

1 **A whole-brain voxel-based analysis of structural abnormalities in**
2 **PTSD: an ENIGMA-PGC study**

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145 **Short/running title:**

146 Abnormalities in brain structure in PTSD

147

148

149 **Abstract**150 **Background**

151 Patients with posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) exhibit smaller regional brain volumes, with
152 commonly reported regions including the amygdala and hippocampus, regions associated with
153 fear and memory processing. In the current study, we have conducted a voxel-based
154 morphometry (VBM) meta-analysis using whole-brain statistical maps with neuroimaging data
155 from the ENIGMA-PGC PTSD working group.

156

157 **Methods**

158 T1-weighted structural neuroimaging scans from 36 cohorts (PTSD $n=1309$; controls $n=2198$)
159 were processed using a standardized VBM pipeline (ENIGMA-VBM tool). We meta-analyzed the
160 resulting statistical maps for voxel-wise differences in grey matter (GM) and white matter (WM)
161 volumes between PTSD patients and controls, performed subgroup analyses considering the
162 trauma exposure of the controls, and examined associations between regional brain volumes
163 and clinical variables including PTSD (CAPS-4/5, PCL-5) and depression severity (BDI-II, PHQ-
164 9).

165

166 **Results**

167 PTSD patients exhibited smaller GM volumes across the frontal and temporal lobes, and
168 cerebellum, with the most significant effect in the left cerebellum (Hedges' $g=0.22$, $p_{corrected}=.001$),
169 and smaller cerebellar WM volume (peak Hedges' $g=0.14$, $p_{corrected}=.008$). We observed similar
170 regional differences when comparing patients to trauma-exposed controls suggesting these
171 structural abnormalities may be specific to PTSD. Regression analyses revealed PTSD severity
172 was negatively associated with GM volumes within the cerebellum ($p_{corrected}=.003$), while
173 depression severity was negatively associated with GM volumes within the cerebellum and
174 superior frontal gyrus in patients ($p_{corrected}=.001$).

175

176

177 **Conclusions**

178 PTSD patients exhibited widespread, regional differences in brain volumes where greater
179 regional deficits appeared to reflect more severe symptoms. Our findings add to the growing
180 literature implicating the cerebellum in the psychopathology of PTSD.

181 Introduction

182 Most individuals experience trauma at some time in their lives, where 70% of respondents in the
183 World Mental Health Survey reported exposure to at least one traumatic event [1]. The lifetime
184 prevalence of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is estimated to be 10% in the United States
185 [2], where symptoms are characterized as re-experiencing, hyperarousal, avoidance of trauma-
186 related situations, negative cognition, and emotional numbing, which can last for years after the
187 event [3].

188

189 Brain structural abnormalities have been consistently associated with PTSD, with recent
190 structural neuroimaging meta-analyses reporting smaller grey matter (GM) volumes within the
191 frontal lobe, hippocampus, anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), and insula in PTSD patients when
192 compared to controls [4-9]. The PTSD working group from the Enhancing Neuroimaging Genetics
193 through Meta-Analysis (ENIGMA)-Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC)
194 (<https://enigma.ini.usc.edu>) has previously analyzed structural brain differences between PTSD
195 patients and controls by pooling data provided by research groups around the world, using
196 segmented brain volumes derived by FreeSurfer (<https://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu>). In a
197 region-of-interest (ROI) approach, Logue et al. [10] analyzed eight a priori subcortical structures
198 comparing 794 PTSD patients and 1074 controls and found PTSD patients had significantly
199 smaller hippocampal volumes compared to trauma-exposed controls. Wang et al. [11] conducted
200 a mega-analysis across 68 cortical regions comparing 1379 PTSD patients and 2192 controls,
201 and revealed PTSD patients exhibited significantly smaller GM volumes across the orbitofrontal
202 region, superior temporal gyrus, insula, lingual, and superior parietal gyri, and that these regions
203 were also negatively correlated with PTSD symptom severity. However, Wang et al. used a
204 control group comprising both trauma- and non-trauma-exposed controls, which was noted as a
205 limitation in their study. Both Logue et al. [10] and Wang et al. [11] did adjust for sex, age, total
206 intracranial volume (ICV), and scanner site. More recently, ENIGMA-PTSD has published two
207 studies: the first examined only the cerebellum and found significantly smaller GM and white
208 matter (WM) cerebellar volumes and cerebellar subregions in PTSD patients compared to

209 controls [12], and the second reported diminished cortical thickness associated with PTSD within
210 the prefrontal cortex, insula, occipital cortex, and cingulate cortex [13].

211

212 To complement the existing research, the current study utilized a whole-brain voxel-based
213 morphometry (VBM) approach to meta-analysis. VBM methodologies are unconstrained by
214 anatomical boundaries and can observe differential effects at a voxel-level, while effects in ROI
215 analyses are only observed at the level of the predefined region. VBM analyses also encompass
216 the whole brain and includes WM structures at a voxel level. VBM meta-analyses typically
217 involves pooling published peak coordinates, which represents the voxel location where the
218 statistical effect is strongest. This results in a loss of valuable information as nonsignificant data
219 are excluded. An alternative approach, employed in the current study, is to use whole-brain
220 statistical maps which are produced at the end of the VBM processing pipeline. Statistical maps
221 contain the statistical results for a given analysis (e.g., t-values from group comparisons) at a
222 voxel level across the whole brain, meaning data from all voxels are included in the analysis
223 rather than just peak values. This methodology has previously been used to study PTSD by
224 Bromis et al. [4], where the authors combined statistical maps and peak coordinates. This has
225 demonstrated more accurate results in comparison to using peak coordinates [14]. However,
226 there are practical challenges in that statistical maps are not always made available by authors,
227 and if they are, different VBM processing parameters can affect results [15].

