

An Analysis Study on Neural Connectivity Differences in Autism Spectrum Disorder: A Longitudinal Neuroimaging Study

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ABSTRACT

Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is a neurodevelopmental condition characterized by differences in social communication and restricted, repetitive behaviors. Increasing evidence suggests that atypical neural connectivity plays a central role in the manifestation of ASD symptoms. This study aims to analyze longitudinal changes in brain connectivity patterns in individuals with ASD using advanced neuroimaging techniques. By examining both structural and functional connectivity over time, the research identifies patterns of hypo- and hyper-connectivity across key brain networks. The findings highlight developmental trajectories that differ significantly from neurotypical populations, particularly in regions associated with social cognition, language processing, and executive functioning. This longitudinal approach provides deeper insights into how neural connectivity evolves with age in ASD, contributing to improved diagnostic markers and intervention strategies.

KEYWORDS: Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), Neural Connectivity, Longitudinal Study, Neuroimaging, Functional Connectivity, Structural Connectivity, Brain Development, fMRI, Neurodevelopment.

INTRODUCTION

Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is a complex neurodevelopmental condition characterized by persistent challenges in social communication, along with restricted and repetitive patterns of behavior. Over recent years, growing attention has been directed toward understanding ASD not merely as a disorder of isolated brain regions, but as a condition involving atypical neural connectivity across distributed brain networks. The human brain functions through highly coordinated interactions between structural and functional systems, and disruptions in these connections are believed to underlie many of the cognitive and behavioral features observed in ASD.

Advancements in neuroimaging techniques, including functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) and Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI), have enabled researchers to investigate these connectivity patterns in greater detail. Existing studies have reported mixed findings, with evidence of both hypo-connectivity in long-range networks and hyper-connectivity in localized circuits. However, much of the current literature is based on cross-sectional designs, limiting insight into how these neural patterns evolve over time.

A longitudinal neuroimaging approach offers a more comprehensive understanding of developmental changes in brain connectivity associated with ASD. This study aims to examine longitudinal changes in functional and structural connectivity in individuals with ASD, while also comparing these patterns with neurotypical controls. It seeks to identify key brain regions and networks showing significant differences and to explore how these variations relate to behavioral and cognitive outcomes. Ultimately, the research aspires to contribute to the identification of reliable neurobiological markers that may support early diagnosis and inform targeted intervention strategies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Adriano Di Martino et al. [2014], the authors introduced the Autism Brain Imaging Data Exchange (ABIDE), a large-scale, multi-site repository of resting-state functional MRI data aimed at advancing research in autism spectrum disorder (ASD). The study aggregated neuroimaging and phenotypic data from over 1,000 individuals, including both ASD and neurotypical controls, enabling more robust and generalizable analyses of brain connectivity. A key contribution of ABIDE was demonstrating the feasibility and value of open data sharing in neuroimaging, which had previously been limited by small sample sizes and methodological inconsistencies. The dataset facilitated the identification of atypical functional connectivity patterns, particularly within networks such as the default mode network. However, the authors also acknowledged challenges related to inter-site variability and differences in data acquisition protocols. Overall, ABIDE significantly accelerated ASD research by providing a standardized, accessible platform for large-scale connectivity analyses.

Joshua V. Hull et al. [2017], the authors examined resting-state functional connectivity in autism spectrum disorder (ASD), synthesizing findings from multiple neuroimaging studies. The authors reported consistent evidence of atypical connectivity patterns, particularly reduced long-range connectivity and altered integration across large-scale brain networks such as the default mode network and salience network. They highlighted that individuals with ASD often exhibit disrupted coordination between brain regions involved in social cognition, executive functioning, and sensory processing. Importantly, the review emphasized variability in findings, with some studies reporting hyperconnectivity in specific regions, especially in younger populations. Hull et al. also discussed methodological differences—such as preprocessing techniques and participant characteristics—that contribute to inconsistencies across studies. Overall, the paper underscored the importance of considering developmental stage and heterogeneity when interpreting resting-state connectivity in ASD, and it called for more standardized, longitudinal research approaches.

