

1 **Abstract**

2 Repetitive negative thinking (RNT) is a cognitive process characterised by intrusive,
3 repetitive, and difficult-to-disengage-from negative thoughts. Heightened RNT levels are
4 prevalent across clinical disorders and have been associated with ill-health (e.g.
5 cardiovascular disease), even at lower, non-clinical levels. Identifying the neuroanatomical
6 correlates of RNT could help characterise structural alterations that transcend diagnostic
7 boundaries and further understanding of the pathogenesis of clinical disorders. We therefore
8 conducted a systematic review to investigate associations between RNT and brain
9 morphology. Following title/abstract and full-text screening, 24 studies were included. We
10 found evidence that RNT severity is associated with grey and white matter
11 volumes/microstructure, particularly in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, anterior cingulate
12 cortex and superior longitudinal fasciculus, regions heavily implicated in cognitive control,
13 and emotional processing and regulation. However, inconsistent associations, potentially due
14 to the heterogeneity of included studies (e.g. methodological differences, type of RNT
15 assessed), preclude specific conclusions being reached regarding any one region's association
16 with RNT. Further, given the diffuse nature of thoughts, it may be that RNT is associated with
17 distributed brain regions operating within large-scale networks, rather than with a single
18 structure. High quality longitudinal studies, investigating structural networks, are required to
19 confirm the neuroanatomical basis of RNT and elucidate the direction of relationships.

20

21 **Key words**

22 Worry; Rumination; Perseverative cognition; Gray matter; White matter; MRI

23

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Repetitive negative thinking (RNT) is a cognitive process characterised by persistent negative
26 and self-relevant thoughts that are difficult to disengage from (Harvey et al., 2004). It
27 encompasses both worry (future-directed negative thoughts) and rumination (past-directed
28 [e.g. depression-related, anger-related] negative thoughts) and describes the thought process
29 rather than its time orientation or content. Heightened levels of RNT are observed across
30 clinical disorders and are thought to contribute to the development, maintenance and
31 reoccurrence of psychopathologies, such as anxiety and depression (Kaplan et al., 2018;
32 Watkins, 2008). Correspondingly, RNT has been conceptualised as a transdiagnostic process
33 that is prevalent across a wide spectrum of clinical disorders (Harvey et al., 2004; McEvoy et
34 al., 2013). Further, as RNT describes a dimensional rather than categorical process, it is also
35 present in non-clinical populations, albeit to a lesser extent (Ehring & Watkins, 2008). Even
36 at lower, non-clinical levels RNT has been associated with ill-health including increased
37 physiological stress responses (e.g. higher blood pressure, increased cortisol secretion), poor
38 sleep and cognitive decline (Clancy et al., 2016; Marchant et al., 2020; Ottaviani et al., 2016).
39 However, despite the increasingly recognised relevance of RNT to physical and mental
40 health, the anatomical correlates of RNT have not been robustly examined.

41

42 Studies investigating the anatomical and functional correlates of RNT have largely focussed
43 on brain regions commonly associated with depression and anxiety, such as regions
44 belonging to the default mode network (e.g. medial prefrontal cortex, posterior cingulate
45 cortex and angular gyrus), the amygdala and hippocampus (Bora et al., 2012; Etkin & Wager,
46 2007; Kolesar et al., 2019). However, disparate methodologies and the propensity for studies
47 to consider worry and rumination as separate factors, rather than as a single transdiagnostic
48 factor (i.e. RNT), have resulted in inconsistent and incommensurable findings. In an attempt

49 to overcome these limitations and identify the functional correlates of RNT, Makovac and
50 colleagues (2020) pooled functional neuroimaging investigations of worry and rumination for
51 meta-analysis. Their analysis of 43 studies revealed that RNT involves engagement of
52 prefrontal, insula and cingulate regions (Makovac et al., 2020). The authors propose that the
53 interactions between these regions may underlie the characteristic conjunction of negative
54 and self-relevant thoughts with (aberrant) cognitive control and heightened physiological
55 arousal (Makovac et al., 2020). This meta-analysis contributes important knowledge about
56 the brain regions involved in the *process* (i.e. neural mechanisms) of RNT, however, the
57 long-term grey and white matter alterations that may either antecede RNT or occur as a result
58 of prolonged engagement in RNT remain unknown. Identifying both the functional and
59 structural correlates of RNT has the potential to increase our understanding of the underlying
60 pathophysiology of RNT, which may ultimately manifest in clinical benefits. Further,
61 ascertaining the neuroanatomical correlates of RNT could help characterise structural
62 alterations that transcend diagnostic boundaries and advance our understanding of the
63 pathogenesis of clinical disorders. We therefore conducted a systematic review of structural
64 neuroimaging studies which investigated associations between RNT and regional grey and
65 white matter correlates.

66 67 **2. Methods**

68 The systematic review was conducted in accordance with the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting
69 Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) guidelines (Moher et al., 2009) and was
70 registered on PROSPERO (CRD42018116615).

71 72 *2.1. Literature search*

73 Four search strategies were employed to collate relevant articles. First, seven databases
74 (Embase, Medline, PsycInfo, PsycBooks, PubMed, Scopus and Web of Science) were

75 searched through to February 2020. Second, the reference lists of existing RNT-related
76 systematic reviews and articles were examined for relevant primary studies. Third, as
77 unpublished research may systematically differ from published research, searches to identify
78 unpublished 'grey' literature were conducted on ClinicalTrials.gov, Open Grey, ProQuest and
79 PsycExtra (Hedges & Cooper, 2009). Fourth, the first 300 papers on Google Scholar were
80 searched, as per guidance (Haddaway et al., 2015).

81

82 *2.2. Search strategy*

83 For a complete overview of the search strategy see Appendix A. Briefly, the search strategy
84 consisted of two components related to RNT (i.e. worry and rumination) and neuroimaging
85 modalities, respectively. Search terms were marginally edited for different databases to
86 account for the requirements of different search engines, and in databases which allowed,
87 appropriate MeSH terms were included to supplement the existing search strategy. No limits
88 were placed on country, language or date of publication. Animal studies were removed safely
89 following Cochrane guidelines (Lefebvre et al., 2011).

90

91 *2.3. Selection criteria*

92 Covidence was used to facilitate screening (Veritas Health Innovation). Two researchers
93 independently screened titles and abstracts, followed by full texts against eligibility criteria to
94 identify relevant articles. Cases of disagreement were resolved through discussions with a
95 third reviewer. Inter-rater agreement was assessed via Cohen's kappa coefficient (κ) and
96 percentage agreement.

