emphasizing the need to move beyond group averages to capture an accurate representation of the phenotype at the individual level. Similarly, a recent study addressing heterogeneity dimensionally pointed out that traditional case-control analyses yield smaller effects and miss atypicalities detected with a dimensional subtyping approach (61). By deriving statistical inferences at the individual level, we demonstrated that individuals with autism show a different, individualized pattern that would otherwise be missed when focusing on a common neurobiological signature. In fact, spatial overlap of extreme deviations across subjects (intersubject consistency) was minimal in both males and females with autism (Figure 2; Figure S11), corroborating the high degree of heterogeneity across subjects and the need to use methods that consider this large variation across subjects at the individual level.

Overall, we detected laterality deviations of small effect sizes, which is in line with previous reports in both autism (12) and the typical population (62). This further emphasizes the need for sufficiently powered large-scale datasets to unravel subtle patterns of atypical structural asymmetries. Moreover, extreme right- and leftward deviations were highly correlated with each other, which suggests that biological factors acting on atypical laterality shifts might not be biased toward one side in the same individual in autism. It thus also appears that a disruption in establishing the typical laterality pattern is not confined to one hemisphere, but that there are interrelated alterations in both. The biological underpinnings are unknown, but they likely include genetic (63), prenatal endocrine (64), and environmental factors. For instance, Geschwind and Behan (65) reported that left frontal regions (coinciding with frontal regions showing extreme rightward deviations in individuals with autism as described here) are under less genetic control than the right hemisphere and therefore are more susceptible to environmental influences during neurodevelopment. Whether prenatal androgens and related early immune activation (64,66) contribute to atypical hemispheric development in autism remains to be established.

Extreme rightward deviations were most pronounced in the motor network and frontal operculum and extreme leftward deviations in the visuospatial network. Accordingly, rightward shifts in asymmetry in language-related regions, particularly in Broca’s area, are frequently reported in autism (18,19,67). However, atypical lateralization of motor and visuospatial performance is underexplored in autism. Accumulating evidence suggests the important role of motor-related asymmetries in the neurobiology of autism (5,15,68,69). Despite mostly intact visuospatial performance in autism, atypical activation patterns have been reported in individuals with autism while performing visuospatial tasks (70). More specific cognitive measures are needed to establish the functional relevance of these alterations.

Males and females with autism showed a similar degree of extreme deviations (Figure 2). Specifically, in the temporal occipital fusiform cortex, females with autism showed stronger rightward deviations, while both males with autism and neurotypical females show fewer rightward deviations than

