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Disrupted structural connectivity network in treatment-naive depression



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ABSTRACT

Background: Neuroimaging studies suggest that treatment-naive depression (TD) is characterized by abnormal functional connectivity between specific brain regions. However, the question surrounding the structural basis of functional aberrations in TD patients still remains.

Methods: In the present study, diffusion tensor imaging tractography was employed to construct structural connectivity networks in 22 early adult-onset, first-episode TD patients and 19 healthy controls (HC). Graph theory and network-based statistic (NBS) were then employed to investigate systematically the alteration of whole brain structural topological organization and structural connectivity in TD patients.

Results: Graph theoretical analysis revealed that, compared with HC, TD patients exhibited altered structural topological measures, including decreased shortest path length, normalized clustering coefficient, normalized shortest path length, and small-worldness, as well as increased global and local efficiency. NBS results further revealed that TD patients showed two altered structural sub-networks. One sub-network mainly involved connections between the right orbitofrontal cortex (OFC) and the right insula, putamen, caudate, hippocampus, fusiform gyrus, inferior temporal gyrus and lingual gyrus. The other sub-network mainly included connections between the left OFC and the left gyrus rectus, insula, putamen, caudate, thalamus, pallidum and middle occipital gyrus.

Conclusions: The findings suggest that TD patients exhibit a disruption in the topological organization of structural brain networks. The altered orbitofrontal connectivity may particularly contribute to the manifestation of symptoms in TD patients. The abnormalities may facilitate understanding of the functional disturbances of mood and cognition in the disease.

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1. Introduction

Depression is a common psychiatric disease characterized by feelings of sadness, guilt, worthlessness, and hopelessness, followed by a high chance of suicide (Jia et al., 2010; Petersen et al., 2001). The emerging functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) technique has recently deepened the understanding of the pathogenesis of the disorder. For instance, Hooley et al. (2009) reported that participants recovered from depression have increased activation in the amygdala and decreased activation in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex when

Abbreviations: TD, treatment-naive depression; HC, healthy controls; DTI, diffusion tensor imaging; SCN, structural connectivity network; MNI, Montreal Neurological Institute; AAL, automated anatomical labeling; NBS, network-based statistic; PET, positron emission tomography; fMRI, functional magnetic resonance imaging; HRSD, Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression; FACT, Fiber Assignment by Continuous Tracking; ROI, regions of interest; FDR, false discovery rate; OFC, orbitofrontal cortex; DMN, default mode network.

they responded to criticism from their mothers. Hypoactivation of prefrontal cortex was also observed in depression when they were shown pictures of sad faces (Lee et al., 2008). However, these studies usually recruited depressive subjects taking antidepressant medication, and the findings might be confounded by medication effects. For example, Lui et al. (2011) found distinct functional deficits in the distributed brain networks between depressed patients who show response to antidepressant treatment and those who exhibit no such response, which indicates different pathogenesis between the two clinical subtypes. Thus, a study of treatment-naive depression (TD) may facilitate understanding of the underlying pathophysiological mechanisms in depression, which could improve early diagnosis and therapy.

A number of neuroimaging studies have revealed that abnormal functional cortico-limbic circuits were associated with the pathophysiology of TD patients. For instance, an fMRI study employing a facematching task (Frodl et al., 2010) reported a functional connectivity bias of the orbitofrontal cortex (OFC) with precuneus and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in drug-free patients with depression, representing a neural mechanism of processing bias in the disease. Anand et al. (2009) found decreased cortico-limbic functional connectivity in

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unmedicated unipolar depression at rest by using an analysis based on regions of interest (ROI). Altered functional connectivity between the amygdala and prefrontal cortex was observed in TD patients during emotional face processing task (Kong et al., 2013) and also under the resting-state condition (Yue et al., 2013). In addition, resting-state fMRI studies reported that TD patients exhibit altered functional connectivity within the default mode network (DMN) (Guo et al., 2013a; Zhu et al., 2012), and between the DMN and the middle temporal gyrus (Ma et al., 2012), anterior cingulate cortex and thalamus (Guo et al., 2013a). Furthermore, neuroimaging studies revealed increased cerebellar functional connectivity with the temporal poles (Liu et al., 2012) and visual recognition network (Guo et al., 2013b), along with decreased functional connectivity with regions within the DMN (Guo et al., 2013b; Liu et al., 2012) in TD patients. Functional abnormalities of these circuits or networks suggest that TD patients possess a multidimensional and system-level disorder rather than a disease of dysfunction in a single brain region. However, the question surrounding the structural connectivity basis of these functional changes in the disease still remains.

