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Circadian phenotype impacts the brain's resting state functional connectivity, attentional performance and sleepiness

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1 **Title: Circadian phenotype impacts the brain's resting state functional connectivity,**
2 **attentional performance and sleepiness**

3
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26 **Abstract**

27 INTRODUCTION: Functional connectivity (FC) of the human brain's intrinsically connected
28 networks underpins cognitive functioning and disruptions of FC are associated with sleep and
29 neurological disorders. However, there is limited research on the impact of circadian phenotype and
30 time of day on FC.

31 STUDY OBJECTIVES: The aim of this study was to investigate resting state FC of the default mode
32 network (DMN) in Early and Late circadian phenotypes over a socially constrained day.

33 METHODS: 38 healthy individuals (14 male, 22.7 ± 4.2 years) categorised as Early (n =16) or Late (n
34 = 22) using the Munich ChronoType Questionnaire took part. Following a two week baseline of
35 actigraphy coupled with saliva samples for melatonin and cortisol rhythms, participants underwent
36 testing at 14.00 h, 20.00 h and 08.00 h the following morning. Testing consisted of resting state
37 functional MRI, a structural T1 scan, attentional cognitive performance tasks and self-reported
38 daytime sleepiness. Seed based FC analysis from the medial prefrontal and posterior cingulate
39 cortices of the DMN was performed, compared between groups and linked with behavioural data.

40 RESULTS: Fundamental differences in the DMN were observed between Early and Late circadian
41 phenotypes. Resting state FC of the DMN predicted individual differences in attention and subjective
42 ratings of sleepiness.

43 CONCLUSION: Differences in FC of the DMN may underlie the compromised attentional
44 performance and increased sleepiness commonly associated with Late types when they conform to a
45 societally constrained day that does not match their intrinsic circadian phenotype.

46

47 **Key words:** Resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), circadian phenotype, sleep,
48 default mode network, attentional performance, sleepiness, circadian rhythms

49

50 **Statement of significance:** Misalignment between an individual's biological timing and behaviour
51 (e.g. as a result of shift-work or jet lag) has adverse impacts on brain function, performance and
52 health. We found that people with a late sleep-wake preference, often called 'night owls', have
53 significantly lower functional connectivity in the brain's 'default mode network', which is involved in
54 maintenance of consciousness and a range of cognitive functions. Importantly, these differences at
55 rest were predictive of poorer attentional performance (slower reaction time), and increased subjective
56 sleepiness. This may represent an intrinsic neuronal mechanism, which leads to 'night owls' being
57 comprised during a normal working day. Future work needs to account for these differences, while
58 targeting sleep/circadian biology could aid in improving health and performance.

59

60 **Introduction**

61 It is estimated that nearly 70 million individuals in the US alone suffer from some sort of disturbance
62 to the sleep/wake axis which impedes normal functioning and has potentially damaging effects on
63 health and well-being.¹ Societal demands are often in conflict with an individual's endogenous
64 biological rhythms, leading to adverse impacts on mental and physical health as well as performance.
65 An extreme example of this is shift work, whereby misalignment between an externally imposed
66 work/rest schedule and internal circadian timing can lead to cognitive deficits,² poorer mental health,³
67 increased health risks including cancer⁴ and a compromised immune system.⁵

68 However, misalignment does not have to be driven by unusual work schedules. By definition, the
69 important issue is that one's internal temporal organisation (i.e. circadian phenotype) and external
70 schedule are in conflict. In particular, a standard working day of 09:00 - 17:00 h may be detrimental
71 for an individual whose biological preference is for a late sleep-wake cycle. Compounding the
72 problem, misalignment can also be associated with a cumulative sleep debt, as sleep is curtailed
73 because of late sleep onset, with a similar type and range of adverse outcomes.⁶ This aspect of
74 misalignment is much less understood than night shift work, but potentially of greater importance
75 given that, according to estimates from the Office of National Statistics, 12 % of the population work

76 night shifts, whereas around 50 % have a late preference favouring a wake up time later than 08:18
77 am.⁷ Therefore, there is a critical need to increase our understanding of these issues in order to
78 minimise health risks in society and maximise productivity.

79 It is well established that there are individual differences in circadian timing, i.e. diurnal preference⁸
80 and chronotype.⁷ At the extreme end of the continuum, these different groups of individuals can be
81 identified as ‘larks’ or ‘owls’ (referred to here as Early (ECP) and Late (LCP) circadian phenotypes
82 based on objective actigraphy and circadian phase markers). Compared to LCPs, ECPs have less
83 disrupted sleep,⁹ make healthier food choices,¹⁰ thereby minimising risks of obesity and diabetes,¹¹
84 and reach higher standards in the sports world.¹² Conversely, LCPs have been linked to greater
85 daytime sleepiness,¹³ increased alcohol consumption and substance abuse,¹⁴ decreased psychological
86 well-being through higher rates of depression,¹⁵ sleep disorders,¹⁶ negative health outcomes,¹⁷ and
87 have even been linked to higher mortality rates.¹⁸ Constant desynchronisation of their internal
88 circadian rhythms through trying to ‘fit in’ to external societal time e.g. work/school schedules has
89 been suggested as the root cause of these adverse impact on LCPs. This mismatch of biological and
90 social time has been called ‘social jetlag’.¹⁹

91 The consequences of sleep and circadian disruption on health and cognitive performance are well
92 established. The application of fMRI in this area is still relatively sparse and much of the literature
93 surrounding the relationship between brain function and attention has been focused on task-based
94 fMRI. However, optimal cognitive performance and good mental health rely upon the appropriate
95 coordination of activity between distributed intrinsic functional neuronal networks (often referred to
96 as intrinsically connected networks, ICNs). One ICN, the default mode network (DMN), is
97 particularly affected by sleep onset,²⁰ sleep deprivation,²¹ variations in habitual sleep patterns across
98 individuals,²² and exhibits diurnal variation in its functional connectivity (FC).²³ The DMN is most
99 active in the absence of external cognitive demand,²⁴ and has been associated with functions as
100 diverse as self-referential processing²⁵ maintaining consciousness,²⁶ regulating cognition,²⁷ attention,²⁸
101 and working memory.²⁹ It is also modified in a range of psychiatric and neurological disorders,³⁰
102 including Alzheimer’s disease³¹ and depression.³²

103 Resting state fMRI provides a complementary approach to task-based fMRI, with the efficiency and
104 integrity of ICNs been linked to intellectual performance³³ and greater intelligence,³⁴ marking the
105 importance that testing resting state FC (rs-FC) could play in predicting measures of cognitive
106 function. Only a handful of studies have explored the link between FC, sleep, circadian phenotype and
107 cognitive performance.^{35, 36} However, these investigations used task-based fMRI and controlled for
108 the effect of circadian phenotype by scheduling testing based on internal biological time e.g. every 4 h
109 starting 1.5 h after waking, preventing the exploration of the effect of circadian phenotype in real-life
110 throughout a typical societally constrained day.

111 In summary, neuroimaging is increasingly used as a technique in sleep research, but inter-subject
112 variability e.g. circadian phenotype brings another level of complexity that is rarely accounted for,
113 despite emerging research showing diurnal variation in brain function.^{23, 37} Given that the DMN is
114 evidently vital to basic maintenance of consciousness, affected by sleep alterations, and plays a role in
115 cognitive functioning, it was used as the network of interest in the present study to examine the
116 impact of circadian phenotype on resting state brain function during the course of a typical societally
117 constrained day (08:00 h to 20:00 h). Both anterior (medial prefrontal cortex, mPFC) and posterior
118 (posterior cingulate cortex, PCC) regions of the DMN were used as seed regions to gather information
119 about the functional integrity of the DMN at rest, and these data linked to attentional performance and
120 sleepiness outside of the MRI scanner. We hypothesised that LCPs would show disrupted FC
121 compared to LCPs, and that FC differences would be correlated with behaviour.