228

229 To address these issues, we have developed the ENIGMA-VBM tool [16]. The tool is designed
230 for contributing sites to process their data locally using a standardized VBM pipeline with
231 automated quality control checks. Sites share the resulting statistical maps, containing group-
232 level data, with the researchers conducting the meta-analysis, thus addressing participant-level
233 data privacy concerns. In the current study, we have used the ENIGMA-VBM tool to conduct the
234 largest VBM meta-analysis in PTSD to date using only whole-brain statistical maps.

235

236 Our main analysis compared total and regional GM and WM volumes between PTSD patients
237 and controls, where we expected patients would exhibit smaller regional volumes within the
238 frontal lobe, hippocampus, ACC, insula, cerebellum, and total GM volumes compared to controls,
239 consistent with previous literature [4-12]. In exploratory analyses, we conducted subgroup
240 investigations to compare PTSD patients to trauma-exposed controls to try to disentangle the
241 effects of trauma exposure from PTSD-related structural brain abnormalities. We also compared
242 controls with and without trauma exposure to test for the effects of trauma per se [4]. As the
243 ENIGMA-PTSD sample consisted of participants from military and civilian backgrounds, we
244 analyzed military- and civilian-recruited cohorts separately. This exploratory analysis aimed to
245 examine whether underlying sample characteristics may be associated with different brain
246 regions, as military populations experience more combat-related trauma [17, 18] and exhibit
247 poorer treatment outcomes [19]. Previous evidence suggests combat trauma is related to more
248 severe PTSD symptoms [17] and has a higher risk of lifetime PTSD with poorer psychosocial
249 outcomes [20]. This may be due to the extended duration of military traumatic experiences as
250 compared to more acute civilian trauma, such as motor vehicle accidents [21]. We also examined
251 associations between regional brain volumes in PTSD patients and clinical variables such as
252 PTSD severity, depression severity, and childhood trauma. In sensitivity analyses, we adjusted
253 for sex due to higher incidence rates of PTSD in females [22, 23] and sex differences in traumatic
254 experiences [24]. Finally, we performed several sensitivity analyses to assess the robustness of
255 our findings by varying VBM processing parameters.

256 **Methods**

257 **Cohorts and Participants**

258 Structural neuroimaging scans and clinical data were provided by the ENIGMA-PGC PTSD
259 working group for 36 cohorts from 28 sites comprising 1309 PTSD patients and 2198 controls.
260 Controls were both trauma-exposed (TE) and non-trauma-exposed (nTE) (Table 1). One site
261 comprised only TE and nTE controls. Most cohorts were adult samples, except for two non-adult
262 cohorts consisting of participants under the age of 20. Cohorts consisted of military- and civilian-
263 recruited samples, and one sample of police officers (Table 2). Patients were diagnosed
264 according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM)-IV or DSM-5
265 criteria using the instruments listed in Table 2. Sites had obtained approval from their local ethics
266 committee and written, informed consent from study participants. Further study details and
267 inclusion and exclusion criteria can be found in Tables S1-S2 in Supplement A.

268

269 **Cohort-level image processing and analysis**

270 The ENIGMA-VBM tool (<https://sites.google.com/view/enigmavbm>) was developed for the
271 ENIGMA consortium by the authors for VBM case-control studies [16]. The tool processes T1-
272 weighted brain images for each cohort using the DARTEL (Diffeomorphic Anatomical Registration
273 Through Exponentiated Lie Algebra) [25] VBM processing pipeline in SPM12 (Statistical
274 Parametric Mapping; <https://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/>) within MATLAB, using a smoothing
275 kernel of 8mm and Jacobian modulated data, controlling for age and total ICV. A detailed
276 description of the tool is available in Supplement B.

277

278 Sites provided T1-weighted brain imaging and clinical data for participants. Scanner information
279 and acquisition methods can be found in Table S3. Each cohort was processed using the
280 ENIGMA-VBM tool v1.076, which conducted GM and WM voxel-wise statistical analysis
281 comparing patients to controls. For sites with multi-center data or multiple studies, we used
282 cohorts for VBM processing where participants were grouped based on scanner model where
283 possible, to minimize the effects of scanner model [26, 27], while ensuring there were sufficient

284 PTSD patients and controls for analysis. As an example, the cohorts ADNIDOD 1 and ADNIDOD
285 2 are from the same study but have been processed as two cohorts, to account for different
286 scanner models.

287

288 *Group comparisons of regional brain volumes*

289 The main analysis compared voxel-wise GM and WM volumes between PTSD patients and all
290 controls (inclusive of TE and nTE controls). Exploratory subgroup analyses compared: 1) PTSD
291 patients to TE controls; 2) TE to nTE controls; 3) PTSD patients to all controls from military-
292 recruited cohorts; and 4) PTSD patients to all controls from civilian-recruited cohorts. Sample
293 sizes for each analysis varied depending on data availability such as the trauma-exposure of the
294 controls. All group comparisons were adjusted for age and total ICV, as these variables account
295 for the most variance in segmented GM and WM data.

296

297 *Associations between regional brain volumes and clinical variables*

298 The ENIGMA-VBM tool also conducted regression analyses to examine the association between
299 regional brain volumes and clinical variables within the patient group. The regression analyses
300 were performed within each cohort prior to being pooled for meta-analysis. This approach has
301 greater statistical power than meta-regression which uses a mean value of the clinical variable
302 for each cohort.