The functional circuit integration has been suggested to be significantly constrained by the large-scale structural pathways interconnecting the human functional brain regions (Hagmann et al., 2008; Honey et al., 2009; van den Heuvel et al., 2008). Therefore, the structural connectivity substrate of distributed functional interactions among brain regions should be studied to gain full understanding of the functional disturbances in TD patients. Diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) tractography, which is capable of reconstructing white matter tracts of the human brain, provides powerful strength for the comprehension of the structural connectivity patterns of brain. To the best of our knowledge, only three studies have investigated the structural connectivity in TD patients by employing DTI tractography. The first study (Korgaonkar et al., 2012) reported that several inter-cortical connections have the most discriminative power for classification between treatment-free depression and healthy controls (HC). This study, however, did not investigate structural connectivity of subcortical areas, for example, the basal ganglia, which has been demonstrated critical in depression (Chantiluke et al., 2012; Marchand, 2010). The second study (Fang et al., 2012) found increased structural connectivity within the cortical-limbic circuit in TD patients. The altered connections were further identified as the most discriminating features. This study, however, did not examine structural abnormalities at the network level. A study of TD patients at network level might provide new insights into the disease. The third study (Korgaonkar et al., in press) demonstrated decreased structural connectivity within the DMN and the network which comprises the frontal cortex, thalamus and caudate regions in a large sample of depression. Results of this study, however, might be affected by antidepressant effects. In brief, these previous structural studies 1) mainly focused on the structural connectivity between cortical and limbic regions, or 2) might have results confounded by medication effects. The question of whether TD patients have deficits of structural connectivity across the whole brain, as well as alterations of structurally topological organization at the network level, still remains.

Graph theory, which is capable of investigating the topological organization of the human brain, has attracted considerable attention in studies of healthy subjects (Achard and Bullmore, 2007; Li et al., 2014; Sporns and Zwi, 2004). This technique conceptualizes the brain as a network consisting of a set of nodes and the edges linking these nodes, and has been increasingly applied to brain diseases such as mild cognitive impairment (Bai et al., 2012), Alzheimer's disease (Lo et al., 2010), post-traumatic stress disorder (Long et al., 2013), and multiple sclerosis (Shu et al., 2011). Two fMRI studies have used graph theory to reveal disruptions of the topological organization of the functional brain network in TD patients, which may contribute to disturbances in mood and cognition in the disease (Jin et al., 2011; J. Zhang et al., 2011). However, the structural topological abnormalities of the brain network in TD patients remain unclear.

The principal aim of the present study was to test whether structurally connectional architecture demonstrates abnormality in TD patients by employing DTI tractography and graph theory. Based on previously reported results, we hypothesized that TD patients might exhibit disruption of the topological organization of the whole-brain structural network, as well as connectivity strength within specific sub-networks.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Participants

Twenty-two right-handed outpatients with early adult-onset, first-episode TD (10 females; age [mean \pm SD]: 28.09 \pm 9.91 years; education: 12.23 \pm 2.62 years; HRSD score: 25.89 \pm 6.26) were recruited from the Mental Health Institute, of the Second Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, China. TD patients were diagnosed using the Structured Clinical Interview according to the DSM-IV criteria (Runeson and Rich, 1994). The severity of depression was quantified by using the 17-item Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HRSD) (Hamilton, 1967). Only patients with HRSD score larger than 18 were eligible for the present study. Thus, all patients in our current study are diagnosed to have severe depression. Exclusion criteria included any history of neurological diseases or other physical diseases, as well as comorbidities with other disorders (no evidence of schizoaffective disorder, bipolar disorder or Axis II, personality disorders and mental retardation). Patients younger than 18 years or older than 50 years were also excluded. Additionally, the current illness duration was no more than six months.

Nineteen right-handed HC (9 females; age [mean \pm SD]: 24.37 \pm 4.18 years; education [mean \pm SD]: 13.11 \pm 2.47 years) were recruited from the community. The participants were interviewed by the same psychiatrists using the Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV, non-patient edition (Runeson and Rich, 1994). None of the participants had a history of serious medical or neuropsychiatric illness or a family history of major psychiatric or neurological illness among first-degree relatives. No significant differences in age, gender, and education were found between TD patients and HC. The clinical and demographic data are shown in Table 1.

The present study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Second Xiangya Hospital, Central South University. All participants were given information about the procedure, and participated in the research willingly and without coercion. Written informed consents were obtained from all participants.

2.2. Data acquisition

All participants were scanned by using a 1.5T GE scanner (General Electric, Fairfield, Connecticut, USA). The participants were asked to use a prototype quadrature birdcage head coil fitted with foam padding to minimize head movement. The participants were instructed to remain motionless, keep their eyes closed and not think of anything in particular. T1 and DTI images were acquired using the following sequences respectively: 1) T1-weighted volumetric 3D Spoiled Gradient Recall sequence (repetition time/echo time [TR/TE] = 12.1/4.2 ms,

Table 1Demographic information and disease severity in TD patients and HC.