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127 **Methods**

128 **Participants**

129
130 The study was approved by the University of Birmingham Research Ethics Committee. Individuals (n
131 = 204) from the University of Birmingham and surrounding community completed the Munich
132 Chronotype Questionnaire (MCTQ³⁸) and were screened for any contraindications to inclusion in the
133 study based on medical history and magnetic resonance safety. Exclusion criteria were; 1) no prior or
134 current diagnoses of sleep, neurological or psychiatric disorders; 2) taking medications that affect
135 sleep or melatonin/cortisol rhythms and; 3) intermediate chronotype indicated by corrected mid-sleep
136 times on free days (MSF_{sc}) from the MCTQ.

137 A total of 38 healthy individuals (14 male, 22.7 ± 4.2 years) who were categorised as ‘Early’ (n = 16,
138 age 24.7 ± 4.6 years, nine female, MSF_{sc} $02:24 \pm 00:10$ h) or ‘Late’ (n = 22, age 21.3 ± 3.3 years, 15
139 female, MSF_{sc} $06:52 \pm 00:17$ h) chronotypes and who also passed all inclusion criteria were invited to
140 take part in the main study. Participants gave written informed consent before involvement and all
141 details provided were given on a voluntary basis. After completing questionnaires, physiological
142 sampling and between 13-16 days of actigraphy in their home environment (details below),
143 participants attended the Birmingham University Imaging Centre for testing sessions at 14:00 h, 20:00
144 h and 08:00 h (GMT) the following morning. Individuals went home in between testing sessions.
145 Testing sessions were conducted in a specific order (14:00 h, 20:00 h and 08:00 h) to prevent the
146 14:00 h and 20:00 h sessions being affected by sleep deprivation. This design allowed all individuals
147 to wake up naturally for the 14:00 h and 20:00 h. Summary details of participants’ data can be found
148 in Table 1. At each testing session participants underwent a resting state fMRI and T1 scan followed
149 by cognitive testing (psychomotor vigilance and Stroop tasks) and subjective sleepiness ratings
150 (details below). As part of the cognitive testing that was completed at each session, a questionnaire
151 was developed and administered to gather details about what was occurring between sessions when
152 participants left the laboratory. In an attempt to partially control for external variables and confirm no
153 differences between the groups, information gathered included hours since; 1) food intake; 2) caffeine
154 consumption; 3) exercise; 4) exposure to natural light and 5) exposure to indoor light (Table 1).

155 Sleep Analysis

156

157 Actigraphs (Actiwatch® Light, AWLs, 2006, Cambridge Neurotechnology Ltd) were worn on

158 participants' non-dominant wrist to gather activity and light exposure data (1-32,000 lux) for 13-16

159 days prior to testing sessions. This allowed sleep and activity patterns to be monitored continuously in

160 the home environment. Data were acquired in 1-minute epochs (medium sensitivity setting),

161 confirmed with daily sleep diaries, and analysed using Sleep Analysis 7 Software (version 7.23,

162 Cambridge Neurotechnology Ltd). Throughout this period participants were following preferred

163 routines and were not confined to particular schedules.

164

165 Physiological Data

166

167 Saliva samples were provided during one morning and one evening the week of testing by spitting

168 into pre-labelled polypropylene collection tubes (7ml plastic bijou) following strict standardised

169 protocols. Participants were trained in how to take the saliva samples in their home environment

170 during their initial set up visit and the protocol instructions were discussed to ensure participants

171 understood what was required. In addition, a sample collection record sheet was attached to both

172 morning and evening protocols to ensure that the exact times samples were taken could be recorded.

173 During the sampling periods, participants were asked to abstain from caffeinated drinks, alcoholic

174 drinks or any drinks containing artificial colouring. They were also asked to refrain from cleaning

175 their teeth, chewing gum or going to the bathroom at least 15 minutes before each sample. Evening

176 samples were collected from a seated position whilst in dim lighting conditions (no overhead lights,

177 no electronic screens and curtains closed) every 30 minutes from three hours prior to individual

178 habitual bedtime until one hour after. Morning samples were collected on awakening, every 15

179 minutes for the first hour and every 30 minutes for the following two hours. All samples were

180 anonymised. Radioimmunoassays (RIA) of melatonin and cortisol were performed (Stockgrand Ltd,

181 University of Surrey) using an Iodine-125 radioactive labelled tracer and solid phase separation.³⁹

182 Assays were run with quality controls (QCs) before and after samples. These QC values were then

183 averaged to give one value per assay to calculate inter-assay coefficients of variation (CV %). The

184 limit of detection for the melatonin assay was 0.72 ± 0.08 pg/ml and CVs were 9.4 % at 44.4 pg/ml,
185 9.9 % at 20.1 pg/ml and 12.2 % at 9.0 pg/ml (n = 13 at each concentration). The limit of detection for
186 the cortisol assay was 0.45 ± 0.06 nmol/L and inter-assay CVs were 8.3 % at 48.0 nmol/l, 6.1 % at
187 15.9 nmol/l and 9.8 % at 3.0 nmol/l (n = 15 at each concentration).

188 Individual dim light melatonin onset (DLMO) values were calculated using the mean of the individual
189 baseline concentration values plus two standard deviations of the mean. Due to intra-subject
190 variability in melatonin concentrations these calculations were performed relative to each individual.
191 This concentration was used to calculate the timing of melatonin onset through a linear response
192 function. The peak time of the cortisol awakening response was calculated as the time of highest
193 cortisol concentration recorded. All results were calculated based on individual sample timings taken
194 from sample collection record sheets. Due to insufficient or contaminated samples, DLMO values
195 were unable to be calculated for two ECPs and four LCPs.

196

197 **Neuroimaging Acquisition**

198

199 Imaging data were acquired using a Philips Achieva 3T MRI scanner with a 32-channel head coil.
200 Whole brain coverage gradient echo-planar imaging data were acquired parallel to the AC-PC line
201 with the following parameters: 15 minutes, 450 volumes, TR = 2000 ms, TE = 35 ms, flip angle = 80°,
202 3 x 3 x 4 mm voxels, 32 slices, no gap, matrix = 80 x 80 x 32. Standard high resolution 3D anatomical
203 T1-weighted scans (sagittal acquisition, TR = 8.4 ms, TE = 3.8 ms, flip angle = 8°, 1 mm isotropic
204 voxel, matrix = 288 x 288 x 175) were also collected to facilitate co-registration. Respiratory and
205 cardiac fluctuations were recorded with the pulse oximeter and pneumatic belt provided by the
206 scanner manufacturer. A camera was placed in the scanner during each session to monitor
207 participants' eyes, confirm they remained open and that sleep had not been initiated. If eye closure
208 exceeded 15 s, which is half a 30 s epoch according to the standard sleep staging approach,⁴⁰ the scan
209 was re-started. This occurred in one scan for one participant. Standard Birmingham University
210 Imaging Centre operating procedures were followed for the MRI safety screening and during the
211 scanning sessions, and participants were not asked to perform any task.