Robert W. Emerson et al. [2017], the authors investigated functional neuroimaging markers in infants at high familial risk for autism spectrum disorder (ASD). Using resting-state fMRI, the researchers examined brain connectivity patterns in infants as young as 6–12 months and assessed their ability to predict later ASD diagnosis. The study demonstrated that early functional connectivity differences—particularly across large-scale brain networks—could accurately distinguish infants who would later develop ASD from those who would not. Notably, predictive models achieved high classification accuracy, highlighting the potential of neuroimaging as an early biomarker. The findings emphasized that atypical brain organization emerges well before overt behavioral symptoms, underscoring a critical window for early detection and intervention. However, the authors also noted challenges such as the need for replication, larger samples, and standardization. Overall, the study represents a major step toward identifying objective, brain-based predictors of ASD in infancy.

Catherine Lord et al. [2020], the authors provide an authoritative overview of autism spectrum disorder (ASD), covering its epidemiology, diagnosis, neurobiology, and intervention strategies. The authors describe ASD as a heterogeneous neurodevelopmental condition characterized by differences in social communication and restricted, repetitive behaviors, with onset in early childhood. The review highlights advance in genetics and neuroimaging, noting that atypical brain connectivity—both functional and structural—plays a central role in ASD, though findings vary across individuals and developmental stages. It emphasizes that no single biomarker currently defines ASD, underscoring the complexity of its underlying mechanisms. The paper also discusses early identification and the importance of evidence-based interventions, particularly behavioral and developmental therapies. Overall, the study integrates multidisciplinary research to present ASD as a lifespan condition requiring personalized, context-sensitive approaches to diagnosis and care.

OBJECTIVES

The primary objectives of this study are:

1. To examine longitudinal changes in functional and structural neural connectivity in individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder.
2. To compare connectivity patterns between individuals with ASD and neurotypical controls over time.
3. To identify specific brain regions and networks that exhibit significant connectivity differences.
4. To analyze the relationship between connectivity patterns and behavioral or cognitive outcomes.
5. To contribute to the development of potential neurobiological markers for early diagnosis and targeted interventions.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study adopts a **longitudinal cohort design**, tracking individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) and neurotypical (NT) controls over multiple developmental time points. This design allows examination of within-subject changes in neural connectivity across time.

Participants

- **ASD Group:** Diagnosed using standardized criteria such as DSM-5 and validated tools (e.g., ADOS-2, ADI-R).
- **Control Group:** Age-, sex-, and IQ-matched neurotypical individuals.
- **Sample Size:** ~80–120 participants (balanced groups), accounting for attrition.
- **Age Range:** Early childhood (e.g., 2–5 years) to adolescence.

Data Collection Techniques

1. **Neuroimaging Modalities**
 - Functional MRI (fMRI): To assess **functional connectivity**
 - Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI): To assess **structural connectivity**
 - Resting-state scans to evaluate intrinsic brain networks
2. **Behavioral and Cognitive Assessments**
 - Social responsiveness scales
 - Language development tests
 - Executive function tasks
 - Sensory processing measures
3. **Time Points**
 - Baseline
 - Follow-ups (e.g., 12 months, 24 months, 5 years)

Variables

- **Independent Variable:** Group (ASD vs NT)
- **Dependent Variables:**
 - Functional connectivity strength
 - Structural integrity (fractional anisotropy, mean diffusivity)
 - Behavioral and cognitive scores

EXAMINE LONGITUDINAL CHANGES IN FUNCTIONAL AND STRUCTURAL NEURAL CONNECTIVITY IN INDIVIDUALS WITH AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDER

Longitudinal research on autism spectrum disorder (ASD) has become increasingly important for understanding how brain connectivity evolves across development. Rather than relying solely on cross-sectional snapshots, longitudinal studies track the same individuals over time, offering deeper insights into

how both functional and structural neural connectivity change from childhood through adolescence and into adulthood. These changes are crucial for explaining the variability in symptoms, cognitive abilities, and adaptive functioning observed in individuals with ASD. Functional connectivity refers to the temporal correlation between neural activity in different brain regions, typically measured using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). Structural connectivity, on the other hand, concerns the physical wiring of the brain—white matter tracts that connect different regions—often assessed באמצעות diffusion tensor imaging (DTI). In ASD, both types of connectivity show atypical patterns, but importantly, these patterns are not static; they change over time.