Demographic data	TD(n=22)	HC (n = 19)	p value
Gender (male/female) Age (years) Years of education (years) HRSD score Illness duration (months)	$12/10 \\ 28.09 \pm 9.91 \\ 12.23 \pm 2.62 \\ 25.89 \pm 6.26 \\ 2.95 \pm 1.73$	$\begin{array}{c} 10/9 \\ 24.37 \pm 4.18 \\ 13.11 \pm 2.47 \\ - \\ - \end{array}$	0.902 ^a 0.119 ^b 0.278 ^b

TD, treatment-naive depression; HC, healthy control; HRSD, Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression.

^a The p value was obtained by chi-square test.

^b The p value was obtained by two-tailed two-sample t-test.

matrix = 512×512 , slices = 172, flip angle = 15° , field of view [FOV] = $240 \times 240 \text{ mm}^2$, slice thickness = 0.9 mm, voxel size = $0.51 \times 0.51 \times 0.9 \text{ mm}^3$; orientation = sagittal); 2) single shot echo planar imaging sequence (TR/TE = 12,000/105 ms, matrix = 128×128 , slices = 30, flip angle = 90° , FOV = $240 \times 240 \text{ mm}^2$, slice thickness = 4 mm, no gap, voxel size = $0.94 \times 0.94 \times 4 \text{ mm}^3$, orientation = axial, $13 \text{ non-collinear diffusion weighting gradient direction [b = <math>1000 \text{ s/mm}^2$] and one additional image without diffusion weighting [b = 0 s/mm^2]).

2.3. Network construction

In the present study, a structural connectivity network (SCN) was constructed for each participant. The SCN comprised nodes based on the Automated Anatomical Labeling (AAL) atlas (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002), and edges characterized by fiber tracts connected these nodes. As suggested by previous studies (Gong et al., 2009; Z. Zhang et al., 2011), the following procedures were conducted to determine the nodes and edges of SCN.

ROIs were defined in the native diffusion space (Gong et al., 2009) to determine the nodes of SCN in each participant. Accordingly, each individual T1-weighted image was first co-registered to the B0 image (without diffusion weighting) in the native diffusion space by using a linear transformation. Co-registered structural images were then mapped to the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) T1-template by applying an affine transformation with 12 degrees of freedom, along with a series of non-linear warps. The derived transformation parameters were inverted and used to warp the AAL atlas (Tzourio-Mazoyer et al., 2002) from the MNI space to the native diffusion space with nearest-neighbor interpolation. Preprocessing was carried out by using the Statistical parametric Mapping (SPM8, http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm). With this procedure, 90 cortical and subcortical regions (45 for each hemisphere) were obtained in the DTI native space. A list of anatomic labels of nodes is presented in Table 2.

The edges of SCN were determined as follows. Diffusion-weighted images of each participant were geometrically corrected for stretches and shears attributed to the eddy current distortions. The corrected images were then co-registered to the B0 image using affine transformations to minimize slight head movements. Diffusion tensor models were estimated by the linear least-squares fitting method at each voxel using the Diffusion Toolkit software (Wang et al., 2007). Whole-brain fiber tracking was performed in the native diffusion space for each participant using the Fiber Assignment by Continuous Tracking (FACT) algorithm embedded in the Diffusion Toolkit. Path tracing continued until the fractional anisotropy was less than 0.2 or the angle between the current and the previous path segment exceeded 45°, as suggested in a previous study (Shu et al., 2011).

In the native diffusion space, ROI i and ROI j were considered to be linked through an edge e=(i,j), in case at least one fiber f was present between them. The weight of each edge, w(e), was calculated as the number of fibers normalized by the sum of surfaces of ROI i and ROI j, that is $w(e)=2N_{i,j}/(S_i+S_j)$ (van den Heuvel and Sporns, 2011). In particular, $N_{i,j}$ is the number of fibers between ROI i and ROI j. S_i and S_j are two-dimension intersects of the individual's white matter with AAL ROI i and ROI j, respectively.

2.4. Whole brain network organization

Before estimating the whole brain topological network organization, the SCN of each participant has to be thresholded to be a binarized matrix with 1 representing the number of fibers larger than a given threshold, and 0 otherwise. In our current study, the threshold range of 1 to 5 was applied to each whole brain SCN with an interval of 1, as a previous study suggested (Bai et al., 2012). Several topological measures were calculated for each whole brain binarized matrix.

Table 2Six anatomical sub-regions and abbreviated regional labels.