212 **Neuroimaging Pre-processing**

213

214 fMRI preprocessing and analysis was performed using UF²C,⁴¹ PhysIO,⁴² and SPM12⁴³ toolboxes

215 implemented in MATLAB (MathWorks, USA). Preprocessing was carried out in UF²C using

216 standardised methodologies implemented in SPM12. Data were re-orientated to the anterior

217 commissure as origin, motion corrected using rigid body transformations (three translational and three

218 rotational planes), spatially normalised (MNI-152 template space), spatially smoothed with a 6 mm

219 Gaussian kernel and detrended (temporal linear trends removal). Physiological noise corrections

220 (RETROICOR for a 3rd order cardiac, 4th order respiratory, and 1st order interaction Fourier expansion

221 of cardiac and respiratory phase, heart rate variability and respiratory volume per time) were modelled

222 using the PhysIO toolbox. This resulted in 18 nuisance regressors which were added to preprocessing

223 routines in UF²C, along with average signals for white matter (WM) and cerebro-spinal fluid (CSF)

224 and six movement (three translational and three rotational) regressors. High-pass (> 0.008 Hz) and

225 low-pass (< 0.1 Hz) temporal filtering was applied to remove confounding physiological frequencies.

226 Framewise displacement (FD) and derivative variance (DVARs) were calculated,^{44, 45} and any scan

227 with an average FD value above 0.5 mm was excluded. This resulted in one scan (ECP, 14:00 h)

228 being removed from further analysis. Head movement (translational, rotational, FD and DVARs) did

229 not differ significantly between the groups or between times of day.

230

231 **Neuroimaging Analysis**

232

233 A seed-based FC approach was used to analyse the data using predefined seeds for the frontal (mPFC)

234 and posterior (PCC) regions of the DMN.⁴⁶ Pearson correlation maps were then converted to z-score

235 maps using Fisher's Transformation. Using the general linear model (GLM) implemented in SPM12,

236 second level group analyses were performed using a flexible factorial design. The second level

237 analyses were performed using a voxel-level threshold FWE corrected at $p < 0.05$. A subsequent

238 extent threshold (FWE corrected at $p < 0.05$) was used to concentrate on the significant results at the

239 cluster-level. Subject, group and time of day were added as factors and the model was set up for the

240 main effect of group (ECPs and LCPs), the main effect of time of day (morning; 08:00 h, afternoon;

241 14:00 h and evening: 20:00 h) as well as the interaction of group and time of day. All subject
242 variability including age and gender were accounted for as covariates by adding subject as a factor.
243 Descriptions of significant findings from the mPFC seed (voxel-level threshold FWE corrected at $p <$
244 0.05, with a subsequent extent threshold of 100 voxels) and PCC seed (voxel-level threshold FWE
245 corrected at $p < 0.05$, with a subsequent extent threshold of 150 voxels), are presented as total voxels,
246 peak t score and peak MNI centroid cluster coordinates [x y z]. Extent thresholds were selected as a
247 fifth of the biggest cluster. All significant areas were transformed in a binary mask and the z-scored
248 values from the correlation map within this mask were averaged generating a single value
249 representing average rs-FC across all significant clusters per participant for each scan. These values
250 were used to explore the predictive effects of rs-FC on attention and daytime sleepiness using
251 generalised estimating equations (details given in Statistical Analysis section).

252

253 **Attentional Performance & Sleepiness**

254

255 Following the scan, participants were immediately taken to a testing room where a two-minute
256 psychomotor vigilance task (PVT)⁴⁷ and a Stroop Colour-Word Task⁴⁸ were completed. A visual
257 version of the Stroop test was used which consisted of 60 trials with equal proportion of congruent
258 and incongruent stimuli (30 of each). Presentation time was not fixed i.e. stimuli were visible until
259 response. Reaction time values were used from the PVT and the Stroop task (averaged correct
260 congruent and incongruent trials) as indices of attentional performance. Incompletion of the Stroop
261 test resulted in one participant's results being excluded for further analysis. Daytime sleepiness,
262 measured using the Karolinska Sleepiness Scale (KSS),⁴⁹ was completed before the cognitive tests
263 were performed.

264

265 **Statistical Analysis**

266

267 Statistical comparisons of behavioural data were performed in GraphPad Prism (version 7, La Jolla,
268 USA) and SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics, version 24, Chicago) using two sided unpaired t-tests, Mann-
269 Whitney U tests, Fisher's exact test and linear regression after testing for equality of means with

270 Levene's test. All p-values were FDR corrected to control for multiple comparisons.⁵⁰ Diurnal
271 variations in performance and sleepiness variables were plotted using second order regression curves
272 and analysed using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for repeated measures with post hoc
273 multiple comparison tests. Non-parametric tests were implemented where data did not follow a
274 normal distribution.

275 To explore the predictive effects of rs-FC on performance variables and daytime sleepiness an
276 extension of the generalised linear model (generalised estimating equations, GEEs) were used in
277 SPSS. GEEs account for repeated measures and within subject variability and do not assume normal
278 distributions or linear relationships. GEEs are often used in studies with time of day data to model the
279 average effect, and have been used in sleep and circadian research to model the relationship between
280 insomnia, depression and chronotype¹⁶ as well as in studies on sleep durations^{51, 52} and circadian
281 patterns in epilepsy.⁵³ Data used in GEE analyses were z-scored average rs-FC values across all
282 clusters for each participant, individual reaction times (PVT and Stroop) and KSS score. A scale
283 linear response GEE with identity link function for scale data was used to model the independent
284 effects of rs-FC on attentional performance. A negative binomial GEE with log link function for count
285 data was used to model the effects of rs-FC on sleepiness. Both models were designed adding Subject
286 ID as a subject variable, and circadian phenotype (ECP/LCP) and time of day (08:00 h, 14:00 h and
287 20:00 h) as within-subject variables. Time of day was also added as a fixed factor. When interaction
288 terms were not significant they were removed from the model and the analysis re-run. Corrected quasi
289 likelihood under independence model criterion (QICC) values were used to choose the best fit for
290 models.

291 Significance levels are displayed as not significant (ns), $p < 0.05$ (*), $p < 0.01$ (**), $p < 0.001$ (***)
292 and $p < 0.0001$ (****). Exact p values are given apart from when significance is identified as less than
293 0.0001, in which case $p < 0.0001$ is reported. Results are shown using the mean \pm standard error of the
294 mean (SEM) unless specified otherwise.

295

296 **Results**

297 **Circadian Phenotyping**

298
299 Individuals were initially categorised into Early (n = 16) and Late (n = 22) chronotypes using MSF_{sc} ,
300 calculated using the MCTQ.³⁸ These groups were confirmed as ECPs and LCPs by analysis of
301 biological circadian phase markers, namely DLMO and time of peak morning concentration of the
302 cortisol awakening response, in addition to sleep start and wake up times calculated from actigraphy
303 analysis. All parameters were significantly different between the groups, occurring approximately 3.5
304 h – 4.5 h earlier in ECPs than LCPs (Table 1). MSF_{sc} was ~4 h earlier in ECPs compared to LCPs
305 ($t(36) = 12.2$, $p < 0.0001$). DLMO and peak time of morning cortisol also differed significantly by
306 ~3.5 h and ~4 h respectively ($t(30) = 6.8$, $p < 0.0001$ and $t(36) = 8.0$, $p < 0.0001$). These results were
307 consistent with sleep onset and wake up times calculated from actigraphy data, with a difference
308 between the groups of ~3.5 h ($t(34) = 8.9$, $p < 0.0001$ and $t(34) = 9.9$, $p < 0.0001$).