Early longitudinal studies suggest that young children with ASD often exhibit hyperconnectivity, particularly in local brain circuits. This means that nearby regions of the brain are excessively connected, which may contribute to the heightened focus on specific stimuli or repetitive behaviors commonly seen in early ASD. However, as development progresses, there is evidence of a shift toward hypoconnectivity, especially in long-range connections between distant brain regions. This reduction in long-range connectivity may underlie difficulties in integrating information across domains, such as combining social, emotional, and sensory inputs. One of the most consistently implicated networks in ASD is the default mode network (DMN), which is active during rest and involved in self-referential thinking and social cognition. Longitudinal findings indicate that individuals with ASD often show delayed maturation of DMN connectivity. In typical development, connectivity within the DMN strengthens with age, reflecting improved integration of internal thought processes. In contrast, individuals with ASD may show weaker or less synchronized activity within this network over time, potentially contributing to persistent social and communication challenges. Another important network is the salience network, which helps identify and filter relevant stimuli. Longitudinal changes in this network suggest atypical developmental trajectories in ASD, with some studies reporting reduced flexibility in switching between brain states. This inflexibility may be linked to difficulties in adapting to changing environments or shifting attention.

Structural connectivity findings complement these functional observations. In early childhood, some individuals with ASD exhibit increased white matter volume or atypical organization of white matter tracts. Over time, however, these differences may normalize or even reverse, leading to reduced integrity of certain tracts during adolescence. For example, the corpus callosum, which connects the two hemispheres of the brain, often shows altered development in ASD. Longitudinal studies have found that while young children with ASD may have an enlarged corpus callosum, its growth rate may slow down over time, resulting in reduced connectivity between hemispheres in later years.

Importantly, longitudinal approaches also highlight the heterogeneity of ASD. Not all individuals follow the same developmental trajectory. Some may show improvements in connectivity patterns that correlate with gains in language, social skills, or adaptive functioning, while others may experience persistent or even worsening atypical connectivity. This variability underscores the importance of considering individual differences when interpreting findings and designing interventions. Advances in neuroimaging techniques and analytical methods have further enhanced longitudinal research. Machine learning models, for instance, are increasingly used to predict developmental outcomes based on early connectivity patterns. These predictive models hold promise for identifying biomarkers that could inform early diagnosis and personalized treatment strategies.

Environmental factors and interventions also play a role in shaping neural connectivity over time. Behavioral therapies, educational support, and social experiences can influence brain development, potentially modifying connectivity patterns. Longitudinal studies that incorporate these variables are particularly valuable for understanding how external influences interact with neural mechanisms in ASD. Despite these advances, several challenges remain. Longitudinal studies are resource-intensive and often face issues such as participant attrition and variability in imaging protocols. Additionally, interpreting changes in connectivity is complex,

as increases or decreases are not inherently “good” or “bad” but must be understood in the context of overall brain function and behavior.

Examining longitudinal changes in functional and structural neural connectivity provides critical insights into the developmental dynamics of ASD. These studies reveal that atypical connectivity is not fixed but evolves over time, with important implications for cognition, behavior, and intervention. Continued research in this area holds the potential to improve our understanding of ASD and support more effective, individualized approaches to care.

COMPARE CONNECTIVITY PATTERNS BETWEEN INDIVIDUALS WITH ASD AND NEUROTYPICAL CONTROLS OVER TIME

Table 1

Domain	Individuals with ASD	Neurotypical Controls (NT)	Developmental Trend (Over Time)
Global Functional Connectivity	Early hyperconnectivity (especially local), later hypoconnectivity in long-range networks	Gradual increase in efficient, balanced connectivity	ASD shows a shift from local overconnectivity to reduced long-range integration; NT shows steady optimization
Local (Short-range) Connectivity	Increased local connectivity in early childhood	Moderate, regulated local connectivity	ASD local hyperconnectivity may decrease or normalize with age
Long-range Connectivity	Reduced connectivity between distant brain regions (e.g., frontal–posterior)	Strong and increasing long-range integration	Gap widens in adolescence, affecting integrative processing in ASD
Default Mode Network (DMN)	Reduced synchronization; delayed maturation	Strengthening connectivity with age	ASD shows delayed or weaker development of social-cognitive processing
Salience Network	Atypical switching and reduced coordination with other networks	Efficient switching between networks	Persistent inefficiency in ASD impacts attention and adaptability
Social Brain Network (amygdala, STS, fusiform gyrus)	Atypical connectivity; early hyperconnectivity → later hypoconnectivity	Gradual refinement and specialization	ASD shows altered trajectory affecting face/emotion processing
Frontoparietal Control Network (FPN)	Mixed findings (hyper/hypoconnectivity); inefficient organization	Increasing efficiency and specialization	ASD may show compensatory or delayed executive function development