97

98 Eligibility criteria were: (i) adults (mean age of ≥ 18 years), (ii) non-clinical populations or
99 clinical populations identified by Harvey et al., (2004) to engage in RNT (i.e. panic disorder

100 with and without agoraphobia, social phobia, post-traumatic stress disorder, unipolar
101 depression, bipolar depression and psychotic disorder) who received a diagnosis according to
102 internationally recognised criteria (e.g. International Classification of Diseases). To align
103 with recent research (e.g. Ottaviani et al., 2016), eligible clinical populations were broadened
104 to include all types of anxiety and depressive disorders. Furthermore, (iii) studies including
105 participants with comorbidities (physical or psychological) were eligible, with the caveat that
106 the comorbidity was not the reason for recruitment.

107

108 Additional eligibility criteria included: (iv) use of a state or trait questionnaire to assess RNT,
109 (v) an analysis (correlation or equivalent) between RNT and a neurobiological measure, and
110 (vi) studies that were either experimental, quasi-experimental or observational. Interventional
111 studies were also eligible, but only if pre-treatment associations were reported. Authors of
112 eligible studies were contacted if articles were unobtainable or additional information was
113 required.

114

115 In light of a recent comprehensive systematic review and meta-analysis of the functional
116 basis of RNT (Makovac et al., 2020), only studies investigating the structural correlates of
117 RNT were included in this current review.

118

119 *2.4. Data extraction*

120 A standardised form was developed to extract the following information from eligible
121 studies: (i) authors and year of publication; (ii) characteristics of study sample; (iii) imaging
122 modality; (iv) type and measure of RNT; (v) technical details relating to imaging; (vi)
123 covariates; and (vii) brief summary of results. Data extraction was completed independently
124 by two researchers and forms reviewed for any discrepancies.

125

126 **3. Results**

127 *3.1. Study selection*

128 After removal of duplicates, title/abstract screening and full-text review, a total of 18 articles
129 investigating the association between RNT and brain morphology were included (Figure 1).

130 Inter-rater reliability was almost perfect at both stages of review (title/abstract: $\kappa = .840$ [95%
131 CI, 0.80 to 0.90], $p < .001$, 98.27%; full-text: $\kappa = .872$ [95% CI, 0.77 to 0.92], $p < .001$,
132 94.31%).

133

134 *3.2. Study characteristics*

135 The 18 articles reported findings from 24 studies, of which 17 (71%) investigated grey matter
136 (8 whole brain, 9 region of interest [ROI]) and 7 (29%) investigated white matter (4 whole
137 brain, 3 ROI). In total, 9 (38%) studies assessed worry severity and 15 (62%) assessed
138 rumination severity. The majority of studies assessed trait RNT ($N = 22$ [92%]). Further, the
139 choice of scales used to assess RNT was relatively homogenous across studies, with the Penn
140 State Worry Questionnaire ($N = 8$) and the Rumination Response Scale (Total score: $N = 7$;
141 Brooding sub-scale score: $N = 2$) most frequently utilised. It should be noted that three
142 studies reported data from overlapping participants (Hilbert and colleagues [2015]
143 investigated grey and white matter correlates in the same participants, and Wang and
144 colleagues [2015] and Qiao and colleagues [2013] appear to include participants from the
145 same large cohort study).

146

147 *3.3. Participant characteristics*

148 The mean age of participants ranged from 19.9 to 68.7 years (median 32.6 years). The
149 proportion of female participants ranged from 38% to 100% (median proportion female was

150 62%). Nine studies (38%) recruited participants from non-clinical populations, 8 studies
151 (33%) recruited participants from clinical populations and the remainder (29%) recruited
152 participants from both non-clinical and clinical populations.

153

154 The characteristics of the included studies are provided in Table 1 and their results
155 summarised in Table 2. Below we summarise study results organised according to whether
156 investigations were conducted in grey or white matter, and the brain regions implicated. In a
157 sub-group analysis we investigated whether the two major components of RNT (i.e. worry
158 and rumination) have distinct and/or overlapping neuroanatomical correlates. No consistent
159 or systematic differences emerged, therefore results are not differentiated and are discussed in
160 relation to RNT.

161

162 *3.4. Grey matter*

163 Associations between RNT severity and grey matter volume were most frequently reported in
164 prefrontal brain regions. Larger bilateral dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) volume was
165 associated with RNT severity in three independent non-clinical populations (Sin et al., 2018;
166 Wang et al., 2015). However, in a clinical population, RNT severity was associated with
167 smaller bilateral DLPFC volume (Wang et al., 2015). Consistent with these divergent
168 associations, RNT severity was associated with larger left ventral lateral prefrontal cortex
169 (VLPFC) volume in a non-clinical population (Qiao et al., 2013) and smaller right VLPFC
170 cortical volume in a clinical population (Lener et al., 2016). The latter association remained
171 when a sample of non-clinical participants were also included in the analysis (a within group
172 analysis in the non-clinical population was not conducted).

173

174 RNT severity was also associated with grey matter volumes in other prefrontal regions, albeit
175 less consistently. In two studies which included non-clinical populations, one reported larger
176 left medial frontal gyrus volume (Wang et al., 2018), while the other observed smaller
177 bilateral inferior frontal gyrus volume (Kuhn et al., 2012). Aligning with the latter finding, in
178 a mixed clinical/non-clinical population, higher RNT levels were associated with smaller
179 right supplementary motor cortex and right paracentral lobule volumes, however,
180 associations were not upheld in subsequent within group analyses (Hilbert et al., 2015). In a
181 separate mixed clinical/non-clinical population, RNT severity was associated with lower grey
182 matter mean diffusivity (i.e. greater structural integrity) in the left orbital frontal cortex
183 (OFC; Andreescu et al., 2011). Aligning with this finding, in another mixed clinical/non-
184 clinical population RNT severity was related to larger bilateral medial OFC volume
185 (Mohlman et al., 2009). However, in subsequent within group analyses RNT severity was
186 only associated with larger left mOFC volume in the clinical population. Likewise, Schienle
187 and colleagues (2011) investigated associations in clinical and non-clinical populations
188 separately but only observed an association between RNT severity and larger bilateral dorsal
189 medial prefrontal cortex volume in the clinical population.