303

304 We performed exploratory regression analyses to examine the associations between regional
305 brain volumes and the following clinical covariates: PTSD severity, depression severity, childhood
306 trauma, alcohol use disorder, drug use disorder, and antidepressant medication use. Alcohol use
307 disorder, drug use disorder, and antidepressant medication were coded as dichotomous
308 variables. PTSD severity, depression severity, and childhood trauma were analyzed using the
309 participant's total score for each variable. Further details regarding the treatment of the clinical
310 variables are reported in Supplement A. All regression analyses were adjusted for age, ICV, and
311 sex. Sex was included to adjust for potential associations with the clinical variables, as it is well-

312 established that females are more likely to develop PTSD as compared to males [28, 29], and
313 sex has been associated with PTSD comorbidities including depression, alcohol use disorder,
314 and drug use disorder [30-32].

315

316 *Sensitivity analysis*

317 The tool performed several sensitivity analyses to test the robustness of our findings against
318 changes in VBM processing parameters including: 1) different smoothing kernels of 2mm, 4mm,
319 and 12mm; 2) different combinations of covariates of no interest (e.g., age and sex, or no
320 covariates); 3) proportional scaling of voxels, where each voxel is scaled by the fraction of total
321 ICV; and 4) using non-modulated data.

322

323 For each analysis, the resulting statistical map contained the results for approximately 200,000
324 voxels, reflecting volumetric group differences or regression coefficients at each voxel.

325

326 **Meta-analysis across cohorts**

327 The statistical maps were pooled across cohorts for meta-analysis using the software Seed-
328 based *d*-Mapping with Permutation of Subject Images (SDM-PSI v6.22;
329 <https://www.sdmproject.com>) [33]. In summary, the SDM-PSI process involves the following main
330 steps: 1) statistical maps are converted to effect size maps using standard formulae; 2) the mean
331 of the voxel values is calculated via random effects meta-analysis; and 3) a subject-based
332 permutation test is conducted to family-wise error (FWE) correct for multiple comparisons using
333 threshold-free cluster enhancement (TFCE) with statistical thresholding ($p < .025$, voxel extent \geq
334 10).

335

336 Total GM and WM volumes were compared between PTSD patients and all controls using the
337 unadjusted mean and standard deviation (SD) statistics at a cohort-level as reported by the
338 ENIGMA-VBM tool. The statistics from each cohort were pooled using an inverse-variance
339 weighted random-effects model in STATA (release 17).

340

341 In sensitivity analyses, we repeated the meta-analysis of the main group comparison to exclude
342 two non-adult cohorts, consisting of participants under the age of 20, to test for changes to our
343 results. A further eight cohorts included participants who had been diagnosed with moderate to
344 severe traumatic brain injury (TBI), and we similarly repeated the main group comparison
345 excluding the affected participants (PTSD $n_{\text{TBI}}=382$, controls $n_{\text{TBI}}=527$) from our meta-analysis.
346 We used a parcel-based correlation analysis [34, 35] in R (version 4.3.1) to calculate the
347 Pearson's correlation coefficient to compare the spatial pattern of regional GM and WM
348 differences between a given sensitivity analysis and our main group findings. Using a parcel-
349 based approach mitigates the issue in voxel-based correlations where adjacent voxels are not
350 independent. Further details are reported in Supplement A.

351 Results

352 All effect size and statistical maps are available online
353 (<https://neurovault.org/collections/QOAYXFZK/>). The p -values reported below are FWE-
354 corrected for multiple comparisons using TFCE for the VBM analyses. The main findings are
355 reported below, with full results and figures reported in Supplement A. Cohort sample
356 characteristics are reported in Tables 1 and 2, and descriptive statistics for the clinical variables
357 reported in Tables S4-S5.

358

359 Group comparisons of regional brain volumes

360 *PTSD vs. controls*

361 The main group comparison analyzed data from 35 cohorts comprising 1309 PTSD patients and
362 2130 controls, inclusive of TE and nTE controls. Patients exhibited smaller GM volumes in a large
363 cluster extending across the brain, encompassing the frontal and temporal lobes, thalamus, and
364 cerebellum (Figure 1, Table S6). Peak effects were observed in the left cerebellum (Hedges'
365 $g=0.22$, $p_{TFCE}=0.001$, MNI [-4,-72,-10]) and right parahippocampus (Hedges' $g=0.20$, $p_{TFCE}=0.001$,
366 MNI [22,-18,-24]). Patients exhibited smaller WM volumes in a single cluster within the
367 cerebellum, with peak effects in the middle cerebellar peduncles (Hedges' $g=0.14$, $p_{TFCE}=0.008$,
368 MNI [-16,-54,-38]) and left cerebellum (Hedges' $g = 0.14$, $p_{TFCE}=0.009$, MNI [-6,-54,-18]) (Table S6,
369 Figure S1). There were no regions where brain volumes were greater in patients than in controls.

370

371 PTSD patients exhibited significantly lower *total* GM volume (Hedges' $g=-0.18$, 95% CI [-0.29,-
372 0.08], $p=0.001$) (Figure S2). There was no significant difference in *total* WM volume between
373 groups (Figure S3).

374 *Subgroup analyses*

375 In comparing 912 PTSD patients to 1342 TE controls, patients exhibited smaller GM volumes in
376 a similar spatial pattern to the main finding, and greater WM volumes within the corpus callosum
377 (Table S7, Figure S4). When comparing 416 TE and 250 nTE controls, there were no significant
378 GM or WM differences between groups.

379

380 In our analysis comparing PTSD patients and controls from 19 military-recruited cohorts, the
381 results were similar to the main findings, with patients exhibiting smaller GM volumes in a cluster
382 across the frontal and temporal lobes, and cerebellum, and smaller WM volumes adjacent to the
383 striatum (Table S8, Figure S5). In a separate analysis of 13 civilian-recruited cohorts, patients
384 exhibited less widespread effects, with smaller GM volumes in the parahippocampus and
385 cerebellum, and greater WM volumes within the corpus callosum (Table S9, Figure S6).