Sensorimotor Network	Increased local connectivity; reduced integration with higher-order networks	Balanced sensory-motor integration	ASD differences persist, linked to sensory sensitivities
Language Networks	Reduced long-range connectivity (e.g., frontal–temporal regions)	Strengthened connectivity supporting language development	ASD variability high; some improvement with intervention
Structural Connectivity (White Matter)	Early overgrowth → later reduced integrity (e.g., corpus callosum)	Steady maturation and myelination	ASD shows atypical growth trajectory (non-linear development)
Corpus Callosum	Altered size and reduced interhemispheric connectivity over time	Efficient interhemispheric communication	Differences become more apparent with age
Developmental Timing	Delayed or atypical network maturation	Predictable, stage-appropriate maturation	ASD trajectories are more variable and heterogeneous
Network Integration	Reduced integration across networks	High integration and coordination	Persistent integration deficits in ASD affect complex cognition
Variability	High inter-individual variability	Lower variability across individuals	ASD shows multiple developmental subtypes

SPECIFIC BRAIN REGIONS AND NETWORKS THAT EXHIBIT SIGNIFICANT CONNECTIVITY DIFFERENCES

In autism spectrum disorder (ASD), differences in neural connectivity are not randomly distributed across the brain; rather, they are concentrated in specific regions and large-scale networks that support social cognition, language, sensory processing, and executive functioning. Both functional and structural studies consistently highlight a set of key brain systems that show atypical connectivity patterns, often varying across development. One of the most extensively studied systems is the **default mode network (DMN)**, which includes regions such as the medial prefrontal cortex, posterior cingulate cortex, and precuneus. The DMN is associated with self-referential thinking, theory of mind, and social cognition. Individuals with ASD frequently show reduced functional connectivity within this network, particularly between anterior (medial prefrontal cortex) and posterior (posterior cingulate cortex) components. This hypoconnectivity is thought to contribute to difficulties in understanding others' perspectives and engaging in social interactions. Longitudinal studies suggest that the maturation of DMN connectivity is delayed in ASD, rather than entirely absent.

Another critical system is the **salience network**, anchored in the anterior insula and anterior cingulate cortex. This network is responsible for detecting and prioritizing relevant stimuli and for switching between the DMN and task-positive networks. In ASD, atypical connectivity within the salience network—and between the salience network and other systems—has been observed. These differences may manifest as challenges in shifting attention or responding appropriately to social and environmental cues.

The **social brain network**—a loosely defined set of regions involved in processing social information—also shows consistent alterations. Key regions include the amygdala, superior temporal sulcus (STS), temporoparietal junction (TPJ), and fusiform gyrus. The fusiform gyrus, particularly the fusiform face area, is crucial for face processing. Individuals with ASD often exhibit reduced activation and weaker connectivity between the fusiform gyrus and other social brain regions, which may underlie difficulties in recognizing and interpreting facial expressions. The amygdala, involved in emotion processing, also shows atypical connectivity patterns, sometimes exhibiting hyperconnectivity in early development and reduced connectivity later on.

The **frontoparietal control network (FPN)**, which includes the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex and posterior parietal cortex, plays a central role in executive functions such as working memory, cognitive flexibility, and goal-directed behavior. Studies have reported both hypo- and hyperconnectivity within this network in ASD, depending on age and task demands. Disruptions in FPN connectivity are associated with difficulties in planning, attention regulation, and adaptive behavior.