190

191 Cingulate regions, particularly the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), were also frequently
192 associated with RNT. In two non-clinical populations opposing associations were observed;
193 Kühn and colleagues (2012) reported smaller bilateral mid cingulate cortex and left ACC
194 volumes, while Sin and colleagues (2018) reported larger bilateral ACC volume. In the latter
195 study, analyses were also conducted following participant assignment to either a low or high
196 RNT group (Sin et al., 2018). The high RNT group (with RNT levels akin to clinical
197 populations) had larger bilateral ACC volumes compared to the low RNT group. Supporting
198 this distinction between clinical and non-clinical RNT levels, Schienle and colleagues (2011)

199 observed a positive association between bilateral ACC volume and RNT severity in a clinical
200 population, but found no association in a non-clinical population with low levels of RNT. In a
201 study that included a mixed clinical/non-clinical population, RNT severity was associated
202 with smaller left rostral ACC cortical thickness but lower mean diffusivity (i.e. less
203 microstructural damage) in the left ACC, thus demonstrating discrepant results between grey
204 matter macro- and microstructural changes in the ACC (Andreescu et al., 2011). Similarly, in
205 another mixed clinical/non-clinical population, but not in subsequent within group analyses,
206 an association was observed between RNT severity and smaller left middle cingulate gyrus
207 volume (Hilbert et al., 2015).

208

209 Seven studies also reported associations between RNT severity and temporal grey matter
210 regions. In non-clinical populations, RNT severity was associated with smaller left
211 hippocampal volume (Ismaylova et al., 2018), and greater bilateral parahippocampal gyrus
212 (PHG) volume (Wang et al., 2015). Based on their findings, Wang and colleagues (2015)
213 then selected the PHG as a ROI in two independent populations (clinical and non-clinical),
214 and confirmed the positive association between RNT severity and bilateral PHG volume in
215 the non-clinical population only. RNT severity has also been associated with greater right
216 superior temporal gyrus (STG) volume in a clinical population (Machino et al., 2014).
217 However, in a mixed clinical/non-clinical population RNT severity was associated with
218 smaller left STG volume (Kim et al., 2019). This association extended bilaterally in the non-
219 clinical population only. In another mixed clinical/non-clinical population, RNT severity was
220 associated with smaller cortical thickness in the left transverse temporal gyri and left fusiform
221 gyri (Jin et al., 2019). However, despite a relatively large sample ($n = 216$) subsequent within
222 group analyses were not conducted.

223

224 RNT has also been associated with subcortical brain regions. Specifically, in a mixed
225 clinical/non-clinical population, but not in subsequent within group analyses, RNT severity
226 was associated with larger grey matter volumes in regions which comprise the basal ganglia
227 (i.e. the right striatum, left caudate nucleus and right putamen; Hilbert et al., 2015). However,
228 in a separate mixed clinical/non-clinical population, RNT severity was associated with
229 greater grey matter mean diffusivity (i.e. worse structural integrity) in the right putamen
230 (Andreescu et al., 2011).

231

232 *3.5 White matter*

233 Zuo and colleagues (2012) investigated associations between RNT severity and white matter
234 microstructure in both a clinical and a non-clinical population. They found that RNT severity
235 was associated with white matter microstructure alterations (i.e. lower fractional anisotropy
236 [FA], which is often considered a marker of worse integrity) in the left centre portion of the
237 superior longitudinal fasciculus (SLF) and neighbouring motor fibres in the clinical population
238 only (Zuo et al., 2012). Using the same methodology (i.e. Tract-Based Spatial Statistics
239 [TBSS]) Pisner and colleagues (2019) also reported white matter microstructure alterations in
240 the right SLF in two independent clinical populations. In these two populations, tractography,
241 a technique which offers greater specificity for labelling white matter pathways than TBSS,
242 confirmed the associations with the right SLF, in particular the portion of the SLF connecting
243 the middle/superior temporal gyrus with ipsilateral precentral/cingulo-opercular areas (Pisner
244 et al., 2019). Consistent with these findings, in another clinical sample, RNT severity was
245 associated with reduced axial diffusivity (i.e. worse axon and myelin sheath integrity) in the
246 left inferior frontal-occipital fasciculus (IFOF), a white matter tract that shares many
247 connections with the SLF (Bergamino et al., 2017). Only one study reported a positive

248 association between RNT severity and white matter integrity; this association was observed
249 in the right amygdala in a clinical population (Zhang et al., 2013).

250

251 In the only volumetric investigation of white matter, Hilbert and colleagues (2015) reported a
252 negative association between RNT severity and white matter volumes in the left DLPFC,
253 right precentral lobe and right cerebellum in a mixed clinical/non-clinical sample. Subsequent
254 within-group analyses, however, revealed distinct associations; RNT severity was associated
255 with reduced white matter volume in the bilateral cerebellum, right superior temporal lobe,
256 left hippocampus, and left parahippocampal cortex in the non-clinical population, and with
257 increased white matter volume in the left middle occipital lobe in the clinical population.

258

259 **4. Discussion**

260 The purpose of this systematic review was to synthesize empirical investigations of the
261 neuroanatomical correlates of RNT, which were operationalised in original studies as worry
262 or rumination. Across 24 studies, which used a variety of morphological neuroimaging
263 techniques, we found diverse and disparate evidence for associations between RNT and
264 regional structures. Although we were unable to reach specific conclusions about any one key
265 region, associations between RNT and grey matter volume in prefrontal and cingulate
266 regions, and altered white matter microstructure in the SLF were frequently reported.

267

268 Prefrontal regions play a central role in cognitive control (e.g. self-referential processing) and
269 the regulation of mood related behaviours (Dixon et al., 2017). For example, in clinical
270 disorders characterised by emotion dysregulation (e.g. major depressive disorder, generalised
271 anxiety disorder), meta-analyses have consistently reported structural and functional
272 alterations in prefrontal regions (e.g. Bora et al., 2012; Li et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2014).