309 Each of these parameters was significantly correlated with MSF_{sc} (Figure 1). Significant linear
310 regressions were found between MSF_{sc} and DLMO ($R^2 = 0.65$, $p < 0.0001$), peak time of cortisol
311 awakening response ($R^2 = 0.75$, $p < 0.0001$), sleep onset ($R^2 = 0.80$, $p < 0.0001$) and wake up time (R^2
312 $= 0.86$, $p < 0.0001$). All other actigraphic parameters were not significantly different between ECPs
313 and LCPs (Table 1). As all participants in this study were following their preferred schedules for the
314 duration of the experiment, these findings confirmed that neither group were acutely sleep deprived
315 during the baseline period. However, in order to rule out a baseline sleep debt effect, additional
316 analyses were run to examine the relationships between sleep efficiency and rs-FC. No significant
317 correlations were found. These results support the classification into circadian phenotypes and
318 demonstrate that these two groups are behaviourally and physiologically different in sleep timings and
319 circadian phase but not in other sleep parameters.

320
321 *****INSERT TABLE 1*****

322 *****INSERT FIGURE 1*****

323 Resting state functional connectivity in circadian phenotypes

324

325 Whole group analyses showed a clear DMN from both seeds, with significant FC (FWE corrected $p <$

326 0.05) observed between all major components of the DMN including the PCC/precuneus, mPFC,

327 bilateral angular and temporal gyri, and cerebellum (Figure 2, grayscale underlay).

328 The flexible factorial model showed clear significant differences between circadian phenotype groups

329 but no significant main effect of time of day (Figure 2). ECPs had significantly increased FC

330 compared to LCPs at all times of day in 15 of the total 18 supra-threshold clusters identified from

331 both seeds (FWE corrected at $p < 0.05$). When seeding in the PCC, there was significantly higher FC

332 for ECPs from PCC to the precuneus, bilateral angular gyri, left medial temporal lobe, and cingulate

333 gyrus. The largest cluster was found in the mPFC, along with two clusters in the left medial frontal

334 and superior frontal lobe (Table 2 & Figure 2a-b). When seeding in the mPFC there was, again,

335 significantly higher FC in ECPs from the seed to seven individual clusters including: within the

336 mPFC, bilateral insula, left medial frontal lobe, left angular gyrus, left superior frontal gyrus, and

337 right medial temporal lobe (Table 2 & Figure 2d-e).

338 In comparison, LCPs had higher FC to three of the 18 identified clusters that survived FWE correction

339 at $p < 0.05$. When seeding in the mPFC, clusters were found in the anterior cingulate cortex and right

340 superior frontal gyrus, whilst seeding in the PCC identified a cluster in the left angular gyrus (Table 2

341 & Figure 2c,f).

342

343 *****INSERT TABLE 2*****

344 *****INSERT FIGURE 2*****

345

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354 Attentional Performance and Sleepiness

355

356 A significant interaction between circadian phenotype and time of day was found for PVT
357 performance ($F(2, 72) = 4.9, p = 0.01$) but not Stroop performance ($F(2, 70) = 1.6, p = 0.22$). The
358 main effect of time of day was significant for both PVT ($F(2, 72) = 3.2, p = 0.048$) and Stroop
359 performance ($F(2, 70) = 3.8, p = 0.028$) as well as the main effect of circadian phenotype for PVT
360 ($F(1, 36) = 4.4, p = 0.044$) but not Stroop ($F(1, 35) = 3.7, p = 0.063$) (Figure 3b,c). Post hoc tests
361 revealed that the source of group effect for PVT was the 08:00 h testing session, where LCPs'
362 performance was significantly worse than ECPs ($p = 0.0058$). Significant diurnal variations were
363 found for LCPs but not ECPs in both PVT and Stroop performance, showing that the source of time of
364 day effects were driven LCPs. LCPs morning PVT performance was significantly worse compared to
365 the afternoon and evening ($p = 0.0079$ and $p = 0.0006$). LCPs morning Stroop performance was
366 significantly better in the afternoon compared to morning ($p = 0.035$).

367 For the KSS, there was a significant interaction between time of day and circadian phenotype ($F(2,72)$
368 $= 18.1, p < 0.0001$), as well as a significant main effect of circadian phenotype ($F(1,36) = 9.2, p =$
369 0.0044) but not time of day ($F(2,72) = 2.0, p = 0.15$). Group effects were driven by LCPs being
370 significantly sleepier at 08:00 h compared to ECPs ($p < 0.0001$). The interaction effect revealed
371 significant diurnal variations in both groups with opposing relationships. ECPs were significantly
372 more sleepy in the evening (4.9 ± 0.4) compared to the morning (3.1 ± 0.4) ($p = 0.0054$). LCPs
373 showed the inverse relationship being significantly sleepier at 08:00 h (6.4 ± 0.3), compared to 14:00
374 h and 20:00 h (both $p < 0.0001$) (Figure 3a).

375

376 *INSERT FIGURE 3*****

377

378

379

380

381 Predicting Attentional Performance and Sleepiness

382 Rs-FC could independently predict performance variables (Figure 4). Using FC values from regions
383 with higher FC in ECPs than LCPs, GEEs showed that rs-FC of the mPFC could predict PVT ($W =$
384 $14.5, p < 0.0001$) and Stroop performance ($W = 9.0, p = 0.003$). Rs-FC of the PCC (ECPs > LCPs)
385 could also predict PVT performance ($W = 6.4, p = 0.012$) but not Stroop performance ($W = 2.5, p =$
386 0.12). Sleepiness score could be predicted by rs-FC of the PCC ($W = 6.0, p = 0.015$) but not rs-FC of
387 the mPFC ($W = 1.5, p = 0.22$). No significant predictive effects of rs-FC were found for regions
388 higher in LCPs (LCPs > ECPs) for either seed.

389 Time of day was also a significant independent predictor of performance and sleepiness. Using the
390 mPFC model, time of day could predict PVT ($W = 9.2, p = 0.01$) but not Stroop performance ($W =$
391 $5.1, p = 0.078$). Using the PCC model, time of day was a significant predictor of both PVT and Stroop
392 performance ($W = 6.3, p = 0.042$ and $W = 7.1, p = 0.028$ respectively). Sleepiness could be
393 independently predicted by time of day (mPFC: $W = 17.1, p < 0.0001$ and PCC: $W = 11.1, p = 0.004$)
394 as well as by the interaction of rs-FC and time of day for both models (mPFC: $W = 14.5, p = 0.001$
395 and PCC: $W = 8.7, p = 0.013$).

396 In summary, averaged rs-FC of the mPFC from the regions higher in ECPs compared to LCPs
397 predicted better attentional performance i.e. faster reaction times in both PVT and Stroop
398 performance. Similarly, the equivalent measures from the PCC seed could predict better PVT
399 performance and lower daytime sleepiness but not Stroop performance. The interaction of time of day
400 and rs-FC predicted daytime sleepiness for both seeds. Time of day independently predicted
401 attentional performance and sleepiness variables in both models. Averaged rs-FC from regions
402 showing higher FC in LCPs compared to ECPs for both seeds showed no predictive effects on
403 attentional performance or sleepiness, with only time of day predicting PVT and Stroop performance.

404

405 *****INSERT FIGURE 4*****

406

407 **Discussion**

408 According to previous research only around 15% of the population falls into extreme or moderate
409 Early chronotypes (going to sleep from between 20:30 – 23:00 h and waking between 04:30 – 07:00
410 h),⁷ meaning the majority of the population would not usually fit into the standard working schedule,
411 preferring to go to sleep and wake up later. Consequently, many individuals, in particular those with
412 extreme late preferences who can be classified as LCPs, are constantly fighting their innate circadian
413 phenotype and sleep patterns to fit into socio-professional routines.