Region name	Abbreviation	Abbreviation	
	LH	RH	
Medial temporal			
Amygdala	IAMYG	rAMYG	
Hippocampus	IHIP	rHIP	
Parahippocampal gyrus	IPHIP	rPHIP	
Middle temporal gyrus, temporal pole	lMTGp	rMTGp	
Superior temporal gyrus, temporal pole	ISTGp	rSTGp	
Frontal	•	•	
Anterior cingulate gyrus	IACC	rACC	
Inferior frontal gyrus, opercular	lIFGoper	rIFGoper	
Inferior frontal gyrus, orbital	lIFGorb	rIFGorb	
Inferior frontal gyrus, triangular	lIFGtri	rIFGtri	
Superior frontal gyrus, medial orbital	lSFGmorb	rSFGmorb	
Middle frontal gyrus, orbital	lMFGorb	rMFGorb	
Middle frontal gyrus	IMFG	rMFG	
Superior frontal gyrus, medial	ISFGmed	rSFGmed	
Superior frontal gyrus, orbital	lSFGorb	rSFGorb	
Superior frontal gyrus	ISFG	rSFG	
Gyrus rectus	IREG	rREG	
Occipital			
Calcarine fissure	ICAL	rCAL	
Cuneus	ICUN	rCUN	
Fusiform gyrus	IFG	rFG	
Lingual gyrus	lling	rLING	
Inferior occipital gyrus	lIOG	rIOG	
Middle occipital gyrus	IMOG	rMOG	
Superior occipital gyrus	ISOG	rSOG	
Subcortical			
Caudate nucleus	lcau	rCAU	
Olfactory cortex	lOLF	rOLF	
Pallidum	IPAL	rPAL	
Putamen	IPUT	rPUT	
Thalamus	ITHA	rTHA	
Parietal-(pre) motor			
Angular gyrus	IANG	rANG	
Median cingulate gyrus	IMCC	rMCC	
Posterior cingulate gyrus	IPCC	rPCC	
Paracentral lobule	IPCL	rPCL	
Inferior parietal gyrus	IIPG	rIPG	
Superior parietal gyrus	ISPG	rSPG	
Postcentral gyrus	lPoCG	rPoCG	
Precentral gyrus	lPreCG	rPreCG	
Precuneus	IPCUN	rPCUN	
Supplementary motor area	ISMA	rSMA	
Supramarginal gyrus	ISMG	rSMG	
Rolandic operculum	IROL	rROL	
Temporal	HIEC	#HEC	
Heschl gyrus	IHES	rHES	
Insula	IINS	rINS	
Inferior temporal gyrus	IITG IMTG	rITG rMTG	
Middle temporal gyrus Superior temporal gyrus	ISTG	rSTG	
Superior temporar gyrus	131G	1316	

Seven topological measures describing properties of the whole brain network organization were considered: clustering coefficient (C), local efficiency (E_{local}), shortest path length (L), global efficiency (E_{global}), normalized clustering coefficient (γ), normalized shortest path length (λ) , and small-worldness (σ) . Briefly, C and E_{local} reflect functional segregation. C quantifies the extent of local interconnectivity or cliquishness in the network (Onnela et al., 2005). E_{local} quantifies the fault tolerance of the network, indicating how well each sub-graph exchanges information (Bullmore and Bassett, 2011). High scores on the two measures correspond to highly segregated neural processing (Achard and Bullmore, 2007; Rubinov and Sporns, 2010). L and Eglobal reflect functional integration. L measures the capability for information transfer between brain regions (Latora and Marchiori, 2001). Eglobal is a measure of the overall capacity for parallel information transfer and integrated processing (Achard and Bullmore, 2007). A lower score on L (or higher E_{global}) indicates a more rapid combination of specialized information from distributed brain regions (Rubinov and Sporns,

2010). γ and λ are normalized relative to C and L of the 100 matched random networks that preserve the number of nodes, edges, and degree distribution of the real network. A network would be considered as a small-world network if a small-worldness (σ), calculated by $\sigma = \frac{\gamma}{\lambda}$, is greater than 1.0 (Sporns and Zwi, 2004; Watts and Strogatz, 1998), with a higher value indicating a more optimized balance between local specialization and global integration (Rubinov and Sporns, 2010). The seven topological measures are commonly used as index to quantify network structures in graph theory mathematically. Detailed information on these seven measures was reported in previous studies (Achard and Bullmore, 2007; Bullmore and Bassett, 2011; Rubinov and Sporns, 2010; Sporns and Zwi, 2004).

Between-group difference in each measure was investigated at each threshold between HC and TD patients. The significance of any difference was tested by using two-sample t-test with p < 0.05.

2.5. Alterations in sub-networks

In this section, one sample t-test was employed to extract all edges [i.e., w(e)] that met a significance level with the false discovery rate (FDR) corrections (p < 0.05) in HC and TD patients. The identified edges within either the TD patients or HC would then be combined into a connection mask used in the following NBS.