273 Furthermore, research has implicated these alterations in the pathogenesis of emotional
274 dysregulation and the onset of clinical disorders (e.g. Bora et al., 2012; Etkin & Wager, 2007;
275 Koenigs & Grafman, 2009). Aligning with this literature, engagement of prefrontal regions
276 (together with the insula and cingulate) has recently been coupled with RNT (Makovac et al.,
277 2020). In the current review, RNT was frequently associated with structural alterations in
278 prefrontal regions (e.g. DLPFC, VLPFC, frontal gyrus, inferior frontal gyrus, mOFC and
279 dorsal medial prefrontal cortex). As also evident in studies that have investigated the
280 functional correlates of RNT, multiple brain areas were identified (largely comprised of
281 prefrontal regions), with intra-regional associations seldomly replicated across studies. RNT
282 involves an array of cognitive processes (e.g. self-referencing, past/future-projection,
283 perseveration), therefore, an alteration in anatomical structure or function of an area that
284 subtends any one of these processes may be associated with engagement in RNT, as was
285 observed here. In support of this interpretation, evidence suggests that different rumination
286 types (which likely involve specific cognitive and emotional processes) may have distinct
287 neural correlates (Mandell et al., 2014).

288

289 In the current review, associations between RNT and the DLPFC were reported most
290 frequently (in 25% of potential studies) and consistently (positive associations in 100% [N =
291 3] of non-clinical populations and a negative correlation in 100% [N =1] of clinical
292 populations). The DLPFC is largely involved in the regulation of effortful cognitive
293 operations and executive control. However, cognitive control functions mediated by the
294 DLPFC may also pertain to emotion, specifically the regulation of negative emotion through
295 reappraisal and suppression strategies (Koenigs & Grafman, 2009). Associations between
296 RNT severity and larger bilateral DLPFC volumes in non-clinical populations suggest that it
297 may be a reliable structural correlate of RNT in the absence of pathological levels (Sin et al.,

298 2018; Wang et al., 2015). However, in a clinical population RNT severity was associated
299 with smaller DLPFC volume (Wang et al., 2015). The latter finding, which aligns with
300 literature reporting smaller DLPFC volume across clinical disorders, suggests associations
301 between RNT and DLPFC volume may depend upon RNT severity. Similarly, we observed
302 the same pattern of divergent results between RNT severity and VLPFC volume (Lener et al.,
303 2016; Qiao et al., 2013) – a region closely coupled with the DLPFC. Taken together the
304 results are consistent with findings from the cognitive literature, which suggest that while
305 pathological levels of negative cognitive processes are associated with maladaptive
306 outcomes, moderate levels (in some circumstances) may be beneficial (e.g. Eysenck et al.,
307 2007).

308

309 Four studies also identified RNT relationships with ACC volume. Two studies reported larger
310 volumes (Schienle et al., 2011; Sin et al., 2018) and two reported smaller volumes
311 (Andreescu et al., 2011; Kuhn et al., 2012). Akin with prefrontal regions, the ACC is also
312 heavily involved in emotional processing, cognitive control and the regulation of autonomic
313 arousal (Bush et al., 2000; Carnevali et al., 2018), with reductions in ACC volume reported in
314 clinical disorders characterised by heightened RNT levels (e.g. Bora et al., 2012; Du et al.,
315 2012; Lai, 2013; Shang et al., 2014). Recently, ACC activation was found to distinguish
316 between RNT in clinical and non-clinical populations (Makovac et al., 2020), however, in the
317 current review this distinction was not observed on a structural level. The reason for these
318 heterogeneous findings are not apparent, however, previous discrepant results (e.g. with regard
319 to larger vs smaller regional grey matter volumes) have been attributed to factors such as
320 different comorbidity constellations, medication usage and illness duration (Bora et al.,
321 2012). Therefore, whilst RNT was frequently associated with the ACC, meaningful
322 interpretation is hampered by the inconsistency of the direction of associations. Further

323 studies are required to investigate the influences that may modulate the RNT-ACC
324 relationship.

325

326 The amygdala has a close functional relationship with both the DLPFC and ACC, and is
327 heavily involved in the visceral and behavioural expressions of emotion (Salzman & Fusi,
328 2010). This involvement likely underlies the reasoning behind the amygdala being chosen as
329 a ROI in 50% of studies that conducted ROI analyses. However, despite being the most
330 commonly chosen ROI, RNT severity was only associated with amygdala alterations in one
331 (4%) study, which reported increased FA in the white matter of the amygdala (Zhang et al.,
332 2013). Aligning with these (null) findings, analyses of functional neuroimaging
333 investigations of RNT also found little evidence for the involvement of the amygdala
334 (Makovac et al., 2020). Therefore, although the amygdala is heavily involved in emotion
335 regulation and meta-analyses have highlighted amygdala structural and functional
336 abnormalities in clinical populations (e.g. Bora et al., 2012), current evidence does not
337 support its involvement in RNT.

338

339 A more consistent picture emerged from the studies that examined RNT relationships with
340 white matter microstructure. Specifically, in three independent studies which used whole
341 brain analysis techniques to investigate associations in clinical populations, RNT severity
342 was associated with lower white matter FA in the SLF – a pivotal bidirectional white matter
343 tract connecting large parts of the frontal cortex with parietal, temporal and limbic circuits
344 (Pisner et al., 2019; Zuo et al., 2012). Findings observed here align with a meta-analysis
345 reporting decreased FA values in the SLF in clinical populations (e.g. major depressive
346 disorder) compared to non-clinical populations, and also with more severe symptoms and
347 longer illness duration (Murphy & Frodl, 2011). Furthermore, the SLF and IFOF (a white

348 matter tract that was also associated with RNT severity [Bergamino et al., 2017]) have been
349 identified as transdiagnostic white matter biomarkers across emotional disorders (Jenkins et
350 al., 2016). Tying these findings to the grey matter results, the SLF and IFOF have strong
351 connections with the prefrontal cortex, thus degradation of these white matter tracts would
352 inevitably vitiate the prefrontal cortex's mediating role in negative self-referential regulation.
353 Studies investigating both grey matter volume and white matter microstructure within the
354 same models are required to elucidate the relationship between grey and white matter and
355 RNT severity.

356

357 It is important to emphasise that RNT was also associated with other brain regions, spanning
358 cortical and subcortical areas. Associations with these regions, however, were reported less
359 frequently and consistently. Diverging and inconsistent results could reflect biological
360 variables (e.g. percentage of females – females report higher RNT levels and there is
361 emerging evidence for sex-dependent neuroanatomical correlates (Carlson et al., 2015)),
362 and/or psychopathological factors (e.g. medication effects –antidepressant treatment can
363 facilitate the generation of new neurons (Micheli et al., 2018)). Further, methodological
364 differences (e.g. image acquisition parameters, post-acquisition processing) are also likely to
365 contribute to inconsistencies. Indeed, in several studies results varied depending on whether
366 RNT was treated as a continuous or dichotomous variable and the post-acquisition processing
367 technique utilised (e.g. Pisner et al., 2019; Sin et al., 2018) . Finally, ROI analyses were
368 conducted in 50% of studies, and may have inflated the significance of certain brain regions
369 (Müller et al., 2018). However, due to inconsistent reporting and study heterogeneity, we
370 were unable to assess the potential influence of these factors.

