Title

Diagnosis of bipolar disorders and body mass index predict clustering based on similarities in cortical thickness-ENIGMA study in 2436 individuals.

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Diagnosis of bipolar disorders and body mass index predict clustering based on similarities in cortical thickness – ENIGMA study in 2 436 individuals

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Abstract

Aims: Rates of obesity have reached epidemic proportions, especially among people with psychiatric disorders. While the effects of obesity on the brain are of major interest in medicine, they remain markedly under-researched in psychiatry.

Methods: We obtained body mass index (BMI) and MRI-derived regional cortical thickness, surface area from 836 bipolar disorders (BD) and 1600 control individuals from 14 sites within the ENIGMA-BD Working Group. We identified regionally specific profiles of cortical thickness using K-means clustering and studied clinical characteristics associated with individual cortical profiles.

Results: We detected two clusters based on similarities among participants in cortical thickness. The lower thickness cluster (46.8% of the sample) showed thinner cortex, especially in the frontal and temporal lobes and was associated with diagnosis of BD, higher BMI, and older age. BD individuals in the low thickness cluster were more likely to have the diagnosis of BDI and less likely to be treated with lithium. In contrast, clustering based on similarities in the cortical surface area was unrelated to BD or BMI and only tracked age and sex.

Conclusions: We provide evidence that both BD and obesity are associated with similar alterations in cortical thickness, but not surface area. The fact that obesity increased the chance of having low cortical thickness could explain differences in cortical measures among people with BD. The lower cortical thickness in individuals with higher BMI, which was additive and similar to the BD associated alterations, suggests that treating obesity could lower the extent of cortical thinning in BD.

Keywords

Body mass index; obesity; bipolar disorders; cortical thickness; surface area; heterogeneit

Introduction

Bipolar disorders (BD) affect an estimated 45 million people worldwide [1] and are among the most disabling and expensive psychiatric illnesses [2]. Brain alterations are frequently

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reported in BD, yet the differences between BD and control individuals in brain structure are surprisingly small [3], especially when considering the major clinical impact of the illness. Furthermore, across studies, the same neurostructural variables may be smaller, comparable or even larger in BD relative to control individuals [4]. This clearly indicates that whereas the illness may be one source of brain imaging alterations in BD, additional extra-diagnostic factors also play a role. Medical comorbidities, which affect the brain, such as obesity, may help explain why some individuals with BD show more pronounced brain alterations than others.

Rates of obesity have grown to epidemic proportions, especially among people with psychiatric disorders. Between one half and two thirds of individuals with BD are overweight or obese, which is a 1.6 times greater risk of obesity relative to the general population [5,6]. The devastating effects of obesity on morbidity and life expectancy in those with psychiatric disorders are beginning to be well recognized. Much less appreciated, but equally important, are the negative effects of these medical conditions on psychiatric and brain outcomes. Long before obesity contributes to premature mortality, it may worsen psychiatric prognosis, possibly through its impact on brain structure/cognitive functioning [7–11].

Indeed, the brain is one of the targets for obesity related end-organ damage, long before the development of cardiovascular complications [12]. Obesity is consistently associated with lower cortical thickness in large studies [13,14] and meta-analyses [12,15]. Obesity related alterations tend to be most pronounced in frontal and temporal regions, where alterations are also typically observed in individuals with BD [3]. Thus, the study of metabolic comorbidities in psychiatric disorders could help us better understand the heterogeneity of findings and identify modifiable risk factors for neurobiological alterations, which may yield adverse psychiatric sequalae. Yet, few studies have investigated the interplay between obesity and brain structure in BD. These studies have suggested that obesity may be associated with brain alterations in BD, possibly with a stronger effect size or with some regional specificity compared to controls [16–20]. However, many questions remain.