The NBS (Zalesky et al., 2010) was used to identify the significance of any connected sub-networks evident in the set of altered connections found in TD patients. The NBS was implemented in the present study as follows: A primary threshold (here, t=2.5) was initially applied to the t-statistic computed for each edge within the connection mask obtained from one sample t-test, to define a set of suprathreshold edges. Any connected components or sub-networks within the set of suprathreshold edges were determined using MATLAB software (Version 8.0) by executing the "components" function. The size of the components (number of edges) was then obtained. The null distribution of the component size was empirically obtained using non-parametric permutation approach (5000 permutations) to estimate the significance of each connected components. For each permutation, each participant was randomly assigned to one of the two groups with the same size as the origin groups of TD and HC. The same threshold

(t=2.5) was then applied to determine the suprathreshold edges within the same connection mask, and the maximum component size was computed. A p-value was assigned to each connected component by computing the proportion of component size exceeding the null distribution values. The connected sub-networks with p-value lower than 0.05 were considered significant. A detailed description is given in the study by Zalesky et al. (2010).

Pearson correlation coefficient was computed in TD patients to assess the significance of any linear associations between clinical variables describing the sample characteristics (i.e., HRSD score, and illness duration) and edges within the altered sub-networks. A correlation with p < 0.05 was considered significant.

3. Results

3.1. Altered whole brain network organization

Results revealed that both HC and TD groups demonstrated small-world topology. The two-sample t-test further revealed significantly (p < 0.05) altered topological measures in TD patients. In particular, TD patients showed lower L, γ , λ , and σ , but higher E_{global} and E_{local} than HC (Fig. 1).

3.2. Altered sub-networks

One sample t-test suggested that, in both groups, the identified edges were located across the whole brain regions. However, more edges were identified in TD patients than in HC (Fig. 2). With FDR correction, 231 edges survived in HC, whereas 397 edges survived in TD patients. These edges were combined into a connection mask consisting of 397 edges.

The NBS revealed two connected sub-networks that were disrupted in TD patients within the connection masks. The first altered sub-network (p=0.0062, corrected) comprised edges between the right orbital part of superior frontal gyrus and the right orbital part of inferior frontal gyrus, insula, and caudate; between the right orbital part of medial frontal gyrus and the right orbital part of inferior frontal gyrus, insula, hippocampus, and putamen; between the right orbital

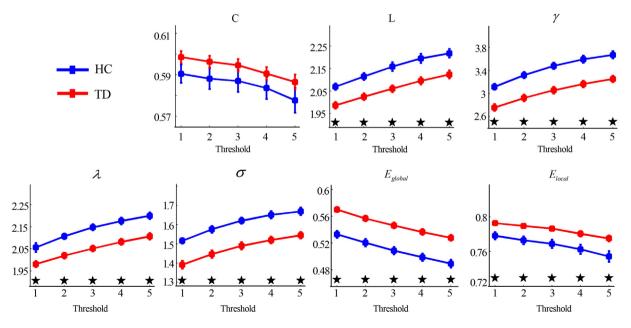


Fig. 1. Topological measures including the $C, L, \gamma, \lambda, \sigma, E_{global}$, and E_{local} (left to right) of HC (blue lines) and TD patients (red lines) as a function of threshold (number of fibers). The stars indicate the significant difference of the measures between the two groups at each threshold using two-sample t-test. The vertical bar indicates the standard error across subjects in each group. C, clustering coefficient; L, shortest path length; γ , normalized clustering coefficient; λ , normalized shortest path length; σ , small-worldness; E_{global} , global efficiency; E_{local} , local efficiency; E_{local} local efficiency; E_{local} for interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

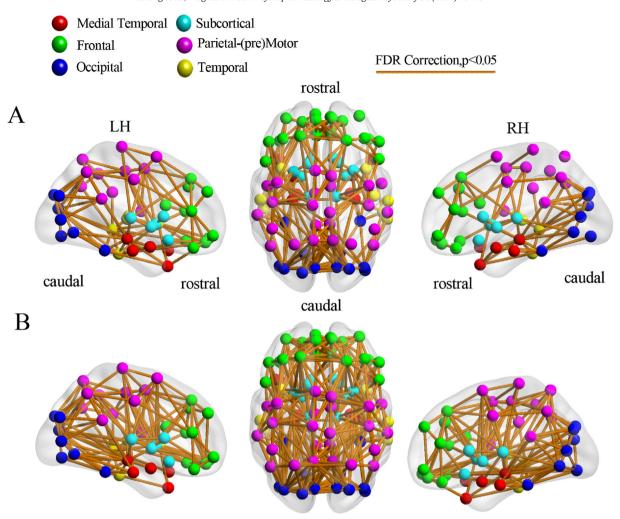


Fig. 2. Visualization of SCN tested by one-sample t-test in HC and TD patients. (A) Dorsal and lateral views of SCN in HC. The six anatomical sub-regions listed in Table 2 are colored differently. The nodes represent brain regions based on AAL atlas, and undirected edges interconnecting pairs of nodes survive the FDR multiple comparison correction with p < 0.05. (B) Dorsal and lateral views of SCN in TD patients. SCN, structural connectivity network; HC, healthy control; TD, treatment-naive depression; AAL, anatomical automatic labeling; FDR, false discovery rate. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