371

372 Despite study inconsistencies, associations between RNT severity and brain morphology
373 were frequently reported in young (non-clinical) adults. These findings likely indicate brain
374 developmental differences rather than atrophy. Only two studies included in the review
375 involved older adults. Despite both including similar populations (mixed clinical/non-
376 clinical), one reported positive associations between RNT severity and regional grey matter
377 volumes (e.g. bilateral mOFC), and the other a negative association with cortical thickness in
378 the left rostral ACC (Andreescu et al., 2011; Mohlman et al., 2009). As RNT has recently
379 been associated with markers of Alzheimer's disease, an age-related disease, it is imperative
380 that more research is conducted in older adults (Marchant et al., 2020).

381

382 RNT encompasses a wide range of higher order processes that include emotional and
383 cognitive control. It is unlikely that a single structure would capture all these behaviours,
384 rather RNT may be mediated by distributed brain regions operating within a large-scale
385 network(s). Indeed, the default mode network (DMN), a network of brain areas that form an
386 integrated system for self-referential activities, was recently implicated in the neural
387 conceptualisation of RNT (Makovac et al., 2020). Whilst in the current review associations
388 were consistently observed between RNT and the SLF (a white matter tract which connects
389 key brain regions in the DMN), associations were not observed with core brain regions
390 belonging to the DMN (i.e. medial prefrontal cortex, posterior cingulate cortex and angular
391 gyrus). Future studies utilising brain structural connectivity techniques (e.g. He et al., 2007)
392 are needed to help elucidate whether RNT is associated with anatomic connectivity in large-
393 scale networks.

394

395 The mechanisms underpinning associations between RNT and brain morphology have
396 received little attention. However, we might appeal to theories like the Perseverative

397 Cognition Hypothesis, which holds that engagement in RNT can lead to a prolonged stress
398 response (e.g. chronic activation of the hypothalamic pituitary adrenal system; Brosschot et
399 al., 2006). Heightened exposure to increased cortisol has the potential to negatively affect
400 both grey matter structure and myelination patterns (Echouffo-Tcheugui et al., 2018), and
401 thus may underlie the association between RNT severity and smaller volumes/altered white
402 matter microstructure observed in some regions. However, a heightened stress response has
403 also been associated with increased inflammation, which can lead to expansion of brain
404 regions (Szymkowicz et al., 2016), and may therefore also explain why in some instances
405 RNT is associated with larger grey matter volumes. An alternative explanation may reflect
406 chronic activation related to reduced functioning efficiency (Sin et al., 2018). For example,
407 among individuals with elevated RNT levels, certain regions may be recruited to greater
408 extents to compensate for inefficiencies. Greater engagement (i.e. ‘overload state’ function)
409 may gradually cause a use-dependent increase in regional volume (Wang et al., 2015).
410 However, failure to engage in effective compensatory processes, may result in greater
411 affective dysregulation (i.e. ‘paralysis state’ function) and more negative affective states,
412 coupled with reduced volume, as generally observed in clinical disorders (Sin et al., 2018).
413 Longitudinal investigations that track patients from disease onset and prospective studies of
414 healthy adults and individuals at-risk for clinical disorders are needed to help elucidate the
415 underpinning mechanism(s) that may underlie the associations between RNT and brain
416 morphometry.

417

418 *4.1. Limitations*

419 This review is subject to several limitations. Guidelines suggest that at least 20 studies using
420 whole-brain analysis techniques are needed for a meta-analysis to achieve sufficient power to
421 detect moderate effects (Eickhoff et al., 2009). Only twelve studies included in the current

422 review conducted whole-brain analyses; a meta-analysis was therefore not appropriate.
423 However, given the heterogeneity observed from the narrative synthesis, it is unlikely that a
424 meta-analysis would have aided interpretation of findings.
425

426 It is important to also critically consider the studies included in this review, and the
427 implications that this nascent evidence base has for future research. The cross-sectional
428 design of the studies means that causal relationships cannot be established. Furthermore,
429 although structural imaging studies are not susceptible to experimental or design flexibility,
430 analytical heterogeneity plays a major role (i.e. causing larger differences in the results of
431 individual studies than could be expected to occur from chance alone). Studies often
432 performed a large number of correlations between multiple measures and various brain
433 regions without correcting for multiple comparisons, thus increasing the risk of false positive
434 results and potentially biasing findings both within and across studies. A substantial number
435 of studies also treated clinical and non-clinical populations as a homogenous group (i.e.
436 conducting analyses in mixed clinical/non-clinical samples). Whilst combining clinical and
437 non-clinical populations increases power to detect effects, especially in the presence of small
438 samples sizes, opposing associations between RNT and brain structures were reported in
439 many studies that conducted within group analyses. Additionally, only four (17%) studies
440 adjusted for levels/presence of anxiety or depression in their analyses. Whilst RNT severity
441 and symptoms of anxiety and depression are highly correlated (McEvoy et al., 2019),
442 evidence suggests that RNT is a distinct construct and may therefore have a unique
443 neuroanatomical basis. For example, in a study which assessed both RNT and clinical
444 severity (i.e. levels of anxiety/depression and illness duration), RNT was uniquely associated
445 with mOFC volume (Mohlman et al., 2009). Additional studies controlling for confounding

446 variables, such as anxiety and depression, are needed help to discern the underlying
447 neuroanatomical basis of RNT.

448

449 *4.2. Conclusion*

450 In summary, we found evidence that RNT severity is associated with brain morphometry.
451 Associations with the DLPFC, ACC and SLF were reported most frequently. Inconsistent
452 associations prevent us from reaching specific conclusions about any one region's association
453 with RNT, and may point towards a more distributed underlying structural architecture.
454 Future studies investigating grey and white matter correlates of both subcomponents of RNT
455 have the potential to advance our understanding of the structural network of RNT and allow
456 any associations unique to either worry or rumination to be revealed.

457

458

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463

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465

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Figure 1 PRISMA flow diagram outlining the systematic review process.