386

387 **Associations between regional brain volumes and clinical variables in PTSD patients**

388 PTSD severity data were available for 35 cohorts (PTSD $n=1283$). A higher PTSD severity score
389 was associated with smaller GM volumes within the cerebellum, lingual gyrus, and superior
390 frontal gyrus, with a peak effect in the right cerebellum (Hedges' $g=-0.11$, $p_{TFCE}=.003$, MNI [4,-
391 48,-58]) (Figure 2A, Table S10).

392

393 Depression severity data were available for 30 cohorts (PTSD $n=1023$). Higher depression
394 severity was associated with lower GM volumes within the frontal, temporal, and cerebellar
395 regions, with a peak effect in the right superior frontal gyrus (Hedges' $g=-0.15$, $p_{TFCE}=.001$, MNI
396 [14,66,6]) (Figure 2B, Table S11).

397

398 680 PTSD patients had available data on alcohol use disorder status, where 25.6% were
399 identified as having an alcohol use disorder. Alcohol use disorder was associated with lower GM
400 volumes within the cerebellum and temporal lobe, with a peak effect in the left fusiform gyrus
401 (Hedges' $g=-0.15$, $p_{TFCE}=.001$, MNI [-34,-56,-6]) (Table S12, Figure S7).

402

403 364 PTSD patients had available data on antidepressant medication, where 30.8% were
404 identified as using antidepressant medication. We observed smaller GM volumes associated with
405 antidepressant medication use in a small cluster within the left temporal gyrus, with a peak effect
406 in the left inferior temporal gyrus (Hedges' $g=-0.17$, $p_{TFCE}=0.017$, MNI [-60,-26,-18]) (Table S13,
407 Figure S8).

408

409 There were no significant associations observed between GM volumes and childhood trauma
410 (PTSD $n=507$) or drug use disorder (PTSD $n=405$). There were also no significant associations
411 found between WM volumes and any of the clinical variables.

412

413 **Sensitivity analysis**

414 The spatial pattern of effect sizes was similar to that of the main findings for GM and WM when
415 we excluded two non-adult cohorts from the analysis (Pearson's $r>0.9$) (Table S14, Figure S9).
416 When we excluded participants with moderate to severe TBI, the spatial pattern of effect sizes
417 was also similar to the main findings for GM and WM (Pearson's $r>0.9$) (Table S15, Figure S10).
418 However, different WM clusters passed the significance threshold where PTSD patients exhibited
419 significantly *greater* WM volumes within the corpus callosum. Patients still exhibited smaller WM
420 volumes in the cerebellum as in the main findings, but these effects were no longer significant.

421

422 The results from the sensitivity analyses using different VBM parameters are reported in
423 Supplement A (Tables S16-S27, Figures S11-S22). The correlation coefficients comparing the
424 effect size maps from the sensitivity analyses to that of the main group comparison are reported
425 in Table S28. Using non-modulated data effected the biggest change to our results (Pearson's
426 $r>0.49$), while controlling for different covariates had a lesser effect on our results (Pearson's
427 $r>0.76$). Using different smoothing kernels were in good agreement with our main result
428 (Pearson's $r>0.94$).

429

430 **Heterogeneity of the effect size**

431 The extent of heterogeneity of the effect size was relatively low across the analyses. The main
432 group comparison had a mean I^2 of 8.15% across all GM voxels and of 4.67% across all WM
433 voxels (Figure S23). Heterogeneity is reported for each analysis in the tables within Supplement
434 A, expressed as the mean I^2 across all GM or WM voxels, and at the peak coordinates.

435 **Discussion**

436 PTSD patients exhibited smaller total GM volume than controls, and in regions widespread
437 across the brain with a peak effect in the cerebellum. PTSD patients had lower WM volumes
438 within the cerebellum but exhibited no differences in total WM volume. We observed similar
439 findings in comparing PTSD patients to TE controls, but there were no differences between TE
440 and nTE controls. Military-recruited cohorts exhibited group differences in similar GM regions as
441 the main finding, while GM differences appeared to be less widespread in civilian-recruited
442 cohorts. Regional GM volumes were negatively associated with PTSD severity, depression
443 severity, alcohol use disorder, and antidepressant medication within PTSD patients.

444

445 **Regional and total brain volumes**

446 Our findings are largely consistent with existing meta-analyses that found smaller total GM
447 volumes in PTSD patients compared to controls [4-9], and with previous ENIGMA-PTSD
448 FreeSurfer studies [10, 11], with effects in similar regions including the frontal lobe, cingulate
449 cortex, hippocampus, and amygdala. However, comparisons with ROI studies are provided
450 cautiously given the different methodologies of the present study relative to published studies.
451 Our analysis revealed similar regional volume differences when we compared patients to TE
452 controls, suggesting these regions could be related to PTSD itself, rather than being associated
453 with trauma exposure. This is further supported where we found no significant differences
454 between TE and nTE controls. However, the smaller sample of nTE controls may have been
455 underpowered to detect subtle differences between the control subgroups.