As the initial studies have been relatively small (76–112 participants) and included highly selected groups, i.e., first episode of mania [16–18], adolescent BD participants [19], or offspring of people with BD [20], we need replications in larger, more generalizable samples. Prior findings suggested a possible interaction between obesity and BD [16], which would be particularly concerning and highly clinically relevant. At the same time, testing for interactions requires large sample sizes. In addition, previous studies have typically separately focused on individual regions, or used mass-univariate methods of MRI data analysis, thus targeting relatively large and localized alterations [21]. Yet, brain changes in BD are characterized by patterns of subtle neurostructural changes across many regions of interest [3,22]. Clustering techniques, which target multivariate alterations distributed throughout the whole brain, require large sample size, but may better capture the neuroanatomy of complex disorders, reduce the number of comparisons and increase the effect size [23–25]. To address these issues, we jointly investigated the association between BD, BMI, and cortical brain structure using multivariate, clustering analysis in a large,

highly generalizable, international multicenter sample from the ENIGMA-BD Working Group.

Methods and Materials

Participating Sites

The ENIGMA-BD Working Group brings together researchers with brain imaging and clinical data from people with BD [3,26,27]. Fourteen site members of this group from 13 countries on 6 continents contributed individual subject structural MRI data, medication information and body mass index (BMI) values from a total of 836 individuals with BD and 1 600 healthy controls. The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions. Supplementary Tables S1, S2 lists the demographic/clinical details for each cohort. Supplementary Table S3 provides the diagnostic instruments used to obtain diagnosis and clinical information. Supplementary Table S4 lists exclusion criteria for study enrolment. Briefly, all studies used standard diagnostic instruments, including SCID (N=12), MINI (N=1), and DIGS (N=1). Most studies (N=8) included both bipolar I (BDI) and bipolar II (BDII) disorders, five studies included only BDI and one study only BDII participants. At the time of scanning, the vast majority of individuals with BD were euthymic (81%), with some depressed (15%), manic (2%), hypomanic (1%), or mixed (<1%). Substance abuse was an exclusion criterion in seven studies. Most studies did not exclude comorbidities, other than substance abuse. Consequently, the sample is a broad, ecologically valid, and generalizable representation of BD. All participating sites received approval from local ethics committees, and all participants provided written informed consent. The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of the relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.

MRI Acquisition & Processing

High-resolution T1-weighted brain anatomical MRI scans were acquired at each site, see Table S5. All groups used the same analytical protocol to derive ROI estimates of cortical thickness and surface area and performed the same visual and statistical quality assessment, as detailed at: http://enigma.ini.usc.edu/protocols/imaging-protocols/. These protocols are standardized across the consortium, are open-source, and available online to foster open science/replication/reproducibility. They were applied in prior publications by our group [3,26], and more broadly in large-scale ENIGMA studies of major depression, schizophrenia, ADHD, OCD, PTSD, epilepsy, and autism.

Briefly, using the freely available and extensively validated FreeSurfer software, we performed segmentations of 34 cortical regions per hemisphere, based on the Desikan–Killiany atlas. Visual quality controls were performed on a region of interest (ROI) level aided by a visual inspection guide including pass/fail segmentation examples. We also generated diagnostic histogram plots for each site and outliers that deviated from the site mean for each structure at >3 standard deviations were flagged for further review. All ROIs failing quality inspection were withheld from subsequent analyses, see Table S6. Prior

analyses from the ENIGMA-BD Working Group showed that scanner field strength, voxel volume and the version of FreeSurfer used for segmentation did not significantly influence the effect size estimates [22].

Statistical analyses

Understanding neuroanatomy of BD or obesity requires multivariate approaches, which consider patterns of changes across the whole cortex first and then attempt to link these patterns to individual clinical characteristics. Accordingly, we first identified regionally specific profiles of cortical thickness using clustering analyses and subsequently studied clinical characteristics associated with individual cortical profiles.