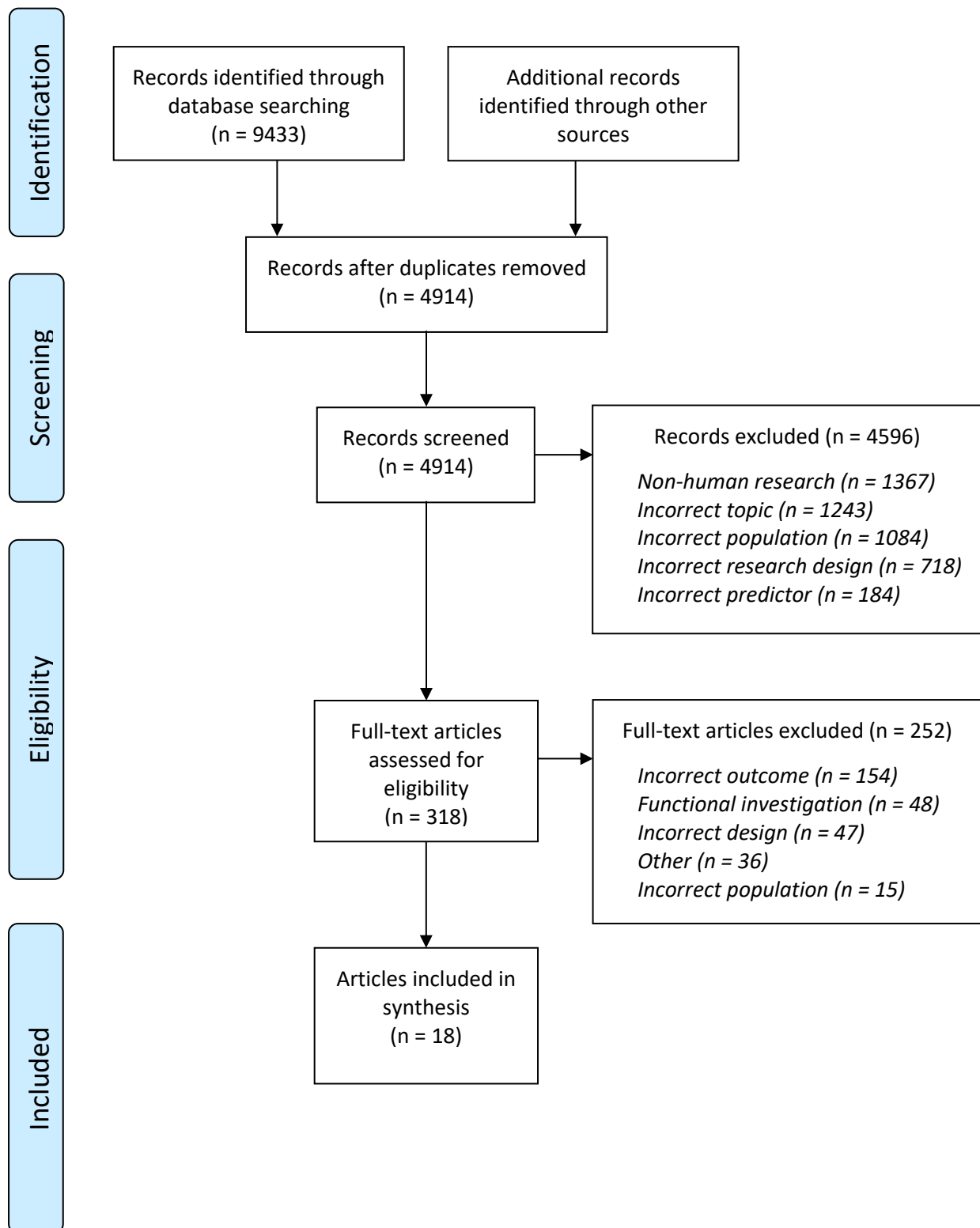


Table 1 Overview of studies included in the systematic review.

Author, year	Population	Sample size	Age (SD)	Females (%)	RNT type (measure)	Scanner/ FWHM	Covariates [†]	Statistical analysis: p-value correction
Grey Matter – whole brain								
Andreescu et al., 2011	Mixed clinical (GAD) & non-clinical	59	68.73 (7.20)	61.02	Worry (PSWQ)	nr/nr	Age	Correlation: $p < .05$ FDR corr.
Hilbert et al., 2015	Total	43	32.79 (9.05)	76.74	Worry (PSWQ)	3T/8mm	Age, tTV	Regression: $p < .001$ uncorr. & $p < .05$ FWE corr.
	Clinical (GAD)	19	33.47 (8.90)	84.21				
	Non-clinical	24	32.25 (9.33)	70.83				
Ismaylova et al., 2018	Non-clinical	42	33.95 (1.15)	54.76	Rumination (modified-RRS)	3T/8mm	-	Regression: $p < .001$ uncorr. & $p < .05$ FWE corr.
Jin et al., 2019	Mixed clinical (PTSD) & non-clinical	216	45.67 (13.45)	66.67	Rumination (RRS)	1.5T/nr	Age	Partial correlation: $p < .05$ corr. (1000 bootstrapped samples)
Kühn et al., 2012	Non-clinical	38	21.30 (nr)	73.68	Rumination (RRS)	3T/12mm	Age, sex, tBV, BDI	Correlation: $p < .05$ FWE corr.
Lener et al., 2016	Mixed clinical (MDD) & non-clinical	86	39.50 (12.07)	52.33	Worry (VAS-worry)	3T/nr	-	Correlation: $p < .05$ FDR corr.