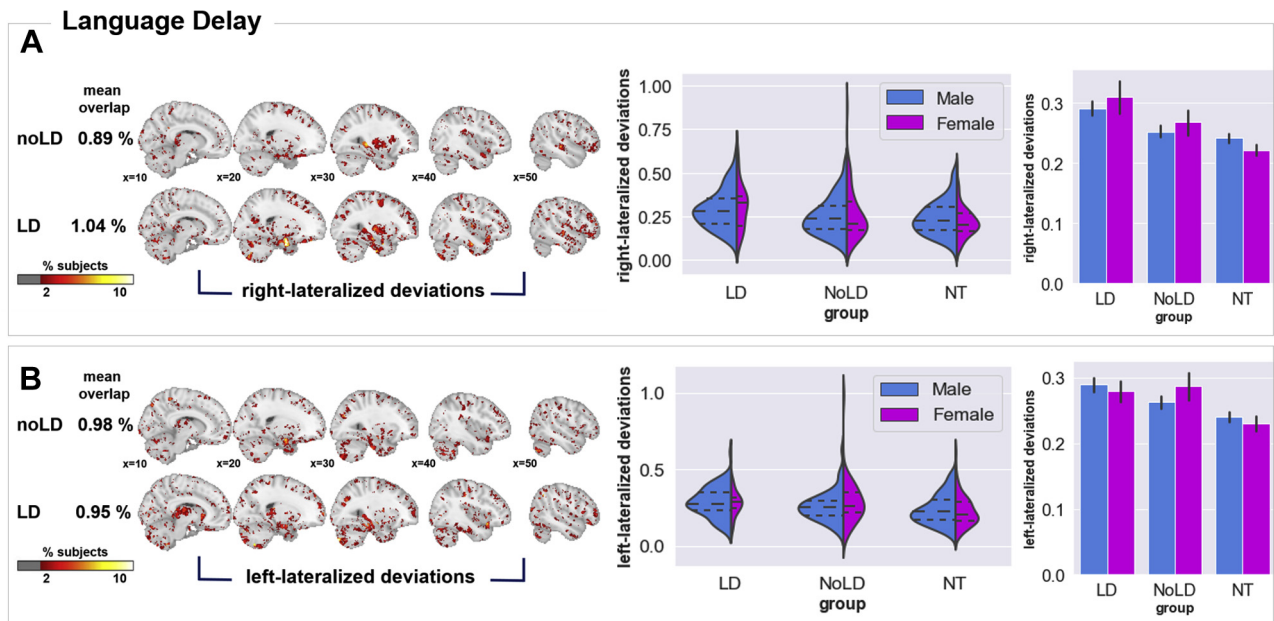


Figure 4. Extreme laterality deviations as a function of language delay (LD): **(A)** extreme rightward deviations and **(B)** extreme leftward deviations. Language delay was defined as having onset of first words later than 24 months and/or having onset of first phrases later than 33 months. The left panels show the percentage of extreme right- and leftward deviations from the normative model at each brain locus for each diagnostic group and sex separately. We depict loci where at least 2% of the subjects show overlaps. The violin and bar plots on the right show that individuals with autism with LD show more extreme rightward deviations than the other two groups. NoLD, individuals with autism without language delay; NT, neurotypical subjects.

neurotypical males. This “occipital face area” is strongly right-lateralized in neurotypical individuals (71). Individuals with autism exhibit atypical face-processing strategies, and these are more pronounced in females with autism (72). Being one of the most reported impairments in social cognition in autism, face processing and related atypical, sex-differential lateralization await further exploration.

When considering the spatial extent of deviations, females with autism show on average greater overlap across differently implicated regions than males with autism (Figure 2; Figure S11). This suggests that females with autism might constitute a less heterogeneous group than males with autism, who show less pronounced overlap of focal atypicalities in laterality. Also, when considering males and females separately, atypical asymmetry was associated with more social-communicative symptoms only in males with autism, but not in females with autism, suggesting that phenotypically similar manifestations of atypical lateralization appear to have differential cognitive implications for males and females with autism.

We found that both extreme left- and rightward deviations were associated with LD, but only rightward deviations differentiated individuals with autism with and without LD from each other. This is in line with prior reports (17,30). Two structural studies further showed differential morphological alterations in individuals with autism with different developmental language profiles (73) and a loss of leftward asymmetry in the arcuate fasciculus in nonverbal children with autism (74). The degree of atypical rightward lateralization may thus constitute a biological marker of different etiological subgroups with different language profiles in autism. Evidence suggests that onset of

language before the age of 2 years (75) and the level of language at the ages 5 and 6 years (76) predict functional outcome later in life in autism. Developing stratification markers based on LD will thus have important clinical implications for early prognosis, individualized diagnoses, and early language-based interventions in individuals at risk. Other important factors, such as handedness, seemed to have less influence on extreme deviations, which was corroborated by a range of control analyses and is in line with prior accounts (62,77). It is likely that atypical brain asymmetry and handedness share common underlying mechanisms in autism; however, there seems to be no systematic, straightforward relationship, as atypical asymmetry has repeatedly been reported in right-handed individuals, too (24,78,79).

Strengths and Limitations

We present analyses in a large-scale, deeply phenotyped, and prospectively harmonized dataset. Results are robust across several analyses addressing potential confounds and are overall also observable in the large-scale, though not harmonized, ABIDE. Replicability and robustness of findings are important prerequisites as a first step toward establishing neural biomarkers.

Nevertheless, our findings should be considered in light of some limitations. First, despite the large dataset, when dividing individuals by diagnostic group, sex, LD, and site, subsamples decrease substantially in size. While our Bayesian Gaussian process regression model adapts to the availability of data [i.e., gives more conservative estimates when data density decreases (33)], the model would yield more precise estimates with larger sample sizes. Second, large datasets come at the

expense of additional confounds associated with site. We addressed this by both including site in the model and running an alternative method for controlling batch effects. Our results are robust, but residual site effects cannot fully be excluded. Third, the question arises whether there are also experience-dependent influences on cortical asymmetry. Longitudinal analyses are needed to pinpoint the onset and trajectory of atypical development in subgroups on the autism spectrum. Fourth, the normative modeling approach is suitable for detecting extreme deviations from a normative pattern. However, an alternative hypothesis that individuals with autism might lack specialization of either hemisphere (68), which would be expressed in reduced laterality, might be less detected with the current approach.

Conclusions

We estimated a normative model of gray matter voxelwise asymmetry based on a large neurotypical cohort and applied this to a large, deeply phenotyped, and heterogeneous autism sample. Our results confirm that atypical asymmetry is a core feature of the autism neurophenotype, shows highly individualized patterns across individuals and is differentially related to different symptom profiles, such as LD. Further exploration of such associations has the potential to yield clinically relevant stratification markers needed for precision medicine.

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