Specifically, using the cortical thickness of all regions across both hemispheres (68 regions total), we calculated the Euclidean distance between each pair of participants as a single measure of brain dissimilarity. We a priori chose to use the K-means clustering, which is among the most common and well-established clustering techniques. We tested for up to nine clusters to identify clusters of participants within the data based on similarities in cortical thickness, and chose the best solution based on the highest average silhouette and the proportion of the total sum of squared error (SS) that is accounted for by within-cluster SS. Clustering was performed with R version 4.1.1 and the base *stats* package, which includes the K-means clustering function ('kmeans'). To characterize each cluster, we used linear regression to compare cortical thickness in each region between the clusters, controlling for multiple comparisons using FDR-adjusted p values. All models also included a random effect of data collection site to control for variability between scanners. This process was repeated separately using surface area of the same regions. As in our study, these two measures are typically analyzed separately [3], which is also more informative as changes in each measure index different processes [28]. Combining the measures would also be complicated by differences in their measurement scales and dependence on whole brain size.

Subsequently, we used logistic regression modeling to test whether the cluster could be predicted using group (BD or control), BMI as a continuous measure, while controlling for age, and sex. We also tested for an interaction between group and BMI, and only included it if significant. This same procedure was subsequently done in participants with BD using BMI as a continuous measure, age, sex, diagnosis (BD-I or BD-II), age of onset, history of psychosis (Y/N), and prescribed medications at the time of scanning (antidepressant, antipsychotic, antiepileptic, and/or lithium), coded as yes or no for each medication class separately, as in prior ENIGMA BD analyses [27]. All models also included a random effect of data collection site to control for variability between scanners. The model's ROC curve provided estimates of predictive accuracy, sensitivity, and specificity. We additionally controlled for total intracranial volume (ICV) in models where surface area was the dependent variable. We ensured that multicollinearity among predictors, age included, was acceptable, by calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF) of all predictors. All modeling was completed using the package *lme4* (v1.1–21) in *R* version 3.6.2.

Results

This sample included 2 436 participants (1 600 healthy controls and 836 individuals with BD), see Table 1. Clinical and demographic associations with BMI are shown in Table S7.

Clustering based on similarities in cortical thickness

Within the full sample, division into two clusters based on similarities in regional cortical thickness resulted in the highest average silhouette, at 0.196 (SD=0.105), indicating the best fit of this solution to the data (Figure S4). Cluster 1 (n=1 139, 47%) consistently showed lower cortical thickness then cluster 2 (n=1 297, 53%), in every region in both hemispheres (Figure 1), with largest differences in the frontal cortex and temporal lobes. Regional differences were highly consistent between hemisphere, with a Spearman rank order correlation of $\rho = 0.933$ ($p<0.001$).

Predictors of cortical thickness

Individuals in the two clusters formed solely based on brain imaging data also differed in relevant clinical and demographic variables, see Table 2. In the whole sample, multiple regression confirmed that those in the low thickness cluster were more likely to have the diagnosis of BD, have higher BMI, and were older, see Table 3. Both groups and clusters included a wide age distribution (Figure S1). There were no significant interactions between any of diagnosis, BMI, or age, see Supplement for details. The effect of BD and BMI was additive. Specifically, the odds of belonging to the low thickness cluster were lowest in normal weight control participants, and increased in overweight control participants (OR = 1.08 [0.81; 1.44]), normal weight participants with BD (OR = 1.60 [1.11; 2.31]), to the highest odds among overweight participants with BD (OR = 2.31 [1.67; 2.31]), as shown in Figure S2. There was no significant interaction between diagnosis of BD and BMI in predicting cluster (Z=0.21, p=0.831).

Among individuals with BD, those in the low-thickness cluster were more likely to have the diagnosis of BDI as opposed to BDII, and were less likely to be treated with lithium. Treatment with antipsychotic, antiepileptic, or antidepressant medications, age of onset, and history of psychosis were not significant predictors of cluster, see Table 3.

Clustering based on similarities in surface area

As with cortical thickness, similarities in regional surface area also yielded two clusters, with an average silhouette of 0.305 (SD=0.142). Cluster 1 (n=1590) showed significantly lower surface area in each region when compared with cluster 2 (n=846). Regional effect sizes for between-cluster differences in surface area are shown in Figure S3.

Predictors of surface area

In the whole sample, participants in the low surface area cluster were more likely to be older, and female, see Table 4. Diagnosis of BD or BMI were both unrelated to cluster assignment. There were no significant interactions between any of diagnosis, BMI, or age, see Supplement for details. Within those with BD only, while controlling for age, BMI, sex

and ICV, cluster was not significantly associated with diagnosis (BDI or BDII), treatment at the time of scanning, age of onset, or history of psychosis, see Table 4.