456

457 We observed lower GM and WM volumes within the cerebellum in patients, a finding not reported
458 in previous VBM meta-analyses [4-9]. From previous work, Serra-Blasco et al. [8] reported
459 significantly lower GM volumes in the cerebellum in PTSD patients when compared to those with
460 anxiety disorders, suggesting this regional finding could be specific to PTSD. In ROI studies, the
461 cerebellum is rarely included as it has been historically associated with motor control [36]. The
462 disparities between the current study and previous meta-analyses may be due to the increased

463 power and homogeneity within the VBM processing in the current study from using the ENIGMA-
464 VBM tool, or from differences in the sample characteristics. Notably, prior meta-analyses included
465 50-80% of samples from Europe and Asia [4-9], while fewer than 15% of cohorts in the current
466 study were from these regions. Our findings are consistent with individual neuroimaging studies
467 that have reported smaller cerebellar volumes in PTSD patients compared to controls [37-39],
468 and further complement the cerebellar mega-analysis by ENIGMA-PTSD, which used a novel
469 parcellation protocol to reveal smaller brain volumes within the cerebellum and its substructures
470 associated with PTSD [12]. Previous functional MRI studies have also found evidence of resting-
471 state dysfunction in the cerebellum in PTSD patients [40, 41], and cerebellar activation in
472 response to fear [42, 43]. The cerebellum is becoming an increasingly important structure in
473 PTSD [44], with rich connections to regions that are often implicated in stress and trauma such
474 as the hypothalamus, hippocampus, and prefrontal cortex [45].

475

476 In examining only military-recruited cohorts, regional GM differences between patients and
477 controls appeared to be more widespread compared to differences observed in civilian-recruited
478 cohorts. This may be driven by characteristics specific to military populations where previous
479 work has reported lower cortical thickness in veterans with and without PTSD [46], and smaller
480 GM volumes associated with longer military deployment in personnel without PTSD [47]. Our
481 results highlight the importance of considering sample characteristics in future neuroimaging
482 studies and may explain why our findings differ from previous work. For instance, Bromis et al.
483 [4], who similarly meta-analyzed statistical maps, included mostly civilian studies with only 2
484 military-recruited cohorts, while the current study consisted of 19 military-recruited cohorts.

485

486 **GM associations with clinical variables**

487 PTSD severity was negatively associated with GM volumes in posterior regions including the
488 cerebellum, consistent with individual ROI studies [37-39], and the ENIGMA-PTSD cerebellar
489 mega-analysis [12]. However, our findings contrast with those from a large meta-analysis by Xiao
490 et al. [9] that reported associations with the ACC instead. This could be due to methodological

491 differences where the authors using a coordinate-based meta-regression while in the current
492 study, the regression analysis was conducted within each cohort prior to pooling the resulting
493 statistical maps, which was expected to increase statistical power and sensitivity.

494

495 Depression severity was associated with smaller GM volumes in both posterior and frontal
496 regions of the brain. The latter finding may be relevant to functional MRI findings of decreased
497 connectivity within the frontal lobe in PTSD patients with depression [48, 49]. Alcohol use disorder
498 was associated with smaller GM volumes mainly within the cerebellum, which contrasts with
499 previous work that found associations with the ACC [50]. The negative associations between
500 symptom severity and regional brain volumes indicate that structural abnormalities may exist on
501 a continuum, where patients with more severe symptoms may exhibit greater structural changes
502 within the brain. It is interesting to note that the cerebellum was negatively associated with both
503 depression severity and alcohol use disorder, common comorbidities for PTSD [51, 52]. This
504 suggests the cerebellum findings are specific to PTSD, with comorbidities potentially affecting
505 further morphological changes. Future work is needed to determine the direction of effect and
506 whether cerebellar abnormalities represent vulnerability factors or consequences of PTSD.

507

508 **Sensitivity analyses**

509 We found the significance of the GM results was generally consistent across the sensitivity
510 analyses, while the significance of the WM findings was less robust. The use of non-modulated
511 data resulted in the biggest difference in results, where findings were only moderately correlated
512 with the main results ($r = .558$), with a smaller cluster of significant differences observed in the
513 cerebellum. This may be expected given modulated data has been reported as more sensitive
514 to identifying volumetric differences, while non-modulated data may be more sensitive to
515 detecting changes in cerebral cortical thickness [53, 54]. We also compared findings using
516 varying smoothing kernel sizes of 2mm, 4mm, and 12mm, where we observed greater spatial
517 extent of significant clusters in regional brain volume differences with larger kernel sizes. In the
518 current study, we have used Pearson's correlation to compare the spatial pattern of effect sizes

519 between analyses, but future studies investigating the reliability of VBM parameters may consider
520 using the intra-class correlation instead [55, 56].

521

522 **Limitations**

523 The ENIGMA-VBM tool is designed to run locally at each site, meaning analyses are pre-
524 specified, which meant we did not examine the interaction between PTSD and sex. Greater
525 consideration of sex is required in future work [57], given the evidence for sex differences in
526 PTSD prevalence [22, 23], symptom presentation [29, 32], and associated risk factors [58]. We
527 were also unable to consider the type or incidence of trauma exposure, or the age of PTSD onset
528 as not all studies collected this data. It would be beneficial if these variables could be included in
529 future studies given the complexities surrounding the timing and experience of trauma in relation
530 to the onset and severity of PTSD [59]. The majority of our studies were recruited in the United
531 States, which limits the generalizability of our results, particularly given differences in PTSD
532 prevalence [60] and in the types of commonly reported traumatic events [1] across countries. The
533 current study is based on cross-sectional data, making it unclear whether the observed structural
534 abnormalities represent vulnerability factors for PTSD and/or are consequences of the illness,
535 which can be clarified with longitudinal studies.

536

537 We have conducted the largest PTSD meta-analysis to date using whole-brain VBM statistical
538 maps, further strengthened in the homogeneity of the VBM processing pipeline via the ENIGMA-
539 VBM tool. The 3D effect size and statistical maps from the current study are available online. Our
540 results revealed that PTSD patients exhibited smaller GM volumes across the brain as compared
541 to controls and support the growing literature implicating the cerebellum in PTSD.