part of inferior frontal gyrus and the right insula, lingual gyrus, fusiform gyrus, and inferior temporal gyrus; between the right superior frontal gyrus and the right caudate; as well as between the right insula and the right inferior temporal gyrus (Fig. 3A). The second altered sub-network (p = 0.0054, corrected) consisted of edges between the left orbital part of superior frontal gyrus and the left orbital part of medial frontal gyrus, rectus, caudate, and putamen; between the left orbital part of medial frontal gyrus and the left insula, putamen, and pallidum; between the left orbital part of inferior frontal gyrus and the left middle occipital gyrus, and pallidum; between the left caudate and the left putamen, pallidum, and thalamus; between the left insula and the left middle occipital gyrus; as well as between the left triangular part of medial frontal gyrus and the left insula (Fig. 3B). Notably, the two sub-networks exhibited increased connections in TD patients compared with HC. The results of the altered sub-network are summarized in Table 3.

No significant correlations were found between clinical variables (including HRSD score and illness duration) and edges within the altered sub-networks.

4. Discussion

The present study provided evidence of altered SCN in TD patients. In particular, the topological organization of SCN was found to be disrupted in TD patients, with decreased values of L, γ , λ , and σ , and

increased values of E_{global} and E_{local} . The results indicated a disturbance between local specialization and global integration in TD patients. In addition, TD patients showed increased structural connectivity of OFC with subcortical brain areas, including the putamen, caudate, thalamus, and pallidum, as well as altered connectivity of OFC with several other brain regions, including the insula, hippocampus, inferior temporal gyrus, and fusiform gyrus. These results might provide structural substrates to facilitate understanding of the emotional abnormalities and cognitive bias observed in TD patients.

4.1. Altered whole brain network organization

The first major finding in the present study was the altered whole-brain structural organization of TD patients. The human brain is a complex, interconnected system that has many important topological properties, such as small-worldness, and highly connected network hubs (Bullmore and Bassett, 2011; He and Evans, 2010; Wang et al., 2010). In brain network, small-worldness is an attractive model reflecting two fundamental organizations: functional segregation and functional integration. The former characterizes the ability for specialized processing to occur within densely interconnected groups of brain regions, whereas the latter characterizes the ability for information communication between distributed brain regions. In the present study, both HC and TD patients showed small-world topology in

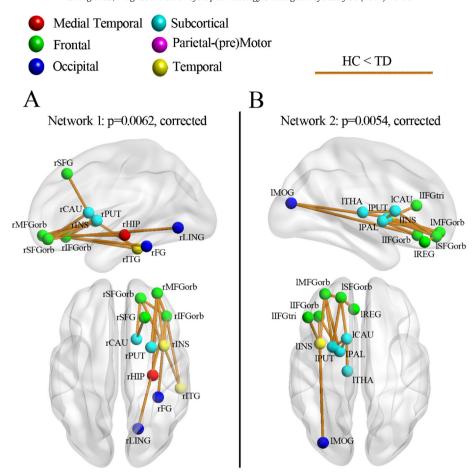


Fig. 3. Schematic of two altered sub-networks in TD patients mainly consisting of orbitofrontal structural connectivity within the right hemisphere (A) and the left hemisphere (B), revealed by NBS analysis. Labels indicate anatomical regions placed at their respective centroids. The six anatomical sub-regions listed in Table 2 are colored differently. The undirected edges indicate the increased connections in TD patients compared with HC. NBS, network based statistics; HC, healthy control; TD, treatment-naïve depression. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

large-scale SCN, which indicated that the nature of small-world architecture was conserved in the disease.

Despite the common small-world topology, significant differences in topological measures were observed between TD patients and HC. Although a recent study (Korgaonkar et al., in press) with a large sample of subjects reported no significant differences in topological measures of SCN between patients with depression and HC, their results might be affected by antidepressant effects. In contrast, aberrant topological organization of SCN observed in the present study was consistent with those reported in previous functional studies of depression. A study on functional connectivity network of TD patients reported significantly lower L and λ , and higher E_{global} relative to HC, indicating that TD patients showed increased long-distance functional connectivity (J. Zhang et al., 2011). Electroencephalogram studies reported that depression had significantly smaller λ and γ compared with HC, suggesting a loss of synchronization between distant neurons and low efficiency of local information processing (Leistedt et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2011). The altered topological organization of SCN found in our current study might provide evidence of structural substrates of the functional disturbance, indicating that an optimal balance between local specialization and global integration in TD patients was less effective than that in HC.