Discussion

In this study of 2 436 individuals, we detected two clusters based on similarities among participants in regional cortical thickness. The lower regional thickness cluster encompassed 46.8% of the sample and compared to the second cluster showed consistently thinner cortex especially in the frontal and temporal lobes. Importantly, the two clusters, which were identified purely based on the brain imaging data, also differed in relevant clinical and demographic variables. Specifically, individuals in the low thickness cluster were more likely to be diagnosed with BD, have higher BMI, and be older. BD individuals in the low thickness cluster were more likely to have the diagnosis of BDI as opposed to BDII and were less likely to be treated with lithium. Importantly, this large study showed no interaction between BD and BMI in their effect on cortical thickness. In contrast to the cortical thickness, clustering based on similarities in regional cortical surface area was unrelated to the diagnosis of BD or BMI and only tracked age and sex.

A purely data driven, regional brain structure-based approach, identified subgroups which differed in relevant clinical characteristics. Specifically, the low thickness cluster was characterized by the presence of BD and by higher BMI. Importantly, some controls were categorized into this low thickness cluster, together with BD individuals. These controls predominantly had higher BMI. This is in keeping with other studies showing that higher BMI is associated with lower cortical thickness [29–32]. In addition, this demonstrates similarities in cortical thickness between individuals with high BMI or BD. Indeed, the regions which most differed between the clusters, i.e. frontal and temporal lobes, are also most strongly associated with BD [3] or obesity [14,31].

Importantly, the association between BD or BMI and brain structure was additive, i.e., overweight or obese individuals with BD were 2.31 times more likely than normal weight controls to be represented in the low-thickness cluster. This is in keeping with previous study in first episode of psychosis [33]. The fact that obesity increased the chance of having low regional cortical thickness could explain differences in cortical measures among people with the same diagnosis of BD. Conversely, we do not expect that this pattern is specific to BD, and the large proportion of healthy controls in both clusters suggests that BMI or other factors may influence this pattern of reduced cortical thickness, regardless of psychiatric disorder. At the same time, in this large sample, we did not find a significant interaction between BD, BMI and brain structure. In other words, there was no specific BMI effect on brain in BD beyond what was observed in the general population. This is in keeping with other large studies in BD [30] or major depressive disorders [31,34].

We do not know the direction or pathophysiology of the association between lower cortical thickness and obesity. It is possible that overweight/obesity caused the observed changes through a range of mechanisms, including effects of adipokines, oxidative stress, systemic inflammation, insulin resistance/diabetes [12,35], hypertension, atherosclerosis [36,37] or dyslipidemia [38], but also lower mobility/fitness or sedentary lifestyle [39]. However,

the reverse causality is also possible, where neurostructural alterations cause obesity, possibly through impulsivity, conditioning or impaired homeostatic regulation. The diffuse and uniform nature of the BMI related brain alterations may be more congruent with cortical thinning as a consequence of obesity. The negative effects of BMI on brain structure are supported by a Mendelian randomization study [40], several longitudinal studies, demonstrating that obesity or obesity related metabolic alterations precede and accelerate brain changes over time [18,41] and by improvement of brain indices following a successful treatment of obesity [42–44].

This study expands our knowledge about neuroanatomy of BD. Individuals with BD had 1.83 times greater odds to be in the low than in the high-thickness cluster. Other studies have also shown a diffuse pattern of lower cortical thickness in BD relative to control individuals, possibly with a greater extent in frontal and temporal regions [3]. At the same time and perhaps most remarkably, 45% of BD individuals were categorized into the higher-thickness cluster, together with most of the controls (57%). This clearly demonstrates the heterogeneity of brain alterations in BD, where many individuals with BD have comparable cortical morphology to controls. In addition, the boundaries between neurotypical and atypical phenotypes may be less clear than we had anticipated. It also raises important questions as to why some individuals with BD resemble controls, while others show diffusely lower cortical thickness.