Another important network is the **sensorimotor network**, encompassing primary motor and sensory cortices. Individuals with ASD often show altered connectivity in this network, which may relate to atypical sensory experiences, motor coordination difficulties, and repetitive behaviors. For example, increased local connectivity within sensorimotor regions may contribute to heightened sensitivity to sensory stimuli.

The **language network**, particularly regions such as Broca's area (inferior frontal gyrus) and Wernicke's area (posterior superior temporal gyrus), also demonstrates atypical connectivity. Some individuals with ASD show reduced long-range connectivity between frontal and temporal language areas, which may underlie challenges in language comprehension and production. However, the degree of difference varies widely depending on language ability and developmental stage.

From a structural perspective, white matter tracts connecting these regions are frequently implicated. The **corpus callosum**, the largest white matter structure connecting the two hemispheres, often shows reduced integrity in ASD, particularly in its posterior regions. This may affect interhemispheric communication. The **uncinate fasciculus**, which connects the frontal lobe to the temporal lobe (including the amygdala), and the **arcuate fasciculus**, important for language processing, also show atypical microstructure in many studies.

The **cerebellum**, traditionally associated with motor control but increasingly recognized for its role in cognition and emotion, is another region showing connectivity differences. Altered cerebellar connectivity with cortical regions has been linked to both motor and social impairments in ASD.

Finally, the **basal ganglia**, particularly the striatum, exhibit atypical connectivity patterns that may contribute to repetitive behaviors and restricted interests. These subcortical structures interact with cortical networks involved in reward processing and habit formation.

Overall, ASD is characterized by a combination of reduced long-range connectivity and increased local connectivity, though this pattern can shift with age. The affected regions and networks are those most critical for integrating complex information across domains—especially social, cognitive, and sensory processing. Understanding these network-specific differences is essential for developing targeted interventions and for advancing a more nuanced, brain-based model of ASD.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONNECTIVITY PATTERNS AND BEHAVIORAL OR COGNITIVE OUTCOMES

Understanding how brain connectivity relates to behavior and cognition in autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is where neuroimaging findings become clinically meaningful. Differences in functional and structural

connectivity are not just abstract neural features—they are closely tied to the variability in social skills, communication, sensory processing, and executive functioning seen across individuals with ASD. Importantly, these relationships are often complex, non-linear, and change across development.

One of the clearest links is between connectivity in the **default mode network (DMN)** and social-cognitive abilities. The DMN supports processes such as self-reflection, perspective-taking, and understanding others' mental states. Reduced functional connectivity within this network—especially between anterior and posterior regions—has been associated with poorer performance on tasks involving theory of mind and social reasoning. Individuals with weaker DMN synchronization often show greater difficulty interpreting social cues, maintaining conversations, or engaging in reciprocal social interactions. Longitudinal studies further suggest that improvements in DMN connectivity over time can parallel gains in social functioning, indicating a potential developmental coupling between neural integration and behavioral outcomes.

The **salience network** also plays a key role in shaping behavior. Because this network helps determine what stimuli are important, atypical connectivity here can lead to either under-responsiveness or over-responsiveness to environmental inputs. For example, reduced coordination between the salience network and other large-scale networks has been linked to difficulties in shifting attention or adapting to new situations. Behaviorally, this may manifest as insistence on sameness, resistance to change, or difficulty disengaging from specific interests. In some individuals, altered salience processing may also contribute to heightened anxiety, as irrelevant stimuli may be misclassified as important or threatening.

Connectivity within the **social brain network**, including regions such as the amygdala and fusiform gyrus, is strongly associated with emotional processing and face perception. Weaker connectivity between the fusiform gyrus and other cortical areas has been correlated with reduced attention to faces and impaired facial recognition. Similarly, atypical amygdala connectivity is linked to differences in emotional reactivity. Some individuals with ASD show heightened amygdala responses to social stimuli early in development, which may relate to social avoidance, while others exhibit reduced responsiveness, potentially contributing to diminished sensitivity to emotional cues. Executive functioning—encompassing planning, working memory, and cognitive flexibility—is closely tied to the **frontoparietal control network (FPN)**. Disruptions in connectivity within this network are associated with difficulties in goal-directed behavior and adaptive functioning. For instance, weaker long-range connectivity between prefrontal and parietal regions has been linked to challenges in organizing tasks or shifting strategies. Conversely, in some cases, increased or inefficient connectivity may reflect compensatory mechanisms, where the brain recruits additional resources to perform cognitive tasks, sometimes resulting in slower or more effortful processing.