542 **Supplementary material:**

543 For supplementary material accompanying this paper, visit cambridge.org/EPA.

544

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627

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648 Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Naurex, Inc., and Pfizer; is a stockholder in Biohaven Pharmaceuticals;
649 holds stock options in Mnemosyne Pharmaceuticals, Inc.; holds patents for Dopamine and
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661

662 **Data availability:**

663 The 3D effect size maps and statistical maps are available online:
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665

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Table 1. Clinical and demographic characteristics for each cohort.

[SEE SEPARATE ATTACHMENT "Tables.docx"]

Table 2. Sample type and PTSD patient symptom severity for each cohort.

[SEE SEPARATE ATTACHMENT "Tables.docx"]

[SEE SEPARATE ATTACHMENT "Figure1.png"]

Figure 1. PTSD patients exhibited lower regional grey matter volume compared to controls throughout the brain as seen in the orange highlighted regions in the figure, with a peak effect in the left cerebellum [-4,-72,-10] (see also Table S6).

[SEE SEPARATE ATTACHMENT "Figure2.png"]

Figure 2. The blue highlighted regions represent smaller grey matter volumes associated with: (A) higher PTSD severity scores, with the peak effect in the right cerebellum [4,-48,-58]; and (B) higher depression severity scores, with the peak effect in the right superior frontal gyrus [14,66,6] (see also Tables S12 and S13).

Table 1. Clinical and demographic characteristics for each cohort.

Cohort	Sample, <i>N</i>				Female, <i>N</i> (%)				Age, Mean (<i>SD</i>)			
	PTSD	Controls	TE Controls ^a	nTE Controls ^a	PTSD	Controls	TE Controls	nTE Controls	PTSD	Controls	TE Controls	nTE Controls
ADNIDOD 1	50	61	60	0	0 (0.0)	1 (1.6)	1 (1.6)	NA	67.8 (3.9)	69.3 (4.8)	69.5 (4.7)	NA
ADNIDOD 2	17	31	31	0	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	NA	67.9 (3.2)	69.7 (4.7)	69.7 (4.7)	NA
AMC	37	37	37	0	16 (43.2)	18 (48.6)	0 (0.0)	NA	40.2 (10.0)	39.6 (10.1)	39.6 (10.1)	NA
Beijing	42	46	46	0	29 (69.0)	24 (52.2)	24 (52.2)	NA	53.7 (7.9)	43.3 (9.7)	43.3 (9.7)	NA
Columbia-3	53	36	36	0	34 (64.2)	24 (66.7)	24 (66.7)	NA	36.4 (9.3)	35.0 (10.6)	35.0 (10.6)	NA
Columbia-6	25	55	32	23	7 (28.0)	28 (50.9)	15 (46.9)	13 (56.5)	37.3 (13.6)	35.2 (12.1)	36.2 (12.3)	33.7 (12.0)
Duke 1	11	73	72	0	2 (18.2)	16 (21.9)	16 (22.2)	NA	37.1 (9.1)	39.6 (9.4)	39.5 (9.5)	NA
Duke 2	15	33	33	0	4 (26.7)	5 (15.2)	5 (15.2)	NA	42.2 (11.4)	41.1 (9.3)	41.1 (9.3)	NA
Duke 3	15	31	31	0	2 (13.3)	8 (25.8)	8 (25.8)	NA	41.8 (9.2)	37.4 (11.4)	37.4 (11.4)	NA
Duke 4	36	75	69	0	5 (13.9)	14 (18.7)	14 (20.3)	NA	38.2 (9.6)	37.5 (10.3)	37.3 (10.3)	NA
Emory	14	48	48	0	14 (100.0)	48 (100.0)	48 (100.0)	NA	42.1 (13.3)	40.0 (11.8)	40.0 (11.8)	NA
INTRuST 1	72	147	118	26	16 (22.2)	71 (48.3)	57 (48.3)	13 (50.0)	37.0 (9.4)	32.0 (12.2)	33.2 (12.5)	26.2 (9.4)
INTRuST 2	31	94	80	10	8 (25.8)	41 (43.6)	33 (41.3)	4 (40.0)	44.6 (11.4)	37.3 (12.9)	36.8 (13.0)	41.4 (11.6)
Leiden	21	30	NA	NA	18 (85.7)	26 (86.7)	NA	NA	15.9 (1.9)	14.7 (1.6)	NA	NA
LIMBIC-CENC 1	84	179	NA	NA	18 (21.4)	30 (16.8)	NA	NA	44.8 (8.7)	44.6 (9.8)	NA	NA
LIMBIC-CENC 2	76	84	NA	NA	7 (9.2)	8 (9.5)	NA	NA	34.7 (6.9)	33.2 (7.4)	NA	NA
LIMBIC-CENC 3	81	144	NA	NA	9 (11.1)	19 (13.2)	NA	NA	39.8 (8.4)	39.1 (9.3)	NA	NA
McLean 1	50	26	20	5	50 (100.0)	26 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	35.1 (13.4)	33.5 (11.3)	34.0 (11.3)	30.4 (13.0)
McLean 2	22	74	35	39	13 (59.1)	39 (52.7)	19 (54.3)	20 (51.3)	35.6 (7.6)	33.7 (9.1)	33.7 (9.1)	33.7 (9.3)
Minnesota	12	50	50	0	2 (16.7)	3 (6.0)	3 (6.0)	NA	38.6 (8.2)	43.9 (9.6)	43.9 (9.6)	NA
Münster	21	26	NA	NA	21 (100.0)	21 (80.8)	NA	NA	27.4 (7.0)	26.5 (7.4)	NA	NA
South Dakota	78	44	28	8	17 (21.8)	7 (15.9)	1 (3.6)	2 (25.0)	28.8 (7.1)	29.9 (6.9)	32.0 (6.2)	31.0 (6.2)
Stanford	30	50	45	5	6 (20.0)	17 (34.0)	14 (31.1)	3 (60.0)	31.4 (10.1)	32.6 (11.8)	32.7 (11.6)	31.6 (14.6)
Toledo	15	63	63	0	7 (46.7)	29 (46.0)	29 (46.0)	NA	40.9 (9.5)	34.3 (11.5)	34.3 (11.5)	NA
UCT ^b	NA	68	18	50	NA	68 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	NA	26.7 (6.4)	27.2 (5.9)	26.5 (6.6)
UMC BETTER	55	52	NA	NA	1 (1.8)	0 (0.0)	NA	NA	36.1 (9.8)	36.0 (10.2)	NA	NA
VA Minn DEFEND	27	82	82	0	1 (3.7)	3 (3.7)	3 (3.7)	NA	32.0 (5.2)	32.5 (7.9)	32.5 (7.9)	NA
VA Minn SATURN	55	62	62	0	0 (0.0)	10 (16.1)	10 (16.1)	NA	30.9 (7.8)	34.3 (8.8)	34.3 (8.8)	NA
VA Waco	59	31	31	0	6 (10.2)	2 (6.5)	2 (6.5)	NA	39.4 (9.7)	42.5 (11.8)	42.5 (11.8)	NA
VA West Haven	35	30	30	0	4 (11.4)	3 (10.0)	3 (10.0)	NA	35.2 (9.3)	34.3 (10.2)	34.3 (10.2)	NA
Vanderbilt	15	35	20	15	1 (6.7)	8 (22.9)	5 (25.0)	3 (20.0)	33.9 (4.7)	30.2 (4.2)	31.6 (3.9)	28.5 (4.0)
Washington	33	116	60	56	15 (45.5)	59 (50.9)	34 (56.7)	25 (44.6)	12.7 (2.7)	12.9 (2.7)	13.2 (2.7)	12.6 (2.6)