In this study, people treated with lithium were 1.79 times more likely to be in the high relative to the low-thickness cluster. This is very much in keeping with previous studies showing neuroprotective effects of lithium [4,45]. In contrast, individuals with BDI were 2.9 times more likely to be categorized into the lower thickness cluster. Interestingly, large previous studies [3] and meta-analyses [46] generally failed to find significant differences between individuals with BDI and BDII. Perhaps this is because previous studies focused on individual brain regions using mass univariate analyses. These univariate analyses are sensitive to large and localized alterations, but not to small, but diffuse changes. Here we used the structure of all cortical regions in a truly multivariate analysis. Our findings suggest that there are subtle, but diffuse differences between BDI and BDII in cortical thickness, which may be difficult to capture when focusing on one region at a time.

Interestingly, we also found broad differences among individuals in surface area, but these were only related to age and sex, and did not track BD, BMI, or BD related clinical factors. Alterations in surface area are less consistently reported in BD or in obesity. Indeed previous large studies also found comparable surface are in individuals with BD versus controls [3,47] and no [48] or less pronounced/inconsistent [31] associations between obesity and surface area. It is also in keeping with the evidence suggesting that cortical thickness is the more plastic of the two indices [3], whereas surface area may be a more static marker of genetic risk [28] and further supports the hypothesis that obesity leads to cortical alterations and not vice versa. The greater plasticity of cortical thickness relative to surface area and the positive associations between Li treatment and cortical thickness [3], may also suggest that these brain correlates of BD may be amenable to treatment.

In terms of the clinical impact, the association between BMI and diffuse cortical thinning is concerning. While we do not yet understand whether brain changes are a cause or consequence of obesity, each of these directions has important clinical implications. Obesity may represent a risk factor for neuroprogression in BD which can be modified or managed. Obesity-related cortical alterations might be preventable or even reversible through weight management by dietary, lifestyle, surgical, or pharmacological interventions [42–44]. Furthermore, the current psychiatric medications have a very limited range of pharmacodynamic properties and the number of mechanistically different medications is proportional to efficacy in managing severe, multifactorial disorders. Perhaps some anti-obesity medications could be neuroprotective and could address some of the currently difficult to treat outcomes, such as cognitive impairments, residual symptoms and poor functioning, which have also been associated with obesity [49] or neurostructural alterations [50]. On the other hand, if certain brain alterations predispose individuals to obesity, then this pattern of brain changes could help identify individuals who are at increased risk of obesity and related medical issues. Regardless of the direction of association, knowing that obese individuals with BD are especially likely to demonstrate cortical thinning is relevant. Considering the high rates of obesity in severe mental disorders, this additive effect is concerning and emphasizes the need to improve weight monitoring and integrate psychiatric and medical management.

The advantages of this study include the large sample size (2 436 individuals), which allowed us to test for interactions among relevant clinical factors and focus analyses on specific comparisons, such as BDI relative to BDII. The multivariate approach made this study more sensitive to the diffuse, but relatively small alterations, which characterize BD better than large and highly localized changes, as targeted by mass univariate approaches. These results may be considered highly generalizable, as the study participants represented a broad spectrum of BD from around the world. This study provides a novel approach to analyzing complex brain imaging data. It is particularly encouraging that the clusters, which were purely based on brain imaging data and acquired by running a single clustering technique, differed in relevant clinical/demographic variables. These results, while novel, had excellent face validity and replicated many previous findings.