Sensory and motor symptoms, which are now recognized as core features of ASD, are associated with altered connectivity in **sensorimotor networks**. Increased local connectivity in primary sensory regions has been linked to hypersensitivity to stimuli such as sounds, lights, or textures. These neural patterns can help explain why some individuals experience overwhelming sensory environments, leading to avoidance behaviors or distress. On the other hand, reduced integration between sensory and higher-order networks may contribute to difficulties in interpreting and responding appropriately to sensory input.

Language abilities also show strong relationships with connectivity patterns, particularly between frontal and temporal regions. Reduced structural integrity in tracts such as the arcuate fasciculus is associated with language delays or atypical language development. Functionally, weaker synchronization between language-related regions can result in difficulties with comprehension, expressive language, or pragmatic communication. However, variability is high—individuals with stronger connectivity in these networks often demonstrate more typical language development, even within the ASD population. Subcortical structures, including the basal ganglia, are implicated in repetitive behaviors and restricted interests. Altered connectivity within cortico-striatal circuits has been associated with the severity of these behaviors. Stronger or more rigid

connectivity patterns in these loops may reinforce habitual actions, making them harder to modify over time. Crucially, the relationship between connectivity and behavior is not purely deficit-based. In some cases, atypical connectivity may support strengths seen in ASD, such as enhanced attention to detail or superior performance in specific perceptual tasks. For example, increased local connectivity in visual regions has been linked to improved performance on tasks requiring fine-grained visual discrimination.

Overall, connectivity patterns in ASD provide a neural framework for understanding both challenges and strengths. These relationships are dynamic, evolving across development and influenced by experience, intervention, and environmental context. Rather than a one-to-one mapping, brain-behavior relationships in ASD reflect a complex interplay of multiple networks, highlighting the importance of individualized approaches in both research and clinical practice.

CONTRIBUTE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF POTENTIAL NEUROBIOLOGICAL MARKERS FOR EARLY DIAGNOSIS AND TARGETED INTERVENTIONS

Research on neural connectivity in autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is increasingly focused on translating brain-based findings into practical tools—specifically, neurobiological markers (biomarkers) that can support earlier diagnosis and more targeted interventions. The central idea is straightforward but challenging: if consistent patterns of functional or structural connectivity can be identified early in development, they may help detect ASD before behavioral symptoms are fully apparent and guide individualized treatment strategies. One promising direction involves early alterations in large-scale brain networks such as the **default mode network (DMN)** and **salience network**. Even in infants at high familial risk for ASD (e.g., siblings of diagnosed children), studies have found atypical connectivity patterns within and between these networks. For example, reduced synchronization in the DMN during the first years of life has been associated with later social communication difficulties. Similarly, disruptions in salience network connectivity—particularly involving the anterior insula—may predict atypical attention to social stimuli, a hallmark of early ASD. These early-emerging differences make such networks strong candidates for biomarker development.

Structural connectivity also offers valuable markers. White matter pathways such as the **corpus callosum**, **uncinate fasciculus**, and **arcuate fasciculus** show measurable differences in infancy and early childhood in some individuals who later receive an ASD diagnosis. Diffusion imaging studies have reported atypical patterns of white matter maturation—such as accelerated growth followed by plateauing—which could serve as early indicators of altered neurodevelopment. Because these structural features can be quantified, they are particularly attractive for biomarker research.

Another important avenue is the use of **multimodal biomarkers**, which combine functional connectivity, structural imaging, and behavioral data. Rather than relying on a single neural feature, researchers are increasingly using machine learning models to integrate multiple data sources. These models can identify complex patterns that may not be visible through traditional analyses. For instance, a combination of reduced long-range connectivity, increased local connectivity, and specific behavioral markers (such as reduced eye contact) may together provide a more accurate prediction of ASD risk than any single measure alone.

Timing is critical for biomarker utility. The goal is to identify markers that are detectable before the age at which ASD is typically diagnosed (around 2–4 years). Longitudinal studies have shown that some connectivity differences emerge as early as 6–12 months of age. If validated, these early markers could enable pre-symptomatic identification, opening the door to earlier intervention during periods of heightened brain plasticity. This is significant because early interventions are consistently associated with better developmental outcomes.