	Clinical (MDD)	57	40.27 (12.28)	50.88				
Machino et al., 2014	Clinical (TRD)	29	39.57 (8.29)	44.83	Rumination (RSQ)	1.5T/8mm	Age, sex, medication load score, tBV	Regression: $p < .001$ uncorr.
Wang et al., 2015	Non-clinical	306	19.92 (1.22)	52.29	Rumination (SRRS)	3T/10mm	Age, sex, tGMV	Regression: $p < .05$ FWE corr.
Grey Matter – region of interest								
	Total	68	30.00 (7.16)	45.59			Age, sex, education, antipsychotic dosage, status of medication use, duration of illness, TIV, voxel size	Partial correlation: $p < 0.05$ corr. (bootstrapping with 5000 replications)
Kim et al., 2019	Clinical (FEP)	34	28.35 (7.26)	52.94	Rumination (RRS)	3T/nr		
	Non-clinical	34	31.65 (6.76)	38.24			Age, sex, education, TIV, voxel size	
Mohlman et al., 2009	Total	30	67.87 (5.39)	50.00	Worry (PSWQ)	1.5T/nr	Age, hypertension,	Partial correlation: $p < .005$ <i>bonf</i> corr.
	Clinical (GAD)	15	67.39 (5.42)	40.00				
	Non-clinical	15	67.50 (4.94)	60.00				

							presence of GAD, WBV	Regression: $p < .05$ uncorr.
Qiao et al., 2013	Non-clinical	235	20.16 (1.35)	55.32	Rumination (RRS-10)	3T/10mm	Age, sex, general intelligence, tGMV	Partial correlation: $p < .001$ uncorr.
Schienze et al., 2011	Clinical (GAD)	16	22.90 (4.10)	100.00	Worry (PSWQ)	3T/12mm	tGMV	Correlation: $p < .05$ FWE corr.
	Non-clinical	15	23.7 (3.70)	100.00				
Sin et al., 2018	Non-clinical	30	31.77 (6.84)	63.33	Rumination (RRS-brooding)	3T/8mm	Age, sex, TIV, RRS-reflection	Regression: $p < .001$ uncorr. & $p < .05$ FWE corr.
Wang et al., 2015	Clinical (MDD)	60	36.07 (11.57)	71.67	Rumination (SRRS)	3T/10mm	Age, sex, education, tGMV	Partial correlation: $p < .05$ FWE corr.
	Non-clinical	63	32.40 (11.95)	50.79				
Wang et al., 2018	Non-clinical	82	21.03 (1.90)	60.98	Rumination (ARS)	3T/10mm	Age, sex, tGMV	Regression: $p < .05$ cluster level corr.
White Matter – whole brain								
Bergamino et al., 2017	Clinical (MDD)	26	37.00 (11.00)	100.00	Worry (PSWQ)	3T/nr	-	Regression: $p < .05$ FWE corr.
Hilbert et al., 2015	Total	43	32.79 (9.05)	76.74	Worry (PSWQ)	3T/8mm	Age, tTV	
	Clinical (GAD)	19	33.47 (8.90)	84.21				

	Non-clinical	24	32.25 (9.33)	70.83				Regression: $p < .001$ uncorr. & $p < .05$ FWE corr.
Pisner et al., 2019	Clinical (MDD)	51	28.71 (9.76)	56.86	Rumination (RRS-brooding)	3T/6mm	Age, sex	Regression: $p < .05$ FWE corr. for TBSS analyses / $p < .01$ FDR corr. & <i>bonf</i> corr. for tractography analyses
		46	31.02 (6.07)	67.38				
White Matter – region of interest								
Zhang et al., 2013	Clinical (GAD)	16	30.38 (8.35)	43.75	Worry (PSWQ)	1.5T/6mm	-	Correlation: $p < .05$ svc corr.
Zuo et al., 2012	Clinical (MDD)	16	37.00 (9.40)	81.25	Rumination (RRS-21-total)	1.5T/nr	Age, sex, HAM- D	Correlation: $p < .05$ uncorr. & $p < .0125$ <i>bonf</i> corr.
					Rumination (RRS-21- brooding)			
	Non-clinical	19	36.60 (7.7)	63.16	Rumination (RRS-21- brooding)			

[†] The highest level of covariates included in analyses.

Abbreviations: ARS, Anger Rumination Scale; BDI, Becks Depression Inventory; *bonf*, Bonferroni; corr., correction; FDR, false discovery rate; FEP; first episode psychosis; FWE, familiar wise error; FWHM, full width half maximum; GAD, generalised anxiety disorder; HAM-D, Hamilton Depression Rating Scale; HC, healthy control; MDD, major depressive disorder; nc, not clear; nr, not reported; PSWQ, Penn State Worry Questionnaire; PTSD, post-traumatic stress disorder; RNT, repetitive negative thinking; RRS, Rumination Response Scale; RRS-10, Rumination Response Scale 10-item; RRS-21, Rumination Response Scale 21-item; RSQ, Response Style Questionnaire; SD, standard deviation; SRRS, Short Ruminative Responses Scale; svc, small volume correction; tBV, total brain volume; tGMV, total grey mater volume; TIV, total intercranial volume; tTV, total tissue volume; TRD, treatment resistant depression; uncorr., uncorrected; VAS-worry, Visual Analogue Scale-Worry; WBV, whole brain volume.

Table 2 Summary of main results from included studies.

Author, year	Brain analysis methods	Regions of interest	Population	Brief summary of main findings in relation to RNT severity [†] (*corrected for multiple comparisons - regions surviving correction are in bold)
Grey Matter – whole brain				
Andreescu et al., 2011	GM: MD & CT	-	Mixed clinical (GAD)/non-clinical	*Reduced MD in left OFC (r = -0.38) & left ACC (r = -0.36). Increased MD in right putamen (r = 0.35). Reduced CT in left rostral ACC (r = -0.30).
Hilbert et al., 2015	GM: VBM	-	Total	*Increased GMV in right striatum , left caudate nucleus & right putamen. Reduced GMV in right SMA , left MCC & right paracentral lobule.
			Clinical (GAD)	*No associations.
			Non-clinical	*No associations.
Ismaylova et al., 2018	GM: VBM	-	Non-clinical	*Reduced GMV in left hippocampus (r = -0.58).
Jin et al., 2019	GM: SBM	-	Mixed clinical (PTSD)/non-clinical	*Reduced CT in left fusiform gyrus (r = -0.16) & left transverse temporal gyri (r = -0.20).
Kühn et al., 2012	GM: VBM	-	Non-clinical	*Reduced GMV in bilateral IFG , left ACC & bilateral mCC .