This study has the following limitations. More detailed markers beyond BMI were not broadly available throughout the ENIGMA BD-working group. Waist circumference or waist-hip-ratio (WHR) may show more extensive associations with GM than BMI, but usually in the same regions [14]. At the same time, BMI is much easier to acquire and is by far the most frequently used measure [12,15], thus allowing for a more direct comparison with previous work. Due to confidentiality reasons related to legacy datasets, we could not access raw, whole-brain data and could not use methods, such as voxel-based morphometry. Aside from the standardization of methods, we also addressed any differences between scanners statistically by using mixed models and including site as a random factor in all analyses. While there are other approaches, this is still by far the most utilized and accepted method for dealing with site effects [27,51]. Information about medications was limited to current usage at the time of scan. The study was not designed to test the effects of medication, which would require a randomized controlled design. Therefore, the medication findings should be interpreted with caution, as medication prescriptions in clinical practice are not

random. For example, clinicians may choose not to prescribe lithium in those that are overweight because of the weight gain side effect. Fat content near the MRI coil may lead to slight signal intensity changes, but the vast majority of individuals in this study were normal weight to overweight. Psychiatric and other medical comorbidities, which might not be available for all the patients enrolled, may influence the interplay between BMI, BD and neuroimaging findings. Whole-brain clustering may depend on the definition of the regions. Comparing clustering results based on different atlases is beyond the scope of this paper and would be more appropriate for a methodological journal. Similarly, future methodological studies should investigate how K-means compares with other clustering techniques. For our purposes, i.e. to apply previously tested and validated methods to learn about neuroanatomy of BD and obesity, running only a single, a-priori selected clustering technique was preferable. Finally, using other neuroimaging modalities could provide further insights into the mechanisms of the BMI effect.

To conclude, we provide evidence that both BD and obesity are associated with similar regional cortical alterations especially in the frontal and temporal cortex. Clustering based on similarities among individuals in brain imaging data, yielded two clusters, which differed in cortical thickness. Interestingly, these neuroanatomical differences closely tracked differences at the system level. Specifically, the low regional cortical thickness cluster predominantly included individuals with BD, those with higher BMI and older age. Interestingly, a large proportion of individuals with BD were categorized into the higher regional cortical thickness cluster, together with controls, and these individuals were predominantly treated with lithium or diagnosed with BDII. In this large study, there was no interaction between BD and BMI. Clustering based on cortical surface area was unrelated to clinical variables and did not differentiate individuals with BD from controls. The diffuse effect of BMI on cortical thickness, which was additive and similar to the BD associated alterations, suggests the possibility that targeting BMI could lower the extent of cortical thinning in BD. We need prospective studies to investigate whether obesity is a modifiable risk factor for neuroprogression and related adverse clinical outcomes in BD.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Data Availability:

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

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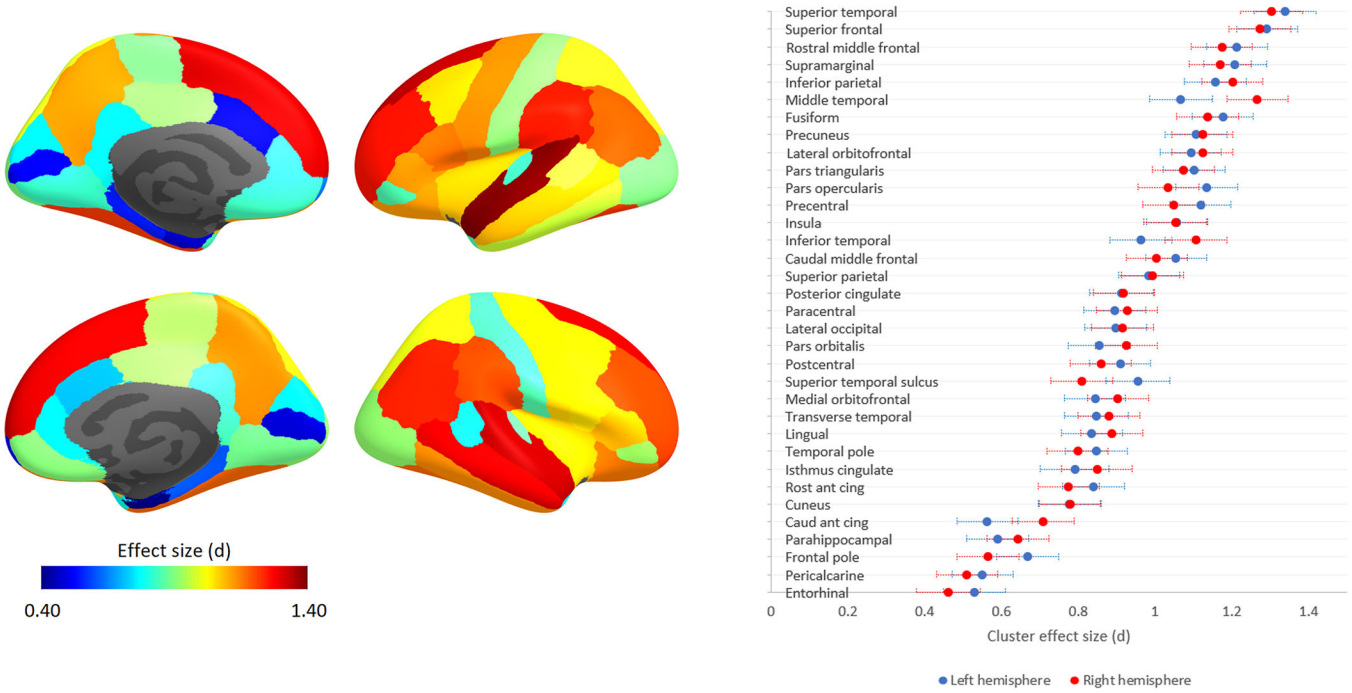