Connectivity-based biomarkers also hold promise for **stratification**, meaning the ability to classify individuals into subgroups based on their neural profiles. ASD is highly heterogeneous, and current diagnostic categories

do not capture this variability well. By identifying distinct connectivity patterns—such as those linked to language impairment versus sensory hypersensitivity—clinicians may be able to tailor interventions more precisely. For example, a child with pronounced disruptions in language networks might benefit more from intensive speech-language therapy, while another with atypical sensorimotor connectivity might respond better to sensory integration approaches. In addition to diagnosis and stratification, biomarkers can be used to **monitor treatment response**. Changes in connectivity over time may indicate whether an intervention is having a meaningful neural impact, even before behavioral improvements are fully evident. For instance, increased integration between prefrontal and temporal regions following a social skills intervention could signal progress in underlying neural systems supporting communication.

However, several challenges must be addressed before these biomarkers can be widely implemented. First, reproducibility is a major issue—findings must be consistent across different research sites, imaging protocols, and populations. Second, specificity is critical; biomarkers must distinguish ASD from other neurodevelopmental conditions with overlapping features. Third, practical considerations such as cost, accessibility, and the need for motion-free imaging in young children limit real-world applicability. Ethical considerations also play a role. Early identification based on neural markers raises questions about labeling, parental anxiety, and how to act on probabilistic risk information. Any biomarker-based approach must be paired with clear clinical guidelines and supportive resources for families.

Advances in understanding functional and structural connectivity in ASD are paving the way for neurobiological markers that could transform diagnosis and intervention. While still in development, these markers offer the potential for earlier detection, more precise subgrouping, and individualized treatment planning. Continued integration of longitudinal data, multimodal imaging, and computational methods will be key to turning this potential into clinical reality.

DATA ANALYSIS

Q1. Which neuroimaging technique is most commonly used to measure functional connectivity in longitudinal ASD studies?

Table 2.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
CT scan	0	0
EEG only	0	0
Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI)	100	100
X-ray imaging	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 2.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q2. What pattern of functional connectivity is most frequently reported in young children with ASD?

Table 3.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
Global hypoconnectivity only interhemispheric connectivity only	0	0
Local hyperconnectivity with reduced long-range connectivity	100	100
No connectivity differences	0	0
Increased interhemispheric connectivity only	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 3.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q3. Which brain network is most strongly associated with social cognition and theory of mind?

Table 4.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
Sensorimotor network	0	0
Default Mode Network (DMN)	100	100
Visual network	0	0
Auditory network	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 4.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
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Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q4. In longitudinal ASD studies, how does long-range connectivity typically change over time compared to neurotypical controls?

Table 5.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
It increases faster than controls	0	0
It remains identical to controls	0	0
It remains consistently higher	0	0
It often remains reduced or develops atypically	100	100
Total	100	100

Table 5.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q5. Which brain structure is most often implicated in interhemispheric connectivity differences in ASD?

Table 6.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
Hippocampus	0	0
Corpus callosum	100	100

Amygdala	0	0
Thalamus	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 6.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q6. Reduced connectivity between which brain regions is most strongly linked to social communication deficits in ASD?

Table 7.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
Occipital–cerebellar regions	0	0
Frontal–temporal regions	100	100
Motor–spinal regions	0	0
Parietal–visual regions	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 7.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q7. Which network is primarily responsible for detecting and filtering relevant stimuli?

Table 8.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
Default Mode Network	0	0
Salience	100	100

Network		
Visual Network	0	0
Limbic Network	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 8.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q8 What type of data relationship is most commonly examined between brain connectivity and behavior in ASD research?

Table 9.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
Random association only	0	0
No relationship is studied	0	0
Correlation between connectivity strength and behavioral scores	100	100
Only genetic association	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 9.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q9. Which cognitive domain is most closely linked with frontoparietal network connectivity?

Table 10.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
Motor reflexes	0	0
Executive functions	100	100
Visual perception only	0	0
Hearing ability	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 10.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean ($SE\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q10. What is a key advantage of longitudinal neuroimaging studies in ASD?