4.2. Altered orbitofrontal structural connectivity

The second major finding in our current study was the altered orbitofrontal structural connectivity of TD patients. The OFC is

considered vital to a wide range of cognitive tasks, such as emotional face task (Townsend et al., 2010), decision-making and expectation (Kringelbach, 2005), working memory (Barbey et al., 2011), and coding of exteroceptive and interoceptive information (Price, 1999). In animals, OFC lesions resulted in lower thresholds for aggressive reactions, alterations in appetite, and increases in social withdrawal (Raleigh and Steklis, 1981). In human studies, evidence indicated that several mood disorders are associated with dysfunction of OFC. These disorders include patients with obsessive compulsive disorder (Chamberlain et al., 2008), bipolar disorder (Cotter et al., 2005) and social anxiety disorder (Liu et al., 2013). These studies suggested that OFC is associated with abnormalities in a wide range of affective behavior including depressed mood, anger, affective instability, fear, and anxiety symptoms, which were frequently observed in depressive patients. It may speculate that depression has OFC dysfunction.

Indeed, neurobiological evidence has supported clinical and neurobehavioral theoretical models regarding the involvement of the OFC in the pathophysiology of depression. In a postmortem study, Rajkowska et al. (1999) found significant cortical thinning of the OFC in depressive patients compared with HC. Using magnetic resonance imaging, Lai et al. (2000) and Bremner et al. (2002) reported bilateral reductions of OFC volumes in depression. Functional connectivity bias of the OFC was also investigated in drug-free depressive patients using fMRI face-matching task (Frodl et al., 2010). The potential importance of OFC in the pathophysiology of depression was also suggested by a cytoarchitectural study (Rajkowska et al., 2005), which found a reduction in the pyramidal neuron density of OFC in elderly depression.

Table 3Altered connected sub-networks in TD patients compared with HC.

Region 1	Classification	Region 2	Classification	Mean w(e)		df	t value			
				НС	TD					
Increased of	Increased connections in network 1, $p = 0.0062$, corrected									
rSFGorb	Frontal	rIFGorb	Frontal	0.013	0.056	39	-3.70			
rMFGorb	Frontal	rIFGorb	Frontal	0.027	0.084	39	-2.86			
rSFGorb	Frontal	rINS	Temporal	0.011	0.028	39	-4.14			
rMFGorb	Frontal	rINS	Temporal	0.010	0.035	39	-4.14			
rIFGorb	Frontal	rINS	Temporal	0.023	0.063	39	-4.04			
rMFGorb	Frontal	rHIP	Subcortical	0.003	0.022	39	-3.25			
rIFGorb	Frontal	rLING	Occipital	0.002	0.014	39	-3.45			
rIFGorb	Frontal	rFG	Occipital	0.004	0.018	39	-3.04			
rSFG	Frontal	rCAU	Subcortical	0.004	0.014	39	-2.80			
rSFGorb	Frontal	rCAU	Subcortical	0.003	0.017	39	-3.65			
rMFGorb	Frontal	rPUT	Subcortical	0.006	0.028	39	-2.99			
rIFGorb	Frontal	rITG	Temporal	0.003	0.016	39	-2.86			
rINS	Temporal	rITG	Temporal	0.004	0.012	39	-2.61			
Increased o	Increased connections in network 2, $p = 0.0054$, corrected									
lSFGorb	Frontal	lMFGorb	Frontal	0.093	0.173	39	-2.54			
lSFGorb	Frontal	IREG	Frontal	0.047	0.097	39	-2.58			
lMFGorb	Frontal	IINS	Temporal	0.031	0.058	39	-2.60			
lIFGtri	Frontal	IINS	Temporal	0.023	0.044	39	-2.53			
lIFGorb	Frontal	lMOG	Occipital	0.002	0.011	39	-3.16			
IINS	Temporal	IMOG	Occipital	0.005	0.015	39	-3.21			
lSFGorb	Frontal	ICAU	Subcortical	0.002	0.010	39	-3.53			
lSFGorb	Frontal	IPUT	Subcortical	0.005	0.017	39	-2.78			
lMFGorb	Frontal	IPUT	Subcortical	0.010	0.038	39	-3.70			
ICAU	Subcortical	IPUT	Subcortical	0.010	0.020	39	-3.43			
lMFGorb	Frontal	IPAL	Subcortical	0.015	0.068	39	-3.86			
lIFGorb	Frontal	IPAL	Subcortical	0.007	0.032	39	-2.90			
lcau	Subcortical	IPAL	Subcortical	0.009	0.021	39	-2.89			
ICAU	Subcortical	lTHA	Subcortical	0.011	0.032	39	-3.72			

Network-based statistics revealed two altered connected sub-networks in patients with TD, consisting of orbitofrontal connections with subcortical regions, and several temporal, occipital brain regions. The abbreviations of brain areas are listed in Table 2. TD, treatment-naive depression; HC, healthy control; df, degrees of freedom.