Figure 1:
Effect size (d) of cortical thickness differences between clusters in each brain region

Table 1:

Demographic, diagnostic and treatment characteristics of sample

	Controls	**Cases**	**Difference**
	N=1600	**N=836**	
Sex - N (%) female	916 (57%)	483 (58%)	$\chi 2$=0.06, *p*=.804
Age - mean (SD)	35.47 (12.63)	40.57 (12.81)	t(2433)=7.05, *p*<.001
BMI - mean (SD) **[95% CI]**	24.43 (4.12) [18.50; 34.63]	27.10 (5.30) [18.83; 38.72]	t(2378)=11.67, *p*<.001
Normal weight, overweight, obese - N(%)	1014 (63%), 437 (27%), 149 (9%)	331 (40%), 298 (36%), 207 (25%)	$\chi 2$=158.55, *p*<.001
Diagnosis: BD-I, BD-II, BD-NOS - N(%)	n/a	572 (68%), 234 (28%), 5(1%)	
Age of onset - mean (SD)	n/a	23.88 (10.64)	
History of psychosis - N (%)	n/a	305 (37%)	
Treatment at time of scan - N (%) polytherapy / N (%) monotherapy			
None	n/a	79 (9%)	
Lithium	n/a	373 (45%) / 112 (13%)	
Antiepileptic	n/a	244 (29%) / 51 (6%)	
First-gen. antipsychotic	n/a	37 (4%) / 5 (1%)	
Second-gen. antipsychotic	n/a	262 (31%) / 39 (5%)	
Antidepressant	n/a	225 (27%) / 28 (3%)	

Table 2:

Demographic, diagnostic and treatment characteristics of each cluster

	Low thickness	**High thickness**	**Difference**
	N=1139	**N=1297**	
Patients - N (%)	458 (40%)	378 (29%)	χ^2=32.46, *p*<.001
Sex - N (%) female	612 (54%)	787 (61%)	χ^2=11.69, *p*<.001
Age - mean (SD)	42.59 (12.37)	32.49 (11.46)	t(2432)=21.98, *p*<.001
BMI - mean (SD) **[95% CI]**	26.10 (4.80) [18.82; 37.92]	24.68 (4.57) [18.36; 36.58]	t(2164)=7.19, *p*<.001
Normal weight, overweight, obese - N(%)	541 (47%), 396 (35%), 202 (18%)	804 (62%), 339 (26%), 154 (12%)	χ^2=52.29, *p*<.001
Diagnosis: BD-I, BD-II, BD-NOS - N(%)	329 (72%), 102 (22%), 3 (1%)	243 (64%), 132 (35%), 2 (1%)	χ^2=13.03, *p*=.002
Age of onset - mean (SD)	26.77 (10.94)	20.32 (9.08)	t(674)=5.38, *p*<.001
History of psychosis - N (%)	170 (37%)	135 (36%)	Z = 1.09, *p*=.274
Treatment at time of scan - N (%)			
None	36 (8%)	43 (11%)	χ^2=26.41, *p*<.001
Lithium	190 (41%)	183 (48%)	
Antiepileptic	137 (30%)	107 (28%)	
First-gen. antipsychotic	31 (7%)	6 (2%)	
Second-gen. antipsychotic	164 (36%)	98 (26%)	
Antidepressant	112 (24%)	113 (30%)	