Cohort	Sample, <i>N</i>				Female, <i>N (%)</i>				Age, <i>Mean (SD)</i>			
	PTSD	Controls	TE Controls ^a	nTE Controls ^a	PTSD	Controls	TE Controls	nTE Controls	PTSD	Controls	TE Controls	nTE Controls
Western Ontario	59	39	2	36	44 (74.6)	25 (64.1)	0 (0.0)	24 (66.7)	38.5 (12.7)	33.5 (12.2)	35.0 (2.8)	33.74 (12.6)
Wisconsin-Madison	19	38	38	0	3 (15.8)	1 (2.6)	1 (3.6)	NA	30.4 (6.2)	30.8 (6.7)	30.8 (6.7)	NA
Wisconsin-Milwaukee	22	60	60	0	11 (50.0)	30 (50.0)	30 (50.0)	NA	28.7 (8.2)	34.4 (10.9)	34.4 (10.9)	NA
Yale	22	48	25	23	3 (13.6)	8 (16.7)	1 (4.0)	7 (30.4)	31.8 (6.9)	29.4 (8.2)	32.9 (8.5)	25.7 (6.0)
TOTAL	1309	2198	1362	296	394 (30.1)	740 (33.7)	438 (32.2)	169 (57.1)	37.7 (13.2)	35.9 (13.8)	37.2 (14.3)	27.0 (11.5)

PTSD = posttraumatic stress disorder; TE = trauma-exposed; nTE = non-trauma-exposed.

Note: For sites with multiple scanners, participants were grouped by scanner model where possible to form processing cohorts.

^a Where the Control subgroups do not add-up to the total number of Controls, this is due to unspecified trauma exposure of the Control participant; ^b UCT did not have enough current PTSD patients (< 8) for the main analysis and was only included in the subgroup comparison between TE and nTE controls.

Table 2. Sample type and PTSD patient symptom severity for each cohort.

Cohort	Sample Type ^a	PTSD	
		Diagnostic Instrument	Patient PTSD Severity ^b , Mean % (SD)
ADNIDOD 1	Military	CAPS-4	43.0 (10.7)
ADNIDOD 2	Military	CAPS-4	39.4 (7.5)
AMC	Police	CAPS-4	49.9 (10.2)
Beijing	Civilian	PCL-5	53.1 (13.0)
Columbia-3	Civilian	CAPS-4	58.9 (11.4)
Columbia-6	Civilian	CAPS-5	45.7 (11.6)
Duke 1	Military	CAPS-4, CAPS-5	40.5 (18.3)
Duke 2	Military	CAPS-4, CAPS-5	49.5 (18.2)
Duke 3	Military	CAPS-4	47.2 (12.4)
Duke 4	Military	CAPS-4	54.3 (14.6)
Emory	Civilian	CAPS-4	44.5 (10.1)
INTRuST 1	Military, Civilian	PCL-C	63.5 (19.5)
INTRuST 2	Military, Civilian	PCL-C	62.0 (16.9)
Leiden	Civilian	ADIS-C/P	40.7 (22.0)
LIMBIC-CENC 1	Military	PCL-5	61.6 (12.8)
LIMBIC-CENC 2	Military	PCL-5	64.0 (13.9)
LIMBIC-CENC 3	Military	PCL-5	58.1 (12.7)
McLean 1	Civilian	CAPS-5	64.2 (14.2)
McLean 2	Civilian	CAPS-4	43.6 (13.5)
Minnesota	Military	CAPS-4	39.3 (8.2)
Münster	Civilian	SCID-4	46.0 (20.2)
South Dakota	Military, Civilian	PCL-M, PCL-C	55.6 (15.4)
Stanford	Civilian	CAPS-4	43.8 (13.9)
Toledo	Military, Civilian	CAPS-4	47.0 (11.6)
UCT ^c	Civilian	MINI	NA
UMC BETTER	Military, Civilian	CAPS-4	52.0 (9.7)
VA Minn DEFEND	Military	CAPS-4	47.9 (17.7)
VA Minn SATURN	Military	CAPS-4	46.1 (13.1)
VA Waco	Military	PCL-5	70.0 (14.5)
VA West Haven	Military	CAPS-4	49.9 (11.4)
Vanderbilt	Military	CAPS-5	33.7 (5.7)
Washington	Civilian	CAPS-5	18.0 (4.3)
Western Ontario	Civilian	CAPS-4, CAPS-5	51.4 (10.4)
Wisconsin-Madison	Military	CAPS-4	47.8 (10.9)
Wisconsin-Milwaukee	Civilian	CAPS-5	35.8 (9.2)
Yale	Military	CAPS-4	36.8 (17.7)
TOTAL			52.6 (17.0)