Lener et al., 2016	GM: CV	-	Mixed clinical (MDD)/non-clinical	*Reduced CV in right VLPFC ($r = -0.43$).
			Clinical (MDD)	*Reduced CV in right VLPFC ($r = -0.39$).
Machino et al., 2014	GM: VBM	-	Clinical (TRD)	Increased GMV in right STG ($r = 0.55$).
Wang et al., 2015	GM: VBM	-	Non-clinical	*Increased GMV in bilateral DLPFC & bilateral PHG .
Grey Matter – region of interest				
Kim et al., 2019	GM: VBM	Bilateral: amygdala, hippocampus, STG & left hippocampal gyrus	Total	*Reduced GMV: left STG ($r = -0.37$).
			Clinical (FEP)	*No association.
			Non-clinical	*Reduced GMV in left STG ($r = -0.51$) & right STG ($r = -0.42$).
Mohlman et al., 2009	GM: VBM	Bilateral: amygdala, DLPFC, mOFC	Total	*Increased GMV in left mOFC ($r = 0.58$), right mOFC ($r = 0.55$). mOFC also a significant predictor of worry in regression model.
			Clinical (GAD)	*Increased GMV in left mOFC ($r = 0.87$).
			Non-clinical	*No associations.
Qiao et al., 2013	GM: VBM	Left VLPFC	Non-clinical	Increased GMV in left VLPFC ($r = 0.23$).
	GM: VBM		Clinical (GAD)	*Increased GMV in bilateral ACC & bilateral DMPFC .

Schienle et al., 2010		Bilateral: ACC, amygdala, DMPFC, insula, VLPFC, VMPFC	Non-clinical	*No associations.
Sin et al., 2018	GM: VBM	Bilateral: ACC, DLPFC	Non-clinical	*Increased GMV in bilateral ACC & bilateral DLPFC .
Wang et al., 2015	GM: VBM	Bilateral: DLPFC, PHG	Clinical (MDD) Non-clinical	*Reduced GMV in bilateral DLPFC (r = -0.31). *Increased GMV in bilateral DLPFC (r = 0.24) & bilateral PHG (r = 0.26).
Wang et al., 2018	GM: VBM	Bilateral: amygdala, PFC, thalamus	Non-clinical	*Increased GMV in left MFG (r = 0.49).
White Matter – whole brain				
Bergamino et al., 2017	WM: AD	-	Clinical (MDD)	*Reduced AD in left IFOF (r = -0.88 to -0.92) [†]
			Total	*Reduced WMV in left DLPFC, right cerebellum & right precentral lobe.
Hilbert et al., 2015	WM: VBM	-	Clinical (GAD)	*Increased WMV in left middle occipital lobe .
			Non-clinical	*Reduced WMV in right superior temporal lobe, left hippocampus, bilateral cerebellum & left parahippocampal cortex.

Pisner et al., 2019	WM: FA	-	Clinical (MDD)	*Reduced FA in large clusters of the right SLF (SLF, parietal & temporal parts) & smaller clusters of the cingulum, right posterior corpus callosum & corticospinal tract when using TBSS. Reduced FA: right SLF-T when using tractography (survived <i>bonf</i> corr. but not FDR corr.)
			Clinical (MDD)	*Reduced FA in large clusters of the right SLF (SLF, parietal & temporal parts) & smaller clusters of the cingulum, right posterior corpus callosum & corticospinal tract when using TBSS. Reduced FA in right SLF-T when using tractography (survived <i>bonf</i> corr. but not FDR corr.)

White Matter – region of interest

Zhang et al., 2013	WM: FA	Bilateral: amygdala, caudal ACC/mCC & ventral ACC	Clinical (GAD)	*Increased FA in right amygdala (r = 0.65).
			Clinical (MDD)	*Reduced FA in left centre portion of the SLF (RRS-total: r = -0.70 & RRS-brooding: r = -0.48 [association with RRS-brooding did not survive correction]).
Zuo et al., 2012	WM: FA	Left centre portion of the SLF & premotor area	Non-clinical	*No associations.

† Results have been summarised following the highest level of correction and when available correlation coefficients have been reported.

‡ Results varied depending on which skeletonized voxel-wise analysis approach and fitting procedure was used.

Abbreviations: ACC, anterior cingulate cortex; AD, axial diffusivity; CT, cortical thickness; CV, Cortical volume; DLPFC, dorsolateral prefrontal cortex; DMPFC, dorsal medial prefrontal cortex; FA, fractional anisotropy; FEP, first episode psychosis; GAD, generalised anxiety disorder; GM, grey matter; GMV, grey matter volume; HC, healthy control; IFG, inferior frontal gyrus; IFOF, inferior frontal-occipital fasciculus; mCC, mid cingulate cortex; MCC, middle cingulate gyrus; MD, mean diffusivity; MDD, major depressive disorder; mOFC, medial orbital frontal cortex; MFG, medial frontal gyrus; PFC, prefrontal cortex; PHG, para-hippocampal gyrus; PTSD, post-traumatic stress disorder; SLF, superior longitudinal fasciculus; SBM, surface-based morphometry; SMA, supplementary motor area; STG, superior temporal gyrus; TRD, treatment resistant depression; VBM, voxel-based morphometry; VLPFC, ventral lateral prefrontal cortex; VMPFC, ventral medial prefrontal cortex; WM, white matter; WMV, white matter volume.

Appendix A Overview of search terms.

	Search terms [†]
RNT	“reflective thinking” OR “perseverative thinking” OR “intrusive thinking” OR “negative thinking” OR “self referential thinking” OR “obsess* thinking” OR “reflective thought*” OR “perseverative thought*” OR “repetitive thought*” OR “repetitive thinking” OR “intrusive thought*” OR “negative thought*” OR “self referential thought*” OR “stressful thought*” OR “stressful thinking” OR “obsess* thought*” OR “perseverative cognition” OR brood* OR ruminat* OR worry* OR “unconscious stress*” OR “anticipat* stress*” OR “implicit stress*” OR “cognitive intrusion” OR “repetitive negative thinking” OR “repetitive negative thought*” OR “recurrent thinking”. <i>ti, ab, id.</i>
Neuroimaging	connectivity OR MRSI OR “H MRS” OR spectroscopy OR DTI OR “diffusion tensor imag*” OR PWI OR “perfusion weighted imag*” OR PET OR “positron emission tomography” OR SPECT OR “single photon emission computerised tomography” OR “functional magnetic resonance” OR fMRI OR MRI OR “magnetic resonance imaging” OR sMRI OR MRS OR “single photon emission computerized tomography” OR metabol* OR “nuclear magnetic resonance” OR NMR OR neuroimag* OR “brain imag*”. <i>ti, ab, id.</i>

[†] Search terms were marginally edited for each database to account for specific requirements of different databases.

Abbreviations: ab = abstract; id = key concepts; RNT = repetitive negative thinking; ti = title; * = truncation wildcard (i.e. finds all terms beginning with this string of text).