These morphological abnormalities and neuron reduction of OFC may imply the disruption of the structural connectivity of this region in depression. The altered orbitofrontal structural connectivity in TD patients observed in the present study may support this hypothesis.

The increased structural connectivity of the OFC with subcortical regions in the present study might be involved with the abnormal stimulus-reward association observed in depression. Several studies supported this hypothesis. For instance, studies on rats and monkeys found that lesions of the ventral striatum and pallidum, the mediodorsal thalamic nucleus, or the orbital medial prefrontal cortex caused deficits in stimulus-reward reversal tasks, in which the animals had difficulty switching from previously rewarded to unrewarded stimuli (Ferry et al., 2000; Kazama and Bachevalier, 2009; McBride and Slotnick, 1997; Roberts et al., 1990). In human studies, Forbes et al. (2006) found that young people with depression exhibited less neural response than HC in reward-related regions, including the caudate and OFC during the reward anticipation and outcome phases of reward processing.

The altered structural connectivity of the OFC with hippocampus in TD might be associated with biased memory for negative stimuli. For instance, an fMRI study (Hamilton and Gotlib, 2008) reported a greater functional connectivity of the hippocampus with the amygdala in depressive participants than in non-depressive participants during the encoding of remembered negative stimuli. The altered connectivity of the OFC with insula cortex might be involved in the emotion processing bias in TD patients (Disner et al., 2011). For example, Surguladze et al. (2010) found greater activation of the left insula in facial expressions of disgust in depression, which suggested hyperreactivity to disgust in depression. The disrupted connectivity of the OFC with several occipital regions might indicate biased attention for emotional stimuli, which suggested that TD patients had selective attention toward sad stimuli (Disner et al., 2011; Surguladze et al., 2005).

In summary, our results were consistent with a previously proposed neurobiological model of depression (Price and Drevets, 2012). Specifically, a loss of top-down regulation, that is, the suppression of prefrontal activity on limbic brain areas, is thought to be involved in the pathogenesis of emotional, behavioral, and cognitive changes in depression (Savitz and Drevets, 2009). For example, aberrant functional connectivity between cortico-limbic brain regions was observed in depression when they performed emotion processing tasks (Frodl et al., 2010; Kong et al., 2013). Additionally, the altered structural connectivity of OFC in the present study was found at the early stage of adult onset, probably highlighting importance of early diagnose and treatment of depression.

4.3. Limitations

Several limitations in the present study need to be mentioned. First, information about co-morbidity rate in TD patients and family income across two groups were not included, which might have led to confounded results (Kaufman and Charney, 2001: Lipina and Posner, 2012). Hence, future studies should include such information. Second. the present study might increase Type II error because of the small sample size. Thus, future researches should involve a larger sample size of depressive patients. Third, the findings of our current study might have been affected by fiber crossings during network construction using the FACT algorithm. Thus, succeeding research should use diffusion spectrum imaging techniques. Fourth, the parcellation scheme used to divide the whole brain into 90 sub-regions was based on the AAL template. However, several studies reported that different schemes could result in distinct topological patterns (Fornito et al., 2010; Sanabria-Diaz et al., 2010). Hence, further studies should combine multiple parcellation strategies to explore the effect on network topology in depression. Finally, the anatomical pathways constructed from DTI largely constrained the functional dynamics between distributed regions. Accordingly, a combined analysis of multi-modal imaging data would yield more information about interactions of brain structure and function in TD patients.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study aimed to investigate whole brain network organization and structural connectivity in TD patients using DTI tractography and graph theory. Altered structurally topological properties (decreased L, γ , λ , and σ , and increased E_{global} and E_{local}) suggested a functional disturbance between local specialization and global integration in TD patients. Disrupted orbitofrontal structural connectivity with hippocampus, insula, fusiform gyrus and several subcortical regions might indicate cognitive bias (e.g., biased memory, biased attention and biased emotion processing) in depression at early stage of adult onset. The results provided essential structural substrates for future research efforts to understand better the pathophysiology underlying depression.

Contributors

Dr. Chen H designed the study along with Dr. Zhao J. Drs. Liu F, Wang Y, and Zeng L collected the original imaging data. Drs. Long Z and Liu F managed and analyzed the imaging data. Drs. Long Z and Duan X wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to and have approved the final manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

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