PTSD = posttraumatic stress disorder; TE = trauma-exposed; nTE = non-trauma-exposed.

PTSD diagnosis and severity scales: CAPS-4/5 = Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale for DSM-IV /DSM-5 [61-63]; PCL-5/C/M = PTSD Checklist for DSM-5 (Civilian or Military version) [64]; ADIS-C = Anxiety Disorders Interview Schedule for Children [65]; SCID = Structured Clinical Interview for DSM [66]; MINI = Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview [67]; MPSS = Modified PTSD Symptom Scale [68]; TSCC = Trauma Symptom Checklist for Children [69]; PDS = Posttraumatic Stress Diagnostic Scale [70].

^a PTSD and controls were recruited from the same sample types.

^b PTSD severity has been quantified as a percentage of the total score for visual comparison across cohorts. Raw scores are available in Supplement A (Table S4).

Figure 1

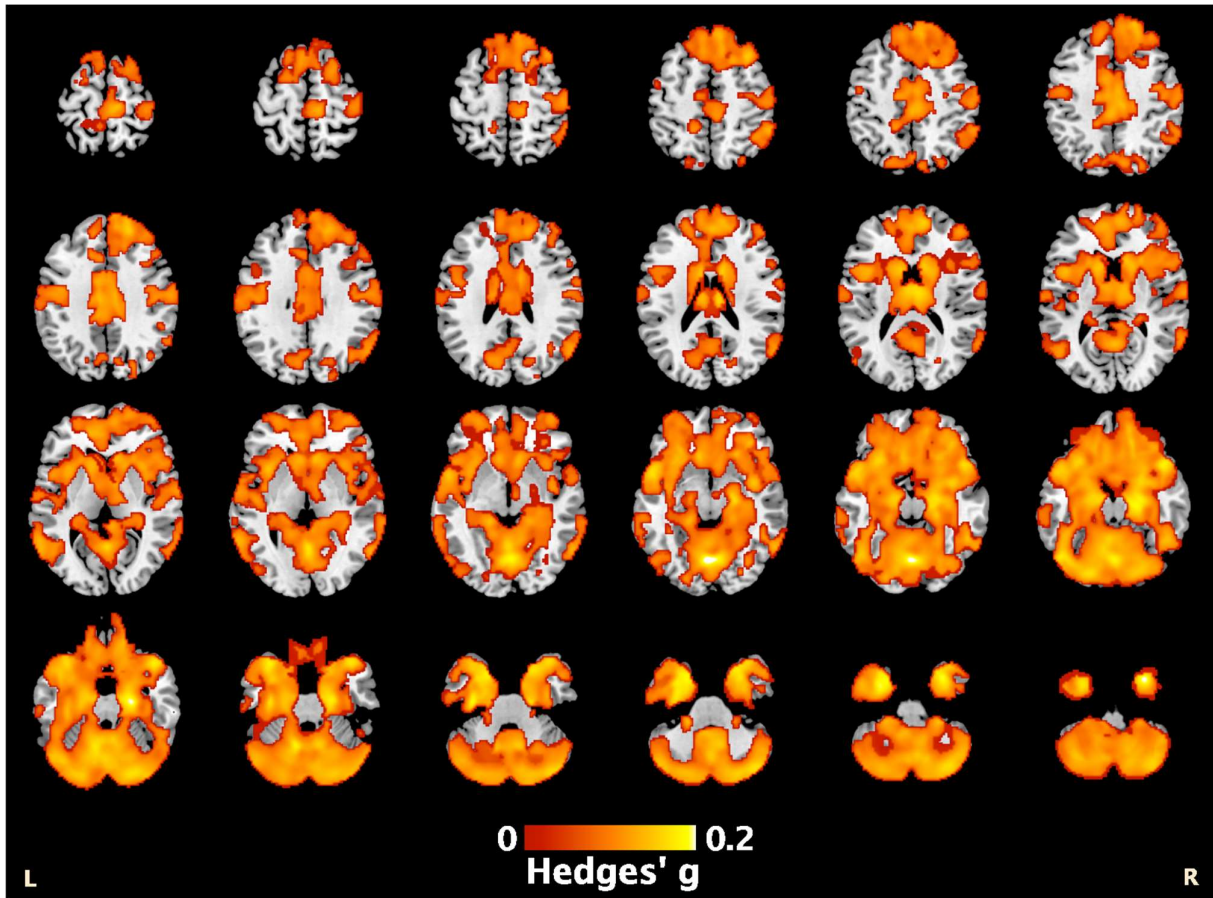


Figure 2