414 Here we show, for the first time, fundamental differences in FC of the DMN between ECPs and LCPs
415 during a typical working day (08:00 h – 20:00 h). Regardless of time of day, ECPs had higher rs-FC
416 than LCPs in the majority of regions identified. Many of the regions identified as having higher rs-FC
417 in ECPs are linked to cognitive function and control, including the right and left anterior insula (rAI
418 and lAI), two main regions which are also featured in the salience network. FC between the mPFC
419 and the rAI has previously been shown to correlate with cumulative habitual sleep duration,²² and
420 with the current data this suggests that mPFC-insula FC during wakefulness could also be sensitive to
421 sleep timings and circadian phenotype. Given that connectivity between similar regions are associated
422 with either sleep duration or timing, these regions could be more broadly related to sleep and highlight
423 the potential importance of inter-network connectivity. Furthermore, rs-FC of these regions was
424 predictive of attentional performance measures i.e. reaction time and subjective sleepiness. While we
425 are not able to identify the causality of the relationships unambiguously within our experimental
426 design, this could suggest that the higher rs-FC of the DMN observed in ECPs over relatively
427 widespread regions mediates improved task performance. It is also important to note that whilst the
428 interpretation of FC can be partially based on activation studies using task-based fMRI, the
429 relationship between connectivity and activation is not straightforward and remains an active area of
430 research.^{54, 55}

431 Interactions between the brainstem arousal systems and ventrolateral preoptic nucleus of the
432 hypothalamus are known to play in determining circadian rhythmicity and sleep-wake cycles. The
433 impact of an underlying biological predisposition (e.g. circadian phenotype) to particular sleep-wake

434 patterns on brain function and subsequently behaviour has not previously been demonstrated, but is
435 consistent with previous observations linking FC to behavioural performance⁵⁶ and habitual sleep
436 durations.²² Therefore, an alternative proposal would be that there could be other brain regions, shown
437 here in DMN FC, that contribute to variability between circadian phenotypes. These differences in
438 intrinsic FC have not previously been linked to the known role of the DMN presenting an interesting
439 area for future research.

440 Of the 18 regions identified as being significantly different in terms of their FC between ECPs and
441 LCPs, the substantial majority (83%) demonstrated higher FC in ECPs. This suggests that an early
442 sleep-wake pattern is generally associated with higher FC from the primary nodes of the DMN. Since
443 the 08:00 h session required LCPs to wake earlier, these individuals were suffering from acute sleep
444 restriction. As a result, the morning session was expected to show the greatest difference between the
445 groups. PVT performance and sleepiness scores exhibited significant diurnal variations and were
446 significantly lower in LCPs compared to ECPs at 08:00 h, suggesting that these measures could be
447 sensitive to the curtailment in sleep. However, this result is not reflected in FC, which shows
448 consistent group differences at each time point but no significant diurnal variations. As such, these
449 findings could be due to more intrinsic circadian phenotype traits and not acute sleep restriction.
450 While LCPs tend to be heavily disrupted throughout their lifetimes when enforced to fit to
451 conventional societal days, those taking part in the current study were able to follow their own
452 preferred routines throughout the study and had comparable sleep parameters to ECPs (e.g. duration,
453 efficiency) with only sleep timings differing significantly. This would support the notion of LCPs
454 showing adverse effects when persistently following an earlier schedule during the work week, even
455 when trying to compensate on non-working 'free' days.¹⁹ It is likely that a more chronic effect of
456 long-term misalignment, e.g. years of having to fit into school and subsequent work schedules, may
457 extend to impact on intrinsic brain properties even when individuals are able to follow their own
458 schedules for a period of two weeks. This is consistent with observations of continued cognitive
459 deficits following prolonged shift work, even after the shift work has ceased.⁵⁷ Therefore, these

460 findings may be underestimating the differences in FC and performance, which could be exacerbated
461 by acute disruption.

462 The increasingly sophisticated ability of fMRI to probe and quantify the human brain's functional
463 architecture opens up new possibilities for understanding the impact of sleep and circadian
464 preferences at the level of the individual. While considerable advances have been made in
465 understanding the cellular and genetic underpinnings of sleep and circadian rhythmicity,⁵⁸ and
466 behavioural effects have been characterised,⁷ only recently have the methods been available to study
467 their impacts on the human brain *in vivo*. These developments are crucial, given the intrinsic
468 importance of understanding human brain function and the commonly-held view that the primary
469 purpose of sleep is for the brain.⁵⁹ The use of rs-FC is particularly attractive for this endeavour
470 because of the pervasiveness of the behavioural and cognitive effects of sleep patterns and circadian
471 phenotype, which lend themselves to characterisation of intrinsic network function rather than the
472 more limited task responses. More broadly, the approach we have taken provides important
473 information about how intrinsic lifestyle factors and biological phenotypes are reflected in the brain's
474 default state (DMN), suggesting new avenues for understanding individual differences in behaviour.

475 Our analysis revealed that rs-FC of the DMN can independently predict measures of task performance
476 and subjective daytime sleepiness. This suggests that the higher strength of rs-FC between these
477 regions, the better an individual performs in an attention task and the less sleepy they feel. Since our
478 analysis used seeds within the DMN, one could infer that the functional integrity of connections from
479 key regions of the DMN facilitates attentional performance, and that perturbations of the DMN
480 associated with misalignment are detrimental (caveats regarding causality as discussed above
481 notwithstanding). The DMN is important in maintenance of consciousness, and includes cognitive
482 domains sub-served by the frontal cortex.⁶⁰ Altered functional connectivity of the DMN has been
483 reported in a number of psychiatric disorders, suggesting that disrupted integrity of this network is
484 linked to psychological processes (see ⁶¹ for review). Although decreased FC does not always relate to
485 decreased task performance, reduced connectivity from mPFC and PCC regions of the DMN has been
486 proposed to underlie impairments in attentional control, working memory and emotional processing.⁶¹

487 The majority of this research, investigating both DMN connectivity and activation, has reported
488 decreased FC in disorders such as Alzheimer's, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and autism.
489 Conversely, an increase in FC from the subgenual anterior cingulate has been associate with
490 depression.⁶² We find that ECPs have higher rs-FC from the majority of significant clusters. However,
491 of the three clusters that we identify as having higher rs-FC in LCPs, one was in the anterior cingulate
492 cortex. Since LCPs are a group who have frequently been linked to higher rates of depression, this
493 result has potentially uncovered an interesting avenue for future work and highlights that interpreting
494 increases/decreases in rs-FC are not always straightforward. Adding to the growing body of research
495 into the consequences of disrupted DMN rs-FC, we now show that circadian and sleep variations can
496 contribute to understanding how the integrity of the DMN at rest could hold a key role in achieving
497 optimal cognitive functioning (shown here using attentional tasks).

498 Previous research has shown diurnal variations in FC of resting state networks, suggesting that
499 different ICNs have varying sensitivity to time of day.^{23, 37} However, although in the current study
500 diurnal variations were found in attentional performance and sleepiness measures, using a flexible
501 factorial design to account for the complex study design, we found that the effect of circadian
502 phenotype on rs-FC was much more marked than the effect of time of day. This suggests that rs-FC of
503 the DMN is primarily sensitive to stable, trait-like differences between the two groups rather than
504 more dynamic state-like effects. This is consistent with the fact that habitual sleep patterns have been
505 linked with anatomical⁶³ as well as functional²² differences, suggesting long term modifications to
506 brain function can occur as a result of modifications to the underlying structure. However, it is
507 possible that the examination of additional networks beyond the DMN and the use of dynamic FC⁶⁴
508 would identify state-like impacts of circadian misalignment which might be more sensitive to the
509 effects of time of day. It is also important to note that these data were gathered during typical working
510 hours (08:00 h – 20:00 h) which could have resulted in failure to record time points in which LCPs
511 could have shown higher FC and better attentional performance. However, LCPs are under constant
512 pressure to fight against their endogenously driven circadian rhythms to fit into socio-professional

513 imposed schedules. This could cause them to be in a state of ‘perpetual chronodisruption’ despite
514 being able to follow their preferred schedules for the duration of this study.