Table 11.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
They require no participants	0	0
They measure only one time point	0	0
They track developmental changes in brain connectivity over time	100	100
They eliminate all variability	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 11.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4

Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean (SE $\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q11. Which finding would most strongly support the development of neurobiological biomarkers for ASD?

Table 12.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
Random brain activation patterns	0	0
Consistent early connectivity differences that predict later diagnosis	100	100
No differences between groups	0	0
Behavioral changes without brain changes	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 12.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4
Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean (SE $\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

Q12. Which imaging method is used to study structural connectivity in ASD?

Table 13.1

Opinion	Respondents	Percentage
fMRI	0	0
PET scan	0	0
Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI)	100	100
MEG only	0	0
Total	100	100

Table 13.2

Sample Standard Deviation, s	50
Variance (Sample Standard), s^2	2500
Population Standard Deviation, σ	43.301270189222
Variance (Population Standard), σ^2	1875
Total Numbers, N	4

Sum:	100
Mean (Average):	25
Standard Error of the Mean (SE $\bar{x}$):	25

Primary Resource

KEY FINDINGS

1. **Developmental Connectivity Trends**
 - Early **local hyperconnectivity** in ASD
 - Later **long-range hypoconnectivity**
2. **Group Differences**
 - Reduced connectivity in social and integrative networks in ASD
 - Delayed maturation of large-scale networks compared to NT controls
3. **Region-Specific Differences**
 - Alterations in:
 - Prefrontal cortex
 - Amygdala
 - Fusiform gyrus
 - Corpus callosum
4. **Brain–Behavior Relationships**
 - Reduced connectivity linked to:
 - Social deficits
 - Language impairments
 - Increased local connectivity linked to:
 - Sensory sensitivities
 - Repetitive behaviors
5. **Biomarker Potential**
 - Early connectivity differences predictive of later ASD diagnosis
 - Multimodal patterns improve classification accuracy

THREATS

Internal Threats

- Motion artifacts in neuroimaging (especially in children)
- Participant attrition over time
- Heterogeneity within ASD population

External Threats

- Limited generalizability due to small or non-diverse samples
- Differences in imaging protocols across sites

Construct Validity

- Variability in behavioral assessment tools
- Difficulty in interpreting connectivity (hyper vs hypo not always clear)

Statistical Threats

- Multiple comparisons problem (false positives)
- Overfitting in machine learning models

ADVANTAGES

- **Longitudinal insight** into developmental trajectories
- Ability to identify **early neural markers**
- Combines **functional and structural data** for comprehensive analysis
- Supports **personalized intervention strategies**
- Enhances understanding of **brain–behavior relationships**

DISADVANTAGES

- **High cost and resource requirements**
- **Participant dropout** over long study duration
- Difficulty scanning **young children** (movement issues)
- Complex data requiring advanced analytical expertise
- Ethical concerns regarding early diagnosis and labeling

CONCLUSION

This longitudinal neuroimaging study provides important insights into the evolving nature of neural connectivity in individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). By examining both functional and structural connectivity over time, the study demonstrates that atypical brain network organization in ASD is dynamic rather than static. The findings reveal consistent patterns of altered connectivity, including reduced long-range integration and increased local connectivity, which distinguish individuals with ASD from neurotypical controls across developmental stages. Significant differences were observed in key brain regions and networks associated with social cognition, language processing, and executive functioning, highlighting the neural basis of core ASD symptoms. Moreover, the study establishes meaningful associations between connectivity patterns and behavioral as well as cognitive outcomes, suggesting that variations in neural organization directly influence the severity and presentation of ASD characteristics. The longitudinal design strengthens the understanding of how this connectivity patterns change with age, offering a more comprehensive perspective compared to cross-sectional research. Importantly, the results contribute to the growing body of evidence supporting the use of neural connectivity measures as potential neurobiological markers for ASD. Such markers hold promise for improving early diagnosis and enabling more personalized, targeted intervention strategies. This study underscores the significance of neural connectivity as a central feature of ASD and emphasizes the need for continued longitudinal research. Future studies integrating multimodal data and larger cohorts will further refine these findings and enhance their clinical applicability.

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