Table 3:

Model estimates for associations between demographic, clinical and treatment characteristics and being assigned to the lower cortical thickness cluster

Sample	Predictor	Estimate (SE)	Odds ratio	95% CI
Full sample *	Age (Quartile)	1.42 (0.08)	4.13	3.50 – 4.88 ±
	BD Diagnosis	0.61 (0.13)	1.83	1.41 – 2.39 ±
	BMI (Quartile)	0.23 (0.11)	1.25	1.01 – 1.55 ±
	Sex (F)	−0.21 (0.11)	0.81	0.65 – 1.01
BD only **	Age (Quartile)	1.53 (0.23)	4.64	2.95 – 7.29 ±
	Diagnosis (BDI)	1.05 (0.52)	2.87	1.04 – 7.90 ±
	Antipsychotic	0.41 (0.29)	1.51	0.85 – 2.67
	Antiepileptic	0.25 (0.32)	1.28	0.69 – 2.38
	Age of onset	0.00 (0.02)	0.99	0.97 – 1.03
	BMI (Quartile)	−0.06 (0.23)	0.94	0.60 – 1.47
	Sex (F)	−0.12 (0.26)	0.89	0.53 – 1.48
	History of psychosis	−0.15 (0.35)	0.86	0.43 – 1.72
	Antidepressant	−0.52 (0.29)	0.59	0.34 – 1.05
	Lithium	−0.58 (0.29)	0.56	0.31 – 0.99 ±

* ROC AUC=0.892 (sensitivity 0.773, specificity 0.856), $\chi 2$=432.08, DF=4, p<0.001

** ROC AUC=0.888 (sensitivity 0.750, specificity 0.882), $\chi 2$=80.16, DF=10, p<0.001

± Terms with odds ratios that significantly differ from 1.0 (95% confidence)

Table 4:

Model estimates for associations between demographic, clinical and treatment characteristics and being assigned to the lower cortical surface area cluster

Sample	Predictor	Estimate (SE)	Odds ratio	95% CI
Full sample *	Age (Quartile)	0.73 (0.10)	2.07	1.72 – 2.50 ±
	Sex (F)	0.58 (0.14)	1.8	1.37 – 2.36 ±
	BMI (Quartile)	−0.11 (0.13)	0.9	0.70 – 1.77
	BD Diagnosis	0.27 (0.15)	0.84	0.32 – 2.23
BD only **	Age (Quartile)	1.23 (0.27)	3.41	2.01 – 5.78 ±
	Sex (F)	1.17 (0.33)	3.22	1.67 – 6.21 ±
	Antipsychotic	0.46 (0.34)	1.59	0.81 – 3.10
	History of psychosis	0.12 (0.40)	1.13	0.51 – 2.50
	Antidepressant	0.00 (0.33)	1.00	0.52 – 1.92
	BMI (Quartile)	−0.01 (0.27)	0.99	0.58 – 1.68
	Age of onset	−0.01 (0.02)	0.99	0.95 – 1.02
	Diagnosis (BDI)	−0.04 (0.53)	0.96	0.34 – 2.71
	Antiepileptic	−0.11 (0.35)	0.89	0.44 – 1.80
	Lithium	−0.46 (0.34)	0.63	0.32 – 1.24

* ROC AUC=0.921 (sensitivity 0.823, specificity 0.872), $\chi 2$=1373.20, DF=4, p<0.001

** ROC AUC=0.930 (sensitivity 0.828, specificity 0.889), $\chi 2$=266.23, DF=11, p<0.001

± Terms with odds ratios that significantly differ from 1.0 (95% confidence)