515 There are a number of limitations to this study. Firstly, to be able to investigate how ECPs and LCPs
516 behave during a ‘normal socially constrained day’ e.g. 08:00 h to 20:00 h, the study was designed
517 using clock time instead of scheduling testing based on internal biological time. Although this design
518 does not allow sleep and circadian influences to be separated, there is increasing need to carry out
519 ‘real world’ studies to increase external validity as behaviour is impacted by both factors. In addition,
520 we only investigated one ICN, the DMN, and therefore limit the ability to explore more complex
521 whole brain inter- and intra- network functional connectivity. Both the mPFC and PCC regions of the
522 DMN were used as seeds because although the DMN is a coherent network, each of the regions that
523 comprise it also have other functions and potentially have different susceptibility to the impact of
524 circadian phenotype and time of day. Since the DMN is the most widely studied ICN, holds a key
525 role in maintenance of consciousness, is affected by sleep, and disruption of this network has been
526 linked to impaired attentional control, there was a strong rationale to choose it as the network of
527 interest and provides a useful starting point for a relatively unexplored field. Nonetheless, studying
528 the impact of circadian phenotype on other ICNs, as well as other measures of cognition which could
529 be impacted differently, would be an important next step for future work. Similarly, given that ECPs
530 and LCPs differ significantly in their physiology, another important step would be to explore
531 biological and genetic mechanisms behind the observed changes in rs-FC.

532 The majority of variables were evenly matched between the groups with the exception of sleep
533 timings (onset/offset) and circadian phase markers (DLMO). Sleep efficiency values were relatively
534 low for healthy controls, although sleep durations are in the normal range for this cohort of young
535 adults and additional analysis showed no significant correlations of sleep efficiency and rs-FC. This
536 suggests that there is no baseline sleep debt effect and both groups are not acutely suffering from
537 sleep debt during the course of this study. This allows us to confidently state we have distinct
538 circadian phenotype differences. We did have a slight but significant difference in age between the

539 groups, although not sufficient to account for the differences since studies examining the relationship
540 between FC of the DMN and age demonstrate that FC is stable from young adulthood until 50-60y.⁶⁵
541 Throughout the duration of the study, participants were following their preferred routines to allow a
542 true indication of the impact of circadian phenotype in the absence of masking effects. However, this
543 is likely to underestimate the practical impact on LCPs of conforming to a societal day, since in
544 reality the LCPs are likely to have an additional burden of sleep debt which will have its own negative
545 effect. In our study, the 08:00 h session will have caused the LCPs to wake earlier than usual and,
546 therefore, be affected by sleep restriction. Although we are not able to determine the extent of
547 shortening the sleep period before the morning session, the lack of diurnal variations found in FC
548 suggests that we have identified more circadian trait-like differences between the groups. In addition,
549 since LCPs commonly have to get up prior to habitual wake up time, this study was specifically
550 conducted to investigate these individuals in a ‘real-world’ situation. Dissociating the impact of
551 circadian misalignment and sleep deprivation is often difficult, with protocols such as forced
552 desynchrony and constant routine generally providing the gold standard. However, these protocols
553 have disadvantages in terms of their ability to understand the impact of differences in habitual sleep
554 patterns and circadian phenotype on the brain and behaviour. Future work will need to make use of
555 these protocols and to study individuals who are acutely misaligned in order to explore the longer
556 term effect on the brain of chronic misalignment.

557

558 **Conclusions**

559

560 In summary, we find that there are fundamental differences in the intrinsic FC of the DMN between
561 ECPs and LCPs during a typical ‘societally constrained’ working day. Rs-FC of the DMN can predict
562 attentional performance measures and subjective sleepiness differences, which are also modulated by
563 time of day. These findings could contribute to the neural basis underlying performance and health
564 differences between ECPs and LCPs in the real world and have implications for future research.
565 Firstly, an individual’s circadian phenotype should be a factor that is taken into account when using
566 fMRI for research and clinical applications, as should habitual sleep status and duration.²² Secondly,

567 we provide a deeper understanding of the biological basis of individual differences in the DMN that
568 may be associated with negative outcomes in LCPs. Finally, LCPs are impaired during typical
569 socially constrained days, which could result in lower FC and lead to their diminished morning
570 performance and increased daytime sleepiness. This suggests a need to be more conscious about how
571 to manage time on an individual basis in order to maximise productivity and minimise health risks.

572

573 **Abbreviations list**

574

575 ECP: Early circadian phenotype

576 LCP: Late circadian phenotype

577 ICNs: Intrinsically connected networks

578 FC: Functional connectivity

579 Rs-FC: Resting-state functional connectivity

580 DMN: Default mode network

581 MSF_{sc} : Corrected mid-sleep on free days

582 DLMO: Dim light melatonin onset

583 KSS: Karolinska Sleepiness Scale

584 PVT: Psychomotor vigilance task

585

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587

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596 **Author Contributions**

597

598 E.F.C. and A.P.B. designed the study with contributions from D.J.S. B.M.C. developed the

599 neuroimaging software used for the analyses and were involved in analysis of the data. E.F.C

600 collected and processed the MRI data with contributions from A.P.B. and B.M.C. RIA analyses was

601 performed by B.M. E.F.C wrote the manuscript with contributions from A.P.B. All other authors

602 commented on the manuscript.

603

604 **Disclosure Statement**

605

606 B.M. and D.J.S. are co-directors of Stockgrand Ltd. The authors declare no other competing financial

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766 advanced aging. *Neuron* 2007;56:924-35.

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775 **Table 1. Summary of demographic, actigraphic and physiological variables for Early (ECPs)**
 776 **and Late (LCPs) circadian phenotypes.** Values are shown as mean \pm SEM unless specified.
 777 Significance is shown with ^aparametric tests, ^bnon-parametric tests or ^cFisher's exact test. Phase angle
 778 is calculated by the interval time between dim light melatonin onset and sleep onset.
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Variable Measured (mean \pm SEM)	ECPs	LCPs	Significance
Demographic variables			
Sample Size	N = 16	N = 22	n/a
Number of Scans/Testing Sessions	N = 48	N = 66	n/a
Percentage of Males/Females (%)	M = 43.8	M = 31.8	ns ^c
	F = 56.3	F = 68.2	ns ^c
Age (years) (mean \pm s.d.)	24.7 \pm 4.0	21.2 \pm 3.3	p = 0.028 ^a
Height (cm)	171.3 \pm 2.0	171.1 \pm 2.4	ns ^a
Weight (kg)	66.4 \pm 2.8	67.1 \pm 2.1	ns ^a
MCTQ Score (hh:mm)	02:24 \pm 00:10	06:52 \pm 00:17	p < 0.0001 ^a
Actigraphic variables			
Sleep Onset (hh:mm)	22:57 \pm 00:10	02:27 \pm 00:19	p < 0.0001 ^a
Wake Up Time (hh:mm)	06:33 \pm 0.10	10:13 \pm 00:18	p < 0.0001 ^a
Sleep Duration (h)	7.59 \pm 0.18	7.70 \pm 0.14	ns ^a
Sleep Efficiency (%)	79.29 \pm 1.96	77.23 \pm 1.14	ns ^a
Sleep Onset Latency (hh:mm)	00:25 \pm 00:06	00:25 \pm 00:03	ns ^b
Physiological variables			
Phase Angle (hh:mm)	02:28 \pm 00:16	02:34 \pm 00:18	ns ^a
Dim Light Melatonin Onset (hh:mm)	20:27 \pm 00:16	23:55 \pm 00:26	p < 0.0001 ^a
Cortisol Peak Time (hh:mm)	07:04 \pm 00:16	11:13 \pm 00:23	p < 0.0001 ^a
External variables (between sessions)			
Hours since last meal (h)	3.58 \pm 0.55	5.07 \pm 0.58	ns ^b
Hours since caffeine (h)	8.47 \pm 0.67	7.85 \pm 0.82	ns ^b
Hours since exercise (h)	6.78 \pm 0.74	7.44 \pm 0.74	ns ^b
Hours since natural light exposure (h)	5.87 \pm 0.80	3.51 \pm 0.58	ns ^b
Hours since indoor light exposure (h)	1.88 \pm 0.38	3.32 \pm 0.51	ns ^b

780 **Table 2.** Summary of significant brain regions (FWE, $p < 0.05$) between Early circadian phenotypes
 781 (ECPs) and Late circadian phenotypes (LCPs) when seeding in the posterior cingulate cortex (PCC)
 782 and medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC).
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Region	Contrast	Seed region	Cluster size (voxels)	MNI centroid coordinates [x y z]	Maximum t-score
Medial Prefrontal Cortex	ECPs > LCPs	PCC	789	[-2 72 12]	13.71
Right Angular Gyrus	ECPs > LCPs	PCC	481	[46 -68 26]	8.14
Precuneus	ECPs > LCPs	PCC	431	[0 -64 18]	9.73
Left Angular Gyrus	ECPs > LCPs	PCC	257	[-54 -62 18]	14.75
Left Medial Temporal Lobe	ECPs > LCPs	PCC	237	[-58 -6 -24]	7.94
Left Superior Frontal Gyrus	ECPs > LCPs	PCC	212	[-18 60 26]	7.91
Left Medial Frontal Lobe	ECPs > LCPs	PCC	173	[-46 16 56]	8.71
Cingulate Gyrus	ECPs > LCPs	PCC	150	[-16 -42 26]	18.90
Left Angular Gyrus	LCPs > ECPs	PCC	428	[-32 -54 26]	16.29
Medial Prefrontal Cortex	ECPs > LCPs	mPFC	384	[2 70 6]	10.99
Left Anterior Insula	ECPs > LCPs	mPFC	378	[-26 14 -24]	8.87
Right Anterior Insula	ECPs > LCPs	mPFC	241	[26 18 -20]	9.36
Left Medial Frontal Lobe	ECPs > LCPs	mPFC	160	[-44 16 56]	9.62
Left Angular Gyrus	ECPs > LCPs	mPFC	134	[-56 -58 18]	10.19
Left Superior Frontal Gyrus	ECPs > LCPs	mPFC	111	[-4 68 28]	8.96
Right Medial Temporal Lobe	ECPs > LCPs	mPFC	108	[68 -12 -8]	6.15
Anterior Cingulate	LCPs > ECPs	mPFC	233	[22 44 10]	7.20
Right Superior Frontal Gyrus	LCPs > ECPs	mPFC	161	[22 42 52]	6.55

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794 **Figure Captions**

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796 **Figure 1. Linear relationships between corrected mid-sleep on free days (MSF_{sc}) and biological**
797 **phase markers to validate circadian phenotyping.** a) Dim light melatonin onset, b) Sleep onset, c)
798 Time of peak cortisol concentration, d) Wake up time. MSF_{sc} is displayed as time of day (h) on the x
799 axis. Statistical analysis was carried out using linear regression analysis. Significance (**** = p <
800 0.0001) and R² values are shown in the bottom right corner.

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802 **Figure 2. Resting state functional connectivity (rs-FC) of the Default Mode Network between**
803 **Early and Late circadian phenotypes (ECP/LCP).** Z-transformed connectivity maps show
804 significant clusters (FWE corrected p < 0.05 at voxel level and subsequent cluster level) and t-score
805 scales for each contrast are shown in the center. Overall results from each seed are shown in a/d with
806 results from each time point (hours) represented in b/c and e/f. a) Summary results from the posterior
807 cingulate cortex (PCC) seed with diurnal variations between circadian phenotype groups plotted in b)
808 and c). d) Summary results from medial prefrontal cortex seed (mPFC) with diurnal variations
809 between circadian phenotype groups plotted in e) and f). Significant regions at the whole group level
810 are represented in grayscale. Regions higher in ECPs (ECPs > LCPs) are shown in red and regions
811 higher in LCPs (LCPs > ECPs) in green. Statistical analysis for a) and d) was carried out using a
812 flexible factorial model in SPM12. Two-way ANOVA was used to analyse group and time of day
813 differences in b), c), e) and f). * = p < 0.05, *** = p < 0.001, **** = p < 0.0001.

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815 **Figure 3. Nonlinear regression curves to show diurnal variations in sleepiness, Psychomotor**
816 **vigilance (PVT) and Stroop performance.** a) Subjective sleepiness score measured with the
817 Karolinska Sleepiness Scale. b) PVT performance (reaction time in seconds), c) Stroop performance
818 (reaction time in seconds) for Early circadian phenotypes (white) and Late circadian phenotypes
819 (grey). Clock time of test (h) is shown on the x axis for each parameter. Statistical analysis was
820 carried out using two-way ANOVA. Post hoc multiple comparison tests were run to determine group
821 and time of day effects. * = p < 0.05, ** = p < 0.01, *** = p < 0.001, **** = p < 0.0001.

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824 **Figure 4. Summary of predictive analysis using resting state functional connectivity (rs-FC) to**
825 **predict attentional performance and subjective daytime sleepiness (black boxes).** Solid arrows
826 indicate the predictive effects of rs-FC on attentional performance (psychomotor vigilance task, PVT
827 and Stroop task) and sleepiness variables for models using data from seeds in the medial prefrontal
828 (mPFC) and posterior cingulate (PCC) cortices. Dotted lines and red boxes indicate where time of day
829 or the interaction of time of day and rs-FC was also found to be a significant factor.

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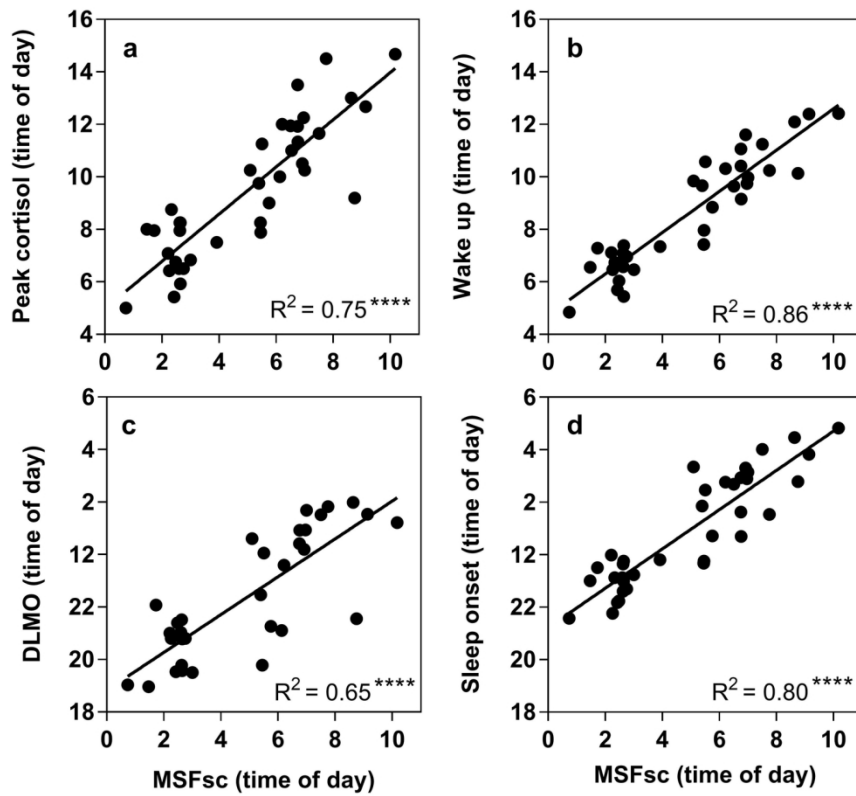


Figure 1. Linear relationships between corrected mid-sleep on free days (MSFsc) and biological phase markers to validate circadian phenotyping. a) Dim light melatonin onset, b) Sleep onset, c) Time of peak cortisol concentration, d) Wake up time. MSFsc is displayed as time of day (h) on the x axis. Statistical analysis was carried out using linear regression analysis. Significance (**** = $p < 0.0001$) and R2 values are shown in the bottom right corner.

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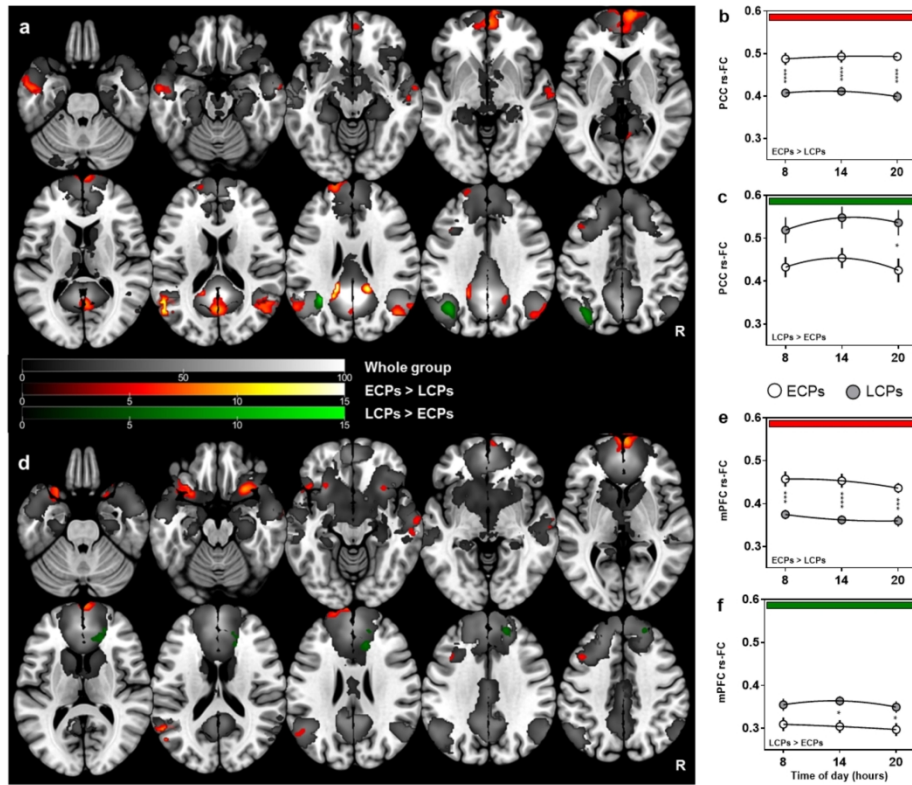


Figure 2. Resting state functional connectivity (rs-FC) of the Default Mode Network between Early and Late circadian phenotypes (ECP/LCP). Z-transformed connectivity maps show significant clusters (FWE corrected $p < 0.05$ at voxel level and subsequent cluster level) and t-score scales for each contrast are shown in the center. Overall results from each seed are shown in a/d with results from each time point (hours) represented in b/c and e/f. a) Summary results from the posterior cingulate cortex (PCC) seed with diurnal variations between circadian phenotype groups plotted in b) and c). d) Summary results from medial prefrontal cortex seed (mPFC) with diurnal variations between circadian phenotype groups plotted in e) and f). Significant regions at the whole group level are represented in grayscale. Regions higher in ECPs (ECPs > LCPs) are shown in red and regions higher in LCPs (LCPs > ECPs) in green. Statistical analysis for a) and d) was carried out using a flexible factorial model in SPM12. Two-way ANOVA was used to analyse group and time of day differences in b), c), e) and f). * = $p < 0.05$, *** = $p < 0.001$, **** = $p < 0.0001$.

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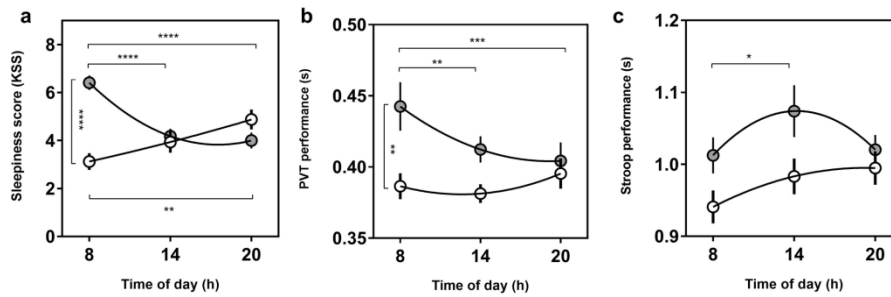


Figure 3. Nonlinear regression curves to show diurnal variations in sleepiness, Psychomotor vigilance (PVT) and Stroop performance. a) Subjective sleepiness score measured with the Karolinska Sleepiness Scale. b) PVT performance (reaction time in seconds), c) Stroop performance (reaction time in seconds) for Early circadian phenotypes (white) and Late circadian phenotypes (grey). Clock time of test (h) is shown on the x axis for each parameter. Statistical analysis was carried out using two-way ANOVA. Post hoc multiple comparison tests were run to determine group and time of day effects. * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$, **** = $p < 0.0001$.

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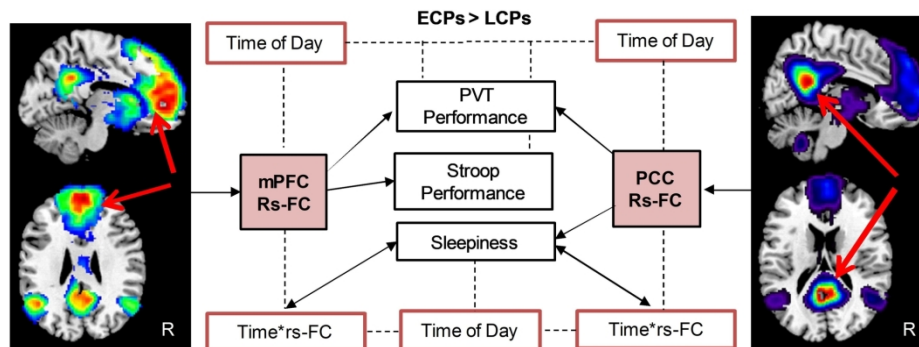


Figure 4. Summary of predictive analysis using resting state functional connectivity (rs-FC) to predict attentional performance and subjective daytime sleepiness (black boxes). Solid arrows indicate the predictive effects of rs-FC on attentional performance (psychomotor vigilance task, PVT and Stroop task) and sleepiness variables for models using data from seeds in the medial prefrontal (mPFC) and posterior cingulate (PCC) cortices. Dotted lines and red boxes indicate where time of day or the interaction of time of day and rs-FC was also found to be a significant factor.

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